

**A STUDY OF THE PSYCHOSOCIAL CORRELATES
OF SELF IDENTITY IN ADOLESCENTS**

**UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS RESEARCH
PROJECT**

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PREFACE

Every human being always tries to balance between resources and demands so as to cherish a beautiful life. Throughout an individual's life there are different crisis or struggle points, unique to each period which one has to overcome. Adolescence as a developmental phase is also unique in this respect. The varied demands they face, predispose them to different vulnerabilities and cognitive distortions. They are constantly struggling between identity formation and identity crisis with different phases interspersed between them. Adolescents in the period of storm and stress try to establish themselves like adults in every avenue of life yet retain some of the immaturities of previous years. It is therefore essential to probe into the etiological dynamics of self identity at this significant stage of adolescence. The present study has felt the need to draw a comparative profile between early and late adolescents in terms of body image, personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation as the psychosocial correlates of self identity.

Chapter 1 highlights the concept and related dimensions of self identity, along with the conceptual aspects of body image, personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation.

A literature survey covering different facets of the life of adolescents and the selected variables of the study is highlighted in Chapter 2.

The methodological plan and procedural details adopted for the present research work has been outlined in Chapter 3.

Chapter 4 highlights the results section. It depicts age difference and gender difference with respect to self identity, body image, personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation. Correlational analysis for the entire sample is also provided.

Chapter 5 provides the necessary, relevant and logical explanations to the hypotheses of the present study along with supportive research evidences.

The conclusions of the study along with limitations, originality of the present work and areas of further research are described in Chapter 6.

The following section provides the bibliography of books, journals, e-journals, articles and dissertations in alphabetical order. Last, but not the least, at the end, a set of Appendices has been supplemented.

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CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Life changes its folds from positivity to accommodate the other concrete sources of displeasure also within its realm in the subsequent phases of life. Adolescence has its own crisis points and growth points that need effort to overcome it. To most it is a period of storm and stress. According to **Hann (1981)**, early adolescence has marks of more assimilation while later phase is mostly embraced by accommodation. Early Adolescence extends roughly from thirteen to sixteen or seventeen years and late adolescence covers the period from then until eighteen, the age of legal maturity. Early adolescents are usually referred to as the ‘teens’, and the late adolescents as ‘youths’. In general, adolescence is a launching phase of striving for self sufficiency.

1.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERIOD OF ADOLESCENCE:

- ❖ It is a Transitional Period
- ❖ It is a Period of Change
- ❖ It is a Problem Age
- ❖ It is the Time of Search for Identity
- ❖ It is the Time of Unrealism
- ❖ It is the Threshold of Adulthood

Other than these above mentioned general characteristics of adolescence, various research investigations have revealed specific findings with respect to this period of storm and stress, in both the Indian and International set ups. These findings are mentioned below:-

- Research findings increasingly suggest that hallmark achievements of adolescence, such as identity and autonomy, “are most easily established not at the expense of attachment relationships with parents, but against a backdrop of secure relationships that are likely to endure beyond adolescence” (**Allen and Land, 1999**).
- Similarly, adaptations in relationships themselves enhance rather than threaten, the psychosocial achievements of the adolescent years.
- The Indian adolescents spend twice as much time talking with their families (**Larson, Verma, Dworkin, in press**).

- **Kakar (1978)** reported that strong emotional interdependency with family continues into adulthood, particularly with mothers.
- **Seymour (1999)** concluded that the self in Indian society is defined not through differentiation from other but through interdependence with them. One's worth as a person, she concluded is defined through the development of a "we-self".
- The psychic task of Indian adolescents is not to become separate but to reduce separation – to work on strengthening emotional bonds and overcoming impulses that create differentiation.

1.2 CONCEPT OF SELF IDENTITY

How does a sense of self develop? One of the most influential theories of how the self develops was put forth by **Erikson (1963)**, who argued for a stage theory of ego development. He maintained that although identity formation is a lifelong task (**Whitborne, Zuschlag, Elliot, & Waterman, 1992**), it is of critical importance during adolescence and young adulthood. The sense of self begins in infancy with the recognition that one is a separate individual (**Butterworth, 1992**). Very young children have fairly clear concepts of their personal qualities and what they do or don't do well. Moreover, many changes occur in middle and late adulthood that may influence the self-conceptions that people hold. Development of a personal sense of self is a lifelong process that begins in childhood and never truly ends.

Adolescents' well organized self descriptions and differentiated sense of self esteem provide the cognitive foundation of forming identity. This was first recognized by **Erikson (1950, 1968)** as a major personality achievement and a crucial step towards becoming a productive, content adult. Constructing an identity involves defining "who you are, what you value and the directions you choose to pursue in life." **Erikson (1963)** believed that the goal of this process is "the ability to experience one's self as something that has continuity and sameness, and to act accordingly" According to **Erikson (1950, 1968)**, in complex societies, teenagers experience an **identity crisis**- a temporary period of distress as they experiment with alternatives before settling on values and goals. Those who go through a process of inner soul-

searching eventually arrive at a mature identity. Once formed, identity continues to be refined throughout life as people reevaluate earlier commitments and choices. Although identity development is traumatic and disturbing for some young people, for most it is not. **Exploration** followed by **Commitment** better describes the typical experience. Young people gradually try out life possibilities, gathering important information about themselves and their environment and sorting through that information for the purpose of making enduring decisions. In the process, they forge an organized self structure (Arnett, 2000a). The negative outcomes of adolescence is **identity confusion**. Some young people appear shallow and directionless, either because earlier conflicts have been resolved negatively or because society restricts their choices to ones that do not match their abilities and desires. As a result, they are unprepared for the psychological challenges of adulthood. Researchers evaluate progress in identity development on two key criteria that is exploration and commitment. Their various combinations yield four identity statuses:-

- **Identity achievement**- Commitment to values, beliefs ,goals following a period of exploration. Individuals feel a sense of psychological well being, of sameness through time and of knowing where they are going.
- **Identity moratorium**- Exploration without having reached commitment. This implies delay or holding pattern. They are in the process of exploring and gathering information, trying out activities with the desire to find values and goals to guide their lives.
- **Identity foreclosure**- Commitment in the absence of exploration. They accept a ready-made identity that authority figures have chosen for them.
- **Identity diffusion**- An apathetic state characterized by lack of both exploration and commitment. They lack clear direction. They may never have

explored alternatives or may have found the task too threatening and overwhelming.

Identity development follows many paths. Some young people remain in one status, whereas others experience many status transitions. The pattern varies across identity domains. The number of domains explored and the intensity with which they are examined vary widely, depending on the contexts young people want to enter and the importance they attach to them. Almost all grapple with work, close relationships and family. Others add political, religious, community and leisure-time commitments, some of which are more central to their identity than others (**Berk, 2007**). Adolescents of both sexes typically make progress on identity concerns before experiencing genuine intimacy in relationships (**Kroger, 2000**). A wealth of research supports the conclusion that identity achievement and moratorium are psychologically healthy routes to a mature self definition whereas long term foreclosure and diffusion are maladaptive. Young people who are identity achieved or actively exploring have a higher sense of self esteem, are more likely to engage in abstract and critical thinking, report greater similarity between their ideal self and real self, and are more advanced in moral reasoning (**Josselson, 1994**). Although adolescents in moratorium are often anxious about the challenges that lie before them, they join with identity achieved individuals in using an autonomous, information-gathering style when making decisions and solving problems (**Berzonsky and Kuk, 2000**). Adolescents who get stuck in either foreclosure or diffusion have adjustment difficulties. Foreclosed individuals tend to be dogmatic, inflexible and intolerant. Some regard any difference of opinion as a threat (**Kroger, 1995**). Most fear rejection by people on whom they depend for affection and self esteem. Persistently diffused teenagers are the least mature in identity development. They typically entrust themselves to luck or fate and tend to go along with whatever the “crowd” is doing. As a result they often experience time management and academic difficulties (**Berzonsky and Kuk, 2000**). Often at the heart of their apathy

and impulsiveness is a sense of hopelessness about the future (**Archer and Waterman, 1990**).

During the sexual changes of puberty, issues of gender identity and sexual identity become especially relevant. These two forms of identity overlap somewhat. **Gender identity** refers to what it means to be male or female, which is linked to sexual expression, but also concerns broader issues of masculinity and femininity.

Gender role socialization becomes very intense during adolescence. In early adolescence in males and females (and important adults in their lives) are often especially vigilant to ensure gender role conformity (**Steinberg & Morris, 2001**). (THE FRAMING OF SENTENCE DOESN'T APPEAR CORRECT). Expectations about appropriate forms of identity expression for males and females appear to become more flexible in late adolescence. **Sexual identity** is a matter of forming an enduring recognition of the meaning of one's sexual feelings, attractions, and behaviors (**Savin-Williams, 1998**). This often takes the form of labeling one's sexual orientation, an aspect of identity that is especially salient for many of today's teens. However, for many adolescents who are not members of sexual minorities, sexual identity development remains largely an unconscious process (**Savin-Williams, 1998**). Overall, issues of sexual, ethnic, and general identity intensify as children make the transition into adolescence. Although sexual identity exploration is critical in adolescence, it can also occur or re-occur in adulthood, especially if it was inadequately explored during adolescence.

Social identity is the “part of an individual’s self concept which derives from (his or her) membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (**Tajfel, 1981; Turner, Penelope, Haslam and McGarty, 1994**).

Social groups include one’s family and other personal relationships; one’s work, one’s religious, political, ethnic, or community group. And other groups that highlight or reinforce important aspects of self (**Deaux, Reid, Mizarhi and Ethier, 1995**). In childhood, the groups in which one participates often occur as a part of

socialization. One is born into a particular family, a particular ethnic group and sometimes a particular religious group. As one gets older, the attributes one values in oneself leads one to choose social groups that reflect and reinforce those values. Self-concept and social identity mutually determine and shape each other (Bettencourt and Dorr, 1977; Luhtanen and Crocker , 1992).

Much of the research on social identity has focused specifically on **ethnic identity**. Ethnic identity is the part of an individual's self knowledge that concerns his or her membership in a particular ethnic group. Developing a sense of self can raise particular issues for minority group members. In a review of research on ethnic identity, **Phinney (1991)** found that a strong ethnic identity is typically related to high self esteem, but only when accompanied by a positive mainstream orientation (**Sanchez and Fernandez, 1993**). Amongst individuals who hold a strong ethnic identity without some adaptation to the main stream culture, self esteem can be more problematic. Similarly, other research suggests that individuals may be able to gain competence within two cultures without losing cultural identity and without having to choose one culture over another. This notion of **bicultural competence** has been related to successful functioning in both one's culture of origin and the new culture (**LaFromboise , Coleman and Gerton, 1993**).

