Chapter-2
Review of Literature
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

We see, everywhere in each corner of the world, girls face discrimination. It is bitter that, they often receive less food than boys do, have less access to schooling, and in many countries of the world, work long hours when they are only 5 or 6 years old. It is a growing landmark, eighty million girls aged 6 to 11 do not even go to school. And why can't we see the helpless agony of the girl child around the world. Their ignorance will certainly beget to forget our cause, which is still fractured in the regions. We see, in societies where a male child is regarded as more valuable to the family, girls often are: denied the right of life; denied the right to name and nationality. And by being married off early or forced to stay at home and help in domestic chores, girls are often denied: the right to education and all the advantages that go with it; the right to associate freely; the rights accompanying unjustified deprivation of liberty. These all are the basic humiliation from the family to the girls when boys are regarded as the pillar of tomorrow. Neither they are allowed to go freely nor, they able to associate in the society as male boys do liberally. Only a few highly civilized countries don't face such discrimination extremely.

Adolescence is a stage that begins in puberty and ends in adulthood. Sexual maturation begins in early adolescence and is marked by the appearance of rapid physical changes such as secondary sex characteristics. These physical changes and others' reactions to them increase the saliency of gender and adolescents may feel compelled to behave according to gender stereotypes (Huston and Alvarez, 1990). Thus, at this age there is an increased sensitivity to gender stereotypes
and an adherence to them, which is referred to as gender intensification (Hill and Lynch, 1983). This gender intensification makes any deviation from the expected traditional masculine or feminine norm more salient and it is more severely judged. Indeed, it has been shown that young adolescents judge, accept, and reject one another on the basis of these gender stereotypes (Lobel, 1994; Lobel et. al.1993).

An additional characteristic of adolescence that seems be relevant to discriminatory behavior is social conformity. The importance of peers and their approval and social acceptance increases during adolescence (Berndt, 1979; Berndt and Keefe, 1995; Constanzo and Shaw, 1966; Newcomb and Bagwell, 1995; Vitaro et al., 1997) and conformity pressures reach their peak (Berndt, 1979). As a result, adolescence is characterized by an increase in prejudice and discriminatory behavior towards individuals exhibiting behavior deviant from their social group norms (Hurlock, 1973). On the basis of these 2 characteristics (gender intensification and social conformity) by Thalma E. Lobel, Nohar Nov-Krispin, Daniela Schiller, Orly Lobel, Amit Feldman(2004).

Mary C. Ruffolo, Rosemary Sarri, Sara Goodkind(2004). This study examines risk and protective factors for delinquent, diverted, and high-risk adolescent girls to inform the development of effective mental health prevention and intervention programs. Delinquent, diverted, and high-risk adolescent girls (N=159) involved or at risk of involvement with the juvenile justice system, who were receiving home-based or community-based open or closed residential services, completed a written, self-administered, structured questionnaire. A majority of the girls reported moderate to severe depression, but only about one-third
had received mental health specialty services. Girls in the community-based closed residential settings had significantly higher levels of depression, experienced more negative life events, reported more sexual abuse, more often had special education status, were more likely to come from families who received welfare, had more disruptions in living situations, exhibited more delinquent behavior, and used more negative coping behaviours than did girls in the other programs.

Worldwide, men are more likely to be literate, with 100 men considered literate for every 88 women. In some countries the difference is even greater; for example, in Bangladesh only 62 women are literate for every 100 men. In other study of 43 developed countries, 15-year-old girls were ahead of boys in literacy skills and were more confident than boys about getting high-income jobs. In the United States, girls are significantly ahead of boys in writing ability at all levels of primary and secondary education. However, boys are slightly ahead of girls in mathematics ability. There has been a significant increase in women accessing tertiary education compared to men. In the United States, the 2005 averages saw male to female university participants at a 43 to 57 ratio (Marklein, 2005). Also, in 2005-2006, women earned more Associate's, Bachelor's, and Master's degrees than men, but men earned more Doctorates. This is repeated in other countries; for example, women make up 58% of admissions in the UK and 60% in Iran. In Canada the 15% gender gap in university participation favoured women (Christofides, Hoy, and Yang, 2006).

The consequences of gender roles and stereotypes are sex-typed social behavior (Eagly et al., 2004) because roles and stereotypes are
both socially shared descriptive norms and prescriptive norms. Gender roles provide guides to normative behaviors that are typical, ought-to-be and thus “likely effective” for each sex within certain social context. Gender roles also depict ideal, should-be, and thus desirable behaviors for men and women who are occupying a particular position or involving in certain social activities. Put it another way, men and women, as social beings, strive to belong and seek for approval by complying and conforming to the social and cultural norms within their society. The conformity to social norms not only shapes the pattern, but also maintains the very existence of sex-typed social behavior. In summary, social role theory treats these differing distributions of women and men into roles as the primary origin of sex-differentiated social behavior, their impact on behavior is mediated by psychological and social processes (Eagly, 1987), including developmental and socialization processes, as well as by processes involved in social interaction (e.g., expectancy confirmation) and self-regulation (Eagly et al., 2004).

Accepted, but not always fully understood. For some, the stumbling block is the word gender, a relatively recent concept in social science. Gender refers not to male and female, but to masculine and feminine - that is, to qualities or characteristics that society ascribes to each sex. People are born female or male, but learn to be women and men. Perceptions of gender are deeply rooted, vary widely both within and between cultures, and change over time. But in all cultures, gender determines power and resources for females and males. By any indicator of human development, female power and resources are lowest in rural areas of the developing world. Rural women make up the majority of the
worlds poor. They have the world's lowest levels of schooling and the highest rates of illiteracy. In all developing regions, female-headed rural households are among the poorest of the poor.

Gender roles are those behaviours, tasks and responsibilities that a society considers appropriate for men, women, boys and girls. Gender relations are the ways in which a society defines rights, responsibilities and the identities of men and women in relation to one another. Gender discrimination is any exclusion or restriction made on the basis of gender roles and relations that prevents a person from enjoying full human rights. Discrimination can descend into gender-based violence, especially during emergencies when women are isolated and vulnerable. Another form of violence is women's lack of rights to safe sex, a major factor in the spread of HIV/AIDS in some countries.

Gender equality is when women and men enjoy equal rights, opportunities and entitlements in civil and political life. For food agricultur orgenigetion, gender equality is equal participation of women and men in decision-making, equal ability to exercise their human rights, equal access to and control of resources and the benefits of development, and equal opportunities in employment and in all other aspects of their livelihoods. Gender analysis is the study of the different roles of women and men in order to understand what they do, what resources they have, and what their needs and priorities are. Gender analysis differentiates between potential impacts on girls and women - such as increased risk of malnutrition - and on men and boys, who may risk recruitment into conflicts.
Gender balance is the equal and active participation of women and men in all areas of decision-making, and in access to and control over resources and services. The United Nations considers gender balance fundamental to the achievement of equality, development and peace. To accomplish it in agriculture and rural development, action is needed by rural communities, governments and international development agencies. At the local level, for example, gender balance means men and women are actively involved in decision-making bodies, including those managing community facilities and infrastructure. Ministries responsible for rural development need to improve gender balance among technical and managerial staff, especially in extension work. Within FAO, the proportion of female professional staff has increased from less than 22% in 1994 to 40% in 2008 (Food and agriculture organization 2009).

Though the humanity has progressed tremendously over last one hundred years yet, the status and quality of life of women have not changed significantly. Over a period of time feminity has proved weakness for women and even in the age of democracy the gender relationships are designed on unethical principle of superiority of man over woman (Anamika Publications, 2005).

Rajesh Kumar and Roshan Lal (2006) present study examined the role of self-efficacy and gender differences among the adolescents as revealed by intelligence test. A random sample of 200 students (100 Boys & 100 Girls) studying in I, II and III year of under-graduation was selected from different colleges of the city of Chandigarh. Self-efficacy scale developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer was used to classify subjects. General mental ability test developed by Jalota was used to
have the dependent variable scores. Analysis of variance was applied and the F-ratio revealed significant effect of self-efficacy. Significant gender differences were also found, where female scored higher than their male counterparts. No interaction was found in self-efficacy and gender.

Sudhir Kakar (1978), proposed a psycho-analytic profile of childhood and society in India. As a psychoanalyst, he presented an impressionistic view of Indian girlhood based on a combination of his clinical experience, and anthropological and mythological accounts on feminine identity. He maintains that in the Indian society a woman's "identity is wholly defined by her relationship to others". He holds that over her life span the female is seen first as a daughter to her parents, then as a wife to her husband and lastly as a mother to her sons (and daughters). Kakar speculates that although there is cultural devaluation of the girl in this strongly male dominated society, the girl derives her identity from her relationships with the other female relatives within her own family. In his words, 'getting along with other women in this sphere, learning the mandatory skills of house-holding, cooking and childcare, and establishing her place in the primary world: these relationships and these tasks constitute the darkness of girlhood in India'.

