CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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In this chapter various types of relevant researches have been presented in the summary form. These researches have been classified according to various related aspects of the present research. Both foreign and Indian researches have been included. This chapter is intended to serve as a background for the present research.

FOREIGN STUDIES :

Studies Related with Self-Esteem and Socio-Economic Status (SES) Influences :

Coopersmith (1967) studied family environment and other related areas. Contrary to the findings of Ziller, Smith (1969) and Resenberg (1965), no relation between Socio-Economic Status (SES) and Self-Esteem was found. But Collins and Burger (1969) have stated that children reared in socio-economically advantaged families would be more likely to be high in Self-Esteem than those from families possessing fewer advantages.

Muldoon & Trew (2000)'s analysis indicated that children of lower Socio-Economic Status (SES) and from minority community had significantly less positive perceptions in a range of domains than middle Socio-Economic Status and majority community children. These differences however, were generally evident only at age 10 and 11.

Ruggiero & Marx (2001)'s results showed that when making an attribution to discrimination, high status group members were less likely to experience a threat to their social state Self-Esteem; performance-perceived control and social-perceived control were more likely to protect their performance-state Self-Esteem.

Studies Related with Self-Esteem and Sex/Age Influences :

Lyell (1973)'s findings indicated that young adult males evaluated themselves positively, while young adult females expressed dissatisfaction with themselves. The results of Elrod et al. (1980) and Verkuyten (1986) also showed that boys were higher in Self-Esteem than girls.

Hansley (1977) conducted a study on 487 college males and 707 females. No significant difference in Self-Esteem scores was found. Opposite to this finding, Knight & Nadel (1986) depicted that female subjects tended to have lower Self-Esteem scores, Wood, Becker & Thompson (1996) discovered that girls demonstrated significantly higher levels of body dissatisfaction, larger discrepancy between ideal self and current self and lower levels of Self-Esteem than boys.
Gillis & Connell (1989) examined direct and moderating influences of gender and Sex-role orientations on children's general Self-Esteem. The findings indicated that upper elementary school children's general Self-Esteem is (a) marginally related to biological gender, with boys showing a slight advantage; (b) significantly related to masculinity and androgyny; and (c) predicted more strongly by perceived capacities to do school work in girls than in boys, and by perceived (lack of) strategies for academic success in nontraditionally Sex-typed children than in traditionally Sex-typed children.

Orr & Ben (1993)’s findings showed that males’ Self-Esteem was predicted significantly by their masculine Self-Esteem Image (SI), while females Self-Esteem was predicted significantly by their nonstereotyped self-image, and that the feminine self-image predicted the Self-Esteem of neither. Findings also indicated that Self-Esteem is dependent on socially rewarded and self synchronized Sex-typed attributes. Lebel & Agami (1993) found that Kibbutz females had lower academic Self-Esteem than Kibbutz males, and urban males and females.

Wood, Becker & Thompson (1996) reported that girls demonstrated significantly higher levels of body dissatisfaction, larger discrepancy between ideal self and current self, and lower levels of Self-Esteem than boys, Mullis & Chapman (2000)’s results indicated that adolescents with high Self-Esteem used more problem focused coping strategies and adolescents with lower Self-Esteem used more emotion focused coping strategies. No age or gender differences were found. In Muldoon & Trew (2000)’s findings, substantial gender differences in self-perceptions across several domains including global Self-Esteem were evident.

Baldwin & Hoffman (2002)’s results indicated that age had a curvilinear relationship with Self-Esteem suggesting that during adolescence, Self-Esteem is a dynamic rather than a static construct, changes in Self-Esteem during adolescence were influenced by shifts in life events and family cohesion. These processes were different for males and females, particularly during early adolescence.

Studies Related with Self-Esteem, Self-Acceptance and Self-Concept:

Hurlock (1986) found that the person who accepts himself is 'tolerant of others, overlooks their weaknesses and unkindness. Hence, acceptance of self is accompanied by acceptance of others (Sullivan, 1940, Rogers, 1951, Berger, 1952, Omwake, 1954, Phillips, 1951, Sheerer, 1949, Stock, 1949). Most of these studies, by and large agree that the correlation between attitudes of acceptance of self and acceptance of others is due to the perceived similarity in other persons. This finding is very close to the life position of “I’m OK, you’re OK” of Transactional Analysis. According to TA
principles, this position is a healthy life-supporting position that contributes to positive Self-Esteem.

**Leary, Cottrell & Phillips (2001)**'s results indicated that acceptance and dominance feedback had independent effects on Self-Esteem.

**Burnett (1994)** investigated the relationship between self-concept and Self-Esteem using 957 elementary school children in grades 3 to 7. The evidence suggested that self-concept is comprised of both descriptive and evaluative beliefs that children hold about certain characteristics, whereas Self-Esteem can be viewed as the global feeling and beliefs that children have about themselves as people.