1.2.1 ASSOCIATED DIMENSIONS OF SELF

The set of beliefs we hold about who we are is called the **self-concept**. Often one has a clear idea of who one is, whereas at other times one holds self-doubts and confusion and one feels one is buffeted by external pressures and evaluations by others. This distinction refers to self-concept clarity and a sense of self that is clearly and confidently defined, providing a coherent sense of direction (**Kernis, Paradise, Whitaker, Wheatman, & Goldman, 2000**).

Self-esteem is the evaluation one makes of oneself. That is, one is concerned not only with what one is like but also with how one values these qualities. People with high esteem have a clear sense of what their personal qualities are. They think well

of themselves, set appropriate goals, use feed back in a self-enhancing manner, savor their positive experiences (**Wood, Heimpel, & Michela, 2003**), and cope successfully with difficult situations.

People with low self-esteem, on the other hand, have less clear self-conceptions, think poorly of themselves, often select unrealistic goals or shy away from altogether tend to be pessimistic about the future remember their past more negatively, wallow in their negative moods (**Heimpel, Wood, Marshall, & Brown, 2002**), have more adverse emotional and behavioral reactions to criticism or other kinds of personal negative feedback, are less able to generate positive feedback for themselves, are more concerned about their social impact on other people, and are more vulnerable to depression or rumination when they encounter setbacks or stress.

Two dimensions that are central to self-esteem are self-competence and self-liking, that is, evaluations of oneself as capable and personal fondness for the self (**Tafarodi, Marshall, & Milne, 2003**). The importance and value one attaches to these more specific self-views also influence global feelings of self-worth. That is, people are selective about the domains on which they base their self-worth. For one person, being attractive might be important; for another person, being smart might be more important (**Crocker & Luhtanen, 2003**).

Researchers have studied people's explicit self-esteem, that is, the concrete positive or negative evaluations they make of themselves. But more recent research suggests the importance of implicit self-esteem as well (**Greenwald & Farnham, 2000**). Implicit self esteem refers to the less conscious evaluations we make of ourselves. Studies of implicit self-esteem sometimes reveal things that studies of explicit self-esteem do not (**Woike, Mcleod, & Goggin, 2003**). For example, implicit self-esteem seems to be more sensitive than explicit self-esteem to the specific situation a person is in (**Djksterhuis, 2004**).

Self-efficacy beliefs are the expectations that one holds about one's abilities to accomplish certain tasks (**Bandura, 1986**). One of the most important precondition

for human action is the acting person. In particular, objective ability has to be accompanied by perceived autonomy to lead to performance. This entails a personal belief in one's self-efficacy; that is, the control over one's behavior, life, and future (Taal and Samaio de Carvalho, 1997). Hence, most theories of action include beliefs of personal control as a core explaining variable (Ajzen, 1996). Consequently, the development of a sense of personal autonomy is a central task during adolescence (Petersen and Leffert, 1995). This is a vital precondition necessary for the individual to be able to act. To select goals, decide for means, and accept or reject values and norms, one has to have an *identity*; that is, a differentiated and integrated system of self-describing and self-evaluating beliefs (Greve, 2001). This is why establishing a stable integrative identity is usually viewed as the central developmental task in a person's youth (Harter, 1990, 1998).

However, self-development is a difficult task: "Tn search of self ... defines a major drama that unfolds on center stage during adolescence, with a complicated cast of characters who do not speak with a single voice" (Harter, 1990; Petersen, 1988; Petersen and Leffert, 1995; Silbereisen and Noack, 1988; Waterman, 1993). However, whatever adaptations, upheavals, transitions, and other changes the individual goes through (i.e., in whatever way the person develops), it is important that he or she maintains and experiences a feeling of biographical continuity (Brandtstadter and Greve, 1994). One specific and central aspect of self and identity is one's personal experience of being an actor; that is, self-efficacy. Both from an action-theoretical perspective and a personality point of view, this is a major factor that produces continuity and stability of individuals across situations (Cervone, 1997). (CAN THIS PARAGRAPH BE THE INTRODUCTORY PARAGRAPH FOR THE HEADING ASSOCIATED DIMENSIONS OF SELF???)

1.2.2 FACTORS INFLUENCING SELF IDENTITY

Adolescent identity formation begins a lifelong, dynamic process that blends personality and context. A change in either the individual or the context opens up the

possibility of reformulating identity (**Kunnen and Bosma, 2003**). A wide variety of factors influence identity development.

1.2.2.1 PERSONALITY: Identity status is both cause and consequence of personality characteristics. Adolescents who assume that absolute truth is always attainable tend to be foreclosed whereas those who lack confidence in the prospect of ever knowing anything with certainty are more often in a state of diffusion. Adolescents who appreciate that they can use rational criteria to choose among alternatives are more likely to be in a state of moratorium or identity achievement (**Berzonsky and Kuk, 2000**). This flexible, open-minded approach helps them greatly in identifying and pursuing educational, vocational and other life goals.

1.2.2.2 FAMILY: Parents who provide both emotional support and freedom to explore have infants and toddlers who develop a healthy sense of agency. A similar link between parenting and identity exists at adolescence. When family serves as a “secure base” from which teenagers can confidently move out into the wider world, identity development is enhanced. Adolescents who feel attached to their parents and say they provide effective guidance, but who also feel free to voice their own opinions, tend to be identity achieved or in a state of moratorium (**Berzonsky, 2004**). Foreclosed teenagers usually have close bonds with parents, but they lack opportunities for healthy separation. Finally, diffused young people devalue the importance of their attachments to parents and report low levels of parental support and of warm, open communication (**Reis and Youniss, 2004**). Thus generally speaking, there is strong relationship between what parents think of their children’s abilities and children’s own self-conceptions about these same dimensions (**Felson & Reed, 1986**).

1.2.2.3 PEERS: In later childhood and early adolescence, feedback from peers may be more important (**Leary, Cottrell, & Phillips, 2001**). As adolescents interact with a diversity of peers, their exposure to ideas and values expand. Close

friends help young people explore options by providing emotional support, assistance and role models of identity development (**Josselson, 1992**). Within friendships, adolescents learn much about themselves. In other words, friends like parents can serve as a secure base as adolescents grapple with possibilities. For 15 year olds, warm, trusting peer ties resulted in more involvement in exploring relationship issues (**Meeus et al, 2002**). College students attachment to friends predicted exploration of careers and progress in choosing one (**Felsman and Blustein, 1999**).

Research has suggested that, on the whole, people prefer objective feedback about their personal attributes (**Festinger, 1954**). Objective is regarded as less biased and more fair than personal opinion. But the opinions of others also count. In particular, when those opinions are shared by a large number of people, we may come to believe that they are true.

1.2.2.4 SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY: Schools can foster identity development in many ways-through classrooms that promote high level thinking, extracurricular and community activities that enables teenagers to take on responsible roles. Students get direct feedback from teachers about their academic abilities in the form of comments and grades (**Jussim, Soffin, Brown, Ley, & Kohlhepp, 1992**), teachers and counselors encourage vocational training programs that immerse adolescents in the real world of adult work (**Cooper, 1998**). Young people benefit from a chance to talk with adults and older peers who have worked through identity questions (**Berk, 2007**).

1.2.2.5 THE LARGER SOCIETY: Among contemporary young people, exploration and commitment tend to occur earlier in identity domains of gender-role preference and vocational choice than in religious and political values (**Kerestes and Youniss, 2003**). Socialization forms the core of our early experience, and the regularity of those experiences may eventually come to be internalized as important aspects of the self concept. One also learns about oneself through the reaction that

other people have towards one. **Cooley (1902)** developed the concept of the “looking-glass self”, which maintains that people perceive themselves as others perceive and respond to them (**Leary et al., 2003**). This perceptions of how other people react to particular individuals are called **reflected appraisals**.

1.3 SELECTED VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

The selected variables of the study considered as psychosocial correlates of self identity are described below:-

1.3.1 BODY IMAGE

Body image refers to the similarity between actual and perceived ideal body shape. Everyone has a body image and it has strong emotional overtones based on his experience in life. Body image is a multidimensional self attitude towards one's body, particularly its size, shape and aesthetics (**Iqbal et.al, 2006**). It refers to a person's evaluations and affective experiences regarding their physical attributes as well as their investments in appearance as a domain for self evaluation (**Iqbal et.al, 2006**). Concern over body image is increasing over the years in different parts of the world. Teenagers preoccupation with body image adds to their self awareness. Body image is a powerful construct. The advertising industries use body image to sell their products (**Thompson and Heinberg, 1999**). Body image comprises of descriptions and evaluations about one's appearance (**Slade, 1994**). The conception of ideal body image reveals sex differences (**Brodie et. al, 1991**). Body dissatisfaction is an intense, negative distortion of one's body image which is much greater in females than males (**Mintz and Betz, 1986**). Body image is also affected by self objectification which causes a decrement of body image (**Gapinski et. al, 2003**). This leads to unpleasant emotional states. Low body image and high self objectification results in decreased feelings of capability and purpose in women (**Gapinski et. al, 2003**). Research has indicated that body image influences self efficacy (**Williams and Cash, 2001**). Like self efficacy, self esteem as another dimension of self is closely related to body image (**Lerner et.al., 1973**). Research studies have shown the effect of body image on both self assessments- self esteem

and general self efficacy which in turn are related to achievement (**Judge & Bono, 2001**).

1.3.2 PERSONALITY

Personality characteristics are regarded as biologically based endogenous dispositions that will show continuity over time. It was long thought that personality was set in childhood and adolescence and was fully developed by the age of 30 (**McCrae & Costa, 1994**). Personality development can also be due to role changes across the life course that are in part historically and culturally determined such as work, marriage and parenthood (**Srivastava et. al., 2003**). The idea of normative development suggests that with age individuals become more agreeable, conscientious, emotionally stable, open and somewhat less extraverted. Generally, cross-sectional studies revealed that adolescents are higher in Extraversion and Emotional Stability and lower in agreeableness and conscientiousness than adults (**Costa & McCrae, 1994; McCrae et. al., 2000**). Between ages of 12 and 18, cross-sectional studies revealed that mean levels of emotional stability decrease for girls only (**McCrae et. al., 2002**). Consistent increase of openness may indicate that adolescents are increasingly appreciating intellectual and creative expressions or may be related to identity development and exploration of different roles and possibilities. Openness was found to increase both cross-sectionally and longitudinally (**Allik et. al., 2004**). A recent meta-analysis of longitudinal studies (**Roberts et. al., 2006a**) indicated that changes in most personality factors are not constrained to the adolescent or young adulthood period, although most development occurs in young adulthood (20 to 40 years). There are differences between self perceptions and perception by others. Self has greater access to self relevant information and different personality relevant information (**John & Robins, 1993**). **Lounsbury, et.al., (2007)** reported that a sense of identity was found to be significantly related to the big five traits of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, Extraversion and Openness.

