Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is divided into the following three sections: The concept of shyness, gender role and parenting styles. Under each section, the studies conducted abroad and in India are arranged in a chronological order.

Shyness

This section includes review of studies related to components, types, correlates and other sociodemographic variables of shyness. It also covers the effects of shyness on individual’s behaviour, performance and achievement. The probable variables that could be related to shyness are also reviewed. Different tools available to measure shyness, their reliability, validity and usefulness with various populations form part of this section.

Parenting styles

This section reviews the studies related to different parenting styles, difference in the parenting styles as perceived by the children and parents, and the difference in maternal and paternal parenting styles. An overview of the studies related to effects of single parenting on adolescents as well as the outcome of different parenting styles on adolescents are reviewed. Different tools that are available to assess different parenting styles are described in this section.

Gender role

This section includes the reviews of gender role and shyness. It highlights studies related to difference in traits of masculinity-femininity in boys and girls, and other
related concepts of gender role in relation to shyness. Various tools available to assess gender role are evaluated.

**Extent of Shyness**

Studies conducted in the US as early as 1974, Zimbardo, Pilkonis, and Norwood (1974) showed that 40% of the population experienced serious problems due to shyness. Later Carducci and Zimbardo (1995) studied shyness across cultures including participants from India, Canada, Germany, Israel, Japan, Mexico and Taiwan. They found that the extent of population experiencing shyness varied from 31% to 55%.

In India, there are no systematic epidemiological studies conducted on shyness. However, Natesha and D'Souza (2007) who studied the incidence of shyness have reported that 26.2% of high level, 36.6% of moderate level and 37.3% of low level of shyness was present among students aged between 5 to 13 years.

Shyness is operationally defined as, “… a quality which limits one’s social competence and social confidence leading to self-conscious behaviour and inhibition in social situations” and it is viewed as a problematic behaviour. Therefore, shyness is viewed as not only a single entity, but a concept that has different components within it.

In the following pages, reviews of different components studied by different researchers are evaluated.

**Components of Shyness**

In order to identify the persistence of shyness in an individual, one should measure the lack in various components of it. Van Der Molen (1990) conceptualized shyness by three important components namely fear, social skill and irrational thought. The fear component of shyness is similar to anxiety or arousal. Social skills deficit includes behavioural inhibition. Irrational thoughts which comprises of unrealistically
maladaptive attributions of past interpersonal failures and negative anticipations of future interpersonal performance. These three components act together to induce anxiety, negative thinking, and behavioural awkwardness, which in turn serve as a great motivator to avoid the presence of others (Dill & Anderson, 1999).

Researchers have identified some more components of shyness.

**Social Competence**

Social Competence was defined as the ability to interact effectively with the society (Rose-Krasnor, 1997). Rubin, Daniels, Beirness, and Bream (1984) observed that shy children lack social competence due to which they produce fewer alternative solutions and prefer taking suggestions from adults in response to hypothetical social delimits. From their longitudinal study on a sample of seventy two children Rubin, Daniels, Beirness and Bream (1984) reported that shy individuals do not have high aims and goals in their lives. The requests made by the children who were shy were very simple and inexpensive when compared to the non-shy individuals. At the most the kind of request they made were to seek attention from their peers and others. Moreover, their requests were less likely to be spoken in the dominating tone, and the strategies they used were less assertive and more direct. As a result, their requests were more likely to be rejected in spite of being inexpensive. Due to such experiences of social failures shy individuals withdraw themselves from their peers and start blaming these failures to the internal causes rather than the external ones such as other people or situations (Wichmann, Coplan, & Daniels, 2004). This action of being rejected by peers and attributing their failures to internal causes leads to construction of negative feedback and finally inducing negative thoughts about one’s own competencies (Rubin & Stewart, 1996). Bohlin, Hagekull, and Anderson (2005) also found that shy and
withdrawn children lack in social competence and interpersonal problem solving skills compared to their social age counterpart.

Social Confidence

Shyness is often considered to be a behaviour that lacks confidence to engage in social situations (Darwin, 1999). The ability to interact with opposite gender is an important aspect of being socially confident. During late adolescences there is an increased preoccupation and attraction towards the opposite gender. Every individual desires to express oneself and to be noticed as well as appreciated by the members of the opposite gender (Crozier, 2001). However, the sense of heightened self-consciousness, lack of self-confidence and fear of ridicule becomes a problematic situation for the shy individuals (Booth-La Force & Oxford, 2008; Nelson et al., 2008; Arroyo & Harwood, 2011). Sinha (2011) conducted a study on 56 college students whose age ranged between 16 to 26 years. In her focused group interview with these shy children she report that both shy male & female individuals experienced difficulty in interacting with people of the opposite gender, either in a one to one conversation or in the group, though the female participants refused to discuss it openly. She also viewed that shy children were seen to be less confident in general situation.

Self-Consciousness

Being aware of self and getting in touch with self or self-insight is one of the major characteristics of self-consciousness. Shy individuals often suppress their thoughts, feelings and actions which threaten them at the surface continuously. It is in this mental world of theirs where the shy individuals actually live (Zimbardo, 1997). While publicly it appears that these shy people seem to be going nowhere and remain very silent, but actually within their inner world, they have lot of thoughts about their surroundings. It feels as if they are with head on collisions and noisy traffic jams of frustrated desire.
Darwin (1999) was of the view that shy individuals have low degree of self-confidence but high degree of self-consciousness. This self-consciousness behaviour could be in two dimensions namely public self-consciousness and private self-consciousness. The individuals who are self-conscious in public are more concerned about their looks, style of presenting themselves and about what others think about them. The privately shy conscious individuals are those who feel inadequate, inferior and worthless about themselves. Pilkonicks (1976) viewed that those who are publicly self-conscious are concerned about behaving badly and those who are privately self-conscious are concerned about feeling bad.

**Inhibition**

Another component of shyness described in the literature is inhibition. Kagan, Snidman, Kahn, and Towsley (2007) described Behavioural inhibition (BI) as one of the components of shyness. BI refers to wariness in regards to novel people, objects, or situations. According to the authors, the most noticeable difference between shy children and their less shy counterparts is that they speak less and show inhibited behaviours. The shy children tend to experience inhibitions from the early age of life. These inhibited children are quite and timid especially when they come in contact with a stranger. The inhibited behaviour is manifested in a 21 months old child (Fox, Henderson, Marshall, Nichols, & Ghera, 2005). Inhibition is represented by underdeveloped skills to interact with others. For example, a 21 month old child, when comes in contact with another person, immediately retreat from the unfamiliar people. But they often have very close relationship with their mothers. They do not prefer to mingle with same age group and prefer to stay aloof and speak less (Kagan, Reznick, & Snidman, 1987). McCullough et al. (1994) reported that individuals who were overly
submissive in social situations showed inhibited and introvert behaviours more likely to have shorter turns in conversation, and their sentences are shorter in length of utterance. Volbrecht and Goldsmith (2010) conducted a longitudinal study to explore the effects of early temperamental regulations like behavioural inhibitions (BI), Inhibitory control (IC) and family factors such as socioeconomic status and emotional negativity on development of childhood shyness and anxiety symptoms. The results of the study showed that early behavioural inhibitions and lower family stress predicted shyness during middle childhood. Whereas higher family stress during middle childhood was negatively related to shyness. Furthermore, the family stressors which include negative family affect, family stress and mothers reactions to stress were all positively related to anxiety. However, inhibitory control, gender and socioeconomic status of family were not related to shyness and anxiety.

Elaborating on the components of shyness as found by Afshan and Manickam (2013) shyness can be seen as incapacity to produce appropriate social behaviour (Van der Molen, 1990). Shy individuals do not take advantage of social situations, they are less expressive verbally and nonverbally thus feel more incapable and lonely than the non-shy individuals (Henderson, Zimbardo, & Carducci, 1999)

Shy individuals always control their speech and restrain themselves from expressing their skills and talents (Coplan & Weeks 2009). They feel incapable to continue a conversation in a group once they started it and hence find the conversation dying down (Sinha, 2011). They usually lack skills of expressing themselves during social interactions, thus have fewer friends and feel more incapable in social situations (Chan, 2011).
Shy and withdrawn children demonstrate deficits in their confidence level and thus find it difficult to face the day to day challenges of life (Bohlin, Hagekull, & Andersson, 2005). Manning and Ray (1993) explains that the non-shy individuals interact with others with full confidence in order to seek social approval whereas, the shy individuals show lack of confidence, not with an intention to seek approval but with a goal to avoid disapproval. Shy individuals also anticipate feelings of embarrassment which also results in lack of self-confidence (Manning & Ray, 1993). The fear of being negatively evaluated makes them highly prone to embarrassment compared to the non-shy individuals (Sinha, 2011).

Shy people experience self-deprecating thoughts, acute self-consciousness, and fear of social evaluation (Cheek & Melchior, 1990). They are preoccupied with self in response to imagined or real social interactions as well as they are associated with heightened self-consciousness during self-presentations (Cheek & Melchior, 1990). In fact being conscious about oneself and experiencing feelings of embarrassment especially in situations of evaluation are reported to be the major aspects of shyness (Crozier, 2010; Schmidt & Buss, 2010). This sense of self-conscious and fear of being laughed at, is a problematic situation experienced by the shy individuals (Sinha, 2011). The factor is named as **Self Consciousness** as the items of this factor depicts the self-conscious level experienced by the shy individuals.