The blessings on a bride or an expectant mother are always that she should have eight sons. Geeta, inside the Haveli, is also given the blessing, 'may you have eight sons', every time she touches the feet of the elders. The prejudice against the female is ingrained through the ceremonies surrounding marriage ceremony in Punjab, when the bride
comes to her husband's borne; a baby boy is put in her lap, with a blessing that her first child be a son (Gill, 1977). In Gill's narrative of a family from Bhatinda (Punjab), Preeto's sister-in-law, who has only a daughter, is an object of pity, or even fear, for she is considered to have the potential of 'casting the evil-eye'. When Preeto gives birth to a boy, there is a customary expression of joy; the midwife sings the song of congratulations and gets gifts in return. There are celebrations in all quarters and the mother is showered with gifts of clothes and jewelry.

Considering that the girl is married in early adolescence and sent to her husbands’ house soon after puberty. She is still an adolescent as a bride. While she is adjusting to the unfamiliar set up at her new home, she is also coping with the post pubescent bodily changes that produce feelings and sensations that are unfamiliar. At a time when she would like to share confidences and seek advice from those who care, she is surrounded by people with whom she must maintain a respectful distance. The process of feminine development is incomplete at the time an Indian girl gets married (Kakar, 1978).

Not only male infants are considered superior than female, but they are also seen to be qualitatively high and more desirable than the female. Ritual and practical considerations make a boy's birth essential, whereas both in terms of rituals and in terms of practicalities, a girl's birth is seen to entail expenses and problems in the future. She is also regarded as more susceptible to pollution and her re-purification is more difficult, as opposed to that of men, since she needs constant protection from a male, she is, thus visualized as a burden (Dube 1967).
Kagitcibasi, C (1982), did a study on the value of children and gender preference, and concluded that reasons for wanting a son are more varied than those wanting a daughter in other sons are wanted for several reasons, showing that they satisfy many needs, particularly:

- Financial and practical health while young;
- Old-age security;
- Carrying on family name (especially important for fathers);
- Companionship and love (especially important for mothers);
- Religious and social obligations (especially important for fathers);

Girls on the other hand are wanted mainly for companionship and for love (especially important for mothers), and for household help. Such parental attitudes explain why boys often receive greater opportunities than girls.

Neerja Sharma (1996), in her study reported that the adolescent girls communicated their awareness and resentment of being second to male children. A majority of girls reported that there were differences in the way daughters and sons were brought up in their own homes and in most other families.

Most of the girls reported that there were more restrictions placed on them as compared to boys. While hardly any checks were placed on boys, girls were not allowed freedom of movement. Boys could go anywhere and return late without causing much annoyance to their parents. Restrictions on girls varied depending upon social class and rural urban residence.
Many girls were allowed to go for mixed group parties, though they could not stay on very late. Only four girls mentioned that they had male friends and their parents did not mind this. While other girls wished to have acquaintance with boys, their parents did not permit this. Friction with parents over peer group affiliations was not reported. The supremacy of allegiance to the family over peer group loyalty among Indian adolescent girls has been reported by Islam (1976), Binepal (1980), Gulati (1980), and Kumar (1980).

In a sensitive study of upper middle class adolescents (Menon, 1976) it was reported that both boys and girls perceived their pubescence as a period of gradual change, both physical and social. They viewed biological maturity as a part of continuous process, upheld parental values; and reflected orientations of obedience, deference and strong sex role typing. Sex role stereotypes of 13 and 16 year old adolescents were studied by Sareen (1981) and Makhija (1981) respectively. While both boys and girls were found to have stereotyped perceptions of the male and the female roles, in the former study boys emerged as more conservative than girls on sex role stereotyping.

Focusing on the significance of the peer group in adolescence, urban girls, peer status has been studied in relation to their self concept and interaction with parents (Binepal, 1980; Gulati, 1980; Kumar 1980; Islam 1976). No clear pattern emerged. However one finding that stood out was that among girls, interaction with peers did not override interaction within the family. The family continued to dominate most decisions well into adolescence.
Some more recent studies on adolescent girls through Masters level research have been conducted by Bajaj (1990), Dhingra (1988), Gupta (1988), Gill (1987), Nischal (1987) and Tandon (1988). Tandons's study in particular portrays the profile of adolescent girls in Delhi slums. The findings on socialization.-revealed and other aspects revealed that the birth of a girl, child was desired and celebrated only by 2% of the families.

D'Souza and Chen (1980) found that female child mortality was higher than male after the neonatal period, and Chen et al. (1981) found pronounced sex differentials in the food and health care received by children. A study of two villages in West Bengal found that girls consistently had poorer nutritional status than boys among all socioeconomic strata, as defined by landholding and mother's education (Sen and Sengupta, 1983). Several other studies also have presented quantitative evidence of sex bias in patterns of child nutrition and health care (Wyon and Gordon, 1971; Levinson, 1972; Kielmann et al., 1983). Dyson and Moore (1983) found that sex differentials in child mortality are much higher in North than in South India, and they related this difference to variations between the North and South in kinship systems and female autonomy.

In Punjabi society discrimination against female children is closely related to individual parents' family-building strategies. It appears that Punjabi parents are careful to restrict the number of daughters they have. A sizable proportion of young women did not want to have even one daughter, and almost none wanted a second daughter. This attitude was reflected in the mortality rates; male mortality was
higher only during the neonatal period, when biological factors predominate. During the subsequent periods of early childhood (1-59 months), when mortality is more susceptible to societal manipulation, female mortality was almost twice that of males Monica Das Gupta (1987).

In the influential Mosley and Chen (1984) framework for the study of child survival in developing countries, maternal factors, environmental contamination, nutrient deficiency, injury and personal illness control have been identified as proximate determinants. Of these the influence of maternal factors and environmental contamination are not likely to be gender specific. However survival risks due to nutrient deficiency and personal illness control, as well as injury, may differ by gender to the extent that the allocation of food and medicine is found to be differentiated by gender.

Evidences from India have shows an adverse status of women which has worsened in recent decades. Female disadvantage is evident in India from the constantly declining sex ratio, lower literacy rate of females than males and lower participation of women than men in the work force, e.g. the sex ratio (females per 1000 males) declined from 972 in 1901 to 933 in 2001. During the last four decades sex ratio of child population (0-6 years) has declined by almost 50 points. The male literacy rate for 2001 was 76 percent compared with 54 percent for females. In the same year the work participation rates for males and females were 52 and 26 percent, respectively (Nangia & Roy, 2007). According to the National Family Health Survey of India, under-five mortality for males and females is 69 and 79 respectively 2005-06.
Higher female mortality in childhood may be either because of certain specific causes, which affect the fairer sex more or due to gender discrimination in nutrition and health care. According to Hill and Upchurch (1995) female mortality disadvantage is not related to nutritional status (anthropometric measures) and sickness rates, rather it shows a positive association with relative lack of immunization coverage for girls and a negative relationship with female disadvantage in treatment of diarrhoea. The prevalence of malnutrition in children in India is one of the highest in the world and over the years, there has been only a marginal improvement in the nutritional status of children. Relatively more female children are malnourished in comparison of male children in India. A study in Punjab revealed that although both sexes receive the same number of calories, girls are given more cereals, while boys receive more high valued food items like milk and fat (Das Gupta, 1987).

A view of studies done on the weaning, diarrhea and implied malnutrition of infants, is more conclusive. Both the Khanna study (Gordon, Singh and Wvon 1965) and the Morinda study (Levinson, 1972) found infantile diarrhea diseases and associated nutritional deprivation to be more widespread among female than male infants. The later study also finds that males were given more supplementary nutrition than girls. In Bangladesh, male children were found to receive both more a higher quality supplementary foods than girls of the same age (Brown et. al. 1982).

Discriminations, whether implicit or explicit, in nutrition and child care have exacerbated the plight of the girl child, which manifests
in excess female mortality, as has been highlighted by many studies (Tabutin and Willems, 1995; Arnold, 1992; Hill and Upchurch 1995). It is well recognized fact that malnourished children will grow into malnourished adults with lower capacities and abilities. Several policy initiatives have been launched to ensure equitable access to life skills but they will be sustainable only if they can address the current and emerging issues that affect food security, nutrition, poverty, and gender equity.

