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REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to critically examine the theoretical knowledge and ideas to date that are related to the variables included in the present study, namely, personality, self-concept and mental health among male and female, Iranian and Indian internet addicted and non-internet addicted students.

2.2 INTERNET ADDICTION AND PERSONALITY

According to Gustvsson, Johnson, Linder, & Weinryb (2003) personality have an important role in development of disorders. It can cause some diseases indirectly by establishing unpleasant behaviors like smoking, internet addiction and so on. Some study reported personality characteristics that have most frequently been associated with the development of Internet addiction are shyness, low self-esteem, and lack of emotional and social skills (Armstrong, 2000; Chak & Leung, 2004; Jenaro, 2007; Yang & Tung, 2007; Xiao, Su, Gao, Cao, 2007). Gombor and Vas (2008) studied 300 medical students out of which 150 were Polish (75 men and 75 women) and 150 were Israeli (75 men and 75 women) and reported that personality features has an important effect on the use of internet. They found positive relationship between extroversion and radical use of internet in Israeli men.

The results of a research carried out by Kunimura and Thomas (2000) shown that there is meaningful and positive relation between mental suffering and internet addiction. Kunimura also found negative relationship between extroversion and internet addiction.

Landers & Lounsbury (2006) found that total Internet usage was negatively related to three of the Big Five traits such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion. Furthermore, research results of the study by Davis Research (2004), Lee and Chang (2004), Rasmussen (2000), Babington (2000), Benjamin and Joshua
Ferraro (1999), Yang (1996) showed that those who are internet addicts obtain lower scores in being conscientious index. (Analysis showed a significant difference between the two groups of addicted and non-addicted in conscientiousness index). These studies showed that high levels of wasting time, lack of restraint, disorder and using drugs in internet addicts. One of the obvious signs of internet addiction is lack of restraint and wasting long time (Yang, 1996).

The results of Suresh Kumar & Sayadevi (2009) indicates that among the 100 Indian students 70% of the sample could be classified as average internet users, 27% as problem over-users and 3% as pathologically addicted to the internet. The type of student’s internet usage was chatting (42%), e-mailing (30%), Academic work (13%), Cybersex (5%), Gaming (3%) and other applications (7%).

Goldberg (1981) believes that Personality traits show people’s personality at the widest theoretical level, and these traits are unique in themselves. In order to investigate the relationship between personality factors and Internet use, one should look at the association between different Internet needs and personality. For example, Levin & Stokes (1986) represented that extroverts tend to have stronger needs for communication and therefore, use of the Internet mostly as a communication tool. Based on the aforementioned experts, the social network theory states that personality is influencing a person’s social behavior and motivation when interacting with others.

On the other hand, Shaffer & Hall (2005) shows that people who score high on neuroticism are more likely to have feelings of guilt and to be tense and anxious, compared to those who are low on neuroticism. Therefore, it can be supposed that those who are high on neuroticism may be especially tended to use the net for getting release from nervousness and anxiety. According to Rainie & Kohut (2000) the people who are predominantly neurotic are more likely to use specific kinds of media for killing time and relaxation incentives.

On the other hand, according to Shaffer & Hall (2005) people who score high on extraversion are less likely to use the media as a substitute for interpersonal communication. This idea suggests that extraversion would be negatively associated with media motives, which are a replacement for interpersonal interaction. The concept of extraversion would then suggest that this trait would instead be associated
with media motives, which have an interactional characteristic such as the social utility motive. Media motives would be interesting for people who are high on extraversion, because different motives for media may provide a means by which a person can communicate with other people or give information, which can increase personal relationships. Shaffer & Hall (2005) also found that people high on extraversion and people with more social support were the ones who benefited the most from Internet use.

Through a quick review of the literature, one can clearly see that there are different motives for using internet and Internet is used differently by different personality types (Amiel, 2006). However, the results of previous traditional and new media studies have been encouraging but a few studies have been conducted in the field of Internet use and personality. The results of studies by Brenner (1997) show that extraverts are more likely to surf the Internet as an expansion and not as a replacement for social communication, since extraverted people are more sociable and more externally oriented. On the other hand, in a group of Israeli college students, Hamburger & Ben-Artzi (2000) investigated the relationship between different kinds of Internet users and extraversion, and neuroticism. They suggested that neuroticism is characterized by anxiety and rejection of social interaction, and proposed that neuroticism is also connected with necessity to use the Internet for social purposes, like chat, e-mail, and other interpersonal communication tools.

Besides, Hamburger & Ben-Artzi (2000) also predicted that neurotics using the Internet for information-seeking purposes. These authors found that male extraverts used the net for various free time activities (e.g., visiting sex web-sites, casual surfing) and male neurotic used the Internet for information-searching goals (e.g., searching information related to work or studies). For female extraverts, a negative relationship between their personality type and Internet usage was reported, and for female neurotic a positive relationship between application of the net for social purposes (e.g., chatting, discussion groups) and personality type was reported. The findings are interesting as they confirm earlier studies which have shown that females have higher self-awareness and they tend mostly to use the social network for support (Leana & Feldman, 1991; Ptacek, Smith & Dodge, 1994). According to Hamburger and Ben-Artzi (2000) it is, however, proposed that neurotic men also
come to realize that the social services of the Internet can accomplish their social requirements due to the sheltered environment of the Internet which permits them to express themselves unconditionally. Extraverted males and females and non-neurotic Internet users did not show to prefer the Internet as a social tool as they do not have problems in their social interactions.

The survey of the college students' self-reported Internet use revealed a new pattern of results. Based on the findings of Tuten and Bosnjak (2001) only two personality traits of openness to experience and neuroticism from the Big Five Inventory (John et al, 1984) were related to the use of Internet. A negative relationship between general Internet usage and neuroticism was reported. On the other hand, Openness to experience and Internet usages like entertainment and information seeking purposes were shown to be positively related to each other. Landers & Lounsbury (2006) in a study on the relationship between the remaining factors of the Big Five Inventory and the usage of the Internet for 117 undergraduate students found connections between these variables. Results showed that three of the Big Five traits such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion were negatively related to total Internet usage.