1.3.3 PARENTAL ATTACHMENT

The history of attachment as a topic in psychological research is prominent. Different conclusions are being drawn regarding the impact of parent-adolescent attachment on the psychological well being and pattern of peer relationships of adolescents. Harlow's classic studies with **Zimmerman (1959)** and **Mears (1979)** provided empirical support for the suggested innate attachment behavior in animals, and the potential deleterious effects of separation respectively. According to **Bowlby (1973)**, imprinting and attachment include proximity seeking behaviours to the caregivers and the need for felt security and accessibility especially during anxious or fearful situations. More recent research focuses on self-report parent adolescent attachment measures because attachment patterns change across the life span. **Armsden and Greenberg (1987)** that parental attachment scores contributed to differences in self concept and life satisfaction. **De Jong (1992)**, reported that students reporting suicidal ideation or attempt were also of the opinion that they experienced their parents as currently emotionally unavailable to them. The goal of researches being conducted on parent child attachment is to increase awareness amongst parents, schools and community. Maintenance of parent-child bond can only be achieved when the emotional importance of it is recognized. Identification and subsequent remediation of emotional challenges can be achieved by identifying secure and insecure pattern of relationships. In other words, attachment indicates the qualitative indicator of the strength of the bond as well as characteristics of the parent-adolescent relationship. The critical period as defined in attachment literature is the restricted time duration in which a system is "sensitive to change in the environment" (**Bowlby, 1982**). According to psychoanalytic perspective, the functional significance of attachment is to meet the need for food and warmth in case of infants (**Bowlby, 1982**). Thus attachment system is a complex behavioural system aimed at protection of the individual and ultimately the survival of species.

1.3.4 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement Motivation is the tendency to strive for success of a desirable goal. Researchers study achievement motivation in order to examine why some people

persist on a task, when most would give up. **Murray (1938)** has defined achievement motivation as “the desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and / or as well as possible, to accomplish something difficult, and attain a high standard to excel”. Achievement concerns the development of motives, capabilities, interests and behaviour that have to do with performance in evaluative situations. The study of achievement during the transitional phase of adolescence has highlighted on young people’s performance in educational settings, and on their hopes and plans for future scholastic and occupational careers. **Weiner’s Attribution Theory (1985)** emphasized how expectancies for future success, based on emotional attributions for past success and failure, affect future efforts to achieve. Personality traits may affect examination performance by means of mediators such as intention, anticipated regret, student identity, and autonomous intrinsic motivation (**Phillips, Abraham and Bond, 2003**). The relationship between personality and academic achievement, however, seems to be mediated by study habits. Females obtained higher academic achievement scores than males because they showed a more socialized personality pattern and better study habits (**Aluja – Fabregat and Blanch, 2004**). Authoritative parenting, more frequent among middle class parents, is associated with higher adolescent grades in school (**Steinberg et. al. 1992**). The value of extracurricular achievement may be an impetus for many adolescents, but expectancies for success are also important. Those who believe that their talents can be developed through practice will persevere in the face of difficulties. In addition, those students who have low expectations for success will tend to devalue the achievement for themselves (**Henderson and Dweck, 1990**). Another dimension of achievement for adolescents is Social achievement, which implies both the acquisition of social skills and the development of friendships. Students without friends showed lower levels of prosocial behaviour, academic achievement and emotional distress than did students with reciprocated friendships (**Wentzel et. al. 2004**).

1.4

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- 1.4.1 To determine the effect of variation of age (early and late adolescents) on self identity, body image, personality pattern, parental attachment and achievement motivation.
- 1.4.2 To determine the effect of variation of gender (males and females) on self identity, body image, personality pattern, parental attachment and achievement motivation.
- 1.4.3 To assess the magnitude and direction of relationship of self identity with body image, personality pattern, parental attachment and achievement motivation.

With the basic frame of study being laid down, the progression of the work moves on to the detail literature review in the next chapter.

CHAPTER – 2

SURVEY OF RELEVANT

LITERATURE

2.0 Literature survey is an important step of any research activity. It provides us with information regarding the previous research endeavours undertaken in the present area of interest. Thus it serves as a guiding force to determine the nature and direction of the present research study.

2.1 STUDIES ON ADOLESCENCE

According to **Adamson (2003)**, self concept consistency is lower among adolescents (16-20 years) in comparison to adults. Inconsistency was significantly related to a number of negative factors like suicide attempts and low satisfaction with the self. Transitions from inconsistency to consistency are possible through a change in the quality of interpersonal relationships. Parental support is a better predictor of psychological well-being, but only in early and middle adolescence. Identity develops progressively with age, and also the relation between identity status and psychological well-being was found to become stronger with age (**Meeus, 2003**).

According to **Stice, Ragen and Randall (2004)**, support decreases the risk for depression but suggest that this effect may be specific to parental support during early adolescence. **Fernández and Castro (2003)** predicted that persons in the age range of 12-16 years had lower self-esteem than others between the ages of 17 and 28 years. Individuals with higher self-esteem were more certain of their central self-conceptions than were those with lower self esteem (**Story, 2004**). Hence adolescents' attachment security was positively related to family communication and negatively related to negative avoidance behaviours such as drinking or using drugs (**Howard and Medway, 2004**). Least able copers used, at least sometimes, non-productive strategies such as tension reduction, self blame, ignore, keep to self and, most noticeably worry and wishful thinking (**Frydenberg and Lewis, 2004**).

2.2 STUDIES ON SELF IDENTITY

The study of the self and of identity has been ongoing for more than a century. **Cooley (1902)** was one of the first noteworthy psychologists to theorize about the self. Many psychoanalysts—most notably **Freud (1961)** has also extensively researched on the concept of self. Work on personal identity has been separated from research on ethnic and cultural identity (**Sneed, Schwartz, & Cross, 2006**). Most of the research on identity focuses on older adolescents and on emerging adults (**Schwartz, 2005**), based on the assumption that little or no identity takes place during the early adolescent years (**Archer & Waterman, 1983**). A great deal of work has been done on self-concept in early adolescence (**Bellmore & Cillessen, 2006; Schwartz et al., 2006**). Early adolescence is a fertile stage of self-development, and so it is necessary to study multiple aspects of self and identity in order to ascertain the network of interrelationships amongst them during this period. Self Efficacy as a dimension of self reveals that self efficacious individuals are healthier, successful and effective (**Bandura, 1997**). Personal identity, operationalized in terms of understanding of an identity status or as postulated by Erikson's theory has been found to be negatively associated with conduct problems (**Schwartz, Pantin, Prado, Sullivan, & Szapocznik, 2005**), drug and alcohol use (**Bishop, Weisgram, Holleque, Lund, & WheelerAnderson, 2005**), and sexual risk taking (**Hernandez & DiClemente, 1992**). **Roeser et al. (2008)** demonstrates that adolescent girls are an extremely heterogeneous population in terms of self-perceptions and in terms of the correlates of these self-perceptions.

Thus identity-status literature may need to follow in the footsteps of the self-concept literature and focus on domains that are most germane to young adolescents—such as academic performance, family relationships, body image, and fitting in with peers. As **Houlihan et al. (2008)** reported, the self is intricately involved in the genesis and maintenance of health risk behaviors. This kind of evidence can then be used to develop interventions, based both in self and in social context, to alleviate these behaviors (**Schwartz, Pantin, Coatsworth, & Szapocznik, 2007**).

2.3 STUDIES ON BODY IMAGE

Slade (1994) is of the opinion that body image is more based on more than just mere perception. Cognitive, affective and attitudinal variables influence assessments made of one's body. **Slade (1994)** also says that body image can be considered as a loose mental representation which is influenced by social norms and concept of weight change. Sex differences may also be observed in case of body image. It has been observed in research findings that body image perceptions and expectations show differences between males and females like men prefer more broader and muscular bodies whereas females prefer to be slimmer (**Furnham, et.al., 2002**). More women exhibit poor body image in comparison to men and this is more marked during the period of adolescence (**Feingold and Mazzella, 1998**). Discrepancies in body image between males and females are attributable to the notion of self objectification. **Gapinski et. al., (2003)** indicated that lower body image along with higher self objectification are associated with increased anxiety.

Body image influences self efficacy (**Pikler and Winterowd, 2003**). Other than general self efficacy, body image influences self esteem in a similar way. Thus body dissatisfaction is related to low self esteem and this feeling gets magnified during adolescence (**Lennon et. al., 1999**).

2.4 STUDIES ON PERSONALITY

From a life span developmental perspective, mean-level personality changes can be normative and life-course related (**Baltes, 1987**). These changes may be due to intrinsic development (**McCrae et. al., 2000**). For example, individuals become less impulsive, more norm adherent and more skilled in social interaction. Cross-sectional studies revealed that between the age ranges of 12 and 18 years, mean levels of emotional stability show a decrement in case of girls only (**McCrae et. al., 2002**). Mean levels of Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness do not change (**McCrae et. al., 2002**), although Agreeableness and Conscientiousness have also been found to decrease (**Allik et. al., 2004**). Consistent increment in the trait of

openness may highlight the fact that adolescents are increasing in their capacity to appreciate intellectual and creative expressions or may be related to identity development and exploration of different roles and possibilities. In both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies Openness has been found to show a rise (**Allik et. al., 2004**). Longitudinal findings showed that the increase in Openness and decrease in Emotional Stability continue for a while during young adulthood (**Vaidya et. al., 2002**). **Roberts et. al., (2006a)** showed that people become more extraverted, conscientious and emotionally stable with age. Thus several studies have shown that personality development is possible across the life span.

During early adolescence girls undergo a faster acceleration in cerebral cortical development than boys and remained advanced until 14-15 years (**Colom &Lynn, 2004**). As a result in early adolescence girls are almost 2 years ahead than boys in intellectual and social-cognitive functioning (**Silberman and Snarey, 1993**). These differences may therefore be considered responsible for earlier development of personality of girls than boys. Personality changes may also be related to changes in social expectations regarding work and education because girls pubertal development occurs earlier than boys (**Paikoff &Brooks-Gunn, 1991**). Thus development of personality characteristics among females and males is due to normative intrinsic maturation (**Costa &McCrae, 2006**).

