CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

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REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A study of the background literature pertinent to the subject of investigation is an essential aspect in any research programme as knowledge is intricate and widespread. Educational research is possible in all area pertaining to the education of human being. But no research is possible where no data is available. The investigator is expected to know the sum total of all the previous studies on the present research undertaken. Hence a review of the related literature is attempted to get an explanation of the exact meaning of the problem.

Eventhough many studies have not been made comparing the self-concept and locus of control of the delinquents with normals, the literature relating to juvenile delinquency, self-concept and locus of control will provide the necessary conceptual background and framework of the study. Studies related to these variables are presented in this chapter.

3.1 STUDIES ON SELF- CONCEPT

Medinnus and Johnson (1964) stated that the self-concept consists of an individual's evaluation of various aspects of the self and idea about himself.
Brookover, Hamacheck and Erickson (1966) indicated that there is a relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of students in secondary schools.

Caplain (1966) also found a significant positive relationship between self-concept and academic achievement.

Coopersmith (1967) investigated the patterns associated with self-concept and self esteem among 10 year old to 12 year old school boys. Boys with high self-concept were found to be independent, creative and confident and well accepted by peers.

Ramkumar (1969) has noted a positive relationship of self-concept with intelligence and achievement. Certain demographic and environmental variables like sex, area of residential community, position in family, influence of peers and educational level of parents are related to self-concept.

Sears (1970) in a study found that high self-concepts were associated with small family size, early ordinal position and high parental warmth. For both boys and girls feminity characteristics were associated with low self-concepts. It is to be expected that only the oldest children would have better self-concepts than the middle and the
youngest ones and that the larger the family the poorer would be the self-concepts, regardless of ordinal position.

**Khatry** (1973) made a comparative study of the self-concept of teachers of different categories and the relationship of their self-concept with professional adjustment. A sample of 900 teachers were randomly selected from urban areas of state of Haryana. Some of the main findings were 1) there was no significant difference among self-concept of primary, secondary and college teachers 2) there was a significant relationship between self-concept scores and professional adjustment scores.

**Walia** (1973) made an attempt to study the gifted adolescents and their self-concepts. It was hypothesized in this study that the self-concept was affected by intelligence and sex. The gifted have higher ideal self and better insight than the average. The study revealed that the factor of intelligence had a significant effect on the self perception of the individual.

**George** (1976) studied classroom behavior of teachers and its relationship with their creativity and self-concept. The findings revealed that 1) there was no relationship between self-concept of teachers
and their direct/indirect behavior and 2) there was negative relationship between self-concept of teachers and pupil- initiation ratio.

Jogawar (1976) studied about the development of self-concept in relation to some family factors at the adolescent level. The aim of the study was to find out how the self-concept of the adolescents change as a function of age, the relationship of these changes with some family factors and the relationship of sex with these changes.

Mani and Gonsalves (1977) made study of the self-concept of student - teachers in relation to their performance in the practical teaching. The tool was a Self-concept Inventory. The major findings were 1) the teachers with better self-concept scored more on practice teaching than the teachers with poor self-concept. 2) the teachers with more teaching experience had better self-concept than the teachers with less teaching experience 3) lower age was accompanied by better self-concept and more effective teaching and 4) in the case of teachers in the upper socio-economic status the correlation between self-concept and the teaching practice scores was more than in the case of the middle socio- economic status group.

Sharma (1978) studied success in teaching in relation to self - concept, intelligence, experiences and academic achievement of
teachers. The study aimed at ascertaining the relationship between teaching success and four variables affecting success in the teaching profession namely, self-concept, intelligence, experience and academic achievement. The conclusions drawn from the study were 1) self-concept and intelligence of the teachers correlated significantly with their teaching success. 2) Government school teachers were proved superior to private school teachers in teaching success and self-concept and 3) successful teachers were proved superior to unsuccessful teachers in teaching success, self-concept and intelligence.

Singh (1978) made a study of creativity in school teachers in relation to their self-concept. The objectives of investigation were 1) to find out the relationship between creativity in teachers and their self-concept 2) to study the relationship between teachers’ class room verbal interaction and their self-concept. The findings were; 1) there was a positive and significant relationship between the verbal creativity in teachers and their self-concept. 2) there was a positive and significant relationship between the direct/indirect teaching behavior of teachers and their self-concept. 3) there was a positive and significant relationship between the teachers’ self-concept and encouragement of students’ talk by them.
One of the objectives of the study of Gupta (1978) was to study and describe the self-concepts of the scheduled caste and backward class students along with those of the general group of students. It was found that the non-scheduled caste students presented almost the same order of self-concept as found in the case of the scheduled caste students.

According to Wylie (1979), correlations between self-concept and academic achievement are positive.

The study of Manav (1981), on the sample consisted of 890 students selected through simple random technique, revealed that the engineering and medical students did not differ significantly on the self-concept.

The major findings of the study of Sharma (1981) on a sample of 702 teachers were 1) differences on self-concepts about achievement of the rural and urban teachers were not significant 2) self-concepts about self-confidence in the case of college teachers were more positive than in the case of various other group of teachers. 3) the male and female teachers did not differ with regard to the self-confidence dimension of the self-concept and 4) sex difference was not important on this dimension of the self-concept.
Prasad (1982) made a study of factors that influence stability of self-concept. The sample included 132 college and university teachers and 175 undergraduate and post graduate students. The study revealed that anxiety, insecurity, self role incongruence and self-satisfaction were the factors which influenced stability of self-concept.

The major findings of the study of Kale (1982) were 1) the self-concept did not remain static and showed gradual development up to the end of the preadolescent period. 2) Boys and girls did not differ significantly in self-concept development 3) Parent-parent relationship was highly significantly related to self-concept. 4) Teacher-student relationship was important in self-concept 5) Parent-child relationship was significantly associated with self-concept. 6) Peer relations were important in development of self-concept.