The field of personality and Internet motives is in its kindergarten shoes and a limited amount of research has been done in this field. It is a fact that psychological dimensions of personality and social circumstances influence the behaviour and motives of human beings (Rubin, 1994), and more research has to be done by connecting the Big Five factors to motivations for Internet use patterns. Opposite of what has been mentioned so far also negative relationship between the Internet use and personality has been reported. Engelberg & Sjöberg (2004) made a study about the Big Five personality dimensions and Internet use but they did not find a link between personality and Internet usage.

Risk taking behavior also appears to be related to internet addiction. Ko et al (2005) found that in their study of Taiwan high school students that Internet addicts scored higher on novelty seeking harm avoidance and lower on reward dependence compared to non-Internet addicts. Among these, novelty seeking was the strongest predictor of Internet addiction. Similarly, a study among high school students in
China found that boredom susceptibility and sensation seeking is positively correlated to internet addiction (Shi, Zhou, & Ge, 2005).

Another common personality characteristic that is associated with internet addiction is coping style. Studies in China have revealed that adolescents who are addicted to the internet also adopt negative coping styles such as fantasy or retreat, rather than rational or problem solving approaches (Liu, 2007; Zhang & Yang, 2006).

Tuten and Bosnjak (2001) and Correa et al. (2010) have reported that low openness to experience is related to internet dependency. People who are have been addictive behaviors, begun to social neglect their work and social life, to lose their self control and to substitute the real world with the online space and believe that their life outside the net is empty and joyless.

Studying the factors fostering internet addiction and its prevention strategies seems to be necessary. Especially we should study about whether all individuals get internet addiction equally or some personality types have more readiness to be affected. Personality includes those characteristics of a person or some individuals which consist of fixed thought, emotion and behavioral patterns (Parvin, 2002). Some authors believe that internet users' personality is the main factor in addiction emergence or dependency on computers.

Hamburger & Artzi (2000) state the personal differences in 5 personality factors as one of effective factors in internet addiction and indicate that psychological behavioral disorder is one of personal characteristics, which precludes using internet especially among women and they express that those women who are introvert and shy establish social relations through internet. Kaplan (1993) stated that shy people and those who have lower self-esteem achieve their social benefits through internet. In personality type A, some characteristics are seen as follows: fast and rapidity, sever taste and nervousness, being extremists in lifestyle, often stressed, impatient and competitiveness (Aboghaddareh, 1996) which differentiates it from type B personality.

Griffiths & Doncaster (1995) reported about computer games, that people with personality type A show a higher inspiration level than type B. This may cause the people of personality type A to have more readiness for computer games' addiction. Hills & Argyle (2003) and Humberger & Artzi (2000) have done
researches about five personality dimensions and their relationship with internet addiction. In women, psychological disorders are related to using internet positively and in men, there is a positive relationship between being extrovert and using internet (Humburger & Artzi, 2000). Hills & Argyle (2003) stated that there is a meaningful relationship between using internet and psychological disorders. According to Kakabaraii and Davari (2007) female Internet usage was negatively related to three of the Big Five traits such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion. Also he found male Internet usage was negatively related to four of the Big Five traits such as neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extraversion.

According to Baradarian and Jahanikia (2005) internet addicted person (In Iran) had lower level of emotional intelligence and mental health than normal individuals. There was significant relation between emotional intelligence mental health in internet addicted and normal individuals.

2.3 INTERNET ADDICTION AND SELF-CONCEPT


Armstrong, Phillips and Saling (2000) investigated the extent to which sensation seeking and low self-esteem predicted heavier Internet use, using the Internet Related Problem Scale (IRPS). The IRPS is a 20-item scale, covering factors such as tolerance, craving, and negative impacts of Internet use. Results indicated that self-esteem was a better predictor of Internet Addiction compared to impulsivity.

Moreover, Armstrong et al. (2000) maintained that the 20-items indicated nine different symptoms without any statistical evidence. It would be interesting to investigate whether the items really did measure the symptoms they claimed to. Other studies have looked at the relationship between Internet addiction and self-esteem (e.g., Widyanto & McMurran, 2004), but again the very low sample sizes make it hard to generalize findings.
Lavin, Marvin, McLarney, Nola and Scott (1999) also tested sensation-seeking and Internet dependence in college students. Dependents had a lower score on the Sensation Seeking Scale, which contradicted their hypothesis. The authors explained by stating the dependents tended to be sociable in their Internet usage but not to the point of sensation seeking, as it differed from the traditional concept.

Stieger & Burger (2010) found that people suffering from some clinical disorders (e.g., bulimia nervosa, depression) possess low explicit (i.e., conscious, deliberate) self-concept while at the same time displaying high implicit (i.e., unconscious, automatic) self-concept. This phenomenon has been termed damaged self-esteem and was proposed to be an indicator of psychological distress. Although Internet addiction has been found to be associated with low levels of explicit self-esteem, as well as with high levels of psychological distress, its relation to implicit self-esteem has, to our knowledge, not been investigated thus far. Therefore the phenomenon of damaged self-concept could also be found amongst people suffering from Internet addiction, and conducted two studies using the Initial Preference Task as a measure of implicit self-esteem. As expected, we found that individuals scoring high on Internet addiction possess low explicit and high implicit self-concept.

2.4 INTERNET ADDICTION AND MENTAL HEALTH

Users who spend a significant amount of time online often experience academic, relationship, financial, and occupational difficulties, as well as physical impairments (Chou, et al, 2005). Some researchers (Brenner, 1997; Nie & Erbring, 2000) have even linked internet use with an increase in psychological difficulties such as depression and loneliness.

The use of internet addiction is showing its impact on different domains of individuals’ life. The effects are showing its impact on interpersonal, family, social and occupational life. Moreover it is on psychological and physical well being. This is the reason why term ‘cyberwidow’ is being used. It means neglect the partners out of internet addiction. Internet addiction is showing its negative impact on adademic performance (Murphey, 1996; Scherer, 1997); work place and on social aspects such as feelings on loneliness (Kraut et.al. 2002), frustration (Clark et al, 2004) and depression (Young and Roger, 1998). Some addicts spent very long hours on the
internet also experience physical problems such as fatigue related to sleep deprivation, backache and carpal and radial tunnel syndromes.

