CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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A recapitulation of literature pertaining to the empirical conclusion related to the present problem is useful to help in knowing the current state of literature on the subject under reference, particularly to find out if people had already worked on it and published their views.

1. The review of literature related to the present study has been given as under:

3.1. SELF ESTEEM AND LOCUS OF CONTROL

Self esteem is a concept that a person has regarding his own self. In fact, what a person thinks about himself comprises the attitude and feelings that he has about himself. Locus of Control is a concept describing whether people feel that control of their lives rests in their own hands (internal locus of control) or in the hands of others (external locus of control).

Locus of control oriented during childhood is more external than during adolescence and adulthood (Shute et al., 1984; Skinner et al. 1998; Weisz & Stipek, 1982) and males have the tendency to make more external attributions for failure than females (Dweck, 1986).

Seidner (1978) investigated the interactional effects of sex and locus of control in predicting the self-esteem of 42 male and 41 female 6th graders. Boys scored higher than the girls on the CooperSmith Self-Esteem Inventory and similar measure of self-esteem.

Munn (1983) in the study entitled ‘The Impact of a Brief Therapeutic Wilderness Experience on Locus of Control and Self-esteem of Handicapped Adolescents’ found that the brief intensive wilderness experience influenced locus of control in a positive direction. However, the effect on self-esteem was neutral.
Martin and Coley (1984) reported a negative correlation between locus of control and self esteem. This showed that internality of locus of control was significantly related to high self-esteem.

Fleming and Spooner (1985) reported correlations between some measurism of perceived locus of control with general levels of adjustment. It is not clear whether these represent causal relationships, reciprocal interactions or the presence of an undisclosed underlying personality variable. Olton (1985) found a significant correlation of self-esteem with ‘internality’.

Ross and Fabiano (1985) identified studies reporting lower self esteem in offender samples prior to 1980. However, they argued that the link between criminality and self-esteem may operate through locus of control. Since many offenders are externally oriented in their locus of control, self-esteem is likely to reflect a lack of belief in their ability to affect change or have control in their environment (i.e. internal control).

Abdallah (1989) examined the relationship between self-esteem and locus of control of 300 male subjects from Saudi Arabia. Analysis indicated positive correlation between self-esteem total score and locus of control, self worth and personal efficacy. The findings suggest that high self-esteem is associated with internal locus of control.

Kliewer and Sandler (1992) showed that girls with an external locus of control and low self-esteem had the most problems related to adjustment in life.

Pandey (1993) in his study on 100 male and female undergraduate and postgraduate students between the age range 18 and 25 years entitled “Locus of Control and Self-Esteem” found that internally controlled group possessed high esteem than externals.

Bostrom and Harrington (1998) made an exploratory investigation of characteristics of compulsive talkers in which they commented that the “talkative” person may well be as much of a communication problem as the reticent one. In
this study, 28 undergraduates who were identified by acquaintances as talking too much were compared to 224 "normals" on a series of variables thought to be associated with compulsive talking. Talkers differed from "normals" in their self-reports of verbal activity. Talkers also reported that they were more argumentative, less apprehensive, and had more positive attitudes about communication than normals. No differences in self-esteem or locus of control were found between these groups.

Bradshaw and Gilbrech (2003) studied the relationship of self-esteem to locus of control, anxiety, body image, depression gender and age. The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that anxiety is a predictor variable for self-esteem and accounts for 39% of the variability (R = .39). In addition, significant relationships were found between self-esteem and locus of control.

Hayedeh (2004) studied locus of control and self-esteem among deaf children and found that the external locus of control in deaf children doesn’t reduce their self-esteem as it reduces in hearing students, but there is no significant difference in self-esteem and locus of control in deaf and hearing students. It was concluded that, these results could improve understanding of deaf children and changing attribution style in them.

Pokrajac-Bulian, Alessandra, Ivanka and Zlvcic-Becirevi (2005) explored the relationship between locus of control, self-esteem and body dissatisfaction on the sample of university students, as well as the sex differences among the measures. The results suggested that body dissatisfaction plays a more significant role in self-esteem for girls than it does for boys.

Some of the research studies quoted above indicated negative relationship between self-esteem and locus of control i.e. persons who have external locus of control possess low self-esteem. Girls with external locus of control and low self-esteem face adjustment problems in life. Further offenders are found to be external oriented in their locus of control and low in self-esteem. Body dissatisfaction plays
a significant role in self-esteem for girls than boys and anxiety is a predictor for self-esteem and self-esteem is related to locus of control.