Rai (1983) made a study of the self-concept of prospective teachers. The objectives of the enquiry were 1) to study the nature and extent of self-concept of prospective teachers, 2) to study sex, rural, urban, religious and caste differences in the self-concept of prospective teachers 3) to study the relationship of self-concept with intelligence and adjustment and 4) to predict self-concept on the basis of intelligence and adjustment scores. Sample consisted of 603 prospective teachers drawn from 7 Teacher Training Institutions of
Varanasi. Important findings were 1) the self-concept of prospective teachers were positive 2) female, unmarried, post graduate and Hindu prospective teachers had significantly better self-concept than their male, married, graduate and non-Hindu counterparts. 3) the relationship between self-concept, adjustment and intelligence was positive and significant and 4) the investigator found by calculating multiple R and setting a prediction equation that self-concept could be very well predicted from an individual's intelligence and adjustment score.

The findings of the investigation of Gupta (1984) were 1) Subjects reared in an artificial family atmosphere with surrogate mothers had better self-concept and adjustment with less anxiety than subjects reared in general homes without any substitute parent figure. 2) Self-concept and adjustment were positively correlated and they had negative correlation with anxiety.

Stadler and Cora (1984) studied the changing self-concept of gifted children. Findings showed that self - concept changes of gifted students who followed the programme did not differ significantly from those who did not follow the programme and that self-concept scores change in a positive as well as negative direction.
Wilkinson and Bruke (1984) made an attempt to study about socio-economic status and the effects on self-concept in children’s academic performance. Results showed that those with higher self-concepts attained better examination scores than those with lower self-concepts.

Stone (1984) studied the ecological view of self-concept and determined the influence of achievement and socio-economic status on self-concept of 55 male and 26 female adolescents. No significant difference was found between middle and low socio-economic status of students in their perceptions of parental expectations and family attitudes. However there was a positive correlation between low self-concept and negative family perceptions. Findings did not support the hypotheses that students experiencing academic failure tend to exhibit poor self-concept, implying that the self-concept may be more closely associated with perceived parental expectations and family attitudes than with achievement.

The main hypotheses of Agarwal (1985) were 1) there is a difference in the self-concept of morally developed and underdeveloped adolescents 2) there is a relationship between self-concept and personality characteristics. The major findings were 1) self-concept was not related with moral development and moral
under-development. 2) there was a significant relationship between self-concept and personality characteristics.

The major findings of the study of Pandit (1985) were 1) there were significant differences between the ideal self and perceived self and ideal self and social self of adolescents. 2) The difference between perceived self and social self was not significant.

Khullar (1985) conducted his study on a sample of 160 students from Punjabi University, with the tool of S.M. Mohsin, 'The Self-concept Inventory'. His conclusions were 1) Science and non-science post-graduate students do not differ with respect to their self-concept 2) Male and female post-graduate students differ regarding their problem solving ability, but not regarding their self-concept. 3) Stream of courses and sex do not have any effect on the self-concept.

Chadda (1985) studied self-concept of teachers and their emotional adjustment. The sample consisted of 350 teachers of high and higher secondary schools of Haryana state. The findings of the study were 1) there was no significant difference between the self-concept scores of the male - female and the rural-urban subgroups of teachers. 2) there was a low magnitude of correlation between self-
concept and emotional adjustment scores of the total sample of 350 teachers.

**Bhide** (1987) made an experimental study of the impact of the teacher education programme on the self-concept of pupil-teachers. The sample for the experiment consisted of 304 pupil-teachers from colleges of Education of Nagpur, Akola, Bhandara and Wardha. The findings were 1) comparisons among the participant groups did not show accountable changes in self-concept. 2) Change in self-concept due to training in education was inconsequential and 3) training could bring modification in self-concept but better results could be produced by modification in the training programme.

The study of **Panwar** (1987) was designed to investigate the role of academic achievement and school background in self-concept. The main findings of the study were 1) academic achievement had significant effect on self-concept. 2) home background had significant effect on self-concept. 3) school background had significant effect on self-concept.

**Srivastava** (1988) found no correlation of aggression with self-concept, achievement - motivation and performance. Boys were higher on aggression scores than girls.
Berg (1988) investigated, do teachers with high self-concept of teaching ability have a positive influence upon student self-concept or academic ability. He found that influence may occur because teachers with high self-concept of teaching ability tend to be more accepting of students, they tend to create more opportunities for students' success, they tend to have higher expectations for students and they tend to be more encouraging of their students.

The study of Swami (1989) revealed that the self-concept of normal students was better than the self-concept of orphan students. Sex had no effect on the differences in the self-concept of orphan and normal students.

Karan (1989) studied the relationship of peer group and the self-concept of adolescents. This analysis showed that there is positive relationship between the peer group and self-concept.

The major findings of Jain (1990) were, 1) girls having high self-concept tended to select high academic goals. 2) positive self-concept and superior cognitive abilities went together significantly.

Chapman (1990) made a study about the academic self-concept and revealed that the family background did not show any long term effect on academic self-concept. Also, the position of the family,
culture, political interest were not associated with academic self-concept.

**Pareek** (1990) conducted a comparative study on the self-concept of the adolescents studying in Central schools, State Government schools and Private schools in Rajasthan. He found that 1) 45.2% of the adolescents studying in central schools, 44.4% in private schools, 57.6% in government schools, possessed “average self-concept”. 2) Adolescents studying in private and central schools were more intelligent than the adolescents studying in government schools.

**Ramiah** (1990) found a significant relationship between parental involvement and self-concept of the students; the more the parental involvement the better the self-concept.

**Vijayalakshmi** (1991) found that family - reared and institution - reared children were similar in their self-concept. The self-concept of these children was related to their personality adjustment.

**Antony** and **Broota** (1991) compared 20 children of leprosy patients living with their parents and 30 institutionalized children of leprosy patients with a matched group of 30 children of healthy parents on the variable of self-concept. The students were in the age group of
11-18 years. Children of leprosy patients showed a negative self-concept as compared with children of healthy parents. Institutionalized children of leprosy patients had a more negative self-concept as compared with children of leprosy patients living with their parents. This low self-concept was attributed to parents' negative self-image and shame, social seclusion and societal attitudes.