According to Tovar and Fabian (2001), Internet addicted people see the world of computers more attractive than the reality of their daily lives. In addition, a shy person who has the power to assert himself/herself in the outside community can make for himself/herself a virtual identity in a virtual environment and be in contact with different people in different ways to communicate. Thus, internet is a way to escape or relieve feelings of helplessness, anxiety and depression. A patient who cannot establish or maintain a positive relationship in the real world can communicate effectively in the virtual world with virtual identity that makes for himself/herself. Furthermore, when he/she received the first reinforcement, he/she will continue this trend (Aorzak, 2001). So, low rate of mental health in internet addicted users in comparisons with others is justifiable and decisive because of their specific personality structure and introversion tendencies and withdrawal.

Many of these characteristics are the same ones that have been shown to put individuals at high risk for other psychological problems or disorders such as depression (Young, 1998). It has been suggested that the Internet may provide a safe haven and be used to decrease a perceived deficit in their real life social interactions due to the anonymity and lack of face-to-face interaction (Campbell et al., 2006).

The research findings by Nastizai (2009) showed a relationship between Internet addiction and general health. Taking into account the reversed scoring of general health, it can be assumed that as the individual's addiction to Internet increases, his general health would decrease. The findings of the first assumption was in accordance with the findings of Kim et al(2006) and Kraut et al(2002) Considering the changes Internet addiction causes in a person's life, such as making difference in lifestyle in order to expend more time on the Internet, a general decrease in physical activity, neglecting the health status as a result of Internet abuse, avoiding significant activities of life in order to have more time for Internet application, reduced social relationships, and neglecting the family and friends,( Tsitsika, Critselis, Kormas, Filippopoulou, Tounissidou Freskou. 2009) it seems that Internet addiction is related to depression.
According to the research by Shahbazzadegan (2011), Kim and et al (2006), Ko, Yen, Yen, Chen & Chen (2012) has shown that there is a positive relationship between internet addiction and mental health. Van Gelder (2005) in his research on university students found that people who are prone to the Internet addiction, are easily tired and dejected. They are alone, bashful and shy, while having low quality of life and suffering from depression and other types of problems. In another research, shows that, the dispread of internet addiction between Iranian students is up to 8.3 percent and also student who they are addicted to the net are more alone and their self esteem are lower than the normal users. Some studies have been reported Hardie (2007) and Gombor (2008) positive relationship between internet dependency and neuroticism.

Mitchel et al. (2008) found that excessive use of the Internet on students lead to have suffered from physical and psychological problems, their happiness and positive thought reduce and have academic problems. Shahbazzadegan et al. (2011) in their research showed that there is a significant difference between internet users and non users in mental health and aggression.

Some researchers (Davood Abadi, 2005; Yellowlees & Marks, 2005), studied the relationship between internet addiction and mental health and the results showed that the addicted people have less mental health in comparison to the non-addicts. Anxiety is one of the disorders which most addicts seeking for recovery, were suffering when they referred to consulting service renders and psychologists. The bio-cognitive theory considers anxiety as an illness and identifies 4 probable causes for that as follows: microbes, genes, biochemical life of the patient and nerve system autopsy. The dynamic mind theory refers to the conflict between a variety of personality processes in creating anxiety and cognitive theory considers anxiety disorders as the result of incorrect thoughts and beliefs unreal and illogic. The humanism and existence originality theory believes that an environment which blocks the human intentions to step for realization can increase anxiety in an individual (Azad, 1995). In social theory, the mental and anxiety state is not considered as an important health problem or a personal defect, but it is considered as the result of the person's inability in effective resistance against mental pressures (Azad, 1995).

Internet addiction can be dangerous for those with mental health. A person who may not participate in actions like secretive sexual affairs or stalking in the real
world may perform these behaviors on the Internet because of the anonymity provided by internet. According to Morahan-Martin (2005) internet may provide a less aggressive way to express behaviors that one may not have done in the real world. The findings of a research, on 113 female students in Loyola Marymount University, conducted by Kunimura and Thomas (2000) show that there is a significant relationship between mental health and internet addiction.

Boase, Horrigan, Wellman & Rainie (2006) reported meaningful differences between the addicted and non addicted internet groups for Obsessive-Compulsive symptoms. The Addicted group has Obsessive-Compulsive symptoms more than non-addicted internet group. Because addicted internet group need longer amounts of time online, repeated attempts to reduce internet use would fail when internet use is reduced. Time management issues, environmental distress (family, school, work, and friends) and deception around time spent online mood changes through Internet use. These subjects replied “yes” to 5 or more criteria as Obsessive-Compulsive. Regarding hostility, the researcher found significant differences between the addicted and non addicted internet groups.

Engelberg and Sjoberg (2004) showed that students who use internet six hours a day generally report more psychiatric symptoms, compared to students who did not. The main goal of this study was to investigate the relationships between addicted internet and Psychiatric Symptoms. This study found significant relationships between the daily internet use and the degree of psychiatric symptoms such as depression, obsessive compulsion, interpersonal sensitivity, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation and psychoticism. Daily internet usage time is more Psychiatric Symptoms occur in. Young and Rodgers (1998) reported that the average Internet use among problematic Internet users is 38.5 hours a week and among healthy users is 4.9 hours a week. Students who use the internet of hours per a day cannot bring responsibilities such as academic problems and social isolation owing to excessive use of the Internet.

Kraut and his colleagues (1998) investigated the impact of internet on individuals and they inserted that greater use of the Internet was associated with negative effects on individuals, like a diminishing social circle, and increasing depression and loneliness.
Many other quantitative studies also confirmed that loneliness was associated with increased Internet use (Kraut et al., 1998; Lavin, Marvin, McLarney, Nola & Scott, 1999; Nie & Erbring, 2000; Stoll, 1995; Turkle, 1996). Other studies like (Widyanto & McMurran 2004; Yao-Guo, Lin-Yan & Feng-Lin 2006; Whitty & McLaughlin, 2007) report that Internet use may be beneficial when kept to normal levels, however high levels of internet use which interfere with daily life have been linked to a range of problems, including decreased psychosocial well-being, relationship breakdown.

Many studies have focused on this alternative view to examine whether lonely people access the Internet to improve their psychological well-being. As a case, Hamburger and Ben-Artzi (2003) demonstrated that Internet use, as a function of trait variables, can decrease loneliness among users.