3.2. SELF ESTEEM AND RECIDIVISM

Recidivism means habitual or chronic relapse of criminal or antisocial offenses. In other words, it is the behaviour of a repeat or habitual criminal. It is the measurement of the rate at which offenders commit other crimes, either by arrest or conviction baselines, after being released from incarceration.

Gough and Heilbrun (1965) reported that self-esteem was negatively correlated with recidivism.

Gendreau, Grant and Leipciger (1979) examined Canadian offenders and released from provincial institutions and followed for a 2-year period post-release. The self-esteem scale was unrelated to recidivism after two years.

A study conducted by Bynner, O’Malley and Backman (1981) concluded that there were very weak paths between self-esteem and delinquency with little evidence to suggest that low self-esteem increases the likelihood of participation in delinquent behaviour.

Annis and Chan (1983) in their study suggested that offenders with positive self-images appeared to gain more with treatment in terms of reduced reconvictions and less severe offences when compared with untreated offenders who possessed positive self-images.

Wormith (1984) suggested that without positive changes in other areas (e.g. skill development, pro-social attitudes) increase in self-esteem could be detrimental to offenders after release.

Research project reported by Bryson, Groves and Lengfelder (1992) illustrates the perception of many correctional program designers regarding offender self-esteem. They examined the differential correlations between participation in various types of recreational activity (e.g. cards, weight-lifting,
jogging, horseshoes, religious activities etc.) and prisoner self-esteem. Although
difficult to interpret, a sample of their findings suggested that for felony offenders
participating in billiards, competitive weightlifting, horseshoes, basketball and
religious services were positively related to self-esteem while card playing was
negatively correlated.

_Gendreau, Little and Goggin (1996)_ and _Hanson and Bussiere (1996)_ reviewed a large number of studies which examined the link between recidivism
and found that this construct is not a major predictor of criminal behaviour.

_Short, Sandler & Roosa (1996)_ studied adolescents’ perceptions of social
support and the role of esteem enhancing and esteem threatening relationships to
investigate the relations among life stress, perceived social support, and
psychological symptoms. The findings suggested that esteem enhancement and
esteem threat processes may help explain the differential effects of social support
on adolescents’ psychological adjustment.

The above quoted studies indicate that offenders had low self-esteem and
offenders with positive self-image gained more with treatment with reduced
reconnections. Further, self-esteem was negatively correlated with recidivism.

### 3.3. SELF-ESTEEM AND ASSERTIVENESS

Assertiveness is the ability to express one’s emotional feelings without
hurting other’s feelings and standing up for one’s rights without violating the rights
of others.

_Petrie and Rotheram (1982)_ conducted a study on “Insulators against stress,
self-esteem and assertiveness”. Findings of the study were that self-esteem and
assertiveness were significantly and inversely related to stress, with assertiveness
contributing to self-esteem and self-esteem being directly related to stress.

_Sahiner (1994)_ studied the relationship between assertiveness, self-concept
and self-esteem and the effect of gender on assertiveness. Correlation coefficient
results indicated a negative relationship between assertiveness and self-concept,
between assertiveness and dominance, depression, and social potency, whereas a positive relationship was found between assertiveness and social resonance. No significant relationship was found between assertiveness and self-control. Also, t-test results revealed that there was no significant sex difference in students’ assertiveness.

*Sudha and Lakkamma* (1994) took sample of 200 (100 boys and 100 girls) students of standard X of rural and urban school of Bangalore District to study their “assertive communication in relation to their self esteem and socio economic status”. The findings of the study were: 1) The effect of sex on the assertive communication of standard X students was significant in favour of girls. 2) The urban and rural community on the assertive communication did not differ. 3) The effect of self-esteem on assertive communication indicated that it did not effect the assertive communication of students significantly different from one another.

The above quoted studies show that self esteem and assertiveness are significantly related to stress. Further, assertiveness contributes to self-esteem and self-esteem is directly related to stress. Also, assertiveness and self-concept, assertiveness and dominance, depression and social potency are negatively related whereas assertiveness and self-control are positively related. Further, the research work in this area suggests that girls communicate more assertively than boys. In addition, students from different social economic status do not differ on assertive communication.

### 3.4. ASSERTIVENESS AND GENDER

*Rebecca* (2002) studied the perception of assertiveness as a function of tag questions. The use of tag questions and how they affect the assertiveness of speakers was tested. A main effect of tag questions upon the assertiveness of the speaker was found such that tag questions significantly lowered the assertiveness attributed to the speaker, without regard to gender of participant.