2.5 STUDIES ON PARENTAL ATTACHMENT

Ainsworth (1989), defined an affectional bond as a long enduring tie in which one of the individuals is important as an unique individual and can be interchanged with one another. On the other hand, attachment to a caregiver additionally incorporates the idea that the child views the other as stronger or wiser and this promotes the necessary aspect of the attachment bond-felt security. There is a distinction between attachment and dependence. In societal conditions dependency is viewed as a negative characteristic of individuals who are weak and reflect it in relationships. On the contrary, attachment is positive and desirable which ideally continues throughout life (**Bowlby, 1988a**). Associated with attachment is the concept of separation

anxiety. It can be reduced by providing the child with multiple attachments, being responsive to needs, having physical contact and gradually training the child to understand that you will be leaving (**Harris, 1986**). However, during adolescence and adulthood the pattern of attachment changes. In times of crisis or stress, adolescents may seek security from any source that they perceive as equivalent to parents in giving them the same amount of security (**Sperling et. al., 1992**). It is thus important to have reliable and valid measures to understand the nature of adolescent attachment and to see whether it is stable across the life span as proposed by **Bowlby (1988b)**.

In the study of self and identity the Context, Self, and Problem Behavior is important to be considered. Self is influenced by contextual processes like family, peer, and school domains. It is well known, for example, that a cohesive and well functioning family environment, including involved and supportive parents, is associated with a positive and coherent sense of self and identity (**Lam, 2005; Mullis, Brailsford, & Mullis, 2003**). The importance of familial influences in the development of ethnic identity among ethnic minority adolescents in the United States (**Umaña-Taylor, Bhanot, & Shin, 2006**) has also been demonstrated.

2.6 STUDIES ON ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

According to **Miller and Byrnes (2001)** adolescents' valuing of academic goals and their decision-making competency were typically the best predictors of their achievement behaviour. **Jagacinski, Madden and Reider (2001)** suggested that perceived ability was more strongly related to performance when students were given ego-involving rather than task-involving instructions. **Marchant, Paulson and Rothlisberg (2001)** observed that students' perceptions of parenting style, parental involvement, teaching style, and school atmosphere significantly predicted their school achievement, however, students' motivations and self-competence mediated the relation between students' contexts and their academic achievement. Furthermore, parental values, teacher responsiveness, school responsiveness, and supportive social environment predicted students' motivations and academic

competence above and beyond parenting style, parental involvement, and teacher control. **Wong, Wiest and Cusick (2002)** indicated that autonomy support, parent attachment, scholastic competence, and self-worth predicted the academic criterion variables. **Taylor and Lopez (2005)** revealed that family routine was positively associated with school achievement and adolescents' school attendance, attention to school work, and sense of challenge, and was negatively related to problem behavior in school.

There is evidence that support from peers (**Meeus, Oosterwegel, & Vollebergh, 2002**) and from teachers (**Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005**) is related to the development of a positive sense of identity. In context to achievement motivation it has been reported that self efficacious people expend more energy towards a goal and are more persistent in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences (**Lent et. al., 1984**). Personal cognitions exert important effects on achievement behavior (**Weiner, 1979**). **Trusty (2002)** indicated that the effects of early academic performance variables were strongest followed by effects of family variables and high school behavior variables.

After the completion of the relevant literature survey, in the next chapter the methodological details adopted for the present study will be discussed.

CHAPTER – 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 After delineating the objectives of the present study along with the related literature survey, in the earlier chapters (I & II), it is necessary to study in depth the methodological details of the present study which aims to see the relationship of the different psychosocial factors with self identity in early and late adolescents. The period of adolescence is characterized by the preparation towards self sufficiency and stepping into the adult world. The successful accomplishment of this developmental task requires a stable self identity and a mature orientation towards oneself and the surrounding environment. Different personal and contextual factors therefore plays a facilitative or inhibitory role in shaping an adolescent's sense of identity.

3.1 METHOD

3.1.1 SAMPLE

For the purpose of the study, the sample consists of two groups-Early and Late Adolescents, with a total number of 80 students in each group.

A) Early adolescent group (N=80 which comprised of 40 males and 40 females in the age range of 14-16 years)

B) Late adolescent group (N=80 which comprised of 40 males and 40 females in the age range of 17-18 years).

The two groups are matched on the basis of age, sex, religion, socio-economic status, and medium of education. *Purposive sampling* is used for sample selection. The subjects are selected on the basis of the following criteria:

Inclusion Criteria (for selection of subjects)

1. Age range: 14-18 years
2. Nationality: Indian
3. Socio-economic status: Upper middle class (Family's monthly income Rs.20,000–35,000 approximately).
4. Education: Classes IX-X for the early adolescent group; Classes XI and XII for the late adolescent group.

5. Medium of education: English
6. Studying in Kolkata-based institutions
7. Regular students

Exclusion Criteria

1. Subjects not falling in the age range: 14-18 years.
2. Subjects belonging to low and middle socio-economic classes
3. Subjects having any other language other than English as the medium of education
4. Subjects having history of epilepsy

3.1.2 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses of the study are:

1. There will be a difference between early and late adolescents with respect to dimensions of self identity (information orientation, normative orientation, diffuse orientation and commitment), body image, aspects of personality (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness), parental attachment and achievement motivation.
2. There will be a difference between males and females on the selected variables of dimensions of self identity (information orientation, normative orientation, diffuse orientation and commitment), body image, aspects of personality (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness), parental attachment and achievement motivation.

3. There will be both positive and negative relationship between self identity and its psychosocial correlates of body image, personality pattern, parental attachment and achievement motivation.

3.1.3 TOOLS USED

A brief description of the materials used in this study is provided as follows:

3.1.3.1 Information Schedule

An information schedule comprising of 17 questions was prepared specially for this work with a view to eliciting informations like name, age, sex, educational level, medium of school, religion, nationality, parental education, parental occupation, family type, family size, monthly income of the family, comfortable with parents or peers, spending leisure time more with parents or peers, whether ones feels confident about oneself, aspiration level for the future and history of epilepsy.

3.1.3.2 Self Identity Inventory-Revised (Berzonsky 1992)

The social-cognitive perspective of **Berzonsky (2004)** postulates stylistic differences in how individuals process and deal with identity-relevant information and issues. Adolescents with an informational identity style are self-reflective and they actively seek out and evaluate self-relevant information. Individuals who have a normative style mainly adopt prescriptions and values of significant others and conform to their expectations. Finally, young people with a diffuse-avoidant style procrastinate and delay dealing with identity issues as long as possible (**Berzonsky, 1989**). **Berzonsky (1992)** developed the Identity Style Inventory (ISI) to assess the extent to which individuals use these styles. The ISI also includes a subscale designed to assess strength of identity commitment. Identity styles were expected to relate differently to specific components of self-esteem (**Berzonsky, 1994**) since consistent findings reveal that styles are differentially related to the types of self-components

adolescents use to define their sense of identity (**Berzonsky, Macek, & Nurmi, 2003**).

The revised Identity Style Inventory (**ISI-3; Berzonsky, 1992**) consists of 40 items, scored on a scale ranging from 1 (not at all like me) to 5 (very much like me). Information-oriented style has 11 items, normative style has 9 items, diffuse-avoidant style has 10 items and the subscale of commitment has 10 items. For scoring purposes these four items are reversed (9, 11, 14 & 20). Test-retest reliability were 0.87 for informational style, 0.87 for normative style, 0.83 for diffuse-avoidant style and 0.89 for commitment subscale. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were 0.70 for informational style, 0.64 for normative style, 0.76 for diffuse-avoidant style, and 0.71 for commitment subscale. Convergent validity between identity styles and ISI commitment on the one hand and self-esteem, need for cognitive closure, and other identity dimensions, on the other was demonstrated. Research findings provide additional support to the cross-national generalizability of the factorial structure of the Identity Styles Inventory.

3.1.3.3 Body Image measured by Body Appreciation Scale (Avalos, Tylka and Wood-Barcalow, 2005)

According to many scholars like **Cash (2002) and Thompson et. al., (1999)**, body image is a complex multidimensional construct that includes self perceptions and attitudes with regard to the body. It involves many individual related components like appearance evaluation, appearance orientation, body esteem and accuracy of size perception (**Thompson et. al., 1999**). The study of body image has primarily been a pathology-focused endeavour with research focused on assessing the extent to which individuals' adopt a negative orientation toward their bodies (**Cash, 2002**). Much less is known about predictors and outcomes of positive body image. **Williams et. al., (2004)** has revealed that women with positive body image have greater appearance satisfaction, less body image distress and a greater tendency to feel that their body image favourably influenced their life and functioning. Thus measures of

positive body image are necessary for psychologists to explore human strengths. The scale comprises of 13 items which are rated along a five point scale and are averaged to obtain overall body appreciation score. Higher score reflects greater body appreciation. In order to determine internal consistency of Body Appreciation Scale, Cronbach's alpha and item-total correlation were examined. Alpha coefficient was 0.94 and item-total correlation ranged from 0.41 to 0.88, mean being 0.73. The temporal stability was also adequate over a three week period being of the magnitude of 0.90. These values support the internal consistency of the scale. Convergent validity of the scale was also found as higher body appreciation scores were related to higher self esteem, physical condition, lower weight concern, lower body surveillance and lower body shame. Higher scores were strongly associated in a positive direction with greater tendency to evaluate one's appearance favourably and in a negative direction with body preoccupation and body dissatisfaction. These provide additional support to convergent validity.

3.1.3.4 Big Five Inventory (John, Donahue and Kentle, 1991)

To address the need for a short instrument measuring the prototypical components of the Big Five that are common across investigators, **John, Donahue, and Kentle (1991)** constructed the Big Five Inventory. The 44-item BFI was developed to represent the prototype 22 definitions developed through expert ratings and subsequent factor analytic verification in observer personality ratings. The goal was to create a brief inventory that would allow efficient and flexible assessment of the five dimensions when there is no need for more differentiated measurement of individual facets. There is much to be said in favor of brevity; as **Burisch (1984)** observed, "Short scales not only save testing time, but also avoid subject boredom and fatigue . . . there are subjects . . . from whom you won't get any response if the test looks too long." The BFI uses short phrases based on the trait adjectives known to be prototypical markers of the Big Five (**John, 1989, 1990**). One or two prototypical trait adjectives served as the item core to which elaborative, clarifying,

or contextual information was added. The Big Five factors are Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness (**John and Srivastava, 1999**). All the 44 items are rated on a five point scale with a few of them being scored in the reverse direction. Although the BFI scales include only eight to ten items, they do not sacrifice either content coverage or good psychometric properties. In U.S. and Canadian samples, the alpha reliabilities of the BFI scales typically range from .75 to .90 and average above .80; three-month test-retest reliabilities range from .80 to .90, with a mean of .85. Validity evidence includes substantial convergent and divergent relations with other Big Five instruments as well as with peer ratings.

