2.0. Review of Related Literature
2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

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2.1. Adolescence
TEENAGE EMOTIONS

Feel so confused
Feel so lost
Feel like a ship
Being aimlessly tossed

Feel like a bird
Clipped are its wings
Want to reach up to the sky
Want to do a thousand things.

Can feel the emotions well up
From the depths of my heart
Still got to suppress it,
Even though it rips me apart.

Often I get deterred
When I take eyes off my goal
Obstacles barring my way
But I can still seethe loopholes.

I look up, with determination
Passion burning in my eyes,
I know I will have to
I will reach out for the skies

I will defy gravity
Take the world by storm
I know I will be a significant someone
Who will break and make the norms.

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2.1 ADOLESCENCE

The meaning of the term adolescence is, "to emerge" or "to achieve identity" is a relatively new concept. The origin of the term is from the Latin word 'adolescere' meaning "to grow" or "to mature." The psychologists earlier conceptualized adolescence as a period of disturbance and crisis, which has changed over the years to a period of transition, during which the adolescents actively influence their environment and shape their own development. In general it implies to emerge, to achieve autonomy and an identity. (Singhal & Rao, 2004).

In western cultures, this stage connotes the passage from childhood to adulthood. But in Hindu society, the concept of adolescence as a stage does not exist in the religious texts or historical texts. The period of 'Brahmacharya' merged with the next stage of 'Grihastha' without any intervening period in-between. It is only in the post industrial context that adolescence has been given a definite status. The words such as 'Generation Gap' etc came up in the seventies in the Indian literature. Adolescence is now considered as an important period in the life span of an Indian. (Sharma & Vaid, 2005).

Adolescence in India is not understood like in the west. Indian researchers have not tried to authenticate its psychological existence in true sense. (Kakar, 1979; Sharma, 1984). Studies on teenagers in high school or early college are often considered to encompass the category of adolescents, overlooking the need of differentiating between adolescents and young adults. Different agencies working with this age group tend to make different assumptions about adolescence and view it differently. It is still a debate and ambiguity as well as among the policy planners and researchers in India at what age adolescence begins and when it merges into adulthood.
Adolescence is seen as a trend setting stage in some cultures and a deviance prone, immature in others. These are however the extreme representations, while the truth is that adolescents are pretty normal persons who have to have a good family environment, achieve some meaningful goals in life, be autonomous and not be irresponsible, and overall have a distinct identity. Like other age groups they too have individual and group differences and thus demonstrate differences in cognition, (affective and action) dimensions in different context. They are likely to experience connection, regulation and psychological autonomy in their contexts to different extents and pursue their goals through different paths, contingent on their ability and competence. If an adolescent feels that the environment is trying to deprive him/her to develop and integrate the next step, he/she may resist some attempts, with all the wild strength encountered in animals, when suddenly forced to defend their lives. Erickson also argued that an adolescent has no feeling of being alive without a sense of identity. (Erickson, 1968).

World Health Organization (WHO, 1994) has defined adolescence (age 10-19yrs) as a phase of life marked by some developmental attributes. These are rapid physical growth and development, social psychological and sexual maturity and the onset of sexual activity, experimentation, development of adult mental processes and adult identity, and the transition from total socio-economic dependence to a search for relative independence. The working group on adolescence for the tenth five-year plan has also accepted, the adolescence to cover the years between 10-19 (report of the working group, Government of India, Planning commission, June 2001).

In India the phase has been divided as:

1. **Early Adolescence** (9-13yrs) – characterized by a spurt of physical growth, and the development of secondary sexual characteristics.
2. **Mid Adolescence (14-15yrs)** – the stage is distinguished by the development of separate identity from parents, new relationships in peer group, and with members of opposite sex and experimentation.

3. **Late Adolescence (16-19yrs)** – When the adolescence have fully developed physical characteristics; have a distinguished identity and well formed opinions and ideas. (NCERT, 1999).

Adolescence is now seen universally as a phase of life in which one is no longer a child and yet not an adult, despite the differences among the age groups included in it. From a developmental perspective, adolescence is a dilemma between the dependency as well as independent mindset, during which they are known to indulge in experimentation with novel roles and experiences, for some of which they are not even informed and adequately prepared. There is now an increased emphasis on providing information, support and direction to adolescents to enable them cope with the complex social reality of life and feel empowered. Practically they need to be helped to use their inner and outer energy towards constructive personal and social goals instead of wasting it on negative actions and rebellion.

In India 10-24yr olds constitute nearly 30 percent of total population, of which males 59% and females 39% are enrolled in secondary schools. As per the UNICEF report (The State of world’s children, 2000) there are more than one billion people between the ages of 10-19 years. They comprise about 21.4 percent of population in India. (National youth policy, 2000, and 230 million as per projections of the Planning Commission, 2001).

The number of adolescents in the total population in India is large, and they are quite a heterogeneous group in terms of gender, age caste, class, region, religion etc., occupying an important position in the families and in society. They influence the family in which they live. Parents are affected by
their thinking and behaviour in order to understand the adolescent and in turn adjust with them. They directly influence the next generation, while being older siblings, and parents. In a society they are the prospective valued citizens who will be carrying on the nation forward on the constructive path of humanity, peace and development, where new political and economic values ought to be synthesized and integrated with the traditional and cultural values.

Thus we find that there is a high need to recognize their importance in policy, planning and in different development programs, so that there should not be any wastage of human resource. They are a problem and a rebel only when the social context around fails to provide needed constructive stimuli and opportunities to them.

Children need support of the family and society to develop positive self-esteem, acquire life skills, including the management of intimate relationships, and to practice gender equality. What they see as their concerns relate to what they visualize as the relevant goals to be achieved and the impediments in the way of actual achievement.

The theories relating to the adolescent needs according to the various psychologists are as follows:

**NEED HIERARCHY THEORY:** was formulated by Abraham Maslow (1943), in which he discussed about five needs underlying human behaviour, beginning from physiological to safety, social esteem and self-actualization needs. According to Maslow three prominent needs are specific to the developmental stage of adolescence i.e. love, belonging and esteem needs.

**1. Love Needs:** During childhood parents are successful in trying to meet the love needs of their children adequately. But for the adolescents, parental love in itself is not sufficient. They look for the satisfaction of love needs through a
combination of intimate friendships, familial love and other romantic involvement's. They intend to retain parental love, but show an increasing keenness to develop intimacy with peers and friends of the same as well as opposite gender.

2. Belonging Needs: These happen mostly during early and middle adolescence, because often they are not sure, with whom they should affiliate. Not being clear about the agency of affiliation, their own interest keep on changing, they tend to seek the satisfaction of these needs by becoming a member of some group. This may be seen by similar others as a high status group, or regarded highly among the friends, which may give them a genuine sense of belonging. Majority of the eventually succeed in finding a group they feel comfortable to belong to, but there are some who are never successful in their endeavour, as they keep on moving in search from one group to the other.

3. Esteem Needs: These needs are often very difficult to satisfy, but some work really very hard to achieve this. The satisfaction of these needs leads to self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world. While the thwarting of these needs can produce feelings of inferiority, of weakness and helplessness etc. If the adolescent knows exactly what and whom they admire, this satisfies their esteem needs, but this being the time of transition, they have to look at others (how they value and consider as satisfying the esteem needs) and emulate these activities.

CANTRIL'S NEED THEORY (1964): answered many questions regarding the fundamental needs of adolescence in the western culture, but also stated that the basic concerns in all cultures may be quite similar.

Cantril emphasized that all adolescents have the desire to experience a sense of their own worthwhile ness to confirm their sense of identity. Persons are known to acquire, maintain and enrich their sense of worthwhile ness only
when they recognize and find the source of their personal identity in the family, friends, neighbour, social group and their country. Adolescents are in many respects status seekers and pyramid climbers. They are strongly influenced by peer pressure group politics and the need to belong. When their need for group acceptance becomes overwhelming the ability of them to belong to is increased over them to manipulate their feelings and actions. Adolescents are hypocrites, and the characteristic explains to a good extent how their lives are under constant pressure and how their personality has to struggle in a bid to pressure itself in a social network, which often contradicts and questions them. They also display some prejudices against those having different views and it becomes especially visible when the prejudiced are also weak persons. Prejudiced adolescents hold wealth as high regard because they consider it as a source of making friends and their group status. Some project an almost catastrophic view of the world because of their personal insecurities being reflected in the outside world. All adolescents live in a transactional stage alternating between childhood and adolescence, but the late adolescence are better prepared to deal with the adult world. Adolescents are found proud of their blossoming wit and they do flash it openly. For them humour is important as a safety value and laughter has a survival value.

The adolescents needs identified by Cantril are as follows: -

- **Need for physical and psychological security**: -so that the world may be predictable, and an orderly meaningful preparation may be made for their futures.

- **Need for adequate order and certainty**: -They like to repeat certain satisfactions enjoyed by them, so it will provide springboard for taking off in new and diverse directions. Some have a stronger need for order than for novelty and independence.
• **Need to enlarge the range and enrich the quality of satisfaction:** This need is a forerunner for the adult need for self-actualization and a postscript to the childhood need for exploration.

• **Need for Idealism and future directness:** They are generally optimistic and are not genetically oriented to resign themselves.

• **Need to make choice:** Self-assertion and desire to exercise the capacity.

• **Need to experience their own Integrity:** When environment does not order opportunity for meaningful participation and involvement, the need is frustrated, creating a sense of bewilderment.

• **Need to experience a sense of their own worth:** This is the need for primary approval as it is the basis to all intimate actions.

• **Need to conceptualize Beliefs about Reality:** They remain committed to certain beliefs about reality. Once devoid of a value system, they suffer psychiatrically.

• **Need of surety and confidence of society to fulfill their aspirations:** They need an environment, which can provide them gratification than frustration.

**ERICKSON’S IDENTITY THEORY (1968)**

*Identity formation* is an important task of adolescence from which follow their developmental needs. The inter-related issues of identity formation and psychosocial maturity as the important goals of adolescence. (Erickson, 1968).

The sense of personal importance is essential to a wholesome identity and it continues to elude the adolescents, because they are not really valued by others. Parents, friends, teachers and siblings form the backbone of their interactions in life, as they foster the uniqueness, feeling of being special, and esteem vital to their identity. Personal identity means knowing myself in
relation to 'me' and in relation to 'others'. It further requires that a person's identity can envision oneself within the panorama of an unfolding future, that Erickson called 'ego-space-time' a unique reconciliation of past history, present realities and future possibilities. The complexities of personal identity can be negotiated only with a highly developed ego. Erickson observed that identity formation employs a process of simultaneous reflection and observation, by which the individual judges oneself in the light of one's perception of the way in which others judge him/her in comparison to themselves and to a typology considered standard and significant by them, while he judges their way of evaluating him in the light of one's own perception of self in comparison to them and the types relevant to self.

The adolescents quest for identity becomes complicated by their emotional makeup. The diversity of on-going experiences and the uncertainty about the future interferes with their continuity of experience. It also requires role experimentation. Adolescence thus becomes a time to probe into self-doubts and sort out the conflicting passions, though all adolescents may not use it in this sense. The foundation for identity formation is only established during adolescence, as some conflicts are not resolved, but only rendered specific and some conflicts get integrated into the realm of ego as life tasks. The core component of personal identity are - i) A sense of personal importance. ii) Continuity of experience iii) a solidarity with family, community and society, all of which have to be integrated by the adolescent into a cohesive unity, an extremely challenging task for most of them at that stage. Erickson pointed out that they expressed 'being on the go' in moving something along towards in open future. They undertake a search being completely unorganized to being highly refined. Adolescence is the only stage in life cycle, which promises of finding oneself closely linked to challenge/threat of losing oneself.

According to Erickson intimacy is one need during this stage that involves close friendships with members of the same or opposite sex. This can
occur only when the two participants in the relationship are fairly secure in their identities and can authentically represent themselves to their partners.

Those who are not sure of their identity, shy away from personal intimacy or throw themselves into risky acts. Both middle and late adolescents tend to define their friendships in terms of different qualities like loyalty, trust, emotional support etc. But those in late adolescence are more capable of sharing relationship, truly sharing the experiences, and being responsive to friends. Intimacy nurtures the sense of belonging and encourages affiliation and love relationships.

According to Erickson, intimacy is the true test for one's identity. It contains within it the possibility of being rejected of which many are afraid. Thus identity formation moves beyond this stage into early adult years. The concerns of adolescence that emerge from Erickson's framework is personal, emotional, cognitive and social.

BARBER AND OLESEN'S SOCIALIZATION THEORY (1997)

They tried to identify the needs of the growing adolescent by referring to the four social contexts of socialization, i.e. family, school, neighborhood and peers. They said that healthy human development has three basic requirements of connection, regulation and autonomy, as the socialization conditions in a variety of settings. These are positively related to each other. The family and peer relationships are the primary socialization domains, and the discrete aspects of adolescent functioning (school, grades, feelings of depression) are related in special ways to different social contexts. These are:

a) Functionally significant experiences with family members and peers, which provide emotional support, opportunities for
validation, acceptance and clarifying interaction that facilitate self-definition. (Connection).

b) Experiences with regulation like control and discipline.

c) Experiences related to psychological behaviour, such as opportunities for decision-making, choice and self-management. (Autonomy).

GOAL THEORY (FORD, 1992, LOCKE, 1991)

Much of human behaviour is goal directed, (Ford, 1992; Locke, 1991). specially the schooled adolescents. Since goals help to regulate human action, define acceptable limits of performance and promote achievement; it is an important component of the educational process. Most educationists are of the view that adolescence is a crucial period for the formulation of personal goals, which are actually the needs of adolescence. The process of identity formation, decisions about educational opportunities, the consolidation of developing social values, and the construction of plans for one's future are all important during this phase of life, and the directions taken have long-term implications. (Durkin.1995). Thus it can be said that the important concerns of adolescents are related to their goals, hopes and fears.

The major areas of their goals and concerns are:


b) Successful relation with peers: This is important, as they are able to reflect on how others see them, and the peer community becomes the focus of greater proportions of leisure activities. The way they present themselves to peers, their behaviour and the expressed values communicate a particular activity.
c) **Acquisition and maintenance of reputation:** Being related to peer relation and social; identity, reputation reflects one's personal standing, not only among close associates but also among the broader peer community.

d) **Educational goals:** The target to finish their education is quite high among the young people. (Nurmi and colleagues, 1991). The differences in the students to achieve this according to the ability and to interpret failure and success in the classroom.

e) **Career goals:** Thinking about and planning towards careers involve a future perspective beyond school, and the routes to achieve them involve the discussion of various vocational interests.

f) **Physical concerns and pursuits:** Physical transitions made during adolescence have ramifications for the individual self-concept and social relations. Eg. Being in a sports team are important to them (Saraziin, et al, 1996).

g) **Inter personal issues:** Issues relating to parents, peers and significant others are very important, as they are concerned with transitions in self-perception and relation with others.

h) **Goals related to illegal activities:** Deviant and delinquent behaviours for some are convenient and necessary means to attain their goals. This is because they see it as self-presentation, in which a sense of defiance is conveyed to, and consequently rewarded by delinquent peers.

Adolescents need for parental attention is maximized in spite of the fact that they spend more time with their peers. Throughout school and college, they are under constant checks from their parents, teachers and classmates of how they are doing. In fact they hardly get any respite from performing and being judged academically, socially and other arenas as well. This is where the need for
parental attention comes in as so much energy is channeled into performing as hardly anything is left for exploring one’s true self. (Levine. M, 2005). It is here that all the above theories become helpful in understanding the adolescent mind, and their cries for help. So that they may be able to face life the way it is by overcoming their anxieties and accepting the challenge to withstand and rebound.