**Ullman & Tatar (2001)**'s findings indicated that immigrant adolescents as compared to their counterparts express less satisfaction with their lives and report less congruence between their self-concept and the ways in which in their opinion they are perceived by others. The 2 groups do not differ in global Self-Esteem. Across the sample, gender and age were also related to Self-Esteem and self-concept.

**Studies Connected with Self-Esteem and Physical Attractiveness:**

**Philip Starr (1982)** investigated the relationship between self-ratings of physical attractiveness and Self-Esteem for young adults with cleft lip and/or palate. The physically attractive group rated themselves higher in Self-Esteem than did the less attractive group of patients.

**Bill & Scott (1993)** examined the impact of physical attractiveness contrast effect on self-evaluations. Global Self-Esteem was not influenced by a negative contrast effect; however, an adverse effect was observed on a more specific assessment of social Self-Esteem based on interpersonal competence. The positive contrast effect was associated with marginally increased social Self-Esteem but not with heightened public self-consciousness.

**Cooper (1993)** found a significant positive relationship between facial attractiveness and Self-Esteem. No significant difference was found between correlations of adult rating and total Self-Esteem to peer rating and total Self-Esteem.

**Studies Related with Self-Esteem and Transactional Analysis:**

**Bredehoft (1990)** evaluated the use of a parenting programme based on transactional analysis, called Self-Esteem: A Family Affair, which is described by J.I. Clarke (1981). Ss scored significantly higher on post-test measures of Self-Esteem, supporting the use of the parenting programme.

**Wissink (1994)** investigated the validity of transactional analysis (TA) theory and the practical application of teaching self-reparenting to small-
group participants as a means of enhancing their Self-Esteem. 10 participants were taught basic TA theory in a 6-WK programme. Ss significantly increased their sense of self-efficacy, self-actualization, and Self-Esteem.

**Studies Related with Self-Esteem & personality Related Influences:**

**Heaven (1980)** found a low but positive and significant relationship between Self-Esteem and authoritarian behaviour among a sample of rural Afrikaners. A significant, negative correlation was found between Self-Esteem and irrational beliefs (Daly & Burton, 1983). Moreover, four specific beliefs were found to be useful predictors of low Self-Esteem: demand for approval, high self-expectations, anxious overconcern, and problem avoidance.

**Knight & Nadel (1986)** found negative relations between Self-Esteem and performance feedback as well as with a number of policy changes. **Tennen, Herzberger & Nelson (1987)**'s findings demonstrated the importance of Self-Esteem in depressive attributional style in both normal and clinical populations, as well as potential differences in the relations among Self-Esteem, depression, and attributional style in clinical versus normal sample.

**Elliot (1988)** reported that Self-Esteem is causally prior to self-consistency. Further, the direct effect of Self-Esteem on self-consistency was stronger for boys than for girls.

**Campbell, Chew & Scratchley (1991)** found that Self-Esteem and self-complexity were negatively related to the measure assessing the frequency of mood change, although the effect of self-complexity dissipated when Self-Esteem was taken into account. Self-Esteem was also related to event appraisals. In a study on preadolescent girls **Grayston, de-Luca & Boyes (1992)** found that Sexually abused children had lower levels of Self-Esteem than non-abused children. **Corenblum & Annis (1993)** found that Self-Esteem was positively related to own group choices for Whites but inversely related for Indians.

Self-Esteem has been negatively correlated with smoking frequency (Botvin et al., 1993), suppressed anger (Johnson & Greene, 1991), drug abuse (Unger, Kipke; Simon, Montgomery & Johnson, 1997) and depression symptomatology (Caldwell, Antonucci, Jackson, Wolford, & Osofsky, 1997) in African American children and adolescents. Another recent study found that drinking level was negatively related to Self-Esteem in African American College students who had Alcoholic parents (Rodney & Rodney, 1996).

**Van, Beth, Jarvis (1995)** found that pet-owner preadolescents reported higher autonomy, self-concept and Self-Esteem. **Crozier (1995)** found that shyness was significantly correlated with measures of global Self-Esteem,
with external locus of control and with perceived competence across different domains of self.

Collins (1996) concluded that upward comparison is not in conflict with the desire for positive self-regard and indeed serves it indirectly (through self-improvement) and sometimes directly (by enhancing the self). Sletta, Valas, Skoalvik & Sobstad (1996) found strong negative paths from loneliness to Self-Esteem and perceived social competence. Strong negative paths were found from Self-Esteem and perceived social competence to defensive ego-involvement, which suggests that negative self-perceptions may have adverse consequences for children’s goal orientation.