3.1.3.5 Parental Attachment Questionnaire (Kenny, 1990)

According to **Ainsworth (1989)**, an affectional bond is a long enduring tie in which the partner is important as an unique individual and is interchangeable with one another. On the other hand, attachment to a caregiver additionally incorporates the idea that the child views the other as stronger or wiser and this promotes the necessary aspect of the attachment bond-felt security. Early attachment behaviours are based on reflexes but with maturity they become more controlled (**Bowlby, 1982**). The 55 item version of Parental Attachment Questionnaire was developed by **Kenny (1990)** containing three subscales of Affective Quality of Attachment, Parental Fostering of Autonomy (also known as Fostering of Autonomy subscale) and Parental Role in Providing Emotional Support (also discussed as Providing Emotional Support subscale). The response format is five point Likert Scale. Some of the items are scored in the reverse order. A single rating is obtained combining both father and mother in order to yield a single score for each total scale and subscales (**Kenny et. al., 1993**). The internal consistency estimates ranged from 0.83-0.95 for the three subscales (**Kenny et. al., 1993**). Test-Retest reliability for the entire measure over a two-week period was 0.92 (**Kenny, 1990**). Empirical literatures have provided information on content and construct validity. Items were

reviewed to verify whether the domains outlined in the questionnaire were adequately represented in the items. Construct validity was evaluated by determining the relationships observed between scores on Parental Attachment Questionnaire and tests of family environment and emotional well-being.

3.1.3.6 Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation (n-Ach) Scale (Deo-Mohan, 1990):

The Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation(n-Ach)Scale was developed by Deo and Mohan. It consists of 50 items, having a total of 15 factors. The scale can be administered individually as well as in a group of about 25 – 30 subjects. The age range for the subjects included in the above distribution is from 13 to 20 years but it may be used for other age groups also. Two stencil keys are to be used for scorings, one for positive item and one for negative items. A positive item carries the weights of 4, 3, 2, 1 and 0 respectively for the categories of Always, Frequently, Sometimes, Rarely and Never. The negative item is to be scored 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 for the same categories respectively that are given above. Separate keys for positive and negative items are provided. The total score is the summation of all the positive and negative items scores. The minimum score obtained can be 0 and the maximum can be 200, other scores ranging in between.

For the interpretation of the score, Norms are presented in three forms : Frequency distribution with mean and standard deviation, Percentile Norms and T – scores.. Test – retest method was applied to obtain the reliability coefficient of the scale. In the present scale reliability coefficient by test – retest method for the total group as well as for the separate male and female groups are very satisfactory and the scale can be taken as quite reliable for use. The validity of the scale ie item validity was established by the high – low discrimination method and this was accepted as the validity of the whole measure. Besides, this scale was also used for validating the projective test of Achievement Motivation. The coefficient of correlation between the scale and the projective test was observed to be 0.54 which speaks for the validity of the scale also, the validity being of the concurrent nature. The present

scale of achievement motivation is sufficiently valid for use for measuring achievement motivation.

3.1.4 PROCEDURE

To conduct the study, consents were firstly taken from different English medium schools to collect data from both male and female early and late adolescents. The psychological questionnaires were administered in a single session to small groups of about 20-25 subjects; the questionnaires were filled in the presence of only the assessor so that any clarification could be done immediately. Instructions were adequately provided and sufficient amount of rest was given in between each of the questionnaires, to prevent the creeping of fatigue.

The sequence of administration of the questionnaires, followed a pre-determined sequence as:

1. Information Schedule
2. Self Identity Inventory-by **Berzonsky (1992)** which is used to measure the different styles of self identity.
3. Body Image was measured by Body Appreciation Scale-by **Avalos, Tylka and Wood-Barcalow (2005)** which measures positive aspects of body image.
4. Big Five Inventory-by **John, Donahue and Kentle (1991)** which measures different aspects of personality.
5. Parental Attachment Questionnaire-by **Kenny (1990)** which measures the pattern of parental attachment.
6. Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation (n-Ach) Scale-by **Deo and Mohan (1990)** which measures the degree of achievement motivation.

It is to be noted that for each of the subjects, the following instructions were provided at the very beginning:

“You will be provided with a few questionnaires one by one, which requires you to give certain important informations. Remember all the answers will be kept in strict confidence. Please do not hesitate in answering freely and frankly. After you finish answering, kindly hand them over to me. If you have any difficulty, please let me know.”

3.1.4.1.1.1 PRECAUTIONS

1. All the respondents (students) were asked to sit comfortably in their allotted seats. The set of six questionnaires were administered to all of them in the same sequence. The respondents were assured that it was not a test, there was no right and wrong answers. The research purpose was clearly stated.
2. In order to get co-operation from the respondents, complete confidentiality was assured, and so they were requested to answer freely and frankly.
3. While the selected tools were administered, it was ensured that all the respondents were relaxed and willing to participate. However, they were not forced to give data.
4. There was no time limit for the questionnaires and they were instructed to finish answering the questions as fast as they could and honestly as well.
5. During the testing session, if the respondents faced any difficulties, it was clarified by the researcher without any extra cue.

3.1.5 SAMPLING – Purposive sampling

3.1.6 ANALYSES

3.1.5.1 Scoring, Tabulation and Statistical Analyses

Data for each of the questionnaires were scored following the scoring schedule for each of them accordingly. The scores were tabulated and statistical analyses were carried out that are presented in the chapter entitled “Results”.

3.1.5.2 Methods of Analyses

Data analyses were done by the methods described below:

(i) Descriptive Statistics: Computation of mean, S.D., correlation

(ii) Inferential Statistic: Computation of “t” test.

3.1.6.3 Plan of Analyses

Plan of Data Analyses

Level of variables	Purpose	Mode of analyses
Univariate	Descriptive Testing inter-group difference in the selected variables	Mean, standard deviation and correlation t-test

The “Results” of the study will be detailed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER – 4

RESULTS

4.0 The data obtained from the respondents were systematically arranged and properly tabulated with respect to each of the variables considered in the present study. The presentation of the data has reflected the measures of the obtained selected project variables and their statistical distributions on the basis of which suitable statistical techniques were applied to analyze and find out the necessary information to serve the objectives of the study.

To understand the nature of differences between the early and late adolescents, in the probe of psychosocial correlates of self identity, descriptive and inferential statistics in the form of Mean, SD, and 't' test respectively were calculated. With the help of these statistics, attempts were taken to locate age differences and gender differences with respect to self identity, body image, personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation. Another descriptive statistics of correlation was used to determine the contribution of the different variables of body image, personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation to self identity. Age and Gender differences were highlighted with the help of 't' test. The findings are as follows :-

TABLE 4.1: MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND t VALUES OBTAINED BY EARLY (N=80) AND LATE (N=80) ADOLESCENTS ON THE SELECTED VARIABLES

VARIABLES	EARLY ADOLESCENTS		LATE ADOLESCENTS		t VALUES
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	
<u>SELF IDENTITY</u>					
INFORMATION ORIENTATION	38.59	5.76	38.96	5.23	0.431
NORMATIVE ORIENTATION	31.37	4.88	29.85	4.96	1.957
DIFFUSE ORIENTATION	31.40	5.93	29.35	5.99	2.173*
COMMITMENT	34.45	5.54	35.47	5.47	1.177
BODY IMAGE	3.92	0.59	3.89	0.60	0.255
<u>PERSONALITY</u>					
EXTRAVERSION	27.77	4.92	26.20	5.96	1.82
AGREEABLENESS	33.06	5.18	34.35	4.45	1.68
CONSCIENTIOUSNESS	30.83	5.27	29.18	6.04	1.839
NEUROTICISM	24.01	5.36	26.63	6.26	2.847**
OPENNESS	34.47	4.62	36.18	4.46	2.381*
PARENTAL ATTACHMENT	200.40	23.93	196.32	33.65	0.883
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	140.35	20.76	137.22	22.01	0.924

*p< 0.05 ; **p< 0.01

- Table 4.1 reveals significant difference between early and late adolescents with respect to Diffuse Orientation, Neuroticism and Openness.
- Early adolescents scored higher on Normative Orientation, Diffuse Orientation, Body Image, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Parental Attachment and Achievement Motivation.
- Late adolescents scored higher on Information Orientation, Commitment, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Openness.

TABLE 4.2 : MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND t VALUES OBTAINED BY MALES (N=80) AND FEMALES (N=80) ADOLESCENTS ON THE SELECTED VARIABLES

VARIABLES	MALES		FEMALES		t VALUES
	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD	
<u>SELF IDENTITY</u>					
INFORMATION ORIENTATION	38.48	5.53	39.06	5.46	0.661
NORMATIVE ORIENTATION	31.10	4.87	30.12	5.04	1.242
DIFFUSE ORIENTATION	30.51	5.38	30.23	6.66	0.287
COMMITMENT	34.95	5.30	34.97	5.75	0.029
BODY IMAGE	3.81	0.61	4.00	0.57	2.049*
<u>PERSONALITY</u>					
EXTRAVERSION	25.78	5.35	28.18	5.43	2.813**
AGREEABLENESS	33.01	4.82	34.40	4.82	1.819
CONSCIENTIOUSNESS	30.06	6.11	29.96	5.32	0.110
NEUROTICISM	23.92	6.13	26.72	5.46	3.048**
OPENNESS	34.98	4.96	35.67	4.24	0.942
PARENTAL ATTACHMENT	195.00	26.08	201.72	31.78	1.463
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	135.11	22.87	142.46	19.24	2.199*

*p< 0.05 ; **p< 0.01

- Table 4.2 reveals significant difference between males and females with respect to Body Image, Extraversion, Neuroticism, Achievement Motivation.
- Males scored higher on Normative Orientation, Diffuse Orientation, Conscientiousness.
- Females scored higher on Information Orientation, Commitment, Body Image, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness, Parental Attachment and Achievement Motivation.