**Gupta** (1991) analysed gender stereotypes and the self-concept of college students (70 men and 70 women). Self-concepts of male and female students were similar.

**Burwani** (1991) studied on the nature of self-concept in the area of competence. He found that real self-concept and ideal self-concept were highly correlated. Students with high real self-concept scores showed lower discrepancy scores.

**Onivehu** (1991) studied on the relative influence of sex and self-concept on career maturity of Nigerian Adolescents. He administered the Career Maturity Inventory and the Adolescents Personal Data Inventory to 651 Secondary school students. Sex had a direct significant influence on career maturity. It also had an indirect significant influence on career maturity via, self-concept, suggesting
that if students have a better self-concept of themselves, they are more likely to develop more mature behaviour in their choice of career.

According to Demo and Savin (1992), for most adolescents self-concept is characterized by growth and stability. For most adolescents, once the initial uncertainty of pubescence passes, the remaining years of this developmental stage are years of maturation, growth, development, self-understanding and increasing self acceptance.

Fite (1992) examined relationships among high school students, levels of anxiety, self-concept and attitude towards school. 100 Eleventh graders completed the Tennessee Self-concept Scale, the State - Trait Anxiety Inventory and the School Anxiety Inventory.

Results suggest the following :-

1. high anxiety levels are associated with low self-concept, and

2. a positive self-image and low state and trait anxiety are associated with a positive view of how others perceive one's academic performance.

Groze (1992) surveyed the adoptive parents of 197 special needs children. 34 of the adopted children were interviewed and 23 completed a survey by mail. Self-concept and attachment from two
different perspectives were assessed. Results suggest that most children with special needs do not evidence self-concept difficulties. Children with better parent child relations and children who do not evidence ambivalencey attachment patterns of relating have higher self-concepts.

Nassar (1992) investigated the relationship of body image and self-concept to eating disorders. 159 female completed three test instruments; the Piers - Harris Children’s Self-concept Scale, the Eating Disorder Inventory and a Dietary Questionnaire. Two factors were identified as predisposing factors for the development of eating disorders; poor self-concept and an active involvement or interest in dieting.

Leung and Leung (1992) investigated the influence of self-concept and relationships with parents and school on life satisfaction of 1,156 Chinese junior high school students. Results show that the strongest correlation was found between general self-concept and life satisfaction. Relationship with parents was the best predictor of life satisfaction. Relationship with school was not related to life satisfaction in any significant way.
Srivastava (1992) found through his study a positive relationship of intelligence and self-concept with academic achievement.

Lester, Martin, Serrecchia and Sgro (1992) found the desire to merge identities with an intimate partner as negatively related to psychoticism but related to other social desires, such as the desire for physical closeness and identifying with the achievements of others.

Kurup (1993) conducted a study on the relationship between self-concept and job satisfaction of primary school teachers. The main objectives of the study were to examine the extent of relationship between self-concept and job satisfaction and sub samples like sex, age, local and type management. The study revealed that the self-concept of primary school teachers had no significant influence on their job satisfaction and there was no significant difference based in sub samples such as age, sex, local and type management.

Findings of Garzarelli, Everhart and Lester (1993) indicated that self-concept and academic achievement were associated for gifted children, but not for academically weak students. For this latter group, living with a step-parent was associated with poorer academic performance.
Hagborg (1993) examined gender differences and self-concept. Boys rated higher on athletic competence and physical appearance, while girls rated higher on close friendship. For both boys and girls, scholastic competence and physical appearance made important contributions to global self-worth. Boys and girls were similarly confident in the domains on peer relations, close emotional bonds with friends and employment. They were less self-assured in romantic relations and looks.

Alexander and Rajendran (1993) explored the relationship between students’ adjustment problems and their self-concept. A sample of 671 students from different Universities of Tamil Nadu was administered Mohsin’s Self-concept Scale and Mooney’s Problem Check List. Students with a high self-concept were found to be better adjusted than those with a low self-concept.

Donnell (2004) investigated whether or not relationships exist between creative thinking abilities and how gifted students view themselves with regard to friendship, sensivity and divergent thinking. Gender differences were also assessed. There were significant relationships between creativity test scores and friendship attitudes that gifted students expressed on a self-report survey. No overall significant gender differences were found. The high creatively gifted adolescents
were more sensitive and perceived themselves as greater divergent thinkers than the low creatively gifted.

The paper of Rinn (2004) was designed to answer the question of whether participating in a selective program will positively or negatively affect the academic self-concepts of gifted college students involved in an honors college. Participants included 171 gifted college students involved in an honors college, 60 gifted college students not involved in an honors college, and 173 non-gifted college students who were not involved in an honors college. Results suggested gifted college students enrolled in an honors college had higher academic self-concepts than gifted college students not enrolled in an honors college.

The self-concept of adolescents with varying learning disabilities profiles was investigated by Hanneman (2004) as a possible approach to understand why some adolescents with learning disabilities view themselves less positively than others. The self-ratings of students across specific domains of self-concept, in addition to comparisons of intellectual and academic achievement information, were also examined. The study involved four groups of students between the ages of 14 to 19 years. The results indicated that adolescents with learning disabilities who have lower performance ability rated
themselves less positively on social self-concept than students with learning disabilities who do not have discrepancies and students without learning disabilities.

The purpose of the study of Muckleroy (2005) was to analyse the achievement scores, grades and self-concept of gifted students for differences between females and males and to observe relationships between self-concept and achievement, and/or grades. The sample included 248 male and female students enrolled in a gifted programs in six middle schools. Major findings were 1) There was no significant differences in self-concept between the genders. 2) There was a significant relationship between student self-concept and yearly grade averages. 3) However, none were found between student self-concept and achievement scores. Research clearly establishes the need for eliminating gender bias.