Dubois, Tevendale, Burk, Swenson & Hardesty (2000), investigated an integrative model of self-system influences during early adolescence in two separate samples of youth in grades seven through nine and grades five through eight. For both samples, structural equation modelling analysis provided support for a hypothesized model that included effects of self-descriptions and self-standards on self-evaluations in corresponding domains and effects of domain-specific self-evaluations, in turn, on global Self-Esteem. There was only limited evidence that the values the youth attached to differing domains moderated the relationship between self-evaluations in those domains and overall feelings of self-worth.

Ashby & Rice (2002) found that adaptive perfectionism was positively associated with Self-Esteem and maladaptive perfectionism was negatively associated with Self-Esteem. In Kirkpatrick & Waugh (2002)'s study, global Self-Esteem failed to contribute to the prediction of aggression.

**Studies Related with High/Low Self-Esteemers:**

Baumeister (1982) found that high Self-Esteem subjects used compensatory self-enhancement in their self-descriptions and behaved in ways contrary to what their reputations would imply. Low Self-Esteem subjects did not employ compensatory self-enhancement. Moreover, the behaviour of low Self-Esteem subjects conformed to the randomly generated feedback when it (the feedback) was public but not when it was confidential, Hartup (1983) reported that both extremes of low and high Self-Esteem are associated with friendship difficulties. Even young children, it seems, find it difficult to maintain relationships with those who hold an inflated view of self.

Adolescents high in Self-Esteem see themselves as more popular than adolescents low in Self-Esteem, even after controlling for actual popularity (Bohnmstedt & Felson, 1993), and students high in Self-Esteem overrate their achievement and intelligence, while students low in Self-Esteem, underrate their achievement and intelligence (Wells & Sweeney, 1986).
Jussim, Coleman & Nassu (1987)'s results demonstrated that students high in Self-Esteem evaluated their own performance more favourably, and saw the teacher as evaluating their performance more favourably, than students low in Self-Esteem. In the study, it was noted that among subjects with high Self-Esteem, the process promoting self-worth will act in accordance with maintaining a consistent self-worth, while subjects having a low Self-Esteem show a conflict between self-enhancement and self-consistency (Swan, Griffin, Predmore & Graines, 1987 and Brown & Collins, 1988).

Tice & Baumester (1990) investigated the causes of low preparatory effort, a possible form of self-handicapping. Experiment 1 found that people with high Self-Esteem practiced less than people with low Self-Esteem, although a prior experience of success eliminated this difference. Experiment 2 showed that people with high Self-Esteem practiced less only when the practice duration was publicly known, indicating that they were using a strategic self-presentational ploy rather than responding to superior confidence. This difference may reflect a desire to maximize the self-presentation of high ability by appearing to succeed despite minimal preparatory effort. These results suggest that this form of self-handicapping is a strategy used by highly confident individuals in uncertain situations to make a favourable impression on others.

Rhodes & Wood (1992) conducted a meta-analytic review to determine whether message recipients' Self-Esteem or intelligence predicts influenceability. Recipients of moderate Self-Esteem proved to be more influenceable than those of low or high esteem. Recipients low in Self-Esteem have difficulty receiving the message; those high in Self-Esteem tend not to yield. Kernis (1992)'s findings indicated that for high Self-Esteem individuals, instability was related to greater excuse-making following success, but not following failure. However, for low Self-Esteem individuals, instability was related to greater excuse-success. Finally, stability of Self-Esteem was not significantly correlated with certainty of Self-Esteem.

Ditto & Griffin (1993) found that Ss with high Self-Esteem perceived their most liked characteristics to be less common than did low Self-Esteem Ss. High Self-Esteem Ss perceived their least liked characteristics to be somewhat more common than did low Self-Esteem subjects. Kramer, Newton & Pommerenke (1993)'s findings indicated that high Self-Esteem and positive mood affected negotiators' confidence and optimism prior to negotiation, as well as their post-negotiation evaluations of performance.

In Wayment & Taylor (1995)'s study individuals low in Self-Esteem reported using more social comparison information than those high in Self-Esteem, especially upward social comparison information. Individuals
with high Self-Esteem reported using personal standards information more often than they used social comparison information, while individuals with low Self-Esteem relied equally often on these two types of information. 

Bauemester, Smart, and Boden (1996) indicated that it is threatened egotism rather than low Self-Esteem that leads to violence, Moreover, certain forms of high Self-Esteem seem to increase one’s proneness to violence. An uncritical endorsement of the cultural value of high Self-Esteem may, therefore, be counter productive and even dangerous. Leonard, Nancy, Ellen & Ann (1996) found that information on suicidality provided by the children was related to child reports of depression, hopelessness and low Self-Esteem.