Adolescence is a hilly terrain, where the ability to manage stress ought to be a basic skill. Depression, rejections, aggravating setbacks and nasty conflicts are like hurricanes that recur throughout life. It is unto the teenagers, not to be wiped out or immobilized by them. They need to develop the coping skill to withstand and rebound – a capacity called resiliency. It is always better to acknowledge one’s stress and react more directly to work to heal the wounds. It is normal to feel low, but one should not be emotionally paralyzed by it.

Life is always in a state of flux, and the challenge lies in the fact as to how one learns to react to these heavy crosscurrents. It has to be a matter of habit-forming to recover from disappointments and losses. Teenagers have to shape and re-shape the ways they think and act in response to the upheavals in their minds and bodies. They need to continuously inspect and evaluate relationships, including their parents, teachers, friends and siblings.

It is during this time when they are sinking into a black hole of despair that parents need to reassure them of their importance in their life, cheer them up and help them to practice in separating preoccupations from performance. Adolescents should be encouraged to do what they love to do and find their own sweet spot. In doing so they will be able to live up to their fullest potential, leading to explosion of productivity, contributing significantly to modern civilization. They need to do some self-searching and become aware of the things important to them and believe in their beliefs.
Although no one can grow without success as it serves as a vitamin. Every person must find what he is good at, do it well, and enjoy the satisfaction and recognition that it brings. When one is able to master certain things, it teaches one to deal with failure and a sense of inadequacy. A person becomes stronger and tougher only after dealing with weaknesses. May be that is the reason why teenagers who are not so good in school turn out to be notably masterful and powerful adults.

There is an old saying that admonishes everyone to “Work hard and Play hard”. The truth is that there is enough time to do both, if activities are not allowed to interfere with each other. This is the reason why adolescents need to concentrate on getting their interests and responsibilities tightly compartmentalized. One must have the courage to dream, and focus intently on what they can get. There is a good chance they will end up getting much more than they ever thought they could. (Levine.M, 2005).
FIGURE - 33 : The Impact of Environmental Influences on Self-concept.

Source : E. Hurlock, Child Development.
2.2. Self-Concept
2.2 SELF-CONCEPT

The self-concept consists of beliefs, hypotheses and assumptions that the individual has about him. It is the person's view about himself as conceived and organized from his inner vantage and includes the person's ideas of the kind of person he is, the characteristics that he possesses, and his most important and striking traits. (Coopersmith & Feldman, 1974). The various domains of self-concept include physical, social, temperamental, educational, moral and intellectual spheres. (Saraswat, 1992). Since the self-concept contains all sorts of information and beliefs that people have about them, it plays a very critical role in the development of the total personality.

Development of self-concept is an important milestone of early childhood. The baby first recognizes and realizes himself to be a separate being when he sees himself in the mirror. Gradually he learns to distinguish himself from others. Children going to school have unique and definite personal qualities. During adolescence the individual is more influenced by psychological and social relationships, which makes them aware of their own self.

Thus children’s self-concepts are formed from private reactions to themselves and the reactions from others who play significant role in their lives i.e. we derive a picture of ourselves through the picture we have of other people’s picture of us. In other words self-concept is what we believe of ourselves. (Kazdin, 2000).

This awareness of “the Self” develops with the help of one’s early experiences. It increases very gradually in small degrees than in definite stages. Since the self-concept contains all sorts of information and beliefs that people have about them, it plays a very critical role in the development of the total personality.
personality. (Smith & Domjan, 2000). The self consists of ideas who we really are and who we would like to be. The smaller the gap between the two, the better adjusted the individual becomes and has a greater capacity to work towards self-actualization. The greater the gap between the two, the path towards self-actualization gets blocked and adjustment is poor. (Smith & Domjan, 2000).

As the self-concept is a function of and individual’s experiences with his/her parents and other significant adults, this degree of discordance between the ideal self and the actual self depends upon several factors like ---

* When the individual feels valuable and accepted for what he/she is, by her family members.(i.e. experiences of unconditional positive regard) will help the individual to grow up with a positive self-concept with ideal and actual selves quite close.

Where as when the individual grows up with conditions of unconditional positive regard then the individual is seen to develop a negative self-concept, with a huge gap between the ideal self and the actual self. This only takes place when the individual learns that he will be cared for and approved of only when he is able to behave in certain particular ways and expresses acceptable feelings. It creates conditions of worth which the individual must live up to in order to remain valuable. These conditions of worth are responsible for creating a distance between the ideal self and the actual self. (Smith & Domjan, 2000).

* The relationship between the actual self and the ideal self is also affected by the experiences of the world. When these experiences are not in accordance with the self-concept, the gap between the two widens. The individual has a sense of anxiety, which helps the person to narrow the gap. In order to reduce this anxiety they tend to adopt certain
psychological defenses, and the most common amongst them is to distort the situation, so as to claim that the experience is not valid.

Whereas Bandura (1986) was of the view that the relationship between self-concept and experience is a reciprocal one, as it is the personality of the individual that determines what behaviour some one is likely to engage in. For eg. An outgoing person is likely to talk to many people and will seek out for social gatherings in order to do so. Whereas a shy person is more inclined to stay at home and meet fewer people. Thus here behaviour and environment in turn support the basic personality structure. (Smith & Domjan, 2000).

THE COMPONENTS OF SELF – CONCEPT

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<tr>
<th>SELF-IMAGE</th>
<th>SELF-ESTEEM</th>
<th>IDEAL SELF</th>
<th>SELF-EFFICACY</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sort of person we think we are</td>
<td>how worthwhile we think we are</td>
<td>kind of person we would like to be</td>
<td>one’s expectation of success in a given situation</td>
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Since the self-concept contains all sorts of information and beliefs that people have about them, it plays a very critical role in the development of the total personality. (Smith & Domjan, 2000). The self consists of ideas of who we really are and who we would like to be. The smaller the gap between the two the better adjusted the individual becomes and has a greater capacity to work towards self-actualization. The greater the gap between the two, the path towards self-actualization is blocked and adjustment poor. (Smith & Domjan, 2000)).

The most critical aspect of our self-concept is self-esteem. It represents the extent to which our self-evaluations are favourable or unfavourable. A person with high self-esteem :-
✓ feels better about himself and life.

✓ can handle the negative impact of the stressful situation in a better way.

✓ less influenced by other people.

✓ more confident of achieving their goals.

✓ make a better impression on other people.

✓ accept critical feedback very easily.

✓ ignore or reject negative feedback. Whereas people low in self-esteem show both less consistency and less confidence in their assessments of themselves.

The second critical aspect of the self-concept is self-monitoring. High self-monitors take great care in the appearance of the self. They keep on adjusting in what they do and say so as to fit into the current social situation. This again depends on certain factors like the individual ability to control and modify his own behaviour, in order to be the center of attraction and being liked by other people.

Low self-monitors on the other hand are nor interested in their appearance, they like people who are like them in personality and attitudes. (Smith & Domjan, 2000).

The third critical aspect of the self is the extent to which it is dynamic. (Markus & Wurf, 1987). This means that our self-concept reflects our on-going behaviour, which give shape to the thoughts about us and influence our actions.

Since our basic self-concept is stable we resist changing it. It is our immediate experiences that alter those aspects of the self-concept that are close to our conscious. It is in this context, we can say that the working self-concept
is our self-concept at any particular points of time, which is dynamic and capable of change. (Smith & Domjan, 2000).

2.2.1 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept is learned.

No individual is born with a self-concept. It gradually emerges from early experiences and is shaped and re-shaped through repeated perceived experiences particularly with significant others. As a result of this individuals perceive different aspects of themselves at different times with varying degrees of clarity. It therefore possesses boundless potential for development and actualization. (Purkey, W.W. & Schmidt, 1988).

Any experience, which is inconsistent with one’s self-concept, may be perceived as a threat. The more these experiences are the more rigid the self-concept becomes in order to maintain and protect himself. Emotional problems are said to arise when the individual is unable to get rid of these perceived inconsistencies.

Self-concept is organized.

Every individual maintains countless perceptions regarding one’s personal existence, and each of these perceptions is orchestrated with all the others. It is stable and organized quality of the self-concept that gives consistency to an individual’s personality.

Self-concept resists change and is very consistent and stable. If it changes very often then the individual would lack a dependable personality. At the heart of the self-concept is the self-as-doer, the “I” which is different from the self-as-object, the various “ME’s”. This helps the person to reflect on his past events, analyze present perceptions and shape future experiences.
Rome was not built in a day, so is self-concept. Perceived success and failures affect self-concept. Failure is a highly regarded area that lowers evaluations in all other areas as well. Success is a prized area that raises evaluations in other seemingly unrelated areas.

**Self-concept is dynamic.**

The development of self-concept is a continuous process. In a healthy personality there is constant assimilation of new ideas and an expulsion of old ideas throughout life. Individuals are often seen to sacrifice physical comfort and safety to emotional satisfaction, which shows that self-concept, actually presides over the physical body. Self-concept continuously guards itself against loss of self-esteem, and it is this loss which produces feelings of anxiety. (Wikipedia encyclopedia). A continuously active system that dependably points to the 'true north' of a person's perceived existence. It not only shapes the ways a person views oneself, others and the world, but it also serves to direct action and enables each person to take a consistence 'stance' in life. The world and the things are not just perceived; they are perceived in relation to one's self-concept.

2.2.2 BRIEF HISTORY OF SELF-CONCEPT THEORY

**Rene Decartes** in 1644 brought about a milestone in human reflection about the non-physical inner self when he wrote Principles of Philosophy. In it he proposed that doubt was a principal tool of disciplined enquiry. He reasoned that if he doubted, he was thinking, and therefore he must exist. Thus, existence depended upon perception.

It was psychologist **William James** in 1890 who developed the concept of self-esteem. He analyzed the self in terms of its constituent parts, as the sum
total of what the individual considers himself and thinks to possess, including his body, his traits, characteristics, abilities, aspirations, family work, possessions, friends and other social affiliations. (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). To him the study of the self and self-esteem originated from a psychosocial perspective. James description of the social self recognized that people's feelings about themselves arise from interaction with others. It is dynamic in nature, thus the outcome can be manipulated. (Mruk, 1995)

Sigmund Freud (1900) brought about a second milestone in the development of self-concept theory that gave a new understanding of the importance of internal mental processes. Inspite of the fact that many of his followers hesitated to make self-concept a primary psychological unit in their theories.

Some years later, the development of the self through social interaction was elaborated by Sociologists Charles Cooley (1902) and George Herbert Mead (1913) they expanded upon earlier studies in the psychosocial development of the self, and emphasized the way in which the self is socially constructed in interaction, based on people's shared understandings of social roles, rules, symbols and categories. i.e. they laid importance on the social interactions in shaping individual's self-conceptions, which in turn were assumed to be crucial determinants of his/her social behaviour. (Pajares & Schunk, 2002).

Anna Freud in 1946 gave central importance to ego development and self-interpretation. There has always been a strong influence of self-concept theory on counseling. It was Prescott Lecky in 1945 who contributed to the notion that self-consistency is a primary motivating force in human behaviour. Raimy in 1948 introduced measures of self-concept in counseling interviews and argued that psychotherapy is a process of altering the ways that individuals see themselves.
However, the most influential self-concept theory was that of Carl Rogers in 1947 who introduced an entire system of helping built around the importance of the self. According to him, the ‘self’, is the central ingredient in human personality and personal adjustment. He described the self as a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency. He believed that there is a basic human need for positive regard both from others and from oneself. He also said that in every person there is a tendency towards self-actualization and development so long as this is permitted and encouraged by an inviting environment. (Purkey & Schmidt, 1987) The individual here perceives the world in a unique way, which is his phenomenal field and react to the environment accordingly. This phenomenal field consists of both conscious and unconscious perceptions. The “self”, “me” or “I”, make up the self. The self-concept represents an organized and consistent pattern of perceptions. Although the self changes, it always retains this patterned, integrated, and organized quality to it. (Pajares & Schunk, 2002).

Morris Rosenberg (1965) is the main contributor in the rebirth of self-esteem studies in social psychology. He tried to bridge a disciplinary gap with his self-esteem theory based on two factors, namely – (i) Reflected appraisals and (ii) Social comparisons. Reflected appraisals mean that human communication depends on seeing matters from other people’s perspectives. i.e. in the process of taking the role of the other, we become aware that we are objects of others attention, perception and evaluation, thus we see others through the eyes of the others. While social comparisons emphasize that self-esteem is in part a consequence of individual’s comparing themselves with others and making negative or positive evaluations. (Hughes & Demo, 1989).

A comprehensive theory was given by Epstein (1973). According to him self-concept serves two basic functions:
a) hedonic, that is, to maximize pleasure and minimize pain; and

b) structure or integrating, that is, to organize and assimilate the data.

The first function is equivalent to the enhancement of self-esteem, the second focuses on the need to maintain the conceptual system and consistency. (Pajares & Schunk, 2002).

The self-concept theory by **Damon & Hart (1988)**, proposed that there are systematic developmental trends within each of the physical, the active, social and psychological selves. Development in each of these four areas of the self as object is supposed to progress through four stages.

a) Categorical Identification.
b) Comparative assessment.
c) Interpersonal Implication.
d) Systematic belief and plans

Likewise, the development of the self as subject (with its aspect of continuity, distinctness and agency) is also marked by four developmental stages.

a) Categorical Identifications
b) Permanent cognitive and active capacities and immutable self-characteristics.
c) Ongoing recognition of the self by others and
d) Relation between past, present and future selves.

(Pajares & Schunk, 2002).

**A. Helmke** has presented a hierarchical model of self-concept and its development where the following distinctions of the self are made. A necessary precondition of the for the development of a self-concept is the ability to differentiate the self from the surrounding environment; that is to develop a
sense of the self as *subject* (the existential self). The next development task is to learn the particular attributes that define the self as *object* (the categorical self). (Level 1 & 2).

**FIGURE : 1**

**A HIERARCHICAL MODEL OF SELF-CONCEPT**

**LEVEL 1**
- Diffuse level of consciousness: Self and other (environment) are not yet separated

**LEVEL 2**
- Self as subject ("I", existential self)
- Self as object ("Me", Categorical self)

**LEVEL 3**
- Structured Self (Cognitive aspect)
- Evaluative self (Affective aspect)

**LEVEL 4**
- Particular domains such as:
  - Global, overall self evaluation
  - Self Esteem

**LEVEL 5**
- Social
- Cognitive
- Physical
- Other

**LEVEL 6**
- Geometry
- Arithmeti
- Other


The development of the self as an object has two components – a descriptive, that is, the content and structure of the self’s attributes and the evaluative or affective component, that is, the worth or value the persons attach to their attributes or to themselves as a whole. Level 3).
The affective component takes its focus either in the person as a whole (self-esteem), in various particular domains, such as cognitive, physical or social competence (Level 4) or even specific domains, such as mathematical ability, artistic ability, language ability etc. (Level 5&6).

Viewing from the evaluative component aspect "self-concept" has two issues- dimensionality and stability. Regarding dimensionality Coopersmith (1967), viewed self-concept as a unidimensional construct.

