CHAPTER – III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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3.1 INTRODUCTION

For any research work, it is important to review previous studies, survey of the related literature is an important pre-requisite to actual planning and the execution of any research work.

Best (1983) asserts “All human knowledge can be found in books and libraries unlike other animals that must start a new with each generation, man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past”.

Based on this fact the investigator felt it important to make review of literature related to the present investigation, in respect of Intelligence, locus-of-control and well-being of adolescents under the following sub headings.

1. Intelligence related studies
2. Locus-of-control related studies.
3. Well-being related studies show the component of well-being (physical, depression, anxiety, personal and emotional well-being, stress, distress, self esteem, self-concept illness, motivation, humor, adjustment and life events etc.).

3.2 INTELLIGENCE RELATED STUDIES

Reviewing about 600 titles, Eysenck (1947) concluded that under normal conditions the range of correlations of intelligence test scores with college marks was 50 to 60. Stephens (1960) asserted after scrutinizing vast literature in the field that extent of correlations varied from .1 to .9 Sahay (1961) found a significant relationship between intelligence and amount of learning.
Torrance (1965) reported as result of his study that students with more intelligence skills and capacities are likely to accomplish more on academic tasks and jobs that require such skills.

Marjorie (1967) found that intelligence quotient correlated positively and significantly at the one percent level with all the measures of school attainment except achievement in arts.

Vidhu (1968) revealed that the correlation between intelligence and academic performance was positive and highly significant.

Sinha (1968) found that higher intelligence facilitates to complete problem solving tasks, concept formation and attainment of knowledge.

Joshi (1970) concluded in his study that superior intelligence is associated with higher scores on the algebraic concepts.

Crandall, et.al., (1965) investigated that the intellectual achievement responsibility questionnaire and other measures were compared with four achievement-related activities (time spent in intellectual free-play activities, intensity of striving in intellectual free-play pursuits, intelligence test performance, reading and arithmetic test performance).

Rastogi, (1964) investigated significant positive relationship between intelligence and achievement both in Science and English.

Feldman, (1965) found in a study that on transfer test subjects of high ability did better than those of low ability but subjects of low ability did better from study by text in comparison to program.
Rao, (1965) concluded in his study that intelligence, study habits and school attitudes were significantly related to the prediction of scholastic achievement.

Cuppens (1967) in a study with Dutch high school subjects found a positive correlation of .28 and .31 between intelligence and achievement.

Lewis (1967) while making a multivariate analysis of variables associated with academic success in a college environment, found that mental ability was most significantly related to academic achievement.

Crow (1969) observed that abilities are positively related that is people tend more often to be above average or below average in all their achievements than far up on some and far down on others.

Chaudhry (1971) concluded that achievement and intelligence were not significantly and positively related to each other.

Mashih. (1975) found that there is a positive statistically significant relationship between intelligence and academic achievement ($r = +32$).

Mohan, (1975) reported that intelligence, as measured by progressive matrices scales, was positively related to total educational attainment.

Sodhi, (1977) Investigated programmed learning in chemistry in relation to taxonomy of educational objectives, intelligence and personality traits at the higher secondary level and concluded that intelligence acted as a redundant variables so far as over all achievement in various taxonomic categories was concerned.

Contractor (1977) in a study with third year B.A. students found no relationship between intelligence and educational attainment in English.
Malik (1977) found that intelligence and academic achievement were highly correlated ($r = +.435$).

Kumari (1982) confirmed high positive relationship. ($r = .663$) between intelligence and achievement.

Mohini (1982) conducted a study entitled “The effect of sex, intelligence, school achievement and self concept on development of piagetion operational comprehension among the school adolescents. She concluded that students who were highly intelligent will not necessarily score high on operative comprehension test. So intelligence is not significantly related to operational comprehension thinking.

Rajput (1984) has found that intelligence affects the achievement of students in mathematics significantly at all the three levels i.e. high, average and low levels.

The t-test showed the superiority of high intelligence group over the average intelligence and low intelligence group of students in their achievement in mathematics. It also showed that the students of average intelligence were better achievers in mathematics than the students of low intelligence.

Gakhar (1986) investigated the relationship between intelligence and academic achievements of college students and found significant correlation for science, commerce, arts and home science groups.

Mishra (1986) studied the relationship between creativity and problem solving ability at different levels of intelligence and found positive correlation between high intelligence and problem solving ability but insignificant correlation between low intelligence and problem solving ability.
Bell (1986) studied the influence of intelligence and training on the acquisition of a formal operational concept and concluded that highly intelligent students had a greater frequency of correct responses.

Dutt (1987) concluded that intelligence of the solver significantly affected the problem solving ability irrespective of the strategies of training a bright child trained in any of the two strategies scored higher in problem solving ability test than a less bright student.

