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ATTITUDE TOWARDS RESEARCH OF Ph.D. RESEARCH SCHOLARS IN RELATION TO THEIR RESEARCH ANXIETY AND SELF-EFFICACY

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Abstract

Present study was undertaken to investigate the relationship of attitude towards research with research anxiety and research self-efficacy. 75 Ph.D. research scholars were selected randomly from the discipline of Social Sciences of Panjab University, Chandigarh. Research attitude scale by Bhutia and Kharsati (2013), adapted version of research anxiety rating scale by Onwuegbuzie (2013), and research self-efficacy scale developed by the Investigator were used for data collection. Result of the study revealed significant negative relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety. Significant positive relationship was found between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy. Both research anxiety and research self-efficacy significantly predict attitude towards research.

Key words: *Attitude towards research, research anxiety, research self-efficacy, Ph.D. research scholars.*

Introduction

Research basically invents the information or results which are already lying in society. It contributes towards the understanding of the phenomenon and then communicates that understanding to others. In this way research plays a key role of contributing in social and scientific developments. With the advent of science and technology, the world

is changing fast and life style is becoming complex. In the fast moving world research has become important intellectual equipment for the human beings to mould their life style according to the needs and necessities of the society. Education has important role to play in the development of proper attitude among the young generation to meet the needs of complex personalities and general outlook of life. Education also enable

individuals to expand their knowledge and skills, express their thoughts clearly in speech and in writing, grasp abstract concepts and theories, and increase their understanding of their community and the world.

Education in a research situation is completed to get better performance of school and at the same time to advance those students who thrash about to progress those practices (Best & Kahn, 1993).

In everyday life people persevere at activities they believe are possible. Convinced they have the ability to accomplish a task, they surely attempt it. But, Uncertainty makes them reluctant. The same is the case with the researchers. If they have positive attitude towards research, they will complete the research pleasantly and it will be of good quality (Saleem, Farid & Akhter, 2015).

Attitudes of males and females had been under study since long in different fields of study. Girls' and boys' views on gender roles and corresponding areas of activities have changed considerably in recent years. That is they think and exhibit different behaviors while performing the same task. As research is an exhaustive and continuous process of investigation of

certain aspect, therefore, it requires positive attitude to accomplish in good quality (Kaiser-Messmer, 1993).

Attitude towards Research

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) defined the attitude towards research as learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to research.

Attitude towards research can be defined as a multidimensional construct consisting of the degree to which students regard research as useful for their profession; they regard research as being of relevance to their life in general; they demonstrate positive attitudes towards research; they experience anxiety about research; and they find research methodology difficult (Papanastasiou, 2005). Papanastasiou (2005) infers that it is important to study the attitude towards research. According to Zan and Martino (2007) 'the attitude towards research basically means a detailed study of thinking, feeling and the person's behaviour towards research'. According to Bolin, Lee, Glen, Maye and Yoon (2012) attitude towards research can be seen as involving an effective response or feeling toward research. These attitudinal responses include

the attitudes so often described in the literature: negativity, anxiety, fear of failure, feeling inadequately, prepared or unable to perform, and disinterest. According to Rezaei and Zamani-Miandasht (2013), "Student's attitude influences how they mentally approach research including all the work related to that research. A positive attitude enables students to solve the problem quickly whereas; a negative attitude hampers the efforts in research". According to Saleem, Butt and Farooqi (2014) the attitude towards research basically means a detailed study of thinking, feeling and the person's behavior towards research. It also specifies how a person is acting in the research field and what importance is given by him to the different aspects of research. According to Saleem, Saeed and Waheed, (2014) "research attitude is researchers' positive or negative orientation towards research". According to Saleem et. al. (2015) "research attitudes describe the researchers' interest or liking regarding research process". According to Bhutia and Kharsati (2013) research attitude is the inclination towards different aspects of research problem which may be due to interest and intuition to research problem. An individual with research attitude have patience and enthusiasm towards the

research work. Scores of the Research Attitude scale by Bhutia and Kharsati (2013) was taken as Research Attitude in the present study.

It can be concluded that attitude towards research is a feeling, belief or reaction to have favorable or unfavorable, negative or positive, pleasant or unhappy, interesting or uninteresting response for doing research. Researcher's attitude influences his psychological and physiological approach to solve the problem. The positive attitude towards research helps to solve the problem and researcher give importance to different facets of research.

Research Anxiety

According to Onwuegbuzie (1997) research anxiety can simply be defined as the anxiety that students experience in courses on research methodology. It is multidimensional mechanism which includes library anxiety, statistical anxiety, composition anxiety, and research process anxiety'. Onwuegbuzie and Wilson (2003) analyze the "three factors that contribute to research anxiety: situational, dispositional, and environmental. Situational factors include prior knowledge and experience. Dispositional factors are those like self-esteem in engaging in math, research

statistics, and the perceived usefulness of these topics. Environmental factors are comprised of learning style, age, gender, and ethnicity". Bokeoglu-Cokluk and Yilmaz (2005) defined research anxiety as "behaviors such as feeling the boredom of the opinion of doing research, not doing research unless obliged, feeling anxious while doing research, lack of confidence about doing research". According to Higgins and Kotrlik (2006) research anxiety refers to the characteristics which a student perceives as discomforting to the extent that productivity may be reduced. Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2008) find that students who considered research to be important for their profession had higher levels of anxiety. But Students who find research anxious and stressful develop greater research anxiety that can affect their performance. Akcoltekin (2014) has stated that research anxiety is an occurrence of anxiety divergently. According to Onwuegbuzie (2013) research anxiety is taken as anxiety involved when a student contemplates, has fear of research language, lack of confidence in formulating research problem or does not have aptitude to master research methods. Scores of the adapted version of research anxiety rating scale by Onwuegbuzie (2013) was taken as research anxiety in the present study.

It can be concluded that research anxiety refers to situation of fear, discomfort or lack of confidence while doing research work. The researcher takes research tasks as stressful or difficult. As the researcher feels anxious about research, the fear and doubts affects the performance during their research work. The research anxiety has many facets as library anxiety, statistical anxiety, writing or composition anxiety, research language anxiety and research process anxiety.

Research Self-efficacy

Research self-efficacy can be defined as the degree to which an individual believes he or she has the ability to complete research tasks and is thought to affect the initiation and persistence of research behaviors (Bieschke, Bishop & Herbert, 1995). Bieschke, Bishop and Garcia (1996) have defined research self-efficacy as confidence in one's ability to successfully execute research-related tasks. Kahn and Scott (1997) have stated that research self-efficacy has been found to predict graduate students' interest in conducting research and their actual research involvement and productivity. Forester, Kahn, and Hesson-McInnis (2004) defined research self-efficacy as one's confidence in successfully performing tasks associated with conducting research.