In Shavelson & Bolus (1982) hierarchical model of self-esteem, general self-concept has three content areas –academic(cognitive), social and physical, which are then further broken down into various sub-areas. (Level 4-6) (Pajares & Schunk,2002).

2.2.3 Self-concept at adolescence

It has been accepted from ages that the adolescence was a time of storm and stress. This lead to the assumption that the adolescent self-perceptions are relatively unstable and are most prone to dramatic and debilitating changes.(Shapka,Keating,2005).But recent research has changed this view to a large extent showing that adolescence is not as developmentally turbulent as initially suspected(Grain,1996), but the changes in self-perceptions appear to evolve gradually and in minor increments. (Cairns et al, 1990; Grain; Dusek & Flaherty, 1981; Marsh, 1989; Savin-Williams&Demo, 1984). It has also been seen that the measures of many of the domains of self-concept drop during early adolescence and then start building slowly during later adolescence in a flat U-shaped pattern. (Harter, 1998; Cole et al, 2001; Shapka & Keating,2005). It rose gradually during adulthood and declined in old age. (Robbins et al, 2002). Since self-concept is multidimensional and hierarchical in nature, new perceptions are built on the self in academic and non-academic areas. Self-concept declines during the pre-adolescent years, levels out during the middle
adolescent years and increases in later adolescence. (Marsh, 1988). The steady increase in self-esteem in late adolescence could be a result of progressive indoctrination into the values of society, than from increasing self-acceptance. (Robson). (Bower, 1991).

There are a few studies, which have examined gender differences in the development of self-concept. It was argued that “much of the literature on differences between boys and girls self-concepts is ambiguous, inconsistent and methodologically inadequate. (Grain, 1996).

An attempt has been made by various theorists to state the relationship between global self-concept and that of its specific domains. (Harter, 1999; Marsh & Hattie, 1996). It appeared that self-concept was multidimensional; at the same time it was hierarchical in nature with the general self-concept at the apex and the various domains of self-concept and its sub-categories branching out below. (Harter; Marsh, 1989; Marsh, Harter, Shavelson, Huber & Stanton, 1976). The theorists argued that the relation between the global self-concept and the domain specific ratings of self-worth is a function of the importance an individual places on each domain. It has been shown that the general self-worth between two individuals may differ even if they seem to have similar profiles of competence ratings. (Harter, 1999). But the differences stem from the distinct valencies placed on each domain i.e. individuals with the lowest self-worth are those who rated themselves poorly in domains that they placed high importance on. (Harter, 1999). Thus, it appears that it is the value of the domain and the perceived competence in that domain that may be more explanatory than self-perceived competence ratings alone. (Harter, 1999).

Various studies in educational psychology demonstrate how self-concept correlated with achievement. (Sharpes, Wang, 1997) Positive self-concept was found a significant contributor to academic success. (Purkey, 1970; Hunwell &
Reselt, 1983). On the other hand, low self-concept was found to be associated with poor scholastic performance. (Rosenberg & Gaier, 1977).

Self-concept is one's perception of the self and this perception stems from how one perceives the general social environment, particularly in relation to the significant others. (Shevelson et al., 1976). It has also been seen that self-concept in relation to academic ability is not constant, but it varies with the social situation, expectations and evaluations the students perceive, others hold for them. (Brookover, 1989). A large number of the empirical investigators have put the limelight on self-concept of the adolescents from the perspective of their social relationships, particularly with parents and peers. (Openshaw et al., 1983). It is a critical stage of identity seeking, widening gradually with the help of peer relationships. (Rosenberg & Gaier, 1977). It was observed that the middle schools were not equipped enough to deal with the emerging sense of self-identity in the adolescent, more so because the schools emphasized more on academics than on personal development. (Tierno, 1983). Following Erickson's theory it was found that the primary source of conflict between the parents and the adolescents was the failure of the parents to give recognition to the achievements of the adolescents and to their revolt against parental values and dominance. (Schiamberg, 1969). It was also maintained from Lewin's field theory that the adolescent self-concept, not only depended on the individual's personality, but also involved the interactions made by him within a socio-cultural framework. Thus, environment is the primary agent responsible for identity formation. (Schiamberg, 1969).

The importance of peer relation increases during adolescence and the responses from friends and acquaintances can effect self-esteem. (Adams & Gullerta, 1983). There is also an increased tendency of the adolescent to confirm to the behaviors and attitudes of their peers. (Bernelt, 1979, Hartup, 1983).
Adolescent's family interactions appear to move like negative feedback systems, compared to their friendship interactions, which are experienced as positive feedback systems, and they also seem to fare better in their daily interactions at school. (Larson, 1983 & Dacey, 1982). This is so because this is the time when they strive to do away from their parental control and fight for their own identity through their peer relations.

**Self-Esteem**

Self-concept is what we believe about ourselves, while self-esteem is related to how we feel about or evaluate ourselves. (Kazdin, 2000).

Self-esteem is generally dealt keeping in mind two key components: the feeling of being loved and accepted by others and a sense of competence and mastery in performance tasks and solving problems independently. (Gale, 1998).

During childhood, parental attitudes and behaviour heavily influence the development of self-concept. Supporting behaviour from the parents like encouragement and praise of mastery, and the perception of the child regarding the parents own attitudes towards success and failure are the most powerful factors. At a later stage, the child's experience outside the home-in school and with peers become increasingly important in determining their self-esteem. Friendships acquire a pivotal role in a child's life during middle childhood, as they spend more time with their friends than they spend doing homework, watching television or playing alone. Not only this, the amount of interaction with their peers is also increased, and the social acceptance from the child's peer group plays a major role in developing and maintaining self-esteem. (Gale, 1998).
New challenges are presented to the child's self-esteem with the physical and emotional changes in adolescence. Fitting in with their peers becomes more important than ever to their self-esteem, while in later adolescence the relationship with the opposite sex becomes a major source of confidence or insecurity. It is during this time that schools can influence their students self-esteem through the attitudes they foster towards competition and diversity and their recognition of achievement in academics, sports and the arts. (Gale, 1998).

According to the Webster's dictionary "self-esteem is satisfaction with oneself." Various research have concluded that, individuals have several views of their own selves, including many domains of life, such as scholastic ability, physical appearance, romantic appeal, job competence and adequacy as a provider.

Self-esteem is generally split into two:

- **Earned self-esteem** – people earn this self-esteem through their own accomplishments. Here achievements come first and Self-Esteem flows. It will take care of itself and will develop naturally, when children have accomplished something worthwhile.

- **Global self-esteem** – This generally refers to a general cause of pride in oneself and it is not grounded in a particular skill or achievement. (Shokraie, 1996). Here Self Esteem leads the way and achievement trails.

Self-esteem during mid-adolescence is more highly multidimensional for girls than for boys, and in this developmental stage girls are typically and psychologically more mature than boys. (Knox et all, 1998). With the
maturational process, self-concept becomes more differentiated and with this as a bonus comes the ability to discriminate among different domains of life's functioning and rate one's performance in each. As a result girls are more capable than boys of making distinctions among aspects of the self-concept. But with increasing psychological maturity, male self-concept may become more differentiated. (Knox et all, 1998).

It has been found from several studies that the components of male and female self-esteem are gender specific. (Joseph's, Markus & Tafarodi, 1992). High self-esteem in men related to the capacity to see oneself as having "uniquely superior abilities", whereas a high degree of interconnectedness with others appeared to be related to higher levels of self-esteem in women. Similar relationships have appeared to have hold good for the adolescents. Adolescent's girls self-esteem is more interpersonally oriented, while boy's self-esteem is more self-oriented. (Block & Robbins, 1993). Boys are found to have higher self-evaluations in the areas of congeniality and sociability. (Dusek & Flaherty, 1981).

Gender differences has also been found regarding competence in different domains of academic functioning. Boy's scored higher in domains of physical ability, appearance and math, whereas girl's scored higher in domains of verbal/reading ability and school performance. (Marsh, 1989). In compliance with the above it was found that adolescent boys general self-concept is closely related to mathematics academic self-concept, but not to english academic self-concept, but the reverse was true for the adolescent girls. (Byrne & Shavelson, 1987). Thus above findings suggest that the domains of self-concept that relate to global self-esteem may be different for adolescent males and females. (Knox, 1998).

Keeping in mind the above findings, low global self-esteem scores on girls is suggestive of poor perceived functioning in areas of social functioning,

As establishing an independent identity becomes an important task in adolescence, self-esteem becomes the central issue. Gender role orientation has been shown to predict self-esteem (Cate & Sugawara, 1986; Lamke, 1982a; Lamke, 1982b) The models of the above relationship have formed the theoretical basis for research. (Whitley, 1983).

According to the Congruence Model, the congruence model between one's gender and one's gender role orientation results in psychological well being. (Kagan, 1964; Mussen, 1969). According to the above model, exhibiting behavioural and psychological characteristics of one's own gender is considered natural and healthy, but exhibiting characteristics of the opposite gender is not.

The Androgeny Model defines androgynous individuals as possessing with both positive masculine traits such as assertiveness, autonomy and positive feminine traits such as nurturance and communication skills. (Bem, 1974; Spence & Helmreich, 1978). According to this androgyny fosters self-esteem because androgynous individuals possess both instrumental and expressive qualities. (Bene, 1974; Gilbert, 1981).

The Masculinity model is based on empirical evidence, which suggests that positive masculine traits are associated with high self-esteem in both males and females, while the effect of feminine traits in self-esteem is negligible. (Antil & Cunningham, 1979; Kelly & Worrel, 1977; Silvern & Ryan, 1979).

In general it was found that high masculinity is positively related to high self-esteem. High femininity also predicted high self-esteem but masculinity
accounted for more of the self-esteem variance than did femininity. (Whitley, 1963).

When gender differences are examined measuring self-esteem multidimensionally important. Few differences have been found between adolescent boys and girls when measuring global self-esteem. (Cate & Sugawara, 1986; Lamke, 1982a; Lamke, 1982b; Wills, 1980). But gender differences have been found in specific domains like girls have higher levels of social self-esteem. (Cate & Sugawara, 1986; Lau, 1989). These gender differences may be due to traditional gender role socialization in which girls are socialized to values and thus develop interpersonal relationship skills while boys are socialized to engage in physical activities and sports. (Douvan & Adelson, 1966).

In other words, it may be understood that societal pressures urge girls and boys to think and behave in contrasting ways that create gender specific learning styles.

According to the traditional concept, adolescence was considered a period of “storm & stress.” (Hall, 1904), during which adolescents were vulnerable to self-esteem problems. Keeping this idea in mind girls self-esteem was found to decrease during adolescence. (Blyth, Simmons & Carlton-Ford, 1983; Simmons, Blyth, Van Cleave & Bush, 1979; Simmons and Rosenberg, 1975). Whereas there are some others who contradict this as they have found increases or stability in boys and girls self-esteem in adolescence. (Butcher, 1989; McCarthy & Hoge, 1982; Nottelmann, 1987; O'Malley & Bachman, 1983), leading to an emerging consensus that self-esteem does not necessarily decline during adolescence.

Baumrind remains unconvinced that girls experience lower self-esteem than boys entering adolescence. In her study, she finds that girls show a more
caring and communal attitude towards others, while boys often strive for dominance and control in social encounters. She maintains that by early adolescence such differences largely disappear. (Bower, 1991).

On the overall, the adolescents showed a gradual increase in self-esteem as they got older. At the same time, many girls entering junior high school and high school did experience drops in feelings of confidence and self-satisfaction. (Bower, 1991).

Adolescent girls have an increasing strive for intimacy with others. However, the large impersonal junior high school throws up a barrier to this strive for intimacy, which initially undermines the girl’s self-esteem. Nevertheless, slowly as girls find themselves in a circle of friends and a social niche, their self-esteem gradually rebounds only to drop again when they enter the even larger world of high school. But it is yet to be estimated properly, whether this last drop in self-esteem was temporary or permanent. (Bower, 1991)

One of the most comprehensive longitudinal studies was regarding the relation between child development and family life. (SN: 89; P, 117). It suggests that particular parenting styles produce the most psychologically healthy teenagers. The findings were indicative of the fact that parents who set clear standards for conduct and allowed freedom within limits raise youngsters with the most academic, emotional and social competence. Baumrind assumes that self-esteem emerges from competence in various social and academic tasks and not vice-versa.

Simmons has observed that most of the kids come through the years 10-20 without major problems and an increasing sense of self-esteem. However, this trend is largely unexplained, and there is not enough empirical data to resolve this question. (Bower, 1991).
2.2.4 Self-esteem and parental Behaviour

Changes in self-esteem during adolescence are the consequences of physical maturation or rapid changes in the way of living. The interaction theory states that the individual's interaction with significant others play a crucial role in the development of self-esteem. (Lackovic-Grgin, 1987; 1988; Lackovic-Grgin & Deconic, 1990) This quality of interaction between the children and their parents is related to the descriptive and evaluative aspects of self-concept. (Burns, 1982; Papini & Sebby, 1987). Since the interaction with peers during this stage becomes important (Lackovic-Grgin, 1988), positive aspects of interaction such as intimacy, acceptance and nurturance are related to higher self-esteem. (Lackovic-Grgin et al, 1994).


Again at the same time it has been found that moderate amount of discipline should promote self-esteem. (Baumrind, 1968; Coopersmith, 1967; Elder, 1963). However, empirical support for the above is limited. (Nielsen & Metha, 1994). There have been some studies, which indicate that mild forms of punishment are associated with high self-esteem in children. (Growe, 1980; Peterson et al, 1983). However, there have been others who have failed to find any relationship between parental control and adolescent self-esteem. It also
appears that the relationship between the two depends upon how one defines discipline and self-esteem. (Neilsen & Metha, 1994).

It is during this stage that societal pressure urge girls and boys to behave in contrasting ways, that create gender specific learning styles. Both girls and boys follow divergent paths of moral development. According to Gilligan (1986), females respond to an inner voice putting more weight on human connections and care, and they make an attempt to solve moral dilemmas by responding to the needs and situations of those affected by the problem. While males on the other hand, focus on abstract principle eg. Justice and follow a moral code revolving on the impartial application of rules and right and wrong.
2.3. Test Anxiety
2.3 TEST ANXIETY

Test Anxiety refers to the 'psychological, physiological and behavioral response to stimuli an individual associates with the experience of testing or evaluation. It is a special case of general anxiety and characterized by heightened self-awareness and perceived helplessness that often result in lower performance on tests and more generally all types of cognitive and academic task. (The corsini encyclopedia, 2001).

The test anxious individuals perceive the task difficult or threatening and consider themselves adequate in handling the task. They focus more on the undesirable consequences of their perceived inadequacy, have a strong deprecatory view that interferes with task activity, and anticipate failure and loss of regard. Thus, it can be said that test anxiety is a tendency to smite personalized task — irrelevant responses. When individual experience heightened awareness that, one's performance is being evaluated. From this perspective, highly test anxious individual is especially attentive to cues concerning the evaluative component of his performance. His fear of failure can be interpreted in terms of self-centered thoughts that on the other hand interfere with concentration on the task at hand.

2.3.1 TEST ANXIETY: AN OVERVIEW

After a comprehensive review of literature, Hembree (1988) concluded that test anxiety

a) causes poor performance,
b) is inversely related to student's self-esteem
c) is directly related to student's fears of negative evaluation, defensiveness and other forms of anxiety.
d) is influenced by ability, gender and school grade level, and
e) can be reduced effectively by a variety of treatments.
Speilberger (1966b) has been able to make a clear and helpful distinction between anxiety as a relatively enduring personality trait (T-Anxiety) i.e. individual differences in the disposition to exhibit anxiety responses in a wide variety of situations, and anxiety as an emotional state (S-Anxiety), triggered by a particular environmental conditions and fluctuating over time.

