CHAPTER - II

REVIEW of LITERATURE
This chapter attempts to review the researches carried out in identity status and style, cognitive and affective functioning on adolescents, under the following heads:-

(1) Identity status and Identity style;
(2) Cognitive functioning in adolescents;
(3) Affective functioning in adolescents;
(4) Summary.

2.1. Identity status and Identity style:

Identity formation is a complex psychosocial process that constitutes one of the major developmental tasks of adolescence. According to Erikson (1968) identity is a search for what to believe in, what to live for and what to be loyal to. A necessary condition for the achievement of social adulthood (Kamptner, 1988) identity formation is thought to proceed developmentally through psychosocial moratorium. It was proposed that identity consists of at least three related, yet, separate components: ego-identity, self-identity and the achievement of a sense of meaning or purpose in life (Marcia, 1980; Erikson, 1968, 1959). Ego identity referred to the formation of new ideological worldview, which in part included a set of personal values, regarding occupational goals, religious values and political beliefs. Self-identity referred to an individual's perception of self, including self-sameness and continuity of self over time. Finally, the task of formulating a purpose of meaning in life is a third dimension of identity development. Erikson (1968) suggested that identity is ideally experienced as a sense of well-being, with those who have secure identity-feeling "at home" with themselves and confident about knowing their place and direction in life.

The methods used to operationalise Eriksonian identity have mostly been of three types, namely (1) self-descriptive q sorts, using adjectives or phrases (Hauser, 1971, 1972; Block 1961; Gruen, 1962, 1960), (2) self-report questionnaire (Simmons, 1970; Herschenson, 1967; Dignan, 1965; Ramussen, 1964) and (3) semi-structured
interviews (Bronson, 1959). However, these procedures, as pointed out by Marcia (1966) failed to deal explicitly with the "psychosocial" criterion for determining the degree of ego-identity, though they did investigate the characteristics which should follow if ego-identity has been achieved. Hence, Marcia (1964, 1966) devised a structured interview format while preserving the inherent psychosocial nature of identity formation. This paradigm evolved from Erikson's view that identity is essentially a kind of contract that the individual makes with society, commitments to be and to do in certain ways.

Numerous researches have been carried out to understand the identity status of adolescents and its influence on their behavioral and cognitive functioning. Marcia (1966) observed that male adolescents in the achievement status obtained highest performance on concept attainment task under stress while in another study Marcia and Friedman (1970) found that female adolescents in the achievement status were the most difficult college majors. Male moratoriums were not only most anxious (Marcia, 1967) but also cooperated the least with high-authorities (Podd, Marcia and Robin, 1970). On the other hand female moratoriums were found to be least authoritarian (Marcia and Friedman, 1970); most cognitively complex (Josselson, 1972) and high in anxiety (Schenkel, 1972). Marcia and Friedman (1970) observed that female adolescents in the foreclosure status had highest self-esteem, were most authoritarian and had lowest anxiety, while female adolescents of the diffusion status had highest anxiety level. Marcia (1966) observed that male foreclosures were authoritarian and also had unrealistically high goals, while those in diffuse status were most vulnerable to self-esteem manipulation. The male subjects who were high on achievement identity status and the moratoriums were lest vulnerable to self-esteem manipulation (Maria, 1967) and were reflective in their cognitive style (Waterman, 1972). The foreclosures and diffusers showed impulsiveness in their cognitive style (Waterman, 1972).
Erikson (1959) had theorised that achievement of personal identity had implications for one’s future life style. Based on this, Andrew (1973) studied the relationship of values to identity achievement status, speculating that value (ideological) differences should begin to emerge during this period of time and be related to identity achievement. The study was carried out on sixty-one sophomore and junior male and female students in a university. Results showed that adolescents who scored high on the IAS showed most prominent values of logic, independence, broadmindedness, pleasure and national security, all of which reflected a cognitive, achievement-oriented approach to life. On the other hand, the values ranked significantly higher by the low scores of IAS were happiness, forgiveness, love and obedience. These values were more affective in nature and had an interpersonal orientation. In discussing the results of his study, Andrews (1973) opined that “it appears that the high IAS subjects have adopted some of the values and roles which are considered important not only in a college environment but probably by the society at large”.

Raphael (1977) observed in a study that moratorium status females scored significantly higher than both foreclosure and diffuse status females on measures of cognitive complexity, tolerance of ambiguity, intelligence and social class. Furthermore, he found that moratorium status females’ information search was higher than the foreclosure and diffusion status females, thus concluding that entrance into moratorium period of crisis and exploring had the same adaptive meaning for females as for the males.

In their study, Waterman and Nevid (1977) made an attempt in understanding the sex differences in resolution of the identity crisis. They observed that with regard to occupation female and male adolescents were “almost identical”. Besides, on religion and politics the differences between females and males were of small magnitude. However, with regard to sexual identity, it was observed that the female adolescents were more likely in to be in achievement and foreclosure
identity status (i.e. had commitments). Therefore, Waterman and Nevid concluded that except for sex, female identity followed mostly the same pattern as that of the male identity.

Orlofsky (1978) studied the performance of male and female identity statuses on achievement related variables to clarify whether the four identity positions had different consequences on male and female adolescents. Identity status was determined of one hundred and eleven male and female college students who were tested for achievement motivation, fear of success, fear of failure and self-esteem. It was observed that identity achievement and moratorium men and women scored high in achievement motivation and self-esteem than foreclosures and diffusion subjects. However, amongst the males' those in foreclosure and diffusion status had highest fear of success, while in females those with higher preference for achievement and moratorium had the fear of success highest in comparison to their other counterparts. Furthermore, Orlofsky opined that his results indicated that moratorium women resembled identity achievement more than the foreclosure women, at least on achievement related and self concept variables.

Kohlberg and Gilligan (1971) had said that Erikson's vision of an adolescent stage of identity crisis and its resolutions is a vision that is dependent upon attainment of formal logical thought and of questioning of conventional morality. Researches by Podd (1972) and Poppen (1974) confirmed this when their researches found that subjects with high ego-identity (achievement and moratorium) were functional at post-conventional levels of moral development, while those with low ego-identity (i.e. in foreclosure or diffuse) were at pre-conventional and/or conventional level of moral development. If one accepts cognitive development as a necessary condition for moral development then it may also be assumed that a relationship between identity and moral development suggested some relationship between identity development and cognitive development. Berzonsky, Weiner and Raphael (1975) however, found no relationship between ego-
identity status and formal operational reasoning. Similar were the findings of researches carried out by Cauble (1976) and Wagner (1976).

Rowe and Marcia (1980) conducted a study on a small sample of twenty-six adolescents (twenty males and six females) with the purpose of studying the relation between the three variables of cognitive development, moral reasoning and ego-identity status. It was found that though post-conventional moral thought and identity achievement status development required formal operations, it was not a sufficient condition. Besides, it was also observed that level of moral thought and ego-identity status were positively related.

In a study on thirty-one female and twenty-nine male late adolescents, Alishio and Schilling (1984) observed that male adolescents persistently focussed on occupational issues while females focussed on interpersonal and sexual issues. Ego development was also found to be highly correlated with intellectual development for men but unrelated for women. They observed that for men the task of relationship development is approached primarily via dimensions of achievement and development and maintenance of autonomy. Women, on the other hand, focus developmentally upon issues of trust in relationships, dimensions which implies a merging aspect, as well as an underlying continuity of the self and other. For women, then, relationships are approached primarily via dimensions of intimacy and attachment. In a study by Frielino and Hummel (1985) identity status and its relation to achievement in late adolescent women and adult women were exhibited less fear of success than the late adolescents. It was also observed that the subjects who were in the achievement and foreclosure identity status manifested significantly less fear of success than diffusions and moratoriums.

Kroger (1985) had undertaken an empirical study of late adolescents to examine the concurrent relationship between ego-identity status and underlying object relations structure based. The result of the study has shown that identity achievement had significant
relation with attachment style-identity achievers were more secure than anxious or detached in their attachment profiles.

In yet another study, Kroger and Haslett (1988) carried out an investigation on the relation of attachment style and identity status and their possible predictive nature. The study was carried out on seventy-six subjects (fourty-one females and thirty-five males) for a span of two years. It was observed that there were "strong links" between attachment style and identity status at the end of two years, and between identity status of the initial year of the study and culmination year. Furthermore, it was observed that when the identity status of a subject in the initial year and culmination year was known, her/his attachment style could be predicted. This showed that identity status had a significant relation with attachment style (separation-individuation) in the adolescents.

Kamptner (1988) conducted a study on the identity development in late adolescence, and examined the ways in which familial and social variables influenced identity development in late adolescents. The subjects were one hundred and eighty male and two hundred and thirty females within the age group of eighteen to twenty-one years. It was observed from the study that security in the parent-adolescent relationship does appear to play a role in the identity development process in late adolescence. Specifically, parental warmth and autonomy were found to predict financial security. This in turn enhanced identity development directly and indirectly too, by enhancing adolescents' social involvement. The results obtained in this study supported Grotevant and Cooper's (1986) work on the importance of connectedness and individuality for identity formation and suggested that familial factors influence adolescent sociability. This in turn also has affect on identity development.

Archant and Smith (1990) studied the psychosocial task resolutions (trust, autonomy, initiative, industry and identity) in adolescents with high and low dysfunctional attitudes. The adolescents were seventh graders, twelfth graders, first year college students and
Arehart and Smith also found that (1) older adolescents were more successful in task resolutions than the younger ones, and (2) different identity issues were salient during early adolescence as compared to inter adolescence.

Lau (1990) investigated the interrelationship between self-concept of academic ability and self-concept of appearance and also their relation with locus of control, extraversion and test anxiety. The subjects of the study were five thousand nine-hundred and eighty-six Chinese students from six primary and secondary grades (fourth, sixth, seventh, ninth, eleventh, and twelfth grades). It was found that self-concept of academic ability increased with age, whereas self-concept of appearance decreased with age. Furthermore, both the self-concepts were closely related.

Locus of control was more related to self concept of appearance, while test anxiety was related to self-concept of academic ability. Extroversion was related to self-concept of appearance only. It is imperative to say that these relations were observed mainly in adolescents (particularly girls) and not in the younger subjects (i.e. the fourth and sixth graders). Middle adolescence was found to be a critical phase as both the self-concepts of academic ability and appearance revealed drastic changes. Infact, transition from sixth to seventh grade had a dampening effect on the two self-concepts.