According to Bieschke (2006) research self-efficacy is judgment about one's ability to perform specific research. Mullikin, Bakken, and Betz (2007) defined research self-efficacy as the confidence one has in his or her abilities to perform research related tasks and activities. Boswell (2014) defined research self-efficacy as confidence in one's ability to successfully execute research-related tasks.

Research self-efficacy may be considered as optimistic self-belief in competence or chances of successfully accomplishing the tasks related to research, including all stages from finding an Idea, conducting research and finally presenting the results. The score of the test of research self-efficacy developed by investigator was taken as research self-efficacy in the present study.

Review of Related Literature

Attitude towards Research and Research Anxiety

Papanastasiou (2005), Adeyinka (2015), Gredig and Bartelsen-Raemy (2018), Garancho and Marpa (2019) found negative relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety. Kakupa and Xue (2019) concluded that enhancing

student's positive attitude towards research will help in eliminating research anxiety. Whereas Maharajan, Rajjah, Tam, Chaw, Ang and Yong (2017), and Natividad, Mangulabnan and Canlas (2019) found no significant relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety. Kritikos, Saini, Carter, Moles, and Krass (2015) on the other hand found significant positive relationship between students' attitude towards research and anxiety towards research.

Attitude towards Research and Research Self-Efficacy

Shirbagi (2011) found similarity in attitude towards research and research self-efficacy among technical and engineering students as well as humanities students. Kalantary and Nasiriani (2019), Pamatmat (2016), Rezaei and Zamani-Miandashti (2013) and Lovu, Runcan and Runcan (2015) found positive correlation between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy. Alma et. al. (2019) found no significant relationship between research self-efficacy and attitude towards research.

Emergence of the Problem: Review of related literature reveals that not much research work has been done on attitude towards research. Investigator found eight

studies conducted on relationship between attitude towards research and Research anxiety- Papanastasiou (2005) in Cyprus; Adeyinka (2015) in Nigeria; Gredig and Bartelsen-Raemy (2018) in Switzerland; Garancho and Marpa (2019), and Alma, et. al. (2019) in Philippine; Kakupa and Xue (2019) in China; Maharajan et. al. (2017) in Malaysia; Kritikos et. al. (2015) in Australia.

Investigator found six studies conducted on relationship between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy - Pamatmat (2016), and Alma et. al. (2019) in Philippines; Shirbagi (2011) in Pakistan; Kalantary and Nasiriani (2019), and Rezaei and Zamani-Miandashti (2013) in Iran; and Lovu et. al. (2015) in Romania.

As no study was found by investigator conducted on the population of Panjab University, Chandigarh on the proposed topic, no definite conclusion can thus be drawn regarding the attitude towards research Ph.D. research scholars in relation to their research anxiety and research self-efficacy. The proposed study seems fully justified.

Objectives

1. To investigate the significance of relationship between attitude towards

research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars.

2. To investigate the significance of relationship between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy of Ph.D. research scholars.
3. To predict attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars on the basis of research anxiety and research self-efficacy.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars.
2. There is no significant relationship between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy of male Ph.D. research scholars.
3. The prediction of attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars on the basis of research anxiety and research self-efficacy is not significant.

Method: Descriptive survey method was used in the present study.

Sample: Simple random technique of sampling was used in the present study. 75

Ph.D. research scholars from the discipline of Social Sciences of Panjab University, Chandigarh formed the sample of the study, which included faculties of Education, Commerce, Psychology, Sociology, Philosophy, Political Science, Economics, History, and Geography.

Delimitations

1. The study was confined to the scholars who have completed their Pre-Ph.D. course work.
2. Self-efficacy was taken as research self-efficacy.

Tools Used

- a) Research Attitude scale by Bhutia and Kharsati (2013).
- b) Adapted version of research anxiety rating scale by Onwuegbuzie (2013).
- c) Research self-efficacy scale developed by the Investigator.

Result and Discussion

Relationship between Attitude towards Research and Research Anxiety of Ph.D. Research Scholars:

To investigate the significance of relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars Pearson's

coefficient of correlation was worked out and the value is given in the table 1 below:

Table 1: Relationship between Attitude towards Research and Research Anxiety of Ph.D. Research Scholars (N=75)

Variables	r
Attitude towards Research	-0.75*
Research Anxiety	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 1 reveals that the value of correlation between attitude towards research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars is -0.75 which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 1 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars' is thus rejected. There is significant negative relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Papanastasiou (2005), Adeyinka (2015), Gredig and Bartelsen-Raemy (2018), Garancho and Marpa (2019), and Kakupa and Xue (2019).

Relationship between Attitude towards Research and Research Self-Efficacy of Ph.D. Research Scholars: To investigate the significance of relationship between

attitude towards research and self-efficacy of Ph.D. research scholars Pearson's coefficient of correlation was worked out and the value is given in the table 2 below:

Table 2: Relationship between Attitude towards Research and Research Self-Efficacy of Ph.D. Research Scholars (N=75)

Variables	r
Attitude towards Research	0.59*
Research Self-Efficacy	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 2 shows that the value of correlation between attitude towards research and self-efficacy of Ph.D. research scholars is 0.59, which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 2 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between attitude towards

research and research self-efficacy of male Ph.D. research scholars' is thus rejected. There is significant positive relationship between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy Ph.D. research scholars. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Kalantary and Nasiriani (2019), Pamatmat (2016), Rezaei and Zamani-Miandashti (2013) and Lovu et. al. (2015).

Prediction of Attitude towards research on the basis of Research Anxiety and Research Self-Efficacy: To predict the attitude towards on the basis of research anxiety and research self-efficacy step-up regression was applied and the values are given in table 3 below:

Table 3 Step-up Regression Equations for Attitude towards Research (N=74)

Variable	Degree of freedom	R ²	R	F-ratio	Step up Regression Equation
Research anxiety	1, 72	0.56	0.75	90.21*	$Y = 19.84 - 0.75X_1$
Research self-efficacy	1, 72	0.36	0.59	39.56*	$Y = 26.49 + 0.59X_2$
Research anxiety and research self-efficacy	2, 71	0.58	0.76	48.51*	$Y = 14.58 - 0.62X_1 + 0.19X_2$

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 3 shows that value of R^2 for research anxiety is 0.56, thus 56% of attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars is predicted by research anxiety. The value of R^2 for research self-efficacy is 0.36, thus 36% of attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars is predicted by research self-efficacy. The combined R^2 is equal to 0.58. Thus 58% of attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars is predicted by research anxiety and research self-efficacy taken together. The F for research anxiety and research self-efficacy taken together is 48.51 which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Thus the prediction of attitude towards on the basis of research anxiety and research self-efficacy is significant. Hypothesis 3 which states that 'The prediction of attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars on the basis of research anxiety and research self-efficacy is not significant,' is thus rejected. The attitude towards research of Ph.D. research scholars is significantly predicted by research anxiety and research self-efficacy significantly both individually and jointly. This is due to significant relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety proved in table 1 above, and with research self-efficacy proved above in table 2.