Morris & Leibert (1969,1970,73) and Speilberger (1980) have urged for a separate consideration of worry and emotionality as components of test anxiety. While I.G. Sarason (1983,1984) has suggested two additional dimensions to the test anxiety construct: bodily symptoms and test-irrelevant thinking. However, these conceptions have not been universally accepted. (Speilberger & Vagg, 1995).

The ‘fear of evaluation’ that is central to test anxiety has two distinct components, distinguished by Leibert & Morris (1967). The first is the cognitive component i.e. the mental activity that revolves around the testing situation and its potential implications for the individual. Under this the cognitive activity that best accompanies is ‘worry’ or ‘unwanted, uncontrollable, aversive cognitive activity associated with negative thoughts and some sense of emotional discomfort’. (Davey, 1994). For example the thoughts of an anxious child who expects to perform poorly on a test may be characterised by unfavourable comparisons with others, and negative beliefs about consequences about poor test performance. These thoughts are not only present prior to the test, but also during the testing period, with both quantitative and qualititative differences in cognition being related to the level of test anxiety. (Zatz & Chassim, 1985; Prins & Hanewald, 1997). The second component of test anxiety is automated arousal or ‘emotionality’. This is the physiological component of test anxiety and can manifest itself as muscle tension, accelerated heart rate, sweating, feeling sick and shaking. (APA, 1995).
2.3.2 TEST ANXIETY AND ITS CORRELATES

The study of test anxiety began some 25 years ago with Mandler and S. Sarason (1952). They believed that the testing situation evoked both learned and task drives and learned anxiety drives. Some of the anxiety drives are task relevant while others are task irrelevant. The learned task drives and the task relevant task drives facilitate test performance while the task irrelevant anxiety drives increase test performance. Debilitating anxiety is suffered by the high test-anxious person during examinations, resulting in lowered performance. (Tryon, 1980).

An eye-catching interpretation of the debilitating effects of test anxiety was suggested by Wine (1971). The high-test anxious person attends to both self-relevant and task relevant variables in contrast to the low test-anxious person who attends mostly to task-relevant variable. In short, the test anxious person worries during examinations.

High-test anxious people are more self-preoccupied and self dissatisfied than low-test anxious individuals. People with high-test anxiousness respond more positively to reassurance and are more responsive than low-test anxious people to reinforcement, when the responses being reinforced are negative self-reference statements. The high-test anxious individual is also quite responsive to modeling cues, persuasion and conformity pressures. When confronted with an evaluative situation, the highly test-anxious person emits self-oriented, negative responses that cause time to pass more slowly and interfere with the task at hand. (I. Sarason & Stoops 1978; Tyron, 1980).

Self-oriented, interfering worry responses are one of the cognitive component. The physiological, affective component of test anxiety comes under the emotional component. Worry has been found to be significantly negatively related to both performance expectancy (Liebert & Morris 1967;
Spiegler, Morris & Leibert, 1968) and examination performance. (Deffenbacher, 1977; Doctor & Altman, 1969; Morris & Leibert, 1969, 1970). Emotionality seems to be unrelated to examination performance with participants reporting a lessening of emotionality during the course of and following an examination. (Smith & Morris, 1976). High-test anxious individuals have been found to show autonomic activity similar to low test anxious individuals in teaching situations. (Holroyd, Westbrook, Wolf & Badlorn, 1978)

Test anxiety occurring as a relatively circumscribed problem and within the context of generalized condition exhibit two types of test anxiety. (Sarason & Speiberger, 1975). In test anxiety 'type A' a person gets upset before, during and after test because of relatively isolated, unfortunate experience. (e.g. A traumatized teacher). Test anxiety 'type B' might require a searching into the persons values and conflicts and the interrelation of worries.

Early empirical findings were of the view that test anxiety was one dimensional. (Sarason & Mandler, 1952). Libert & Morris (1967) proposed (a) affective physiological component (or emotionality) as distinguished from (b) cognitive component (worry). I.G. Sarason differentiated test anxiety into affective tension, bodily symptoms, worry and test irrelevant thinking. It is a known fact today that test anxiety comprises of -

(a) Affective tension (feeling of nervousness, uneasy, tensed);
(b) Physiological activation (increased heartbeat and sweating).
(c) Cognitive worries relating to threat of failure, to its consequence and to lack of personal competence. (Sarason, 1984).

Thus, it can be said that test anxiety subjectively relates to test and their consequences. It is a state emotion when it relates to a specific test. Test anxiety is a situation specific type of trait anxiety. Test anxiety can also be a
function of poor study habits or deficient skills of test taking which have deleterious effects on achievement. (Tobias, 1985).

Test anxiety has two major aspects. Emotional and cognitive. The emotional aspect is basically a response to stress and therefore might affect performance in a stressful context. Hence, reaction to stress is relative to the person and the situation.

Cognitive appraisal of the test situation might yield substantial difference in the degrees of stress generated. This is influenced by subject difficulty, expectation of performance and whether conditions are in or out of personal control. Cognitive appraisal of test situations (as threatening to self-esteem) stimulates A-state anxiety with interference with the performance. (Gandry & Speilberger, 1971). A-trait and intelligence seemed to influence cognitive appraisal. At increased ability levels, performance is facilitated by test anxiety. Therefore, the consequent threat to one’s cognitive appraisal enhances task directed drives. (Mandler & Sarason, 1952), rather than stimulating emotional appraisal of test anxiety.

**Developmental course and Antecedents of Test Anxiety**

Psychodynamic assumptions suggest that high parental expectation and negative parental judgements play a more a prominent role in a students life as these can produce feelings of dependency, guilt aggregation and anxiety. (Sarason et al, 1960). Recent researches have proved that test anxiety may be detrimental to achievement in the adolescent period, as the word ‘competition’ seems to be the most prominent indicator of student’s behaviour.

Some of the antecedents of test anxiety that has been identified by empirical research are expectancies of failure, failure due to low anxiety, negative self-concept of ability and high subjective sense of

2.3.3 THEORIES OF TEST ANXIETY

The theories are the products of extensive research works that has been done by psychologists and researchers since Sarason’s first introductory step in the field of test anxiety.

- **THE INTERFERENCE MODEL** (Sarason & Mandler, 1980). Highlights task-irrelevant thoughts during test taking situation. According to some psychologists the highly test anxious individual is one who is prone to emit self-centered interfering response when confronted with evaluative condition, i.e. test anxiety, therefore often aims to determine detrimental effect of test anxiety on test achievement.

- **LEARNING - ATTENTION THEORY** Following this theory test anxiety is expected to have two response components, which includes emotional automatic reactivity, (like sweating, accelerated heart rate etc.) and the cognitive events. These cognitive events may exert a more consistent negative influence on achievement than emotionality. (Sarason & Speilberger, 1975). The possible explanation of the origin of the interfering responses may be that they occur as a part, of a process of heightened attention of oneself. (Sarason. 1975). Worry is attention demanding cognitive activity. Unless an individual is capable of doing several things at a time, he might spent time in worrying about his own level of adequacy, that can be expected to interfere with task performance.
Thus, this theory provides different reactions of individuals in test anxiety, to achievement orienting conditions, neutral or reassuring conditions.

* THE COGNITIVE – ATTENTIONAL MODEL This model refers that test anxiety as an interfering agent. (Hembree, 1990). When the students are under evaluative stress, those with high level of test anxiety tend to divide their attention between task demands and personal concerns. This is principally composed of negative self-preoccupations, whereas low-test anxious pupils tend to devote greater proportion of their attention and task demands. (Wine, 1980).

* DEFICIT MODEL (Birenbaum & Nasser, 1994; Paulman & Kimelly, 1984; Tobias, 1985) This model suggest that low performance of the highly test anxious students is somehow due to a deficit knowledge of the material and the meta cognitive awareness of the inadequate mastery: (Birenbaum & Pinkn, 1997). Since highly test anxious students had less effective study habits than those lower in anxiety (Kleijs, Vander, Ploeg & Topman, 1994), the rationale of the model is that the decreased test performance of the students is due to less thorough initial acquisition of the content, rather than interference in retaining material that was successfully learned. It contradicts with the common notion about the highly anxious students who knows the subject matter but ‘freezes up’ at test time. (Culler & Holahon, 1980).

Thus according to this model test anxiety is an emotional reaction that accompanies the awareness of being inadequately prepared for the test. (Bengamin et al, 1987).
2.3.4 TEST ANXIETY AND TRAIT - STATE ANXIETY

In the early studies of examination stress, test anxiety was understood from the physiological responses that students experienced during stressful examinations. Thus test anxiety was implicitly defined as functionally equivalent to the physiological arousal associated with activation to the autonomic nervous system. (Speilberger, 1966a; 1972a).

The emotional state (S-Anxiety) experiences during examinations, consists of feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry and associated physiological arousal resulting from activation of the autonomic nervous system. The intensity of this S-Anxiety reaction will vary as a function of the degree of perceived threat. This depends upon factors like nature of test questions, students general ability and aptitude in the subject matter area, how diligently he/she has prepared for the examination and individual differences in test anxiety as a personality trait. (Speilberger & Vagg, 1995). Therefore, state anxiety refers to transient feelings of anxiety at a given moment in time. (Kazdin, 2000).

Trait anxiety or (T-Anxiety) refers to relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness. That is to differentiate in the disposition to perceive a wide range of situations involving evaluative stress as dangerous or threatening and to respond to such situations with more or less intense elevations in S-Anxiety. Test anxious students are generally higher in T-Anxiety. They tend to perceive examinations as more dangerous or threatening than individuals low in T-Anxiety, and experience more intense levels of S-Anxiety when taking tests. (Speilberger, 1980).

Thus, it can be said that Trait anxiety reflects individual differences on anxiety proneness or people’s tendency to appraise situations as threatening and to respond to those situations with state anxiety behaviours. This means
that high T-anxious people have great tendency to experience anxiety than low-test anxious people. (Kazdin, 2000).

As test anxiety responds to examinations with more frequent and intense elevations in S-Anxiety, it can be viewed as a situation-specific anxiety trait. (Speilberger et al, 1978) As a result students who are high in this situation-specific trait are likely to experience a) more frequent intense elevations in S-anxiety, b) greater activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system and c) more self-centered worry cognition's and test-irrelevant thoughts that interfere with the test preparation.

2.3.5 COMPONENTS OF TEST ANXIETY

Liebert & Morris (1967) were the first to conceptualize test anxiety as having two major components, worry and emotionality. They defined emotionality primarily in terms of the physiological reactions evoked by evaluative stress, and the physiological changes resulting from arousal of the autonomic nervous system are emphasized. Less attention has been given to the qualitative feelings that are associated with autonomic activation.

Where as the worry component of test anxiety is "primarily a cognitive concern about the consequences of failure." (Liebert and Morris, 1967). Research findings have indicated that worry was associated with performance decrements on tests and other intellectual tasks. No relation was found between emotionality and performance.

Review of test anxiety literature, shows that performance decrements of test-anxious students were primarily due to the worry cognition's experienced by them during examinations. (Wine, 1971). It was also suggested that the attention of these high-test anxious individuals is diverted from task
requirements by distracting worry cognition's such as self-criticism and by other task-irrelevant thoughts, and thus cannot direct adequate attention to task-irrelevant variables. (Wine, 1971).

I.G. Sarason (1972) also suggested a similar explanation on the adverse effects of worry on test performance. To him high test-anxious individuals were more self-centered and self-critical than low test-anxious individuals and were therefore more likely to experience personalized, self-derogatory worry cognition's that interfered with task performance. Sarason noted that a less test anxious person plunges into a task when he is being evaluated, while the high-test anxious person plunges inward. (Speilberger & Vagg, 1995). The high test anxious students not only experienced the attention blocks as noted by Mine (1971), but could also fail to interpret appropriately informational cues that were readily available to them.

Poor performance of test anxious students was also attributed by (Covington, 1984) adverse effects of worrying during examinations. Speilberger had conceptualized test anxiety as a situation specific form to T-Anxiety with worry and emotionality as major components. (Speilberger et al, 1978). During examinations, high test anxious persons respond to the evaluative threat inherent in most test situations with greater elevations in s-Anxiety, which is essentially equivalent to the emotionality component of test anxiety as a situation-specific trait. High levels of S-Anxiety then stimulate test-anxious individuals to "plunge inward", thus activating worry cognition's stored in memory that distract the test-anxious student from effective performance.
2.3.6 **Transactional process model for Test Anxiety**

In order to understand the concept of test anxiety as a situation-specific anxiety trait, it is important that we know the antecedent conditions that contribute to the development this trait. Like the factors that evoke S-Anxiety and its worry and emotionality during examinations, and the effects of worry and emotionality on behaviour.

A comprehensive theory of test anxiety should specify the nature of the interpersonal perceptions and cognition. It should also give the nature of information-processing, the retrieval mechanisms that mediate the effects of worry and emotionality on performance, while also identifying the important correlates of test anxiety like study habits, study skills or attitudes, test taking skills and test irrelevant thoughts.

The Transactional process model provides a cross-sectional analysis of test anxiety phenomena as a situation-specific dynamic process in which examinations and other evaluative situations evoke mediating affective states and task-irrelevant cognition's that have important behavioural consequences. The immediate situational and dispositional factors that contribute to the perceptions of a test situations, as more or less threatening, include the particular domain of subject matter relating to the test questions and the study skills. The attitude also influence as to how much and how well a student has prepared for an examination. The test taking skills that a student has acquired for coping with examinations will influence the perceptions and appraisal of the test situation.

A student initially perceives a test situation as more or less personally threatening as a function of individual differences in test anxiety. This is followed almost immediately by a continuing interpretive appraisal of the test situation. Depending on the degree to which an examination is perceived as
threatening, the student will experience an increase in S-Anxiety, self centered, self-derogatory worry cognition's, and other test irrelevant thoughts. This emotional reaction and the associated test related worry cognition's might provide additional negative feedback that further alters the appraisal of a test situation as more or less threatening.

Students generally with good test taking skills perceive examinations as less threatening, than students who are less 'test-wise'. Inability to answer an initial test question is likely to result in more intense feelings of tension and apprehension and in physiological arousal such as an increased in heart rate. Feedback from increased S-Anxiety is also likely to lead test-anxious students to appraise an examination as more threatening. Such appraisal would then result in a further elevation in S-Anxiety, with additional worry cognition's and increased heart rate. If the information needed to respond to a test question is not available or cannot successfully be retrieved, the examination will be appraised as more stressful, especially for individuals who are high in test anxiety.

In the context of the Transactional Process Model, the final stage or outcome—that is formulating the response to test questions—will require the individual to transform and synthesize the information recovered from memory, so that it can be reported in the manner required by the questions. This will usually involve choosing the correct response to a multiple-choice question, or organizing the information required to respond to an essay. Poor performance at this or any of the previous stages of responding to a test question can lead to emotional reactions and worry cognition's that interfere with attention and concentration and contribute to poor performance.
TRANSACTIONAL PROCESS MODEL OF TEST ANXIETY

INTERPERSONAL TEST TAKING PROCESS

Storage

Informatins

Worry

Retreival

Task

Relevant

Behaviour

(Answers to

Test

Questions)

Task

Irrelevant

Behaviours

Study

skills

Test

taking skills

Subject

Matter

( Test

Question)

Perception

Worry

Emotionality

FIGURE NO : 2

2.3.7 INFORMATION PROCESSING MODEL OF TEST ANXIETY

Test anxiety effects task performance in limited working memory capacity according to the authors of studies of test anxiety and working memory, but have not clearly explained how and why test anxiety affects cognitive processing within the working memory system.