Behavioural inhibitions are defined as prominent factor experienced by shy individuals (Cheek & Melchoir, 1990). Leary (1991) is also of the opinion that shy individuals experience hesitations when they have to speak to a stranger. These hesitations lead to feelings of awkwardness while they are exposed to social interactions. The items emerged in this factor highlights the behaviours of inhibition shown by a shy individual
especially while speaking with an unknown person. Hence, the factor was named as Inhibition.

Though studies had shown that the components of shyness include social competence, self-confidence, self-conscious inhibition, lack of communication, self-presentation and impact on self, the number of components vary according to the theoretical perspective. However, for the present study the components as obtained by Afshan and Manickam (2013a) were considered. (Social Competence, Social Confidence, Self-Consciousness and Inhibition).

**Types of Shyness**

Originally it was believed that shyness was a unitary construct, however due to the conceptualization of the term, later some of the researchers argued that shyness is multidimensional (Crozier, 1981). Asendorpf (1990) viewed that the types of shyness develops due to the differences in the social approach and social avoidance behaviours. Some of the types of shyness are described below:-

**Fearful Shy and Self Conscious Shy**

Buss (1986) mentions two kinds of shyness namely fearful shy and self-conscious shy based on the age groups. According to him the fearful shyness is experienced by the infant particularly in the first year of life, mostly depicted when unfamiliar faces of people especially adults confront the infant. Buss (1986) viewed that this fearful shyness disappears as the child matures. The self-conscious shyness first appears around age four when the cognitive self of the child has just begun to grow. This self-conscious shyness level increases at around eighth year of life when the child starts comparing and evaluating oneself and finds oneself lower or under mark in various aspects compared to his peer group (Cheek & Melchior, 1990). The concept of self-consciousness is an
important component of social anxiety and shyness (Buss, 1980; Jones, Briggs, & Smith, 1986).

Bruch, Giordano, and Pearl (1986) compared somatic anxiety and behavioural inhibitions in fearful shy and self-conscious shy individuals with those who were not shy undergraduate students. The results showed that the fearful shy individuals reported higher degree of somatic anxiety and behavioural inhibition than those who were self-conscious shy and who were not shy. Due to this high level of anxiety and inhibitions, the fearful shy individuals reported to have less knowledge about the social skills and were less competent.

Santesso, Lewandowski, Davis, and Schmidt (2006) determined the difference between anxious shyness and self-conscious shyness. This study was based on the EEG measure which was collected in response to an affective challenge which included response to music. The study reported that those who were classified as anxiously shy exhibited higher activity in their frontal lobe compared to those who were classified as self-consciously shy and the non-shy individuals indicating that the anxiously shy individuals have high levels of avoidance motivation.

Crozier (1999) who studied the differences in the behaviours of individuals who experienced fearful shyness and those who were self-conscious shy reported that the former categories were found to exhibit inhibited behaviours for a substantial proportion of time than the self-conscious shy. On the other hand the latter group showed more amount of blushing and feelings of embarrassment which was absent among the fearful shy.
Publicly Shy and Privately Shy

Pilkonics (1977) had differentiated between individuals who are publicly shy and those who are privately shy. Among these two types of shy individuals the burden of shyness is more on those who are publicly shy than those who are privately shy. The publicly shy find it hard to communicate their feelings both positive and negative, their uncertainties’ their qualities as well as their desires to their significant others. They are always worried about the evaluations others would make about them. Living with these fears of being evaluated they fail to express their problems and seek help and advice. As such they don’t even receive the recognition and love from others and remain unnoticed probably throughout their lives. On the other hand the privately shy individuals also known as shy extroverts may perform well if given a chance. When these individuals choose a profession they usually try to excel in their performance and at times may even turn out to be celebrities. However the problem arises when they are asked to perform alone. They are tongue tied when asked to sing or dance in a gathering. These individuals have to make hard efforts to anticipate an event. They usually waste much of their time and energy in concentrating on minor details of execution of a particular task. Other people perceive these shy extroverts as unpleasantly overpowering and a person who makes others work very hard. These individuals are also perceived by others as a person who performs an activity not for self-satisfaction instead to increase one’s sense of self importance and self-esteem or to display their splendid qualities. These shy extroverts have learned the social skills very well hence are able to hide their anxieties and fear to themselves. This they do either by consuming alcohol or by avoiding situations where they are not in control.

Buss (1980) also distinguished between public and private self-consciousness. Fenigstein, Scheier, and Buss (1975) defined private self-consciousness as an
individual's focus on aspects of inner self whereas public self-consciousness includes excessive self-focus on that aspect of self which is exposed to the society. However, the private self-consciousness was reported to be negatively related to social anxiety and the public self-consciousness was positively related to social anxiety and shyness (Cheek & Buss, 1981). Pilkonis (1976) viewed that the publicly self-conscious individuals are more distressed due to their awkward behaviour which leads to failure in responding appropriately to social situations.

Alden and Cappe (1988) interviewed 52 extremely shy clinical clients who were publicly and privately shy. The clients were allowed to interact for ten minutes with an experimental collaborator. Two trained observers videotaped the interactions and also rated them on 2 five-point rating scales. One of the scales measured the client’s behavioural skills and the other measured the clients anxiety level during the interactions, which were recorded based on the non-verbal interactions, eye movement and nervousness of the clients. Results showed significant differences on the social avoidance behaviour and anxiety among the publicly and privately shy individuals. However, it was even reported that the behavioural treatment programs had a positive effect on publicly shy individuals than the privately shy.

Monfries and Kafer (1994) studied the loci of social anxiety among 385 Australians who were experiencing public and private shyness. Inter-correlations between social avoidance and distress, fear of negative evaluation and public and private self-consciousness were evaluated. The results showed that public self-consciousness and social anxiety are positively related. Moreover, it was observed that public self-consciousness was an antecedent of social anxiety. It was also found that the locus of anxiety is cognition for those who were privately shy and socially anxious. But for those who were concerned with performances, the locus of anxiety was behavioural.
In an Indian study, Ebrahimi, D’Souza, and Ghasemian (2011) made an attempt to find the prevalence of public and private subtypes of shyness among 1368 adults and adolescents who belonged to the age groups of 16-18 years and 23-25 years who were from Mysore city. The results of the study showed that 14.4% of the total sample was experiencing high levels of public shyness, 67.3% of them were experiencing medium level and 18.3% of them were with low levels of public shyness.

Whereas, only 4.5% of the total participants were experiencing high levels of private shyness, 82.4% of them were experiencing medium levels of private shyness and 13.1% of them were experiencing low levels of private shyness. This indicates that majority of the population experience medium levels of public and private shyness.

**Regulated Shyness and Anxious Shyness**

Xu’s (2007) understanding of shyness in Chinese population introduced the term regulated shyness. Regulated shyness included self-controlled behaviours. Individuals who experience regulated shyness are found to be socially reserved and are non-assertive in their nature (Xu, Farver, Chang, & Yu, 2007).

Xu, Farver, Yu, and Zhang (2009) conducted a study to differentiate between regulated shyness, anxious shyness and shyness towards strangers. They also studied how these different forms of shyness would be related to children’s inhibition behaviour, physiological reactivity and effortful control. The physiological activity was assessed by measuring the heart period (HP) of the participants. 237 students among them (118 girls and 119 boys) studying at elementary school in Zhenjiang at 3rd and 4th grades were recruited for the study. Mothers of these participants were requested to rate their children’s shyness on Child Behaviour Questionnaire (Rothbart, Ahadi, Hershey, & Fisher, 2001). The Chinese Shyness Scale (Xu, Farver, Chang, & Yu, 2007) was used to assess the participant’s anxious shyness. Even the teachers of these participants were
asked to rate the participants anxious shyness and regulated shyness on a 5-point rating scale which had items similar to Chinese Shyness Scale. The behavioural observations and HP assessments were done individually in three sessions of 2 minutes each. These sessions included baseline, stranger encounter and card sorting with social evaluative cues. The HP of the children was measured using battery-powered portable HP monitor with a transmitter and the electrode attached to the participants’ chest. The results of confirmatory factor analysis supported the 3-factor model of shyness. The participants’ shyness towards strangers was associated with inhibition component of shyness positively, whereas it was negatively related with their HP. It was negatively associated with both stranger encounter and HP in card sorting session. However, regulated shyness was not associated with inhibition in children in any session, but it was negatively related to HP in stranger encounter session. The authors concluded that shyness towards strangers was related to regulated shyness among children with high or moderate effortful control. However, shyness towards strangers was related to anxious shyness among children with low or moderate effortful control.

Furthermore Xu, Farver, Yu, and Zhang (2009) found that both anxiously shy and regulated shy children reported to experience shyness in situations which involved public attention. This could be due to the prior experiences of rejections by the peers.