Sands, Tricker, Sherman & Armatas (1997) found that larger ideal body shape selection was associated with higher Self-Esteem, while higher scores for drive for thinness were related to lower scores on self-worth. Seligman (1998) proposed that it is high Self-Esteem that is related to aggression. According to Staub (1999) it is worth noting, however, that frequently Self-Esteem, whether high or low, may have no causal relationship to aggression.

Christina (2001) suggested that instead of studying Self-Esteem as unidimensional continuum from “low” to “high”, qualitative distinctions should be made, for instance, between different types of unhealthy Self-Esteem, such as disparaging and under-estimating self versus narcissistic Refusing to see anything negative in oneself. It is the latter type which seems to be associated with aggressive behaviour. Robins, Tracy & Trzesniewski (2001) found that high Self-Esteem individuals were emotionally stable, extroverted and conscientious and were somewhat agreeable and open to experience. Despite an extensive search for potential mediators and moderators of this general pattern, the relations between Self-Esteem and the Big Five personality dimensions largely cut across age, Sex, social class, ethnicity, and nationality (United States Vs Non United states). High Self-Esteem individuals tended to ascribe socially desirable traits to themselves, and this tendency partially mediated relations between the Big Five and Self-Esteem.

In 4 studies, Vohs & Heatherton (2001) Examined interpersonal perceptions as a function of self-construals and ego threats for those with high and low Self-Esteem. Study I showed that after threat, high Self-Esteem people seek competency feedback, whereas low Self-Esteem people seek interpersonal feedback. Study 2 showed that high Self-Esteem people become more independent after threat, whereas low Self-Esteem people become more interdependent. Study 3 linked interdependence to interpersonal evaluations. Study 4 found that differences in independent and interdependent self-construals statistically accounted for differences in liability and personality
perceptions of high and low Self-Esteem people after threat. Thus, the combination of threat and Self-Esteem alters people’s focus on different self-aspects, which consequently leads to different interpersonal appraisals. McWhirter, Besett, Horibata & Gat (2002)’s results reveal that low Self-Esteem and low social coping significantly predicted high intimate and high social loneliness.

Studies Related with Self-Esteem & Academic/Institutional Influences:

In McFarlin & Blascovich (1981)’s study, Ss preferred future success to future failure regardless of chronic level of Self-Esteem. Ss with high or low chronic levels of Self-Esteem perceived ability for future performance and expected actual future performance in a manner consistent with their chronic levels of Self-Esteem rather than consistent with feedback on current performance. In Hart (1985)’s study significant correlations were detected between Self-Esteem, levels of anxiety and academic achievement of verbal reasoning.

Gurney (1987) reviewed well-controlled experimental studies which have sought to enhance children’s Self-Esteem in classroom settings and suggested the following strategies to enhance children’s Self-Esteem: (i) Curriculum packages directly aimed at Self-Esteem enhancement, (ii) interventions aimed primarily at improving academic performance, (iii) counselling interventions, (iv) other forms of direct curriculum intervention, (v) changing teacher behaviour and (vi) changing pupil behaviour.

In another study, Gurney (1987) investigated the use of behaviour modification techniques to raise Self-Esteem in maladjusted children. During the treatment phase, a substantial and highly significant increase in the experimental group was found. Post test analysis showed a significant difference in overt Self-Esteem between the two groups but failed to detect significant differences in other dependent variables, including self-report of global and specific Self-Esteem.

Foon (1988) studied the relationship between school-type and adolescent Self-Esteem, attribution styles, and affiliation needs and found that students attending co-educational schools have lower Self-Esteem and greater affiliation with peers than students from single Sex schools. However, these relationships were not simple. Sex differences mediated major associations reported between type of school attended and adolescent self-perceptions.

In Okun & Fournet (1993)’s study on college students, a multiple regression analysis indicated that semester GPA and academic Self-Esteem exerted a joint effect on perceived validity of grade scores. Contrary to the prediction, simple slope analysis indicated that the slope for semester GPA was positive for low and high academic Self-Esteem Ss alike, although the
slope was steeper for high relative to low academic Self-Esteem subject. **Kim, Scott, Tiffany, Geer et al (1993)** assessed the immediate effects of a 10-wk art appreciation curriculum on 17 preschool children's art appreciation and classification skills. Following the course, Ss' Self-Esteem scores were increased.

**Verkuyten (1993)**'s study explored the importance of reflected appraisal, social comparison and self-attribution as sources of "academic" Self-Esteem among ethnic minority children. The results indicated that in order to understand the level of Self-Esteem among different groups, it seems necessary to concentrate on the processes of Self-Esteem formation and the way they operate in these groups. **Whaley (1993)**'s findings emphasized the importance of the concept of competence rather than Self-Esteem on the interactions of social experiences, cultural factors, and cognitive development in the process of identity formation in African American Children.