*Mast, Hall, Murph and Colvin* (2003) investigated whether the personality trait of assertiveness can be judged accurately, which cues are used to judge
assertiveness, and how cue utilization is related to accuracy. They found that perceivers used different cues to judge assertiveness (cue utilization), perceived assertiveness was correlated with each of the behavioral cues across targets. Also, accuracy of judging assertiveness was achieved by using somewhat different cues for male and female targets.

Onyeizugbo (2003) investigated effects of gender, age and education on assertiveness in a Nigerian sample of 214 married persons, 101 men and 113 women aged 20-60, with at least high school education on Assertive Behavior Assessment scale to measure assertiveness and found that people with higher educational attainment have more assertiveness than persons with lower educational attainment. In addition, interactions between gender and age, gender and educational attainment were found. Younger men reported more assertiveness than younger women whereas older women reported more assertiveness than older men.

Research on assertiveness revealed that accuracy of judging assertiveness can be achieved by using somewhat different cues for male and female targets. Further assertiveness is directly related with educational attainment as people with higher educational attainment have higher level of assertiveness as compared to people with lower educational attainment. Also, younger men are more assertive than younger women and older women are more assertive than older men.

3.5. ASSERTIVENESS AND OFFENSIVE BEHAVIOUR

Keltner and Marshall (1976) conducted a study using a sample of federal prisoners. They developed a series of measures based on role-plays and responses to vignettes. The content of the role-plays and exercises were designed specifically to reflect the types of problems and situations encountered by inmates and typical circumstances that offenders might encounter in the community. They attempted to measure both “under-assertiveness” and “over-assertiveness” (i.e., inappropriate assertive responses). They found that most inmates (80%) supplied a mixture of both under and overassertive responses. However, the authors noted that generally,
inmates tended to show a predominance of under-assertiveness as measured by the various instruments that were developed. While this study provided a descriptive account of assertiveness among federal inmates, no comparisons were made with non-offender subjects. An interesting finding was that inmates who had high self-reported “social fear” scores, also tended to be classified as “over-assertive”.

In a study conducted by Quinsey, Maguire and Varney (1983), role-play assertiveness was assessed among inmates in a forensic psychiatric facility and compared with assessments completed for community control subjects. The community control subjects exhibited higher levels of assertiveness than the offender subjects.

Segal and Marshall (1985) compared assertiveness in five categories of men including incarcerated rapists, child-molesters, non-sex offenders, and two groups of non-incarcerated men including low and high socio economic status subjects. The incarcerated offenders were all drawn from a maximum-security population of federal offenders. They used a self-report assertiveness questionnaire as well as role-play exercises used to rate levels of subject assertiveness by judges. The latter measure was based on measurement technology developed in a series of studies by Marshall and his colleagues who examined assertiveness among offenders (e.g., Keltner and Marshall, 1976). There were no differences observed between the groups on the role-play measures. However, incarcerated men exhibited significantly lower assertiveness than the non-incarcerated men on the self-report scale. High socio economic status men showed the highest levels of assertiveness of all of the groups included in the study. In addition, child molesters had lower scores on the self-report assertiveness measure when compared with the rapists and non-sex offenders.

Further, research on assertiveness revealed that inmates with high “social fear” were found to be “over-assertive”, incarcerated men exhibited lower assertiveness than the non-incarcerated men, high socio economic status men showed the highest levels of assertiveness and community control subjects were more assertive than offender subjects.
3.6. LOCUS OF CONTROL AND HEALTH

Joe (1971) reports the contamination of the notion of locus of control as a distinct and independent construct with other effects of this sort in research unconnected with health concerns. It is more natural to think of the construct as being part of the subject’s self-concept and which may both affect it and be affected by it.

From the research summarized by Phares (1976), relating to I-E to a wide variety of behaviors, a distinct picture of the internal as compared to external people emerges. The internal person is more likely to be receptive to aspects of health care like giving up smoking, taking exercises etc. Their desire for self-determination is reflected in their greater resistance to social influence and attempted attitude change. In part, this behavior is a result of the internals’ superior knowledge, since they are characterized by their effort to seek out information, which enables them to extend greater control over their environment.