Correlates of Shyness

Age and Shyness

Rubin and Asendorpf (1993) reported that, with increase in age, unsociability and shyness becomes increasingly associated with peer difficulties and psychological ill-being. As age advances, all forms of social withdrawal are viewed as atypical and deviant by peers. Crozier (1995) explored the relationship between shyness and self-
esteem among 146 children whose age ranged between 9-12 years. The results revealed that shyness did not differ among the participants of different age group whereas significant effects for gender and school level within age were obtained. Participants who were 11 years old and studying in secondary school were more shy compared to 11 years old and studying in primary school. Not the age alone, but transition from the primary level to secondary level could be an important factor, in the increase in shyness level. In a longitudinal study Asendorpf, Denissen, and Van Aken (2008) found that, over a period of 19-years, shy children remained consistently shyer than non-shy children.

Sheriatnia and D’Souza (2008) studied early adolescents and late adolescents in Iran and found that early adolescents were more shy compared to late adolescents indicating that as age increases the shyness level decreases linearly.

Karevold, Ystrom, Coplan, Sanson, and Mathiesen (2012) examined the stability and age related change of shyness from self and parent’s point of view. Results revealed that the mean scores of shyness were below mid-point initially and increased slightly over time indicating that shyness increases over time. The first slope of piecewise growth curve model showed positive relationship with shyness intercept factor. They found a stronger increase in shyness during toddlerhood predicted a higher intercept level at higher level.

Negative correlation was observed between slope factor, which indicated that lower levels of shyness at the intercept level were related to increasing levels in shyness during late childhood. However, change in shyness levels during toddlerhood was not observed to be significantly related to change during later childhood.
**Gender and Shyness**

In Indian context, culturally, girls are expected to be shyer than boys. Shyness is considered to be the quality of females, and if any female lacks modesty and possess more of masculine character, then she is considered to be bold, brash and ‘non-feminine’ being (Sinha, 2011). However, studying the level of shyness of population from different countries, Henderson and Zimbardo (2008) found no gender difference and opined that men have learnt typical tactics to conceal shyness as they regard it as a feminine trait. On the other hand, there are many studies that reported gender differences in shyness among male and female (Crozier, 1995; La.Greca & Lopez, 1998; Stockli, 2002; Mandal, 2008). Cheek and Melchior (1990) also observed that females are more shy than the males indicating that shyness may have a greater impact on one’s self concept.

Gender difference in shyness could be understood by the way the shy boys and girls are treated, responded and accepted by the significant others (Radke-Yarrow, Richters, & Wilson, 1988; Stevenson-Hinde, 1989). They further observed that shy girls are always accepted and rewarded by their parent, but shy boys are always discouraged for their shyness. Studies have also shown that even in the early stages of childhood the shy boys experience social withdrawal and a strong peer rejection than shy girls which may lead to negative effects in them even in later childhood and beyond (Gazelle & Ladd, 2003; Coplan, Arbeau, & Armer, 2008; Rubin, Coplan, Bowker, & Menzer, 2011).

Some of the researchers have focused on the outcome of shyness in different genders that is experienced during childhood. The negative outcomes of shyness in boys include, socio-emotional difficulties, feelings of loneliness, experiencing more anxiety and showing low self-esteem compared to shy girls (Coplan, Closson, & Arbeau, 2007). Asendorpf, Denissen, and Van Aken (2008) in their longitudinal study reported that in
the long run, shy males but not females entered romantic relationships later than non-shy males which indicates that the implications of shyness and withdrawal may vary for boys and girls.

Karevold, Ystrom, Coplan, Sanson, and Mathiesen (2012) conducted a longitudinal study with an aim to explore the gender and age differences in shyness over time. Their sample included 921 children who were of 18 months to 13 years. The mothers of these children were asked to rate the shyness of their children on shyness subscale of the Emotionality, Activity and Sociability Temperament Survey (EAS) developed by Buss and Plomin (1984). The data was collected at five different stages of the study during which the authors requested the mothers of the participants to rate their child’s shyness using the same tool. Later, the data was analysed based upon the self-report and the mother’s report of shyness level. The authors applied piecewise growth curve model for analysing the gender differences of the sample. The results of the research showed that the mean level of shyness increased with age, but the maternal ratings of shyness were moderately stable across time. There was steeper growth with more individual variation in toddlerhood compared to childhood, and boys shyness increased more steeply in toddlerhood as compared to girls. Moreover, the maternal ratings of shyness for boys were lower than girls in infancy but increased nearly twice as much as girls’ level in toddlerhood. Thus there were no significant gender differences in shyness especially at the age of 4.5 years as there was no significant change in average shyness level was found after this age in boys. Whereas, the average change in girls was found to be significant in girl’s up to 12.5 years. The rate of change in shyness per year was larger in boys than for girls especially in toddlerhood than in childhood.

D’Souza (2003) conducted a study to explore the gender differences in shyness level among boys and girls studying in 8th, 9th and 10th grades. 160 students from different
schools in Mysore, India were selected from both Kannada and English medium schools using stratified random sampling technique. The sample comprised of 82 boys and 78 girls from the age group of 12 to 16 years. Based on their shyness scores the participants were divided into low, medium and high levels of shyness. Results of Two-way ANOVA showed no significant differences in the shyness level between boys and girls.

Natesha and D’Souza (2007) conducted a cross sectional study to explore the prevalence rate of shyness among children who were studying in primary and high schools both English and Kannada medium between I to VIII grades. A sample of 1200 students was selected randomly from seven different schools in and around Mysore city. The age of these participants varied between 5 to 13 years. Shyness Questionnaire developed by Crozier (1995) was administered to these participants to assess their shyness level. Results of Chi Square test and contingency coefficient tests showed that 26.2% of the children had high levels of shyness, 36.6% of them had moderate level and 37.3% showed low level of shyness in them. Among all the age groups, participants whose age ranged between 11- 13 years were found to have higher levels of shyness than the children in the age group of 8- 10 years and those with lower age group.

D’Souza, Urs, and James (2008) conducted a study to assess shyness among high school students. They also explored the relationship between age and shyness. They administered Shyness Questionnaire developed by Crozier (1995) on a sample of 220 students whose age ranged between 11 to 18 years. These participants were studying in VIII, IX and X grades and belonged to both English and Kannada medium. Based on the shyness scores these participants were classified into those experiencing low level of shyness (39), moderate level (149) and High level (32) of shyness. Results of product moment correlation revealed no relationship between age of the participants and their shyness level.
Zhao, Kong, and Wang (2012) conducted a study to explore the role of social support and self-esteem in the relationship between shyness and loneliness. The study also evaluated the gender differences among the participants with regard to shyness, social support, loneliness and self-esteem. The sample was collected from 399 college students (193 males and 206 females) studying at Xi’an College located in a mid-sized city in the middle of China. The age of these participants ranged between 18 to 30 years. The structural equation model showed no significant gender differences in social support and loneliness. However, significant gender differences were observed regarding shyness and self-esteem scores of the participants. Females tended to have higher shyness compared to males and males showed significantly higher self-esteem than females.

Natesha and D’Souza (2007) conducted a cross sectional study to explore the prevalence rate of shyness among children who were studying in primary and high schools both English and Kannada medium between I to VIII grades. They even compared the gender differences for the shyness level. A sample of 1200 students was selected randomly from seven different schools in and around Mysore city. Among them 600 participants were boys and 600 were girls. Results of Chi Square test and contingency coefficient tests showed that 26.2% of the children had high levels of shyness, 36.6% of them had moderate level and 37.3% showed low level of shyness in them. Gender-wise comparisons did not show any significant differences in the shyness level of boys and girls.

While some studies show gender difference is related to shyness, there are equally solid evidences which state that the differences in shyness found during early childhood may not be the same as an individual grows.
**Domicile and Shyness**

D’Souza and Urs (2007) assessed the level of shyness among adolescent students from rural and urban areas of Mysore using shyness scale (Crozier, 1995) A sample of 335 students from urban areas and 416 students from rural area were selected randomly for this study. Results revealed that students studying in rural area showed significantly high levels of shyness compared to students studying in urban area. They also found that the female students were comparatively more shy than male students from rural areas and they also reported that shyness increased linearly with age.

Chen, Wang, and Wang (2009) explored the differential adjustment of shy children who hail from different backgrounds. They even studied the relationship between shyness-sensitivity social competence, school performance and psychological well-being among Chinese children who were from rural backgrounds. The results of the study showed that shyness was related to depression, school and social problems among those children who hailed from urban areas. Whereas, it was related to adjustment problems, academic achievements and teacher-rated competence among children who were from rural areas.

**Biological basis of shyness**

Research on shyness had focused on its biological components and correlates including the genetics, functions of brain and biologically determined temperament.

**Genetics and Shyness**

Is shyness inherited or not is a question that intrigued several researchers. In one of the longitudinal studies, Horn, Plomin, and Roseman (1976) observed that shyness is more heritable compared to any other personality traits. Cheek and Buss (1981) reported that shyness and sociability could be differentiated at a phenotypic level. Research on behavioural genetics emphasized the role of heredity in shyness than in other
personality traits during infancy (Plomin & Rowe, 1977), middle childhood (O’Connor, Foch, Sherry, & Plomin, 1980), adolescence (Cheek & Zonderman, 1983), and adulthood (Horn, Plomin, & Rosenman, 1976). More convincing evidence on inheritance had come from other studies. Based on the twin studies, family studies and adoption studies, Plomin and Daniels (1986) opined that heredity factors are involved in the individual differences observed in shyness.