Byrd (2005) collected and analyzed data for a group of suburban middle school boys, ages 11 to 14 to ascertain their feelings of aggression, their self-concepts and the relationships between the two. Application of a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis to test for relationships between feelings of aggression and self-concept yielded a most important negative relationship i.e. when self-concepts of subjects went down, feelings of aggression went up.
3.2 STUDIES ON LOCUS OF CONTROL

Graves (1961) predicted and found differences among the Indian children, children of Spanish American heritage and Whites. As he expected, the Indians are most external, Spanish Americans in the middle and Whites more internal.

Seeman (1962) found that internals show greater tendency to attend to and recall material immediately present in the environments.

Gore and Rotter (1963) suggested that internals are more likely to take over action to effect social change than externals.

Crandall and Crandall (1965) have developed a test that distinguishes between the internal who takes responsibility primarily for his success (1+) and the internal who blames himself for his failure (1-).

Rotter (1966) reported in his original monograph that internals actively resist being conditioned or manipulated.

Davis and Phares (1967) found that internals are superior to externals in actively seeking information relevant to problem solution.

Felton (1971) reported that experimentors who see themselves as internally controlled are more likely to get significant results in their
studies than those who are externals, and that external subjects tend to yield data that agree with experimenter's hypothesis.

Brown and Gordon (1971) involved internals and externals in an ambiguous task situation—a task in which the relationship between the subject's choices and his ultimate success was not easily determined. The internal working to discover a best way moves away the ambiguity much faster than does the external who picks and chooses randomly.

Gerald (1972) found that subjects who were high in need achievement and who were also internal with regard to locus of control would perform better on the job.

Gold (1972) hypothesized that internals and externals would differ significantly, in perception of locus of interpersonal control with externals showing a greater tendency to believe that others are interfering with their achievement of goals. The sample was 120 under-graduates (60 internals and 60 externals as determined by the I-E Scale). The predicted hypothesis was not supported in the experimental situation. The I-E dimension appears to have limited validity for predicting generalized inter-personal control expectancy. Internals were slightly more external in the presence of an authority as
predicted while externals were noted to be less external with an authority than with peers.

Davis and Davis (1972) investigated an internal - external control and attribution of responsibility for success and failure using Rotter’s 1- E Scale and administered to 80 male undergraduates in one study and 100 female undergraduates in the second study. In both studies it was found that internals showed a greater tendency to blame themselves for failure than externals. The two groups did not differ in taking personal credit for success.

Good and Hjille (1973) found in dealing with the problem workers, externally controlled subjects (high powerless) used significantly more coercive power (eg. threat of firing) than did internally controlled subjects (low powerless). In addition, internals relied more on personal persuasive power than did externals. These results were explained in terms of differential expectancy of successful influence by internals and externals.

Organ (1973) cleared that externals appeared to know themselves less well than internals; or atleast to be less clear about just what kinds of people they think they are.
Kilpatrick (1974) revealed in his demonstration that internals maintain their mood of "vigorosity, exuberance and high energy" in the face of what must be continuously uncertain and arousing circumstances.

Lefcourt and Sordont (1974) found that internals were more comfortable, as indicated by the frequency of fidgets, when working in isolation than when "feeling observed" by a video camera operating behind a mirror. In direct reverse, externals were found to fidget considerably more often when alone than when observation was made salient.

Brandt (1975) explored that the internal subjects perform better than external subjects in internally oriented learning situations and external subjects will perform better than internal subjects in externally oriented learning situations.

Eliot and Hardy (1977) pointed out that internals were extroverted in the sense that they were more at ease with interpersonal contact than externals.

The main purposes of the study of Mishra (1983) were 1) to assess the relationship between locus of control and creative thinking 2) to study the relationship between locus of control and
academic achievement 3) to study the effect of socio-economic background and culture on the locus of control. Findings were 1) the trait locus of control was significantly related to creativity and educational achievement 2) the internal locus of control subjects secured higher scores on creativity tests and educational achievements than the external locus of control subjects 3) the relationships between locus of control and creativity as well as between locus of control and educational achievement were positive and statistically significant 4) the locus of control scores were higher for the urban disadvantaged children compared to those of the rural and the tribal children.

**Beharwal** (1987) studied on locus of control and attribution of responsibility for success and failure. His major findings were 1) there was an overall trend for internals as compared to externals to attribute their performance outcome to personal sources 2) high achievement oriented as compared to low, attributed the outcome to ability and internality (ability, effort and self-confidence) factors. Low achievement oriented subjects perceived outcome as due to fate and externality (fate and family environment). 3) the internals with high achievement motivation ascribed success to effort and self-confidence, internality, stability and controllability and failure to lack of self-confidence. The
externals with low achievement motivation perceived failure as due to lack of ability, bad fate, lack of good family environment, etc.

The study of *Heenu* (1987) revealed that external locus of control correlated negatively and significantly with academic achievement. On locus of control, boys and girls were found to differ significantly. Girls, more often than boys, saw what happened to them as determined by forces other than themselves. They played a passive dependent role; whereas boys were expected to forge their own destiny.

*Morrow* (1989) studied the differences between rural and urban gifted high-school students. Rural students tended to claim more responsibility for negative events in the academic domain than did urban students.

*Darko-Yeboah’s* (1990) study investigated developmental and individual differences in perceived competence, locus of control, self esteem and metacognitive reading awareness among 150 learning disabled, 150 average achieving and 150 achieving gifted students at grade 4 and 7 levels. The average and gifted did not differ on total internal locus of control, internal success or failure.
Asthana (1990) found that internal, warm hearted, emotionally stable and assertive individuals performed better if they worked under intrinsic motivation. Those who were reserved in nature performed better under the condition of external reinforcement - praise.