According to Shaw and Gant (2002), increased Internet usage was linked with increased levels of social support and self-esteem and decreased levels of loneliness and depression. Internet activities are also known to provide support, information and opportunities for social connection to marginalized and socially isolated groups such as same-sex attracted young people (Hillier & Harrison 2007), parents of disabled children (Blackburn & Read 2005), people with social anxiety (Campbell, Cumming & Hughes 2006).

Health psychology is one of the youngest major scientific disciplines, which is nearly 25 years old. Of course, it is originated from the fields of medical sociology, medical anthropology, public health, social; personality and experimental psychology, psychosomatic medicine, physiology and clinical medical psychology extend back to previous centuries. But according to Friedman (2002) until the late 1970s, there were no programs in health psychology, no professors employed in health psychology, and no professional societies or journals were in practice, now, everything has all changed. Thousands of psychologists are introducing the field, thousands of students study the field, and there are several scientific journals specifically focused on health psychology.

Rainie and Kohut (2000) identified significant relationships between the degree of psychiatric symptoms and the severity of Internet addiction. Addicted
Internet use was significantly correlated with psychiatric symptoms. Psychologists and educators are aware of the potential negative impact of addicted use and related physical and psychological problems. Users who spend a significant amount of time online often experience academic, relational, economic, and occupational problems, as well as physical disorders.

In a study by Rainie & Kohut (2000), results revealed that students who use internet six hours a day generally report more psychiatric symptoms. Addicted and non-addicted Internet users displayed significant differences in interpersonal relationships. Individuals with addiction internet experience a sense of criticism by others, coyness and a sense of uneasiness against gender. Hur (2006) reported meaningful variation between the addicted and non-addicted internet groups for Obsessive-Compulsive symptoms. Addicted internet group have Obsessive-Compulsive symptoms more than non-addicted internet group.

Internet addicted showed an increase in psychological difficulties such as depression and loneliness. Addicted users were more probable to be depressed than non-addicted Internet users. The study of Dehghani, M. (2009) showed that addicts used the Internet more often when they were depressed than non-addicts.

In Caplan’s study (2003), the participants consisted of 386 undergraduates (279 females and 116 males), with the age ranging from 18 to 57 years old (mean age = 20 years). This study utilized the Generalized Problematic Internet Use Scale (GPIUS). Caplan (2002) used a self-report assessing the prevalence of cognitive and behavioral symptoms of pathological Internet use along with the degree to which negative consequences affected the individuals. The GPIUS had seven subscales—mood alteration, perceived social benefits, perceived social control, withdrawal, compulsivity, excessive Internet use, and negative outcomes. Also included in this study were validated depression and loneliness scales. It was assigned that depression and loneliness were significant predictors of preference for online social interaction, accounting for 19% of the variance. In turn, participants’ preference for online social interaction was found to be a significant predictor of their scores on pathological Internet use and negative outcomes. The data also suggested that excessive use was one of the weakest predictors of negative outcomes whereas preference for online interaction, compulsive use, and withdrawal were among the strongest. Overall,
loneliness and depression were not found to have large, independent effects on negative outcomes.

Some of the specific researches conducted in this area include Shapira et al. (2000), who found that all 20 individuals identified as having Internet addiction also had at least one lifetime DSM-IV Axis I diagnosis. In another study, Black et al. (1999) found that nearly 50% of participants reporting compulsive computer use also met the diagnostic criteria for a psychological disorder, with the most commonly reported disorders being substance use (38%), mood disorders (33%), and anxiety disorders (19%). Young (1998) found that 54% of individuals identified as having Internet addiction also had diagnoses of depression and 34% had anxiety disorders. This was validated in a study among Beijing high school students that found that online game addiction was significantly correlated to depression (Qin, Rao & Zhong, 2007).

### 2.5 NATIONALITY AND PERSONALITY

Excessive internet use is a more common problem in Asia. Internet use in Asia has increased rapidly and has become a major part of daily life. However, the advancement of internet technology not only brings benefits, but also negative results. Of these negative aspects, excessive internet use is increasing dramatically. Internet addiction is called addiction disorder, pathological internet use, excessive internet use, and compulsive internet use (Kim, 2008).

The authors examined the interplay of personality and cultural factors in the prediction of the affective (hedonic balance) and the cognitive (life satisfaction) components of subjective well-being (SWB). They predicted that the influence of personality on life satisfaction is mediated by hedonic balance and that the relation between hedonic balance and life satisfaction is moderated by culture. As a consequence, they predicted that the influence of personality on life satisfaction is also moderated by culture. Participants from 2 individualistic cultures (United States, Germany) and 3 collectivistic cultures (Japan, Mexico, Ghana) completed measures of Extraversion, Neuroticism, hedonic balance, and life satisfaction. As predicted, Extraversion and Neuroticism influenced hedonic balance to the same degree in all cultures, and hedonic balance was a stronger predictor of life satisfaction in
individualistic than in collectivistic cultures. The influence of Extraversion and Neuroticism on life satisfaction was largely mediated by hedonic balance. The results suggest that the influence of personality on the emotional component of SWB is pan-cultural, whereas the influence of personality on the cognitive component of SWB is moderated by culture. (PsycINFO Database (Culture, personality, and subjective well-being: Integrating process models of life satisfaction (Schimmack, Radhakrishnan, Oishi, Dzokoto, & Ahadi, 2002).

Secondary analyses of Revised NEO Personality inventory data from 26 cultures suggest that gender differences are small relative to individual variation within genders; differences are replicated across cultures for both college-age and adult samples, and differences are broadly consistent with gender stereotypes: Women reported themselves to be higher in Neuroticism, Agreeableness, Warmth, and Openness to Feelings, whereas men were higher in Assertiveness and Openness to Ideas. Contrary to predictions from evolutionary theory, the magnitude of gender differences varied across cultures. Contrary to predictions from the social role model, gender differences were most pronounced in European and American cultures in which traditional sex roles are minimized. Possible explanations for this surprising finding are discussed, including the attribution of masculine and feminine behaviors to roles rather than traits in traditional cultures (Costa, Paul, Antonio & McCrae, 2001).

According to Navabakhsh & Fathi (2008), Marzabadi (2011) and Moulavi et al (2010) Indian subjects have been found to score higher than Iranian on Neuroticism as measured at the Big Five trait level, as well as on most facets of Neuroticism included in a common measure of the Big Five.