O'connor (1995) investigated the association of adolescent egocentrism with their identity development as well as with the perceptions of parental behaviour. Four hundred and eighteen subjects from twelve to twenty-one years of age completed the established measures of identity development. It was found that identity development was more strongly and consistently related to egocentrism. Infact egocentric adolescents tended to be mostly in achievement status of identity or moratoriums; whereas perceived parental behaviour had little contribution to the variance.
O'Connor and Nikolic (1990) had earlier studied identity development and formal operation as sources of egocentrism in adolescents. The subjects numbering to two hundred and fifty-five were high school and first year university students, who completed measures of adolescent egocentrism, identity development and formal operations. It was observed that egocentrism was moderately associated with higher scores on identity crisis and identity achievement, while with lower scores on identity diffusion. However, there was no significant relationship between egocentrism and the emergence of formal operations.

In order to understand the association among imaginary audience behaviour, cognitive development and parental support and rejection on adolescent's egocentrism, Riley, Adams and Neilson (1984) carried out a study on two hundred and fifty-one early adolescents (one hundred and thirty-one males and one hundred and twenty females). The results had revealed that (a) formal operations diminished adolescent egocentrism; while (b) perceived parental relations were predictive of self-consciousness. Parental support was associated with diminished egocentrism, while perceived parental rejection was predictive of increased self consciousness.

2.2 Cognitive functioning in adolescents:

A cognitive ability may be defined as any of the one or more nonephemeral characteristics of an individual that determine the level of the individual's performance on a cognitive task when maximal performance is attempted. By “nonephemeral” it is meant that the one characteristic that changes, if at all, very slowly over a period of time. Tests of cognitive ability often consist of a series of cognitive tasks. Cognitive task is one that critically requires the processing of information—from the outside world that can be perceived by the individual and placed in some kind of memory, and/or derived from previous experiences and retracted from memory. A cognitive task may involve more than one ability. Cognitive tasks include (i) ability to
perceive aspects of the physical and social environment; (ii) ability to notice and remembers specific events; sequences of stimuli, similarities and differences stimuli and relationships; (iii) ability to produce and comprehend speech and writing; (iv) ability to form concepts, reason, make inferences and arrive at decisions to achieve specific goals; (v) ability to learn and perform takes requiring high level of complex information processing; (vi) ability to process information rapidly and to make quick and appropriate responses when they are required; (vii) knowledge of a wide range of information; and the competence to make use of information-processing procedures. The most common cognitive abilities that have been empirically studied over the years have been intelligence, reasoning, urban and mathematical ability, problem-solving strategy etc.

Cognitive scientists have described problem-solving as a planful behaviour and also labeled one problem-solving heuristic as “planning” (Newell and Simon, 1972). This indicates that Newell and his associates viewed planning as problem solving technique that is used to guide action when the original problem is too difficult. Besides cognitive planning, academic performance and future perspective with regard to family, friendship and career has been taken as cognitive functioning variables of adolescents in this study.

2.2.1 Cognitive Planning

Plan formation studies have commonly used early and late childhood, besides adult subjects. Pea and Hawkins (1987) studied plan formation in school going children of two different age groups—eight to nine year olds and eleven to twelve year olds. They also studied the “microgenesis” of an individual plan as well as a planning session. The results of their study indicated that the older groups of children were more flexible and efficient planners than the younger one's. Furthermore, the efficiency of the plans increased from the first to the last plan for both the age groups. The qualitative analysis of planning protocols showed that the elaboration of subjects’ task representations
resulted in revisions of the structure of plans. It is necessary to mention than in Pea and Hawkins’ study, the subjects were essentially “planning in action” instead of “planning the action”. It was also probable that the older children were slightly more experienced and used their knowledge more effectively than the younger ones, thus explaining their better performance.

Neuropsychological studies on executive functions in later childhood and adolescence have usually emphasised on (i) whether the development is a continuous or a stage-like process? (ii) are the executive functions correlated with general intellectual ability? (iii) is there more than one kind of executive function? Studies making an attempt to answer the first question have favoured the existence of developmental stages. Passler, Isaac and Hynd (1985) examined the performance level of sixty-four children between six and twelve years of age on various neuropsychological tasks. They concluded that the development of behaviours associated with the frontal lobes have a multistage process. Several other researches by Levin, Culhane, Hartmann, Evanokovich and Matteson (1991); Welsh, Pennington and Groisser (1991); Becker, Isaac and Hynd (1987) have confirmed the results of Passler et.al (1985) study. In fact Beckar et.al (1987) and Welsh et.al (1991) study indicated that twelve year old children were less skilled than adults even in simple tasks, suggesting that the development of executive functions continue well into adolescence. The fourth and fifth growth periods, involving primarily different frontal lobe connections was of interest in the neuropsychological studies. It was observed that several relatively simple tasks proved to be difficult for the twelve year olds to perform at an adult level. Das et.al (1996) suggests that while the strategies needed for these “relatively simple tasks” are available to younger subjects, the speed and journey of this utilization increases with further development of the frontal lobes. Therefore, Das et.al (1996) is of the opinion that during later adolescence the focus in these type of tasks shift from constructing a plan to choosing between several possible plans under the guidance of
some general regulating principle. This shift probably takes place with the emergence of formal operations during adolescence.

Researches have also been carried out to understand the developmental components and prerequisites of planning as a cognitive activity. Researches have suggested tentatively that metacognition representational skills or strategies for self-control play an important role in the development of planning skills (Scholnick and Friedman, 1987). Kreitler and Kreitler (1987) conducted two studies with the aim to describe the developmental components of planning. In the former study they studied the children's conception of planning and in the second study the children's actual planning performances. The subjects of the study were five years to twelve years old children, who formed four groups of 5-6 years, 7-8 children, who formed four groups of 5-6 years, 7-8 years, 9-10 years and 11-12 years. The results of these studies show that, firstly, with increasing age, children come to conceive of planning as a complex cognitive activity that can be used to handle a wide variety of situations more efficiently. Planning is also a cognitive activity which develops in a variety of ways such as—plans and alternate plans become more elaborate and flexible, planners become more aware of contextual constraints and therefore begin to ask questions about them; and planners also begin to organise information more efficiently with the help of higher conceptual units. Therefore, it can be precisely said that what develops in planning is (a) an awareness and a knowledge base about planning, (b) cognitive abilities to deal with large amounts of information and hypothetical solutions.

In a further study Dreher and Oerter (1987) showed that this development continues into early adulthood. They asked their subjects ranging in age from eleven to adulthood to schedule an errand-running task with a time constraint and the possibility of using "cultural tools" (e.g. a bicycle) and delegating some of the tasks to a friend. It was found that the percentage of plans conforming to the time constraint increased with age and that older planner used the bicycle and delegated tasks more often. These results indicated an increase in
social awareness and the capacity to organise a growing number of separate components into a functional plan. According to Dreher and Oerter, the planner needs to recognise and use the deeper and more complex features of the problem to form a hierarchy of planning operations in order to be able to produce a functional plan.

Goodnow (1987) and Baker-Sennett, Matusov and Rogoff (1993) argued that in real life, planning is restricted not only by the planner's abilities but also by social and contextual constraints on what is feasible and proper. For example, planning is not considered socially acceptable in all situations, also planning takes place in organisations and institutions that set contextual limits on the possible outcomes, as well as provide cultural and cognitive tools for the planning process. Planning also involves, in daily life other people as co-planners, resource persons or agents to be moved along with. However, these features are seldom present in experimental studies.

Gardner and Rogoff (1990) examined how sensitivity to contextual factors differed in four to nine year old children. They asked subjects to solve mazes that varied in the appropriateness of advance or improvisational planning. The results of this study showed that older children adapted their planning to the circumstances somewhat better than did the younger children, although the difference was not significant. The researchers explained the difference was because older children were more skilled in advance planning and using the skill selectively in such situations where it was most profitable. In other of the specific characteristics of the situation were more advanced than those of the younger children.

Schooling is yet another socio-cultural factor in cognitive development. Though very few studies have been conducted to understand whether planning can be accelerated by school, yet the existing studies do show that there is a positive influence of schooling on children's planning skills. Dreher and Oerter (1987) found that subjects who were studying home economics did better in their planning tasks than expected in their age. This was, probably because
the children were exposed to such kind of tasks more often during their other counterparts. Tanon (1991) compared the influences of formal education to those of informal education on planning skills. They used four groups of subjects (schooled weavers, unschooled weavers, schooled non-weavers and unschooled non-weavers). Two tasks, of which one was related to weaving and another to the subjects related to everyday life was given. The results showed that schooled weavers outperformed other groups in both the takes, unschooled weavers and schooled non-weavers performed roughly at the same level, and, unschooled non-weavers obtained lowest score on both the tasks. Tanon suggested that informal education in weaving, which required planning, fostered the planning skills in other familiar tasks to the same extent as formal education. These findings also suggested that planning can be accelerated, at least to some extent, by relevant education, both formal and informal.

Das and Dash (1990) administered two simple planning tasks and several syllogistic reasoning tasks to two groups of schooled children (6-8 and 10-12 years of age) and two groups of unschooled children (of the same age group). The results indicated that schooled children outperformed their unschooled counterparts in planning tasks, whereas in syllogistic reasoning, performance of older group of children was better than the younger ones, irrespective of their being schooled or unschooled. Das and Dash suggested that this was because syllogistic reasoning tasks were commonly present within the oral tradition in rural India and hence the better performance with age.

In the context of the PASS model theory of planning of which according Das et.al (1996) planning is the third functional unit, can be measured by tests of crack-the-code and planned composition. Newcomer and Barenbaum (1991) proved in their study that poor writers do have planning and organisational difficulties. Ashman and Das (1989) also have shown that lack of planning in composition can be related to deficiencies in simple planning takes Mishra (1992) conducted a study on 8th grade Canadian school children (girls and
The result of the study showed that good writers performed significantly better than poor writers on all planning tasks. Good writers on all planned composition variables of expressions, organisation, wording, mechanics, and individuality. Hence, good writers are not only better on cognitive tests of planning but also in their use of planning and organizational skills in writing.

2.2.ii Academic performance

Researches focused on the factor of scholastic achievement of students, from different angles although the findings have been equivocal regarding the causal factors.

Summerskill (1962) observed that institutional characteristics and values contribute to students' achievement. He concluded that achievement problems involved students' failure to meet the psychological, sociological or economic demands as well as the academic demands of the school environment. Coleman (1966) pointed out that student's achievement was related to various factors in the school as well as to factors like home background, family interest, parent's educational level, parental income etc. Miller (1970) was of the view that aspirations, motivations, self-concept, sense of control over the environment, attitudes that support education all these factors influenced the individual's academic performance. Therefore, various researches have shown that relationship between social status of social groups, value orientations, family atmosphere, peer group influence account for a great deal of variation in individual's academic performance.

Roth (1959) found that college students whose reading ability improved as a consequence of the course showed positive self-concepts that those who did not improve or those who dropped out of the course. Poor self-concept led to low confidence in mastering the environment and hence deficiency in school performance (McCandles, 1961). Brookover, Thomas and Paterson (1964) indicated that the self-concept with regard to academics predicted performance and reported a
significantly positive relationship between academic self-concept and performance.