Pani (1991) examined the effect of culture and locus of control of reading performance among 40 tribal and 40 non-tribal Indian students in grade 3. Both tribal and non-tribal students were divided into internal vs external locus of control groups. Reading task included both oral comprehension and several metalinguistic tasks. The poorest performance was evidenced by tribal students and students with external locus of control.

Findings of Reich and Zautra (1991) indicated that belief in one's ability to control the events of one's life is influenced by the life events one is experiencing and that people who do not endorse internality beliefs show significant positive mental health gains from dependency and reliance on other people.

Karnes and D' Ilio (1991) investigated locus of control as measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children among 34 male and 34 female gifted students (aged 8 - 14 years). Scores tended towards a more internal orientation for older
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students. Girls appear to have more internal locus of control across grades.

Mc Clelland, Yewchuk and Mulcahy (1991) examined locus of control in 87 underachieving and 77 achieving gifted 6th to 9th graders. The independent variables were achievement and grade. General locus of control measures did not differentiate between achievers and underachievers. However both groups scored significantly higher on positive internal locus of control than on negative internal control. There were no gender or grade effects.

Uma and Immanuel (1991) examined the personality patterns of 102 orphans and 109 non-orphans (aged 13-18 years) in terms of alienation, locus of control, hostility, and self-derogation. They found that hostility correlated positively with alienation, locus of control and duration of stay in the orphanage.

Saeeduzzafar and Sharma (1991) investigated the effect of religion (Hinduism & Islam) on locus of control and dependence proneness among externally oriented and internally oriented individuals. The results showed that Muslim students were more dependent prone than Hindu students. Externally oriented students
were more depended than internally oriented students. However, the interactional effect of religion and locus of control was insignificant.

Young (1992) examined the relationship between aggression and locus of control in a study with 116 undergraduates. Students completed a true-false measure of aggression and locus of control scale. Internal locus of control and a belief in human propensity for aggression were inversely correlated. Thus indicating that as locus of control increased, misconceptions about human aggression decreased.

It was hypothesized by Janelle (1992) that the locus of control scores for the disabled group would evidence significantly more externality than the scores for the non-disabled group. Results did not support the hypothesis. Results suggest that disability is not a significant predictor of externality in adolescents, although persons with an internal locus of control are more assertive and better able to cope with their environment.

Sharma and Rosha (1992) investigated the effect of self-actualisation and locus of control of benefactor on altruism. A group of 48 female University students completed the Personality Orientation Inventory, Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale and a Self-report Altruism Inventory. Findings indicated that the main effect of
locus of control was significant for altruism scores. The interaction effect of self-actualisation and locus of control was significant for altruism scores, indicating that students scoring high on self-actualisation and having internal locus of control score maximum on the altruism scale.

**Krakauer** (1992) assessed perceptions of parent behaviour and locus of control for 68 children from divorced parents and intact families. Results showed no differences between students from divorced and intact families in their perceptions of parent behaviour and locus of control. However, the children of divorced families perceived both their parents as significantly more possessive than did children from intact families. These results suggest minimal adverse effects from divorce.

It was believed by **Mills** (1992) that obese girls would show greater externality than children of alcoholics. Contrary to prediction, obese adolescent girls and adolescents from alcoholic environments have similar world views on control orientation.

As expected by **Thomson, Sobolew-Shubin, Galbraith, Schwankovsky** (1993) et al., those cancer patients with greater perceptions of control were less depressed. It was more important for
patients to believe that they could control daily emotional reactions and physical symptoms than the course of the disease. Patients who endorsed irrational beliefs had lower overall perceptions of control. The results indicated that even patients who were physically or psychosocially worse off were better adjusted if they had higher perceptions of control.

KunhiKrishnan and Stephen (1994) studied the relationship between locus of control (LOC) and a sense of general well-being (GWB) in a sample of 160 post graduate students (aged 20-25 years). Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, and a measure GWB were administered to the students. Internality in locus of control was positively related to a sense of GWB in the case of men but locus of control and a sense of GWB were not related in the case of women. There was a sex difference in LOC with women oriented more towards externality in LOC.

The purpose of the study of Wood (2003) was to determine if internal and external locus of control power affects the success and decisions of distance and traditional post-secondary business students. This study was designed to more specifically discover if there was a correlation between distance students and an internal locus of individual power. Rotter's (1966) IE (Internal/External) Locus of Control
Scale was used. The results were analyzed to determine better methods of targeting students for distance education and creating higher quality support centers for distance students.

Reimers-Hild (2005) studied on locus of control, need for achievement and risk taking propensity. Multiple regression analysis determined that locus of control, need for achievement and risk taking propensity did not have statistically significant relationships with success or persistence. Simple linear regression analysis determined that there were statistically significant differences between age, locus of control and risk taking propensity. An independent t-test revealed significant differences in the scores of entrepreneurial personality, locus of control and risk taking propensity for females and males.

3.3. STUDIES ON SELF - CONCEPT AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

The main objective of the study of Bhogayata (1986) were 1) to compare the creativity, self-concept and locus of control of boys and girls 2) to compare the creativity, self-concept and locus of control of urban and rural students. The major findings were 1) boys were more creative than girls, but they did not differ in their self-concept and locus of control 2) urban students had a higher self-concept than rural students, but urban and rural students did not differ in their creativity
and locus of control 3) the correlation between self-concept and locus of control was 0.345. The correlation was linear, positive and significant at 0.01 level. 4) the students with a higher self-concept were more fluent, original and creative than the students with a lower self-concept 5) the students with internal locus of control were more fluent, original and creative than the students with external locus of control.

Sarabjit Kaur (1988) conducted a study on 200 female Arts and Science final year students from colleges of Ludhiana. Major conclusions were 1) Arts and Science students differed significantly with respect to their intelligence and locus of control 2) no significant differences existed between Arts and Science students with regard to their self-concept 3) locus of control and subject choice had a significant joint effect on academic achievement 4) self-concept influenced academic achievement 5) self-concept and subject choice had a significant joint effect on academic achievement 6) intelligence, locus of control, self-concept and subject choice individually as well as jointly influenced the academic achievement.