Implications: The result of the study revealed significant negative relationship between attitude towards research and research anxiety of Ph.D. research scholars. It is also revealed that there is significant positive relationship between attitude towards research and research self-efficacy of Ph.D. research scholars. Both research anxiety and research self-efficacy significantly predict attitude towards research. Low research anxiety and high research self-efficacy will help in developing better attitude towards research among the Ph.D. research scholars. It is suggested that university has to create conducive environment for reducing research anxiety and developing research self-efficacy. Proper facilities in library and laboratories are required. Sufficient funds must be allocated timely for the research activities. Supporting attitude of the supervisors can also help in reducing research anxiety and improving research self-efficacy.

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MENTAL HEALTH OF TEACHERS DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC OUTBREAK IN PUNJAB IN RELATION TO GENDER AND TYPE OF SCHOOL

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Abstract

In the present study investigator tried to investigate mental health of teachers during Covid-19 pandemic situation in relation to their job style and gender in Punjab state. This was an online descriptive survey study in which Mental Health questionnaire was prepared on Google form and sent to teachers teaching in various secondary schools of Ludhiana district in Punjab state. 100 teachers working on regular basis in secondary schools were selected (50 male, 50 female, 50 from Government and 50 from Private schools. Results revealed that male teachers have significantly better mental health than female teachers. Teachers teaching in Government schools have significantly better mental health as compared to teachers teaching in Private schools during this pandemic period.

Key words: *Mental health, male teachers, female teachers, Government school teachers, Private school teachers, Covid-19 pandemic outbreak.*

Introduction

Throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, teachers, school counsellors, and school employees have remained acutely focused on supporting their students and continuing to do their jobs at this time. In some cases, this may mean teaching, care-taking (whether for children or other loved ones), and continuing to work through the same challenges that anyone else is. While resources related to mental health have been (rightfully) front and center for supporting students, parents, and others, less focus has

been paid on maintaining the mental health of the educators who are also trying to find balance in our new way of living and with salary cut from private sector etc.

According to Murzello (2020) National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) report that found teachers experiencing an immense amount of occupational stress in comparison to other professionals.

Mental Health

Good health depends on the state of mind and body. Each exerts a direct influence on the other, but owing to the power of mind over nature, good health is of supreme importance. Health Education Authority (1997) described mental health as the emotional and spiritual resilience, which enable as to survive pain, disappointment and sadness. Kumar (1992) stated that mental health is an index that shows the extent to which the person has been able to meet his environmental demands social, emotional or physical. As laid down in the Surgeon General's Report on Mental Health (1999) mental health is a state of successful performance of mental function resulting in productive activities, fulfilling relationships with other people and the ability to adopt to change and cope with adversity. Mental health is indispensable to personal well-being family and interpersonal relationships, and contribution to community or society. Mental health is the springboard of thinking and communication skills, learning, emotional growth, resilience and self-esteem. As described by World Health Organization (1948) mental health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of

disease or infirmity. World Health Organization (2004) viewed that mental health is a state of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities and can cope with the normal stresses of life can work productively and fruit fully and is able to make a contribution to his or her community. Mental health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or uniformity. According to Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care (2000) mental health in the population requires a long term approach involving multiple sectors of the community for example, having supportive and loving parents, a sense of belonging at school and protection from bullying and other forms of discrimination. Singh and Singh (2006) revealed that though the subjects are normal in general, but a substantial proportion is at risk of developing psychological stress generated problems that may affect their mental health whereas as is described in Dictionary of Cancer Terms (2007) mental health is a person's overall psychological and emotional condition. Good mental health is a state of well-being in which a person is able to cope with everyday events, think clearly, be responsible, meet challenges and have good relationship with

others. Thus, it is concluded that mental health of teachers is necessary, both for their well-being and effectiveness and quality in carrying out teaching-learning processes in the classroom in general, and in particular, for the all-round development of students. A teacher is a central axis of the educational community and acts as coordinator for an entire network of interpersonal relationships and educational processes. For reducing disabling and debilitating mental and somatic symptoms and increasing teacher effectiveness, development of coping strategies among teachers is must. The most prominent hurdles in the way of achievements among pupils and teachers are mental imbalances i.e. anxiety, frustrations, tensions etc. Thus good mental health of a teacher contributes to the effectiveness of a teacher. Kumar and Nayar (2020) have suggested that issues of mental health should be considered and also addressed as anxiety, stress, fear, trauma, helplessness and other psychological issues are experienced during a pandemic. Wang, Pan, Wan, Tan, Xu, Ho, and Ho (2020) reported severe psychological distress (anxiety, stress, and depression) during Covid-19 among Chinese nationals. Similarly, another research on Chinese nationals by Qiu, Shen, Zhao, Wang, Xie and Xu (2020) found

psychological distress such as stress, anxiety, and depression quite common and hence, alarming. Evidently, people's mental health was badly affected during pandemics such as SARS

Related Literature

Islam, Barna, Raihan, Khan and Hossain (2020) conducted a study on 476 students living in Bangladesh. The result of the study showed that students experienced high depression and anxiety. No significant difference was found in depression and anxiety of male and female students.

Karasar and Canli (2020) conducted a study on 518 individuals from different cities of Turkey contacted through Google e-form between April and May 2020. The result of the study revealed that females were depressed as compared to male.

Rehman, Shahnawaz, Khan, Kharshiling, Khursheed, Gupta, Kashyap and Uniyal (2020) conducted a study on 403 participants (110 male and 291 female). The result of the study revealed that both males and females suffer equally by depression. The levels of stress and depression were found to be mild, whereas the levels of anxiety were moderate among males and females.

Review of related literature reveals that no significance difference in depression among male and female (Islam et. al., 2020; and Rehman et. al., 2020) whereas Karasar and Canli (2020) revealed that females were depressed as compared to male.

Significance of Problem: During Covid-19 pandemic situation there are number of challenges faced by teachers in the whole world like teaching online to students, getting learning outcome of students, proving feedback to students using different software, lack of electronic gazettes, remote teaching, Financial cut by Private schools, delayed salary in Government sector, responsibilities of family, Online classes of wards, Less or no income from the part of spouse, shutdown of business, pressure by social and print media. All the above factors are responsible to affect the Mental Health of teachers at all. In the present study investigator tried to find mental health of teachers in relation to their job and gender in Punjab state.

Objectives

1. To investigate significance of difference in the mean scores of mental health among teachers with regard to gender.

2. To investigate significance of difference in the mean scores of mental health among teachers with regard to School.

Hypotheses

1. There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of mental health among male and female teachers.
2. There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of mental health among Government and Private school teachers.

Research Methodology

Design: This was an online descriptive survey study in which Mental Health questionnaire was prepared on Google form and sent to teachers teaching in various secondary schools of Punjab.