TABLE 4.3 : CORRELATION OF SELF IDENTITY WITH ITS PSYCHOSOCIAL CORRELATES OF BODY IMAGE, DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY, PARENTAL ATTACHMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

VARIABLES	CORRELATION WITH SELF IDENTITY
BODY IMAGE	0.201*
<u>PERSONALITY</u>	
EXTRAVERSION	-0.046
AGREEABLENESS	0.109
CONSCIENTIOUSNESS	0.336**
NEUROTICISM	-0.118
OPENNESS	0.115
PARENTAL ATTACHMENT	0.216**
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION	0.340**

*p<0.05 ; **p< 0.01

- Table 4.3 reveals positive significant correlation between self identity and its psychosocial correlates of body image, conscientiousness, parental attachment and achievement motivation.
- The other variables showed both positive and negative correlation with self identity.

The obtained results need logical explanations to support the hypotheses of the study that is presented in the next section.

CHAPTER – 5

DISCUSSION

The result presented in the earlier chapter have been discussed in the following fashion :

5.1 DIFFERENCES IN THE PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILES OF EARLY AND LATE ADOLESCENTS

5.1.1. PROFILE OF EARLY ADOLESCENTS

Early adolescents are in the preparatory stage of searching for their own identity. They do not know what is right or wrong for them, they also do not realize in which avenue of life to prove themselves worthwhile. This gets reflected in the higher mean scores of normative (M=31.37, Table 4.1) and diffuse (M=31.40, Table 4.1) orientations of their self identity which implies that they either adopt the norms prescribed by others and conform to their expectations or procrastinate dealing with matters of identity (**Berzonsky, 1989**). Identity development can be guided by an individualist perspective or collectivist perspective. Questions regarding identity can arise at many points in the life span but most commonly and intensely during adolescence and early adult years (**Whitbourne et. al., 2009**). Advancement in cognitive abilities allow adolescents to think of future “ possible identities” that one may wish to become or may avoid becoming (**Oyserman & James, 2011**). Hence they remain in a state of confusion as to their preferred modes of action. They want to establish their identity, yet many a times suffer from identity crisis when placed in varied demanding situations. Identity confusion is associated with low well being and symptoms of anxiety and depression (**Schwartz et. al., 2009**).

A constant struggle to prove oneself, to establish oneself gets reflected in higher mean scores of Body Image (M=3.92, Table 4.1), Achievement Motivation (M=140.35, Table 4.1), Extraversion (M=27.77, Table 4.1) and Conscientiousness (M=30.83, Table 4.1). Physical beauty or appreciation of the same is at times used or considered important to establish one’s identity with. Body image is a powerful construct that affects self- assessment. General assessments may incorporate an

individual's performance in specific situations and also the ability to learn in general. **Bandura's (1977)** explanation of self efficacy highlights the importance of socialization experiences. Again, socialization experiences also influence the development of body image (**McAuley, et. al., 1995**). Thus being conscientious, yet extraverted helps an adolescent to gain social acceptance which in turn adds to their formative identity. Individuals within a particular ethnic or cultural group are likely to differ in how important the group membership is to their overall sense of identity and this subsequently influences psychosocial adjustment (**Umana-Taylor et. al., 2008**).

Their dazzling energy level and jubilant character prompts them to channelize their efforts in such a way that they may achieve everything in life leading to higher mean score of achievement motivation ($M=140.35$, Table 4.1). They take lot of interest in all endeavours as success in each of them results in increase of self esteem and a more stabilized self identity. With increasing age, greater consolidation of self system is achieved which makes identity and self esteem an integrated self system (**Schwartz et. al., in press**). Many research findings have shown a positive correlation between self esteem and academic achievement (**VanLaar, 2000**).

On the other hand, the immaturities of an adolescent and need for security gets reflected in the higher mean score of parental attachment ($M=200.40$, Table 4.1). Parents remain the point of anchorage, inspite of peers being more important because that helps them to grow up in identity and also to fall back whenever in trouble. Adolescents who receive enough guidance from authority figures, primarily parents and at the same time can express their opinions, tend to achieve a sense of identity in a better way (**Berzonsky, 2004**). **Ryan and Deci (2000)** have proposed that an autonomous or freely chosen life may be experienced as interesting and exciting.

5.1.2. PROFILE OF LATE ADOLESCENTS

The profile of late adolescents appear more age appropriate. With advanced age and a greater matured orientation, late adolescents appear to be more committed, agreeable and open to life experiences as reflected in the higher mean scores of

Commitment (M=35.47, Table 4.1), Agreeableness (M=34.35, Table 4.1) and Openness (M=36.18, Table 4.1). They focus on forming their identity by gathering relevant and correct information so that they are proved to be right in the eyes of others as reflected in the slightly higher mean score of Information Orientation (M=38.96, Table 4.1) of self identity. The expectations placed on young people to find their way into adulthood places a premium on agency or self direction (Schwartz, 2000). In other words those who realize which are the right options, to sort through them and to change courses of action if faced with obstacles and to follow through their efforts till completion are at better and more advantageous position than their peers who are poor in self direction (Schwartz et. al., 2005).

However this developmental task of proving themselves as adults at times escalates their anxiety if they feel that they are unable to cope with the increased demands with their limited resources. The higher mean neuroticism score (M=26.63, Table 4.1) may prompt them to worry unnecessarily about their resources, their future and subsequently their self identity. It has been found that many opportunities are provided to individuals to capitalize them and make a successful transition to adulthood, but it may prove to be very difficult, distressing and frustrating for those who are unable and unwilling to exercise agency at this point of their life span (Arnett, 2007). As a consequence to manage their excess anxiety they may become over committed, more agreeable and very open to situational demands around them.

5.2 DIFFERENCES IN THE PSYCHOSOCIAL PROFILES OF MALES AND FEMALES

5.2.1. PROFILE OF MALES

The prevalent societal gender stereotyping causes the male gender to always follow the norms that society has laid down for them. Following of a rigid normative structure helps them to be conscientiousness as is reflected in the higher mean scores of normative orientation (M=31.10, Table 4.2) and conscientiousness (M=30.06, Table 4.2). Identity foreclosure has been associated with rigidity and

authoritarianism (**Marcia, 1967**) which is in line with the male gender personality frame of a sense of superiority.

On the contrary, the rigid behavior pattern results in non resolution of certain aspects of identity and emotional reactions. They are reluctant to seek help, are emotionally unexpressive and abusive to damage health. This results in blurring of certain stable aspects of self identity as reflected in the higher mean score of diffuse orientation (M=30.51, Table 4.2) dimension in the present study. Thus individuals who are unclear about their identity would be more likely to experience distress, engage in destructive behavior and experience difficulties maintaining healthy relationships with others (**Schwartz, Klimstra et. al., 2011**). The constant struggle to prove and maintain their superiority many a times prompts them to damage their self identity unknowingly. Diffusion is related to poorest psychosocial functioning like lack of meaning and direction (**Waterman, 2007**) or alcohol and drug abuse (**Bishop et. al., 2005**).

5.2.2. PROFILE OF FEMALES

The profile of females is characteristic of the social and emotional set up in which they are nurtured. They are more concerned with physical beauty as reflected in the higher mean magnitude of body image (M=4.00, Table 4.2) in the present study and body image as a construct has also been much more widely studied in women than in men (**Feingold and Mazzella, 1998**). Along with emphasize on satisfying body image, they also appear to be more extraverted (M=28.18, Table 4.2) in order to gain social acceptance, appear to be more agreeable in nature (M=34.40, Table 4.2) in the form of appeasing behaviour and open to experiences (M=35.67, Table 4.2) in order to adjust, assimilate and accommodate with life situations because the process of identity development is embedded within the larger social, cultural and historical contexts and forces (**Burkitt, 2011**).

Again on the contrary, a constant preoccupation that they are always less than males may make them anxious as revealed in higher neuroticism scores (M=26.72, Table

4.2) or more prone to parental attachment as revealed by higher scores (M=201.72, Table 4.2) in order to feel secure. Ruminative exploration and reconsideration of commitment may predispose an individual to become immobilized by a lack of clarity regarding the direction to follow (Luyckx et. al., 2008). Another measure adopted by female gender to accommodate with their inherent sense of inferiority is to have the zeal to achieve in every sphere of life which maybe even titbits of life and at the same time remain committed to every step they take. This is also in line with the findings of the present study where higher mean magnitude was obtained by females in achievement motivation (M=142.46, Table 4.2) and commitment (M=34.97, Table 4.2) dimension of self identity. This need to achieve in all spheres and at the same time to remain committed makes the female gender extra cautious in seeking the right information, doing the right thing and to be on the correct path as reflected in the present study by the higher score on information orientation (M=39.06, Table 4.2) dimension of self identity. Schwartz, Beyers et. al., (2011) was of the opinion that commitment to life goals, values and belief systems facilitate happiness and satisfaction. However, self directed exploration prior to commitment results in greater meaning and direction in life.

5.3 CORRELATION OF SELF IDENTITY WITH ITS PSYCHOSOCIAL CORRELATES

Table 4.3 highlights correlation, both positive and negative of self identity with its psychosocial correlates of body image, personality dimensions, parental attachment and achievement motivation for the entire sample (early and late adolescents). Positive correlation was obtained with body image, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness, parental attachment and achievement motivation. Negative correlation was obtained for extraversion and neuroticism. Adolescence is characterized by a dynamic state of identity synthesis versus identity confusion. Individuals with a stronger and clearer perception of who they are and how their future lives are going to be, are more likely to engage in mature interpersonal

relationships and to successfully assume adult roles (**Beyers & Seiffge-Krenke, 2010**).

The positive correlation of self identity with body image ($r=0.201$, Table 4.3) implies greater appreciation or positive perception about one's body adds a flavor to one's identity. Body image is related to self efficacy and self esteem, another dimension of self assessment is also closely related to body image (**Lerner et. al., 1973**).

The positive correlation of self identity with conscientiousness ($r=0.336$, Table 4.3) is because of the fact that if identity is stable, one's sense of "being" which reflects conscientiousness also gets expressed. Similarly a stable self identity gives a thrust to achieve greater in life to prove oneself and also to reinforce self efficacy beliefs that one is capable as revealed by the positive correlation of self identity with achievement motivation ($r=0.340$, Table 4.3). The parameters of growth and purpose in life such as meaning in life and realization of one's potential is endorsed more strongly by identity achieved individuals (**Schwartz, Beyers et. al., 2011**). In order to maintain self esteem as an associated dimension of self identity, the individual appears more agreeable ($r=0.109$, Table 4.3) in order to be a conformist yet being open ($r=0.115$, Table 4.3) to life experiences and changes in order to prove oneself as well adjusted and balanced. **Arnett (2000)** proposed that some degree of risk behavior seen during emerging adulthood might reflect a desire to have a wide range of experiences before settling into adult responsibilities. A criteria of well adjusted personality is healthy self concept and stable self identity. **Schwartz et. al., (2009)** found that increases in identity confusion was associated with problem behaviours like drug and alcohol abuse and unprotected sexual activity.