**Alyce & Thomas (1994)** examined the relationship of selected variables to Self-Esteem among males and females of small high schools and large high schools. For all 4 groups, higher masculinity scores and greater levels of activity participation were related to Self-Esteem. For males in small schools, athletic participation was a significant predictor of Self-Esteem. For females in small schools more non-traditional or egalitarian attitudes toward women were related to higher Self-Esteem scores. Only masculinity and activity participation were significant predictors of Self-Esteem for both males and females in large schools.

**Wang (1994)** compared gang Vs nongang high school students. Results indicated that gang members had significantly lower levels of Self-Esteem. **Staub (1999)** depicted that gang culture, which focuses on respect and on boosting the Self-Esteem of members, helps to elevate their Self-Esteem.

**Yelsma & Yelsma (1998)** found that the scores for total Self-Esteem were also significantly associated with respect for teachers and for appropriate language. Total Self-Esteem was significantly and negatively associated with respect for teachers and for appropriate language. Total Self-Esteem was significantly and negatively associated with respect for waiting and listening. Global Self-Esteem was significantly and negatively associated with respect for physical property.

**Dr. Dweck (1998)** demonstrated that "Praising children's intelligence, far from boosting their Self-Esteem, encourages them to embrace self-defeating behaviours, such as worrying about failure and avoiding risks"; she also noted, "however, when children are taught the value of concentrating, strategizing, and working hard when dealing with academic challenges, this
encourages them to sustain their motivation, performance and Self-Esteem. Imsael (1999) found significant relationships between global Self-Esteem and students’ evaluations of their scholastic levels, their schools’ academic levels, and their plans to take matriculation exams, and between Self-Esteem and community-type. Adolescents living in cities and villages scored higher than those living in Bedouin townships. Justice, Lindsey & Morrow (1999)’s findings, indicated that the development of academic Self-Esteem is important for the school achievement of minority children.

In a study on ‘the effects of in-group Versus out-group social comparison on Self-Esteem in the context of a negative stereotype,’ Blanton, Crocker & Miller (2000) observed a contrast effect, when the confederate was white such that Ss reported higher state Self-Esteem in the downward social comparison condition than in the upward social comparison condition. When the confederate was African American, an assimilation effect was observed such that subjects reported higher state Self-Esteem in the upward social comparison condition than in the downward social comparison condition. Badura, Millard, Peluso & Ortman (2000) investigated the effects of participating in peer education training on 30 undergraduate peer educators. Self-Esteem did not significantly increase. Sirin, Selcuk & Lisa (2001) found that Self-Esteem did not influence achievement, though it was linked to behavioural components of school engagement and future education expectations. Boys had higher Self-Esteem.

Studies Connected With Self-Esteem & Sports, Play Participation:

Seidel & Reppucci (1993) in a study on ‘organized youth sports and the psychological development of nine-year-old males’ found that Ss’ self-perception of their athletic and scholastic competence, physical appearance, and global self-worth increased from pre to post session. Biddle (1993) concluded that quality experiences in sports can have beneficial emotional affects in terms of reduced negative affect and increased Self-Esteem. Sands, Tricker, Sherman & Armates (1997) showed that less frequent participation in physical activity was related to low Self-Esteem.

Richman & Shaffer (2000) in a sample of 220 college females found that greater precollege sport participation predicted higher Self-Esteem. The patterning of the data implied that participating in sports promotes females’ self-worth. Kavussanu & Harnisch (2000) examined the relationship of goal orientations and perceptions of athletic ability to global Self-Esteem. High task oriented children reported significantly higher Self-Esteem than low task oriented children. Among high task-oriented boys, those with high perceived ability had higher Self-Esteem. In addition, high ego-oriented boys had high Self-Esteem when they perceived themselves as having high ability in relation
to their peers, Finally, among low task oriented girls, those with high perceived ability reported higher Self-Esteem.

**Colwell & Payne (2000)** studied 'negative correlates of computer game play in adolescents' and saw that play was not linked to Self-Esteem in girls, but a negative relationship was obtained between Self-Esteem and frequency of play in boys. However, Self-Esteem was not associated with total exposure to game play.

**Studies Related with Self-Esteem & Parental/family Influences:**

**Olowu (1990)** argues that many African children have higher Self-Esteem than children in Western countries because they enjoy the warmth and acceptance of an extended family, such parental warmth can be provided by aunts and uncles as well as grandparents (*Jegede & Bamgboye, 1981*). Western children on the other hand, frequently rely on one or two caretakers for their Self-Esteem needs. According to several researchers, the combination of unstable family dynamics and overtly strict discipline results in a lack of Self-Esteem and self-worth in Jamaican children (*Phillips, 1973; Smith & Reynolds, 1992*).