In information-processing model of test anxiety the associative network structure of test anxiety is described and the production and execution processes of test anxiety are explained by the spreading activation mechanism. Thus the model explains the effect of test anxiety on the performance of high and low anxious people in a more explicit way other than current theories of test anxiety.

Research has pointed out that test anxiety consists of two major components, worry and emotionality. (Deffenbacher, 1978; Morris, Davis &

Studies on the effects of mood on memory have shown that the activation of emotion nodes make provoke activation of the related associated cognitive memory. (Bower, 1981, 1987). The activation of emotionality decays as tests progress (Morris et al, 1981) but the activation of worry in maintained during the whole testing period as highly anxious individuals pay continues attention to test irrelevant cues. (Wine, 1982). Thus, the activation of worry restricts limited working-memory capacity during exams and causes poor performance among highly anxious examinees. (Lee, 1995).

Studies have demonstrated that test anxiety effects both the storage and processing functions of working memory. (Calvo et al, 1991; Darke, 1988a, 1988b). Most of the studies in this area have investigated the effect of test anxiety on verbal tasks (recall or reasoning tasks) that demand an articulatory loop and a central executive system. (Calvo et al, 1991; Eysencik, 1985). Further investigation is needed, on the effects of test anxiety on other types of verbal and visual spatial tasks, that are primarily depending on the two subslave systems, or are processed in either of the two subslave systems and central executive system.
2.3.8 TEST ANXIETY IN SCHOOL CHILDREN

School anxiety is a strong physical and psychological reactions to specific situations in school that seriously impairs the ability of the student to perform.

The origins of test anxiety are believed by some to lie in the academic expectations parents place on their children, (Sarason, 1960). With children fearing the consequences if they fail to keep up with these expectations. (Mc.Donald A.S., 2001). Some recent research studies suggested that praising children when they perform well could have paradoxical effects on subsequent performance. Like they chose subsequent tasks that allowed them to demonstrate their ability, and greater belief that test scores were an index of their intelligence, to the extent that they would lie to one another about their test results when these were poor. In contrast, when the children were praised for their effort, they tended to choose tasks that offered greater opportunities for learning.

When children who were praised for their intelligence experienced failure in a test, perceived the failure as a result to their low ability, much more than those who were praised for their effort. (Mueller & Dweck, 1998), (McDonald A.S, 2001).

Since perceptions of low ability are central to test anxiety, these things indicate that praise for achievement may leave children vulnerable to developing anxiety if they subsequently fail a test. This is also suggestive of the fact that children may be more resilient to the effects of poor performance if the 'intelligence' aspect of these is minimized. (Sarason & Sarason, 1990).

As children proceed through the educational system, they experience a greater amount of testing. With it they also experience greater expectations and
pressure from parents and schools to perform well. These expectations ultimately become internalized in the child. Through the entire process children also become better judges of their own performance with age and receive a greater amount of feedback about their performance. (McDonald, A.S., 2001). Comparisons with peers regarding performance also become important as (Nicholls, 1976), not everybody in a class may excel, resulting in competition with those in class, lead to increased levels of anxiety revolving around tests. (Nicholls, 1976) Schools evaluating publicly through test results serve to further increase the pressures on teachers and children, which they are unlikely to be immune to. (Hill, 1972; McDonald, 2001).

Helping children to achieve means adopting strategies often that focus on academic achievement. School children are so concerned about their achievement that they spend much of their time worrying about performance that they may be at risk for a number of emotional problems.

Some research studies have shown that girls are more worried about their school work than their male counterparts. It was initially argued that worrying would lead to increase effort and finally to academic success. Nevertheless, data received showed that girls who worried frequently did not receive better grades over time than girls who worried infrequently or not at all. Worrying has been found to lead to negative outcomes, like problematic behaviour when experienced with failure, low-achievers were at a greater risk of experiencing general anxiety and depression. Apart from these, worrying was also related to a decline in self-esteem over time and high levels of uncertainty, about how to be successful in school. Prior academic success by them does seem to be sufficient to convince then that they would succeed in future. (Education Digest, 2003)

Research states that girls in general are more conscious than boys because they are more concerned with pleasing adults, especially their parents.
and teachers than boys. This is for the fact that they think that adults may be disappointed with them, which makes them vulnerable. Another reason is that they are more likely than boys to feel that poor academic performance is diagnostic of their abilities. In other words boys are more likely to see an isolated poor performance as the result of other causes, like lack of effort. This self-confident approach protect boys from the same level of worrying, girls they feel when they face academic challenges. (Education Digest, 2003).

2.3.9 ETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN TEST ANXIETY

Asian ethnic students in both United States and Canada are increasingly outpouring their peers in attaining academic excellence at high school and university levels. (Dion & Jones, 2001). A sociologist in the name of William Liu had attributed the academic success of Asian students in North America to mainly two aspects of the Confucian ethnic that permeates in Asian Societies: a) The stress on Filial Piety and b) a belief in the efficacy of effort and hardwork. (Butterfield, 1986; McGrath, 1983; Oxam, 1986). In this tradition according to William Liu children incur an enormous debt to their parents for having given life to them, and scholastic achievement is the only way of repaying the infinite debt to their parents and of showing filial piety. A strong family orientation in the Confucian ethnic means that the students not only work for themselves, but also for their family’s honor. With such an orientation and that hard work will pay off, it is not surprising that several studies have found Asians and asian-american students work much harder when related to academic pursuits and are more disciplined academically than those of other nationalities or ethnic backgrounds. (Butterfield, 1986).

The stress on academic excellence places students in the UN and Canada under tremendous psychological pressure leading to mental disturbance and
even suicidal attempts as not studying hard brings with them a sense of guilt. (McGrath, 1983).

Since the students from Asian ethnic backgrounds are given to parental and other family pressures to succeed in the academic sphere they may also suffer higher levels of test anxiety, than those coming from other ethnic backgrounds. (Lion & Toner, 2001). Although groups have become acculturated somewhat to the western norms, they still show many personality differences, which are characteristic of their native backgrounds like the importance of harmony, downplaying one's individuality, and the avoidance of conflict.

2.3.10 TEST ANXIETY RESEARCH: PAST ACHIEVEMENTS AND PRESENT DEVELOPMENTS. (Stober & Pekrun, 2004)

Folin, Demis, and Smilee conducted the first studies on test anxiety as early as 1914. The concept was further investigated in 1952 (Sarason & Mandler, 1952). When and Sarason and Mandler published a series of studies on test anxiety and how it relates to performance and also developed and instrument to assess the individual differences in test anxiety in adults. That is the test anxiety questionnaire. This was followed by the test anxiety scale for children (TASC) by (Sarason, Davidson, Lighthall, Waite and Ruebush, 1960). These two questionnaires became the gold standard of test anxiety research and formed a solid base for many advances in the field in the years to come.

The 1960’s and the early 1970’s saw a number of conceptual advances, two of which proved to be seminal contributions to test anxiety research. The first was the distinction between anxiety as a transitory state and anxiety as a stable personality trait. (Cattel & Scheier, 1961; Speilberger, 1966; 1972).
The second was the distinction between two basic dimensions in the experience of anxiety, namely worry and emotionality. (Leibert & Morris, 1967; Morris & Leibert, 1970). The 70's and the 80's saw major advances in model construction, (particularly cognitive models of test anxiety and its effects on attention and cognitive performance). research and applications. This lead to a sizeable body of cumulative researches. (Zeidner, 1998).

After a peak in the 1980's, however publications on test anxiety started to decrease, a trend which still continues till day. (Stober & Prkrun, 2004; Zeidner, 1998). The need for test anxiety research is still persisting from different perspectives, although it no more makes headlines of scientific publications, but continues to be a key construct in research on anxiety, stress and coping. This is so as test anxiety is an important variable in research and psychology. The trend of test anxiety should be revived again. Such a research into cognition and emotion (e.g. Duke & Stober, 2001) and achievement motivation (e.g. Elliot & McGregor, 1999)—remains an important factor in all disciplines of applied psychology exploring performance and achievement—educational psychology, health psychology, sport, industrial and organizational psychology to name a few.

Educational psychologists have shown that test anxiety is an important factor in primary, secondary and tertiary education. Individual differences in test anxiety play a major role not only in student's achievements in school but also in school related motivation, academic self-concepts, and career advancement as well as for personality development and health. (Dalbert and Stober, in press; Pekrun, Gotz, Titz and Perry, 2002). In educational testing moreover, test anxiety represents a bias that conceals the true potential of students. (Meijer, 2001).

However it should be mentioned here that sometimes, research on test anxiety is sometimes subsumed under broader constructs such as examination
stress of which it has a score feature. (C. Schwarzer & Buchwald, 2003). Research on test anxiety may also appear under many names like performance anxiety, competitive anxiety, math anxiety or statistics anxiety etc. (Stober & Pekrun, 2004). Advances in test anxiety research may also come into light when exploring advances in research in fear of failure. (e.g. Conroy, 2001).

2.3.11 CURRENT TRENDS AND NEW DIRECTIONS IN TEST ANXIETY RESEARCH AND BEYOND

Zeidner in 1998 predicted that advances would continue to be made in the multidimensional assessment of test anxiety and the processes associated with test anxiety. ‘Coping with test anxiety’ has also long been a focus of test anxiety research and continues to be a major topic of research. In both the areas, researchers have become increasingly aware of the different temporal phases and stages in individuals experience of test anxiety: the pre-examination phase representing the anticipatory stage, that may well begin several days before examination. (Raffety, Smith & Ptacek, 1997), the exam phase representing the confrontratio stage and the post-exam phase representing the outcome stage. (Zeidner, 1998). Since these phases and stages may be associated with different experiences of anxiety (Raffety et al, 1997; Zeidner, 1998) and call for different coping strategies, it is important that measures related to stress, anxiety and coping take these differences into account.

How test anxiety is related to attention, memory, learning and performance is another issue that continues to attract great deal of attention. Further advances in this regard include embracing new paradigms from cognitive psychology and the study of anxiety and cognition. (Eysenck, 1992). In this perspective, test anxiety research adopts a molecular level of analysis and studies the cognitive processes associated with test anxiety in greater detail in order to find out how basic cognitive processes associated with test anxiety
in greater detail in order to find out how basic cognitive processes of attention and memory are associated with test anxiety. (E.g. Dutke & Stober, 2001).

Research on test anxiety and cognition is also making progress on the molar level, by investigating metacognition and metacognitive strategies associated with test anxiety. Some researchers are also calling attention back to the fact that anxiety is an emotional state (Speilberger, 1972) by pointing out that test anxiety is a process of emotional regulation (Schutz & Davis, 2000) and that anxiety is only one of the many emotions that may be experienced in the context of tests and examinations and considered by researchers in the field. (Pekrun, 2002).

2.3.12 TEST ANXIETY AND THE WORKING MEMORY

Robust findings from test anxiety research indicate that highly test anxious individuals perform poorly when a task is hard or when performance is to be evaluated. (Hembree, 1988). Current theories of test anxiety explain the performance deficit as an interfering effect of test anxiety on the retrieval of relevant task related information. (Wine, 1982). During exams, highly test anxious individuals are likely to engage in a negative, self-deprecatory informal dialogue or worrisome thoughts about themselves and about test consequences. (Deffenbacher, 1986; Hembree, 1988). These distracting thoughts experienced as a result of the prospect of evaluation debilitates cognitive processing and the performance of highly test anxious individuals. (Wine, 1982).

Performance deficits caused by test anxiety can be explained by the extent to which individuals are able to use their working memory capacity. (Darke, 1988b; Eysenck, 1985). The working memory system has a finite capacity and deals with the transient processing and storage of information simultaneously at any point in time. (Baddeley, 1986). In an evaluative
situation, highly anxious people have less available working memory capacity for task solution, than their low anxious counterparts, because some portion of their processing capacity is taken up by the representation of test anxiety. (e.g. worry). This leads to performance decrements (Eysenck, 1985; Tobias, 1985). This is more likely to occur in difficult tasks that require attentional resources of working memory. (Darke, 1988a; Eysenk, 1985). Various researchers have also demonstrated that highly anxious individuals perform significantly and less accurately requiring the use of memory than those of low-anxious individuals. (Calvo, Ramos & Estenez, 1991; Darke, 1988b).

2.3.13 ANXIETY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

A disruption or disorganization of effective problem solving and cognitive control, including difficulty in thinking clearly, can also lead to test anxiety. (Friedman & Bendas-Jacob, 1997). (Speilberger & Sarason, 1989) defined test anxiety as a situation-specific trait that refers to the anxiety states and worry conditions that are experienced during examinations. The level of anxiety can fluctuate over time in response to both internal and external stimulation. (Vogel & Collins, 2000).

There are certain factors that contribute to the development of test anxiety. One amongst them is self-concept, which is the overall sum of self-referent information than an individual has processed, stored and organized in a systematic manner. (Speilberger & Sarason, 1989). The self-concept in short is an image in oneself. The worry of suffering a reduction of the self-image, particularly in the eyes of peers, leads to higher test anxiety levels. (Friedman & Bendas –Jacob, 1997). Second factor contributing to the development of test anxiety is self-awareness. It is defined by the feeling of being observed or evaluated by others. Other people’s perception of the individual may have impact on performance. (Levitt, 1980). A common factor of test anxiety is the classroom climate. In general we need to manipulate and control our
surroundings in order to produce a comfortable environment. In a classroom setting, there is limited opportunity to control the surroundings. This opens various levels of arousal.

The degree of arousal in relation to one's adaptation level with will determine whether a positive or negative affective experience will result. (Speilberger & sarason, 1985). If an individual's experience is negative, then the test anxiety level will be higher leading to lower performance, consequently if an individual's experience is positive, then the test anxiety level will be lower leading to higher performance. Test anxiety in general is expected to have a negative effect on performance. (Smith, 1964).

With respect to the Yerkes –Dodson Law(1908), that described both the facilitating and debilitating effects of arousal on performance as an inverted ‘U’. The degree of arousal or anxiety is seen beneficial to performance. Without any fear of failure or encouragement to perform well on the test, a child is unlikely to put adequate effort into preparation or be sufficiently motivated when actually taking the test, and will not perform to their fullest potential. If before or during a test a child’s level of anxiety is above the optimum level, they may also fail to demonstrate their true abilities. Under these circumstances fear of the actual test may disrupt separation and cause sufficient distress during the test to impair performance. Alternatively, the child may take an avoidance approach to the test, failing to prepare adequately by denying its importance or missing preparation lessons, and in some cases, failing to arrive for the test itself. (McDonald, 2001).

Inspite the influence of this theory, test anxiety has been conceptualized almost exclusively as having debilitating effects on performance. (McDougal, 2001).
Studies on the relationship of parental style and test anxiety to reasoning performance was explored and found that authoritative parenting was related to more advanced reasoning performance and lower test anxiety than was nonauthoritative parenting. Further low-test anxiety was related to more advanced reasoning performance than was high-test anxiety. (Chappell & overton, 1998).