The odds of a female being underweight increase for the index child having surviving siblings. As studies have shown, all girls do not face the same level of discrimination, and there is evidence of selective neglect. Similarly, all boys are not equally wanted and a son born with two older surviving brothers may be relatively neglected (Pande, 2003). This study shows that a child with female siblings is more likely to be underweight than one with male siblings, though the relationship is not statistically significant for Bihar, indicating that sex composition of surviving siblings is not a very strong determinant of malnourishment.

In homes where girls perceive discrimination and dominance from mother, there is resentment and a feeling of hostility against the mother and where girls perceive father as over-bearing, the pattern is reversed. The resulting pattern of behavior varies also with the motivation of the adult (Stagner, R. & Drought, N. 1935).

Drez and Kingdon(2001) have found strong evidence of sharp gender bias in school participation in rural north Indian states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. As it has already been established in the literature, they further strengthened the argument that,
the probability of school participation increases with parental education, both maternal and paternal, whereas, the inter-generational cross sex effects are weaker than same-sex effects. The most significant effect is that of maternal education on girls’ school participation. Later in rural West Bengal in Eastern India, Pal (2004) found mother’s literacy significantly enhances the probability of school enrolment among girls but, it is insignificant for boys. Similarly father’s education significantly encourages boys schooling only and does not have any perceptible impact on girls.

Caste plays a very important role in schooling attainment in India, even after controlling for other major individual and household level variables. The scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and the other backward classes’ children are in disadvantage compared to general caste children. The effect is even stronger for girls (Drez and Kingdon, 2001).

Even though limited in scope, Drez and Kingdon (2001) also identified the function of some of the school quality level variables; quite significant is also the provision of mid-day meals in schools, which roughly halves the proportion of girls excluded from the schooling system. However, all the village level, community level and school quality level variables have little influence on boys school participation in comparison to girls and last but not the least, the village development index turned out to be much stronger for girls.

Milhaj Ul Haque (2002) Parents emerge as primary stakeholders in the lives of adolescents. It is, therefore, necessary to first understand their concerns and then to incorporate their views into youth policies
and programs. Programs will definitely benefit if parents are brought into the picture with their concerns. An important area of intervention is youth's ability to make decisions. Parents have greater confidence in boys to take decisions on important life matters as compared to girls. Many parents feel that young people have the right to make decisions; however, they are not sure about their capability to do so. There is a very high degree of parental control on girls' mobility. Though parents have high aspirations and continue to support education and work for young girls, they place important barriers on their mobility, which ultimately hampers their education and the opportunities to obtain life skills. Parents support female work for economic gains for the family. This is an area to consider for policy interventions. Programs that enhance livelihood skills of young people will encourage parents to allow their daughters to work.

Nakesha Faison (2002) Examined the influence of discrimination, maternal support and parental monitoring on the psychological well being (i.e., depression, self-esteem, and life satisfaction) of a sample of 79 African American adolescents between the ages of 13 and 17 years old. Face-to-face interviews were conducted to assess youth's perceptions of parental behaviors as well as their experiences with discrimination and their own psychological well being. Data are from the 1995 Detroit Area Study, a multi-stage probability sample of adults and adolescents living in the same household. Results suggest that experiences with discrimination were associated with less self-esteem, while maternal support and parental monitoring were both related to less depressive symptoms, more self-esteem and life satisfaction among African American youth. Findings at the multivariate level of analyses
indicate that the influences of maternal support on youth depressive symptoms and self-esteem may be mediated by parental monitoring behavior. Further, experiences with discrimination remained significant for youth self-esteem after controlling for the influences of gender, age, and both types of parental behaviors. The implications of these findings will be discussed as they relate to mental health service delivery and family interventions aimed at African American youth.

**Repression-sensitization tendency and gender discrimination:** Charles Johannes (1976) Males and females differ in their defensive responses to verbal stimuli that are most directly sexually suggestive. 200 subjects were administered Byrne`s revised repression-sensitization scale creating a normative distribution, in which only the upper and lower 27 percent of the sample (106 subjects) (repressors and sensitizers) were administered the Galibriath Word Association Test. It was hypothesized that females as a group would behave as repressors, exhibit shorter latencies and respond to sexually suggestive words with neutral or nonthreatening interpretations. Males as a group were hypothesized to behave as sensitizers, exhibit longer response latencies and respond to sexually suggestive words with conflict-laden and emotional content. Responses were analyzed using one-way analysis of variances and a CRF 2X2 analysis of variance. Results indicate that males and females are dichotomized on the R-S scale with males responding as sensitizers and females as repressors (p<.05). Females responded to sexually suggestive stimuli with neutral or nonthreatening interpretations and males with conflict-laden and emotional content (p<.01).
Achievement motivation and gender discrimination: Though the humanity has progressed tremendously over last one hundred years yet, the status and quality of life of women have not changed significantly. Over a period of time femininity has proved weakness for women and even in the age of democracy the gender relationships are designed on unethical principle of superiority of man over woman (Anamika Publications 2005).

Seligal (1990) and Kapil (1992) found that female’s achievement on variety of problem solving talks get hampered due to fear of success that might threaten her femininity and results in social rejection as compared to their masculine counterparts. Mead (1949) observed that a female had two choices either she proclaimed herself as a woman and therefore, less on achieving individuality or an achieving individual and therefore, less a woman. Miller (1976) says that female underlies her accomplishment so that she may not inflame the male’s ego.

Research on motivation has burgeoned over the past four decades. As a result, much has been learned about the nature of students' motivation. During the past half century, a diversity of crucial motivational beliefs, values, and goals have been identified and examined (Wigfield, 1997). Some studies have focused on competence-related beliefs as a valuable measure of an individual's achievement motivation (Linenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). Males and females were found to have different competence-related beliefs during childhood and adolescence (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). Results revealed that boys had higher competence beliefs in sports activities and maths compared to girls. However, girls had higher
competence beliefs in reading English, and social activities compared to boys. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2002) posited that competence beliefs are important because they predict performance and task choice. These beliefs also affect the student's motivation to succeed and achieve a goal. Elizur & Beck (1994) devised an achievement motive questionnaire (Elizur 1979, 1986; Shye 1978) and then administered it to 165 women and 362 men employed. They detected no special tendency for women to score higher than men on affective responses. These results support the view that gender differences in achievement motive are rooted in socialization processes rather than in basic differences between women and men. In a study, Nagarathanamamma and Rao (2007) found no significant difference between boys and girls with regard to achievement motivation level. Similar findings were reported by Kaushik and Rani (2005).

Adsul et al. (2008) investigated the effects of gender, economic background and caste differences on achievement motivation possessed by college students on the basis of societal transformation. Along with other findings male students were found to be having a high achievement motivation while female students having a below average level of achievement motivation. Liu and Zhu (2009) found significant differences in achievement motivations of male and female senior high school students. The male students had higher achievement motivations than female students, the achievement motivations of science and arts students differed and it was closely to be a significant one. Upadhyay and Tiwari (2009) evaluated the effect of academic stream on achievement motivation of the students. Results showed that the students of science faculty had significantly higher achievement motivation.
compared to Social Science, Humanities and Commerce faculty, but it does not differ significantly from the vocational courses. Fouladchang, M. et.al. (2009) investigated 302 Iranian students by random cluster sampling was selected. It was found that males had a greater performance-approach goal orientation than females. Also, last graders reported higher scores on mastery goal orientation than first graders. There was no significant interaction effect of gender and grade level.

Salili (1996) investigated age, sex and cultural differences in achievement motivation. The study was conducted on British high school and Chinese students aged 13-15. Results revealed that Chinese high school students had significantly higher n-Ach scores than their British counterparts. Female subjects of both cultures had higher scores than males, although this difference was significant for British female subjects only. On the basis of the review of literature it is evident that gender and academic streams are important variables to influence their achievement motivation but their nature and extent are inconclusive. Therefore, the present study was intended to examine the role of gender and academic streams in determining their achievement motivation.

**Self-confidence and gender discrimination:** Racial socialization was examined as a protective factor that might buffer African American youth from the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination. Two types of racial socialization were examined: messages about race pride and preparation for bias. One hundred twenty-eight eighth-grade African American students participated in the study. As anticipated, both types of socialization moderated the relationship between discrimination and self-esteem. The negative relationship between perceived discrimination
and self-esteem was mitigated for youth who reported more messages about race pride and a moderate amount of preparation for bias from their parents. In contrast, low race pride socialization and both high and low preparation for bias were associated with a negative relationship between perceived discrimination and self-esteem. (Harris-Britt, April; Valrie, Cecelia R.; Kurtz-Costes, Beth; Rowley, Stephanie J. 2007).