Kubiniec (1970) investigated the relationship between self perception and relative success of students in the first year of college. Her findings revealed self-concept to be a good predictor of academic success in college. Bailey (1971) found that a student's academic self-concept played a crucial role in one's academic achievement. Kifer (1975) argued that the pattern of success/failure and the accumulated experiences affected self-concept of the individuals. A longitudinal study of students from 2nd grade through 8th grade revealed that successful achievement was an antecedent to a positive self-concept and the relationship became stronger with prolonged success/failure. Wylie (1979) found that student's self-perception of their academic ability were based on their performance in school. Variables like academic motivation and effort affected school performance and self-concept. Hansford and Hattie (1982) in a meta analysis found that school performance indicators were highly correlated to self-concept.

Shavelson and Bolus (1982) examined the assumptions of multifaceted, hierarchical construct of self-concept and its relation with academic achievement and found support. Marsh, Smith, Barnes and Butler (1983) explored the preadolescent's self-concept in seven different areas and found that these significantly related to the teacher ratings of their self-concept in the same areas. Marsh, Smith and Barnes (1983) found a positive but low correlation between self-concept and reading achievement of the fifth and sixth grade students. They explained the unexpected low correlation due to combined effect of the test difficulty, time limit of the test and low reading ability of the students in the study. Kelly and Colangelo (1984) compared the gifted and non-gifted youngsters on academic and social self-concepts. Results indicated that the gifted students had higher self-concepts as compared to the non-gifted students. Also a relationship between academic ability and academic and social self-concept was revealed in their study.
Marsh (1990, b) found that better mathematic skills leading to higher math’s self-concept but lower english self-concepts, where as better english skills led to higher english self-concepts and lower mathematical self-concept. Average school performance negatively affected academic self-concept. Marsh (1990, b) found that prior self-concept influenced subsequent academic achievement, but prior reported grades had no significant effect on subsequent measures of academic self-concept. Wilhite (1990) reported positive relationship between the self-concept and course achievement. Eshel and Kurman (1990) found that pupils having higher academic self-concept scored higher on intellectual and academic attainment, but not on further education, in comparison to the pupils who had lower self-concepts. Kanoy (1990) reported that high achievers had higher internal locus of control, more cognitive complexity, higher academic self-concept and higher confidence in their ability and effort than the low achievers.

Boxel and Monks (1992) found that self-concept related to actual academic achievement. Padhi (1992) noted significant effects of creativity and class room environment on self-concept and achievement of the students. Marsh (1992) extended the research on Marsh and Shavelson (1985) and found that the components of academic self-concept were not well differentiated and that the relation between self-concept and academic achievement was more content specific than previously assumed. House (1992) reported student’s academic self-concept to be better predictors of persistence than the expectancies for success in education environment. Self perceptions of mathematical ability were significantly associated with persistence in the case of female subjects and not for males. House (1993) extended his study further by incorporating large number of items related to self-concept. The results indicated that multiple aspects of self-concept, such as-self ratings of the student’s overall academic ability, drive to achieve, mathematical and writing ability, self confidence in their intellectual ability etc. was significantly related to the students’ withdrawal status and desire. The relationship between self-concept and withdrawal from
school was found to be stronger for males than for females. Self-concept was significantly related with science and mathematical ability (House, 1995, 1996), with overall grade performance (House, 1997). Special facets of self-concept were significantly related to achievement among the high school students (Marsh and Yeung, 1997). Other variables like extracurricular activities, homework, competition, interaction with teachers also influenced the students' performance and achievement (Finn and Rock, 1997). Woo and Frank (2000) investigated the role of academic self-esteem and academic performance in the college students' perception of their grades. The results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that regardless of their self-esteem levels, the students with higher grade point average had a tendency to see the overall grade point average as a more valid indicator of their academic ability than the subjects who had low grade point average. Researches have thus identified students' academic self-concept as a significant predictor of their academic performance (House, 2000).

Researches have also been carried out to understand the effects of stress and anxiety on academic performance. The effects of manifest anxiety on the academic achievement of college students were examined by Speilberger (1962) to infer that anxious students in the middle range ability obtained lower grades and a higher percentage of academic failures than non-anxious students. However, for students above average, it was found that anxiety facilitated their academic performance. Oetting (1966) studied physiological responses to examination anxiety and the performance of a group of male college freshman. He found stress occurring before the examination in some anxious students and during the examination for others. Results showed that anxious groups had poor college grades and suggested that anxiety may have interfered with test taking but not with overall scholastic performance. Singh (1966) studied the effects of manifest anxiety on university examination and found that there was a negative relationship. Dhami (1974) found a higher relationship between
scholastic achievement and emotional stability in case of class ninth than class tenth students. The later were more anxiety ridden due to the coming public examinations. Peter and Schneider (1976) revealed that emotionally liable subjects showed more symptomatic reactions and defense mechanisms than the stable subjects. The coping strategies used by the controlled subjects were significantly different from the strategies of the impulsive students. Ravinder (1977) showed that low anxiety subjects under ego stress performed better than high anxiety subjects in the early stages of learning, on easy and paired associates tasks. However, in the later stages high anxiety subjects performed slightly better than the low anxiety counterparts. Naidu and Thapa (1978) found that stressed subjects made more errors in distance judgments and the errors caused by stress increased as the distance judged increased objectively. Bhattacharya and Bhattacharya (1978) reported that in perceptual tasks, stress led to significant increase in performance as compared to the non-stress conditions, but in conceptual tasks stress decreased the performance. The findings implied that the effect of stress may vary with the nature of the learning task.

Bhagat (1979) found that stress affected performance negatively on the selective attention task. Ansari, Sampurna, Udupa and Agarwal (1979) revealed that persons with stress disorders had a high level of stress and anxiety as well as stronger achievement motives than the controlled subjects. Speilberger, Gonzalez and Flecher (1979) also found that stress and anxiety often worked interchangeably in influencing academic performance. Srivastava (1980) in a study on examination anxiety and achievement observed a negative relationship between the two variables. Siddiquie and Akhtar (1982) in their study on anxiety related to academic achievement among high school students demonstrated an inverse relationship between anxiety and achievement, i.e. highly anxious students showed poor performance and less anxious students showed better academic performance. Harris (1982) found stress and performance having a negative relationship.
Srivastava and Naidu (1982) studied the relationship between stress and performance in high and low impulsive subjects and found that an inverse U-type relationship for both high and low impulsive subjects. However, the high impulsive subjects did not show deterioration due to increase in stress. Sud (1983) reported poorer performance of high test anxious and high stress group in comparison to high test anxious-low stress, low test anxious-low stress groups. Singh, Nigam and Singh (1984) in their study on neuroticism and academic achievement found that high achievers were likely to be more anxious than low achievers.

Minor, and Gold (1986) investigated the stability of the internal dialogue and self reported arousal in ninety-eight test anxious subjects during an actual college examination and again a week later. It was found that high test anxious subjects had more negative thoughts, reported more arousal during examination than the less test anxious subjects. Patel (1986) reported no relationship between anxiety, neuroticism and academic achievement of medical college students. Ranganathan (1987) found stress and academic performance of primary school children to be negative related.

Macan, Sahani, Dipboye and Phillips (1990) found somatic tension negatively related to grade point average of undergraduate students. Dasgupta (1992) in his study of students in an introductory psychology class found that perceived control group subjects experienced less number of stress symptoms than the no control group. Neither the age nor gender of the subjects had any significant relation with the symptoms and test performance. Biggs (1992) noted negative effects of stress on students’ social adaptation, personal development and academic achievement. Felsten and Wilcox (1992) reported that stress was directly related to increased symptomatology and decreased grade point average of male undergraduate students. Gillock and Reyes (1999) in their study tried to examine the nature of stress in the lives of one hundred and fifty-eight urban, low-income, Mexican-American high school students. While the adolescents experienced stressors that were characteristic of their developmental stage, they also reported of many
severe stressors reflected the circumstances of their resource poor communities. Generally male and females endorsed equal number of stressors, both overall and within various contents. However, gender differences were observed in terms of the kind of stressors these adolescents experienced. In examining the relationship between stressors and academic achievement gender differences were also revealed, particularly, in the type of stressors that were related to the concurrent grade point average.

According to Deutsch (1960) poor academic performance of the socially disadvantaged children was the cumulative result of a large number of interfering and handicapping factors in their personality, home, school and the society at large. The Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) sponsored several studies on the SC/ST students in 1972-73. The data from ICSSR surveys indicated that for a majority of students financial conditions at home were difficult and parental level of education was low. Majority of the fathers of the urban adolescents were class IV employees working in different government organizations. Both the students and teachers indicated that home environment was not attuned to achievement. The students complained of inadequate time to study, burden of domestic chores and need for tuition. The teachers were of the view that rather than any basic lack of intelligence, these students were unable to adjust to the values of higher education because of non-academic familial reasons.

Rath (1974) stated that the disadvantaged pupils exhibited three general characteristics during their school. These were-1) progressive decline in intellectual functioning, 2) accumulative academic achievement deficit, and, 3) premature school termination or dropout. Chitnis (1974) found that the STs were better represented in the educational institutes as well as in jobs that the SCs. Premi (1975) also noted that economic poverty affected the development of educational growth in SC/ST students. A systematic study on the performance of SC/ST students in academic institutions was conducted by the University Grants Commission in fifteen Indian universities. The
picture that emerged was of low achievement and a high rate of dropouts (Karlekar, 1975). The main reasons for leaving were economic pressures and the need to work to supplement the family income. Sharma (1975) also attributed low achievement of the SC/ST students to social and economic handicaps which put them in disadvantaged groups. Rath (1976) noted that the hostile climate in school compelled the socially and economically disadvantaged students to dropout of school. On the other hand a supportive climate within the school was found conducive for the development of positive self-concept, low degree of fear of failure, realistic level of aspiration and high need for achievement (Panda and Tripathi, 1982). Panda (1977) showed that the scholastic achievement of disadvantaged was lower as compared to the advantaged. Singh (1977) reported that difference in scholastic achievement and intelligence between the socially disadvantaged and the socially advantaged groups increased with the increase in social disadvantage. Verma (1985) reported that achievement of high school SC students was significantly lower than the tribal students as well as students from other castes. Patel (1986) noted that SC, ST and the advantaged students of Orissa differed significantly in their achievement in academic subjects, self-concept, teacher estimation and competence.