Kohli, (1988) studied that the two levels of intelligence viz. high group and low group differ significantly with respect to scores of religious attitude. It may, further be specified that the students belonging to high intelligence group possess more religious attitude than that of the students falling in low intelligence group.

Gill (1989) revealed high intelligent subjects scored higher on originality than low intelligent subjects irrespective of training strategies, where as fluency, flexibility and creative problem solving skill were not affected by levels of intelligence.

Russo (1989) made a comparative study of creativity and cognitive problem solving strategies of bright and average students and found no significant differences between problem - solving strategies of bright and average children.

Khari (1991) concluded that intelligence was an important factor in achievement of all the seven areas of English i.e. spelling, comprehension, composition, pronunciation, applied grammar and vocabulary.

Joshi (1991) conducted a normative survey study on a sample of 720 students studying in urban and rural schools in Moradabad. The statistical techniques used for analyzing the data were mean, percentage, t-test and correlation. Results showed that the growth status of language
ability was a function of structural factors operating within (intelligence, sex etc.) and outside (Socio-economic status, locality and type of school) the individual. There existed a significant relationship between intelligence and growth of various English language abilities.

Batra (1992) concluded that two levels of intelligence viz. group and low group, differ significantly, with respect to scores of conductive concept formation. It may, further be specified that the students belonging to high intelligence group develop better conductive concept formation that of students falling in low intelligence group.

Sawhney (1993) concluded that above average and average ability students secured significantly higher scores than the below average students irrespective of teaching strategy students of above average and average ability groups retained more algebraic concepts than the students of below average group irrespective of teaching strategy.

Kaur (1993) revealed in her study that (i) the variable of intelligence was found to be significantly correlated with the teaching effectiveness of "Navodaya" school teachers at 05 level (ii) the variable of intelligence was not significantly correlated with the teaching effectiveness of traditional school teachers. Vyas (1993) has reported that academic failure has been associated with lower affiliation, teacher control, rule clarity and teacher support variables. Singhal (1991) has found a significant positive correlation between academic achievement and academic motivation, affiliation, teacher support task orientation, competition and innovation dimensions of classroom social climate. A negative correlation was reported between academic achievement and teacher control.

The frustration engendered by scholastic difficulties may in turn lead to discouragement and general dislike of school. Such reactions can
be found for example, among a number of Puerto Rican children in New
York city schools (Anastasi, 1953).

Direct evidence of the influence of prenatal nutritional factors upon
subsequent intellectual development is to be found in a recent, well-
controlled experiment by Harrell et.al. (1955). The subjects were pregnant
women in low-income groups, whose normal diets were generally quite
deficient. A dietary supplement was administered to some of these
women during pregnancy and lactation, while an equated control group
received placebos. When tested at the ages of three and four years, the
offspring of the experimental group obtained a significantly higher mean
IQ.

Burt (1958) postulates a primary role for genetic factors in the
development of intelligence. He presents data from studies of identical
twins reared a part in qualitatively different environments, that shows
there is greater similarity between the IQ’s of these children than there is
for fraternal twins reared together.

The implicit assumption that there dietary and environmental
factors combine in an additive fashion. Both geneticists and psychologists
have repeatedly demonstrated, however, that a more tenable hypothesis
is that of interaction (Haldane, 1938; Loe Vinger, 1943; Schweisinger,
1933; Wood Worth, 1941; Bing (1963), in a study which also throws
light on some specific environmental factors in the development of a
child’s intelligence, has investigated the relationship between particular
child rearing practices of mothers and the differential development of
verbal and non-verbal abilities of their children.

Ahlulwalia (1990), and Reddy (1994) have also reported that open
and controlled school climates seem to be more conducive and favorable
for the students to secure high percentage of marks.
Some kinds of bilingualism in childhood may exert a retarding influence upon intellectual development and may under certain conditions affect personality development adversely (Anastassi, 1958; Arsenian, 1945; Darey, 1953).

In the works of Kagan, Somtag, Baker and Nelson (1958) these researchers have demonstrated relationships between such personality variables as amount of independence and level of achievement motivation, and significant changes in IQ’s in children over a relatively short period of time.

Zajonic and Markus (1975) argued that as birth order and family size increase, the average IQ of the new born tends to be very low. Studies in Colombia and Damascus by Omran and Standley (1981) found that the mean IQ scores declined constantly with increase of birth order to both residential areas.

Bayley and Oden (1955) found that scores on the difficult concept Mastery test increased on a second testing. For a population of over a thousand, composed of gifted study subjects and their spouses, comparisons were made between two tests that had been taken about 12 years apart. The increase in scores on the retest averaged about half a standard deviation.