Anxiety is supposed to be associated with low self-concept and other problems that interfere with one's perceived ability to cope with fear or anxiety arousing events. It was found among undergraduates that there was a significant relationship between self-efficacy and test anxiety and that the relationship was much stronger in case of women than in men. (Craig, Brown & Baum, 2000). Moreover, it is assumed (self-efficacy theory to anxiety) that anxiety reaction will be facilitated when self-efficacy is reinforced and that treating anxiety will be more difficult when evaluations of efficacy yield poor assessments. (Craig, Brown & Baum, 2000).

Anxiety may be seen as a component of the emotional state associated with stress and is a major part of the motivational strength of the construct. Definitions of anxiety that focus on its role as an alerting signal or indication of danger that cues mobilization of energy and resources suggest that anxiety may be an immediate effective component of stressful appraisals. The extent to which anxious effect become prolonged or intense enough to create enduring problems will depend on the nature of other aspects of the stress process. In this way, anxiety is also a sigh of disorganization and dysfunction. If a stressor will be better met if one prepares for it, anxiety or apprehensiveness will be functional to the extent that it motivates anticipatory activity. In the same time an unusually intense anxiety response might freeze efforts at coping and focus all attention on reducing distress and fear, thereby ignoring the danger & failing to resist it. (Craig, Brown & Baum, 2000).
Anxiety does not appear to obscure ability to see solutions but does increase likelihood of preservation, rumination and non-productive worrying in the face of task-related demands. (Sarason, 1957). Anxiety can be defined as a sense of apprehension due to perception of threat.
2.4. Academic Overload
A STUDENT'S SAY

My mind is loaded.
My brain eroded
With just too many thoughts
In this world of happiness drought.
Studies, studies and only studies
No playing with next door buddies
Not a single moment to relax
I may just get the axe
Worries apart, this life is hectic
Wounds of heart and mind may just get septic
I wish I could avoid it or altogether escape it
But no, I am a man, even if only a bit
A famous person once said
About life's darker shade
"If winter comes,
Can spring be far behind?"
So taking the inspiration,
Matching the description
I can also say
Just to make my day
"If exams come,
Can holidays be far behind?"
But just to take it further
Almost regretfully causing my hopes murder
I can also say
Just to mar my day
"If holiday's come
Can results be far behind?"

Animesh Ray
Class XI
DAV Model School
VOICES, THE STATESMAN, THURSDAY, 2nd Mar 2006
2.4  ACADEMIC OVERLOAD

Academic Overload is defined by the excessive internal and external demands regarding academic performance, which creates disequilibrium in the mental life of the child. (Pfiffer.2001). An analogy of academic overload thus defined can be drawn with the concept of breaking load in physical science.

The load or demand from various sources does not seem to create a problem as long as the student is able to strike a balance and maintain its equilibrium amongst all. But when these expectations or loads cross the level to which the student is unable to strike a balance, he/she feels overburdened or overloaded.

The individual is then at a position to complain that he/she has to do too many things in too less time. The person has a rigorous schedule and may have to put up late to keep up with the classes at school. After all, parents and teachers alike want to see their students do well at the board and the competitive exams. Perhaps the academic load faced by the school children of today is higher than ever before. This is because today’s challenging environment is pushing the children beyond the limit without providing opportunity to maximize the child’s potential.

Therefore, academic stress can be viewed as the failure to maintain the delicate balance between educational demands presented to the individual as they grasp them, and how they conceive their resources. Their ability to react to their demands, resulting into a feeling of exhaustion and emotional fatigue.

Concerning the burden on children, the ‘gravitational load’ of the school bug was widely discussed in the media and in the Indian parliament. The members of the National Advisory Committee, 1993 were convinced that the more pernicious burden was that of non-comprehension. Infact the mechanical
load on many of the government and municipal school may not be too heavy, but the load of non-comprehension is equally cruel. (Yashpal, 1993).

According to the report of the (NAC, 1993), Indian children specially belonging to the middle classes and higher middle classes are made to slog through homework, tuitions and coaching classes of different kinds. Leisure therefore seems to be a highly scarce commodity in a child’s life, and more especially in an urban child’s life. Thus, a child’s innate nature and capacities have no opportunity to find expression in a daily routine that permits no time to play, to enjoy simple pleasures and to explore the world.

The situation has of course worsened during the years, and the situation now is not confined to metropolitan cities alone, it can be seen in small towns and bigger villages too. (Yashpal, 1993).

In most of the Indian states school teachers still encourage children (even after attending the classes during the regular class hour) to attend school tuition given for a fee, while regular classroom teaching has become a tenuous ritual. (NAC, 1993). Teachers sometimes feel that they can do little to pursue the wider aims of education in a realistic sense under harsh circumstances such as excessively large classes, heavy syllabus, and difficult text books and so on. (NAC, 1993).

“The problem of the Indian examination system focuses on the child’s ability to reproduce information to the exclusion of the ability to apply concepts and information on unfamiliar, new problem or simply to think.” (NAC, 1993).

The public examinations taken after classes x and xii have a dominant influence on the process of learning and teaching. They generate a lot of awe, trigger responses and demand a lot of preparation, so much so that they have
got strongly entrenched into the social lore. The influence is so strong that as soon as the child starts attending school, the message is clear to them that the only thing that matters to them is one’s performance in the examination.

Both the teacher and the parent constantly reinforce the fear of examination and the need to prepare for it. Educated parents and uneducated parents, whose knowledge of the examination system is based on social lore, share the same belief that really matters is one’s score in the final examination. As this is the only authoritative record of school performance that is relied on and which determines a student’s chance of admission to a good college or university. It is a process in which no beginning or end can be meaningfully established.

The defects of the Indian system of education act like parasites. These ultimately are responsible for the academic overload of the Indian school going adolescents. Some of them are like, the nature of the examination system, faulty textbooks, teaching everything and lengthy syllabus.

There is also a general compulsion of starting early. This comes from the widespread feeling that unless the children are made to start their academic training early, she will not be able to cope with the competitive ethos of the later school years. (NAC report, 1993). A child’s natural abilities and innate motivation are being suppressed at a scale so vast that it cannot be estimated. (NAC, 1993).

As a result of all this, academic overload of the adolescents is of great concern to the educators of the present day world/ environment. Keeping with the Indian educational scenario of dependency on tutors, there are parents now in the U.S. also, who are hiring high priced tutors to help children get ahead educationally in the tests. With these tests come test preparatory services. (S.Schindehette et all, 2004). This is because their parents are worried that their
It has generally been seen that college freshmen are particularly prone to a lot of stress. (D'Zurilla & Sheedy, 1991), as being away from home for the first time, they have to maintain a high level of academic achievement, and adjust to a new social environment. The various pressures, like evaluation by superiors, striving for goals, continuous evaluation through weekly tests and papers and the urge to earn good grades high degree is so high (Hirsch & Ellis, 1996), that they feel stressed out due to overload. Of course the amount of stress experienced by an individual may be influenced by his ability to effectively cope with these situations and events. (D'Zurilla & Sheedy, 1991).

Some other sources of academic stress include excessive homework, unclear assignments, uncomfortable classrooms, (Kohn & Frazer, 1986) and time pressures. (Ross, Shannon E. et all, 1999). An article named “My parents expect too much” in (Campus life, 1999) brought about how the parents in U.S. were pushing their ward to get a grade ‘A’ in school. Even after the child had given his/her best, the parents still push them a little harder, because they want their child to get into the best of colleges, provide the best opportunities and probably they want the best for them. Nevertheless, to what extent? The parents need to understand that they themselves have not succeeded in whatever they have tried. The child is also trying to make the best of his/her opportunities. Getting into a good college is also important for him/her as for the parent, but not at the cost of the child’s well being and own health.

The developmental and environmental pressures faced by a teenager contribute to the fact that adolescence is a time of ‘storm and stress.’ (Ainslie, Richard C. & Shafer, A. 1996). Five sources of individual differences have been identified leading to stress among adolescents— a) developmental factors; b) gender related factors; c) major events in as opposed daily proximal nature; d)
stress and symptoms in the life of significant others and individual differences in self-perceptions of competence. (Compas, Phares & Ledoux, 1989).

The school has been found to be a significant arena for the experience of stress in adolescence. (Ainslie R.C. & Ahafer, A. 1996). The past decade has seen an increase in interest in school-related stress by both scholars and clinicians. (D'Aurora & Fimian, 1988). Even then this area is very much underresearched, and with this growing recognition of stress, such research takes on a new urgency. (Ainslie, R.C. & Shafer, A. 1996).

Stress is inherent in every human since it is a universal response. The failure to manage this stress successfully leads to many problems, including lowered self-esteem, anxiety and depression. (Ainslie R.C. & Shafer A. 1996). Students, who perceived high levels of support, felt a high degree of control over their own lives and enjoyed the lowest levels of stress in this highly pressurized college preparatory environment. Whereas students who reported a strong need to excel, were necessarily not performing better. (Ainslie, R.C. & Shafer, A. 1996).

When adolescents feel helpless to manage the challenges faced by them, they become overwhelmed. Nevertheless, the greater their efficacy, the more likely to manage their stress levels, consequently leading to the lowering of their stress levels. (Siddique & D'Arcy, 1984; Cohen & Edwards, 1989; Ainslie R.C. & Shafer, A. 1996). Some studies revealed that there was no significant difference in stress vulnerability between genders. (Ainslie & Shafer, 1996). Whereas other studies contrasting to this indicate that adolescents girls report more stressful events and are affected more by these events than adolescent boys. (Compas et al, 1989). However, no differences have found between adolescent boys and girls regarding academic stress. (Compas et al, 1989). Differences in social stress were outweighed by the overemphasis on academic
achievement in the school environment. It was found that for young adolescents (12-14 years) family pressures were the maximum, for the middle adolescents (15-17 years) peer stressors were very important while for the older adolescents (18-20) years academic stressors actively acted upon them. (Compas et al, 1989).

There are various stages in an individual's life that are potentially more stressful. Early adolescence is one such stressful period as (i) it is associated with the experiences of biological changes, (Hamburg, 1974; Hendren, 1990; Simmons & Blyth, 1987). (ii) Changing social roles, making peer involvement the most important (Berndt, 1979). When relationships with the opposite sex develop. (Simmons & Blyth, 1987). This stage is also associated with a significant change in the school environment due to the transition to junior high school, where interactions with peer and teachers take place on a larger scale and therefore face greater academic expectations. (Fenzel, 1989; Hendren, 1990).

Although the transition seems to be stressful one, but it is not so for all adolescents. It was found that girls found this transition to be more difficult than their male counterparts.(Simmons & Blyth, 1987). Extensive research has shown that it is not the experience of stress that is harmful, but the failure to cope adequately, with stress that creates a negative impact in the individual. It was found from this research that developmental changes in the adolescent child generate ability to use different coping skills, ranging from acknowledging a problem, generating solutions, and then selecting the most effective solution. (Band & Weiz, 1988; Curry & Russ, 1985; Kliewer, 1991; Wertlieb, Weigel & Feldstein, 1987). It was seen that with increased age and more advanced cognitive development they are better able to use complex cognitive coping skills. (Band & Weiz, 1988; Curry & Russ, 1985; Kliewer, 1991; Wertlieb et al, 1987).
Although adolescents is a time of normative developmental stress, for the students living in the urban environments these developmental changes of adolescents can get complicated by multiple stressors. (Dryfoos, 1990; M.E. Kenny et al, 2002)

It was found that parental attachment may support academic stress and protect the youth from depressive symptoms. (M.E. Kenny et al, 2002). It is during the release of the board results, that the media be it print or visual report cases of adolescent suicide due to their unexpectedly bad results. Now, adolescent suicide (whatever be the cause) is a world wide problem. It has been found that the self-esteem of an individual is a powerful source for combating the effects of stress, and suicide ideation. (Harter et al, 1992). This is because the quality of responses one receives from the environment significantly affects the individuals normal functioning. A negative self-esteem predisposes adolescents to depression and other psychiatric difficulty. (Garber, Robinson & Valentiner, 1997; Heyman, Dweck & Cain, 1992). It was therefore believed that a positive self-esteem enhances one's ability to cope effectively with stress, as individuals with poor coping mechanisms are more vulnerable to stressors relating to the environment. (Simonds, McMahon & Armstrong, 1991; Wilburn & Smith, 2005). It must be noted at this juncture that this sort of research has been done mainly on clinical samples i.e. those diagnosed as suffering from psychiatric illness. (Adams, Overholser & Spirito, 1994; Bush & Pargament, 1995). It is also important to examine suicidability in non-clinical samples or groups, as there has been an increase in the number of suicidal attempts and completions among adolescents in the general population. (Teen Suicide; Wilburn & Smith, 2005).

Stress is a major part of our daily life style and is associated with some major changes in life. (Pfeiffer, 2001). It could be leaving home, making independent decisions or even competing against new standards. (Altmaier, 1983). For some these transitions are exciting and act as a positive experience,
while for some these changes are threatening. (Nelson, dell'Oliver, Koch & Buckler, 2001). Those who perceive these changes as a positive reaction of stress, accumulate more zest to achieve and test their potential to their fullest, by exhibiting increased capacity to learn and thereby take up the challenge. (Roberts & White, 1989).

Of course it has also been seen that grade pressures can cause stress (Graduates and undergraduates) which may consequently interfere with the students preparation, concentration and performance. Positive stress again keeps students to acquire peak performance through motivation. Graduate and undergraduate students feel threatened when they fall short of their own or others expectation, in school job or any other activity like disapproval, rejection, humiliation, guilt and therefore a blow to their self-esteem. (Schafer, 1996).

Some say that one of the main causes of academic stress is test anxiety. Increased anxiety from tests has a debilitating effect on their performance, as the information generated by worrying about the test reduces the capacity available for performing the task. Performance breaks down and the result becomes self-confirming. (Fisher, 1994).

The academic workload requires that students face a series of peak periods such as finals. There is a relatively constant underlying pressure to complete an upcoming assignment. (Hudd, Dumlao, Erdmann, Murray, Phan, Soukar & Yokozuka, 2000).

The adolescents of today's modern world are very familiar with the word stress. They are all very accustomed to it, yet they complain and wish how much they could run away from it. This is because the present society's pressure for young people to achieve in school increases every year, as a result students are stressed out, and overloaded about their educational aspects.
Whether this stress will ever stop or ease up depends a lot on how we deal and think of it. School for the children is supposed to be a place, where they are exposed to new and interesting things from which they learn, which is an enjoyable process. They are supposed to make new friends, and have a gala time hanging out with them. Again where there is fun, there are responsibilities and expectations that kick in with homework piled up on desks, textbooks to be read and testing deadlines that are dreaded. To add to this come sports and extra-curricular activities, this can put the smartest child into stress. It is during this time that, when schools are so stressful that it takes the fun away from it.

At times we wonder why do we put up with all this. Then there is a realization that as much as we hate stress, we need it, to prepare us physically and mentally for the future. It helps to become familiar with stress now, as there will be tougher times ahead, thereby enabling us to handle it in future with enough competence to lead a healthy and balanced life. (Derek, 2005).

Pressure implies an impelling stress or constraining influence on an exigent demand on one's time or strength by an outside force. When learning takes place under such pressure demands, the learner disregards his inner direction and attempts to meet the exacting external demands for urgency and achievement. In short the child concerned focuses on fearfully on the expectancies of the parents, teachers and dissipates his energy in unproductive worry, self-disparaging, in order to escape discomfort and frustration. Moreover, even when the child may do his best, he cannot escape the feeling that he has disappointed his parents by not measuring upto the standards they expected from him.