Steinmayr, R. & Spinath, B. (2009) This study investigated whether boys’ stronger confidence in their intelligence is explained by gender differences in measured intelligence and gender-stereotypical parental perceptions of their children’s intelligence. Verbal, numeric, figural, and reasoning intelligence and corresponding self-ratings were assessed for 496 German 11th and 12th graders (284 girls; age: $M=16.95$). Parents also rated their children’s intelligence (339 parents; 205 mothers; age: $M=46.66$). With and without controlling for intelligence, boys rated their numerical, figural, and reasoning abilities higher than girls. The same pattern appeared in parental intelligence perceptions. Boys even judged themselves as more intelligent controlling for both measured intelligence and parental intelligence estimates. Thus, neither intelligence nor gender-stereotypical parental perceptions totally explains boys’ stronger confidence in their intelligence.

**Assertiveness and gender discrimination:** Eguchi, M, & Hamaguchi Y, (2012) Study the relationship between assertiveness and internal and external adjustment was investigated. Elementary school children in grades four to six and their classroom teachers participated in the study. Internal and external adjustments were measured by using self-ratings,
and self- and other- ratings respectively. The children responded to a questionnaire inquiring about assertiveness that included two components of assessment: "self expression" and "consideration for others". Then, the children were divided into four groups according to their scores on these two components of assertiveness. The results indicated that children scoring high on both components of assertiveness had higher self-rating scores than those scoring low on both components. Moreover, children that scored high on "consideration for others" tended to have high external adjustment. Also, boys that scored low on "self expression" had lower external adjustment as indicated by the negative ratings of teachers. Furthermore, girls that scored high on "consideration for others" had high external adjustment as indicated by positive ratings of teachers and same-sexed classmates.

The above review reflects the status of adolescent girls in India and about their experience related to gender discrimination.

Below is the review of psychological variables under study of which relation with perceived gender discrimination is studied:
1. Repression-Sensitization Tendency
2. Achievement motivation
3. Self-confidence
4. Assertiveness

**Repression - Sensitization Tendency:**

Heidi Riggio (1999), "Personality and social skill differences between adults with and without siblings," tried to put an end to some of the only child misconceptions and negativism in her work on the importance of family structure for personality development. She looked
at core personality traits and social skills including the ability to express feelings, to interpret verbal and nonverbal communication, to control emotions and social sensitivity, among other traits generally thought to benefit children who have siblings. Riggio explained that the common thinking is only children "may experience social-skill deficits because of a lack of sibling relationships during key developmental periods."

Riggio found that adult only children are quite the opposite of the lonely stereotype: They did not differ in social skills from those children with siblings. In fact, the two groups were "remarkably" similar. In other words, singletons turn out as socially competent as children with siblings—they make friends as easily as their peers with siblings.

Lazarus and Alfert (1972) pointed out that the differences in defensive personality disposition may lead to different reaction to stressful conditions. In a study of personality differences in defensive personality disposition may lead to differences in reactions to stressful conditions. In a study of personality differences between reactions to vicariously experienced threat and to direct threat Alfert (1967) has obtained definite clusters of personality dimensions as self confidence, introversion, extroversion, dominance, sociability, impulse control & was highly active.

Repression and sensitization as situational modes of coping with anxiety were examined as predictors of trait measures of cognitive avoidance and vigilance. In this study, 303 undergraduates saw a violent film clip to elicit anxiety. Increases in skin conductance level (SCL) and state anxiety (STA) from baseline were measured to identify repressors (high SCL, low STA) and contrast them with sensitizers (low SCL, high
STA) and genuinely low anxious individuals (low SCL, low STA). State anger was also recorded. Trait measures of vigilance and cognitive avoidance were collected 2 weeks earlier. Significant SCL-STA interactions indicated that repressors scored higher on cognitive avoidance and lower on vigilance compared to sensitizers and low anxious participants. Repressors were less likely than sensitizers to report gaze avoidance during the clip (Wiley Periodicals 2011).

Sixty-six men and ninety-three women participated in a study of the relationship between repression-sensitization and selected perceptions of potential nuclear hazard in people residing near a nuclear power plant. Results of analyses of variance showed that repressors, compared to sensitizers, tended to worry less about a potential nuclear accident at the nuclear generating station in their area, and that they had lower expectations that such a nuclear disaster would indeed occur at some point in the future. They generally had greater confidence in the ability of the utility to safely operate a nuclear plant, and believed that their families were relatively prepared for a nuclear emergency. The make-up of the randomly chosen sample suggested that a large proportion of people residing near a nuclear plant are repressors. (PsycINFO Database Record 2010).

The present study empirically examines the expression of four drive-related themes (feeding, aggression, avoidance, and sexual activity) in the manifest content of repressors' and nonrepressors' dreams. The results revealed that repressors generated more aggressive and less avoidant thematic dream content than nonrepressors. Given repressors' denial of aggression and their focus on an avoidant style of
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coping (D. Weinberger, 1990), the findings are discussed in terms of a compensatory relationship between repressors' waking and dreaming modes of adaptation. Examination of the manifest content of the dream narrative may add to understanding the motivational underpinnings of the repressive coping style. (Andrew J. Bell, M.A. and Harold Cook 2009).

Boden and Dale (2001) used a film clip eliciting unpleasant emotions (depicting dying baby parrots) and an emotionally neutral clip. They found that repressors reported less negative mood compared to nonrepressors when exposed to the unpleasant clip, whereas no differences in mood between repressors and nonrepressors emerged for the neutral clip. Their film clips, however, did not contain violence. Sparks, Pellechia, and Irvine (1999) exposed their participants to a frightening film and found that repressors reported low levels of negative affect but showed greater physiological activation than nonrepressors.

Repression refers to avoiding or drawing attention away from threatening stimuli. Whereas, sensitization is the tendency to continuously monitor and attend the environmental cues for the presence of such stimuli. Thus, repression/sensitization may have influence on the processing of negative affective information. Further, sensitization correlated positively with the measures of negative affect including trait anxiety (Rusting, 1988). On the other hand there are studies to demonstrate that repression/sensitization correlates with trait anxiety and thus it represent trait anxiety only (byrne, 1961, 1964). Sensitization tendency for negative valance emotion whereas, desensitization
tendency for positively valance emotions (khan mohammad and srivastava abhay Oct.2009).

One hundred forty-two females divided into repressors and sensitizers by their median score on the repression-sensitization scale received either a favourable or an unfavourable evaluation of themselves, both discrepant at a similar degree from their own self-evaluation. Sensitizers, in comparison to repressors, exhibited greater adoption of the negative evaluation and acceptance of its source, but less acceptance of the positive evaluation and its source. These results were explained as providing support for the contention that repressors and sensitizers differ in their willingness to assign negative vs. positive qualities to one's self and to endorse internal conflict rather than in their choice of defence mechanisms in the face of threatening information. (Wiley Periodicals 2006).

Compared two related personality dimensions, repression-sensitization (R-S) and approach-avoidance, as predictors of reactions to a laboratory stressor. 96 female undergraduates, selected on the basis of their R-S scores, gave brief talks about themselves in front of a video camera. Information relevant to vs irrelevant to the situation was presented, and recognition memory of the information was assessed. Skin conductance and self-reported anxiety were continuously monitored, and reported consistency of coping styles across situations was measured. Skin conductance was predicted by both measures, with repressors and avoiders evidencing larger reactions than sensitizers and approaches’, respectively. Repressors reported less distress than sensitizers overall. Type of information interacted with the measures of
coping style, with sensitizers and approaches’ more reactive after irrelevant information and avoiders more reactive after relevant information, as predicted. Consistency interacted with both measures to improve the prediction of skin conductance and self-report (PsycINFO Database Record 2008).