Zimbardo (1977) exploring the genetic component to shyness, found shyness in parents and grandparents of shy infants who reported shyness in childhood more often than the relatives of children who were not shy. Evidences for a congenital link to shyness was found in studies that showed that identical twins were more likely to be shy than fraternal twins. Bell, Jasnoski, Kagan, and King (1990) also reported that the parents of children who have high incidence of shyness suffer from panic disorder and depression. However, in a later study Carducci and Zimbardo (1995) found that 15% of the time, genetic predisposition to shyness does not develop into shyness. Researchers tried to discover the molecular genetics of shyness. Schmidt, Fox, Rubin, Hu, and Hamer (2001) conducted a study to explore the molecular genetics of shyness and aggression. Their study revealed that the children who had short and long genotypes of the 5-HTT gene (serotonin transporter) and Ser23 versus Cys23 allele of the 5 HT2C receptor genes were rated to be having more problems with social adjustment and exhibit more shyness during peer play and at age 4 by their mothers.

**Brain and Shyness**

The studies depicted the involvement of amygdala region of brain in shyness (Schwartz, Wright, Shin, Kagan, and Rauch, 2003). Infants who were born with low threshold in the amygdala and its projections behaved like high reactive infants and displayed vigorous limb movement and felt distressed to unfamiliar stimuli (Kagan, 1994). Fox,
Schmidt, Calkins, Rubin, and Coplan, (1996) projected the relationship between asymmetry of frontal lobe with negative emotionality and shyness. EEG based research have predicted that reactive and inhibited children, who are shy also showed greater activation in the right frontal area compared to the left frontal area (Harmon-Jones & Allen, 1997; Sutton & Davidson, 1997; Kagan & Snidman, 1999). Apart from displaying asymmetrical pattern in the right frontal EEG, Calkins, Fox, and Marshall, (1996) found that toddlers who display high levels of behavioural inhibition also displayed a pattern of increased EEG activation across frontal regions of both hemispheres.

Not only cross sectional studies, but longitudinal studies also explored the relation between brain functions and shyness.

Henderson, Marshall, Fox, and Rubin (2004) in their longitudinal study on 147 (67 male, 80 female) preschool aged children, recruited them when they were 4 months old based on their motor and emotional reactions to novel sights and sounds. The children who showed reticent behaviours and those who showed solitary passive behaviours were both rated as high on shyness level by their mothers. In addition both the groups displayed a pattern of right frontal EEG asymmetry, indicating that both forms of non-social behaviours result from common motivational state of withdrawal or avoidance.

**Temperamental Correlates**

Some of the studies explored the role of biological components in temperamental shyness. Research on the biological correlates revealed that it is characterized by fearful emotions, anxiety and withdrawal when one encounters novel situations (Kagan, 1989; 1994). During early days of nineteenth century Shirley (1939) reported that the premature born boys were more shy compared to the full term born boys. Frazee (1953)
comparing boys who were later diagnosed with schizophrenia and normal control reported that the boys who were diagnosed with schizophrenia were “shy, listless and lacked interest compared to those who were not diagnosed as schizophrenic. Studying the heart beats of shy children, researchers reported that the heartbeats of behaviourally inhibited children was high, when they were exposed to the strangers (Kagan, Reznick, & Snidman, 1987, 1988; Marshall & Stevenson-Hinde, 1988). In another study, Granger, Weiss, and Kauneckis (1994) found that increased level of cortisol in the body was associated with social withdrawal and social anxiety. Kagan and Snidman (1991) found that the physiological changes which included increased autonomic activity lead to the extreme withdrawal from unfamiliar social situations.

**Consequences of Shyness**

There are several longitudinal studies which had explored the long term consequences of shyness and social withdrawal in childhood and adolescent stage. They include anxiety, phobia, fear, loneliness, and depression.

**Anxiety and Shyness**

Several studies have reported that children who have extreme shyness in early childhood are at risk to develop clinical anxiety disorder. In one of the earlier studies, Hartmann (1973) reported the relationship between shyness and anxiety through a research on sleep. It was found that individuals who consistently require more sleep than average tend to be shy and showed considerable amount of anxiety.

Explaining the coexistence of anxiety and shyness, Eisenberg, Fabes, and Murphy (1999) narrated that the empathic over arousal or the personal distress caused due to the social situations is usually attributed to inward causes as the shy individual is poor at shifting his or her attention to the other external causes. Repeated exposure to such self-
blaming behaviour leads to the thought that such situations are generally aversive and are to be avoided. Thus the over-arousal spirals into anxiety which, over a period of time, evolves into shyness (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Murphy, 1999).

D'Souza (2008) assessed the levels and relationship between shyness and anxiety among 140 athlete women from Mysore University. Sample included participants of intercollegiate level sports held at Mysore, and their involvement in various games such as ball games, racket games, human powered games, games which involved cognitive skills like chess and multiple games. Shyness was measured in three domains namely psychological domain, physical domain and social domain. Both anxiety and shyness scores were measured in three levels: low, moderate and high. They found that 34.3% of the total sample had low shyness, 61.4% had moderate shyness and 4.3% of the sample had high level of shyness. Whereas, 7.1% of the sample had normal anxiety, 91.4% had moderate anxiety and 1.4% of the sample had low anxiety. On the whole, athletic women who played games involving cognitive skills had high level of shyness and women with human powered games had least shyness. The level of anxiety was high among athletes with cognitive skills and racket game, and it was least among athletes with ball games and multiple games. Further, the study concluded that anxiety correlated positively and significantly with psychological domain of shyness followed by social domain. Significant positive relationship was found between physical domain of shyness and anxiety to lesser extent.

Karevold, Ystrom, Coplan, Sanson, and Mathiesen (2012) in their longitudinal study explored shyness, anxiety, depression and social skills among toddlers and children who were of 18 months to 13 years. The social skills of the participants were assessed by both parent rating and child self-report. The researchers found that shyness was significantly associated with anxiety, depression and social skills over time. The mean
score of shyness levels predicted increased symptoms of anxiety and depression but decreased level of social skills in these participants. Moreover the self-reported anxiety and social skills were positively associated with parent reported shyness at later stages.

**Social Phobia and Shyness**

There are studies which explored the presence of shyness and its relation to social phobia during late childhood and adolescence (Schwartz, Snidman, & Kagan, 1999; Prior, Smart, Sanson, & Oberklaid, 2000). Chavira, Stein, and Malcrane (2002) obtained that a larger proportion of highly shy individuals were diagnosed with generalized social phobia, with major depressive disorders and avoidant personality disorders.

Hesier, Turner, and Beidel (2003) reported high prevalence of social phobia among shy individuals compared to non-shy individuals. On comparing shy individuals who were diagnosed with social phobia with those who were shy but not diagnosed with social phobia, it was observed that the former group of individuals were more impaired regarding work, or school and social functioning (Chavira, Stein, & Malcrane, 2002). Heiser, Turner, and Beidel (2003) observed positive correlation between severity of shyness and social phobia. They further opined that people who suffer with social phobia cannot be characterized as shy individuals. This indicates that shyness could be associated with general psychopathology rather than specifically with social phobia (Hesier, Turner, & Beidel, 2003).

**Fear and Shyness**

D'Souza, Gowda, and Gowda (2006) investigated the relationship between shyness and fear among high school students of Mysore city in India. The sample included 311 high school students who were studying in 8th, 9th and 10th, grades in English and
Kannada medium. The researchers found that the level of shyness increased with fear scores linearly. Students from Kannada medium of instruction were more fearful compared to students of English medium, and in turn were found to be more shy. The study implicated that shyness may be influenced by the medium of instruction.

**Loneliness and Shyness**

Many researchers have reported positive correlation between shyness and loneliness (Anderson & Harvey, 1988; Stephan, Fath, & Lamm, 1988; Kalliopuska, & Laitinen, 1991; Zimbardo, 1977). Cheek and Buss (1981) conducted a study on undergraduate students studying introductory psychology. The students were asked to complete a trait measure of shyness and a trait measure of loneliness at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The results of the study showed that the scores of loneliness decreased from in end of the semester compared to beginning of the semester in both shy and non-shy students. However shy participants were observed to be lonelier compared to non-shy individuals during the beginning and end of the semester. This indicates that both social situations and personality characteristics especially shyness, contributes to the level of loneliness an individual may experience.

Hymel, Rubin, Rowden, and LeMare (1990) longitudinally studied to examine the association between social difficulties and indices of both internalizing and externalizing problems in the later childhood. They reported that in the long run, children who were perceived as unpopular and sensitive to social behaviors by peers and others and those who perceived themselves as more socially incompetent did express loneliness when they were in fifth grade. Dill and Anderson (1999) were also of the view that “being shy has important implications for the development of loneliness and depression” (p-96). Shy individuals display poor social skills in social situations
due to which they have fewer social relationships and hence are prey to feelings of loneliness (Dill & Anderson 1999).

Gokhan (2010) conducted a research to analyze the relationship between shyness and loneliness among elementary school students. In the sample of 470 students studying in 8th, 9th, and 10th grades of different elementary schools of Nigde, Turkey, they reported positive correlation between shyness and loneliness. The regression analysis done in the study showed that shyness is a best predictor factor for loneliness.