Flynn (1991) evaluated the use of self-concept and locus of control in predicting intellectual achievement in middle class Black Pre-school children. 63 males and 57 females participated. Girls were
significantly more external than boys on locus of control measure. The relationship between self-concept and locus of control was significant.

Levy (1993) used a path-analytic model to examine the predicted relationships among self-esteem, locus of control, self-appraisal and attributions. 270 undergraduates completed two individual difference measures (self-esteem and locus of control). The model received strong support and each hypothesized path was statistically significant.

Kerr (1994) and Kerr and Cohn (2001) had indicated that gifted girls and boys were more aware of their sex roles, which put them at-risk to have lower self-concepts which may negatively impact on their feelings of responsibility for success and failure (eg: academic locus of control). The assumption holds that gifted children believe they do not subscribe to stereo - typical sex roles and this creates a conflict for them.

Coyer (2004) assessed the relationship among sex roles, academic locus of control and self-concept in gifted versus average intelligence children. The results indicated that boys scored higher on Masculinity and girls scored higher on Femininity regardless of I Q
level. Neither sex nor I Q was significantly related to self-concept or academic locus of control.

2.4 STUDIES ON DELINQUENCY

Burt (1949) found that 60 percent of the delinquent children come from broken homes. Over-strictness and excessive punishment imposed by parents produce antisocial traits in them.

Glueck (1950) noted that most of the delinquents are from broken home conditions where such early training towards the future is lacking.

Fry (1952) found that delinquents have some reasons for their greater and longer period of frustration, anger and resentment towards a source other than themselves.

Acchorn (1955) indicates that environment function as the precipitating force for the cause of delinquency.

Gibbons (1961) points out that during adolescence, the boy who identified with his mother, tends to be rebellious and engages in committing offences.
Baker and Adams (1962) found significant differences between girl offenders and boy offenders. Girls expressed their anger in a direct manner.

Muthya and Bhaskaran (1964) proved that delinquents have low home adjustment.

Mukherjee (1965) found that only one third of institutionalized delinquents come from unbroken home setting.

Gregory (1965) found the highest rate of delinquency among those boys who were living only with their mothers.

According to Copel (1973), crime, immorality and antisocial behaviour of all sorts flourish in the slums. Substandard economic setting is the major reason for juvenile delinquency.

Gupta (1974) found that delinquent adolescents are emotionally unstable and impulsive and are anxiety ridden in their personality pattern. They showed great interest in sex and had pessimistic outlook towards life.

According to Hirschi (1979), the strength and quality of the parent-child relationship is a principal factor in explaining the occurrence of delinquent behaviour.
Shanmugan (1980) attempted to investigate a number of psychological and social factors associated with delinquency. The results showed that the psychological factors such as extraversion, neuroticism, creativity, intelligence, social factors, educational level, birth orders, etc. are contributing to juvenile delinquency.

Wilson (1980) found that lack of parental supervision of younger teenagers is associated with delinquency.

The major findings of Pareek (1984) were 1) problematic adolescents did not accept themselves as well as others 2) the attitude of adolescents did not entirely depend on their home environment 3) the attitude towards freedom of children was negative in the case of adolescents 4) environment played an important role in the building of personality.

The major findings of Bhatt (1990) were 1) non-problematic male group was found more intelligent and had higher ego strength than the problematic group. 2) The female non-problematic group was found more intelligent and had higher ego strength than the female problematic group. 3) Male rural non-problematic group had more general capacity and insight than male rural problematic group. 4) Male urban non-problematic was more intelligent than male urban
problematic group. 5) Female urban non-problematic was found socially precise, possessed more will power than female urban problematic group.

**Kumari, Sushama** (1990) found through her study that delinquents had low intelligence and achievement motivation.

**Foley** (1991) concludes that the family background, educational variables, use of drugs and alcohols are the important factors of juvenile delinquency.

**Marvin** (1991) reveals the influence of step families, adoptive families and foster homes on the evolution of delinquent behaviour.

**Kalpana** (1991) studied families of female delinquents. She concluded that these families of female delinquents have certain peculiar characteristics, like poor parent-child relationship.

**Hellier** (1991) suggests that an interaction of the parent and child characteristics plays a significant role in the development of child behaviour problems.

**Hagan** and **Mc Carthy** (1992) found that the children of surplus population families are more likely to take to the streets and the street life itself increases serious delinquency.
Brainbridge (1992) stated that 1) religion can deter promiscuous sexuality, illegal drug use and excessive alcohol consumption. 2) crimes are deterred by religion only when the surrounding community is religious 3) the potentially beneficial effect of religion is more social than psychological and that this effect depends on the social bonds of church membership more than on individual faith.

Chadwick and Top (1993) tested the religious ecology hypothesis that postulates that religion is negatively related to delinquency only in a highly religious climate. The religious ecology hypothesis was not supported. Religiosity had a strong negative relationship to delinquency in both the high and low religious ecologies. A multivariate model was tested that allowed peer, family and religious factors to compete to explain delinquency. The multivariate model revealed although peer influence made the strongest contribution in the regression equation; religiosity also made a significant contribution.

Thornberry, Krohn and Lizotte (1993) found that gang members, as compared with non-gang members, did not have higher rates of delinquent behaviour before entering the gang, but once they became members, their rates increased substantially. Moreover, when gang members left the gang their rates of delinquency typically were reduced.
Nelson and Valliant (1993) examined the effects of substitute adult male role models for 60 adolescent boys. Father-less students who had substitute male role models were similar in personality to students with fathers. Students without fathers and from lower socio-economic families were significantly more similar in personality to young offenders.

Roundtree, Grenier and Hoffman (1993) investigated whether community based organizations provide effective juvenile delinquency prevention programs. Parents of 18 juvenile clients were interviewed. Improved school achievement was reported by 77.8% of parents. 72.2% reported an increase in children's interest in school. Other areas also were perceived as improved; willingness to help at home, time spent doing homework, hopefulness about the future, communication ability, etc.