Similar results have been reported by Owens (1953) that the Army Alpha test at 50 years on 127 men who had first taken the test as 19-year old freshmen Alowa State College. Their scores improved by .55 Sds over the 31-year interval. One can hardly claim practice effects after a lapse of 31 years. McCandless (1961) predicted that children with poor self-concept generally have low IQ.
Brook Over et al., (1964) concluded, after studying 1050 eight class students that a significant positive relationship exists between self concept and performance of students.

Walia (1977) asserted that the factor of intelligence has significant effects on the self-perception of the individual and on the different dimensions of self. Gold (1978) reported that more intelligent individuals have more positive self-concept Sharma (1978) investigated the relationship of intelligence with different aspects of self-concept namely aspiration, confidence, emotionality, inferiority, physical appearance and with drawing tendency in various groups.

The study was conducted on a sample of 1427 students (690 males and 737 females) of class X whose ages are ranged from 14 to 18 years. The results showed that intelligence was having no relationship with self-concept in extreme intelligent groups. But students of high intelligence had low self-concept.

Kumar (1979) investigated some girls with acute self-concept comparing them with those of normal group. The major factors studied were area of residence, community, intelligence and values. The extreme self-concept group scored low on intelligence test as compared to normal group.


Mitchel (1959) reported that as group the self rejecting women did as well in school as those who were self-accepting, and did not differ themselves in intelligence.
Deutch (1973) noted in one study that children from father less homes have significantly lower IQ’s by the time they enter the fifth grade than do the children of the same socio-economic status from father present homes.

Singh (1976) reported that the socially advantaged group was significantly superior in scholastic achievement to socially disadvantaged group. Strauss (1984) examined the relations between the scheme of atomism and the concept of density and effect of piagetion state and M-capacity (the number of units of information that a person can co-ordinate within a given time span). The effect of age 9-10 years versus 11-12 years and IQ on the outcome of training were also examined. Data indicated that the effect of training and IQ variables were significant, while the effect of the age variable was not.

Reddy (1985) administered a standard progressive matrices, a concept learning task and a post task questionnaire to 120 males in the age group of 20-25 years; and to 120 males in the age group of 40-45 years. Result shows that intelligence was not a factor in choice of partial or complete strategies among the subjects while performing concept leaning tasks.

Fields (1985) compared a conventional verbal mode of high school biology instructions to one augmented with laboratory activities there were 100 students in each of the two samples and each treatment lasted for 16 weeks. He reported that two treatments did not differ in their effectiveness in promoting mastery of formal biology concepts across cognitive ability levels. A strong relationship was found between mastery and cognitive ability level.

Charles (1986) found that children who entered first grade with high number abilities performed better than those who entered with
intermediate number abilities and with low number abilities, in understanding certain addition and subtraction concepts.

Bell (1986) found that highly intelligent subjects had a greater frequency of correct responses but Myers (1983) could not find any significant relationship between problem solving skill and children’s level of general intelligence on all the subsets of Ross and Wisc.

Roberta et.al. (1986) indicated that more intelligent students are assumed to require less instruction than their less intelligent peers in learning new concepts and skills.

Since, past few years, quite a number of studies have shown that social disadvantage adversely affects the mental health and growth of children Monckeberg et.al. (1972) demonstrated low intellectual level and poor school performance in children belonging to slums. In their studies, Deutch (1973) Gupta et. al, (1975) and Quaiser and Ahmed (1979) reported that socially disadvantaged children had low IQ’s. Subsequently confirmed by Amesur, 1962; Rendon et.al., 1969; Kaplan, 1972; Sharma, 1973; 1978; Singh et.al. (1976) Singh (1980) made an additional observation that greater the degree of disadvantage, more the inferiority in intelligence and academic achievement.

A number of studies have shown that the relationship is significantly negative, that is, individuals with fast and therefore, short reaction times tend to obtain high scores on intelligence tests (Vernon 1987).

The theoretical interest in this relationship goes back to Galton (1883), who proposed that reaction times might provide a measure of the neurological efficiency of the brain, at dealing rapidly and accurately with information, and that this variable of efficiency might be the neurological basis of intelligence. The same idea was explored by Eysenck (1982) who
proposed that the accuracy of neural transmission may be the basic variable underlying differences in intelligence.

3.3 LOCUS OF CONTROL RELATED STUDIES

The best known example of the importance of internality or externality as a personal characteristic was the finding of Coleman (1966), that black children, more often than white children, believed that success was caused by luck (an external factor) rather than by effort (an internal factor). This kind of attribution process an external locus of control-appears to affect academic performance. Black students who believed work had higher reading scores than did students who believed in luck. The mean verbal achievement of believers in the importance of hard work was higher than the mean of all children who believed in luck as the cause of success, regardless of race or geographic region of the country.