Zhao, Kong, and Wang (2012) recently conducted a study to explore the role of social support and self-esteem in the relationship between shyness and loneliness. For this purpose, they collected a sample of 399 college students from Xi’an College located in a mid-sized city in the middle of China. Using the process of structural equation modeling method, the data was analyzed and they found that that shyness and loneliness were partially mediated by social support. The findings indicate that shy individuals perceived much less social support from their peers which in turn enhances their loneliness.

**Depression and Shyness**

Several studies have found the link between depression and shyness (Anderson & Arnoult, 1985a, 1985b; Traub, 1983; Anderson & Harvey, 1988; Alfano, Joiner, Perry, & Metalsky, 1994). Shyness can cause depression either directly or indirectly through loneliness. The indirect effect is the more common compared to the direct one as it interferes with the healthy development of satisfying interpersonal relationships leading to depression. The direct effect is probably weaker which occurs due to social failures, causing anxiety and producing negative affect which in turn causes increase in depression.
Somesha and D'Souza (2009) studied the effects of shyness on depression among adolescents of Mysore city. They conducted the study on 720 adolescents out of which 360 were early adolescents and 360 were late adolescents. The results revealed that higher levels of shyness lead to depression and that depression was more among early adolescents. Moreover among late adolescents who have low and medium levels of shyness had lesser depression levels compared to those of late adolescents with high levels of shyness.

**Academic Achievements and Shyness**

Whether one’s academic level of achievement has been influenced by shyness was studied by several researchers in different cultural settings. Academic competencies of shy children were found to be below average level and this is could be to the stresses associated with test performance (Crozier & Hostettler, 2003). Daly and Korinek (1980) showed that shy individuals lack verbal comprehension and therefore they tend to speak less in school. This in turn is perceived by their peer group and teachers as being less intelligent. Lack of speaking skills could interfere with the academic success and school adjustment (Daly & Korinek, 1980).

D'Souza, Singh, and Basavarajappa (1999) assessed shyness and intelligence of students of physical education and found that shyness was independent of each other. Studying the early and late childhood population, researchers had found link between shyness and social withdrawal with lack of displayed academic competencies, Rubin, Chen, & Hymel, 1993; Coplan, Gavinski-Molina, Lagace-Seguin, & Wichmann, 2001; Lloyd & Howe, 2003).

D'Souza, Jayaraju, Venugopal, and Natesha (2008) studied the effects of shyness on academic achievements of children and adolescents. They found that shyness
correlated significantly and negatively with academic achievement. However for adolescents, shyness had significant influence on academic achievement when compared to that of children. The physiological domain of shyness did not influence academic achievement of both adolescents and children.

Hughes and Coplan (2010) explored the relationship between shyness, academic engagement and academic achievement in children whose age ranged between 9 to 13 years. Apart from shyness, they assessed the academic achievement of the participants through both teacher ratings and standardized tests of reading comprehension and mathematics. In addition, teacher-rated measure of academic engagement was developed to assess the participation and on-task behaviour of the participants in the classroom. They found that shyness was negatively related to teacher-rated academic achievement. However, shyness was not related to standardized test scores. They also found that there was a significantly negative relationship between shyness and academic engagement, but positive relationship between academic engagement and all measures of achievement. Further analysis showed that the relation between shyness and teacher ratings of achievement was partially mediated by academic engagement. The findings in turn may have influenced the poor teacher-rated academic performance in shy children.

**Culture and Shyness**

Many researchers have reported that shyness varies across different cultures (Stockli, 2002; Vanaja, Latha, & Bhaskara, 2004; Sakuragi, 2004; Yuki & Mark, 2006; Chen, & French, 2008). Shyness is considered to be a negative trait in the western countries where the talent of behaving and impressing the audience, expressing own feelings and opinions to friends as well as higher authorities and one’s social competence is respected and valued (Weisz et al., 1993).
Studies conducted in China showed that shyness is positively correlated with peer acceptance in the age group of 8 to 10 years. However, when compared with Canadian children of the same ages (Chen, Rubin, & Sun, 1992) peer acceptance was negatively correlated with shyness.

In South Asian countries, shyness is considered to be a boon because their societies expect to control oneself in front of others and to respect social rank of others. These qualities are considered as important aspects of society in their countries (Weisz, et al., 1993).

Is shyness universal? Carducci and Zimbardo (1995) studied shyness across cultures. The data for this study was collected from a large proportion of participants in all cultures from India, Canada, Germany, Israel, Japan, Mexico and Taiwan countries. They found that the extent of population experiencing shyness varied from 24% to 60%. The lowest was experienced by Jewish Americans and the highest was reported in Japan and Hawaiians. In India as per the study, shyness was found to be prevalent and 47% of student population experienced shyness to a considerable degree. Whereas in Mexico, Germany and Canada the results revealed that shyness was much similar to the 40% reported in U.S.

In another study conducted by Paulhus, Duncan, and Yik (2002), the researchers tried comparing the patterns of self-reported shyness in East Asian and European-heritage students. The results showed that 68% of Asian students reported to be shy whereas 44% of the European students reported to experience shyness. Furthermore the study even revealed that the Asian participants were more shy in class room situation than in social situation and this is attributed to the cultural influences.
Carducci and Zimbardo (1995) explaining the cultural differences in shyness made a
distinction between collectivistic cultures and individual cultures. Collectivist culture,
promote esteem of the group over that of the individual. As a result, it fosters self-
consciousness and shyness. On the other hand, individualistic cultures promote self-
estee m of individuals and foster their self-expression. Thus shyness is found to be more
among individuals who are from collectivist culture than compared to individual
cultures (Afshan, Askari, & Manickam, 2015).

Assessing Shyness in Indian Context

Extensive work was carried out on shyness by D’Souza and his associates in Indian
context (D’Souza, Singh, & Basavarajappa, 1999; D’Souza, 2003; D’Souza, Gowda, &
Gowda, 2006, D’Souza & Urs, 2007; Natesha & D’Souza 2007; D’Souza, Urs, &
Jayaraju, 2008; Somesha & D’Souza, 2009). They have explained the correlation of
shyness with fear, anxiety and neurotic behaviours.

However Sinha (2011) attempted to conceptualize the concept of shyness in Indian
context from student population whose age ranged from 16-26 years. She adopted a
qualitative approach which included focus group discussions and individual interviews.
She also developed a tool with 21 items and standardized it on 469 college students.
The alpha reliability of the tool was .84 and the test retest reliability was .91 and
established content, construct and criterion validity. Based on her conceptualization, she
found the following seven factors emerging: communication, self-presentation, impact
on self, social-confidence, social-competence, inhibition and social ease (Sinha, 2011).

Afshan and Manickam (2013) modified this tool on a sample of 1121 students whose
age ranged between 13 to 16 years. Only those items of the original tool which had
factor loading above .40 were considered for the modified tool. The Cronbach alpha of
the modified tool was .72. The authors found four factors emerging while using factor Principal Component Analysis for extraction of factors. The factors were identified as Social Competence, Social Confidence, Self Conscious and Inhibition. Higher score indicated high level of shyness.

To conclude, the research on shyness in India perceived it as a positive quality of adolescents (Sinha, 2011). But whether this popular concept has any relation to the masculinity-femininity or the gender role had not been explored by researchers in India.

**Gender Role**

Gender role is considered to be the personality attribute which is relevant to the emotional expression and interpersonal competence (Sharpe & Hepner, 1991). From the early days girls were considered to be passive, dependent, pure, refined and delicate. Boys were considered to be active, independent, coarse, and strong. The behaviour that differentiated between male and female genders were considered to be the ‘dogma of two spheres’ (Cross and Madson, 1997; Hetherington & Parke, 2003).

One of the studies that explored the behaviour of masculine and feminine individuals revealed that the masculine nature of one’s personality was positively related to self-esteem and adjustment among both adolescent boys and girls (Raj & Thomas, 1984). In another study Rose and Montemayor (1994) explored the relationship between gender, gender role orientation, grade, and perceived self-competency among adolescents. The results showed that the perceived social and athletic competency was higher among boys whereas the perceived romantic competency was higher among girls. In addition, those who were androgynous adolescents showed highest perceived scholastic competency, close friendship competency, and global self-worth. The trait of masculinity predicted perceived scholastic competency and close friendship
competency among girls and boys equally. But the perceived global self-worth was found only in masculine girls. On the other hand, femininity predicted perceived scholastic competency only in boys. They concluded that gender, gender role orientation and perceived self–competency did not differ in relation to the grades of the participants.

Diehl, Owen, and Youngblade (2004) investigated the attributes of agency and communion in adults whose age ranged from 20 to 88 years. They found that the participants who were young and middle aged showed more of agentic behaviours compared to those who were older adults. The study also reported gender differences with regard to agentic and communion attributes. Men showed more of agentic attributes whereas women were found to be communion in their behaviours.

Levant (2011) explored the relationship between masculinity constructs and academic help seeking behaviour among 193 undergraduate psychology students. He found that those individuals who scored high on masculinity traits showed less help seeking behaviours compared to those who scored high on femininity traits.