Coffey and Genigani (1994) reveals that education can and must play a greater role in the lives of delinquents. It reduces crime, gang membership, hopelessness, and death.

Bischof (1995) compared the family environment of adolescent sex offenders and violent and nonviolent juvenile delinquents. No differences were found among three categories of juvenile delinquents.
Daley (1995) reveals that the juvenile offenders share a number of characteristics such as single-parent households headed by the mother, siblings or parents who have been involved in the legal system, the use of cigarettes and alcohol at an early age; a friend who sells drugs, high rates of suspension and expulsion, no aspiration for higher education, early sexual activity, and ownership of weapons.

Jarvelin (1995) found that 6% males acquired a criminal record between 15 and 22 years. A higher than average delinquency rate was found among those with lower socio-economic status especially when combined with low intelligence. Family and social problems had a greater predisposing effect for delinquent behaviour than mental disability.

Nick and Lauren (1996) found out that demographic shifts increases child abuse and neglect, juvenile delinquency, crime and violence.

Ravindran and Zachariah (1996) identified the deviant behaviour in relation to the need and press. Their major finding was that the families of children with severe behaviour disorders and mild behaviour disorders differ significantly.
Jalaja (1999) found significant relationship between family background and delinquent behaviour. Most of the delinquents belonged to low socio-economic strata.

Alvardo and Kumpfer (2000) studied on improving parenting practices and found that the family environment is the most effective, enduring strategy for combating juvenile delinquency.

Shreyas (2002) found that the conduct disorders were more prevalent among tribal children than non-tribal children. The percentage of conduct disorder problems was high in boys than girls.

Sivaprasad (2003) conducted a study on the intervention programmes implemented in the juvenile homes in Kerala and found that they are effective only to a certain extent.

Piquero (2005), found that gender is one of the strongest correlates of juvenile delinquency.

Roslyn (2006) examined the relationship between parental monitoring, self-esteem, and delinquency among 95 adjudicated Mexican American male adolescents who were on probationary status with the juvenile justice system. He found that parental monitoring was
negatively associated with delinquency, and self-esteem positively correlated with delinquency.

Richard (2006) studied drug involvement to psychosocial functioning among youth entering a juvenile arbitration programme. The results indicate that drug involvement is a significant issue among the youth studied, and is related to functioning problems in a number of key areas of their lives.

Hehen (2006) examined the relations among neighbourhood structural and social characteristics, parenting practices, peer group affiliations, and delinquency among a group of serious adolescent offenders. The results reveal that weak neighbourhood and social organization is indirectly related to delinquency through its association with parenting behaviour and peer deviance.

3.5 STUDIES ON DELINQUENTS AND NORMALS

Mitchell (1957) studied the aspiration level of negro delinquents, dependents and public school boys. The results reveal that the aspiration level of the delinquents are significantly lower than dependents and public school boys.
Reckless and Kay (1957) when distinguishing the potential delinquent from the non-delinquent have stressed that the appropriate concept of self is the basic component that steers the person away from or towards delinquency.

Shanmugam and Govind (1967) found that the delinquents have low level of aspiration and low level of achievement.

Vedder and Somerville (1970) compared female delinquency with male delinquency. Male delinquency is largely dealt with stealing, assault and robbery. Female delinquency is largely sexual delinquency and running away. The juvenile male delinquent tends to hurt others, while the female delinquent tends to hurt herself. Further, the dependency needs of the girls are much greater than boys.

The main aim of the study of Mitra, Chatterji and Mukherjee (1970) was to find out the differences, if any, in the environmental conditions of the delinquent and the normal school going children. The findings of the study were 1) environmental conditions of the inmates of the detention home were completely different from those of the school-going children. 2) the ideals, aspirations, etc. of the two groups of children also differed widely 3) low income, unfavorable environmental conditions, lack of parental love and care, etc. were the reasons which
encouraged children to get involved in the type of antisocial activities that branded them as delinquents.

Bandura and Walters (1977) in their study of comparing delinquent boys with non-delinquent boys found that parents of delinquent boys show rejection and lack of affection. The father of delinquent boys used harsh physical punishment and ridicule to discipline their offsprings.

Lahri (1977) tried to find out the differences in the personality patterns of normals, vagabond and delinquent children (12 to 16 years old). His conclusions were: 1) while the difference between normals and vagabonds was less compared to normals and delinquents, it was more compared to vagabonds and delinquents. 2) adolescent normals, adolescent vagabonds and delinquents differed more in personality patterns than pre-adolescents belonging to similar groups. 3) difference in personality patterns between pre-adolescent and adolescent normal, vagabond and delinquent children was rather negligible. 4) vagabonds and delinquents had normal emotional stability and stronger super-ego strength. They had shown a tendency of self-sufficiency as normals.

Sahney (1984) conducted a comparative study on personality, adjustment and values of delinquents and non-delinquents. The
findings of the study were 1) the delinquents showed significant differences from non-delinquents in respect of extraversion/introversion, social maladjustment and automism and denial. 2) the delinquents showed significantly poor adjustment on home, health, emotional, social and total adjustment. 3) as regards values, the delinquents differed in their preference of values as compared to non-delinquents.

The major findings of Parwal (1987) were 1) disciplined students were found to be more introvert than indisciplined students, irrespective of gender, achievement level, and parental income 2) disciplined and indisciplined students differed significantly in verbal, mechanical and abstract reasoning, space relations, numerical ability, clerical speed and accuracy and language usage - the disciplined showing superiority in all these.

Kabur (1987) concluded that juvenile delinquents and non-delinquents did not differ significantly in emotional adjustment and total adjustment. But juvenile delinquents and non-delinquents differed significantly in personality factors. Juvenile delinquents were less intelligent and had less ability to handle abstract problems. They were less controlled, tender minded, sensitive, dependent and over-protected.
Venkatesh (1988) chose to compare delinquents and non-delinquents in relation to intellectual level, reaction to frustration, family size and education. Delinquency was clearly related with lower intelligence and larger family size and not with other factors.