Research on locus of control indicates that internal locus of control orientation is correlated with some positive mental health components (Mullins, Siegel and Hodges, 1985; Clayson and Frost, 1985; Federer, 1984; Carter, 1984). Other studies have reported a significant relationship between internal locus of control and job satisfaction (Kulcarni, 1984; Richard and Fortune, 1985; Rohman, 1985).

Krishna, (1981) attempted to ascertain the external relationship between locus of control on the test manifest and from floating anxiety measures, on the others. Results indicate that against personiann locus of control bears significant and positive association with test anxiety \( r = .24 \), Manifest anxiety \( r = .36 \) and free floating anxiety \( r = .31 \)

Hallingan and Rezinikoff, (1985) reported that internal locus of control was negatively related to depression. Whiteman, et.al. (1987) developed a multidimensional locus of control scale which could be used
specifically for studies of depression in adolescent population. They report that the scale can be used as a tool to assess whether depressed subjects hold internal chance, or powerful others locus of control beliefs about their depression upon determining the subject’s locus of control orientation, one might tailor treatments for depressed subjects upon those beliefs.

Solomon, (1983) investigated the relationship of locus of control with teacher stress using internal-external locus of control scale on a sample of 100 secondary school teachers. By cross-tabulation of selected items of demographic data, the analysis by cluster revealed that most subjects who were under little stress, and considered themselves to be in excellent health, were less than 40 years old females, married and Anglo-Saxon and had less than 10 years of teaching experience.

Carter (1984) investigated locus of control and attitudes towards physical activity and death anxiety. He reported that internals showed greater capacity for self-control which in turn may have fostered the development of more positive health attitude and behavior as compared to externals. Clayson and Frost, (1985) found internal locus of control and increased levels of self-esteem, self-liking, marital satisfaction and a more conservative orientation to relate to levels of low stress.

Richard and Fortune, (1985) reported that internality was positively associated with non-manipulative behavior. Cash, (1985) studied the irrational beliefs test and its relationship with cognitive-behavioral traits and depression. He reported that multiple regression analysis indicated that locus of control, irrationality and cognitive set predict assertion and that locus of control and irrationality predict depression.

Rodalofo and Richard, (1985) studied health locus of control, values, and the behavior of family and friends. The purpose of the study was to
aid in understanding preventive health behavior, results of this investigation indicate that subjects who both valued health had an internal locus of control, were most likely to engage in preventive health behavior. Conversely, subjects with external locus of control who were exposed to association with poor health behavior patterns, exhibited lower levels of preventive health behavior than internals.

Valine and Carolyn, (1985) examined perceived helplessness to determine its relationship to locus of control, self-reported symptoms of depression, and voluntary participation in therapy. They found that attitudes of helplessness towards personal problems were associated with external locus of control, increased levels of objective and subjective life-stress, lower performance level on impersonal problem solving.

Cash (1983) examined the relationship between the degree of internality and externality of counselors and a rating of their counseling abilities. 30 subjects were taken from the graduate course of study in counseling. The hypothesis that the internality oriented counselors would be rated higher in their counseling abilities was not significantly supported by the obtained data.

Holeman (1996) studied the self-efficacy achieving tendency, Locus-of-control and coping styles as predictors of academic performance of nursing students. The purpose of this study was to investigate personality (non-cognitive) variables as predictors of academic performance that could be used in addition to cognitive predictors. The non-cognitive variables examined in the study included coping styles, self-efficacy locus-of-control and achieving tendency. Internal locus-of-control correlated positively with GPA (Grade point average). Social and self efficacy. Powerful others Locus-of-control correlated negatively with G.P.A. In addition to various demographic variables. Internal locus of
control and general self-efficacy were statistically significant in predicting academic performance for all nursing students.

Coleman’s report (1966) said that internal locus of control was found to be the best single predictor of successful academic achievement with disadvantage students.

Parents who exhibit warm, protection and child rearing practices help the child to develop internal locus of control (Chance, 1965; Davis and Phraes, 1969; Nowicki and Segal, 1974) consistence of parental reinforcement discipline and standards also seem to believe to influence development of internal locus-of-control especially in boys (David and Phraes, 1969); Macdonald, 1971, Levenson, 1973).

The findings of Procuik, Breen and Lussier (1976) study supported the predictions that hopelessness would be positively related to external locus of control and to depression.

Abrahamson (1978) study indicated that adolescent’s belief in their own or on individual’s ability to control the environment (more generally labeled a belief in internality) were related to perceptions of parental acceptance, firm control and psychological autonomy.