The results of the study by Mohammadi (2005) showed that there were significant negative correlations between neuroticism and satisfaction with nature of work, satisfaction with job in general, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with people, satisfaction with promotions, and satisfaction with supervisor among Iranian and Indian high school teachers. Also there were significant positive correlations between extraversion and satisfaction with people, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotions, satisfaction with supervisor, and satisfaction with nature of work in general among Iranian and Indian high school teachers. There were significant negative correlations between openness and satisfaction with people among Iranian and Indian high school teachers. But there were significant positive correlations between openness and satisfaction with promotions and satisfaction with work in general among Iranian and Indian high school teachers. There were significant positive correlations between agreeableness and satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotions, and satisfaction with work in general among Iranian and Indian high school teachers. Iranian teachers, compared to Indian teachers, were higher in job satisfaction, and there were different personality factors among Iranian and Indian teachers.

According to Taghavi (2001), Kakabaraii and Ravari (2007) internet addicted students in Iran had the high rate of neuroticism compared to the non-internet addicted. Internet addicted had high anxiety and instability of emotion. They had also low Extroversion low activity, reserved, shy, withdrawn attitude of people, low Openness to experience for example they was narrow and common interests. According to Taghavi (2001) and Kakabaraii and Ravari (2007) internet addicted students in Iran had low conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Suresh Kumar & Sayadevi (2009) reported positive relationship between neuroticism and internet addiction and negative relationship between extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness with internet addiction in Indian students. The results of Suresh Kumar & Sayadevi (2009) indicates that among the 100 students 70% of the sample could be classified as average internet users, 27% as problem over-users and 3% as pathologically addicted to the internet. The type of student’s internet usage was chatting (42%), e-mailing (30%), Academic work (13%), Cybersex (5%), Gaming (3%) and other applications (7%).
2.6 NATIONALITY AND SELF-CONCEPT

Furthermore, people’s self efficacy beliefs influence how much stress and depression, and anxiety they experience in threatening and difficult situations. Bandura (1999), maintained that efficacy beliefs regulate emotional status “by influencing how threats are cognitively perceived, by supporting coping actions that alter the threats, by exercising control over perturbing thought patterns, and by alleviating aversive affective states”.

A good and strong education plays an important role in creating an honorable society and molding the young generation to become useful citizens who could help in the economic, social, cultural and political development of the society. The country's National Educational Philosophy whose main aim is to humanize man should be given utmost priority in this matter. The NEP is also responsible in producing honorable behavior and a good and stable personality with a strong belief in the almighty God. In Iran and India, this is not a problem as the primary and secondary school curriculum is based on this philosophy (Kamaruddin, 1996).

According to Nasiri (2004) Iranian have a high self-concept compare to another part of Asia. Nademi and Rezvani (2006) found that Iranian students have a good academic self-concept between Asian countries. According to Mizan Adilliah et. al. (2000) Self-concept is the way an individual perceives himself and his potential to evaluate his strengths and weakness. According to Kamaruddin (1996), personality is how another individual perceives yourself and self-concept is your own perception of yourself.

Self-concept is formed through the social interaction of an individual with his or her environment. As a result of the interaction with significant people, mainly the family members, the personality and self-concept are formed. In view of this, the relationship between family members is important. The relationship and the role played by family members today differ from what is used to be in the yesteryears. This is due to the development in technology, industrialization and globalization. A family has a strong influence and effect on the development of a child. This is because a child spends more time among family members than he does in a school with friends and teachers (mohammadi, 2008).
According to Halimah and Kamariah (1993), the parents influence the development of the self-concept and personality of their children way before they step into schools. Children who do not have an acclaimed personality are a result of the family that does not fulfill their responsibility. Due to a lack of parental love and supervision, teenagers will retaliate and get involved in social ills such as free sex, co-habiting, smoking, drug abuse, illegal racing, robbing and many more. The social ills have spread so widely that it has become a national problem today.

This problem is mainly due to the weakness in the role played by the family members. As a result, the self-concept and personality of the children would be adversely affected. A young child is influenced by the interaction of individuals surrounding him or her. As a result of these interactions, a child will form its own attitude, self-concept and dimensions of personality. According to Fulmer (1972), self-concept is dependent on the interactions of an individual with the surroundings. The parents and the family members are the significant people at home. At the some places settlements, parents are busy working in the fields and as a result, their children are left to fend for themselves at home. Because of this, these children are neglected and often retaliate.

Williams and Best (1990) compared the self-concept of male and female in fourteen nation. In nations, like India and Malaysia where female are expected to stay at home in their roles as wives and mothers, female have the most negative most negative self-concepts, but in nations like England and Finland, where women are most active in the labor force and the status difference between women and men is less.

2.7 NATIONALITY AND MENTAL HEATH

According to Nordin, Talib and Yaacob, (2009) Indian students had higher levels of depression stress and anxiety as compared to Iranian students. Many factors might be responsible for these increased negative aspects among Indian students, where educationists, policy makers and others associated should plan proper remedial measures to counter the ill effects.
Carstairs and Kapur (1976) reported that in India, women have more psychiatric morbidity compared to their male counterparts. This higher rate is consistent for both urban and rural areas as well as across regions, religions and socio-economic classes. Depression is the most prevalent mental health problem among women in India as it is elsewhere (Carstairs and Kapur, 1976; Kapur and Shah 1992; Daver 1999). Rodes (2001) in a study analyzed gender differences found the gender differences in the overall prevalence of mental disorder within a reference period of one year. But women had more mood or anxiety disorders than men and men were characterized by more substance abuse and antisocial behavior. Men were also more likely to have a combination of both types of disorder.

Shejwal (1984) found among his Indian sample that people with high stress were more internally controlled, high on anxiety and high sensitizers than people with low stress. Cohen, Kessler and Gorden (1995) noted the effect of stress on psychological and physiological health. According to them environmental demands cause stress, which produce emotional disturbances, leading to disease (psychological and physical).