Marrs, Sigler, and Brammer (2012) conducted a study to explore the impact of gender role on academic help seeking behaviours and academic performance in undergraduate students from a midsize university in western United States. The results showed that there were no difference in men and women with regard to academic help seeking behaviours. However, gender role played a significant impact on academic help seeking behaviours. Those participants who classified themselves as androgynous sex role on Bem Sex Role Inventory were more likely to seek academic help from professors, friends, and even from support services compared to those who classified themselves to be masculine, feminine and undifferentiated type. Those who classified themselves to
be masculine showed lowest academic help seeking behaviours. However, with regard to academic performance, no significant differences were observed between the masculine, feminine androgynous and undifferentiated type of participants.

**Gender Role and Shyness**

Though there are studies that had explored several variables related to masculinity and femininity, there are not many studies that explored its relation to shyness.

Rose and Montemayor (1994) conducted a study to explore the relationship between gender, grade, gender role and perceived self-competence in Caucasian participants who were studying in classes sixth to twelve. The researchers found that the male participants perceived their social and athletic competence to be higher than the girls. On the other hand, girls perceived their romantic appeal to be higher than boys. Those with androgynous gender role had perceived themselves to be highest in scholastic competency, close friendship competency, and global self-worth. The masculinity in girls and boys predicted greater perception of scholastic competency and close friendship competency. However, global self-worth perceived by masculine girls was more compared to the perception of masculine boys. On other hand, the presence of femininity only predicted the perceived scholastic competency in boys.

In one of the studies, Berko (1995) explored the relationship between personality characteristics, self-disclosure, gender role and shyness among undergraduate male students. They reported that those male participants who scored low on femininity preferred to inhibit intimate self-disclosure. Moreover these participants also suffered from gender role conflicts. In yet another study, Monroe (2002) examined the role of toughness which is a masculine ideology and shyness in relation to the emotional inexpression of men. They found that toughness weakened the relationship between
shyness and some aspects of emotional inexpression. Moreover, shy men who stick on to the norms of the gender role reported less tendency to disclose themselves.

Mandal (2008) conducted a study on physical, emotional, cognitive and behavioural consequences on shyness of men and women whose age ranged between 20-25 years reported that the frequency of shyness did not differ in men and women. However, gender identity was found to be a significant factor which differentiated the occurrence of shyness syndrome. Participants who were found to be feminine and undifferentiated gender roles indicated that they often experience shyness compared to those who were masculine and androgynous gender roles who claimed that they rarely experience shyness. The major cause of experiencing shyness was fear of being evaluated negatively. The individuals with feminine and undifferentiated gender roles lacked self-confidence and often feared of being rejected. Moreover, participants with undifferentiated gender roles often indicated fear of intimacy as the cause of their own shyness. The ‘feminine’ participants reported that situations which made them be the centre of attraction and the situations in which they were required to behave assertively induced remarkable shyness in them.

Regarding the physical consequences, Mandal (2008) reported that the ‘feminine’ individuals experienced remarkably higher pulse rate and tremors more often than those with masculine gender roles. Those with masculine gender roles experienced increased sweating compared to those who were feminine.

Regarding the cognitive factors the study reported that the ‘feminine’ participants showed significantly higher rates of negative thoughts about themselves compared to masculine and androgynous participants. Those with undifferentiated gender roles felt
embarrassed while they experienced shyness. The ‘masculine’ participants did not concentrate on the unpleasant aspects of shyness as often as the ‘feminine’ participants.

Regarding behavioural consequences, the participants with feminine gender role tried convincing themselves that there were no reasons for them to be shy more often compared to those who were masculine.

Akdoğan and Can (2011) compared the level of shyness and gender roles among males and females who were doing their post-graduation. The results showed that most of the male participants were ‘masculine’ in nature and most of the females were ‘feminine’. Furthermore, on analysing shyness with gender role, the level of shyness was lower among participants who were masculine compared to those participants who were with feminine and undifferentiated gender roles. Shyness was also found to be less among the participants who were androgynous in nature.

**Tools to Assess Gender-Role**

Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). This tool consists of 60 items, 7-point Likert type scale. The response categories range from 1 (never or almost never true) to 7 (always or almost always true). Twenty items characterize feminine traits 20 are masculine traits and 20 are neutral items. The 20 neutral items constituted a measure of social desirability whereas the ‘feminine’ and ‘masculine’ items were identified as socially desirable for their respective gender. Ten items of the neutral scale were considered to be of the gender-desirable for both gender and the other ten as undesirable for both genders. If the participant’s score on femininity exceeded the masculinity score then the respondent was classified as feminine and vice versa. If the difference were not statistically significant then the respondent was classified as androgynous.
Psychological Sex Inventory (IPP) (Kuczynska, 1992) was also developed based on the concept of Bem Sex Role Inventory. It is a 5 point Likert type scale which ranged from the options “I am not like this at all” to “This is exactly what I am”. It consisted of 35 adjectives among which 15 adjectives measured traits of femininity and the other 15 measured traits of masculinity. The remaining 5 adjectives were neutral items. The Cronbach alpha for feminine items was .77 and that for masculine items was .82.

Gender Role Inventory-(Weaver & Sergent, 2007). Weaver (2007) revised the Bem sex role inventory and standardized a short inventory. The GRI had 14 items, 7 among them indicate masculine and the other 7 indicates feminine characteristics. It is a 5 point Likert scale in which the participant should rate himself between never to always about his own characteristics.

Afshan, D’Souza, and Manickam (2014) studied the relationship between shyness and gender role using GRI (Weaver & Sergent, 2007) of adolescents who were staying in hostels and who were living with both their parents. Results showed that the gender role of the participants did not influence their shyness level. Moreover, the interaction effect between place of stay and gender role was also not significant. This indicated that the nature of shyness of masculine, feminine and androgyny adolescents was same irrespective of their place of stay.

To conclude, Afshan, D’Souza and Manickam (2014) suggested the need to explore the parenting style in relation to shyness and to explore the mediating effect of gender role on shyness.
Parenting Styles

Effects of Perceived Parenting Styles by Adolescents on Their Behavior

Wolfradt, Hempel, and Miles (2003) investigated the relationship between perceived parenting styles, depersonalization and anxiety along with coping behaviour among normal high school students. The results revealed that perceived parental psychological pressure by adolescents correlated positively with depersonalization and trait anxiety in them. However, perceived parental warmth was positively associated with active coping and negatively correlated with trait anxiety. Their study also showed that among the four parenting styles, the group which received authoritarian parenting style showed higher scores on depersonalization and anxiety, whereas the group who received authoritative and permissive style of both parents showed the highest score on active problem coping.

Steinberg, Blatt-Eisengart, and Cauffman (2006) conducted a study to explore the relationship between the four parenting styles (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Neglectful and Indulgent) on a large sample, who belonged to the age group of 18 years and were adjudicated for serious criminal offences. The sample was from poor ethnic minority youth living in urban neighborhood. The study revealed that youths who considered their parents as authoritative were found to be psychosocially mature, academically competent and they were less prone to externalize their problems. On the contrary, youths who considered their parents to be neglectful were found to be less mature, less competent and more disturbed. Moreover, the juvenile offenders who categorized their parents as either authoritarian or indulgent scored between the two extremes. The youths who were from authoritarian background were consistently functioning better than those who were from indulgent background homes.
Gracia, Gracia, and Lila (2008) explored the relationship between the two-dimension four typology model of parenting styles and psychological adjustment of adolescents in Spain. Adolescents who perceived their parents as being indulgent found to be having high psychological maladjustment than adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles. On the four measures of psychological maladjustments, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional irresponsiveness, and negative worldview (Gracia, Gracia, & Lila, 2008) these adolescents even scored higher than adolescents of authoritative parents. However, they scored equal on the measures of hostility/aggression. Adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative scored more positively than adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful families on four measures that are hostility/aggression, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, and emotional irresponsiveness. Although these adolescents scored more positively in the measure of negative worldview than adolescents of authoritarian parents, they scored equal than adolescents from neglectful families.

Turkel and Tezer (2008) identified the differences among 834 school students regarding their perceived parenting styles and its effects on their learned resourcefulness. They administered Parenting Style Inventory-I and Rosenberg Self Control Schedule. The results of their study revealed that the students who perceived their parents to be authoritative, had relatively high level of learned resourcefulness compared to those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. They also reported that those students who perceived their parents as indulgent also had higher level of learned resourcefulness.

Cenkseven-Onder, Kirdok, and Isik (2010) conducted a study to understand the effects of four different kinds of parenting styles and parenting attachment levels on career decision making among a group of high school students. The results of the study
revealed that children who experienced more authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles were more decisive compared to the students who experienced neglectful and indulgent parenting styles. The study explored that students who experienced medium degree of attachment level with their parents were more decisive than the parents who experienced low or high levels of attachment levels.

In one of the recent studies, Sharma, Sharma, and Yadava (2011) examined the relationship between authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles and depression among adolescents. The results showed that among the three parenting styles, authoritarian style was positively associated with depression and permissive style was negatively related to depression. The adolescents who grew up in highly authoritarian families were more prone to depression than the adolescents who grew up experiencing authoritative and permissive parenting styles.