A multi-regressional analysis of Rohner and his associate’s (1981) study revealed that internality increased significantly with adolescent age and with their perceptions of increased parental acceptance.

Basavanna and Rani (1983) found that subjects coming from socially disadvantaged families were found to be low in their intellectual functions. This is not due to any genetic defect but probably the result of not acquiring certain perpetual skills at the appropriate time. Their perceived locus of control of reinforcement as measured by Rotter’s I-E
scale) is predominantly external thus suggesting that they believe that their success, achievement and rewards are controlled by forces outside them. They also present a picture of lower self-confidence.

Tzuriel and Hay Wood’s (1985) study indicated that intrinsically motivated adolescent tend to perceive their fathers as more loving and less rejecting, giving less attention (protecting), were more internally controlled than externally motivated adolescent.

Kumar and Tripathi’s (1986) study revealed that disadvantaged had higher external scores than the advantaged youth on Rotter’s I.E. locus of control scale.

Darling (1991) on the basis of her study suggested that adolescent control beliefs specifically are influenced by both the functional roles performed by significant others and by the number of negative life events they have been exposed to.

Rotter (1966) stated that sex differences on I-E scale appear to be minimal Feather’s (1967) study at the university of England showed that females scored significantly higher on external scores than the males.

Dunham’s (1973) study on 459 secondary school students exhibited no differences in internal-external locus of control for boys and girls.

Procuik and Breen (1973) found no significant differences on internal and external locus of control for boys and girls. Wilson’s (1976) study showed that males scored higher in internal orientation than the females.
Malikiosi and Ryckman’s (1978) study indicated that women were more external than men.

Weiner (1978) found no significant difference emerged on the basis of sex.

Khanna and Khanna (1979) found that women were more external than men.

Toves, Schill and Romanaiah’s (1981) study showed that internality was more of an advantage for males than females.

Cellini and Kanatorowski’s (1982) revealed that females tend to be more external than males.

Hong and Bartenstein (1982) found no significant sex differences on LeVerson Locus of Control Scale.

Russell (1982) stated that females are slightly higher (more external), than males which is typical for measures of locus of control. Burger, (1984) attempted to study desire for control, locus of control and proneness to depression. Results indicate that locus of control scores, particularly the extent to which subjects perceived that their lives were controlled by chance, were significantly related to depression levels.

Phares (1957) in his study, gave one group of subjects instructions which emphasized that success on a task (color of length-of-line matching) was due to skill. A second group was given instructions which emphasized that success on the same task was due to chance and skill-direction groups were instructed that success was controlled by chance or by their own skill, respectively.

Rotter, Liverant, and Crowne (1961) sought to replicate the James and Rotter findings without using differential instructions as the
experimental manipulation. In this investigation, subjects were presented with either of two tasks which would be regarded as skill and chance controlled tasks on the basis of the previous cultural experiences of the subjects. One task involved a motor-skill apparatus (vertical level-of-aspiration board) while the other involved the card-guessing procedure used in the James and Rotter (1958) study. The results strongly supported the hypotheses that greater increments and decrements in verbalized expectancies would be found under skill conditions and that extinction of expectancies under continuous negative reinforcement reverses under chance and skill conditions (a 50% reinforcement group is more resistant to extinction than the 100% group only under chance conditions, while the reverse holds true under skill conditions).

Blackman (1962) undertook an investigation to determine whether the apparent patterning of events, as opposed to short, seemingly non-patterned sequences, in the presentation of two flashing lights would lead to extinction results similar to those found under skill and chance conditions. He reasoned that long or patterned sequences would lead a subject to believe that predictions of the event could be made depending upon his skill to comprehend the pattern, whereas, short sequences would lead the subject to perceive the patterns as unpredictable (external control). Blackman found that sequence length and number of sequences significantly affected the number of “wrong” guesses (selection of the light that was no longer being illuminated during extinction) throughout extinction trials. The more sequences and the shorter the sequences during training, the more wrong responses were given, and the greater was the expectancy associated with these wrong responses found during extinction.

As in the Mowrer and Viek (1948) experiment, chance subjects were matched with skill subjects with respect to number of escapes and syllables on which escape occurred. The results indicated that threshold
decrements were significantly greater for skill than chance subjects for both shock and non shock-related syllables. Phares included one control group in his design which received no shock so that their behavior as indicated by the pre-post measures was not instrumental for pain release. The non shock control group performed remarkable like the skill-shock group. Both groups differed significantly from the chance or external - control group.

James (1957) found a significant correlation between the James - Phares Likert type scale and the incomplete sentences Blank personal adjustment score (Rotter, 1950). The relationship appeared to be curvilinear, extreme internals and extreme externals appearing less adjusted.