Tripathy (1990) found that academic achievement of tribal and non-tribal children in integrated schools were comparable. Mohanty (1991) showed that tribal and non-tribal students did not differ on psychological differentiation. Thus, indicating that there was equal opportunity of cognitive development of both the groups. However, it was the non-tribal students who revealed to have better academic performance. Ojha (1991) also found that the upper castes female postgraduate students with urban residence and higher income had better academic performance.

Conflicting results appeared about gender differences in academic achievement. Many studies have revealed that females are better achievers than the males in schools and colleges (Phillips, 1962;
Duff and Siegel, 1960; and Terman and Tayler, 1954). Females tended to utilize their abilities more effectively than the males. Males were found to put less time in their studies because of various distractions. In addition it was also found that they were less docile and less tolerant to uninteresting lessons. However, gender was not found to be an important variable of difference in academic performance (Swensen, 1957; Hountras, 1957 and Holowinsky, 1961). Drews (1961) on the other hand, reported that most of the talented high school students who failed to go for further education were females.

Kolesnik (1970) stated that girls regularly surpassed boys in scholastic achievement, both at elementary and high school levels. This difference could be attributed to differential attitudes, normal developmental sex differences and other factors, which usually worked to the advantage of the female students. Klausemeir and Ripple (1971) found girls to surpass boys in mathematical ability, language ability as well as in handwriting and concluded that such differences ensured that the females performed better than the males. Sharma (1975) reported that female students were significantly better in science and mathematics than the male students. Aruna (1981) and Bisht (1984) demonstrated that males performed better than the females in academic achievement. Oakland and Stern (1989) conducted a study on variables associated with reading and mathematical achievement among a heterogeneous group of students. They reported that discrepant achievement was not unique to a particular race, level of intelligence, gender, age or family size. Tripathy (1990) found that male students were better achievers than the females. Mohanty (1991) reported no significant gender differences either on psychological differentiation or on academic achievement.

Age of students has been also an important variable in academic performance, albeit with very conflicting results. Dwyer (1939) found negative relationship between age and academic performance up to twenty-one years and positive trend beyond that. Several others found age not related to scholastic performance (Gupta, 1968; Raina, 1967;

Bisht (1984) found no age differences in academic achievement. Sinha, Trivedi, Gupta and Sinha (1988) found that science undergraduate high achievers were significantly of lower age group as compared to lower achievers. High achievers came from smaller families and upper socio-economic class than the low achievers (Panda, 1991). The impact of socio-economic disadvantage on academic achievement has been the focus of a large number of studies. Astin (1964, a) noted highly significant relationship between the tendency to dropout of college and lower parents' education level. Chopra, 1966; Sinha, 1966 found that low achieving Indian undergraduates had less educated than those who graduated. Curle (1969) showed in his study that the school dropout rate for the poor was very high, suggesting that financial condition of home was a crucial condition for being able to continue with studies.

Milner (1970) concluded that the breadth and quantity of early learning experiences, the type of adult models available to children for patterning their own behaviour, the amount and quality of health care and nutrition, the amount of opportunity or intellectual stimulation, the kind of behaviour towards the subject etc, were some of the dynamic factors that predicted academic performance and achievement. He pointed out that what was of importance was not the social class to which the person belonged but the characteristics of the person and the societal environment which influenced one's attainment. Therefore, while studying the social factors involved in academic performance one needed to look beyond social class and understand the values and interests as well. Saini (1977) noted that along with economic status the educational standard of parents had a significant effect on the academic achievement of students in arts courses, while in the case of the science students' economic status had no effect, but, their parental educational standard was significantly related to performance. Srivastava (1980) reported that students from
lower socio-economic-status background had higher examination anxiety and poorer performance as compared to students from higher socio-economic background. Subramanyam's (1981) study highlighted the importance of conditions in school. Multiple regression analysis of the data showed that personal characteristics of the children contributed to a large extent to their reading achievement. Between the two factors of school and home environment, an improvement in the school was more likely to lead to better achievement. Teachman (1996) in his study explored whether there was a bias in the regression of academic performance on the intellectual ability of high school students and the influence of family environment. It was found that academic performance was not a significant predictor of the individuals' intellectual skill. This suggested that intellectual skill/ability and academic performance could be attributed to factors that were within the families rather than between the families. Ganzach (2000) conducted a study with the aim to understand the interactions between parents' education, cognitive ability and educational expectations in determining the educational attainment of subjects. Findings indicated that there was an offsetting relationship between the education of the two parents in the formation of expectations, but not in the determination of the attainment. It was also found that both for expectations and attainment the cognitive ability of the child had significant relationship with that of the mother's education and not with the father's. The findings also indicated there is a synergetic relationship between cognitive ability educational expectations in determining educational attainment.

Educational institutions are known to vary in structure, composition, resources, acclimate and hence also performance. Coleman (1966) reported that low quality school environment affected the achievement of the disadvantaged much more adversely in comparison to the advantaged. Achievement was strongly related to the educational background and aspirations of students in the school. The principal way in which the school environment differed for the children
from low and middle socio-economic background was the composition of the students in the school. School environment had a strong relation with the achievement of the low socio-economic background students. Morstain (1973) showed that undergraduates at different institutions had noticeable variations in their profiles of orientations. This was expected as educational institutes differed in their size, admission criteria, values, ethos etc. However, variations were also noticed within the institutions. Sinha (1977) observed in a comparative study of scheduled caste and nonscheduled caste students from superior and ordinary schools that higher caste status was associated with better performance on perceptual measures and better schooling. Irrespective of caste, children from superior schools scored significantly higher than their counterparts in ordinary schools. Rao (1978) examined the academic performance of students in different types of schools, namely, those run by the Government (separate for girls and boys) and privately managed schools. Privately managed schools and girls’ schools showed higher academic performance.

Sinha (1980) revealed that despite lesser facilities and comparatively higher work load, the private schools were better in modes of teaching, interpersonal relationships within the school environment and had more competent students than the government schools. Gayathri (1983) revealed that schooling in public and central schools provided background of experiences more suited to study of exploration of ideas and knowledge than the private/convent schools. Veeraraghavan (1985), Sengupta and Veeraraghavan (1985) found that the type of schools related to students academic performance. Students from public schools showed significantly higher academic performance than those from missionary, municipal corporation and state government schools. However, Carpenter (1985) noted that students in government schools were more likely to perform better than those in non-government schools. Veeraraghavan and Bhattacharya (1989) observed that public and missionary schools had the highest achievement and government schools the lowest performance. Mohanty
(1991) found that students in non-tribal schools had better academic performance than those who went to tribal and mixed schools (i.e. where both tribal and non-tribal students went to study).

2.3 Affective functioning in adolescents:

Affective functioning of individuals which get reflected through the affective evaluations of their lives is also often named as Subjective Well-Being (SWB). Therefore, SWB is a person's evaluative reaction to her/his life—either in terms of life satisfaction or affect. In recent years the focus of intense research has been around SWB (Myers and Diener, 1995; Diener and Larsen, 1993; Diener, 1984; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976) and the various causes that correlate with it, such as, income, social support, particularly—family satisfaction, personal dispositions, such as—self-esteem, mood dimensions, life satisfaction etc. During adolescence, therefore, an individual’s affective functioning forms a crucial aspect of understanding her/him, and various antecedents when successfully managed have shown to have strong positive links with their (adolescents) well-being. Some such antecedents are: accomplishment of well defined norms and age specific developmental tasks (Havighurst, 1948); having meaningful life goals and future perspectives (Brunstein, 1993; Emmons, 1992); also having conviction that one is worthy and has control over one's important life domains (Bandura, 1995; Flammer, 1995). In the present study since affective functioning of the adolescents was evaluated with the help of their self-esteem, life satisfaction and positive affect and negative affect, a review of the various researches in these areas have been attempted.

2.3.i Self-esteem

Self-esteem is a vital human need and has become the panacea of modern life. It has been said to be the underlying cause for achievement as well as under achievement in all aspects of human life. Attempts have been made to understand this construct and they have ranged from primitive libidinal impulses (Kernberg, 1975) to feelings of
existential security in a meaningful universe (Soloman, Greenberg and Pyszczynski, 1991). Brown and Dutton (1995) defined self-esteem in terms of feelings of affection for oneself, which is no different in kind than the feelings of affection one has for others. However, as to why people need self-esteem has been also of much debate. Adverse array of classical and contemporary psychological theories converged to the proposition that people have a strong and pervasive need for self-esteem and many psychotherapeutic approaches have focused in one way or the other in understanding the client’s feelings about herself/himself (Bedner, Wells and Perterson, 1989; Maslow, 1968; Rogers, 1959; and Adler, 1930;). Social psychologists have also used self-esteem to offer explanations to a wide array of phenomenon such as self-serving attributions (Blaine and Crocker, 1993), attitude change (Steele, 1988), ingroup/outgroup perceptions (Crocker, Thompson, Mcgraw and Ingerman, 1987), downward social comparison (Wills, 1981), reactions to evaluations (Jones, 1973) etc.

The terror management theory of Greenberg, Soloman and Pyszczynski (1986) were of the view that people need self-esteem because it is the central psychological mechanism for protecting individuals from the anxiety that awareness of their vulnerability and mortality would otherwise create. They were of the view that self-esteem provided protection from anxiety since it is the prerequisite for feeling loved, safe and secure. Greenberg, Soloman, Pyszczynski Rosenblatt, Burling, Lyon, Simon and Pinel (1992) in their study assessed the proposition that self-esteem served an anxiety buffering function. They had hypothesised that raising self-esteem in the subjects would reduce their anxiety in response to vivid images of death and also in anticipation of painful shock. The results of their study revealed that individuals who had received positive personality feedback had less anxiety manifested when viewing a video about death and also had reduced psychological arousal in response to threat of shock, thus giving further evidence of an anxiety buffering function of self-esteem.
Pelham and Swann (1989) observed that there are three factors which uniquely contributed to people's self-esteem. These were (a) the tendency to experience positive and negative affective states, (b) people's specific self-views (i.e. the conceptions of their strengths and weaknesses) and, (c) the way people frame their self-views. In order to confirm this they conducted a study on 486 undergraduate female and male students and found that importance was contributed only to the self-esteem of those individuals who perceived that they had relatively few talents and secondly individuals who saw their positive self-views as important were especially likely to have high self-esteem when they were also certain of positive self-views. Therefore, based on these findings Pelham and Swann confirmed that both affective as well as component factors contributed to individual's self-esteem, because, it is not only important to know what are the people's self-views but also the way they frame their self-views.