Adolescent girls of broken families have more sense of insecurity in comparison to the girls of unbroken families because parents who try to satisfy all type of need the children require are absent. In the absence of father or mother the child develops the sense of insecurity, which may be defined as emotional instability, feeling of rejection, inferiority, anxiety, isolation, jealousy, hostility, irritability, and inconsistency etc. On the other hand, girls from the unbroken families feels that the world is safe, friendly, nurturing, and need satisfying due to the presence of united and loving parents. The accumulation of successful need satisfying experience around them lead to a sense of security. Girls from the broken families have more anxiety then the girls from the broken families. Child of the broken families feels startled at the loose of a person who has been a source of love and satisfaction for him. Feelings of bewildered grief are generated due to the disappearance of father or mother and great anxiety is stirred in the child. Adolescent girls of the unbroken families do not suffer from anxiety because the parents in the united families try to satisfy the needs of their children and provide secure environment. Adolescent girls of the families of high socio-economic status are extrovert. Economic condition of the family is no doubt, good. Relatively the social status is also high. Parents of such families can easily fulfil all the necessary requirement of their children. They are capable of satisfying their needs and demands. They can afford
to provide higher education. All these factors facilitate to promote extrovert tendencies in the children. The extrovert girls tend to feel and act according to the demand and expectation of the situation and they are establishing friendship with others very easily. They are also interested in participating in the social affairs. Their interests, values and attitudes are directed towards the physical and social environment. In the poor families, parents cannot fulfil the minimum needs of their children and do not enjoy good status in the society in comparison to the rich families. Due to this, adolescent girls of the families of socio-economic status develop the introvert tendencies. Their physic energy is internally oriented and they live within their own words of emotions and feelings. They do not take interest in participating social affairs (Verma Vimla Aug, 2007).

Sensitizers, on the other hand, display high levels of self-reported anxiety that are not matched by correspondingly high levels on physiological or behavioural indicators (Derakshan & Eysenck, 1997). Several studies have demonstrated characteristic differences between repressors and sensitizers in responding to threat in a range of domains, including the encoding and retrieval of negative autobiographical memories, health-related cognitions and behaviour, and prospective appraisals, such as anticipated coping problems after a sexual assault (Krahe, 2005; Myers & Reynolds, 2000; Newman & Hedberg, 1999; Derakshan, Eysenck, & Myers, 2007,).

Repression-sensitization (R-S) theory conceptualizes individual differences in defensive behaviour as falling along an avoidance-approach continuum. In two experimental studies of the relationship
between the R-S scale and visual behaviour, avoidance-approach was defined as the percentage of time that subjects directed gaze to previously identified emotionally provocative features of injury and sexual slides. The direction of gaze was monitored by an eye mark camera. Consistent with the theory, repressors tended to approach less than sensitizers and there were no significant differences in visual response to a series of neutral slides. Contrary to prediction, repressors and middle scorers formed a homogeneous group with respect to defensive behaviour. There were no significant sex effects. Previous studies have provided only very modest evidence of the construct validity of the R-S scale. Some methodological and theoretical explanations are discussed (Jeff M. Halperin University College, Swansea, UK, 27 August 2004).

A further role for motive in the understanding of repression is a link to individual differences in the use of repression. A well-established line of research has examined individuals thought to use repression habitually; this individual difference is referred to as the repressive coping style (e.g., Weinberger 1990; Weinberger et al. 1979). Research on the repressive coping style has linked this to alterations in attention, memory for negative stimuli, autobiographical memory, and a range of other behaviours, generally elucidating the effects that repression may have on cognitive functioning (Derakshan & Eysenck 1997; Weinberger 1990).

Gudjonsson (1981) showed that repressors and sensitizers identified on the basis of their discrepant physiological and self-reported measures of emotional disturbance displayed the expected differences
on corresponding trait measures: Repressors scored lower than sensitizers on neuroticism, a construct related to trait anxiety, but scored higher than sensitizers on a measure of social desirability, closely related to defensiveness.

An article by Weinberger, Schwartz, and Davidson (1979), repressors and sensitizers have almost uniformly been identified through a combination of self-reported anxiety and social desirability, with high social desirability indicating high defensiveness. In this classification, repressors are defined by the combination of low trait anxiety and high defensiveness that distinguishes them from genuinely low anxious individuals, who display low trait anxiety as well as low defensiveness. Sensitizers called high anxious in this approach, display high trait anxiety and low defensiveness and are different from defensive high anxious persons who score high on both anxiety and defensiveness. Weinberger approach has been used to relate repression-sensitization not only to the processing of social threat but also to response to indicating physical danger (e.g., Brosschot, de Ruiter, & Kindt, 1999).

Ullman (1958) was the first to devise a method to clinically categorize the repressor and sensitizer types. The method consisted of scoring case history records of psychiatric patients for facilitators (sensitizers) and inhibitor (repressor) defensive styles. Problems with this method were low inter-judge reliability and inapplicability to non-patient populations. To overcome these problems Ullman (1962), using the Minnesota Multiphase Personality Inventory (MMPI), derived a scale for facilitation-inhibition. Altrochi, Parsons and Dickoff (1960) improved on this scale and renamed it R-S. By denial total high positive
scores indicated repressors while high negative scores were representative of sensitizers. Byrne (1961) refined the Altrochi scale by eliminating inconsistently scored items and correcting for item overlap among the six Minnesota multiphasic personality inventory scales used. The result as the repression-sensitization scale currently used and comprised of 156 scorables and 26 buffer items. Low scores denote repressors and high scores indicate sensitizers.

Family provides most of the early environmental influence upon the personality which remains throughout the life. It is the greatest socializing agency in all contemporary cultures (Gaur and Gupta, 2004). In the family it is the parents who play a major role in the overall development of the child by using different parenting styles. These parenting styles determine the personality development of the children. Thus, family has been the dominating institution both in the life of the individual and in the life of the community (Juyal and Gaur, 2007). In spite of the rapid changes within the modern family the home is still the most potent factors in regulating the behaviour of young people (Chand, 2007).

Boys have poor emotional adjustment than girls. Girls have less sensitization tendency than boys which might be due to the difference in parental treatment of boys and girls. Girls are expected more to have control on their feelings and are not expected to express their frustration and anger. It is not the sex of the sibling but the mere presence of sibling affects the adjustment of adolescents (Mehta et al., 2005).

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measures of emotional disturbance displayed the expected differences on corresponding trait measures: Repressors scored lower than sensitizers on neuroticism, a construct related to trait anxiety, but scored higher than sensitizers on a measure of social desirability, closely related to defensiveness. Following the influential article by Weinberger, Schwartz, and Davidson (1979), repressors and sensitizers have almost uniformly been identified through a combination of self-reported anxiety and social desirability, with high social desirability indicating high defensiveness. In this classification, repressors are defined by the combination of low trait anxiety and high defensiveness that distinguishes them from genuinely low anxious individuals, who display low trait anxiety as well as low defensiveness. Sensitizers, called “high anxious” in this approach, display high trait anxiety and low defensiveness and are different from “defensive high anxious” persons who score high on both anxiety and defensiveness. The Weinberger approach has been used to relate repression-sensitization not only to the processing of social threat but also to responses to stimuli indicating physical danger (e.g., Brosschot, de Ruiter, & Kindt, 1999). The combination of high avoidance and low vigilance characterizes repressors, the combination of low avoidance and high vigilance characterizes sensitizers, the combination of low vigilance and low avoidance corresponds to the low anxious category, and the combination of high vigilance and high avoidance represents the defensive high anxious category (Krohne, 1993). Repressive and sensitizing coping responses that are reflected in individual differences in emotional arousal and self reported affect. With few exceptions, past research on repression and sensitization has paid little attention to media violence as a source of activating individual differences in coping with anxiety. The
studies reviewed below all followed the Weinberger approach and used a combination of state anxiety and social desirability to identify repression and sensitization.