In collectivistic cultures secure parental attachment may provide the groundwork to not only form but also to grow as revealed by the positive correlation of parental attachment with self identity ($r=0.216$, Table 4.3). Research studies have revealed

that to develop a sense of self, proper functioning of family with supportive parents is an essential condition (**Lam, 2005**). Thus parental rejection, hostility or resentment is detrimental to the growth of self.

If an adolescent achieves a proper self identity as a developmental task, then he or she feels less anxious (negative correlation $r = -0.118$, Table 4.3), is more comfortable, focused, confident about oneself. **Schwartz et. al, (2009)** highlighted that identity confusion is associated with low self worth, anxiety and depressive symptoms. Ruminative exploration may interfere with well-being (**Luyckx et. al., 2008**) and with establishment of autonomy, sense of competence and mature interpersonal relationships (**Luyckx et. al., 2009**). Thus if these qualities can be achieved, then the nucleus of identity becomes more solid and the adolescent has less worries about group affiliations and group acceptance as revealed in the present study by the negative correlation with extraversion ($r = -0.046$, Table 4.3) because one dimension of achievement for adolescents is social achievement, which implies both the acquisition of social skills and the development of friendships. Failure to achieve identity on one hand and lack friends in the form of group acceptance on the other may be a contributor of poor academic achievement and emotional distress (**Wentzel et. al. 2004**).

After the elaborate discussion of the obtained results, the brief overview and specific conclusions of the study are given in the next section.

CHAPTER -6

CONCLUSION

6.0 The discussion of the findings of the present study has lead to summarize the work and to draw the following conclusions.

The objectives of the present study was to draw a comparative profile of early and late adolescents, in terms of the psychosocial correlates of self identity with respect to body image, dimensions of personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation.

For the purpose of the present study, two groups were selected - a group of early adolescents consisting of 80 individuals in the age group of 14-16 years and a group of late adolescents consisting of 80 individuals belonging to the age group of 17-18 years. The early adolescent group consisted of students of classes IX and X. Similarly, the late adolescent group consisted of students of classes XI and XII.

A number of scales were used to assess the above mentioned selected variables. For collecting information regarding different sociodemographic variables about the respondents, an Information Schedule appropriate for the present research purpose was used. Other than this, Self Identity Inventory by **Berzonsky (1992)**, Body Appreciation Scale by **Avalos, Tylka and Wood-Barcalow (2005)**, Big Five Inventory by **John, Donahue and Kentle (1991)**, Parental Attachment Questionnaire-by **Kenny (1990)** and Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale-by **Deo and Mohan (1990)**, were also used for the present research study.

The data collected was scored using the appropriate scoring keys provided with each scale. After scoring, the raw scores were statistically analysed using different measures of descriptive and inferential statistics. The samples in the present study were collected from different educational institutions, i.e., Schools situated in different parts of Kolkata. The method of selecting the sample was purposive random sampling. The statistical analyses done after scoring the data comprised of Mean, Standard Deviation, t test and Correlation. Mean, Standard deviation and Correlation are Descriptive Statistics and t test is Inferential Statistics. t test was computed to determine significant difference between early and late adolescents and also between

males and females. Correlation was computed for the entire sample consisting of 160 individuals to determine the magnitude and direction of relationship of self identity with body image, personality, parental attachment and achievement motivation.

Thus the **conclusions** drawn from the present study may be summarized as follows :-

1. t test revealed significant difference between early and late adolescents with respect to Diffuse Orientation, Neuroticism and Openness. Early adolescents scored higher on Normative Orientation, Diffuse Orientation, Body Image, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Parental Attachment and Achievement Motivation. Late adolescents scored higher on Information Orientation, Commitment, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Openness.
2. t test revealed significant difference between males and females with respect to Body Image, Extraversion, Neuroticism, Achievement Motivation. Males scored higher on Normative Orientation, Diffuse Orientation, Conscientiousness. Females scored higher on Information Orientation, Commitment, Body Image, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness, Parental Attachment and Achievement Motivation.
3. Correlation revealed positive significant correlation between self identity and its psychosocial correlates of body image, conscientiousness, parental attachment and achievement motivation. The other variables showed both positive and negative correlation with self identity.

6.1 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Research in any field of study cannot be a complete contribution without limitations and scope for further research. Hence the present study also has its shortcomings which may be improved in future researches. Some of these limitations maybe described as follows :-

1. In this study, individuals from the upper middle socio-economic strata have been included. It would have been better if the other socio-economic groups could be included. The sample size also could not be increased due to time constraint in order to reach more generalisable conclusions.

2. Another limitation of the present research study is that early and late adolescents who were included in the study were unsettled in their achievement goals. A comparison could have been drawn with college students or maybe those who are working, not only to see the age difference in terms of self identity but also the difference in terms of the selected psychosocial correlates.

3. The results obtained in the present work are based on an urban population only. The inclusion of the rural counterpart would have given much more valuable information.

The present study being a time bound project could not overcome the above mentioned limitations. However, it leaves open the scope for future research in this field of study.

6.2 ORIGINALITY OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH WORK

The newness of the present research may be summarized as follows:-

1. This study can be considered as a reflection of the psychosocial profile of the period of adolescence in terms of self identity in the Indian context because self identity versus identity crisis is a major developmental task of the period of adolescence.

2. Another originality of the present research work is to determine the gender difference with respect to the psychosocial correlates of self identity. Males and

females differ with respect to their profiles of self identity which may be contributed by many factors.

3. Another uniqueness of the present research is seeing the relationship of body image in terms of body appreciation with self identity. Physical appearance is considered to be of relevance to self identity in the period of adolescence.

Thus the originality of this comparative study is nothing but an addition to the continuous research investigations that are being conducted with “adolescents”.

6.3 AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

The researcher is of the viewpoint that the present study has opened different arenas that are yet to be explored. The different studies which can be conducted in this area may be summarized as follows:-

1. The other relevant variables associated with self identity can be happiness, locus of control and meaning in life. If an adolescent is internal locus of control it facilitates an individual to be happy with one self and find meaning in one's existence.
2. Another area of research opened by this study can be to compare adolescents who suffer from identity crisis and take therapeutic help to cope with the developmental phase with those who are normal.
3. Inclusion of “parents” as a comparable group can also bring out the nature of relationship that adolescents have with fathers and mothers at an individual level in order to see the role of authority figures in the formation of self identity. In other words, it is to determine whether the role of parents is facilitative or inhibitory in nature.

Thus it reveals the importance of accurate self identity formation and the impact it has on the life of an adolescent. From a developmental psychology and clinical psychology perspective, the formation of identity is not only significant for the present but it also has far reaching effects and outcomes in an individual's life. Not only is it the concern of adolescents to mould and achieve their identity, but it should be an area of pivotal importance to parents, teachers, schools and colleges and of course society at large.

CHAPTER – 7

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CHAPTER – 8

APPENDICES

APPENDIX – A

INFORMATION SCHEDULE

1. NAME:
2. AGE:
3. SEX:
4. EDUCATIONAL LEVEL:
5. MEDIUM OF THE SCHOOL:
6. RELIGION:
7. NATIONALITY:
8. PARENTAL EDUCATION:
 - a) Father:
 - b) Mother:
9. PARENTAL OCCUPATION:
 - a) Father:
 - b) Mother:
10. FAMILY TYPE:
11. FAMILY SIZE:
12. MONTHLY INCOME OF THE FAMILY:
13. COMFORTABLE WITH PARENTS OR PEERS:
14. SPENDING LEISURE TIME MORE WITH PARENTS OR PEERS:
15. DO YOU FEEL CONFIDENT ABOUT YOURSELF: Yes/ No/
Sometimes
16. YOUR ASPIRATION LEVEL FOR THE FUTURE: High/ Very High/
Moderate/Low /Very Low
17. HISTORY OF EPILEPSY: Yes/ No

APPENDIX –B

SELF IDENTITY QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

You will find a number of statements about beliefs, attitudes, and/or ways of dealing with issues. Read each carefully, then use it to describe yourself. On the answer sheet, bubble in the number which indicates the extent to which you think the statement represents you. There are no right or wrong answers. For instance, if the statement is very much like you, mark a 5, if it is not like you at all, mark a 1. Use the 1 to 5 point scale to indicate the degree to which you think each statement is uncharacteristic (1) or characteristic (5) of yourself.

(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME)

(VERY MUCH LIKE ME)

1

2

3

4

5

SL.NO		1	2	3	4	5
1	Regarding religious beliefs, I know basically what I believe and don't believe.					
2	I've spent a great deal of time thinking seriously about what I should do with my life.					
3	I'm not really sure what I'm doing in school; I guess things will work themselves out.					
4	I've more-or-less always operated according to the values with which I was brought up					
5	I've spent a good deal of time reading and talking to others about religious ideas.					
6	When I discuss an issue with someone, I try to assume their point of view and see the problem from their perspective.					

7	I know what I want to do with my future.					
8	It doesn't pay to worry about values in advance; I decide things as they happen.					
9	I'm not really sure what I believe about religion.					
10	I've always had purpose in my life; I was brought up to know what to strive for.					
11	I'm not sure which values I really hold.					
12	I have some consistent political views; I have a definite stand on where the government and country should be headed.					
13	Many times by not concerning myself with personal problems, they work themselves out					
14	I'm not sure what I want to do in the future.					
15	I'm really into my studies; it's the academic area that is right for me.					
16	I've spent a lot of time reading and trying to make some sense out of political issues					
17	I'm not really thinking about my future now; it's still a long way off.					
18	I've spent a lot of time and talked to a lot of people trying to develop a set of values that make sense to me.					
19	Regarding religion, I've always known what I believe and don't believe; I never really had any serious doubts.					
20	I'm not sure what I should take up in college					
21	I know since high school that I will be going to college and what I am going to major in.					
22	I have a definite set of values that I use in order to					

	make personal decisions					
23	I think it's better to have a firm set of beliefs than to be open minded.					
24	When I have to make a decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen					
25	When I have a personal problem, I try to analyze the situation in order to understand it					
26	I find it's best to seek out advice from professionals (e.g., clergy, doctors, lawyers) when I have problems.					
27	It's best for me not to take life too seriously; I just try to enjoy it					
28	I think it's better to have fixed values, than to consider alternative value systems.					
29	I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can					
30	I find that personal problems often turn out to be interesting challenges					
31	I try to avoid personal situations that will require me to think a lot and deal with them on my own					
32	Once I know the correct way to handle a problem, I prefer to stick with it.					
33	When I have to make a decision, I like to spend a lot of time thinking about my options					
34	I prefer to deal with situations where I can rely on social norms and standards					
35	I like to have the responsibility for handling problems in my life that require me to think on my own.					