Brown and Dutton (1995) conducted a study which goes a long way in helping to understand the nature and function of self-esteem and it's role in how does one react to positive and negative events. They assumed that individuals with low self-esteem would have more severe emotional reactions to failure that those individuals with high self-esteem. Therefore, to examine this they conducted a study on 172 female and male undergraduates using Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale. They found that individuals with high self-esteem evaluated their performance more favorably than the low self-esteem individuals. The former were more generous in their performance appraisal than those with low self-esteem. However, the researchers were of the view that the key issue of difference was not who were more generous in their performance appraisal rather how reactive or sensitive one was in perceiving a poor performance. The admission that one has performed poorly brought in lower feeling of self-worth, particularly for those with low self-esteem than the individuals with high self-esteem. Therefore, the researchers conclude that (a) self-esteem differs in response to performance outcomes that are more directly related to self-worth than
for generated feelings of happiness and sadness, (b) these differences were stronger for failures than successes, and (c) the difference in appraisal reflected greater sensitivity of individuals with low self-esteem towards negative performance appraisals. In other words, people with low self-esteem were more sensitive about failures and negative events in general. Since, self-esteem played an important role in guiding individual’s self-relevant emotional responses to negative outcomes, it was closely tied with the behavior of individuals when faced with failures, disappointments or rejections.

Another study that was conducted by Leary and his associates (1995) was also to understand the function of self-esteem. In a series of five studies these researchers evaluated whether self-esteem functioned as a sociometer which monitors the degree to which an individual is being included or excluded by other people and this further the people to behave in ways that would minimize the probability of rejection or exclusion. The subjects for these studies were all undergraduate male and female students (though the number of subjects varied from study to study). They found that the self-esteem did function as a sociometer which detected changes in people's exclusionary status. Furthermore, self-esteem was found to prompt individuals to behave in ways that would maintain their connections with other people, rather than serving primarily to maintain ones inner sense of self.

Zimmerman and his associates (1997) conducted a study to identify self-esteem trajectories among adolescents over a period of four years from sixth to tenth grade (n=1160). They identified four trajectories, namely, (a) consistently high, (b) moderate and rising, (c) steadily decreasing, and, (d) consistently low. Female adolescents were more in the “steadily decreasing” self-esteem group while male adolescents were more in the “moderate and rising” group. It was also found that in “consistently high” and “moderate and rising” groups self-esteem trajectories reported developing healthier outcomes towards susceptibility of peer pressure, school performance and alcohol use in tenth grade than the adolescents in “steadily decreasing” and
"consistently low" clusters. Thus, the researchers concluded that firstly some adolescents show an increase in their self-esteem overtime, while some decline. Secondly, no matter what were the changes in self-esteem overtime, it was more crucial to understand how individual differences arose in changing the adolescents' self-esteem.

In a study, Brown and Mankowski (1993) found that self-esteem moderated the relation between mood and self-evaluation. When a standard mood-induction procedure was introduced to induce positive, negative or neutral moods in low self-esteem subjects and high self-esteem subjects, it was found that both group of subjects evaluated themselves favourably in appositive mood, thought he individuals with low self-esteem were more apt to lower their self-evaluations in a negative mood. The researchers thus suggested that the tendency of low self-esteem people to respond to negative moods with self-depreciation was because of psychological distress.

Chan and Lee (1993) took three different dimensions of self-esteem and studied their effect on psychological symptoms of 1082 Chinese adolescents, using Coopersmith's self-esteem inventory (Chinese version) and the General health questionnaire they found that the three dimensions of self-esteem (family acceptance/rejection, self-depression and peer affirmation/disaffirmation) related significantly to general psychological symptoms of anxiety, social dysfunction and depression. Therefore, the crucial role of self-esteem in one's psychological health was well understood as well as the importance of internal feedback and external feedback appraisal for the purpose of self-esteem appraisal.

Researchers have also made efforts to understand the implications of self-esteem on the individual's functioning. They have shown that low self-esteem individuals were more likely to have adverse affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions to failure or any kind of negative feedback. Kernis, Brockner and Frankel (1989) conducted a study to test if self-esteem difference in response to negative feedback was mediated by greater tendency of low than high self-esteem
individuals to over generalize the implications of negative feedback to other aspects of identity. For this Kernis et.al (1989) selected one hundred and forty nine male and female students of introductory psychology class and used the “Attitude towards self scale” (Carner and Ganellan, 1983) and Rosenberg’s (1965) “Self-esteem scale”. The results showed that indeed the subjects with low self-esteem suffered from adverse effects of negative feedback and also proved that overgeneralisation played a mediating role, as self-esteem and overgeneralisation were found to have inverse correlation with each other. Thus this study provided an explanation of why low self-esteem subject’s feelings, thoughts and behaviour were more adversely influenced by negative feedback, because they had greater tendency to overgeneralise following a failure or any other kind of negative feedback.

Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Beary and Harlow (1993) in a further study examined the extent to which stability and level of self-esteem predicted cognitive and emotional reactions to interpersonal feedback and the extent to which variability and importance of specific self-evaluations were associated with instability of global self-esteem. It was found that among the subjects (female undergraduate students) those who had high self-esteem, for them instability was associated with acceptance and positive emotions following a positive feedback and to rejection and defensiveness following a negative feedback. However, among the subjects with low self-esteem, instability was found to be unrelated to positive feedback, but had relation with less defensiveness and greater acceptance of negative feedback. Thus, the role of level and stability of self-esteem in reaction to evaluation and also on the nature of self-esteem’s instability was understood from the results of this study.

The impact of social support on adolescent self-esteem has been the focus of many researchers (Kessler et.al, 1985; King, 1980). Besides, repeated researches have also found that support from mother, father or friends was correlated with adolescent self-esteem and their well-being (Burke and Weir, 1979; Greenberg et.al, 1983;
Siddique and D'Arcy, 1984). Hoffman and his associates (1988) conducted a study with the purpose to find the direct and interactive effects of parents and peers on the self-esteem as well as to distinguish between maternal support and parental support. They also attempted to study the degree to which effects of support system on self-esteem were moderated by conditions of stress and strain. The subjects of the study were forty-three female and thirty-three male students of ninth, tenth and eleventh grade (aged between fourteen and sixteen years). The results of the study revealed that maternal support had a strong effect on the adolescents' self-esteem. Support from friends was also influential, particularly more when support from mother was absent. Besides, Hoffman and his associates also found that though stress had significant negative influence on self-esteem yet social support and stress had no interactive effects.

Development of self-esteem has often been linked with the quality of interpersonal relationship (Coopersmith, 1967). Several empirical investigations had indicated the positive relation between parental support, encouragement and affection with self-esteem. Also important and crucial was the quality of relation with peers for the self-esteem, especially for the adolescents. Hence, social relationships were important for the development of self-esteem in adolescence. Besides, it was important as to how did the adolescents self-evaluate themselves. This self-evaluation of their competence contributed significantly towards the adolescents' self-esteem. Walker and Greene (1986) conducted a study on thirty-eight boys and fifty-three girls (the age group being eleven to eighteen years) to examine the relationship of their global self-esteem to two aspects of their daily lives, namely, (a) quality of relationship of their relationship with parents and peers, and (b) their self-evaluation in areas of school, popularity and athletics. The results revealed that for both male and female adolescents' quality of relation with their parents were significant predictors of their self-esteem. The quality of relationship with peers made further significant contribution for the self-esteem of female adolescents, but not for their
male counterparts. It was also found that for female adolescents self-evaluation of popularity was of more importance while for male adolescents it was the self-evaluation of their school performance.

Isberg and his associates (1989) conducted a study to examine the relationship between parental behaviour and self-esteem. The study was carried out on ninety-five early adolescents to investigate associations between parental interactions (such as accepting and devaluing) and adolescents self-esteem. The results revealed that male adolescents had more associations between their self-esteem and parental interactions than their female counterparts. Furthermore, it was also observed that parental interactions were more strongly related to the early adolescents' self-esteem. Thus, the researchers concluded that adolescents at the later and higher stages of ego-development probably evaluated themselves more independently of their parental feedback than their younger counterparts.

A similar attempt was made by Hoffman, Levy-Shiff and Ushpiz (1993) when they assessed the impact of social support on self-esteem and examined if it was moderated by the adolescents' orientations towards the source of aid. Questionnaire were administered to eighty-four Israeli adolescents regarding self-esteem, perceived level of support from parents and peers and preference or orientation for support form these sources. Regression analysis indicated that the positive effect of social figure’s support on self-esteem increased as function of interest in receiving aid from the specific source. Correlation analysis also revealed that heightened orientation towards parents was associated with higher levels of perceived parental support, whereas heightened orientation towards peers was associated with higher levels of peer support and lower levels of parental aid. These findings were consistent with self-evaluation maintenance and social provision theories, which suggested that the individuals had active role in selectively seeking out and filtering external social influences.

Orr and Diener (1995) carried out a study to investigate the effect of two multidimensional systems-social effects and the self-upon
adolescents' growth and development. It was hypothesised that gender differences in adult social status would be greater in the Kibbutz than in Israeli urban setting and this gap was associated with gender differences in global self-esteem of Kibbutz youth. Using Rosenberg's (1965) "Self-esteem scale" and scales of marsh's Self-description questionnaire III and from Harter's Self-perception profile for the adolescents on 569 Kibbutz and urban adolescents from grades nine to eleven, found that Kibbutz mothers were having significantly lower social status than the fathers, while the Kibbutz females had significantly lower self-esteem than their male counterparts as well as the urban adolescents of both the genders. Self-esteem was not only predicted from self-concepts in the domains of scholastic achievement and peer support, but also from the domain of parental support, academic achievement and father's occupational status. Thus, this study too brought out the close relation between parents and the adolescents' self-esteem and how the latter's growth and development depended on the formers own social status, support and self-concept.

Bush, Ballard and Fremouw (1995) in an effort to give further support for the important role that parents play in adolescents' self-esteem carried out a study on fifty-seven adolescents who had alcoholic parents and hundred adolescents whose parents were non-alcoholics. They assessed the adolescents on their self-esteem, depression and attribution style. The results revealed that those adolescents with alcoholic parents had high scores on self-esteem in comparison to the adolescents of non-alcoholic parents. The former were also found to have depressive attribution styles, wherein they perceived failure as more internal, stable and global. Besides, it was found that the female adolescents were high scorers for depression than their male counterparts, in other words, the results revealed that female adolescents were more depressed than the male adolescents. Thus, the significance of parents in the adolescent's development of self-esteem and other behavioural states was further strengthened with this study.

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Paterson, Pryor and Field (1995) in their study explored the relative influence of adolescents' perceptions of their attachment relationships with their parents (mother and father) and friends on three measures of self-esteem, coping ability and social competence. The sample consisted of four hundred and ninety-three New Zealand adolescents ranging from thirteen to nineteen years of age. Two dimensions of the attachment relationship were assessed which were the utilization of the emotional support and proximity and the quality of affect. The findings of the results revealed that utilization of emotional support and proximity with parents and friends was minimally related to overall self-esteem, coping ability and social competence. The quality of affect towards mothers and fathers was significantly related only to social competence. These findings suggested that self-esteem esteem of the adolescents was more strongly associated with the quality of affect towards parents and friends rather than with utilization of support from these significant 'others' and proximity to them. Therefore, parents and friends' contribution to different facets of self-esteem of the adolescents were given further support by this study.

