Chapter-2

Review of Related Studies
REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

Identifying the dimensions of self-concept was the concern of a few factor analytic studies. Verma (1984) factor analysed checklist data provided by respondents from the collieries of Dhanbad and identified five factors:

a) Work motivated man,
b) Suspicious man 
(c) Pragmatic Man
(d) Helpful man,
(e) Self-oriented man.

Thomas and Raj (1985) administered a measure of self-esteem, a socioeconomic scale, a parental attitude inventory, and a family harmony, physical facilities, and parental practices were the three factors on which self-esteem loaded significantly. Raj and Thomas (1986) further analysed their data and reported two factors: “cognitive esteem” and “masculine orientation”.

A large number of studies of self-concept focused on correlates and special groups. V.K. Gupta (1982) failed to observe any relationship between either anxiety or achievement motivation and self-concept. Tanwar and Sethi (1986) noted a positive correlation, although a small one, between achievement motivation and self-esteem. They found androgyny, feminity, masculinity, and locus of control to
be more powerful predictors, in that order.

Some studies administered a measure of self-esteem and some multidimensional inventory and reported correlations which would have been found. **Avtar and Mal (1986)** administered Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and Activity Vector Analysis and found that extraversion and neuroticism had significant positive and negative correlations respectively with self-perception. The Lie Scale was positively correlated with aggressiveness, sociability, social adaptability and social intelligence. Sex was a significant determiner of all five vectors of self-perception. Using Children’s personality Questioonnaire, **Sandhu and Bhargava (1988)** observed significant differences on “several personality factors” between children who perceived them selves as accepted or rejected by parents. **Reiter and Costanzo (1984)** administered Guilford Zimmerman Temperament scale and Copper-Smith Self-Esteem Inventory to 28 male and female adults. High scores were obtained on ascendancy, emotional stability, and objectivity factors of Guilford Zimmerman Scale. The lowest correlations were found in the case of masculinity, thoughtfulness, and restraint factors of personality.

If one fails to see any pattern in the mass of empirical details enumerated above, one cannot be blamed. The findings of studies using diverse methods and instruments, many of them without any theoretical
basis, cannot be integrated. This is a common scenario in many areas of psychology. Scholars need to ponder over this problem, and devise ways of discouraging wasteful proliferation of non-integrable facts but without curbing creativity in the process.

Several studies have focused on the self-concept of special groups, especially socially disadvantaged groups. Madnawat and Thakur (1986) compared the self-concepts of scheduled caste and brahmin children (6-11 years) studying in a central school. Scheduled caste children were lower on self-esteem and higher on marginality. Lal (1987) found social class to be a significant determiner of self-image and self-esteem. Lal content analysed responses to an open ended question. “Who am I”. Using a semantic differential instrument. Basavanna and Ujjwala Rani (1988) observed an interaction between caste and economic status. There were pronounced differences in the perceptions of self and others of the rich and poor among upper caste subjects; the rich and poor among the lower castes did not differ much. The effect of poverty was pronounced only in the absence of social disadvantage.

R.R. Singh (1987) reported more positive self-concepts among students from rural areas. Among science students, there was a significant positive correlation between academic achievement and self-concept.
The recent rise in sports awareness is reflected in the attention psychologists have paid to sportmen. G. Singh and Debnath (1986) reported a positive correlation between performance in competitions and self-concept. This finding reinforced the common adage “nothing succeeds like success”. Shaw and Gangopadhyaya (1988) used Sherry, Verma and Goswami Scale of Self-concept to compare national level judokas and wrestlers. Many significant differences were noted between these groups.

Gill, Brar, Sandhu, and Mann (1988) found that students of a physical education college who had high self-concept were physically more fit compared to those who had a poor self-concept. Neeliyara, Nagalakshmi, and Ray (1988) administered the Psychopathic State Inventory and Mac-Kinnon’s Self-Esteem Index to alcoholics and normals. Alcoholics scored significantly higher on psychopathic and lower on self-esteem dimensions. Tabassum (1987) noted significant difference between the self-concepts of isolates and populars. Rani, Sinha, and Singh (1989) self-concepts were reported by sex criminals and burglars; convicts of assault offences and criminals of other categories occupied a middle positions.

Pareek’s (1991) theoretical paper on self-concept and coping with illness provides a welcome change. He analysed the interrelations amongst the four partners in the management of community health: the
health system, the health worker, the community, and the family. The paper provides a model for explaining how these elements impinge upon programme effectiveness and patients' coping behaviour. The process of coping on the part of the patient is understood in terms of locus of control (viewed as the core of self-concept) and perception of illness.