Shute et al. (1984), Skinner et al. (1998), and Weisz & Stipek (1982) have reported that locus of control orientation during childhood to be more external than locus of control orientation during adolescence and adulthood. Subsequently, locus of control orientation during adolescence tends to be more internal than children and children tend to be more external than adults. Additionally, internal locus of control has been found to be related to abstract cognitive reasoning while external locus of control is related to concrete cognitive reasoning.

Investigations of “internality-externality” have established that it is a useful and valid way of classifying students in terms of how they attribute the rewards and reinforcements they receive following their actions and behaviors (Dweck, 1986). Such investigations may be especially important for females. Evidence suggests that, in American schools, males have the tendency to make more external attributions for failure than females. “American girls are more likely to blame themselves, attributing failure to lack of intelligence or ability. When the boy does
well, however, he will often attribute his success to a personal trait” (Cushner, McClelland & Safford, 1992).

Research studies in this area suggested that locus of control is the construct of subject’s self-concept and both affect each other. Internal person is more likely to be receptive to aspects of health care like giving up smoking, taking exercises and have greater control over their environment.

3.7. SELF ESTEEM, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ASSERTIVENESS

Mc Combs (1991) has clearly exhibited that people with internal locus of control are expected to be well adjusted in life as compared to people with external locus of control. Internals tend to have high self-esteem and high level of assertiveness as compared to externals.

Binnur (1997) conducted a longitudinal research on the self-esteem, assertiveness and locus of control and characteristics of university students (Gazi University) who entered the university in the 1993-94 academic year. The first research data collected was measured at the end of their university orientation period. The investigator carried out the second measurement before their graduation day in the 1996-97 academic year. The research data was analyzed by the application of ‘t-test’ in the dependent groups and the research findings indicated that the statistically significant development came into being in the student’s self-esteem, assertiveness and locus of control by the university education.

3.8. TEACHING BEHAVIOUR, LOCUS OF CONTROL, SELF-ESTEEM AND ASSERTIVENESS

Cash (1983) examined the relationship between the degree of internality and externality of counsellors and rating of their counseling abilities. 30 subjects were taken from the graduate course of study in counselling. The hypothesis that the internally oriented counsellors would be rated higher in their counselling abilities was not significantly supported by the obtained data.
Sabesan and Raghavan (1995) studied “self-esteem in higher secondary school teachers”. The sample of the study comprised 395 higher secondary school teachers, including male and female and found that the difference between the means of self-esteem scores of arts and science teachers was significant in favour of science teachers. No significant difference was found in self-esteem of male and female teachers, government and private (aided) school teachers, and urban and rural school teachers.

Valencic et al. (2005) examined the predictive power of teachers’ self-reported temperament (extroversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism) with regard to student perceptions of the teachers’ communication in the classroom (assertiveness, responsiveness, and nonverbal immediacy). The results indicated that increased extroversion reported by the teachers was associated with increased perceived assertiveness and nonverbal immediacy by the students.

The above-mentioned studies indicate that student teachers with internal locus of control scored significantly higher on a competency measure. Further, Science school teachers possessed higher self-esteem than Arts teachers.

3.9. EFFICACY OF ASSERTIVE TRAINING

Friedman (1968) researched a parallel question and found that rehearsal plus modeling was more effective than either strategy alone in counselling non-assertive college students.

The overall strategy of assertiveness training has been used for a variety of adult concerns. It has been used as a vehicle to help women adjust to their changing roles in society by Jakubowski (1973). Hartsook, Olch and de Wolf (1976) used it to allay social anxieties. Bloomfield (1973) used it with children and Edwards (1972) used it to modify sexual behaviour. Several research studies with non-assertive college students have reported significant gains in overall assertiveness. (Hedguist and Weinhold, 1990; Ratus, 1972, 1973; Zeiger, 1973).
Mcfall and Twentyman (1973) compared the effectiveness of rehearsal, modeling and coaching and reported that modeling contributed very little toward helping the non-assertive college students to learn assertive behaviour and refuse unreasonable requests in the laboratory setting.

A few research studies have compared the relative efficiency of the various treatment ingredients inherent in most assertiveness training. The findings have been somewhat surprising. A study by Young, Rimm and Kennedy (1973) conducted an experimental investigation of modeling and verbal reinforcement in the modification of assertive behaviours and reported that reinforcement plus modeling and modeling alone both were equally effective.

Anderson et al. (1976) in three of the relatively few studies of assertiveness training with children and adolescents reported that significant gains in assertiveness were obtained on a self-report scale, a teacher observation checklist, and a role-playing test.