We live in a world full of anxieties, resulting due to the constant changes in the surroundings that we live in. When adults are struggling against fears with which they are unable to cope, they are prone to pass on the anxieties
to their children in the form of demands of working harder and achieving the highest beyond their own capabilities. (Doll, et all, 1966).

The present day adolescent is overloaded --------

- Due to the pressure arising from fear of the future.
- Pressure from scholastic achievement.
- Pressure from excessive homework.
- Pressure to succeed socially
- Pressure resulting from the competition arising out of getting admission to the best colleges.
- Pressure resulting due to after-school activities.

Pressures resulting in overloads are not myths; they exist. We must also be aware of the multiple forms in which they are expressed and the complications involved in living in the modern automate tense world. Nevertheless, since people respond and feel in different ways, different people experience different sort of pressure and in varying degrees. Some have excellent mechanism of coping with it, while do not. Those who cannot cope with the pressure become maladjusted. (Doll, 1966).

Certain findings indicate that as the number of negative life events increase the level of self-esteem decreased, while positive events in life do not have any impact on self-esteem. (Young & Rathge, 1998). Apart from delinquent conduct it is also related with school related performance. (Fontana & Dovidio, 1984) and classroom burnout. (Fimian & Cross, 1986). Although the data are suggestive of a relation between adolescent stress and self-esteem, but we still do not know the extent of their relation across a variety of life change events. (Young & Rathge, 1998). It has been seen that positive self-esteem is an essential factor in developing good mental health, social relations and a productive lifestyle. (Walker & Greene, 1986; Zieman & Benson, 1983).
When stress has a negative impact on self-esteem of the adolescents, it becomes an important concern for parents, teachers and counselors who work with them. (Youngs & Rathge, 1998).

Stress has therefore been defined as a pattern of physiological, behavioral, emotional and cognitive responses to real or imagined stimuli that is perceived as blocking a goal or endangering or otherwise threatening our well-being. These stimuli are generally called stressors. Stress is not a direct product of cultural evolution although the changes in the environment wrought by cultural evolution have helped make stress common. Rather stress is a product of natural selection. A behavioral adaptation helped our ancestors fight or defend from wild animals and enemies. Likewise stress often helps us confront or escape threatening situations. (Linsky, Barman & Strauss, 1995).

Stressors come in many forms like from hurricanes to stuck in a traffic jam. They are not always harmful. Some stressors like competition and class examination can affect behavior in positive ways. However, when these stressors are extended over long periods it can be negative effects on both a person's psychological health and a person's physiological health. (Selye, 1991).

Since measuring adolescent stress is a very complex task, some feel it could be measured by including both positive and negative experiences. (Coddington, 1972; Yeaworth et al, 1980) This is based on the assumption that positive experiences of a major life event shock the system. Others have argued that it is important to measure positive and negative events separately. (Swearingin & Cohen, 1985; Zautra & Reich, 1983). This approach assumes that positive events have a different impact from that of negative events. (Reich & Zantra, 1981). Some other researchers argued that it was important to measure not only the direction of an event's impact (positive or negative) but also its perceived intensity. (Johnson & McCutcheon, 1980; Sarason, Johnson & Seigel, 1978). It was seen that some persons reported to have experienced a
stressful event and it had a major impact on them. There have been others who have experienced the same event but have reported to have only a minor impact, obviously the former was more stress than the latter. (Youngs & Rathge, 1998).

Thus taking advantage of the debate prevailing over measuring adolescent stress, an effort has therefore been made in the present work to measure the adolescent’s academic overload/stress. This has been done by asking the respondents to indicate the intensity of academic overload pertaining to certain situations in their life.
2.5. Perceived Parenting Style
2.5 PARENTING STYLES

Parenting in all societies grapple, with how to raise their children in a way that prepares them for the complexities of life. (Yorburg, 2002) and equips them to become parents one day themselves. (Hammer & Turner, 2001). In order to accomplish this daunting task, parents rely on their own socialization into parenting, their intuitive sense of right and wrong, and their overall cultural beliefs (Hammer & Turner, 2001). The sanctions of these influences create a prerogative that confers upon parents the responsibility to guide their children to become competent, responsible and fully functioning members of society. (Smith & Mosby, 2003).

Parents around the world share three major goals for their children:

a) The survival goal (providing health & safety of their children).

b) The economic goal (ensuring that their children may acquire the skills and resources needed to be economically productive adults).

c) The cultural goal (ensuring that the children may acquire the basic cultural values of the group). (Kazdin, 2000).

Parenting styles are collections of parental attitudes, practices verbal and non-verbal expressions that characterize the nature of parental and child interactions. (Glasgow, Dornsch, Troyer, Steinberg & Ritter, 1997). The relationship between a child and a parent is a bi-directional one, with parents influencing their children as their children influence them. (Bill, 1968: Lerner, 1994). Parents seem to differ in their control, communication, and warmth and in the maturity demands they impose upon the child. (Baumrind, 1971). Baumrind being a prominent researcher in the area of parenting, categorized parents according to whether they are high or low on parental demandingness and responsiveness and created a typology of four parenting styles: indulgent
or permissive, authoritarian, authoritative and uninvolved. (Maccoby & Martin, 1983, Kazdin, 2000). Each of these parenting styles reflects different naturally occurring patterns of parental values, practices and behaviours. (Baumrind, 1991), and a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness.

Indulgent parents (permissive or non-directive) are more responsive than they are demanding. They are non-traditional and lenient, do not require mature behaviour, allow considerable self-regulation and avoid confrontation (Baumrind, 1991).

Authoritarian parents are highly demanding and directive, but not responsive. "They are obedience and status oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation." (Baumrind, 1991). These parents provide well-ordered and structural environments with clearly stated rules. These can be divided into two types: non-authoritarian directive- who are directive but not intrusive or autocratic in their use of power and authoritarian directive-who are highly intrusive.

Authoritative parents are both demanding and responsive. "They monitor and impart clear standards for their children’s conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible and self-regulated as well as cooperative." (Baumrind, 1991).

Uninvolved parents are low in both responsiveness and demandingness. In extreme cases, this parenting style might encompass both rejecting-neglecting and neglectful parents, although most parents of their type fall within the normal range. (Darling, 1999).
Parenting styles also differ in the extent to which they are characterized by a third dimension: Psychological control. Psychological control "refers to control attempts that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of the child", (Barber, 1996). through the use of parenting practices such as guilt induction, withdrawal of love or shaming. Authoritarian and authoritative parents both place high demands on their children and expect their children to behave appropriately and obey parental rules. Authoritarian parents, however also expect their children to accept their judgments, values and goals without questioning. Whereas authoritative parents are more open to questioning, give and take with their children and make greater use of explanations. Although both these types are equally high in behavioural control. Authoritative parents tend to be low in psychological control, where as it is high in others.

2.5.1 PARENTING STYLES AND ITS IMPACT

Parenting style have been found to predict child well being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development and problem behaviour. (Darling, 1999).

Findings of different studies indicate that :-

- Children and adolescents whose parents are authoritative rate themselves, and are rated by objective measures as more socially and instrumentally competent than those whose parents are non-authoritative. (Baumrind, 1991; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Miller et al, 1993).

- Children and adolescents whose parents are uninvolved perform more poorly in all domains.

In general, parental responsiveness predicts social competence and psychosocial functioning, while parental demandingness is
associated with instrumental competence and behavioural control. (I.e. academic performance & dominance)

Children and adolescents from authoritarian families (high in demandingness but low in responsiveness) tend to perform moderately well in school. They are uninvolved in problem behaviour, but they have, lower self-esteem and higher levels of depression.

Children and adolescents from indulgent homes (high in responsiveness and low in demandingness) are more likely to be involved in problem behaviour and perform less well in school, but they have high self-esteem, better social skills and lower levels of depression. (Darling, 1999).

On reviewing literatures on parenting style, one may be amazed by the consistency with which authoritative upbringing is associated with both instrumental and social competence and lower levels of problem behaviour in both boys and girls at all developmental stages. The benefits of authoritative parenting and the detrimental effects of uninvolved parenting are evident as early as the preschool years and continue throughout adolescence and into early childhood. The largest difference in competence is found amongst children whose parents are unengaged and with those of their peers with more involved parents. Differences between children from authoritative homes and their peers are equally consistent and somewhat smaller. (Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). Studies show that authoritative parents are able to balance their conformity demands with respect to their child's individuality. So are their children able to balance the claims of extreme conformity and achievement demands with their need for individuation and autonomy. (Darling, 1999).

Authoritative parenting predicts good psychosocial outcomes and problem behaviour for adolescents in several ethnic group studies with African-
Asian-European & Hispanic Americans. (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992; Steinberg, Darling & Fletcher, 1995). Some have argued that observed ethnic differences in the association of parenting style with child outcomes may be due to differences in social context. Parenting practices or the cultural meaning of specific dimensions of parenting style. (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Parenting style provides a robust indicator of parenting functioning that predicts child well-being across a wide spectrum of environments and across diverse communities of children. Authoritative parenting is one of the most consistent family predictors of competence from early childhood through adolescence as it balances clear, high parental demands with emotional responsiveness and recognition of child autonomy. (Schwarz et al, 1985; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Baumrind, 1991; and Barber, 1996).

**Parenting styles and academic achievement**: Studies have shown that authoritative parenting style have a positive correlation with child’s achievement. In addition, children of all ages of these parents perform better in school, engage in less misconduct and are better adjusted psychosocially than their peers raised in non-authoritative homes. (Glasgow et al, 1997).

The permissive parenting style is divided into two groups i.e. neglectful and indulgent. Adolescents with neglectful parents show the lowest level of adjustment among all the parenting styles. They have poor measures of social competence, academic achievement and psychological adjustment.

2.5.2 PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS, WITHIN THE FAMILY LIFE CYCLE.- THE INDIVIDUATION PROCESS

There are two peaks of development that figures in the literatures. The 1st peak of individuation takes place in childhood when the child learns to
distance and disengage himself from his primary caretakers and establishes boundaries between "self" and "non-self". (Kaplan, 1987; Mahler et al, 1975).

The second peak occurs during adolescence, (Blos, 1967; 1979), when they let go of the safety of childhood and parental protection and develop a firm hold on the responsibilities and demands of adulthood. (Fikkenauer et al, 2002). They have to relinquish the dependence on parents and establish and consolidate their capacities of self-regulation and self-determination. (Allen et al, 1994; Larsen et al, 1996; Steinberg, 1986). Although parents do not become unimportant, adolescents increasingly rely on friends for social support; they do not continue to see their parents as all knowing or all powerful, and they become able to perceive and interact with their parents as people – not just as parents. (Steinberg, 1990) These changes related with the relationship of adolescents with their parents are known being emotionally autonomous. (Fikkenauer et al, 2002).

During the transition phase the adolescents experience a metamorphosis of bodily shape and widen their cognitive and social horizon, and parents go through a phase in which they recognize the first signs of decay in their appearance and in which they begin to reflect on their own life. Parents have to maintain the relationship with the child who is about to detach from existing family bonds and develop new orientations toward peers and the outside world. In the same way adolescents begin to affirm their own interests and increase their efforts to gain more autonomy and independence. (Kazdin, 2000). Both the parent and the adolescent is at the crossroads to either let a child develop his identity or to cut the extant relationship. (Kazdin, 2000). As has been shown in a number of studies that a step-by-step transfer of responsibility and autonomy from parents to adolescents has better developmental consequences than an all-or nothing solution with permanent conflicts about a particular issue. (Smetana, 1995).
GENDER DIFFERENCES - During adolescence the son’s level of identity is high, as fathers tend to accept their son’s striving for autonomy. Sons in return introduce their disagreements directly, which is accepted by the fathers. While with the daughters they often interrupt them and hardly accept their opinions. Thus, we see that the communication pattern with the daughter appears to be quite different. (Kazdin, 2000). On the other hand, mothers tend to be more open with their adolescent children’s point of view, and likewise the adolescents feel more accepted by their mothers than their fathers. (Kazdin, 2000).

DIVORCED FAMILIES - Children from divorced families and step-parent families experience greater difficulties in their social relations, academic achievement and adjustment, as step fathers are less engaged and give less guidance than do biological fathers. (Kazdin, 2000).

MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT - Research studies show that as more and more children grow up in dual-earner homes, some other variables other than working mothers apparently become more relevant. These variables include the degree of general parental involvement, quality of home environment and the quality of parent to parent relationship appear to be of greater importance for an adolescents developmental pathways. (Kazdin, 2000). In general, maternal employment seems to facilitate changes in the mother-adolescent relationship during the transition period.

ETHNICITY - The process of adolescents individuation tends to create increased conflicts in immigrant families because of frictions between cultures to concede independence to children within the family at certain developmental stages. It is within this larger cultural context that parents are able to accept their children’s efforts for autonomy and separation and to support the common search for a new balance in the parent-adolescent relationship. A common solution in these families being bi-culturalism. As mediators children may
maintain strong emotional bonds with their parents, as they have the possibility to view both sides of the acculturation issue: keeping a cultural context with a specific value system versus the cost of giving it up. (Kazdin, 2000).

Parental sensitivity to cultural diversity has positive outcomes for adolescents' ethnic identity, warm, regulating, autonomy-promoting parenting behaviours leading to positive outcomes in children and adolescents are also predictive of ethnic pride. (Kazdin, 2000).

2.5.3 PARENTING PRACTICES AND SOCIAL SKILLS

The influence of parents on their offspring's peer relations is not limited to childhood but continues throughout the adolescent years. (Engels et al, 2002). Study has shown that adolescent's social skills mediated the effects of some parental practices, such as responsiveness, autonomy, and cohesion. As well as parental attachment on the degree of peer activity, the attachment to peers and perceived social support from peers to some extent. Thus, social skills of adolescents as well as parenting factors, parental attachment and family climate are associated with the quality and intensity of peer relations. (Engels et al, 2002).

The period of adolescence represents a time of transformations in social relationships. Adolescents spend increasing time in activities with peers without the supervision of adults such as parents and teachers. It is important for them to meet new friends or to strengthen existing bonds and thereby get reflections on their opinions, ideas and emotions. (Brown, 1990). Friendships at this stage become more intimate and personal though more frequent disclosure of feelings and thoughts and by provision of emotional support. (Buhrmester & Furmsn, 1987).

In spite of the increasing relevance of peer relationships, parents do not per se, become less relevant in shaping adolescent cognition and behaviour.
Recently, studies have documented that the impact of parents influences the ways in which young people move around in friendships and are affected by aspects within the parent-child relationship. (Parke & Ladd, 1992). Youngsters lacking the skills required for the formation of social contacts are less accepted by peers and have fewer affiliations. (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985). The interpersonal competencies requires initiating and maintaining friendships in adolescence only partially overlap with the playmate skills demanded in childhood. (Buhrmester, 1990). Internal competencies include initiating conversations, disclosing personal information and providing support. The adolescents are also expected to express their opinions and to remark critically about functioning of other peers. (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). On the other hand adolescents who experience difficulties with these competencies have more problems in establishing friendships, and within their friendship also have more difficulties in gaining satisfying levels of involvement, intimacy and attachment.