Work in the area of self-disclosure reveals the same pattern as seen in the case of self-concept. There are two groups of studies. One group focused on the correlates of self-disclosure, and the other included investigations of self-disclosure among certain subject groups. *Pratap and Bhargava (1982)* found that self-disclosure was correlated with schizophrenic but unrelated to neuroticism scores. *Singh and Hasnain (1984)* studied the relationship between self-disclosure and anxiety. Even when scores were available on both the variables, they used chi-square analysis and reported significant relationships. *Singh and Singh (1988)* did not observe any relationship between alienation and self-disclosure.

*Joshi (1984)* tested Class XI students using Sinha’s Self-Disclosure Inventory and Mehdi’s Verbal and Non-Verbal Creativity Tests. Verbal creativity was related to disclosure but it had significant negative correlation with non-verbal creativity measure. *Mathur (1986)* found a moderate correlation between self-disclosure and need
achievement among adolescent girls but not boys. Bhatnagar and Rastogi (1984) studied male and female postgraduate students specialising in either science or arts who were either field dependent or independent were higher on self-disclosure compared to males and specialised in science were field independent. The interaction between these three variables, gender, area of specialisation, and cognitive style was significant.

There are several studies on self-disclosure among different subject groups which merit listing. Studies of self-disclosure among tribals and non-rtibals (Manwani & Saxena, 1988), orphaned and non-orphaned adolescents (Kumar, 1985), students belonging to different schools of Allahabad (Vidyapati, 1987), teacher trainees (Joshi, 1985), different castes (R. Agrawal, 1983), urban boys (R.K. Srivastava, 1984), different castes (R. Agrawal, 1983) urban boys (R.K. Srivastava, 1984), mid-wife and nursing trainees (Adhikari, Adhikari, & Hasnain, 1987), and boys of Tharu tribal (R.K. Srivastava, 1988) have been reported.

Singh (1997) investigated gender difference in self-concept and social conformity. A sample of 200 graduate students (age 18-21 years) with an equal number of males and females was administered the self-concept and social conformity scale (Dhapola & Singh). Results revealed that males had more positive self-concept than
females. Males scored higher on worthiness, sociability and emotional stability whereas females scored higher on time satisfaction, beliefs and conviction and feeling of shame and guilt components of self-concept. Social conformity was significantly higher in females than is males.

**Bajpai (1998)** assessed the effect of sex, locale and age on the self-concept of tribal adolescents while comparing the perceived, ideal and social. self-concept of tribal and non-tribal students. A total sample of 873 students (498 tibal and 375 non-tribal) was administered the self-concept scale (Deo 1985). Non-Tribal students obtained significantly higher scores on perceived self and social self but significantly lower scores on ideal self than their tribal counterparts. Within the tribal group, significantly effects of sex, locale and age on the self-concept of the subjects were observed. **Srivastava (1998)** studied the relationship between self-concept level and sociometric position in a sample of 150 class X students (75 boys and 75 girls). Subjects were administered Swatva Bodh Parikshan by Sherry, Verma & Gowami (1988) and a socio-metric test developed by the Srivastava. Results revealed a positive influence of students’ self-concept on their sociometric position.

**Rath & Patnaik (1998)** assessed the impact of maternal disciplinary practices on the development of self-concept and adjust-
ment among 150 adolescents, divided into 3 groups of 50 each which were subjected to power assertion, love withdrawal and induction type of disciplinary practices as assessed by the help of an interview schedule. The family background information questionnaire, the self-concept Inventory and the Adjustment Inventory (Singh & Singh 1984) were administered. Results reveal that induction type of disciplinary practices were the best form of parenting and subjects who had experienced this type of practices had high levels of self-concept as well as adjustment.

Reddy & Gibbons (1999) investigated the self-construal of adolescents in various socio-economic contexts. The Self Attitudes Instrument (M.H. Kuhn & T. Mc Partland, 1954) and a socio-economic scale (D. Trafimow) were administered to 191 older children and young adolescents (age 9-16 years) studying in private and public schools in Madras. Individuality in self-construal did not increase with age across all groups but was mediated by socio-economic strata and gender. Boys from high socio-economic status schools best conformed to the Western conceptualisation of self-concept development. Boys from lower socio-economic status schools exhibited the opposite patterns with higher group responses in the older age group. Joshi & Jena (1999) Compared some personality traits like self-concept, self-confidence, adjustment and anxiety level of science and social science
students of class XI. A sample of 200 class XI students (age 16-17 years) with an equal number of students from science and social science streams and an equal number of students from science an social science streams and an equal number of male and female students in each stream was administerd the self concept measure (Pratibha Deo, 1985), the self-confidence measure (Agnihoti, 1987), the adjustment measure (Pareek & Rao, 1980) and the Anxiety measure (Singh, 1973). Results revealed significantly different levels of anxiety but there were no difference in other traits between the students of both the streams.