36	Sometimes I refuse to believe a problem will happen, and things manage to work themselves out.					
37	When making important decisions I like to have as much information as possible.					
38	When I know a situation is going to cause me stress, I try to avoid it.					
39	To live a complete life, I think people need to get emotionally involved and commit themselves to specific values and ideals.					
40	I find it's best for me to rely on the advice of close friends or relatives when I have a problem					

APPENDIX –C

BODY APPRECIATION SCALE

Directions for participants: For each item, please tick the number that best characterizes you.

	1 Never	2 Seldom	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Always
1. I respect my body					
2. I feel good about my body					
3. On the whole, I am satisfied with my body.					
4. Despite its flaws, I accept my body for what it is.					
5. I feel that my body has atleast some good qualities					
6. I take a positive attitude towards my body.					
7. I am attentive to my body's needs.					
8. My self worth is independent of my body shape or weight.					
9. I do not focus a lot of energy being concerned with my body shape or weight					
10. My feelings towards my body are positive ,for the most part.					
11. I engage in healthy behaviors to take care of my body					
12. I do not allow unrealistically thin images of women/ muscular images of men presented in the media to affect my attitudes towards my body					
13. Despite its imperfections, I still like my body.					

APPENDIX –D

BIG FIVE INVENTORY

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.

Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little
Agree Strongly			
1	2	3	4
5			

I see Myself as Someone Who...

- | | |
|--|--|
| ___ 1. Is talkative | ___ 23. Tends to be lazy |
| ___ 2. Tends to find fault with others | ___ 24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset |
| ___ 3. Does a thorough job | ___ 25. Is inventive |
| ___ 4. Is depressed, blue | ___ 26. Has an assertive personality |
| ___ 5. Is original, comes up with new ideas | ___ 27. Can be cold and aloof |
| ___ 6. Is reserved | ___ 28. Perseveres until the task is finished |
| ___ 7. Is helpful and unselfish with others | ___ 29. Can be moody |
| ___ 8. Can be somewhat careless | ___ 30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences |
| ___ 9. Is relaxed, handles stress well | ___ 31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited |
| ___ 10. Is curious about many different things | ___ 32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone |
| ___ 11. Is full of energy | ___ 33. Does things efficiently |
| ___ 12. Starts quarrels with others | ___ 34. Remains calm in tense situations |
| ___ 13. Is a reliable worker | ___ 35. Prefers work that is routine |
| ___ 14. Can be tense | ___ 36. Is outgoing, sociable |
| ___ 15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker | ___ 37. Is sometimes rude to others |
| ___ 16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm | ___ 38. Makes plans and follows through with them |
| ___ 17. Has a forgiving nature | ___ 39. Gets nervous easily |
| ___ 18. Tends to be disorganized | ___ 40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas |

- ____19. Worries a lot
- ____20. Has an active imagination
- ____21. Tends to be quiet
- ____22. Is generally trusting

- ____41. Has few artistic interests
- ____42. Likes to cooperate with others
- ____43. Is easily distracted
- ____44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or
Literature

APPENDIX –E

PARENTAL ATTACHMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The following pages contain statements that describe family relationships and the kinds of feelings and experiences frequently reported by young adults. Please respond to each item by filling in the number on a scale of 1 to 5 that best describes your parents, your relationship with your parents, and your experiences and feelings. Please provide a single rating to describe your parents and your relationship with them. If only one parent is living, or if your parents are divorced, respond with reference to your living parent or the parent with whom you feel closer.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at All	Somewhat	A Moderate Amount	Quite A Bit	Very Much

In general, my parents.... .

- | | |
|---|--|
| ___1. are persons I can count on to provide emotional support when I feel troubled. | ___15. have provided me with the freedom to experiment and learn things on my own. |
| ___2. support my goals and interests. | ___16. are too busy or otherwise involved to help me. |
| ___3. live in a different world. | ___17. have trust and confidence in me. |
| ___4. understand my problems and concerns. | ___18. try to control my life. |
| ___5. respect my privacy. | ___19. protect me from danger and difficulty |
| ___6. restrict my freedom or independence. | ___20. ignore what I have to say. |
| ___7. are available to give me advice or guidance when I want it. | ___21. are sensitive to my feelings and needs |
| ___8. take my opinions seriously. | ___22. are disappointed in me. |
| ___9. encourage me to make my own decisions. | ___23. give me advice whether or not I want it. |
| ___10. are critical of what I can do. | ___24. respect my judgment and decisions, |
| ___11. impose their ideas and values on me. | |

___12. have given me as much attention as I even if different from what they would want.
have wanted

___13. are persons to whom I can express
differences of opinion on important
matters.

___14 have no idea what I am feeling or
thinking.

(go to next column)

___25. do things for me, which I could do
for myself.

___26. are persons whose expectations I feel
obligated to meet.

___27. treat me like a younger child.

During recent visits or time spent together, my parents were persons. . .

___28. I looked forward to seeing.

___29. with whom I argued.

___30. with whom I felt relaxed and
comfortable.

___31. who made me angry.

___32. I wanted to be with all the
time.

___33. towards whom I felt cool and
distant.

___34 who got on my nerves.

___35. who aroused feelings of guilt
and anxiety.

(go to next column)

___36. to whom I enjoyed telling about the things I
have done and learned.

___37. for whom I felt a feeling of love.

___38. I tried to ignore.

___39. to whom I confided my most personal
thoughts and feelings.

___40. whose company I enjoyed.

___41. I avoided telling about my experiences.

Following time spent together, I leave my parents. . .

___42. with warm and positive feelings. (go ___43. feeling let down and disappointed

to next column)

by my family.

When I have a serious problem or an important decision to make. . .

___44. I look to my family for support, encouragement, and/or guidance.

___45. I seek help from a professional, such as a therapist, college counselor, or clergy.

___46. I think about how my family might respond and what they might say.(go to next column)

___47. I work it out on my own, without help or discussion with others.

___48. I discuss the matter with a friend.

___49. I know that my family will know what to do.

___50. I contact my family if I am not able to resolve the situation after talking it over with my friends.

When I go to my parents for help. . .

___51. I feel more confident in my ability to handle the problems on my own.

___52. I continue to feel unsure of myself.

___53. I feel that I would have obtained more understanding and comfort from a friend. (go to next column)

___54. I feel confident that things will work out as long as I follow my parent's advice.

___55. I am disappointed with their response.

APPENDIX –F

DEO-MOHAN ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION SCALE

Direction: For every statement, the possible responses are divided into five categories which are : Always, Frequently, Sometimes, Rarely and Never. Read each statement of an item very carefully and put a cross under the category which, in your opinion, best expresses your feelings about the statement. If you feel, the statement is true for you always, put a cross (X) under the column marked Always, if frequently, put a cross under Frequently, if sometimes, put a cross under Sometimes, and if rarely, put a cross under Rarely and if never, put a cross under Never. In this way, you have to give your responses to all the statements.

Item No.	Items	Always	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1	I shall be most pleased if I have to miss the classes for some days.					
2	I pay full attention to the work in the class.					
3	I mind much if I reach late in the class.					
4	I love to read more and more to find unknown regions of knowledge.					
5	I love to have a personal library, not counting text-books.					
6	I set standards for myself and then strive to achieve them.					
7	I wish to specialise and become top most in the field of my liking.					
8	I like to experiment and create new things and surprise people.					
9	I work hard for hours together to be successful in whatever I undertake.					
10	I have a tendency to find solutions of problems and puzzles other people fail at.					
11	I aspire to get excellent results in all academic competitions.					

12	I am ready to leave the job half done and try a new one.					
13	I get nervous in the examination if one or two questions are not from the syllabus.					
14	I prefer to go to a party rather than prepare for an examination next week.					
15	On getting low marks, I feel disappointed and determine to work hard to do better next-time.					
16	I think I find my lessons meaningful and interesting.					
17	While studying, my mind wanders off the lesson and I get lost in imagination					
18	I think it is better to gossip away in the canteen than to attend the classes.					
19	When the teacher is teaching, I like to read stories/novels/comics or make cartoons in the class.					
20	The School/College haunts me and I want to leave it at the very first opportunity.					
21	It irritates me a lot if I have to stay late in the school/college for some lectures.					
22	I want to go to college/university because there is plenty of opportunity to enjoy life.					
23	I think studies, sports and other activities can go together.					
24	I agree that the present course of my study will help, making my future life a success.					
25	I feel very much frustrated if I do not get a chance to compete in the field of my choice.					
26	I regularly take down notes in the class and complete my assignments.					
27	I plan to study carefully all the year round in an effort to get good marks in all the subjects in all the tests.					
28	I believe in work first and play later.					

29	I do a lot of preparation at home for the next day's work in the class.					
30	I like to ask questions regarding every information given in tables and charts in the books rather than leave them as such and read further.					
31	I think my teachers are competent in their work.					
32	I like to create nuisance in the class and annoy the teacher.					
33	I try my utmost to please my teacher through work and not through flattery.					
34	My friends consider me dull and shirker.					
35	It is true that my teachers think of me as a sincere and hard working student.					
36	I feel hurt if others (parents, teachers and friends) criticise me and I try to improve upon my weaknesses.					
37	My parents advise me to take life easy and never bother too much for studies or for future life.					
38	I wish to carry my mission forward inspite of facing a lot of criticism.					
39	I think of life to be an intellectual challenge.					
40	I am interested in organising the activities of a group team/class/committee					
41	I try to get associated with top most person in the field of my choice.					
42.	I love to have some adventure in my leisure hour.					
43.	I would like to watch a surgical operation being performed.					
44.	I like to compete in dramatics.					

45.	I think of dancing and music to be good hobbies for students.					
46.	I have a strong desire to be a champion in games/sports/athletics.					
47.	I have tried to get in the sports team of my school/college, to represent my team in other states or countries.					
48.	I believe sports develop initiative, leadership and discipline.					
49.	Hill climbing and mountaineering are a welcome challenge I would like to take.					
50.	On a holiday. I prefer going for cycling, swimming or boating to sitting at home without much work.					