Agrawal and Naidu (1988), and Verma (1989) found that stress was positively related to depression and negatively to physical health among Indian middle-age women. It is also found that ambulance personnel are at risk to develop health symptoms due to work related stressors. Although, acute stressors are related to health symptoms, such as fatigue, burnout, and post-traumatic symptoms, it was not found to predict health symptoms in the long-term, among the ambulance personnel. Sharply, Christopher and others (1996) found that there was a significant positive correlation among job stress and anxiety, daily hassles and health. Verma (1989) also found that Indian women who scored high on General Health questionnaire for psychological distress, reported significantly more stressors in area of societal and family stress. They tended to resort to significantly more avoidance behavior such as self-blame, running away from home, returning to family of origin, and attempting suicide.

In south of Asia, according to statistics by the Ministry of Health (1996), the prevalence of mental health problems contributed into 10.7% of all illnesses. Mental health was found to be associated to gender, age, ethnicity, marital status,
employment, income, physical illness and disability. In 2001, another research conducted by the Ministry of Health found that this figure had increased to 18.8%.

Several studies, again from India, have sought to investigate the differentials in the fate of mentally ill men and women. Typically, when a woman becomes ill, her own family becomes responsible for her care (SCARF, 1998). Whereas wives are generally expected to be the primary caregivers should their husbands become mentally ill, married women who become mentally ill are either sent back to their parental homes, deserted or divorced (Davar, 1999). A study of mentally disabled women in India, all of whom had separated from their husbands, revealed that most returned to their parental homes. However, levels of anxiety among the women’s family members were considerable (SCARF, 1998).

The lack of any form of maintenance from former husbands, many of who subsequently remarried, served only to exacerbate the burden experienced by the career family. The negative attitudes of the husband, and especially the in-laws, were frequently cited as major contributors to the breakdown of the marriage. Various studies on maternal depression conducted in south Asia have demonstrated that both partner violence and the culturally-determined value placed on boys (as compared with girls) influence maternal mental health. In particular, three cohort studies from India and Pakistan have reported a greater risk for post-natal depression in mothers who have a girl child, especially if the desired sex was a boy or if the mother already had living girl children (Patel, Rodrigues & de Souza, 2001; Chandran et al., 2002; Rahman, Iqbal & Harrington, 2003).

2.8 GENDER DIFFERENCE IN PERSONALITY

According to Costa; Terracciano & McCrae (2001) Cross-cultural research has shown some patterns of gender differences on responses to the NEO-PI-R and the Big Five Inventory. For example, women consistently report higher Neuroticism, Agreeableness, warmth (an extraversion facet) and openness to feelings, and men often report higher assertiveness (a facet of extraversion) and openness to ideas as assessed by the NEO-PI-R.
Schmitt et al. (2008) with study of gender differences in 55 nations using the Big Five Inventory found that women tended to be somewhat higher than men in neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The difference in neuroticism was the most prominent and consistent, with significant differences found in 49 of the 55 nations surveyed. Gender differences in personality traits are largest in prosperous, healthy, and egalitarian cultures in which women have more opportunities that are equal to those of men. Differences in the magnitude of sex differences between more or less developed world regions were due to differences between men not women in these respective regions. That is, men in highly developed world regions were less neurotic, extraverted, conscientious and agreeable compared to men in less developed world regions. Women, on the other hand tended not to differ in personality traits across regions. The authors of this study speculated that resource poor environments (that is, countries with low levels of development) may inhibit the development of gender differences, whereas resource rich environments facilitate them. This may be because males require more resources than females in order to reach their full developmental potential. The authors argued that due to different evolutionary pressures, men may have evolved to be more risk taking and socially dominant, whereas women evolved to be more cautious and nurturant. Hunter-gatherer societies in which humans originally evolved may have been more egalitarian than later agriculturally oriented societies. Hence, the development of gender inequalities may have acted to constrain the development of gender differences in personality that originally evolved in hunter-gatherer societies. As modern societies have become more egalitarian again it may be that innate sex differences are no longer constrained and hence manifest more fully than in less developed cultures. Currently, this hypothesis remains untested, as gender differences in modern societies have not been compared with those in hunter-gatherer societies.

Gender differences in personality traits are often characterized in terms of which gender has higher scores on that trait, on average. For example, women are often found to be more agreeable than men (Feingold, 1994; Costa et al., 2001). This means that women, on average, are more nurturing, tender-minded, and altruistic more often and to a greater extent than men. However, such a finding does not preclude the fact that men may also experience nurturing, tender-minded, and
altruistic states, and that some men may even score higher in these traits than some women.

Women have been found to score higher than men on Neuroticism as measured at the Big Five trait level, as well as on most facets of Neuroticism included in a common measure of the Big Five, the NEO-PI-R (Costa et al., 2001). Additionally, women also score higher than men on related measures not designed specifically to measure the Big Five, such as indices of anxiety (Feingold, 1994) and low self-esteem (Kling et al., 1999). The one facet of Neuroticism in which women do not always exhibit higher scores than men is Anger, or Angry Hostility (Costa et al., 2001). Women consistently score higher than men on Agreeableness and related measures, such as tender-mindedness (Feingold, 1994; Costa et al., 2001). Women score somewhat higher than men on some facets of Conscientiousness, such as order, dutifulness, and self-discipline (Feingold, 1994; Costa et al., 2001). These differences, however, are not consistent across cultures, and no significant gender difference has typically been found in Conscientiousness at the Big Five trait level (Costa et al., 2001). Women tend to score higher than men on Warmth, Gregariousness, and Positive Emotions, whereas men score higher than women on Assertiveness and Excitement Seeking (Feingold, 1994; Costa et al., 2001). Men tend to be more dominant and agented than women, and exhibit higher levels of these traits (Helgeson and Fritz, 1999). Gender differences in Extraversion may therefore switch directions depending on whether the specific traits measured fall closer or further from the dominance pole. No significant gender differences are typically found on Openness/Intellect at the domain level, likely due to the divergent content of the trait. For example, women have been found to score higher than men on the facets of Esthetics and Feelings (Costa et al., 2001), whereas men tend to score higher on the Ideas facet (Feingold, 1994; Costa et al., 2001).

According to Costa; Terracciano & McCrae (2001) women had higher Neuroticism, Agreeableness, warmth (an extraversion facet) and openness to feelings, and men often report higher assertiveness (a facet of extraversion) and openness to ideas.