Battle and Rotter (1963) found an interaction between race and social class on the control variable as measured by a projective device called the children picture Test of Internal-External control Lower-class Negroes were significantly more external than lower-class whites or middle-class Negroes and Whites. Graves (1961) adapted the internal-external control scale for high school students and studied ethnic differences in an isolated tri-ethnic community. They found whites to be least external followed by Spanish American's Indians were the most external in attitudes. These findings were consistent with predictions about the groups.

Seider (1978) investigated the interactive effects of sex and locus of control in predicting the self-esteem of 42 males and 41 female 6th graders. Boys and girls did not differ significantly on locus of control scale.

Beeb (1979) found in a sample of fourth, sixth, eighth and tenth grade subjects, that the relationship between internality and self concept was positive at all ages.
Control is important to psychological functioning. Decades of research in sociology and psychology have demonstrated that a sense of control is a robust predictor of physical and mental well-being (Baltes and Baltes, 1986; Bandura, 1989). Brim, 1974, Fiske and Taylor, 1991; Gurin and Brim, 1984; Lachman and Burack, 1993; Lefcourt, 1981, 1982, 1983; Rodin, 1986; Strickland, 1989; Thompson and Spacapan, 1991) and perhaps excel longevity (Langer and Rodin, 1976; Seligman, 1975). Both experimental and Correlational studies have shown that across the life span from earliest infancy to oldest age, individual differences in perceived control are related to a variety of positive outcomes, including health achievement, optimism, persistence motivation, coping, self-esteem, personal adjustment, and success failure in a variety of life domain.

Antonovsky (1979) made the important distinction between “being in control of things,” which implies personal control, and “things being under control” which implies a meaningful ordered situation. Confidence in the effectiveness and competence of confederates, especially in times when demands exceed individual expertise, can supplement one’s beliefs in one’s own self-efficacy (Thompson et al., 1993).

Research has so often focused on personal control, some writers have mistakenly assumed that constructs of control, are necessarily individualistic in nature (Schooler, 1990). However, researchers have also studied perceptions of the effectiveness of groups of people, for example in collective efficacy (Bandura, 1993). Hence, the issue of control can be applied to societies oriented to collectivist ideologies as well as those that are individualistic.

Wederich (1995) studied the independent variables of locus of control social support, well-being and dependent variables; stress and strain. He established subjects with higher well-being and internal locus of
control experienced less stress and strain than subjects with lower well-being and external locus of control. Satisfaction with social support have main effects for stress but not for strain.

3.4 WELL-BEING RELATED STUDIES

Little (1989) confirmed that well-being will be enhanced to the extent that individuals are engaged in personal projects that are meaningful, well structured, supported by others, not unduly, stressful, and which engender a sense of efficacy.

In a national study by Campbell (1981), 12 domains of life were considered for their contribution to satisfaction with life-satisfaction, with self, which included a sense of worth and control, had the strongest relationship to feeling of well-being.

Sime (1984) in his review of the research, noted that the association between exercise and a state of mind show the following:

1. A positive relationship with mental well-being.
2. A decrease in state and trait anxiety.
3. A decrease in mild to moderate depression.
4. A decrease in muscular tension along with anxiety.

Stinnet and Defrain (1985) indicated that strong families share six major qualities.

1. Commitment to each others Welfare and happiness.
2. Appreciation that is shown for one another.
3. Communication skills and time spent talking with each other.
4. Time spent with one another both in quality and quantity.
5. Spiritual wellness, which recognizes a greater good or power in life, a source of strength and purpose.
6. Coping ability that views stress or crises as an opportunity to grow.
Singh and Basu, (1982) studied anxiety components and related problem areas among students in medical college. Their research results confirm a positive relationship between anxiety and problems related to poor health and physique.


Himmelfarb (1984) conducted a research on “Age and sex differences in mental health of older persons”. The findings indicated that mental health was curvilinearly related to age with high symptom scores obtained in both 55-59, and 85-89 age groups and lowest in 60-69 age group.

Lubin and Rubio, (1985) studied “strain producing aspects of life events and found significant relationship between life events” depression and general psychological distress.

Peterson and Seligman (1988) in their study “Explanatory Style and illness” discussed the possible relationship between explanatory style (Es), a concept derived from learned helplessness theory, and physical health. Explanatory style refers to the habitual way in which individuals attribute negative events. Results suggest that a pessimistic Es (i.e. internal stable global) is related to both mortality and morbidity. This relationship may be mediated by such variables as passivity, social withdrawal, depression, health-related behaviors, problem-solving skills or physiological response to stress.