A stronger bond with parents is related to enhance social performances. (Rice, 1990; Putallaz, 1987). While parental strictness and a lack of flexibility in rearing practices are related to deviant behaviour and a distorted development of social skills of adolescents. (Melby, Conger, Conger & Lorenz, 1993). It has also been seen that the overall family climate affects the development of adequate social skills, as it was suggested by the studies of (Farrell, Barnes & Benerjee, 1996), who found that low adaptability are related to personal and social maladjustment in adolescents.

2.5.4 PATTERNS OF PARENTING: PERCEPTIONS OF ADOLESCENTS AND PARENTS AND IDENTITY ACHIEVEMENT

The relationship between parenting and adolescent identity development has a strong theoretical foundation in Barbers model of parenting (1997). He
has identified three dimensions of socialization necessary for healthy child development. The first is warmth or connectedness with significant others. The sense of relatedness with those significant in the child’s life brings in consistent positive emotions that help in the development of social skills and a sense that the world is safe and predictable. The sense of security is very essential in the exploration of identity formation. (Sartor & Youniss, 2002). Second demandingness or parental regulation of behaviour is imported as it helps the children to learn self-regulation. Monitoring the adolescents behaviour serves as an induction into the norms of society through teaching appropriate conformity. This is done by the parents as they socialize their children through the establishment of rules and communication patterns in the family. The degree and quality of parental control and involvement have a major impact on adolescent development. The third dimension is facilitation of psychological autonomy through responsiveness to the adolescents need to separate themselves from parents. In a healthy environment between the two, the parents provide a structure with enough flexibility so that the adolescent can securely engage in identity exploration and can reciprocate by sacrificing relatedness. (Allen, Hanser, Bell & O’Connor, 1994).

The relationship between parents and adolescents is renegotiated from one of asymmetrical authority to a relationship characterized by more reciprocity with elements of both individuation and connectedness. (Grotevant & Cooper, 1985). Ideally parents remained involved without imposing, thus providing support and sufficient leeway for adolescents to choose and commit ideological beliefs and personal goals. Gender differences in adolescent identity achievement is frequently absent. (Allen et al, 1994; Grotevant & Cooper, 1985). Study by (Sarter & Youniss, 2002) have also shown that parental knowledge of daily activities of adolescents and emotional support from parents is positively related to identity achievement. They also showed that gender made no difference in case of identity achievement.
Parental control in a supportive environment facilitates social development. (Adams, Dyk & Bennion, 1990). The adolescent’s perception of the approach and goals of parents in monitoring their activities strongly influence how they interpret and respond to parental control. (Sarter & Youniss, 2002). Parents providing structure and maintaining knowledge of their adolescent’s activities are viewed by teens as concerned and available and not domineering or intrusive. Barber (1996) has divided parental control into two, namely Psychological and behavioural. Behaviour control helps in the socialization function by promoting the development of identity by encouraging self-reflection and independent thinking in the context of a positive, nurturing connection with adolescents. This is done through behaviour management through reasoning and encouraging children to be aware of the consequences of their actions, i.e. self-regulation. Whereas psychological control uses methods such as guilt induction and a love withdrawal, this hinders the child’s emotional development by discouraging individuation from parents. Supportive communication encourages more positive identity development in adolescents, which is brought about by a positive relationship between high levels of parental knowledge of the child’s school and social activities and identity achievement. (Noller & Callan, 1991).

During adolescence children become more peer-focussed, and friends become preferable as disclosure targets, while parents remain an important source of emotional support. (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995). By no means should they get detached from their parents in order to achieve a strong sense of identity. (Holmbeck & Hill, 1986). The individuation process required for the development of identity is not disrupted by parental support but rather nourished. (Carolvin & Youniss, 2000). Although adolescents choose to spend the majority of their time with peers, parental availability and support provide security as adolescents construct their identities. (Carolvin & Youniss, 2002). For males the identity crisis is resolved by separating from others and establishing autonomy, while for females identity achievement comes through
interpersonal relations, more important their sense of connectedness with others. (Gilligan, 1986).

In seeking independence and autonomy from their parents, adolescents undergo changes in roles and status that redefine their place in society and may lead to confrontations and conflicts with parents. (Coleman, 1992; Holmbeck et al, 1995; Paikoff et al, 1993; Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn, 1991). This process can take place in the context of intimate, warm, open and friendly relationships with parents, or alternatively in an environment of alienated hostile and cold relationships. (Ben-Zur, 2003). Adolescents reporting greater intimacy with their parents were found to have high self-esteem, happiness with self and less depression. (Field et al, 1995; Laske et al, 1996). Regard for parents have been positively related to psychosocial competence, as indicated by measurements of self-esteem and susceptibility to antisocial peer pressure. (Sim, 2000).

2.5.5 HAPPY ADOLESCENTS:

The factors that may affect subjective well-being and internal resources and the nature of their relationships with their parents. The family process theory suggests that family members share a subjective reality, including shared values and world views. (Larson & Richards,1994). The associations between the adolescent's positive relationships with their father and their high levels of the internal resources of optimism and mastery is most meaningful. (Ben-zur,2003). Both the fathers social well-being and internal resources, and the adolescent-father relationship, showed more significant correlation than the comparable mothers variables. The parental dominance was not expected given that mother's generally spend more time with their children and are more involved in their lives. (Ben-zur,2003). However, since fathers typically exercise the most power in the
family, presumably they become the social mode most initiated. (Larson & Richards, 1994).

Adolescents reporting warm relationships and open communication with their parents show higher levels of both internal resources and well-being. Parent's internal resources are related to the adolescents perceptions of their relationships with their parents. They have important implications for child-rearing and education practices as well as for the prevention of emotional problems in the general population. (Ben-zur, 2003).

Literature on adolescents points to multiple and interwoven, albeit normative, changes experienced by the adolescents, with the period of adolescence being a stressful period for some. (Frydenberg, 1997; HermanStall and Peterson, 1996).

A multiple of familial and parental factors can shape and determine the cognitive, affective, behavioral and personality attributes of adolescents. Parental and family influences on adolescent's characteristics can be genetic or environmental in origin, and both were found to contribute to stability and change in the developmental patterns of adolescent adjustment. (Neiderhiser et al, 1996). Parents as socialization agents teach their children through discipline and instructions. (Perry & Bussy, 1984) and children also learn through vicarious social learning, explained according to identification, modeling and other learning process, (Bandura, 1992; Coleman, 1992) that can lead to similar parent-adolescent characteristics and behaviour. Furthermore, family process theory suggests that the joint family environment lead to shared forms of cognition, values, attitudes and emotions on the part of adolescents and their parents. (Larson & Richards, 1994).
2.5.6 SELF-ESTEEM AND PARENTING IN ADOLESCENCE.

Adolescence is seen as a developmental phase where parental relationships become less salient or even inhibitory as the individuals orient themselves to the world of their friends and peers. (Blos, 1979; Coleman, 1961; Douvan and Adelson, 1966). Relationships with parents and with peers are seen as being in tension and representing the “two worlds of childhood”. (Brofenbrenner, 1970). From this perspective adolescence is a transitional period when the targets of achievement behaviour become oriented more towards peers and intimate friends than towards parents. (Cooper et al, 1998; Fueman & Buhrmester, 1992; Hazan & zeifman, 1994). Cognitive models on the other hand argue that form and quality of relationships that develop with friends and peers is an extension of the form and quality of relationship that has developed within the family. (Bowlby, 1969/1997; Offer et al, 1981; Sullivan, 1953).

2.5.7 PARENTING AND SELF-ESTEEM

According to Adams (1980) all the models of parenting represent variations in how parents prompt their adolescents to communicate effectively, take control of their lives, and in doing so enhance their self-concept.

Parents who are warm and loving tend to have children with high self-esteem. (Brody & Schaefer, 1982). Baumrind (1977) and Coopersmith (1967) reported that parental warmth combined with firm discipline is needed in order to produce high self-concepts in children and adolescents. Amato (1986) & Bishop & Ingersoll (1989) that such parental practices are associated with higher self-concepts in young adults provided additional support to this view.
A significant modeling effect was found in parents of children with high self-concepts, as they appeared to be more poised, active and confident themselves. (Baumrind, 1976; Coopersmith, 1967). Significantly, high correlations have been found between how loving the parents were perceived to act and their adult children’s self-concepts. (Paresh, 1988).

It has been seen that the qualities of peer attachments are just as important as quality parental relationships to adolescent psychological health and adjustment. (Armsden & Grienberg, 1987; Batgos & Leadbetter, 1994; Goosens et al, 1998). Overall, parental relationships still play a relatively important role in the psychological well being of adolescents. The relative role of parental attachment compared to peer attachment, particularly concerning self-esteem. (Wilkinson, 2004). The quality of both parental and peer attachments were significant predictors of life-satisfaction and self-esteem. (Wilkinson, 2004). Amongst the two, peer attachment appeared to be more highly related to self-esteem than to life satisfaction and parental attachment appeared to be equally related to the two outcome measures. (Wilkinson, 2004).

The primary effect of both parental and peer attachments would appear to be on adolescent self-esteem rather than directly on the expression of psychological symptoms. Thus the quality of relationships in this developmental period plays an important role in the construction and evaluation of the ‘self-identity”. It is the evaluation of the self rather than the quality of attachment relationships that then influences the levels of psychological symptoms reported by adolescents. (Wilkinson, 2004).

2.5.8 PARENTING STYLE AND TEST ANXIETY

Test anxiety has been seen to have a negative effect on performance in a variety of evaluative situations, resulting in lowered scores on problem solving
tasks, IQ tests, aptitude and achievement tests and reduced school grade point average. (Hembree, 1988). With respect to the cognitive interference model of test anxiety persons high in test anxiety perform more poorly on cognitive tasks than do less anxious persons due to interference provided by task-irrelevant thinking, worry and negative evaluation. (Sarason, 1978; Wine, 1971, 1981). Studies on elementary school children have shown consistently that test anxiety is related to excessive off-task thinking, negative intrusive thoughts and worry. (Beidel & Tuener, 1988; Communian, 1993; Hembree, 1988; King, Mietz, Tinney & Ollendick, 1995; Groot & Hanewald, 94; Zatz & Chasin, 1985) and the ability to minimize off-task thoughts during tests has been associated with lower test anxiety and improved performance. (Denny, 1980; Hembree, 1988; Tyron, 1980).

Deductive reasoning problems constitute a demanding test and particularly when used with students in schools, are likely to elicit test anxiety, which may degrade the processing strategies used to assess and apply formal reasoning competence.

It was theorized by Hull (1972, 1980) that children of very critical parents, with unrealistically high expectations, might develop anxiety during the preschool years.

As these children proceed in school they become afraid to fail in evaluative situations for fear of parental criticism. Another theory of parental influence on children's test anxiety, is a two process model by (Krohne, 1980, 1990), which predicts that children with restrictive or inconsistent parents develop more test anxiety than those with supportive parents. This is mostly found in children of non-authoritative parents' i.e. authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful parents. (Chapell, Overton, Willis, 1998).
In contrast to this authoritative parenting has been related consistently over the years, cross-sectional and longitudinal to higher adolescent academic achievement and less adolescent stress. (Baumrind, 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts & Dornbusch, 1994).

2.5.9 THE ROLE OF VALUE CONTENT IN AUTHORITATIVE PARENTING

Transmission of values is defined as a bi-directional process involving parents, influence on children, and children’s influence on their parents. (Pinquart & Silbereisen, 2004). Mutual influences between the two vary with the degree of openness of family members to change (Bengtson & Troll, 1978; Dunham & Bengtson, 1986). While a rigid authoritarian parenting style may distance parent and child and thus diminish transmission of values. (Schonpflug, 2001). Adolescents influence on parents attitudes is stronger in authoritative families as parents in these families are more likely to discuss issues, to consider opinions of their children, and to be open to their children’s position. (Steinberg, 1999). Research on family decision making and parent-adolescent conflicts provides evidence, that authoritative parenting may promote convergence of views among family members as it was found by Almeida & Galambos (1993). They found that higher levels of parental warmth and understanding were associated with lower levels of parent-adolescent disagreement. It was also found that parental support was negatively correlated with perceived intensity of conflicts between parents and adolescents. (Barreirs & Stice, 1998), but it is still not clear whether lower parent-adolescent discrepancy levels indicate higher readiness of adolescents and to change their opinions in the direction of greater conformity. (Pinquart & Silbereisen, 2003).

Studies further showed that transmission of values from adolescents to parents differs by topic and level of authoritative parenting. Adolescents instead were more likely to transmit their values to their parents in families
with above average levels of authoritative parenting. (Alessandri & Wozniak, 1989; Schonpflug, 2001; Pinquart & Silbereisen, 2004).

2.5.10 PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTING STYLES

Folklore suggests that the family plays an important role in adolescent development and literature survey shows that there is a need to study what aspects of the family are related to adolescent development in different adolescent populations (Sheklee & Chan, 1998). Parenting styles among the various family factors have been regarded as an important factor, which might influence adolescent development. Another factor that might influence is parent-adolescent conflict. Studies on adolescent's perception of parenting styles and parent adolescent conflict reveals several phenomena like most of the studies have engaged themselves in studying parenting styles and academic performance in high performing science students, (Hein & Leuko, 1994) and students in general populations (Dornbnch et al, 1987) and not much effort has been given specifically to examine the parenting and family processes in adolescents with low academic attainments in schools. (Shek et al, 1998). Parenting has been assessed in terms of adolescent’s subjective perceptions of global parenting styles. (Ginsberg, McGinn & Harburg, 1970; Shek, 1995) or specific parenting behaviour (Xamborn et al, 1991). Many researchers have argued that there is need to distinguish global parenting characteristics from specific parenting practices in understanding parenting styles. However very few researchers have thought about this and employed both measures in one single study. (Shek, 1995). There is also a need to find out whether gender differences in parenting actually occur in reality. This is because there are various different cultural beliefs and mass media images in which the socialization practices of fathers and mothers are portrayed to be different. (Lamb, 1987; Martin, 1985).
2.5.11 MOTHER-adolescent AND FATHER-adolescent relationship

Studies have shown that fathers provide the modes for separateness and mothers for connectedness. I.e. fathers conveying to their adolescent children a sense of identity and autonomy by their more playful and egalitarian changes. They help them to consolidate their striving for independence. Even though their presence in the family is very less, yet they make a unique contribution to their socialization process and in the development of cognitive and social skills in early and mid-adolescence. (Parke & Bureil, 1998). The exchange of both positive and negative emotions between parents and children is a new access for understanding differences in the development of children, i.e. fathers are the important partners in parent-child relationships and can assist their sons to regulate anger and aggressive tendencies. (Kazdin, 2000).

The two factors that may affect subjective well-being and internal resources and the nature of their relationships with their parents. The family process theory suggests that family members share a subjective reality, including shared values and worldviews. (Larson & Richards, 1994). The associations between the adolescent's positive relationships with their father and their high levels of the internal resources of optimism and mastery is most meaningful. (Ben-zur, 2003). Both the fathers SWB (Social-well being) and internal resources, and the adolescent father relationship, showed more significant correlation than the comparable mothers variables. This parental dominance was not expected given that mother generally spend more time with their children and are more involved in their lives. (Ben-Zur, 2003). However, since fathers typically exercise the most power in the family, presumably they become the social mode most initiated. (Larson & Richards, 1994).

Adolescents reporting warm relationships and open communication with their parents show higher levels of both internal resources and well being.
Parents' internal resources are related to the adolescents' perceptions of their relationships with their parents. These have important implications for child-rearing and education practices as well as for the prevention of emotional problems in the general population. (Ben-Zur, 2003).