**Pierce & Wardle (1993)**'s findings suggested that children are accurate predictors of parental evaluation and that their Self-Esteem scores are influenced both by actual parental dissatisfaction and beliefs about parental dissatisfaction. For boys, lower Self-Esteem was associated both with thinness and being perceived as too thin. For girls, lower Self-Esteem was more associated with fatness. **Blake & Slate (1993)** found significant relationship between perceived parental verbal interactions (PVIs) and Self-Esteem (SE) in adolescents.

**Killeen (1993)**'s result supported a model of the self in which parents (i) influence self-concept by providing children with information on how well they perform in specific domains and which domains are important, and (2) influence Self-Esteem by their affective behaviour. Global self-worth was predicted by children’s perceptions of parental support and perceived competence in domains that were important to the parents. A moderate positive relationship was found between Self-Esteem and parental verbal interaction (*Enger, Howerton, Lynn & Cobbs & Charles, 1994*). A moderate negative relationship was found between locus of control and Self-Esteem.

both groups, a global explanatory style correlated with low Self-Esteem, but only among European Americans was an internal style associated with low Self-Esteem. The two groups differed in reported styles of family expressiveness, with Asian Americans indicating more emotional restraint.

Mandara & Murray (2000) examined the effect of marital status, family income, and family functioning on African American adolescents' Self-Esteem. Compared with boys with non-married parents, boys with married parents had higher overall Self-Esteem, even when family income and family functioning were controlled. Parental marital status had no effect on girls' Self-Esteem. Family functioning was a very strong predictor of Self-Esteem for both Sexes. However, family relational factors were more important to girls' Self-Esteem, whereas structural and growth factors were more important for boys.

McCormick, Cynthia & Kennedy (2000)'s results showed that individuals who experienced separation for all reasons from their fathers during childhood recounted less acceptance by their fathers in late adolescence but not less independence-encouragement. Individuals whose parents had divorced (whether or not they had experienced a significant separation) reported lower acceptance by their fathers in both childhood and in late adolescence, and they attained lower scores on Self-Esteem.

Studies Related with Self-Esteem & Ethnic and Religious Influences:

Phineey, Chavira & Tate (1993) found that Self-Esteem was a better predictor of ethnic ratings than ethnic identity was. Substantial differences were found between the ethnicity by gender groups in the type of beliefs that best predicted Self-Esteem. Compared with non-academic self-beliefs, academic self-beliefs were not strong predictors of Self-Esteem in any of the gender by ethnicity groups (Appas, 1993).

Dukes & Martinez (1994) found that Black and Hispanic males had the highest levels of global Self-Esteem, and Asian and Native American females had the lowest. On public domain aspects White and Black males had the highest scores, and Asian and Native American females had the lowest. Females (except blacks) had lower levels of both global and public domain self-esteem than did males. Bautista, Crawford & Dewolfe (1995) found that the bicultural subjects reported greater Self-Esteem, ability to socialize in diverse settings, and psychological well-being than their primarily US or Mexican acculturated peers.

Verkuyten (1998) investigated the relationship between perceived discrimination and Self-Esteem. A path model showed 2 pathways to personal Self-Esteem. In the 1st Path, group discrimination had a negative effect on
ethnic Self-Esteem, which in turn was related to personal Self-Esteem. In the 2nd path, perceived personal discrimination had a direct negative effect on personal Self-Esteem. Carlson, Uppal & Prosser (2000) found that ethnic identity was a significant predictor of global Self-Esteem among minority girls.

Carlson, Uppal & Prosser (2000) examined the ethnic differences in the mean levels and sources of global Self-Esteem for Hispanic, African, American and White early adolescent girls. For all ethnic groups, higher Self-Esteem was predicted by authoritative parenting and perceived teacher support and related inversely to family stress. Ethnic identity was a significant predictor of global Self-Esteem among minority girls.

Akbar, Chambers & Thompson (2001)’s findings indicated that Africentric values, Black identity and Self-Esteem were correlated for female adolescents but not for male adolescents. Unexpectedly Self-Esteem accounted for more variability in Black-female identity, thus serving as a better predictor than Africentric values.

Dai, Nolan & Zeng (2001) in a National Survey of 8th Graders in different parts of the United States reported that religious involvement was found to have largest influence on Self-Esteem of young adolescents and race and gender also influenced Self-Esteem. African American girls had highest Self-Esteem and African American boys and Caucasian girls had lowest Self-Esteem.

Schnittker (2002) found that immigrants who primarily use English have higher Self-Esteem than those who primarily use Chinese. In contrast, neither Chinese cultural participation nor neighbourhood Chinese composition is related significantly to Self-Esteem.

**INDIAN STUDIES:**

**Studies Related with Self-Esteem and Caste Influences:**

Specifically in Indian State of Orissa, it has been observed that lower caste subjects had low Self-Esteem as compared to high caste subjects (Rath & Sircar, 1960). Hassan (1977) observed that the scheduled castes and scheduled Tribes suffer from negative self image, anxiety, dependence-proneness due to cultural deprivation.