Reijo, et.al. (1988) in a study “Assessment of mental health and illness considered in the finish student follow up III”, present findings from 272 subjects who were assessed 3 times between 1965 and 1978 for mental health status. Results show that the development of mental
disorders and occurrence of symptoms increased with age and that man and women differ in many ways in terms of the nature of their mental health.

The healthy individuals of Maslow’s (1970) research had a strong acceptance of themselves and their own nature. They accepted their own weaknesses and imperfections without being upset or disturbed.

Self-esteem was significantly related to physical and mental health in a large survey conducted by the California Department of Mental Health (1979). Those who had high self-esteem reported having better mental and physical health. Low self-esteem also went along with more self-reported physical illness and with disturbances such as insomnia, anxiety and depression.

Research by Witmer et al. (1983) indicated that these persons with a more positive outlook and those who scored lowest on five of Ellis’s irrational beliefs were less anxious and had fewer physical symptoms. The five irrational beliefs contributing to stress were the following (i) the past continues to influence me so much that it is hard for me to change or prevent bad things from happening (ii) I can’t help getting down on myself when I fail at something or when something goes wrong (iii) it is very important for me to be liked and loved by almost everyone I meet, (iv) I must be perfectly competent, adequate, and achieving in all that I do to consider myself worthwhile; and (v) I have little control over my moods, which are causal mostly by events outside my self.

Behavioral medicine, psychosomatic medicine, and psychoneuroimmunology have established a relationship between thoughts, feelings and illness (Benson with Proctor, 1984; Borysenko, 1987; Locke and Colligan, 1986; Rossi, 1986; Siegal, 1986) when negative emotions
become chronic or are suppressed, they can become destructive to our well-being.

^ Oelongie (1985) studied the relationship of every day stress to mental health and well-being. He observed that every day stress was linked with depression somatic symptoms and health problems. Results indicated that those who received low emotional support from family, friend co-workers were about twice as likely to develop mental health problems as compared to those who received high emotional support.

By contrast, relation and positive emotional states seem to strengthen immune function (Dillon, Minchaff, and Baker, 1985; McLelland, Ross and Patal, 1985) In deed responses to daily events influence internal bodily functions. Not only does negative mood result in lower antibody response but a positive mood is associated with a higher antibody response (Stone, Cox, Valdimars Dottir, Jandorf, and Neale, 1987).

Vaillant (1977) found a positive correlation between physical and psychological health of more than 200 Harvard graduates followed up over 30 years. Among the results, those graduates with the best adjustment used more humor than did those with poorer adjustment. Humor was seen an antidote for distress because it occurred both the idea and the effect to coexist in consciousness.

Mosak (1987) and Fry and Salameh (1987) have described the benefits of humor in counseling and psychotherapy. Humor is seen as being useful in establishing a relationships, making assessments, turning the client around, and acting as a criterion in termination.

A landmark study that showed the significant relationship between health habits, health, and life expectancy was conducted with
approximately 7,000 adults in Alameda Country, California (Belloc, 1973; Bello and Breslow, 1972). Seven factors were found to be significantly related to health and life expectancy.

1. Three meals a day at regular times and no snacking.
2. Break fast every day.
3. Moderate exercise two or three times a week.
4. Adequate sleep (7 or 8 hours a night)
5. No smoking
6. Moderate weight
7. No alcohol or only in moderation

A large, definitive follow-up study of 17,000 Harvard Alumni was conducted by Paffenbarger, Hyde, Wing, and Hsieh (1986) they studied the exercise habits of these men, whose ages ranged from 35 to 74 years of age, for more than a decade and concluded that morality rates were significantly lower among the physically active. Based on the Harvard Alumni study, a middle age man can expect to live an extra 2 hours for every hour of exercise.

Nutrition research has demonstrated that there is a relationship between what we eat, our health, our moods, and our performance (Wurtman, 1986). Satisfaction with life has been found to be related to the presence of friendships Campbell, (1981); Flanagan, (1978), Berkman and Syme (1979), found through a 9-year study of 7,000 persons that single persons, widowed persons, persons with few friends or family, and persons who did not participate in community organizations died at a rate two to five times greater than those with more extensive ties. This was true regardless of income, sex, race, or ethnic background, age, and selected life-style factors.
Campbell (1981) in a national survey affirmed that marriage and friends significantly contributed to satisfaction with life. In their study of sources of satisfaction in long-term relationships, Argyle and Furnham (1983) found age and sex differences. Women derive more satisfaction in the emotional support area and from friends and family; men get more satisfaction from family and neighbors, younger people from friends and work associates.

Vaillant (1977) examined the linkage between loving and health in following 200 Harvard graduates for 30 years. The healthier men reflected a friendlier disposition and closer relationships with their children and were happily married over time and revealed better sexual adjustment. He concluded that being able to love one’s friends, wife, parents and children were predictors of good mental health.