Another important area of research in self-esteem has been to understand its relation with the identity about oneself. Most of the researches have centered around the relation between self-concept, self-evaluation, self-view etc. and self-esteem. In other words, it could be said that researchers made an effort to understand the relation between how an individual sees herself/himself and what role does self-esteem play in it. Campbell (1990) conducted a series of studies to examine the association between evaluative and knowledge components of the self. It was hypothesized that the self-concepts of individuals with low self-esteem would be characterized by less clarity or certainty than those of individuals with high self-esteem. It was found that individuals who exhibited low self-esteem had less extremity and self-reported confidence when rating themselves on bipolar traits adjectives (study 1), less temporal stability in their ratings over an interval of two-months (study 2), less congruence between their self-concepts and their
subsequent perception of situation-specific behaviour and memory for prior behaviour (study 3), and less internal consistency, lower self-rated confidence and longer reaction times when making responses to pairs of opposite traits (study 4). This study thus helped to understand the pervasive impact of self-esteem on the individuals' self-evaluation and behaviour.

Brown and Smart (1991) examined with the help of two studies how situational variables and personal factors affected people's immediate representation of self and how once activated, these guided behaviour. In study 1, subjects with high self-esteem and low self-esteem first experienced success or failure at a hypothetical test of intellectual ability. They rated themselves on a series of trait adjectives, half of which were referred to social traits and attributes and the remaining two achievement related traits and attributes. It was found that failure led the subject's with high self-esteem to exaggerate the priority of their social abilities and the reverse was true for subjects with low self-esteem. Furthermore, it was found that subjects with high self-esteem were particularly more helpful after failure. These findings indicated that situational variables and personal factors interacted to influence people's immediate views of themselves and they behaved in accordance with these activated self-representations.

In a study to understand the relation between self-esteem and contraceptive knowledge attitude and behaviour Holmbeck, Crossman, Wandrei and Gasiewski (1994) conducted a study on 300 high school students and college freshman (14-19 years of age). They completed a battery of self-report instruments. The results based on multiple regression and analysis of covariance revealed that those adolescents who scored high on self-esteem and cognitive development had more knowledge about sexuality and contraception, which reflected their view on sex related issues and thus pointed towards their awareness of their sexual identity. The adolescents with high self-esteem were also more likely to report using contraception during sexual intercourse. Self-esteem was also found to be predictive of more positive attitude
towards contraceptives. Furthermore, gender specific analyses revealed that females had significantly more knowledge about contraception than the male adolescents, while the males were found to have higher scores on both self-esteem and cognitive development. Lastly, self-esteem was predictive of contraceptive use for females and of sexual activity of males. The researchers concluded that understanding individual's self-esteem and cognitive development could help to organize sex education programme for the adolescents.

Marsh (1986) was of the view that though theory and common sense posited that the effect of a specific facet of self-concept on self-esteem would vary with the importance of the facet, yet very little support was found for this proposal for late adolescents and young adults. Subjects particularly with high self-esteem were more likely to have high self-concept in areas they perceived as important, but their importance ratings did not contribute to the prediction of self-esteem. Thus, Marsh’s study rejected the view that self-concept was a crucial predictor of self-esteem for adolescents and young adults.

Campbell and Fairey (1985) used a hypothetical explanation task to make success and failure related cognitions differently available for high self-esteem and low self-esteem subjects. Both groups of subjects wrote an explanation for their hypothetical failure or success, or wrote no explanations. Half of the subjects in each condition stated performance expectancies. Success explanations increased the performance of high self-esteem as well as low self-esteem subjects, whereas failure explanations decreased only the performance of the low self-esteem subjects. A content analysis revealed that the content of failure explanations was related to self-esteem and subsequent explanations. These effects were more pronounced for those subjects who had stated their expectations, in comparison to those who had not stated their expectations.

Brown, Collins and Schmidt (1988) in two studies explored the relation between self-esteem and self-enhancement biases. It was proposed that people with high self-esteem engage in forms of self-
enhancement in which the self is directly linked to positive identities and outcomes, whereas people with low self-esteem engage in forms of self-enhancement in which the self is indirectly linked to positive identities and outcomes. To test this hypothesis, the researchers examined group favouritism as a function of self-esteem and group involvement. As expected, high self-esteem subjects were most apt to display favouritism when they were directly involved in group processes, whereas low self-esteem subjects were most apt to display favouritism when they were not directly involved in group processes. Furthermore, consistent with the view that these tendencies reflected a motivational desire to enhance self-worth, Brown et al. found that when the subjects received positive feedback it was less evident than when they received negative feedback.

Further support to the role of self-evaluation in self-esteem was given by Epstein's (1992) study wherein he found that those with high negative self-schemata having poor constructive thinking had selective bias towards negative inferences about the self. This then had effect on their general coping ability and aroused depression and low self-esteem.

Verkeyten (1995) investigated the relation between ethnic identity and self-feelings among the minority and majority youth living in Netherlands. He assessed not only global self-esteem but also self-concept stability. As for ethnic identity he assessed besides the ethnic group membership of the youth, different aspects of their ethnic identity, such as: ethnic group identification and in-group evaluation. The results showed that there was no significant difference in self-esteem of the youth who belonged to minority ethnic group. The same was also true for their self-concept stability. Besides, it was also found that the youth belonging to the minority group identified more strongly with their ethnic group and evaluated their group more positively than their counterparts. The researcher concluded from the study that when the psychological well-being of minority youth are talked about then the
prerequisites would be to understand different aspects both related to the self as well as their relation with the group they belonged to.

Fichman, Koestner and Zuroff (1996) in a study on seventy seven early adolescents (eight-fourteen years of age) at a summer camp found that those with high self-criticism were more negative in their self-ratings in social and sports domain as well as had low self-esteem. Results also revealed that self-critics exaggerated their weakness in social and athletic functioning and also that self-criticism decreased with age while dependency of the subjects was unrelated to their age.

Abell and Richards (1996) examined the body shape satisfaction and self-esteem of forty-one male and forty-three female late adolescents. It was predicted that the male adolescents would be more satisfied with their body shape and weight than the female adolescents and that the female adolescents belonging to the upper and affluent class would report a stronger relationship between body shape satisfaction and self-esteem than would the female adolescents from less affluent socio-economic background. The results interestingly showed that male adolescents were significantly more dissatisfied than their female counterparts with their weight. This was primarily because of their desire to be heavier. Both female and male adolescents reported a positive significant relationship between overall body-image and self-esteem. Females also reported a positive significant relation between satisfaction with body shape and self-esteem. This was further found to be stronger for the female adolescents from upper and affluent socio-economic background than their female counterparts from the not so affluent socio-economic backgrounds.

Poke-Lynch, Myers, Kliewar and Kilmartin (2001) were of the view that though self-esteem played a central role in mental health yet not enough was known about how the youth evaluated themselves as they moved across the adolescent years. With this view they conducted a cross-sectional study to examine the age and gender patterns in self-esteem and explore how contemporary social influences related to adolescent self-esteem. The influence of media, sexual harassment,
body image, family and peer relationships and emotional expression on self-esteem of ninety-three boys and one hundred and sixteen girls (across fifth, eighth and twelfth grades) were evaluated. It was found that during early adolescence, girls had lower self-esteem than the boys. The late adolescent boys also had lower self-esteem than their younger counterparts. Gender differences were also observed for emotional expressions, body image and media influence. It was found that family opinion was of great significance, particularly for girls, more than their friends.

Usmiami and Daniluk (1997) carried out a study to examine the relationship between the predictor variables of self-esteem and gender role identity and the criterion of body image. For this, they examined eighty-two mothers and their menstrual daughters and thirty-one mothers and their pre-menstrual daughters, using Bem’s (1981) sex-role inventory, Rosenberg’s self-esteem scale and Petersen et.al (1984) self-image questionnaire. It was found that higher self-esteem was significantly related to body image for both the group of mothers and the menstrual daughters. Also mother’s body image scores were positively correlated with their daughter’s body image scores for the mother-menstrual daughters’ pair. Thus, from this study one can understand the significance of the parents for self-esteem of the adolescents, particularly that of the mothers.

Bosacki, Innerd and Towson (1997) in their study investigated the relationship between field independence-dependence and self-esteem in sixty-three preadolescent girls and boys (within the age group eleven to twelve years). Results indicated that contrary to prediction the girls did not have lower self-esteem than boys. However, field independence and self-esteem were negatively related for girls and positively for boys. The researchers were of the view that this was probably because of different socialisation process for girls and boys.

In order to understand the origin of self-esteem in individuals Josephs, Markus and Tafarodi (1992) conducted three studies and explored the idea that men’s and women’s self-esteem arouse from
different sources. They hypothesised that self-esteem was related to successfully measuring up to culturally mandated, gender-appropriate norms—separation and individuation for men and connection and interdependence for women. The results revealed that in case of men (study 1) their self-esteem was linked to an individuation process in which one's personal distinguishing achievements were emphasised. However, for women (study 2) the results showed that their self-esteem was linked to a process in which connections and attachments to significant others were emphasised. Furthermore, it was also observed that failure to perform well on gender-appropriate tasks brought about a defensive and compensatory reaction for those with high self-esteem (study 3). Elliot (1988) studied the gender differences in self-consistency by investigating the relationship between self-esteem and self-consistency. He developed two constructs based on the theories of self-concept, which were- 1.) self-esteem was causally prior to self-consistency, and 2.) the effect of self-esteem was (at least partially) mediated by other components of self-concept, such as, self-consciousness, the tendency to fantasise, the tendency to present a false front by hiding one's true feelings etc. For this investigation he had chosen girls and boys within the age group of eight to nineteen years and found that the direct effect of self-esteem on self-consistency was stronger for boys than for girls. He concluded saying that the difference in gender socialisation was a primary cause for the differences in the effect of self-esteem in the case of female and male adolescents.

2.3.ii Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction in recent years has been one of the major components of subjective well-being studied among adults. Various studies had investigated the correlates of well-being among adults and also college students. These have been related to demographic variables such as education, income, gender etc. but were found to have caused mode amount of variance (Diener, 1984; Andrews and
Withey, 1976). As a consequence focus of research then turned towards understanding of personality characteristics and was also found to account for greater effect on the subjective well-being. For example, Emmons and Diener (1985b) found in their study that individuals, who were satisfied with their overall line, had high self-esteem, extraversion and also high internal focus of control. Besides they also revealed to have low anxiety and the tendency to criticize others.