In addition to the above studies a “few other studies have also reported that the low caste children have a negative self-image about themselves. (Anant, 1970, Paranjape, 1970, Hassan, 1977). In a study of 300 students of XI standard in Almora, Self-Esteem of upper caste students (Brahmin, Kshatriya & Vaishya) was found significantly greater than that of other caste students (Garg, 1981).
Studies Related with Self-Esteem & Socio-Economic Status / Social Class Influences:

Long, Remana & Reddy (1968) conducted a research project on Self-Esteem of South Indian and American high School children. Indian children having higher Self-Esteem come from lower socio-economic families. In American sample, it was found that Socio-Economic Status and Self-Esteem were positively correlated. In a correlational study, Rao (1978) found a significant relationship between social class and Self-Esteem. His findings indicated that children with high Self-Esteem tend to come from higher socio-economic strata.

Tiwari, Morbhat & Naqvi (1979) conducted a study on social class and Sex as correlates of Self-Esteem and found that different levels of social class affect Self-Esteem, with higher social class having higher Self-Esteem. In Garg (1981)’s study, Socio-Economic Status (SES) for boys did not but for girls did affect the Self-Esteem scores.

Studies Connected with Self-Esteem & Sex/Gender Influences:

(Smart 1969) found that Indian girls were higher in Self-Esteem than were all other age, Sex and nationality groups, Self-Esteem was positively related to non-intrusive mother daughter relationships as perceived by daughters. Socio-Economic Status was found to be related to non-intrusive parental behaviour. Rao (1978) observed that the difference between means for boys and girls on Self-Esteem inventory was not significant.

Garg (1981) found that Sex factor did not affect significantly the Self-Esteem scores of adolescents. Raj & Thomas (1984) found significant Sex differences in the masculine/feminine orientation of sample. In a cross-cultural research, there was found no gender differences in Self-Esteem of Indian and Philippine pupils ranging from 10 to 14 years (Calhoun & Sethi, 1987)

Jain (1988) showed that gender as an independent variable had an insignificant effect on Self-Esteem. Parikh & Patel (1989) found that Sex played non-significant role.

Karunanidhi, Nandhini & Priscilla (1996) found that overall Self-Esteem was high in the case of girls than boys. Both the groups scored high on global Self-Esteem. There was a significant relationship between perceived problems and Self-Esteem. Another study by Priscilla & Karunanidhi (1996) on middle income group students of class 9th revealed that girls had higher Self-Esteem; better interpersonal communication and higher level of self-disclosure compared to boys.
Studies Related with Self-Esteem & Parental/Family Influences:

Ziller and Reddy (1968) studied American and Indian children with respect to their Self-Esteem, social interest, self-centrality and identification with father, mother, teacher, friend and other relatives. Joint family system in Indian society proved to be facilitating better socialization and environment. Correlation between Self-Esteem and identification (Indian sample) with mother was 0.44, with friend 0.37, with father 0.31, with teacher 0.20. All correlations were significant at .05 level. In American sample, only the correlation between Self-Esteem and identification with mother was significant (0.30, p<.05).

Prakash et al (1978-80) indicated negative Self-Esteem in parentally rejected children. Agarwal (1978) found that the relations between Self-Esteem and attitude towards parental control was low but positive. Democratic and authoritarian methods of discipline affect the Self-Esteem.

Kapur & Gill (1986)'s results revealed that parentally accepted children from socially advantaged as well as socially disadvantaged group had positive Self-Esteem.

Parental rejection leads to negative Self-Esteem in children belonging to socially advantaged group to a greater degree than the children from socially disadvantaged group. Birth-order was found to have no influence on Self-Esteem. Significant association was found between family size and Self-Esteem in socially advantaged group. Mahabeer (1993) found that the higher the mothers' Self-Esteem, the higher were their children's perceptions of their relatives and friends and their children's Self-Esteem and perceptions of their fathers. Results suggested that children's Self-Esteem and perceptions of family members are aligned with familial configurations, family process and mother-child relationships.

Ojha & Pramanick (1995) found that both parents' protective behaviour positively contributed to Self-Esteem, their rejective behaviour contributed negatively to Self-Esteem and father's love and mother's permissiveness made a significant positive contribution to self-disclosure. Bhargava & Bansal (1996) in 'an overview of personality researches on parentally rejected children’ revealed that parental rejection leads to negative Self-Esteem, pessimism, revengefulness, delinquency, feeling of insecurity and inferiority.