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According to McCrae and et. al. (2002), openness to experience increases in both males and females while neuroticism appeared to increase only in females. In another research Goodwin & Friedman (2006) show that the levels of neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion and conscientiousness were significantly higher among girls than boys. In contrast, males had significantly higher level of openness to experience. Furthermore, the results showed that female gender was associated with increased odds of experiencing depression.

Feingold in 1994 investigated the markers of more traditional domains of the personality like neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, extroversion and openness to experience and realized that males were more extrovert and assertive than women. Alan Feingold (1994) conducted a four Mata-analyses to investigate the role of gender differences in personality in the literature published from 1950s to1990s and in normative data from personality inventories published between 1940 and 1992, and came to most important conclusions like, men were found to be more assertive and had slightly higher self-esteem than women.

According to Costa and et. al. (2001) females score higher on the Neuroticism and Agreeableness traits of Five Factor Model (FFM). The Neuroticism reflects distress proneness and propensities toward the experience of a variety of negative effects, while Agreeableness reflects amicability, altruism, trust, tender mindedness, and
compliance. Females scored .51 SD higher on Neuroticism and .59 SD higher on Agreeableness in a study by Costa and colleagues on US adults which showed that Gender differences on personality factors are of medium magnitude. Costa et al. reported the same gender differences across 26 different countries in data consist of over 23,000 subjects. McCrae and colleagues (2005) also revealed that These results cannot merely be attributed to self-report questionnaires, as they have replicated them across 50 cultures in observer reports of Five Factor Model. Goodwin and Gotlib (2004) conducted the same research on the Neuroticism and Agreeableness, and they came to the same results in a nationally representative sample using a brief trait-adjective measure of the lexical Big Five. Goldberg et al., 1998 also proposed that these gender differences are not a sole function of the instrument on which Costa and McCrae's findings are based (the NEO-Personality Inventory Revised NEO-PI R; Costa & McCrae, 1992).

According to Feingold, (1994) Gender differences on Extraversion including gregariousness, excitement seeking, and positive affect facets and Openness to Experience including interest in novel people, ideas, and aesthetics facets have been either inconsistent or of negligible magnitude in large, statistically well-powered samples. However, Costa et al. (2001) came to results which are in contrary with these findings shows the gender differences. They investigated the matter across specific aspects of these broad FFM domains, finding that males scored higher in some facets of Openness, like Openness to Ideas, while females scored higher in other facets like Openness to Aesthetics and Feelings. In some facets of Extraversion including Excitement Seeking, males scored higher, while in other Extraversion facets such as Warmth females scored higher. Comparisons at the aggregate level of Extraversion and Openness are thus less meaningful. Male and female subjects appeared to be a little different on either specific aspects of Conscientiousness (like qualities of diligence, self-discipline, orderliness, and goal-orientation) or the comprised facets.

The findings of the research by Moosavi and Salimifar (2006) emphasize the mediating role of conscientiousness and neuroticism factors in the relationship between gender and academic performance in Iran. Implications of these findings
emphasizing the correlates of personality traits for improving academic performance are discussed.

This results were supported by the studies of Mehdipoor, Zareii and Moovlaie (2001); Shahrjerdi (2003) and Moosavi and Salimifar (2006). According to Shahrjerdi (2003) neuroticism is a dimension that ranges from normal, fairly calm and collected people to one's that tend to be quite "nervous." Neurotic people are more anxious, depressed, guilt feeling, low self-esteem, tense, irrational, shy, moody and emotional.

Extroversion is characterized by being outgoing, talkative, high on positive affect (feeling good), active, lively, sociable, easy going, carefree, dominant and in need of external stimulation. Extroverts, according to Eysenck's theory, are chronically under-aroused and bored and are therefore in need of external stimulation to bring them up to an optimal level of performance. Introverts, on the other hand, are chronically over-aroused and edgy and are therefore in need of peace and quiet to bring them up to an optimal level of performance. They are calm, even-tempered, reliable, controlled, peaceful, thoughtful, careful, and passive. In general, results indicated that extroversion, compared to introversion was a prevalent trait of personality among all groups of students. These results were in congruent with the competitive educational system in Iran Mehdipoor, Zareii and Moovlaie (2001).

2.9 GENDER DIFFERENCE IN SELF-CONCEPT

Historically, reviews (e.g., Wylie, 1979) have reported that general self-concept was almost unrelated to gender, although subsequent meta-analyses (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999) found small differences favoring boys. Wylie (1979), however, proposed that small gender differences in general self-concept might reflect larger, counter-balancing gender differences in specific components of self-concept. In support of this proposal, Marsh (1989; also see Crain, 1996) found gender differences in specific scales that were consistent with traditional gender stereotypes: (a) boys had higher physical ability, appearance, math, emotional stability, problem solving, and general self-concepts; (b) girls had higher verbal, honesty, and spiritual self-concepts; and (c) gender differences were small for the parents and general school scales. Marsh (1989) also reported that there was a reasonably consistent pattern of self-concepts declining from a young age, leveling out in middle adolescence, and then increasing at least through early adulthood. However, age-by-
gender interactions were typically small, suggesting that gender differences were relatively stable from preadolescence to at least early-adulthood.

According to Bandura (1994, 1999), self-efficacy beliefs are constructed from four main sources of information: The first way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through “mastery experience”. “This can be achieved by tackling problems in successive, attainable steps. Success builds a robust belief in one’s efficacy.

As far as developmental trends are concerned, self-concept in males was not independent from their age in adolescence. In some dimensions it is increasing, in some it is constant, while in others it’s decreasing with age. According to Erickson’s theory (Erickson 1968), this age in adolescents is called identity crisis. Teenagers experience identity crisis as temporary period of distress as they experiment with alternatives. The results were supported with the views of Allport (1958) according to whom for some people, identity development is traumatic and disturbing. By trying out various life possibilities with age moving towards making enduring decisions, young people forge an organized self structure. Development trends in self-concept of girls showed that self-concept gets better with age. The reason for this may be because cognitive development affects the changing structure of the self. The results are also consistent with the findings of Shavelson et. al (1976) which state that age is positively related to mean scores on all dimensions of self-concept.