Smith, Adelman, Welson, Taylor and Phares (1987) in their study compared the life satisfaction of students in regular and special education classrooms and reported lower degrees of satisfaction for the students attending special education. In a similar study Adelman, Taylor and Nelson (1989) compared the life satisfaction of students in regular classroom with students who were referred to for mental health services. The results revealed that students who were referred to mental health services reported lower satisfaction. It was also found that there existed moderated but positive correlation between dissatisfaction and self-reported depression symptoms.

Huebner (1991) investigated the correlates of life satisfaction in children. It was found that for students of fifth to seventh grade, life satisfactions was not associated with demographic variables like age, gender, grade, parental occupational status etc. but were associated with personality characteristics. Those students who rated themselves higher also on self-esteem, internal locus of control, extraversion, and low on anxiety and neuroticism. Satisfaction with family life was stronger than satisfaction with friends. Also the performances in academics were not found to significantly correlate with the life satisfaction of the children.

Terry and Huebner (1995) in their study observed the relation between self-concept and life satisfaction in one hundred and eighty-three elementary school children. The results suggested that children differentiated global life satisfaction from self-concept, the self-description domains too related differently with life satisfaction ratings.
Parental relations were the strongest predictors of life satisfaction for the subjects and thus provided evidential support for the meaningfulness of the construct of life satisfaction amongst children.

Interest in understanding the nature and correlates of life satisfaction has extended from adults to children and adolescents (Huebner, 1991 b,c; Adelman et al., 1989). It has been interesting to find that life satisfaction, positive and negative affect are related but the relationships have been different with each of them (Balatsky and Diener, 1993, Chamberlin, 1988, Diener, 1984). Such relations were also observed among elementary and middle school students (Huebner, 1991,c). Dew and Huebner (1994) reported that amongst adolescents parental relation was a major predictor of their life satisfaction. Huebner and Dew (1996) conducted a study on two hundred and sixty-six adolescents to understand the interrelationship between their positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. The findings supported the multidimensional model of subjective well-being. It was also found that demographic variables correlated differentially with the three factors of positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. The researchers also were of the suggestion that among adolescents the affective indices such as affect and life satisfaction were distinct from each other, so much so that, even a reported low life satisfaction could be accompanied with frequent positive affect. Also stronger relations were found between demography and life satisfaction than with positive and negative affect.

Bender (1997), Gilman and his associates (2000) and many other researchers are still of the view that very little is known about how adolescents view their overall quality of life. However, researchers have been conducted to observe relation between life satisfaction among adolescents with such variables as depression, anxiety, peer interactions etc. It was found by Harter (1999), Gilman and Huebner (1997), Rosenfield (1992) that high life satisfaction was leading to positive outcomes such as high esteem, self-concept and self-mastery. Gilman (2001) in order to find the relationship between life satisfaction,
social interest and frequency of extra curricular activities conducted a study on three hundred and twenty-one high school adolescents of grade ninth and twelfth. It was found that a higher social interest was significantly related to higher levels of satisfaction with life as well as satisfaction with family and friends. Also adolescents with greater involvement in extra curricular activities reported higher life and school satisfaction. However, the relationship between social interest and participation in extracurricular activities were almost negligible. The researcher thus suggested that social interest need to be taken as an important criterion of life satisfaction and also that this can be utilised for designing intervention programmes both in the school and in the community for the adolescents.

2.3.iii Positive affect and negative affect

Another fascinating and crucial dimension of individuals' affective functioning is their mood. Researchers through the years have found the influential role of mood in various critical domains of life, such as in decision-making and problem solving (Estrada, Young and Isen, 1994; Isen, Rosenweig and Young, 1991; Greene and Noice, 1988), onset and progression of physical illness (Watson and Pannebaker, 1989; Costa and McCrae, 1985,a), altruistic behaviour and approach to daily stress (Carlson, Charlin and Miller, 1988; Clark and Watson, 1988; Berkowitz, 1987) etc.

Clark and Watson (1988) in an effort to understand the relations between daily life events and self-reported mood asked a sample of eighteen young adults to make daily mood ratings and corresponding diary entries for a period of three months. This was done to determine relations between common events and two independent mood factors—positive affect and negative affect. It was found that positive affect (characterised by enthusiasm, delight versus sluggishness and drowsiness) was associated with a wide range of daily events, where as fewer correlations were found between these daily events and negative affect (characterised by distress, nervousness, anger versus calmness
and relaxed. The relation between high positive affect and reported social interactions (particularly, physically active social events) was robust, and its effects were noted repeatedly. Negative affect was unrelated to social activity. As hypothesised, high negative affect was associated with physical problems, however, low positive affect was also seen to have tendency to correlate with health complaints. Overall results affirmed the importance of negative affect and positive affect independently. The researchers also suggested that positive affect, being an interesting and important dimension, required more attention.

Though researches on emotion and several happiness scales suggested that positive and negative affect were inversely related, yet works on subjective well-being indicated that over time, positive and negative affect were independent. In order to sort out this inconsistency Diener, Larsen, Levine and Emmons (1985) proposed two dimensions for personal affective structure. These were frequency of positive verses negative affect and the intensity of affect. Subjects were undergraduate male and female students for study 1 and 2, while for study 3 adults whose age varied from thirty-three years to eighty-five years were taken. They were required to complete daily and momentary reports on their moods. In support of the intensity dimension, the correlations between positive and negative intensity were positively significant across all the three studies. The intensities of specific emotions across persons were also highly correlated. Furthermore, the frequency and intensity of effect varied independently across three studies. The average levels of positive and negative effect became significantly negative in their relation when the intensity of these dimensions was taken away. Thus, the researchers concluded from the observed results of the study that intensity dimension helped to explain the relative independence of positive and negative effect.

Diener and Iran-Nejad (1986) explored the co-occurrence in experience of various emotions with particular focus on positive versus negative affect. In study 1, seventy-two subjects read stories designed to produce varying levels of either positive or negative affect, and then
rated their level of both types of affect. In study 2, forty-two subjects rated their feelings during emotional times in everyday life for a period of six weeks. It was observed that the same hedonic valences tended to reoccur. Also, the positive and negative affect did not occur together at high levels of intensity. The researchers concluded saying that while one type of affect could be of low intensity, the other could be at any level (high or low) thus the occurrence of experience in positive emotion would not clash with that of negative affect.

Emmons and Diener (1986) examined the influence of sociability impulsivity on positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. Subjects (in study 1, sixty-eight females and male students and in study 2, seventy-two female and male students) completed daily mood reports and were administered Eysneck personality inventory, as well as other well-being measures. It was found that sociability but not impulsivity was strongly related to positive affect, whereas impulsivity tended to correlate more with negative affect. Similarly, sociability tended to relate significantly with life satisfaction than impulsivity. Thus, from this study correlates of positive and negative affect towards sociability and impulsivity became vividly clear.

In order to study the influence of positive affect on individual's perceived value (utility) Isen, Nygren and Ashby (1988) made use of Davidson, Supples and Siegle's (1956) procedure to measure subjective utility. Results indicated that individuals in whom positive affect had been induced showed more negative subjective utility for losses than did the control group. This indicated that losses seemed worse to people who felt happy than to those in the control condition. The subjective utility functions of the two groups did not differ as much when people were considering potential gain. Thus, in the situations that were tested in this study, potential gain were not more appealing to the subjects with high positive affect that it did for the subjects in the control group. Thus, the results suggested that positive affect could promote increased sensitiveness to losses, particularly in situations of potentially meaningful loss.
Berkowitz (1987) with the help of two experiments using female subjects investigated the effects of mood and self-focused attention on the willingness to help others. In experiment 1, positive, negative or neutral mood and two kinds of self-awareness were induced. In the case of experiment 2, a different technique to induce the three types of moods were used. Also high or low attention to self was established with the help of mirror procedure. In both the studies self-awareness did not interact significantly with mood in affecting the subjects' reported feelings, although there were indications in the second experiment of an intensification of negative affect under self-focus. Furthermore, in both the experiments self-awareness operated together with positive mood to increase the subjects' efforts, whereas the relation between self-focus and negative mood were much weaker. Also in the second experiment self-awareness raised the frequency of positive ideas about the self in the happy subjects and increased the frequency of negative self-ideas in the negative mood subjects. In multiple regression analysis, these frequencies of positive and negative ideas about the self and not their mood index successfully predicted the amount of work did for the supplicant, i.e. the willingness to help was much significantly predicted through the frequencies of positive and negative ideas of the subject.

Carlson, Charlie and Miller (1988) went a step further and examined the relation between positive mood and helpfulness on six hypotheses: focus of attention, objective self-awareness, separate process, social outlook, mood maintenance and concomitance hypothesis. For each of the positive affect conditions in which it was possible to generate an effect size estimate corresponding to the relative degree of helpfulness exhibited by positive mood subjects, judges assessed the contextual level of variables relevant to each of the hypotheses. The results supported the hypotheses on focus of attention, social outlook and mood maintenance, while objective hypothesis received partial support.
Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler and Schilling (1989) examined the influence of daily stressors on mental health in a community sample of one hundred and sixty-six married couples. They completed diaries each day for six weeks. In pooled within-person analyses, daily stressors explained up to 20% of variance in mood. Interpersonal conflicts were by far the most distressing events. Furthermore, when stressors occurred on a series of days, emotional habituation occurred by the second day, for almost all events, leaving aside interpersonal conflicts. Multiple stressors on the same day did not exacerbate one another's effect. On the contrary, an emotional plateau occurred. Finally, on days following a stressful event, mood was better than it would have been, had the stressor not occurred. Thus, these results revealed the complex emotional effects of daily stressors with particular emphasis on the interpersonal conflicts.

In order to understand the role of positive affective functioning in psychological well-being, Ryff (1989) operationalised different aspects of well-being, namely, self-acceptance, positive relation with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth. Three hundred and twenty-one men and women of young age, middle age and older adults rated themselves on these measures along with six instruments. These instruments were- affect balance, life satisfaction, self-esteem, morale, locus of control and depression. Results revealed that positive relation with others, autonomy, purpose in life and personal growth were not strongly related, thereby, suggesting that the key aspects of positive affective functioning were probably not represented. Besides, a differential pattern of well-being was observed for the different age profiles.

Burke, George, Brief, Roberson and Webster (1989) made an attempt to measure affect at work place, using Watson and Tellegen's (1985) twenty clear markers of positive and negative mood. Confirmatory factor analyses of a bipolar two-factor model and a multifactor model were administered on three types of sample groups. These were- (a) managerial and professional workers in an insurance
firm, (b) retain sales personnel, (c) a heterogeneous group of students who were employed. The first model (two-factor model) which described bipolar positive and negative factors, failed to provide a strong fit in all the three sample groups. However, the multifactor model with unipolar factors labeled as positive arousal, negative activation, low arousal and low activation provided better measure of affective functioning at the work place. Furthermore, these results also gave support to the measurement of positive and negative moods as descriptively unipolar factors.