Studies Connected with Self-Esteem & Personality Related Influences:

Shahi & Thakur (1978) showed that subjects high, middle and low in anxiety did not differ significantly. On personality perceived self-dimension
of Self-Esteem subjects high and low, middle & low in anxiety differ significantly on socially perceived self-dimension of Self-Esteem but subjects high and middle in anxiety did not differ significantly on socially perceived self-dimension.

Singh & Singh & Srinivasan (1983) found that delinquents were high on deprivation resulting in low Self-Esteem in comparison to non-delinquents.

Tiwari (1983)’s findings indicated that deviancy, Self-Esteem and aspiration independently, as well as, simultaneously affect risk taking tendencies. High aspiration and high esteem promotes riskiness.

Priscilla & Karunanidhi (1996) found a significant relationship between self-disclosure and Self-Esteem.

Thomas & Raj (1986) in ‘Certain correlates of Self-Esteem: A factor study’ found that out of 8 variables studied (hypothesized as correlates of Self-Esteem) 5 had significant but low relationship. Factor analysis revealed 2 factors viz “cognitive esteem” and “Masculine orientation”. Cognitive potentiality, faith in one’s own abilities and a positive attitude towards self and towards others are variables which go together.

It was found that girls with high Self-Esteem have high career values and low family values (Sethi, 1970; Shejwal, 1980; Kumari & Sethi, 1990).

Satapathy & Singhal (2000)’s results revealed that the visually impaired students had higher Self-Esteem than the hearing impaired students.

Studies Related With Self-Esteem & Academic/Institutional Influences:

Garg (1981) found that a student’s Self-Esteem scores are highly associated with his achievement. Srivastava (1981) found (a) a higher degree of alienation among low Self-Esteem subjects, irrespective of their academic performance, than among the high Self-Esteem subjects, and (b) a differential responsiveness of the high Self-Esteem subjects at varying levels of academic performance.

Srivastava, S (1993) conducted a study on 100 preadolescent subjects and found that the subjects of experimental group have enhanced their Self-Esteem in all the four dimensions and total Self-Esteem. The obtained t values of experimental group for general self, social self, home, school and total Self-Esteem were significant for both males and females. On the other hand, none of the t-values of control group, including the dimensions and total Self-Esteem was significant.

Bhole & Sood (1990-94) tested a group of 111 academically superior children (aged 12-16 years) from 7 central schools in 7 states of
India for the development of self on 3 dimensions; locus of control, Self-Esteem and self-confidence. Results indicated that irrespective of their background, all children had high internal locus of control and high Self-Esteem.

Raj (1995)'s findings revealed that higher levels of fear of success were manifested by those high on Self-Esteem, Ss with non-traditional Sex-role attitudes and low Self-Esteem expressed least fear of success, and fear of success was negatively related to Self-Esteem and positively related to non-traditional Sex-role attitudes among college students.

**Studies Related With Self-Esteem & Physical Attractiveness:**

Joshi & Rai (1987) found that subjects of high Self-Esteem have greater attraction for physically attractive person and least for moderately attractive person. Influence of Self-Esteem and physical attractiveness on interpersonal attraction is independent of each other.

**Cross-Cultural Studies on Self-Esteem:**

Long, Ramand & Reddy (1968) found that Indian children have higher Self-Esteem than American children. The Indian and American mean scores were 28.1 and 20.1 respectively. In another finding, Indian adolescents were found to have higher Self-Esteem than the american adolescents (Ziller & Reddy, 1968).

In a ‘cross-cultural study of Self-Esteem among Tribals & Non-Tribals of Gujrat; non-tribal students were found to have higher Self-Esteem than tribal students. Similarly school. Students have less Self-Esteem than their counterparts (Pairkh & Patel, 1989).

(Wood, Hillman & Sawilowsky (1995) compared the scores on Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventories of 112 African American Grades 7 and 8 students who were at risk of dropping out, with those of a group of not at risk American and Indian 10-11 year-olds. Both groups of Americans obtained higher scores as compared to Indians.

**OVERVIEW:**

The review of Foreign and Indian studies presented in this chapter represents the Socio-Economic Status/social class, Sex, age, caste, religion and ethnic influences on Self-Esteem. Parental/Family influences, Academic/institutional, sports, play-participation influences and personality related influences on Self-Esteem are also depicted. The studies also represent the theory of personality involving self-other perceptions and evaluations of self in relation to significant others. The relationship between Self-Esteem and
neurotic personality, personality disorders, behaviours problems, irrational beliefs, authoritarian behaviour, aggression, smoking, drinking level, drug-abuse, depression, aspiration, values, perfectionism, pet-ownership, self-consistency, conformity, delinquency etc. are also demonstrated.

Studies related with Self-Esteem and transactional analysis, Self-Esteem and physical attractiveness, Self-Esteem, self-acceptance & self-concept and studies dealing with high and low Self-Esteemers and cross-cultural influences are also presented with research sophistications.