Sample: Sample of 100 teachers working on regular basis in Senior Secondary Schools of Ludhiana district of Punjab. Among 100 teachers 50 were male and 50 female also among these 50 were from Government and 50 from Private schools.

Tool Used

'Mental Health of Teachers during Covid-19' developed by the investigator.

Results and Discussion

Difference in Mental Health of Male and Female Teachers during Covid-19 Pandemic Situation: To investigate the significance of difference in mental health of

male and female teachers during Covid-19 pandemic situation mean, standard deviation and t-ratio were worked out and the values are given in table 1 below:

Table1: Significance of difference in Mental Health of Male and Female Teachers

Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-ratio
Male school teachers	50	22.07	9.97	3.93*
Female school teachers	50	16.13	9.01	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 1 shows that mean scores of mental health of male and female teachers are 22.07 and 16.13 respectively. The value of t-ratio is 3.93 which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Hence there exists significant difference in mean scores of mental health of male and female teachers of Punjab. Male teachers of Punjab are mentally healthier than female teachers. This leads to rejection of hypothesis 1 which states that 'There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of mental health among male and female teachers.'

This finding is in line with the study conducted by Karasar and Canli (2020).

Difference in Mental Health of Government and Private School Teachers during Covid-19 Pandemic Situation: To investigate the significance of difference in mental health Government and Private school teachers during Covid-19 pandemic situation mean, standard deviation and t-ratio were worked out and the values are given in table 2 below:

Table 2: Significance of difference in Mental Health of Government and Private School Teachers

Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-ratio
Government school teachers	50	23.12	9.89	3.88*
Private school teachers	50	17.09	9.13	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 2 shows that mean scores of mental health of Government and Private school

teachers are 23.12 and 17.09 respectively. The value of t-ratio is 3.88 which is

significant ($p < 0.01$). Hence there exists significant difference in mean scores of mental health among Government and Private school teachers of Punjab. Government school teachers of Punjab are mentally healthier than Private school teachers. This leads to rejection of hypothesis 2 which states that 'There exists no significant difference in the mean scores of mental health among Government and Private school teachers.' This may be due to the difference salary, job security, and working hours in government and private sector. The private sector employees are not getting proper salary, their job is at risk in the COVID-19 situation.

Implications: Results of the study showed that male teachers of Punjab are mentally healthier than female teachers. It is suggested that employer and family has to create conducive conditions for female teachers to improve their mental health. Government school teachers of Punjab are mentally healthier than Private school teachers. It is thus suggested that as the managements of private schools are not able to pay proper salary to the teachers due to relaxation in the fees of the students, government has to intervene and ensure proper salary and job security to the teachers

working in private schools during the COVID-19 situation.

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OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN RELATION TO PERSONALITY HARDINESS AMONG MALE AND FEMALE SCHOOL TEACHERS

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Abstract

The present study is an attempt to study the relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness among school teachers. Sample of the study consists of 100 (50 male and 50 female) school teachers of Ludhiana district. Occupational Stress Index by Srivastava and Singh (1984) and Singh and Personality Hardiness Scale for Teachers by Kaur, and Kaur (2012) were used to collect data. The results of the study showed no significant difference in occupational stress of male and female school teachers. The results showed that occupational stress and personality hardiness in teachers is negatively correlated.

Key Words: *Occupational stress, personality hardiness, male school teachers, female school teachers.*

Introduction

Education is an important aspect that plays a huge role in the development of a nation. The future of nation is being shaped in the classrooms. One of the most important factor influencing education is the teacher. The role of the teacher is very important in imparting knowledge and implementing the plans and programmes of the nation. A teacher who begins the professional life with a commitment and sense of responsibility has to face many challenges in his professional life and for discharging his

duties and responsibilities well, a teacher must be competent, possess good mental health and above all he should be satisfied with his job.

A teacher is a kingpin in the entire system of education. Earlier, a teacher was held in high esteem by almost all cultures of the world and was given names like "Mentor" or "Guru". With changing times and with change in norms and traditions, there has been a drastic change in the expectations from a teacher. Teaching has now become a very demanding occupation

as teachers besides playing many roles, have many deadlines to meet and a lot of responsibilities to shoulder (Kaur, 2011).

Occupational Stress is stress at work. Stress is mental, physical or emotional strain or tension or it is a situation or factor that can cause this. Occupational stress occurs when there is a discrepancy between the demands of the environment/workplace and an individual's ability to carry out and complete these demand. As with other forms of tension, occupation stress can eventually affect both physical and emotional well-being if not managed effectively.

According to the current World Health Organization's (WHO), occupational or work-related stress "is the response people may have when present with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope (Maulik, 2017). Allen, Hitt and Green (1982) have defined occupational stress as distribution of individual's physiological and psychological homeostasis that force them to deviate from usual functioning in interaction with their job and work environment.

According to Kar and Mishra (2016) occupational stress is a mental and physical condition, which affects an individual's

productivity, effectiveness, personal health and quality of work. According to National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (1999) Occupational stress is the harmful physical and emotional response that occurs when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities resources, or needs of the worker. The stress related to the job has become a predominating feature of modern life, exerting effect on employees and their adjustment with the environment as well as the job. Hinger, Parman and Kumar (2001) found that female professionals, lecturers, doctors, administrators experience different type of stresses and to different degrees. They found that balancing domestic roles with a career imposes a serious stress on the professional females.

Rasul and Devi (2012) identified the sources of occupational stress and the extent of experienced stress of secondary school teachers of lower Assam. The study revealed that sources of occupational stress are different. The study proved that family conflict is the strong source of occupational stress. It revealed that all teachers experience stress. Hence, it is imperative that teachers develop coping skills to reduce stress at workplace.

Stressful circumstances are an endemic part of living and hence courage is needed if one is to grow and develop rather than deny and avoid. Hardiness is a pattern of attitudes and skills that provide the courage, strategies to turn adverse circumstances from potential disasters into growth opportunities instead.

Hardiness, as a personality style was first introduced by Kobasa in 1979. Kobasa described a pattern of personality characteristics that distinguished managers and executives who remained healthy under life stress, as compared to those who developed health problems (Kobasa, 1979). Maddi (2006) has characterized hardiness as a combination of three attitudes (commitment, control and challenge) that together provide the courage and motivation needed to turn stressful circumstances from potential calamities into opportunities for personal growth.

Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn (1982) defined hardiness as a constellation of personality characteristics that function as a resistance resource in encounter with stressful life events. Thus hardiness personality style is a source of positive resistance to the debilitating effects of stressful life events on health. Hardy person

tend to have dedication to a purpose, a survival in the face of stress and also the enrichment of life. Hardiness is a shock absorber for stress so that, a person who has more psychological hardiness is in a better position to handle stress at work and can perform well especially during tough times when the job demands are high. Bartone (2006) considers hardiness as something more global than mere attitudes. He conceives hardiness as a broad personality style or generalized mode of functioning that includes cognitive, emotional and behavioural qualities. Psychological hardiness is a personality based tendency which reduces the impact of stress by optimistic cognitive appraisals and decision copying action. Hardiness is often considered an important factor in psychological resilience or an individual-level pathway leading to resilient outcomes. As stressful circumstances mount, so does the physical and mental strain on the individual, and which in turn leads to breakdowns in health and performance. In short, the personality style of hardiness is proposed to have a moderating effect on stress by encouraging effective mental and behavioral coping, building and utilizing social support, and engagement in effective self-care and health practices.