Sonthalia and Dasgupta (2012) evaluated the effects of attachment styles of adolescents with their parents on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, sensation seeking and risky behaviours. The study revealed that females perceive their parents and peers to be more trustworthy and communicative and hence they were attached more to them compared to males. Their emotional intelligence was high compared to males, but males had high levels of self-esteem. They found that females alienate more from their mothers and peers. Whereas, male adolescents showed more distance with their fathers. If adolescent males and females perceive their parents as trustworthy and peers as communicative, it increases their self-esteem and emotional intelligence. On the other hand self-esteem and emotional intelligence decreases when they perceive their parents and peers to be alienating. Moreover, if the adolescents perceive their fathers to be more communicative, then their involvement in the sensation seeking attention behaviour increases. A significantly positive relationship existed between self-esteem and positive
attachment style and significantly negative relationship existed between self-esteem and negative attachment style. Securely attached children are able to separate from attachment figures with confidence and elicit help and comfort when they feel threatened. Attachment styles that fail to provide security have a detrimental effect on the way children perceive themselves and respond to others.

Kumar, Sharma, and Hooda (2012) evaluated the effects of perceived parental style on hope among adolescents in 120 school children whose mean age was 16 years. The results of the study revealed that the level of hope was significantly correlated with democratic, accepting and over-protecting parenting style. Whereas, rejecting parenting style was negatively correlated with hope levels. Autocratic and over demanding parenting styles were poorly correlated with hope levels. The authors concluded that perception of parenting style play a crucial role in positive expectation among adolescents about future, hence the parents must be cautious about what parenting styles they are adopting and how their children perceive the same.

**Parenting Styles as Reported by the Parents and Perceived by Adolescents**

Cohen and Rice (1997) investigated the parenting styles perceived by the adolescents and how parents rated their own parenting styles towards their children. The effects of these ratings on academic achievements, alcohol and tobacco use of the children were also observed. The results revealed that the opinion about parenting styles were less matching between parents and their children. Students perceived parents as less authoritative, less permissive and more authoritarian than parents considered themselves. Whereas, higher matching rates of parenting styles were associated with opinions regarding higher authoritativeness, lower permissiveness, and lower authoritarianism from both children and parents as well. Further the study revealed
that when the child perceives lower authoritative and higher permissive parenting styles, it resulted in high use of tobacco and alcohol among them. On the other hand when the parent perceived the same parenting styles then there was no substance use among children. The above study further provided evidence that parenting styles and adolescents perceptions of those parenting styles are associated with the achievement and substance use. The study did not reveal whether it is child's or parent’s perception which is more accurate. But it is highlighted that child's perception of parenting styles is more strongly associated with their grades and substance use.

Berkien, Louwerse, Verhulst, and Ende (2012) conducted a study to explore the effects of dissimilarities in the perception of parenting styles by parents and children. The findings revealed that, higher is the perceived dissimilarities between the maternal and paternal parenting styles, more would be the negative effects on children’s emotionality and well-being. Furthermore, the study also reported that, children who perceive more dissimilarity in emotional warmth from their parents tend to internalize their problems whereas children who perceive more dissimilarity in overprotection tend to internalize and externalize their problems. However, perceived dissimilarity in rejection was not related to internalizing or externalizing the behaviour problems.

Effects of Single Parenting Vs. Both Parenting on Adolescents

Amato and Keith (1991) conducted a meta-analytic study which included data from 92 studies to compare well-being of children who were living with divorced single-parent with those children who were living in continuously intact families. The study revealed that children living with divorced single parent experienced lower level of well-being than the children living in continuously intact families. The study shows the importance of both parents on well-being of the children.
Barrera and Stice (1998) evaluated the effects of parental support and parental-adolescent conflict on problem behaviour of adolescents. For this study, the author’s restricted their sample selection from only two parent families, both the adolescents and parents were interviewed at two periods of assessment which were separated with an interval of one year. Participants of experimental groups were the children who belonged to the families that had alcoholic father and non-alcoholic mother collected from 126 families. Participants of controlled group were the adolescents from 143 families whose both parents were non-alcoholic. Out of these 269 Caucasian families and Hispanic participants, 119 were female and 150 were male. The results of this study revealed that the relations of parental support, parent adolescent conflict and parental alcoholism to adolescent outcomes did not differ across gender, age, ethnic group and parental educational levels. However, the study revealed that parent adolescent conflicts were directly related to problem behaviour among adolescents only when the parental support was perceived to be low. The conflicts between parents and adolescents had little effects on problem behaviour of adolescents when they perceived their parental supportiveness was observed to be high.

James (1999) in her study on family patterns reported that adolescents who have single parent families are found to possess many forms of antisocial behaviors in them. Amoto and Keith (1991) in a meta analytic study on children, compared the children of divorced parents with those children whose parents stayed married. They observed that children of divorced parents continued to score significantly low scores on measures of academic achievement, conduct, psychological adjustment, self-concept and social relations. Curvilinear trends with respect to decades of publications were present for academic achievements, psychological well-being, self-concept, and social relations. For these outcomes, the gap between children with divorced and married
parents decreased during 1980's but increased again by 1990's.

Videon (2002) investigated the effects of parental separation on delinquency and depression among adolescents. Results showed that parent-adolescence relationship prior to marital dissolution moderates the effects of parental separation on adolescent's delinquency. The findings also revealed that the adolescent is likely to have greater possibility to opt delinquent behaviors if there is high satisfaction in the relationship prior to residential separation especially with the parent of the same gender. The study also implicated the importance of interpersonal relationships within the family prior to parental separation.

Walker (2004) examined the differences in the incidence of behavior problems between children, who were living with their natural parents with those children who were living with single-parent or with step-parent. The results revealed that, compared to children from intact homes those living with mother were reported having more problems than those who lived with one's father only. Children who lived with their mother and stepfather manifested more socialized delinquency and conduct problems. However, those who lived with their father and stepmother possessed more of conduct problems only. Therefore in assessing the problems with shyness, it is important to study children who live with both parents, than those who live with single parents or those who live in hostels.

Patterson, Kupersmidt, and Vaden (2008) compared maladjusted behavior of children who grew in lower economic status with those children who were reared by single parent. The results revealed that children reared by a single parent reported more maladjusted behaviors during childhood than those who were from lower economic status.
Gupta and Kaur (2009) compared the effects of perceived abusive parenting in single parent and intact families by the adolescent girls and boys whose age ranged between 13-16 years. The results of this study revealed that the adolescents from intact families perceived their parents to be more abusive on various dimensions such as nature of parents, school regularity, discouragement, criticizing attitude and ignoring behaviors shown by parents compared to the adolescents form single parent families. Gender-wise comparison revealed that boys reported to experience more punishment compared to girls.

Alami, Khosravan, Moghadam, Pakravan, and Hosseni (2014) conducted a study to compare the level of self-esteem among high school students of those who lived with both parents with those of adolescents who were bought up by single parent. They conducted the study on 250 adolescents who stayed in two parent nuclear family and 106 adolescents who lived in single parent family. The results of the study showed that self-esteem of adolescents who lived with single parent family was lower compared to adolescents who lived with two parent nuclear family.

**Effects of Parental Separation**

The separation of parents can also have a bearing on the behavior of children. Fergusson, Lynskey, and Horwood (1994) investigated the children who were exposed to parental separation. They emphasized on the relationship between exposure to parental separation and measures of cognitive ability and school achievement. Children up to thirteen years were selected from New Zealand. The results revealed that cognitive ability and school achievements were lower among children who were exposed to parental separation than those who were not exposed to parental separation. However, the above study also revealed that when separation among parents was prior to the
child's entry in school, then there were no effects on later outcomes especially after adjusting to the confounding factors. It also showed that relationship between parental separation and cognitive test scores among children whose parents were separated after entry in school were similar with those of children whose parents remarried as well as with those who did not remarry. However, there was no evidence to suggest that effects of separation varied with gender and also when one of the parents stays away from the child.

Gilman, Kawachi, Fitzmauice, and Buka (2003) conducted a study to explore the effect of divorce, family disruption and low socio economic status in early childhood on adult depression. The results of the study showed that, witnessing divorce of parents in early childhood leads to high risk of depression among participants whose mothers remarried as well as those whose mother’s did not remarry. Moreover, the risk of depression increases when it is associated with high levels of parental conflict and low socio economic status.

**Dissimilarities in Perceived Maternal and Paternal Parenting Styles**

Berkien, Louwerse, Verhulst, and Ende (2012) explored the relationship between the dissimilarity in the perceptions of the maternal and paternal parenting styles by the children and its effects on internalizing and externalizing their problem behaviours. Egna, Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran-child version questionnaire (EMBU-C) was administered for assessing the parenting styles and child behaviour checklist (CBCL) was used to assess internalizing and externalizing behaviour in children. The results of the study revealed higher levels of perceived dissimilarities in the maternal and paternal parenting styles had a negative effect on children’s emotional and behavioural well-being. Perceived dissimilarity in the overprotection parenting style showed higher levels
of internalizing problems. On the other hand, higher levels of perceived dissimilarities in the overprotection parenting style were significantly associated with internalizing as well as externalizing problems. Whereas, perceived dissimilarities in the rejection styles were not associated with internalizing or externalizing problem behaviours.