Gyanani (1999) studied the self-concept of adolescents in relation to sex, caste and religion A purposive sample of 230 class XI students (107 girls and 123 boys) was administered the Atmabodh Mapni (Chauhan, 1982). Results revealed no significant differences between boys and girls. Caste and religion was correlated with self-concept. Hindus had higher self-concept than the other groups. However, as far as the different dimensions of self-concept were concerned, Hindus were higher in intellectual, social, moral and ethical and emotional self-concept whereas Muslims had higher self-concept in physical, Sikh in activity and Christians in social dimension of self-concept.

Kamra and Gakhar (1999) Studied the relationship of scien-
tific creativity with intelligence, science achievement, problem solving ability and self-concept. Results revealed that scientific creativity was significantly correlated with intelligence, problem solving and science achievement in all the 3 types of schools and also with self-concept in Novodaya School Students.

Jha (1999) Examined the effect of sense of general well being and self-actualisation of benefactors on altruism. Following a 2×2 factorial design with 2 levels of sense of general well being (high & low) and 2 levels of self-actualisation (high & low), 60 male postgraduate students (mean age 22.5 years) were administered the PGI General well being Measure (Verma & Verma, 1989). The dependent variable altruism was measured by a self-report inventory (Chrisjohn, Fekken & Rushton, 1981). Results revealed that persons high on general well-being and high self-actualisers also had high scores on altruism. Phookan (2000) studied the effect of the feeling of crowding on alienation and altruism. A sample of 291 residents livings in apartments was administered the Feeling of Crowding Questionnair (Jain, 1984). Results indicated significantly high alienation and low altruism among the high crowding group.

Agarwal & Rachna (2000) Compared altruism among orphan and non-orphan children. The altruism scale (Rai & Singh 1988) was administered to 50 orphan and 50 nonorphan children (age 10-19
yers). Each group comprised 30 boys and 20 girls. Results indicated that there were significant difference in the degree of altruism among orphan and non-orphan children. There were significant difference in altruism score between boy and girls. Boy were more altruistic than girls. The interaction effect of sex and family condition was non-significant. The effect of parents and family setup on the development of altruistic behaviour was emphasised. Differential treatment of boys and girls was explained as the cause of obtained gender differences.

Sahajpal & Ralte (2000) assessed the effect of induced yogic Relaxation Training (1YRT) on stress level, self-concept and quality of sleep. The sample comprised 12 female students in the age group of 18-20 years, who belonged to a minority group in the north-eastern frontier region and were studying in a Delhi University College. Results revealed that reduction in stress level and increase in self-concept at the post-IYRT stage as compared to the pre-IYRT stage.

Tyagi and Kaur (2001) explored the similarity in self-concept and perception of others’ opinion about self in a sample of 200 students of class XI (age 15-16 years). Results revealed significant sex differences in favour of females with regard to the subscales of behaviour, intellectual and social status and popularity. Boy were more modest about the acceptance of various qualities in themselves than what they felt were the perception about those qualities in them by

(105)
their parents, teachers and friends. Girls’ self-perception was close to their perception of others’ opinion about themselves. There was similarity in self-concept and other’s opinion about self. However, data also indicated that the formation of self-concept was influenced by factors other than parents, teachers and friends.

**Boopalara[jan & Annaraja (2002)]** explored the self-concept and socio-economic status (SES) of child workers employed in safety match industries in relation to gender, children’s education, parents’ education, parents’ occupation and family income. Using the stratified random sampling technique, a total of 200 child workers (95 boys and 105 girls) was selected and administered the adapted version of the self-concept scale (Singh & Singh 1977) and the socio-economic status scale (Aaron, 1976). Male and Female child workers did not differ significantly from each other as far as self-concept and SES were concerned. SES was associated with children’s education, parents’ education, occupation and family income. Children’s education had no significant impact on the self-concept of child workers.

**Madnawat and Prakash (2002)** assessed the effects of a vocational training programme on the self-concept of destitute women. A pretest-posttest design was used. The sample comprised 100 inmates (age 16-18 years) of a distitute home. The self-concept test developed by Vashishthha was administered before and after enrolling in the
“Siksha Yojna”. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences between the means of pretest and posttest scores, indicating a positive effect of vocational training programme on self-concept.

Singh & Ahmad (2004) studied 465 (280 male & 185 female) with age range of 9 to 14 years were administered self-concept questionnaires along with a personal and social data sheet to examined the effect of parent-child relationship on different dimensions of self-concept. The findings revealed that parent child relationship significantly effect the self-concept as physical, temperamental, educational, moral.