The Teachers are under immense pressure to meet the expectations of students, parents and employers and in the process of meeting these expectations the teachers are exposed to stressors that effect their abilities and lead to decrease in their performance and efficiency. Teachers who are hardier tend to put stressful circumstances into perspective and interpret them in a less threatening manner and have better coping strategies. They have better understanding of self and are interested in new experiences and learning new things. Such teachers will cope better with the demands of their profession and turn the stressful events into an opportunity for growth and in the process achieve greater effectiveness. Sezgin (2009) in the study on teachers working at primary schools in Ankara, found that psychological hardiness is a meaningful construct predicting the perception of primary school teachers on organizational commitment. Kumar, Batta, Kumar, Sharma, Bhatia and Bhuchar (2019) studied the relationship of organizational commitment and hardiness personality with occupational stress of primary school teachers and found that occupational stress is negatively related with organizational commitment and personality hardiness and concluded that teachers with hardiness

personality and high job commitment can effectively handle their occupational stress.

Hardiness is an important buffer in stressful situation and teachers who have more hardy personality are better able to cope with such situations and perform their duties with maximum efficiency.

Review of Related Literature

Occupational Stress of Male and Female School Teachers

Antoniou, Polychroni and Vlachakis (2006) conducted a study on 493 primary and secondary school teachers. Finding of the study showed that female teachers experienced significantly higher level of occupational stress as compared to male teachers.

Kumar, Wani and Parrey (2013) conducted a study on 100 elementary school teachers (50 male and 50 female). Result of the study indicated that female teachers had significantly more occupational stress as compared their male counterparts.

Kumari and Sharma (2013) conducted a study to compare the level of stress among male and female married teachers. The total sample consisted of 60 teachers (30 male and 30 female) in the age

range of 24 to 45 years. Results indicated that female teacher had significantly higher level of job stress as compared to male teachers.

Wallnas and Jendle (2017) conducted a study on 145 upper senior secondary school teachers in Sweden. The result of the study showed female teachers had significantly higher occupational stress as compared to their male counterparts.

Suleman, Hussain and Jumani (2018) conducted a study on 402 secondary school heads (260 male and 142 female). The result of the study revealed no significant difference in occupational stress of male and female secondary school heads.

Ghosh, Adhikari and Mahato (2020) conducted a study on 363 male and 234 female teachers selected from 30 schools of West Bengal, India. The result of the study revealed that the female teachers felt more stress than their male counterparts.

Studies by Antoniou, Polychroni and Vlachakis (2006); Kumar et. al. (2013); Kumari and Sharma (2013); Wallnas and Jendle (2017); and Ghosh et. al. (2020) found that female teachers reported significantly more occupational stress than their male counterparts. Whereas Suleman

et. al. (2018) found no significant difference in occupational stress of male and female secondary school heads.

Occupational Stress in Relation to Personality Hardiness

Servellen and Leak (1994) conducted a study on 237 hospital nurses. Result of the study revealed that Hardier nurses reported less work-related stress, less emotional exhaustion, and less anxiety, depression, and somatization.

Bala and Kaur (2017) conducted a study on 500 secondary school teachers (250 male and 250 female). The result of the study revealed significant negative relationship between personality hardiness and work related stress.

Kumar, Batta, Kumar, Sharma, Bhatia and Bhuchar (2019) conducted a study on 100 teachers from five different schools of tri-city area of Panchkula, Mohali and Chandigarh. Result of the study indicated significant negative relationship between personality hardiness and occupational stress ($r=-0.447$, $p<0.01$).

Significant negative relationship between occupational stress and personality was found by Servellen and Leak (1994);

Bala and Kaur (2017); and Kumar et. al. (2019).

Objectives

1. To compare occupational stress in male and female school teachers.
2. To study the relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness of school teachers.

Hypotheses

1. There exists no significant difference in occupational stress of male and female school teachers.
2. There exists no significant relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness in school teachers.

Method: Descriptive survey method of research was used in the study.

Sample: The sample of the present study consisted of 100 teachers (50 males and 50 females) taken randomly from government schools of Ludhiana district.

Tools Used

1. Occupational Stress Index (Srivastava & Singh, 1984).
2. Personality Hardiness Scale for Teachers (Kaur & Kaur, 2012)

Result and Discussion

Difference in Occupational Stress of Male and Female Teachers: To investigate the significance of difference in occupational stress of male and female teachers mean, standard and t-ratio were worked out and the values are given in table 1 below:

Table 1: Significance of Difference in Occupational Stress of Male and Female Teachers

Category	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-ratio
Male Teachers	50	124.28	16.71	1.81 (NS)
Female Teachers	50	118.44	15.54	

N.S. means non-significant

Table 1 shows that the mean scores in occupational stress of male and female teachers are 124.28 and 118.44 respectively. The t-ratio was found to be 1.81, which is not significant. This shows that there is no significant difference in occupational stress between male and female teachers. Thus the hypothesis 1 which states that "There exists no significant difference in occupational stress of male and female school teachers" is accepted. This finding is in line with the study conducted by Suleman et. al. (2018).

Relationship between Occupational Stress and Personality Hardiness and its Dimensions in School Teachers: To investigate the significance of relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness and its dimensions in school teachers Pearson's co-efficient of correlation was worked out and the values are given in following table:

Table 2: Significance of Relationship between Occupational Stress and Personality Hardiness and its Dimensions in School Teachers (N=100)

Variables	r
Occupational Stress and Commitment	-0.20*
Occupational Stress and Control	-0.29**
Occupational Stress and Challenge	-0.17 (NS)
Occupational Stress and Personality Hardiness	-0.24*

*Significant at 0.05 level of significance.

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance.

NS means non-significant.

Table 2 represents correlation between occupational stress and personality hardiness in school teachers. The value of coefficient of correlation between occupational stress and commitment dimensions of personality

hardiness came out to be -0.20, which is significant ($p < 0.05$). The value of coefficient of correlation between occupational stress and control dimensions of personality hardiness came out to be -

0.29, which is significant ($p < 0.01$). The value of coefficient of correlation between occupational stress and challenge dimensions of personality hardiness came out to be -0.17, which are non-significant ($p > 0.05$). The value of coefficient of correlation between occupational stress and personality hardiness came out to be -0.24, which is significant ($p < 0.05$). There is significant negative relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness of school teachers. Thus the hypothesis 2 which states that "There exists no significant relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness in school teachers" is not accepted. This finding is well supported by the studies conducted by Servellen and Leak (1994); Bala and Kaur (2017); and Kumar et. al. (2019).