**Family Types**

Edwards and Lopez (2006) emphasized the importance of extended family types in Latino culture as well as the strong identification and attachment of individuals with their families. In Africa, parents expand beyond immediate mother and father to include members of the extended family, neighbors and every other person who in one way or the other is involved in upbringing of the child (Okpako, 2004).

**Children of Migrant Father or Mother**

Battistella, Graziano, and Conoco (1998) opined that migration of parents may not necessarily be disruptive for the development of the children left behind, especially if it is the mother who remains in the home. However, the effect depends mostly on the extent of involvement of the extended family in filling in the gaps resulting from parental absence. They also said that it is important to provide the family members left behind, particularly the husbands, with adequate training on child rearing, counseling and different forms of support.

Dreby (2007) investigated the consequences of transitional life style in children who are left behind by the migrant parents. He interviewed 141 members of Mexican transnational families and tried to know how children reacted towards their parent's migration. He focused on how Mexican children manifested the competing pressures they felt surrounding parent's migrations and consequently shape family migration patterns. Results revealed that children may experience power, albeit in different ways
at different ages, and simultaneously they may experience dependency in terms of their families' socioeconomic status.

**Parenting Styles and Shyness**

Rubin, Nelson, Hastings, and Asendorpf (1999) in their study on parenting styles and behaviours found that, determinants of parenting styles are based on the child's behaviour and its characteristics, such as temperament. Parenting styles have been cited as having evocative influences on parenting beliefs and behaviours. The primary purpose of their study was to investigate the longitudinal relations between children's social wariness/inhibition and parents' beliefs about how to socialize their children in the best way. The data for child's temperament and parenting practices were collected from parents (mother and father) who were sixty 2 year old. Identical data was collected two years later. Observations of inhibited behaviour were taken after two years. Results of this study indicated that few differences existed between mothers' and fathers' expressed parenting styles at ages 2 and 4 years. It also revealed that parental perceptions of child's shyness at age 2 were stable at age 4 also. Apart from these results the study also revealed that though parents expressed lack of encouragement from 2 to 4 years, it failed to predict child's shyness at age 4. These findings support the conjecture that young children's dispositional characteristics predict subsequent maternal and paternal behaviour.

Chen, Dong, and Zhou (1997) have conducted a study to examine the relationship between authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles as well as social and school adjustment in Chinese children. They selected a sample of second grade children, aged 8 years, and their parents in Beijing, People's Republic of China, for their study. They grouped the children and administered a peer assessment measure of social behaviour and a sociometric nomination measure. The teachers were asked to complete a rating
scale on school-related social competence and problems for each child. The data concerning child-rearing practices were obtained from parents. In addition, information on children's academic and social competence was obtained from school records. The results revealed that authoritarian parenting was associated positively with aggression and negatively with peer acceptance, social-competence, distinguished studentship and school academic achievement. In contrast, authoritative parental style was associated positively with indices of social and school adjustment and negatively with adjustment problems. But these results were not in agreement with the findings of Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (1992) which revealed that authoritative and authoritarian parenting practices were relevant to social and academic performance in Chinese children.

Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn (2007) from their study found that authoritative mothering influenced self-esteem and life-satisfaction positively and depression negatively among children aged 9-11 years. Paternal parenting styles were also related to psychological adjustment. This study also highlighted the importance of examining process-oriented agents as part of the broader interest in well-being variations in adolescents. Thus the authors concluded that adjustment level among adolescents is related to maternal and paternal parenting styles.

Koydemir- Ozden and Demir (2009) evaluated the relationship between perceived parental attitudes and shyness along with testing self-esteem and fear of negative evaluation as mediators. In a group of 492 undergraduate students from Turkey, they studied the variables of shyness, fear of negative evaluation, self-esteem, and perceived parental attitudes. The results of the study indicated that parental acceptance and their involvement predicted self-esteem in children and perceived parental strictness or supervision predicted fear of negative evaluation among them. On the other hand
perceived parental psychological autonomy predicted self-esteem. Self-esteem partially mediated the relationship between parental acceptance/involvement and shyness, whereas it fully mediated the relationship between parental psychological autonomy and shyness. Fear of negative evaluation fully mediated the relationship between parental strictness/supervision and shyness. In addition, the relationship between self-esteem and shyness was partially mediated by fear of negative evaluation. The findings of this study provided evidence for the propositions that parental attitudes are important in the development of self-image and fears of rejection which result in the experience of shyness.

Tani, Ponti, and Smorti (2014) conducted a study with an intention to examine the shy adolescents bond with their parents in terms of parenting styles and also to analyse the moderating role of quality of parenting in the relationship between shyness and internalizing difficulties during adolescents among Italian population. For this purpose, they collected a sample of 787 students who were divided into two groups. The first group comprised of 397 participants whose age ranged between 11-13 years and the second group comprised of 390 participants whose age ranged between 17-19 years. Based on the shyness scores the participants were divided into three groups namely shy, shy on average and non-shy groups. The results of the study revealed that the shy participants perceived both their mother and father to be less warm and close and less encouraging of their autonomy and independence. They also reported greater levels of overprotection and intrusive behaviours than did the participants of the other two groups. The study reported that early adolescents perceived parenting style as characterized not only by greater warmth and closeness but also greater psychological control which limited the autonomy and independence of the child when compared to late adolescents. Regarding the quality of perceived parenting style in the relationship
between shyness and psychological adjustment, it was observed that the quality of maternal parenting style was a significant moderator in the groups of both the early and late adolescents. In fact, participants who perceived their mothers as supportive and not intrusive showed significantly fewer internalizing problems related to shyness. In relation to paternal parenting style, the protective role of this variable was significant only for the early adolescents. The relationship between shyness and internalizing problems was not affected by the quality of paternal parenting style.

**Tools for Assessing Parenting Styles**

Parent Child Relationship Scale (PCRS; Rao, 1989). This scale was developed by Dr. Nalini Rao. It contains 100 items categorized into ten dimensions namely protecting, symbolic punishment, rejecting, object punishment, demanding, indifferent, symbolic reward, loving, object reward, and neglecting. The respondent has to score for both father and mother separately. It is a self-report five point rating scale ranging from ‘always’ to ‘very rarely’ weighted 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 on the scale points. The scale is reported to be very useful and effective to study the problems involving social, psychological and school factors. The scale was standardized for boys and girls in the age group of 13 to 16 years. The short term test-retest scores ranged between .70 to .80 whereas the long term test-retest scores ranged between .50 to .60.

Parenting Authority Questionnaire (PAQ; Buri, 1991). This scale was devised by Dr. Jhon R. Buri. The questionnaire contains 30 items measuring the permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative parenting styles established by Baumrind (1971). The questionnaire contains 10 authoritarian, 10 permissive, and 10 authoritative items, and yields parental authority scores for each style based on the phenomenological appraisal by the respondent. The PAQ has two forms, one
pertaining to mother’s parental authority, and the other to father’s parental authority. Each form consists of thirty items. Responses to each of these items are made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The PAQ yields six separate scores for each participant.

Parenting Style Inventory-I (PSI-I; Lamborn et al., 1991). This scale was devised by Lamborn, Mounts, Sternberg and Darnbush. It is a 26 item multidimensional inventory. It has three factors: Acceptance/Involvement, Strictness/Supervision and Psychological Autonomy. Acceptance/Involvement indicates perceived love responsiveness and involvement from parents. Strictness/Supervision indicates parental monitoring and supervision and Psychological autonomy subscale indicates the non-coercive, democratic, discipline and encouraging styles of parents.

Parenting Style Index (PSI; Sternberg et al., 1994). This tool was devised by James. W., Sternberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, and Darling. It consists of 22 items among them the first 18 items alternate between the involvement and psychological autonomy-granting of parental styles. The last 8 items compose the strictness/supervision scale. The participants are expected to rate each item between strongly agree to strongly disagree about the parental styles of their parents.

Parenting Style Inventory (PSI-II; Darling and Toyokawa, 1997). This inventory was devised by Dr Nancy Darling and Teru Toyokawa. The tool consists of three subscales-Responsiveness, Autonomy granting and Demandingness. It is a 5-point Likert scale consisting of 32 items for which the participants are expected to rate each item between strongly agree to strongly disagree about the parental styles used by their parents. The questionnaire has two forms indicating the mothers and fathers’ parenting styles separately.
Evaluation of Literature

Based on the literature reviewed so far, it is clear that the presence of shyness in an individual leads to feelings of inferiority complex and low social confidence. Researchers both in India and abroad who have explored the causes and effects of shyness had observed that it is caused due to several factors including the lack of social skills, cultural factors and even the attachment styles with parents and other family members. Different parenting styles of father and mother have both positive and negative consequences on children and adolescents. Several studies conducted abroad had reported that the different parenting styles of parents to be responsible for inducing shyness in children. However, one of the limitations encountered is that there is dearth of research that covers the information about the relationship between parenting styles and shyness among adolescents. Hence it is worth exploring this relationship during the adolescent stage of those who are brought up in Indian culture. It also would be helpful in knowing which of the parenting styles of father and mother are responsible for inducing shyness in adolescents. This information could be used to create awareness among parents and enhance them to use the right parenting styles in order to minimize the high incidence of shyness.