**Achievement Motivation:**

Achievement motivation is an important issue for psychologists and individuals in the field of education because it has been correlated with academic self-concept (Marsh & Ayotte, 2003), academic self-efficacy (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003), personality traits (Mandel & Marcus, 1988), developmental level (Guay, Marsh, & Boivin, 2003), and gender differences (Mandel & Marcus, 1988). Motivation often determines whether and to what extent students actually learn a challenging task, especially if the cognitive and behavioral processes necessary for learning a challenging tasks are voluntary and under their control. Once college students have learned how to do something successfully, motivation is largely responsible for continue to do it. Both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is major categories with which college students are engaged in the process of learning new knowledge and skills. Both types of motivation may not have same effect on student learning and performance at the college level (Ormrod, 2008). Achievement motivation is considered a prerequisite for success, not only in academic, but also in sports and job related situations. In academic settings, the interest in motivation is partly inspired by the notion that students' motivation, operationalized, e.g. as their competency beliefs and value beliefs, could be more malleable than their cognitive ability, and these could prove to be a potential lead for the educational system for improving learning and achievement processes in students (e.g. Spinath, Spinath, Harlaar, & Plomin, 2006). Sex differences in
achievement motivation have also been studied widely (Meece, Glienke, & Burg, 2006). In the context of academic achievement, gender role stereotypes are confirmed when motivation is studied domain specifically. Boys were found to be more confident and interested in mathematics and science as compared to girls, while girls prefer, and feel more confident about language-related domains compared to boys. Researchers have tried to examine whether these sex differences in motivation can predict sex differences in academic achievement (e.g., Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008). Personality and motivation play important roles in explaining sex differences in school attainment (Steinmayr and Spinath, 2008). Different motivational models have emerged to explain these differences eg. (Eccles-Parsons et.al.,1983.Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). Theoretical models of achievement motivation also relate this topic to future student success, learning outcomes, student choices, and student desire to engage in a behavior (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). Student's choice of academic stream has its relation with their level of achievement motivation (Upadhyay and Tiwari, 2009). There are several reports that show students select their academic streams based on some factors such as personality type, self-esteem and expectation (Pike, 2006a; Pullmann & Allik, 2008). Ahmadi, Fathi-Ashtiani, Ghaffari and Hossein-Abadi (2009) reported that in terms of educational adjustment there was a meaningful difference between medical students and other academic streams. There are many other influencing factors that affect the selection of streams by students. These factors include interest in the streams, peer pressure, family pressure, academic ability, the major's reputation, job availability, achievement motivation and others.
Need for achievement has traditionally been conceptualized as a unitary disposition that motivates a person to face challenges in the interest of attaining success and excellence (Atkinson, 1958, 1974, McClelland, 1961, Mehrabian, 1968). This disposition leads a person to set difficult yet attainable goals, to strive for perfection, to calculate risks, to face uncertainty (or to tolerate ambiguity) to find novel and creative solutions for problems instead of adopting conventional solutions and to assume personal responsibility for the consequences of his or her behavior.

Explicit and implicit motivations have a compelling impact on behavior. Task behaviors are accelerated in the face of a challenge through implicit motivation, making performing a task in the most effective manner the primary goal. A person with a strong implicit drive will feel pleasure from achieving a goal in the most efficient way. The increase in effort and overcoming the challenge by mastering the task satisfies the individual. However, the explicit motives are built around a person's self-image. This type of motivation shapes a person's behavior based on their own self-view and can influence their choices and responses from outside cues. The primary agent for this type of motivation is perception or perceived ability. Many theorists still cannot agree whether achievement is based on mastering one's skills or striving to promote a better self-image (Brunstein & Maier, 2005).

Motivation is the basic drive for all of our actions. Motivation refers to the dynamics of our behavior, which involves our needs, desires, and ambitions in life. Achievement motivation is based on reaching success and achieving all of our aspirations in life.
Achievement goals can affect the way a person performs a task and represent a desire to show competence (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997).

Student perceptions are thought to influence motivation for learning and achievement. A study examined perception variables of 900 rural high school students of all grade levels (Hardré, Sullivan & Crowson, 2009). Students were given three questionnaires to measure motivation-related perceptions that included variables of perceived classroom climate, perceived academic ability, perceived instrumentality of instruction, and achievement goals. Students’ school engagement and effort were also measured. They found no differences across the age levels on achievement goals. However, they found that learning goals are a predictor of student engagement in rural areas, and perceived ability predicted achievement goals. Furthermore, supportive classroom environments and instrumentality were positively related to student engagement and motivation. Therefore, a student’s goal to learn in the school setting may be linked to his or her motivation to achieve academically. This research relates to how a student uses other comparisons and tries to use these comparisons to outperform academically.

A study was conducted on students involving unsolvable problems to test some assumptions of the self-worth theory regarding motivation and effort. The results showed that there was no evidence of reported reduction of effort despite poor performance when the tasks were described as moderately difficult as compared with tasks much higher in difficulty. The possibility was raised that low effort may not be
responsible for the poor performance of students in situations which create threats to self-esteem. Two suggestions were made, one being that students might unconsciously withdraw effort, and the other stating that students may reduce effort as a result of withdrawing commitment from the problem. Regardless of which suggestion is true, self-worth theory assumes that individuals have a reduced tendency to take personal responsibility for failure (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).

McClelland proposed that there are two kinds of achievement motivation, one oriented around avoiding failure and the other around the more positive goal of attaining success. Atkinson, another motivational theorist, drew from the work of Lewin and McClelland in forming his need-achievement theory, a mathematical framework that assigned the desire to succeed and the desire to avoid failure as important determinants in achievement behavior (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

McClelland has found that achievement-motivated people are more likely to be developed in families in which parents hold different expectations for their children than do other parents. More importantly, these parents expect their children to start showing some independence between the ages of six and eight, making choices and doing things without help, such as knowing the way around the neighbourhood and taking care of themselves around the house. Other parents tend either to expect this too early, before children are ready, or to smother the development of the personality of these children. One extreme seems to foster passive, defeated attitudes as children feel unwanted at home and incompetent away from home. They are just not ready for that kind of
independence so early. The other extreme yields either overprotected or over-disciplined children. These children become very dependent on their parents and find it difficult to break away and make their own decisions.

Panwar P.S., (1986), in his research on “Role of academic achievement and school background in self concept, self disclosure and inferiority feeling among students of Kumaun Hills” found that academic achievement, home background and school environment had significant effect on self concept. He further disclosed that academic achievement had no significant relationship with feeling of inferiority.

Saini, Sarita, (2005), in their article “Family environment and academic achievement of adolescents” explored that family environment of adolescents children of working and non working mothers were significantly different. In respect of academic achievement, adolescents of working mothers were better than the adolescent’s children of non working mothers.

Pandey (2005) studied parental disciplining behaviour and academic achievement of adolescents and found that there was a positive effect of father’s disciplining behaviour upon academic achievement of urban adolescents of high intellectual level, rural adolescents showed positive and significant impact of mother’s disciplining behaviour upon academic achievement of average intellectual level.
Tikoo (2008) revealed that as the home and school deprivation increases, achievement motivation deteriorates which means that deprivation regarding food, medicine, clothing facilities, parental love, affection and encouragement develops emotional instability, psychic imbalances among children and they experience anxiety, irritation, doubt, conflicts which ultimately lead to low achievement motivation.

Chowdhury Aparajita & Muni, Anita Kumari (1995) in their study about “Role of parental support in children need satisfaction and academic achievement”, found that need satisfied by parents was much more than need satisfied by outside family members. With regards to academic it was found from the academic marks of the children that the average ranging (40-60) students were getting more parental support.

Skaalvik (1990) Academic self-esteem and perceived expectations were assessed in this study. Results indicated that the girls had a significantly higher level of achievement and higher success expectations than males. No gender differences were found in relation to expectations in mathematics or in general academic self-esteem.

Mandel & Marcus (1988) The Developmental Theory Model describes normal personality development for individuals from birth to their mid-20s as centered on dependence and independence. The DTM posits that children between the ages of 7 to 9 years begin to develop a greater importance of mature and differentiated self-concept than younger children. Children also are ready to engage in social roles outside of the home that might increase their desires to attend school. Therefore, children between these ages have a different view of school compared to older children, and their motivation is likely to change at
the end of this period of time. Their achievement motivation is often focused on extrinsic factors such as praise or reward for task completion and effort. Children between the ages of 9 and 12 years come to the realization that their futures are important. Children have more responsibility to complete their homework and increased academic demands that they relate to the importance of future. This realization means that motivation at this point becomes focused on meeting achievement demands, but there is a connection with the internal importance of meeting demands. Between the ages of 12 and 17, individuals struggle with peer relationships and independence-dependence conflict. This affects motivation in terms of following what one desires or settling for easy paths. This most likely is a time period to see issues related to under-achieving in youth. Does the young adolescent continue to study hard for a test because he or she wants to perform better than his or her peers, or does the adolescent choose to study hard for a test because he or she loves to do well on exams? The young adolescent is faced with new academic challenges, and achievement motivation is likely to change with these school demands. After 17 years of age, the individual begins to establish a more appropriate self-concept and independence. At this point, motivation is persuaded by the new challenges for which the individual feels competent or not competent enough to succeed in the future.

Feldman (2006), in his article, “Discovering the life span”, writes that, during middle childhood, children spend less time with their parents. Sibling becomes an important influencing force, for good and for bad. Although brothers and sister can provide support, companionship, and security, they can also be a source of strife. Sibling
rivalry can occur, especially when the siblings are the same sex and similar in age. He further in his article views with disproving the stereotype that only-children are spoiled and self-centred, they are as well adjusted as children with brothers and sisters. In fact, in some ways, only-children are better adjusted, with higher self-esteem and stronger motivation to achieve. The time alone also gives children a chance to focus on homework and school or personal projects.