Chouhan and Bunker (1991) investigated the personality make up, social responsibility and feelings of security among Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) juvenile delinquents and non-delinquents. Results did not reveal any difference between SC/ST Juvenile delinquents and non-SC/ST Juvenile delinquents in respect of neuroticism and extraversion, suggesting that caste had no effect on these personality dimensions. Non-Juvenile delinquents in general were more socially responsible than Juvenile delinquents.

Broota, George and Singh (1992) compared 30 students from broken homes and 30 students from intact homes in respect of their level of adjustment in five areas (home, health, social, emotional and school / college) using an adjustment inventory. Students from broken homes scored significantly lower in all areas of adjustment.

Diaz (1994) found that the delinquents scored higher than non-delinquents on factors of dogmatism, neuroticism and criminal
propensity and lower than non-delinquents on intelligence. Neuroticism was the best predictor of delinquency for females.

Grietens (2003) compared attitude towards social limits among adolescents detained of criminal offence and non-detained adolescents. Finding indicated significant difference between these groups.

3.6 STUDIES ON DELINQUENCY AND SELF-CONCEPT

Moon (1991) administered the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale among junior and senior high school aged juvenile delinquent and non-delinquent Korean males. The results indicated that juvenile delinquents have lower self-concepts, when compared to non-delinquents. Boys under only the mother’s care showed higher delinquency rates than those under the biological father’s care.

Fenlay and Williams (1991) employed the Adjective Checklist to compare the self-concepts of 41 male drug addicts, 44 male non-addicted technical school students and 37 male non-addicted psychiatric patients. A large number of significant differences were found. On 9 of 23 scales used, the addict group was different from the normal group, but the psychiatric non-addict group was not.
Kaplan and Peck (1992) tested a model in which the relationships between self-rejection and specific forms of deviant behaviour are mediated by coping styles with which the deviant patterns are functionally compatible. Self-rejection had independent direct positive effects on all modes of deviance. Findings suggest that deviant behaviours are self protective responses and contribute to understanding why particular patterns of deviance are adopted.

Powdrill (2004) examined the relation between first grade children's social status and their perceptions of competence in academic and social domains. Pearson's correlation methods revealed that teacher assessments of students' social and academic competence were not related to children's self-perceptions. Rejected children rated themselves less positively than popular children for compliance behaviors.

The purpose of the study of Rivera (2005) was to determine to what extent differences exist between male and female criminal activity, delinquent behaviour, and the five psychological risk factors; by comparing the perceptions held by juvenile probation officers. The statistical procedure compared the answers by using t-tests and an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The findings of this study revealed that both juvenile males and females are actively engaged in substance
and alcohol abuse, person-on-person crime, and property crimes. However, a gender difference does exist for males, who are much more involved in gang related crimes than females. Moreover, both genders tend to experience and have issues with self-esteem, family, school, peers and the community as well. More specifically, probation officers perceived and rated issues with poor self-esteem and poor family relationships as having a greater influence on both groups. This study suggests that to a certain extent, there is no gender difference between males and females involved in criminal and delinquent behaviors.

3.7 STUDIES ON DELINQUENCY AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

Gattling (1950) compared delinquents and normals in a given situation by using Rozen Weig’s classification system (extra punitive-intra punitive) which consisted of jigsaw type of puzzles. The results reveal that the delinquents are characterized by a tendency to evaluate the source of frustration on their way to attainment of goals as external and to direct hostility outward (extra punitive), whereas normals are blaming themselves for the non-attainment of solution for their failure.

Results of Shaw and Scott (1991) supported the proposal that the influence of parental discipline style on delinquency is mediated by
an external locus of control for adolescents. Parental inductiveness, punitiveness and love-withdrawal were associated with either the resistance to or commission of juvenile crime. Inductive parenting was associated with a decrease in the incidence of delinquency and an internal locus of control mediated the effect. In contrast, reports of delinquency increased when punitive parenting had been experienced and the effect was mediated by external locus of control.

Graham (1993) investigated three personality dimensions (dissociation, locus of control and alienation) to attempt to identify personality factors characteristic of sex offenders. Three groups of men were compared; 42 sex offenders, 26 non-sex offenders and 42 men from a community control group. The sex offenders were more dissociated than the other two groups, more external than the non-sex offender group on the overall measure of locus of control and more external than the community group. The sex-offenders were more alienated than the other two groups.

3.8 STUDIES ON SELF-CONCEPT, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND DELINQUENCY

Rawson (1992) studied the inter-relationships among measures of manifest anxiety, self-esteem, locus of control and depression
among children with behavioural and emotional problems. Results indicated that measures of children's depression, external locus of control and anxiety were all inter-correlated positively to a moderately high level. Measures of self-esteem were correlated significantly and negatively with depression and anxiety, but had little correlation with external locus of control.

Lau and Leung (1992) examined 352 Chinese adolescents (Grades 7 & 8) on their self-concept, delinquency and relations with parents and school and their perception of personal control from a multi-dimensional perspective. Results showed that external control was associated with low general academic and social self-concepts, high delinquency and poor relations with parents and school. External control was related to low academic self-concept in both sexes, but low appearance, social and general self-concepts were seen only in girls. It was also found that girls' sense of external control was more strongly associated with their poor relationships with parents and school.

The survey of related literature in this field as presented above reveals that many studies have been conducted on self-concept and locus of control, but less on the self-concept and locus of control of delinquents.
Only very few comparative studies have been attempted in finding the relationship between the locus of control and self-concept of delinquents and non-delinquents. Hence the investigator thought it fit to undertake this comparative study between the normals and the delinquents with respect to their self-concept and locus of control. Appropriate tools for this exercise has been developed. Normative Survey method followed will be presented in the succeeding chapters.