Implications: From the analysis of above data, it is seen that there is negatively relationship between occupational stress and personality hardiness though the values were not significant. This means that teachers having higher personality hardiness have less occupational stress. So it is important that teachers develop hardy personality as it will lead to less stress at work place, better adjustment and improved functioning. Teachers need to be guided to enhance their

personality hardiness to achieve desired level of performance. Having a hardy personality does not mean that a person never ever suffers stress. It means that their ability to deal with it, without it causing a problem, is greater. It is about learning to control how we react to the challenges we face in a more flexible, confident and less destructive way.

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INTELLIGENCE AND PROBLEM SOLVING ABILITY AS PREDICTORS OF ACHIEVEMENT IN SCIENCE OF NINTH GRADE STUDENTS

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Abstract

Present study was undertaken to study intelligence and problem solving ability as predictors of achievement in science. 200 ninth grade students were selected randomly from Government aided schools of Jalandhar district of Punjab, India. Achievement Test in Science developed by the investigator, Mixed test of Intelligence by Mehrotra (2012) and Problem Solving Ability Test by Dubey and Mathur (2017) were used for data collection. Result of the study revealed significant positive relationship between achievement in science and intelligence. Significant positive relationship was also found between achievement in science and problem solving ability. Intelligence and problem solving ability taken together predicted achievement in science significantly higher as compared to their separate prediction.

Key Words: *Intelligence, problem solving ability, achievement in achievement in science, ninth grade students.*

Introduction

Academic achievement at school level is important as it is linked to the higher education and the job prospects of the students. According to Regier (2011) academic achievement is important for the successful development of young people in society. Students who do well in school are better able to make the transition into adulthood and to achieve occupational and economic success.

Students in India and across the globe are trying hard to improve their academic achievement. There is strong competition and students are facing tremendous pressure from teachers and parents to achieve in academics.

Academic Achievement

Academic achievement may be defined as a measure of knowledge, understanding or skills in a specific subject or group of subjects (Craighead & Charles, 2001). It can also be defined as a student's success in

educationally purposeful activities, acquisition of desired knowledge, competencies, attainment of educational outcomes or post college performance (Kuh, Kinzie, Burkley, Bridges & Hayek, 2006). According to Dictionary of Education online Oxford (2008) academic achievement is a measure of knowledge gained through formal education usually indicated by test scores, grade point average and degree. According to Singh (2010) academic achievement refers to achievement in a separate subject or total scores of separate subjects combined. Hence academic achievement is concerned with the quantity and quality learning attained in a subject or group of subjects, after a period of instructions. According to Shelat (2015) academic achievement refers to the scholastic achievement at the end of an academic year evaluated by some standardized achievement tests.

Achievement in Science, thus, means all those behavioral changes, which take place in individuals as a result of the learning experiences of various kinds; theoretical as well as practical in the field of science. Science achievement thus refers to the degree or level of success or proficiency attained in some specific area concerning

science. In general, it refers to the scores obtained in the subject of science (Bala, 2019).

Intelligence is an important variable studied in relation to academic achievement (Watson & Monroe, 2009; Abdullah, Hamid & Jamaluddin, 2010; Chandra & Azimmudin, 2013; Soares, Lemos, Primi & Almeida, 2015; Dev, 2016; and Dandagal & Yarriswami, 2017).

Intelligence

The word intelligence came from a Latin word coined by Cicero to translate a Greek word used by Aristotle to coner all cognitive process (Hasiija, 1993). The faculty of reasoning and understanding, as distinct from feeling and wishing or terms used in general discourse for what in psychology is usually called intelligence (Dictionary of Psychology, 2001). According to Columbia Encyclopedia, 6th Ed. (2006) intelligence is 'the general mental ability involved in calculating, reasoning, perceiving relationship and analogies, learning quickly, storing and retrieving information, using language fluently, classifying, generalizing, and adjustment to new situations.' According to Sharma (2016) intelligence is a sort of mental energy, in the form of mental or cognitive abilities, available with an individual

which enables him to handle his environment in terms of adaptation to face novel situations as effectively as possible.

Problem solving ability is another important variable studied in relation to academic achievement (Mahalakshmi & Pugalenthly, 2015; Pour & Ahvan, 2015; Bala & Shaafiu, 2016; Gupta, Kanita & Pasrija, 2016; Kanmani & Nagarathinam, 2017; Sutha & Vanitha, 2017; and Gurudeva, 2019).

Problem Solving Ability

Yewande (2000) was of the opinion that problem solving is using information and reasoning to overcome obstacles or barrier. Problem solving is a process of overcoming difficulties that appear to interfere with the attainment of a goal. It is a procedure of making adjustment in spite of interferences. Erdemir (2009) stated that problem solving involves a student's willingness to accept challenges. Accepting a challenge in this context means that a student is willing to find appropriate methods to solve a problem. According to Dubey (2011) problem solving is the framework or pattern within which creative thinking and reasoning takes place. It is the ability to think and reason on given levels of complexity. It emphasizes originality of thought and reasoning rather

than a mere reproduction of rules and formulae from memory.

Problem solving ability is thus, an intellectual activity which is one of the most important roles of educational programs designed for the learners. It aims at making learners able to devise techniques and strategies to find solutions of their problems; whether related to curriculum or their work field (Bala, 2019).

Related Literature

Achievement in Science and Intelligence

Significant positive relationship between achievement and intelligence was reported by Watson and Monroe (2009); Chandra and Azimmudin (2013); Soares et. al. (2015); Dev (2016); Dandagal and Yarriswami (2017). Whereas Naderi et. al. (2010) reported that intelligence is not related to academic achievement.

Achievement and Problem Solving Ability

Significant positive relationship between achievement and problem solving ability was reported by Mahalakshmi and Pugalenthly (2015); Pour and Ahvan (2015); Bala and Shaafiu (2016); Gupta et. al. (2016); Kanmani and Nagarathinam (2017); and Gurudeva (2019). Whereas Sutha and

Vanitha (2017) found no significant relationship between achievement and problem solving ability.

Objectives

- 1 To investigate the significance of relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their intelligence.
- 2 To investigate the significance of relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their problem solving ability.
3. To investigate the conjoint effect of intelligence and problem solving ability towards the prediction of achievement in science of ninth graders.

Hypotheses

1. There is significant relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their intelligence.
2. There is significant relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their problem solving ability.
3. The conjoint effect of intelligence and problem solving ability towards the prediction of achievement in science of ninth grade students is significant.

Method

Descriptive survey method was used in the study.

Sample

A sample of 200 students of IX class of Government aided schools was selected through the randomization technique from Jalandhar district of Punjab, India.