According to Bandura, (1999) Failures undermine it, especially in earlier phases of self-development. Vicarious experiences, as called by Bandura, are the second beneficial way of developing and strengthening our own efficacy beliefs. Bandura, 1999 also believes that observing others’ behavior with no unpleasant effects may direct us to believe in our own capabilities, while observing others’ failing to perform a certain course of action, in spite of high effort, demotivates us and lowers our insight of our own efficacy. Social persuasion is considered as the third way of strengthening people’s belief in their efficacy. Bandura, (1999) also believes that people would put forth more effort and would be more perseverant if they are persuaded that they have what it takes to succeed, compared to situations they harbor self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies in facing problems (p. 181). Finally, people depend more on their physical and emotional status to judge about their capabilities. And Bandura, (1999) believes that since people rely on Physical and
affective states to judge their capabilities these factors affect people’s belief of self-efficacy.

In Some studies it was revealed that gender has impact on self-esteem. These studies confirmed that there were statistically considerable differences in self-esteem by gender on the academic competence scale, peer popularity scale, and personal security scale. Some researchers discussed that females have higher scores in some dimensions of self-esteem compared to boys. Marsh, et al (1997), in a study, discovered that adolescents have high self-esteem and females had higher scores in peer attachments and more pro-social friends. Kearney (1999) confirmed that an adolescent's personal development and self-esteem are affected by his biological, cognitive, social, and environmental factors. He describes that adolescent girls tend to have more negative assessments of their physical characteristics and intellectual abilities and therefore lower self-esteem compared to boys. Wylie (1989) suggested that women’s self-esteem was positively related to perceiving oneself as feminine and men’s self-esteem was positively related to perceiving oneself as masculine.

In a study Patton, Bartrum and Creed (2004) revealed that there were no significant differences between males and females on self-esteem. While McMullin and Cairney (2004) reported that women have lower levels of self-esteem than do men.

Professional class can be an effective factor in self-esteem of both genders. Major et al. (1999) realized that the gender differences were less among individual who are in the professional classes and it is more among middle and lower classes. The results of a research by Kearney (1999) and McMullin and Cairney (2004) showed that females have exhibited lower levels of self-esteem than do males. Based on the results of this research and similar studies, women had lower academic performance and also lower overall scores in self-esteem than men.

Actual abilities, self-reward principle and values are factors from which the level of our self-esteem is originated. Self-esteem enhances the academic performance. Most people have both positive and negative aspects. Men that have higher self-esteem emphasize more on their positive aspects while women emphasize on their negative aspects. In addition, men have higher preparation to accept their
positive evaluations. While, women might tend to accept their negative evaluations. Men who have higher self-concept enhance their activity and appraise their abilities in advantageous levels for facing with problems. The indispensable need in our lives is having good sense toward us. We need to have high regard for ourselves in some aspects like physical, emotional, mental, and human being. This feeling is an incentive for success in our everyday jobs that we have. Self-esteem is in a great connection with academic performance as one of the affairs that people have. Based upon the findings of this study, practitioners and researchers should pay more attention to these differences and promote the academic performance and increase the self-esteem of female students because they are more vulnerable in academic performance.

### 2.10 GENDER DIFFERENCE IN MENTAL HEALTH

Gender-based differences may emanate from a biomedical (genetic, hormonal, anatomical, physiological); psychosocial (personality, coping, symptom reporting); epidemiological (population-based risk factors); or even a more global perspective. The latter analyses large-scale cultural, social, economic, and political processes that ultimately produce differential health risks for women and men. Rarely does biology act alone to determine health inequities. Social determinants, including gender, interact with each other and exacerbate biological vulnerabilities.

There was a significant difference in pressures experienced among first year, third year and sixth year medical students in Karolinska Institute Medical University, Stockholm as indicated by Dahlin, Joneberg and Runeson (2005). The analysis of the study found that first year students reported a highest degree of pressure compared to third year and sixth year students. Besides that, the study also found that women experienced higher levels of stress than men. The study also compared the differences of pressures experienced between medical students and the general student population in the university. The results revealed that medical students had higher depression levels compared to the general population.

It is unclear whether levels of stress are different for men and women, although there is accumulating evidence of stress levels and poor psychological health among the construction industry’s professionals. This is despite evidence to indicate
that women are relatively underrepresented at senior levels compared to other industries, that they suffer discrimination and harassment, and that they experience considerable barriers to career progression compared to their male counterparts. Coryell, Endicott, and Keller (1992) followed adults who had never been diagnosed as mentally ill. Within 6 years, major depression developed by 12%. Younger persons (under 40) were three times more likely to get depressed than were older people (yet, suicide goes up with age). Going through a divorce doubles the chances of getting depressed, especially for women. Women are diagnosed as depressed twice as often as men. Higher education increases the risk for women (not true in all studies) and decreases the risk for men.

A gender approach to health means to distinguish biological and social factors while exploring their interactions, and to be sensitive to how gender inequality affects health outcomes. A gender approach to mental health provides guidance to the identification of appropriate responses from the mental healthcare system, as well as from public policy. Gender differences clearly exist, even where the socioeconomic gradient may not be strong. Never married and separated/divorced men have higher overall admission rates to mental health facilities than women in the same marital status categories. In contrast, married women have higher admission rates than married men (Dennerstein & Astbury, 1993) Gender, like other stratifiers, does not operate in isolation. It interacts in an additive or multiplicative way with other social markers like class and race.

According to Vlassoff & Garcia, (2002), gender analysis improves understanding of the epidemiology of mental health problems, decisions and cure of these problems in under-reported groups, and also increases potential for greater public participation in health. Overlooking gender-based differences or gender bias could have drastic consequences. Doctors are more likely to diagnose depression in women compared to men, even when they have similar scores on standardized measures of depression or present with identical symptoms. Gender stereotypes regarding proneness to emotional problems in women and alcohol problems in men appear to reinforce social stigma and constrain help-seeking along stereotypical lines. They are a barrier to the accurate identification and treatment of psychological disorders (World Health Organization, 2006.) Women’s mental health affects others
in society. Their increasing presence in the workforce means that their mental health affects national productivity.

2.11 SUMMARY

The variables included in the present study were introduced in the first chapter. In this chapter earlier and contemporary studies and researches in the area of personality, self-concept and mental health has been reviewed and covered in order to summarize the already valuable findings in the direction of selected variables in the present study. This chapter included the finding about personality, self-concept and mental health among internet addicted and non internet addicted, male and female Iranian and Indian students.