In a series of studies Brown and Mankowski (1993) studied the relation between self-esteem, mood and self-evaluation. They found that self-esteem moderated the relation between mood and self-evaluation. In study 1, a standard mood induction procedure was used to induce positive, negative or neutral moods in low and high self-esteem subjects. Later subjects evaluated their specific qualities and characteristics. Both the self-esteem groups evaluated themselves favourably in positive mood, though subjects with low self-esteem were more apt to lower their self-evaluations in a negative mood. In the second study, mood was induced using a non-cognitive musical method and a similar pattern of results as observed in the first study was seen here too. In the third study these effects were found to occur with variations in naturally occurring moods over a period of six weeks. The researchers thus conclude that the tendency of individuals with low self-esteem to respond to negative moods with self-depreciation contributed to their psychological distress.

Bodenhausen, Krammer and Surrer (1994) conducted four experiments to examine the effects of happiness or positive mood on the tendency to use stereotypes in social judgment. In each experiment, individuals who had been induced to feel happy rendered more stereotypic judgments than did those in a neutral mood. Experiment one demonstrated this phenomenon with mood induction procedure that involved recalling life experiences. Second and third experiments suggested that greater reliance on stereotypes, evident in the
judgments of happy individuals was not attributable to cognitive capacity deficits created by intrusive happy thoughts, or by cognitively disruptive excitement, or energetic arousal that may have accompanied the experience of happiness. In the fourth experiment happy individuals again were found to render more stereotypic judgments, except under conditions in which they had been told that they would be accountable for their judgments. These results, thus suggested that although happy people's tendency to engage in stereotypic thinking was pervasive, they were quiet capable of avoiding the influence of stereotypes in their judgments when situational factors provided a motivational impetus for such support.

Karney, Bradbury, Fincham and Sullivan (1994) used structural equation modeling with latent variables to test whether negative functioning or cross-situational tendency to experience and express negative thoughts and feelings, correlated with spouses' attributions for relationship events and accounted for the association between attributions and satisfactions. Eighty married couples completed measures of marital satisfaction, attributions and negative affectivity. Spouses high in negative affectivity tended to make maladaptive attributions, but spouses' attributions were unrelated to negative affectivity reported by the partner. Attribution and marital satisfaction remained associated among husbands and wives after having controlled negative affectivity. These findings thus clarified the link between attributions and marital satisfaction and also raised the possibility that negative affectivity could contribute to the attributions that spouses made for negative events in marriage.

Hert, Melton, McDonald and Harackiewicz (1996) examined the role of intrinsic interest in mediating the relationship among mood, producing goals and task performances. Participants in induced happy, sad and neutral moods generated similarities and differences between television shows using performance based, enjoyment based or no-stop rule. Pre-task interest and both quantitative (time spent and number generated) and qualitative (creativity) performance were assessed.
Happy participants spent more time and generated more items than other participants when using an enjoyment based stop rule and spent less time and generated fewer items when using a performance based stop rule. Happy participants also expressed greater pre-task interest and were more creative than other participants. Regression analysis further indicated that pre-task interest partially mediated the effects of mood on quantitative performance and note on creativity.

Isen, Daubman and Nowicki’s (1987) four experiments indicated that positive affect induced by means of seeing a few minutes of a comedy film or by means of receiving a small a bag of candy improved performance on two tasks, which were generally regarded as requiring creative ingenuity. These tasks were – Duncker’s (1945) Candle task and Mednick, Mednick and Mednick’s (1964) Remote Association test. One condition in which negative affect was induced and two in which subjects engaged in physical exercise failed to produce comparable judgements in creative performance. The influence of positive affect on creativity was discussed in terms of a broader theory of the impact of positive affect on cognitive organization by the researchers.

Watson (1988) examined the correlates of negative affect and positive affect through both within-and-between subjects analysis. Eighty subjects completed a daily questionnaire for six to eight weeks. Each day they rated (a) their mood, (b) the extent to which they suffered from various minor physical problems, (c) their level of stress, (d) the time they spent socializing, and (e) whether or not they had exercised. The subjects also completed several trait tests which measured their general affective level, frequency of health problems and social tendencies. A between-subject analysis showed that level of physical complaints and perceived stress were correlated with individual differences in negative affect and not positive affect. On the other hand social indicators and frequency of exercise were related only to positive affect. The intra-individual analysis showed that a similar pattern of results were followed here too, i.e. social activity and exercise were more strongly related to positive affect while perceived stress was highly
related to negative affect. However, the most significant finding was that, contrary to prediction, health complaints were as strongly related to intra-individual fluctuations in positive affect as in negative affect.

In order to understand the relation of affect and memory, Enrichman and Halpern (1988) made use of pleasant and unpleasant orders to induce positive and negative feelings. College women were asked to recall memories cued by neutral words while exposed to a pleasant odor unpleasant odor and/or no odor. Subjects then rated their memories as to how happy or unhappy. The events recalled were at the time of their occurrence. Subjects in the pleasant odor conditions produced a significantly greater percentage of happy memories than did subjects in the unpleasant odor condition.

When subjects who did not find odors moderately pleasant/unpleasant were removed from the analysis, more pronounced effects on memory were found. The results suggested that congruence between the general hedonic tone of current experience and that of material in long-term memory is required to bias retrieval from the memory.

Mackie and Worth (1989) tested the motivational and cognitive mediators of the reduced processing of persuasive message shown by recipients in a positive mood. Subjects in positive and neutral mood read strong/weak counter-attitudinal advocacies for either a limited time or for as long as they wanted. Under limited exposure conditions, neutral mood subjects showed attitude change subjects showed no differentiation in strong and weak versions of the message. When message exposure was unlimited, positive mood subjects viewed the messages longer than did neutral mood subjects and systematically processed it rather than relying on persuasion. These findings replicated with manipulation of mood and in two different attitudinal issues. The researchers said that their results provided evidence that reduced cognitive capacity for processing a message contributes to the decrements in the case of subjects who are in a positive mood.

Mood has also been found to have influence on the health of individuals. Negative affect has been found to play a prominent role in
the onset and gradual progress of physical illness. Negative affect has been associated with elevated levels of physical complaints (Friedman and Booth-Kewley, 1987, Watson and Pennebaker, 1989). Salovey and Birenbaum, 1989) conducted three experiments to assess the effects of mood on symptom appraisal, health behaviour self-efficacy, outcome expectations and vulnerability perceptions. In experiment 1 and 2, subjects were actually ill, whereas in experiment 3 the subjects were healthy. In each experiment happy, sad and neutral moods were induced. In experimental 1 subject who experienced sadness reported more aracher and pains and greater discomfort than the happy subjects. The sad subjects also had low confidence for their health behaviour particularly those that were related to illness. Experiments 2 and 3 demonstrated that mood's influence on vulnerability perception was moderated by the subjects' health status. Although mood had little impact on perceptions of vulnerability among ill subjects, probability estimates of future negative health-relevant events among healthy subjects were mood sensitive. Furthermore it was also found that seeing oneself invulnerable to future negative events was accentuated among happy subjects. Thus, the researchers concluded saying that mood may be an important determinant of care seeking, adherence and recovery from illness. Brow and McGill (1989) tested the hypothesis that positive life events have a detrimental effect on health among those who hold negative self-views. They conducted two experiments in which positive life events and self-esteem were used to preclude the development of illness over time. Both studies revealed that desirable life changes were associated with increases in illness only among subjects with low self-esteem. Among subjects with high self-esteem, positive life events were linked to better health. Thus, this study revealed that it is not just the life events and their positivity or negativity but also one's self-view had influence on health of the individual. Cohen, Tyrell and Smith (1993) conducted a study to see the relation between negative life events, perceived stress, negative affect and susceptibility to common cold. After completing
questionnaires assessing stressful life events, perceived stress and negative affect, three hundred and ninety-four subjects were intentionally exposed to common cold virus and monitored for the development of biologically verified clinical illness. Consistent with the hypothesis that psychological stress increased subsceptibility to infections, it was observed that higher scores on each of the three stress scales were associated with greater risk of developing cold. However, the relation between stressful life events and illness was mediated by different processes than the relation between perceived stress and illness negative affect and illness. Thus, the researchers observed that each of the scale had independent but effective relations with illness and also that they were mediated by different processes. This emphasised that to understand the effect of life events on disease one had to understand the role of stress as well as negative affect.

Ewart and Kolodner (1994) hypothesised that excessive blood pressure elevations during daily activities increased cardio-vascular risk and could be related to individual differences in emotionality and expressive style. They measured the emotional traits and blood pressure of 228 black and white American adolescents who were at risk of developing hypertension, on a 'typical' school day. Trait affects like anger and depression, predicted prevailing blood pressure levels. This association was moderated by gender social setting (i.e. classroom versus with friends) and nonverbal expressive style. Relationships between emotion and blood pressure were not explained by obesity, smoking or alcohol use. Cohen, Doyle, Skoner, Fireman, Gwaltney Jr. and Newsom (1995) measured state and trait negative affect in healthy people immediately before an illness was induced through exposure to a respiratory virus. State negative affect, disease-specific health complaints and an associated objective marker of disease severity were assessed daily during the illness. It was found that both trait and state negative affect were associated with increased numbers of subsequent complaints. Greater trait negative affect was associated with biases in complaining during and not before illness.
The review of some of the researches in mood thus revealed that most of them have been related to understand their relation with daily life events, cognition and health. Petty, Schumann, Richman and Strathman (1993) in their studies revealed that positive mood had much influence on individual's attitude change, while Ashby, Isen and Turken (1999) put forward a neurophysiological theory of positive affect and its influence in individual cognition. The present study made an attempt to study mood (i.e. positive and negative affect) as a dimension of affective functioning amongst adolescents.

2.4 Summary:

The above review of literature of identity status and style, cognitive planning, academic performance, self-esteem, life satisfaction and positive and negative affect among the adolescents have brought out one major lacuna in the research of adolescents-understanding the various aspects of the adolescents' functioning under one umbrella. Studies have been carried out to see the relation and effect of various factors on identity status and style. Similarly many studies have been conducted to see the factors that influence academic performance and self-esteem. However, there is a need to examine the various crucial aspects in the adolescents' development together. Also very few studies have been carried out to understand the aspects of cognitive planning and life satisfaction among the adolescents. This study makes an attempt to fill up that lacuna. Furthermore, in the Indian context it is expected to be interesting and helpful to examine the identity style and cognitive and affective functioning of school going adolescents.