Tools Used

1. Achievement Test in Science developed by the investigator.
2. Mixed test of intelligence by Mehrotra (2012).
3. Problem Solving Ability Test by Dubey and Mathur (2017).

Result and Discussion

Relationship between Achievement in Science and Intelligence: To investigate the significance of relationship between achievement in science and intelligence of ninth grade students Pearson's co-efficient of correlation was worked out and the value is given in table 1 below:

Table 1: Relationship between Achievement in Science and Intelligence of Ninth Grade Students (N=200)

Variables	r
Achievement in Science	0.27*
Intelligence	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 1 reveals that the value of correlation between achievement in science and intelligence of ninth grade students is 0.27, which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Thus there is significant positive relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their intelligence. Hypothesis 1 which states that 'There is significant relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their intelligence,' is not rejected. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Watson and Monroe (2009), Chandra and Azimmudin (2013); Soares et. al. (2015); Dev (2016); and Dandagal and Yarriswami (2017).

Relationship between Achievement in Science and Problem Solving Ability: To investigate the significance of relationship between achievement in science and problem solving ability of ninth grade students Pearson's co-efficient of correlation

was worked out and the value is given in table 2 below:

Table 2: Relationship between Achievement in Science and Problem Solving Ability of Ninth Grade Students (N=200)

Variables	r
Achievement in Science	0.17*
Problem Solving Ability	

**Significant at 0.05 level of significance*

Table 2 shows that the value of correlation between achievement in science and problem solving ability of ninth grade students is 0.17, which is significant ($p < 0.05$). Thus there is significant positive relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their problem solving ability. Hypothesis 2 which states that 'There is significant relationship between achievement in science of ninth grade students and their problem solving ability,' is not rejected. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Mahalakshmi and Pugalenthay (2015); Pour and Ahvan (2015); Bala and Shaafiu (2016); Gupta et. al. (2016); Kanmani and Nagarathinam (2017); and Gurudeva (2019).

Conjoint Effect of Intelligence and Problem Solving Ability towards the

Prediction of Achievement in Science: To investigate conjoint effect of intelligence and problem solving ability towards the prediction of achievement in science of

ninth graders R along with R² and F-ratio were worked out and the values are given in table 3 below:

Table 3 Step-up Regression Equations for Ninth Grade Students for Achievement in Science (N=200)

Variable	Degree of freedom	R ²	R	F-ratio	Step up Regression Equation
Intelligence	1, 198	0.07	0.27	15.17**	$Y = 22.82 + 0.27X_1$
Problem solving ability	1, 198	0.03	0.17	5.76*	$Y = 28.06 + 0.17X_2$
Intelligence + Problem solving ability	1, 197	0.10	0.32	10.81**	$Y = 19.78 + 0.17X_1 + 0.27X_2$

*Significant at 0.05 level of significance

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance

Table 3 reveals that for ninth grade students, value of R² for intelligence is 0.07 and that of problem solving ability is 0.03. Thus 7 % of achievement in science is predicted by intelligence and 3% by the problem solving ability. The combined R² is equal to 0.10. Thus 10% of achievement in science is predicted by intelligence and problem solving ability taken together. 90% of achievement in science is predicted by the variables not included in the present study. The F for intelligence and problem solving ability taken together is 10.81 which is

significant ($p < 0.01$). Thus intelligence and problem solving ability taken together predict achievement in science significantly higher as compared to their separate prediction. Hypothesis 3 which states that 'The conjoint effect of intelligence and problem solving ability towards the prediction of achievement in science is significant,' is thus not rejected. Achievement in science is significantly predicted by Intelligence and problem solving ability for ninth class students as the relationship of achievement in science with

intelligence (Table 1) and with problem solving ability (Table 2) is significant.

Implications: Results of the study shows that both intelligence and problem solving ability are significant predictors of achievement in science. It is thus suggested to parents and teachers that students from the initial stage need to be provided conducive environment for the development of intelligence and problem solving ability.

Providing children books, toys, DVDs, software, games, and educational programs can help in development of mental ability and problem solving ability. Involve the children in free play which promotes better learning, memory, and growth of the cerebral cortex (Dewar, 2013). Having good relationship with children; providing healthy food including green vegetables, fruits, and grain; involving them in meditation; and providing psychological games including mathematical puzzle improves concentration and memory (Roche, 2014). Playing with the child, talking to them, reading books with them, encouraging them to explore will help to make the child smart and intelligent.

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ADJUSTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN RELATION TO HOME ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Present study was undertaken to investigate the significance of relationship between adjustment of secondary school students with their home environment. 200 students of IX were selected randomly from the Government schools of Ferozepur district of Punjab, India for the study. Adjustment Inventory for school student by Sinha and Singh (2013) and Home Environment Inventory by Mishra (1989) (Revalidated by the investigators) were used for data collection. Result of the study revealed significant positive relationship between adjustment and home environment for male, female, urban and rural secondary school students.

Key words: *Adjustment, home environment, male secondary school students, female secondary school students, urban secondary school students, rural secondary school students*

Introduction

Many things affect the development of child as home, school, society etc. In each and every area, adjustment is needed otherwise child is not develop fully and become a balanced personality. Through education we could prepare a child fully adjusted in different areas. The family is a primary social group. It is an important, informal but active agency of education. As soon as the child is born, he takes shelter in the home. He lives in the

family which provides him the best ground for training in social life. Although the organization of family has changed and some of its original activities have been transferred to other institution, it is still the only establishment agency for giving the children nutritive and educative care during their early childhood. It offers the psychologically security which is essential for the growth and development of the children. A child living in favourable environment for a long time

become bright, while on the other hand a child living in an unfavourable environment falls behind the national norms. Many factors affect the students. Most important factor is adjustment.

Adjustment is a process that helps the person to lead a happy and contented life while maintaining a balance between his needs and capacities to fulfill them. Adjustment is most adequately conceived of as the smooth harmonious functioning of the whole individual, physical, psychological, sociological and ethical to achieve fulfillment of his potentialities. According to Good (1959) state that adjustment is the process of finding and adopting modes of behaviour suitable to the environment or the changes in the environment. According to Parmeswaran and Beena (2004) adjustment is a process by which a living organism acquires a particular way of acting or behaving or changes an existing form of behavior or action.

According to Arkoff (1968) 'there is nothing like satisfactory or complete adjustment which can be achieved once and for all times. It is something that is constantly achieved and re-achieved by us.' Adjustment of a person is based on the harmony between his personal characteristics and demands of the environment of which he is a part, a well-

adjusted individual knows his own strengths and limitations, respects himself and other, aspires reasonably, does not find fault with others, shows flexibility in adjustment.

Review of Related Literature

Nihira, Mink and Meyers (1981) conducted a study on 104 9-16 year old trainable mentally retarded children. Results reveal that specific factors of home environment were significantly related to the adjustment of students in school, including (a) harmony and quality of parenting, (b) educational and cognitive stimulation available at home, (c) emotional support for learning, and (d) cohesiveness of family members.