Lundquist and Parr (1978) conducted a study of assertiveness training with adolescents. Their findings confirmed that the three areas of need in the secondary schools are talking to parents, teachers and authority figures; talking to the opposite sex and refusing unreasonable requests. The basic skills of assertive expression, of saying yes and no and making simple requests can begin much earlier than the secondary grades. As the backbone of an effective education curriculum they may be trained directly and taught.

Many programs have been described which include assertiveness as a component within a series of social skills modules e.g., Cheek and Baker (1977), Marshall, Keltner and Marshall (1981), Marshall, Turner and Barbaree (1990) and such programs have provided evidence of increase in assertiveness skills among adult inmate participants. Assertiveness skills have also frequently been mentioned as major targets of treatment within programs designed for sex offenders (e.g., Keltner, Scharf and Schell, 1978; Lee et al. 1996). Again, these programs have
shown gains in assertiveness made by sex offenders over the treatment administration period.

Research by Mink (1991) on the efficacy of assertiveness to a traditional health instructional course for college students has indicated that while assertiveness training had been effective in improving the interpersonal communication skills of various groups, investigation of the impact of such training as part of a health instruction program for college men and women had taken place. A brief summary of major findings included the following: (1) There was no significant difference in degree of assertiveness when comparing the post-test to the pre-test for the assertiveness training, health instruction, and control groups. (2) There was no significant difference in internal health, locus of control when comparing the post-test to the pre-test for any of the groups. (3) There was no significant difference in self-esteem when comparing the post-test to the pre-test for the three groups.

Pillay (1995) studied the effect of individualized training programme on communication skills, and certain associated variables in the mentally retarded and found that the educable mentally retarded group had significantly higher scores than the trainable mentally retarded children for oral reading and writing skills and motor and socio-emotional skills. Further, the experimental groups had significantly higher scores than the control groups in post-test, with the sub-groups-educable mentally retarded, early intervention and late intervention groups in oral reading, writing skills and motor and socio-emotional skills. The effect of individualized training programme in early intervention group was higher than the late intervention group in oral, reading, writing, motor and socio-emotional skills.

Peerawankul (1998) studied the effect of interpersonal communication skill training on self-esteem of male youths in Child Welfare Institution. The findings revealed that mean score of self-esteem of experimental group after experiment was significantly higher than the score before the experiment (p < .05) and after the experiment the mean score of the experiment group was significantly higher than the mean score of the control group (p <.05).
Pathak (1999) studied the efficacy of models of teaching for improving concept attainment memory and self-assertiveness of slow learners and found that the Assertiveness Training Model was effectively used to facilitate interpersonal communication thereby reducing stress and anxiety in social situations. Modeling and rehearsing techniques were found to be effective in making the students assertive.

Firth (2001) studied the effect of an assertiveness programme on locus of control of students with specific learning difficulties and found evidence that self-regulation and internal locus of control is conducive to academic and other success and is an important element in prognosis for students with specific learning difficulties.

Gupta et al. (2002) studied the effect of different techniques of assertiveness training on students’ self-concept and found that assertiveness training enhanced the level of self-concept of students and that counselling technique is the most effective technique in enhancement of the level of self-concept of students.

Hastings (2003) investigated the social context of escalation in response to continued pushy behaviour in the workplace by developing communication skills by investigating the entire context of skills required for effective communication in managing everyday conflict in the workplace. The study highlighted the difference between rule based and typical behaviour, with typical behaviour generally being more direct and blunt, and explored reasons for this difference. The results of this research have implications for both the theory and practice of effective communication and effective communication training. The social rules for escalation in response to continued pushy behaviour from a male manager may indicate that it is most effective for a female subordinate to acquiesce. However, the female subordinate may choose to violate social rules and risk being perceived as inappropriate and damaging the relationship to achieve a super-ordinate goal or for personal satisfaction. Conversely, the results of this research have implications for professional effectiveness in the workplace, providing guidelines in the form of social rules and suggested responses for dealing with dominating behaviour.
Shimizu et al. (2004) studied relationship between self-esteem and assertiveness training among Japanese hospital nurses and found that Assertiveness training had the potential to improve self-esteem among Japanese hospital nurses.

The research work quoted above so far with regard to the effectiveness of assertive training reveals that assertive training has improved interpersonal communication skills, self esteem, self concept, internal locus of control, spontaneity, adaptability, credibility and moral values. Also rehearsal plus modeling was found to be more effective than either strategy in counselling non-assertive college students.