**Self Confidence:**

(Geeta S. Pastey and Vijayalaxmi A. Aminbhavi 2006) The analyzed and interpreted findings of the study have led to adolescents with high emotional maturity have significantly higher stress and self confidence than those with lower emotional maturity. Sex of the adolescents has not influenced their stress and self confidence. Having more number of siblings has influenced positively the self confidence of adolescents when compared to those having less number of siblings. Whereas number of siblings has not influenced significantly their stress. Order of birth of adolescents has no significant impact on their stress and self confidence. Varying educational level of adolescents’ fathers has significantly influenced the stress experience of their adolescent children. Whereas the educational level of parents has not influenced the self confidence of their adolescent children. Income of family has no significant impact on the stress and self confidence of adolescents.

Debra Instone, Brenda Major, Barbara B. Bunker (1983) studied the gender, self-confidence and social influence strategies: An organizational simulation. Investigated whether men and women in positions of equal power differ in the strategies they use to influence
subordinates. 24 male and 24 female undergraduates were placed into a supervisory role in a simulated organizational setting and were compared on the frequency, range, and types of influence strategies they used to direct the work of 3 bogus subordinates. Although gender differences consistent with general sex-role stereotypes were found, most differences were weak and only of marginal significance. Relative to males, females made fewer influence attempts, used a more limited range of influence strategies, used fewer rewarding strategies, particularly promises of pay increases, and used more coercive strategies, especially pay deductions. Females displayed lower levels of self-confidence than did males, and sex-linked differences in self-confidence explained much of the gender difference observed in the frequency with which influence attempts were made and the extent to which coercive strategies were used.

Industrial Economic Institute (2000) studies the interactions between an individual's self esteem and his social environment in the workplace, at school, and in personal relationships. Because a person generally has only imperfect knowledge of his own abilities, people who derive benefits from his performance (parent, spouse, friend, teacher, manager, etc.) have incentives to manipulate his self confidence. They first study situations where an informed principal chooses an incentive structure, such as offering payments or rewards, delegating a task, or giving encouragement. They show that extrinsic rewards may have hidden costs as stressed by psychologists in that they undermine intrinsic motivation. As a result, they may be only weak reinforces in the short run, and become negative reinforces once withdrawn. Similarly, empowerment is likely to increase motivation, while offers of help may
create dependence. More generally, they identify when the hidden costs of rewards are a myth or a reality.

Grabe, Ward, and Hyde (2008), reported that 50% of girls and undergraduate women stated being dissatisfied with their bodies. This unhappiness has serious consequences because it is linked to physical and mental health issues, such as Bulimia and poor self-esteem. Clark and Tiggemann (2008) also found that a negative body image is associated with a low self-concept for women, can be harmful to social functioning, and can lead to eating disorders. It is agreed that body dissatisfaction is one of the strongest predictors of subsequent eating disorders, low self-esteem, depression, and obesity (Grabe et al., 2008; Clark & Tiggeman, 2008).

Women who experience low self-esteem see it as “reflective of a personal deficit” which leads to more self-doubt and makes women feel caught in a cycle of negativity (Dickerson, 2004). Hancock (1989) also describes the almost universal experience for females growing up in the United States that involves “a loss of voice” and “a confidence gap” from childhood into adulthood. During this process, females undergo a loss of identity that is vital to their understanding of themselves. Hancock (1989) acknowledges that, for seemingly no reason, females tend to experience and exhibit a poor self-concept through their actions and behaviors, as they age.

In contrast to the stifling and repressive 1950’s, the 1960’s were a revolt against classic gender roles and stereotypes. A publication like The Feminine Mystique, by Betty Friedan (1963), gave suburban women a voice and was a precursor to feminism (Carlson & Dionne,
Women were becoming more educated and dissatisfied with their limited social positions and became a viable force for change in the last half of the twentieth century. Certainly, the advent of the Vietnam War also provided a cause against which women fought and sparked a spirit of activism in the young adult population. Men and women alike rallied and protested with a general feeling that their actions could be fruitful and recognized, which spilled over into other avenues, such as feminism (Carlson & Dionne, 1997).

Dubois, Burk, Braston, Swenson, Tevendale and Hardesty (2002) revealed that environment has been shown to play important role in determining trajectories of adolescents’ self-esteem. Researchers have noted the particular vulnerabilities of rural youth, who tended to more isolated and have to fewer educational, recreational and other public health resources (Apostal & Bilden, 1991; Markstrom, Marshall & Tryon, 2000; Murray & Keller, 1991). In addition, relative to urban and suburban communities, rural settings are characterized by greater isolation, fewer educational and public health resources, and higher levels of poverty (Apostal & Bilden, 1991; Markstrom, Marshall & Tryon, 2000; Murray & Keller, 1991). This, in turn, may lead lower aspiration, self-esteem, self-concept and fewer opportunities for success (Housley, Martin McCoy & Greenhouse, 1987; Markstrom et al. 2000). Devi and Prashani (2004) reported that pupils staying in rural area generally suffer from social and cultural deprivation in comparison with urban pupils. There are indications from research that the environment plays a determining role student in self-esteem. Student come from urban environment are found to be superior as compared to the students from the rural environments. The important social changes in the
adolescents included increased peer group influence, more mature patterns of social behavior new social groupings and social acceptance. For the proper development of child, organized and effective environment in the family and his social world are pre-requisites. An absence of these means in deprived environment affects their mental health.

Self-confident males tend to overvalue male performers. Probably, males project their positive attitude towards themselves on performers of their own gender, but not on females. In psychology, such overestimation of similarity is well-known under the name of “the false consensus effect” (e.g. Ross, Greene, and House 1977; Bauman and Geher 2002). In general, previous literature indicates that highly self-confident individuals behave differently from individuals with low levels of self-confidence (e.g. Falk, Huffman, and Sunde 2006; Niederle and Vesterlund 2007).

Social acceptance brings about self confidence and produces high self-esteem in them, whereas rejection from peers and loneliness brings about self-doubts, poor self image and produces low self-esteem (Leary & Baumeister, 2000).

**Assertiveness:**

Assertiveness is a form of communication in which needs or wishes are stated clearly with respect for oneself and the other person in the interaction. Assertive communication is distinguished from passive communication (in which needs or wishes go unstated) and aggressive communication (in which needs or wishes are stated in a hostile or demanding manner) Kristalyn Salters-Pedneault, (2009).
According to Dr. Linda Tillman, (2004) a licensed clinical psychologist and founder of SpeakUpForYourself.Com, our culture still supports men in aggressive behavior and women in deferent behavior. So men who are afraid to speak up may express themselves aggressively and women who are afraid to speak up may put aside their wishes to please the other person." Take for example the wife who does not defend herself against her sister-in-law's put-downs because she knows how important family harmony is to her husband. She is allowing herself to be stepped on in the best interest of her husband and is ignoring her own best interests.

Assertive behavior is “Behavior which enables a person to act in his own best interests, to stand up for himself without undue anxiety, to express his honest feeling comfortably, or to exercise his own rights without denying the rights of others.” (Calberti and Emmons 1974) Assertiveness is the expression of one’s feelings, beliefs, opinions, and needs in a direct, honest and appropriate manner. Such assertive behavior will reflect a high regard for one’s own personal rights as well as the rights of others.

Wills, Thomas A.; Baker, Eli; Botvin, Gilbert J.(1989) tested a multidimensional formulation of assertiveness and substance (tobacco, alcohol, and marijuana) use in 3 metropolitan-area school samples of adolescents aged 12-14 yrs. Three studies (N = 675, N = 1,430, and N = 5,545) included inner-city and suburban settings and included White, Black, and Hispanic students. Factor analysis of versions of the Gambrill-Richey Assertion Inventory indicated five independent dimensions of assertive behavior. Multiple regression analyses indicated
that a dimension of Substance-specific Assertiveness was inversely associated with substance use, whereas dimensions of Social Assertiveness and Dating Assertiveness were positively associated with substance use. A dimension of General Assertiveness was unrelated to substance use. Interaction effects indicated that relations were stronger for girls for Substance and Social Assertiveness and for boys for Dating Assertiveness.