Psychology and Medicine have begun to merge to view illness and wellness from a more holistic perspective, asserting that a person’s health is composed of physical, psychological, and social aspects that influence each other reciprocally (Engel, 1977; Ford, 1990; Aurrelmann, 1989, Lyddon, 1987). In this regard, research has indicated correlation between illness and a variety of psychological variables, stress has been found to be a main effect in physical symptoms (Anderson and Amoult, 1989) and as playing a role in the onset of infectious disease and reactivation of latent viruses (Cohen and Williamson, 1991).

Further more, psychological “hardiness”. A personality style introduced by Kobassa (1979), has been found to moderate the relationship between certain stressful life events and physical illness. (Kobasa, Maddi and Courington, 1981; Kobassa, Maddi, Puccetti, and Zola, 1985; Kobassa, Maddi, and Zola, 1983; Kobassa and Puccetti, 1983) Thus it seems clear that psychological factors such as personality
characteristics, social factors, reactions to life events, and emotions are significantly related to illness.

Values and beliefs are also variables that may influence health and wellness. Ellis’s irrational beliefs (Ellis, 1962) have been associated with type A behavior (Thurman, 1983, 1985) problems in self-esteem (Daly and Burton, 1983), anxiety (Rosin and Nelson, 1983), anger (Woods, 1987), and stress (Haaga and Davidson, 1989; Knaus, 1985), each of which may contribute to problems in wellness.

Most of the recent research linking motivation to subjective well-being has been instigated by Little’s (1983, 1989) and Emmon’s (1986, 1989) conceptualizations of personal goal systems, rooted in a social-ecological analysis of human action.

Paly and little (1983) reported that subjects who indicated different levels of life satisfaction also showed marked differences in the appraisal of personal projects. In brief, high life satisfaction was associated with striving for important, enjoyable, and challenging goals.

Rvehlman and Wolchek (1988) found that project-relevant social support and hindrance accounted for inter individual differences in measures of psychological distress and well-being.

Emmons (1986, 1989) has pointed out that differences in subjective well-being arise from specific characteristics of individuals’ personal strivings.

According to Emmons (1986) personal strivings refer to a unique set of objectives a person is characteristically trying to carry out. Referring to a hypothetical systems of hierarchically organized goals, personal strivings are located at a higher level of abstraction. Therefore,
personal strivings are supposed to generate a large number of more concrete sub-goals (e.g., personal projects) through which they are linked to the performance of instrumental activities (Emmons, 1989) (Hollenbeck and Klein, 1987; Klinger, 1977; Novacek and Lazarus, 1990), in accordance with the current conceptions of commitment, personal goals are associated with a strong sense of determination, with the willingness to invest effort, and with impatient striving for goal implementation.

In an investigation of helplessness, Mowrer and Vick (1948) found that matched pairs of shock-controlling and shock non-controlling rates differed in eating inhibition after the shock periods. They concluded that an uncontrollable, painful stimulus could last indefinitely or get worse, whereas the same stimulus, if subject to control, arouses little or no apprehension, Mowrer labels this apprehension of uncontrolled pain fear from a sense of helplessness.

Bhargova (1965) designed a study to explore the interpersonal relationship of girl students and its relation to personality traits. She found that most of the stars tended to exceed the average by social participation and better mental health. The isolates, tended to be emotionally disturbed, lacked social skills and were self-bounds.

Blocks (1980) recognized that dispositionally based regulatory mechanisms play an important role in influencing individual’s responses to stressful events or experiences. Consequently, regulatory mechanisms may be relevant to an understanding of how individuals cope with stressful situations and individual differences in the ability to successfully do so (Derry Berry and Reed, 1994; Robins, John Caspi, Moffitt, and Stouthamer-Loeber (1996) measures of subjective well-being are usually correlated with a large number of personal goal attributes. Yet, as has been indicated by factor analysis, many goal characteristics are interrelated in self-report data and can usually be reduced to between
three and five dimensions (Emmons, 1986, 1989; Little, 1989; Rvehlman and Wolchik, 1988).

Subjective well-being includes life satisfaction, positive affect, and lack of negative affect (Andrews and Withey, 1976; Diener, 1984; Dinner and Larsen, 1993). These experiences are relatively stable over time and show moderate cross-situational consistency (Dienner and Larsen, 1993; Larsen and Dienner 1984).

3.5 TRENDS

The trends revealed in the aforementioned studies indicate that positive aspects of well-being are related to positive ratings of intellectual achievement, and internal locus of control.

Low well-being is related to depression, low intellectual and poor school performance and external locus of control orientation.

Demographic variables associated with the variable includes age, sex and adolescents in and out of school experience.