Catherine J. Goldberg-Lillehoj, Richard Spoth, Linda Trudeau (2005) there is evidence of higher prevalence rates for alcohol use among rural adolescents relative to urban adolescents. Strategies aimed at preventing adolescent alcohol use typically include the development of social skills to resist peer pressure; among the social skills frequently targeted is assertiveness. Self-report data were collected from a sample of rural adolescents participating in a longitudinal preventive intervention study. Five hypothesized dimensions of assertiveness were validated with confirmatory factor analysis: specific substance refusal, individual rights, transaction, justice, and social approach. Using gender as a between-subjects factor, plus time and assertiveness as within-subjects factors to predict an alcohol use composite index, repeated measures analyses revealed a number of significant findings. Several assertiveness dimensions were found to have significant effects on the alcohol use index, and significant two-way and three-way interaction effects (gender, time, assertiveness dimension) also were found. Findings support the idea of including multidimensional assertiveness skill development as a component of preventive interventions, particularly for rural adolescents.
Assertiveness is ability themselves express directly and properly, valuing their feelings and thinking in identifying strengths and weaknesses. In fact assertiveness means respecting themselves and others (Shahni Yelagh & Rezaei 2000). Assertiveness training teaches to person that show respond appropriately in social situations to express their opinions and to reach their goals. Assertiveness training is relevant to the decisiveness. But also deals with a variety of real-life duties, such as buying food, job search, interact with others and Find dominated to shyness (Sadock, Persian translate Pourafkari, 2007) Lazarous (1971) finds assertiveness in the four components: (i) rejects demand (ii) to attract the love of others (iii) positive and negative expressing emotions (iv) Start and continue and end of dialogue (Shahbazi, 2005). Basis of assertive training is enabling of the people in controlling their life. Assertiveness training to help people avoid stereotypical and repetitive behavior and In any case, the appropriate response occurred to current situation.

Allmaras, Jim, A.(1976) Describe that Social interaction between 18 experimental subjects, who had been dichotomized as either high assertive or low assertive from scores received on the college self expression scale, and 36 non-target subjects, was unobtrusively videotaped. Sixteen observers viewed 20 minutes of social interaction for each experimental subject and recorded the rate and/or duration of are ethologically derived components of assertive or non-assertive behavior. In addition, the experiential subjects were dichotomized on the basis of Overall Assertiveness ratings. The frequency of the dependent measures was more highly related to Overall ratings of assertiveness, with 7 or 8 behavioral measures differentiating the high and low
assertive subject. Subjects dichotomized by the CSES were differentiated by frequency and/or duration of 3 of the eight dependent variables. No differences were observed between male and female subjects for the 5 assertive measures. However, females displayed significantly few non-assertive behaviors than males. The results and implications of the present research are discussed.

Tom G. Stevens Low decision-making experience that trap people in external I have addressed many individual factors such as low self-worth and control. Suggestions were given for increasing internal control for each of these factors. In the remaining part of the chapter I will suggest additional methods for overcoming external control. The first set of methods focuses on overcoming internal barriers to internal control such as belief systems, fears, thought and habits. The second set focuses on external barriers to internal control such as other people's manipulation. The first set focuses on what we tell ourselves and the second set focuses on what we tell other people. In both cases we are attempting to become more internally controlled in a way that shows empathy and love of self balanced with empathy and love of others. Actively seeking this balance of caring is being assertive-seeking win-win solutions to problems. It contrasts first with non-assertive-not adequately taking care of one’s own needs: I lose, you win. Non-assertion results in passive, dependent behavior. Assertiveness also contrasts with being aggressive-seeking one’s own goals without adequate consideration of others' needs: I win, you lose. Aggression results in dominating, manipulative behavior. Many external forces try to influence our decisions- including many people we love and respect. Many internal forces try to influence our decisions- including many
lower and higher desires. If we are too influenced by external forces, we risk lack of inner satisfaction and depression. If we are too influenced by our own self-directed desires, we risk social consequences and guilt. Allowing the Higher Self to balance empathetic listening to both internal with external messages and to give primary responsibility for meeting desires to each individual can resolve the internal-external control conflict. We can attain internal control and win-win solutions.

A discriminated analysis of responses to the Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (RAS) was performed to investigate sex-related differences in assertiveness. The analysis revealed a discriminated function differentiating between males and females, with males scoring higher on the function than females. However, inspection of the composition of the discriminated function indicated that responses on a significant number of the items of the RAS did not differ between males and females, and furthermore, on some items, females reported themselves as more assertive than males. Results are discussed in terms of claims that the RAS is a measure of a “general” trait of assertiveness. Boris Crassini, H. G. Law, E. Wilson (2011).

Qadir, A. Sajitha; Sugumar, V. Raji (2013). They conducted with an aim to study the assertiveness level of adolescents with reference to their gender and locality. The samples were taken from schools in Chennai city for urban sample and schools in Cumbum, Madurai District in Tamil Nadu for rural samples. A random sample of 100 adolescents was chosen for the study. They were divided as 50 boys and 50 girls. The 50 boys were further divided as 25 from urban area and 25 from rural area. The same division was followed for the 50 girls also.
The Rathus' Assertiveness Schedule (1967) was used to study the assertiveness of the selected adolescents. The data was subjected to statistical analysis and the following results were revealed. The result of the study showed no significant difference in assertiveness level between the adolescents based on gender. But when assertiveness was studied based on locality it was found that the urban adolescents had better assertiveness scores than the rural adolescents both among boys and girls.

Individual rights assertiveness and decision making may influence expectancies and refusal intentions, which in turn influence substance initiation. Regarding individual rights assertiveness and expectancies, research suggests that individuals who lack assertiveness are more likely to expect substances to aid in coping, allowing them to relieve stress, increase positive effect, and increase social support (Wills & Shiffman, 1985). Also, earlier research found that individual rights assertiveness was negatively associated with future intentions to use (Lillehoj et al., 2002), suggesting that individual rights assertiveness also would be associated with future refusal intentions. For example, students who assessed themselves as highly assertive in interpersonal situations also would be likely to assess their refusal self-efficacy as high, and refusal self-efficacy would likely be incorporated into a self-assessment of refusal intentions. In addition, students with higher levels of individual rights assertiveness would likely feel they had the capacity to meet their interpersonal needs; therefore, they would not be as likely to feel the need to relieve stress or increase positive affect through the use of substances. Extrapolating from these studies, we hypothesized that individual rights assertiveness would influence both negative
exp

epectancies and refusal intentions. It also seemed likely that individual rights assertiveness may interact with both negative expectancies and refusal intentions, such that individual rights assertiveness would influence substance initiation differently depending on the levels of negative expectancies and refusal intentions. In other words, a higher level of individual rights assertiveness would be associated with a lower level of substance initiation only if levels of negative expectancies or refusal intentions were relatively high. We evaluated these potential interactions.

Academic anxiety is an important educational problem that affects millions of students in colleges and schools over the world each year. Although a low level of anxiety can cause positive motivation for improvement of educational functioning, high levels of it can cause a disturbance in concentration, attention, storage of knowledge, recall and educational reduction. It has also been recently determined that there is a relationship between anxiety and assertiveness. Therefore, this study is an attempt to determine the effect of assertiveness training on reducing anxiety levels in pre-college academic students in Gonabad city in 2008. In this clinical trial study, all the pre-college students of Gonabad city were invited to participate and 89 students were divided into experimental and control groups. The results showed that anxiety levels and decisiveness in the target group were moderate to high and it is seen as a significant reverse relationship between these two factors ($r = -0.69$ and $p < 0.001$). The results also showed that there was a significant anxiety decrease in the experimental group after the intervention. On the one hand, there was a significant increase in decisiveness for both groups, but there was not a significant difference between academic anxiety and assertiveness in the control group before and after the
intervention. Due to a significant decrease in anxiety and increased decisiveness in the experimental group, it can be claimed that assertiveness training is an effective non-pharmacological method for reducing academic anxiety and it can improve academic performance (Mohebi S, Sharifirad GH, Shahsiah M, Botlani S, Matlabi M, Rezaeian M.2012).

Caballo (1993) explain that assertive individuals usually cope well in their interpersonal relation, are satisfied with their social life, and confident that can change when they need to. However, aggressive people, when defending their personal rights which they usually do in a domineering way transgress ethical norms and do not care whether others rights are disregarded. At the other extreme, students who display passive behaviour are incapable of expressing their thoughts and feelings to others, and if they do so, they are self-defeating and behave with a lack of confidence. This causes them to be ignored by others, which are a result, decreases their self-esteem .Caballo also status that an unassertive person in addition to showing a lack of self-respect, also displays some lack of confidence in other capacity to deal with frustration, responsibilities, etc. Ultimately, they hope to appease others and avoid conflict. In his bidimensional model, Del Greco (1983) refers to different forms of implicit and explicit coercion in these patterns. Assertion is openly expressed, without exerting coercion on the other person whereas aggressive behaviour is openly but coercively, expressed. However another form of coercion is that displayed is passive aggression, in which the behaviour is indirectly expressed while attempting to control the other person indirectly or subtly. Nonassertion implies either a lack of expression of the behaviour or else indirect expression, but without intimidating the other person.