Ramaprabou (2014) conducted a study on 70 adolescents studying undergraduate in the Arts and Science Colleges of Puducherry, India. Findings of the study revealed significant effect of family environment on the adjustment patterns of the students.

Shukla and Bhanot (2017) conducted a study on 100 adolescent girls (students) of age group between 13-16 years had been taken from two colleges in Ayodhya, Faizabad district of Uttar Pradesh, India. The results revealed that many home environment dimensions (Control, Protectiveness,

Conformity, Social isolation, Reward, Deprivation of privilege and Permissiveness) were significantly correlated with various adjustments (Home, Health, Social, and Emotional)

Singh and Mathew (2018) conducted a study on 600 students studying in senior secondary schools of Allahabad district of Uttar Pradesh, India. The result of the study revealed that Perception of Control, Protectiveness, Nurturance, Rejection, Permissiveness component of family environment does not contribute in social and emotional adjustment government and private students studying in secondary students of Allahabad. Findings also revealed that Punishment component of family environment contribute negatively in the social and emotional adjustment.

Mahajan and Kauts (2018) conducted a study on 200 adolescent students of which 100 student were of working mothers (50 girls + 50 boys) and 100 adolescent students were of non-working mothers (50 girls + 50 boy). The result of the study revealed that there exists a statistically insignificant impact of home environment on the adjustment.

Nihira et. al. (1981), Ramaprabou (2014), Shukla and Bhanot (2017), Singh and Mathew (2018) found significant relationship

between home environment and adjustment. Whereas Mahajan and Kauts (2018) found no significant relationship between home environment and adjustment.

Emergence of the Problem

Investigators found few studies conducted on the relationship between adjustment and home environment (Nihira et. al., 1981; Ramaprabou, 2014; Shukla & Bhanot, 2017; Singh & Mathew, 2018; Mahajan & Kauts, 2018). No study was found conducted on the secondary school students of Ferozepur district of Punjab, India. The present study thus seems fully justified.

Objectives

1. To investigate the significance of relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school boys.
2. To investigate the significance of relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school girls.
3. To investigate the significance of relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students of urban areas.

4. To investigate the significance of relationship between home environment and adjustment of secondary school students of rural areas.
5. To investigate the significance of relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school boys.
2. There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school girls.
3. There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students of urban areas.
4. There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students of rural areas.
5. There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students.

Method: Descriptive survey method was used in the study.

Sample: 200 students studying in IX class of Government schools of Ferozepur district of Punjab, India were selected randomly giving equal representations on the basis of gender and locale.

Tools Used

1. Adjustment Inventory for school student by Sinha and Singh (2013).
2. Home Environment Inventory by Mishra (1989).

Result: To investigate the relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students Pearson's co-efficient of correlation was worked out and the values are given in tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 below:

Table 1: Showing Co-efficient of Correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of Secondary School boys (N=100)

Groups	r
Home Environment	0.21*
Adjustment	

*Significant at 0.05 level of significance

Table 1 shows that the value of correlation between adjustment and home environment of secondary schools boys is 0.21 which is significant ($p < 0.05$). There is significant positive relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school boys. Hypothesis 1 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school boys,' is rejected. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Nihira et. al. (1981), Ramaprabou (2014), Shukla and Bhanot (2017), Singh and Mathew (2018).

Table 2 Showing Co-efficient of Correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of Secondary School Girls (N=100)

Variables	r
Adjustment	0.25*
Home environment	

**Significant at 0.05 level of significance*

Table 2 shows that the value of correlation for adjustment and home environment secondary school girls is 0.25 which is significant ($p < 0.05$). There is significant positive relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school

girls. Hypothesis 2 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school girls,' is rejected. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Nihira et. al. (1981), Ramaprabou (2014), Shukla and Bhanot (2017), Singh and Mathew (2018).

Table 3 Showing Co-efficient of Correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of Secondary School Student of Urban Areas (N=100)

Variables	r
Adjustment	0.20*
Home environment	

**Significant at 0.05 level of significance*

Table 3 reveals that the value of correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of secondary school students of urban areas is 0.20 which is significant ($p < 0.05$). There is significant positive relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students of urban area. Hypothesis 3 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students of urban areas,' is rejected. This finding is well supported by

the studies conducted by Nihira et. al. (1981), Ramaprabou (2014), Shukla and Bhanot (2017), Singh and Mathew (2018).

Table 4 Showing Co-efficient of Correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of Secondary School Student of Rural Areas (N=100)

Variables	r
Adjustment	0.27*
Home environment	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 4 shows that the value of correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of secondary school students of rural areas is 0.27 which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Hypothesis 4 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students of rural areas,' is rejected. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Nihira et. al. (1981), Ramaprabou (2014), Shukla and Bhanot (2017), Singh and Mathew (2018).

Table 5: Showing Co-efficient of Correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of Secondary School Students (N= 200)

Variables	r
Adjustment	0.19*
Home environment	

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 5 shows co-efficient of correlation between Adjustment and Home Environment of secondary school students of Ferozepur district. The value of r is 0.19, which is significant ($p < 0.01$). This indicates that adjustment of secondary school students has significant positive relationship adjustment. Hypothesis 5 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students,' is thus rejected. This finding is in line with the studies conducted by Nihira et. al. (1981), Ramaprabou (2014), Shukla and Bhanot (2017), Singh and Mathew (2018).

Implications: Result of the study reveals significant positive relationship between adjustment and home environment of secondary school students. Proper home environment is very essential for the

balanced growth of a child. The home environment is the first crucial group in the life of the child and a spring board for his social and personal growth. It is thus suggested to the parents to provide proper environment to their children, it will help in developing in then the ability to adjust.

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SELF-EFFICACY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN RELATION TO LOCUS OF CONTROL AND PEER PRESSURE

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Abstract

Present study was undertaken to investigate the relationship of self-efficacy with locus of control and peer pressure of secondary school students. Self-efficacy scale by Mathur and Bhatnagar (2012), Levenson's locus of control scale by Vohra (1992), and peer pressure scale by Saini and Singh (2010) were used for data collection. Results of the study revealed significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and individual control dimension of locus of control. Significant negative relationship was found between self-efficacy and peer pressure. Prediction of self-efficacy on the basis of individual control dimension of locus of control and peer pressure was found significant.

Key Words: *Self-efficacy, locus of control, peer pressure, secondary school students.*

Introduction

The students of today are facing many challenges in life. Competition is increasing every day in world. The face the challenges and competition in different parts of their life they need to develop strong self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1997) self-efficacy is part of the self-system of a person, which play important role in how he

perceive situation and how he behave in response to different situations.

Self-efficacy is the measure of one's competences to complete tasks and reach goals. It influences every aspect of human endeavours. It could be referred to as a person's belief in his or her ability to successfully accomplish a specific task. It also refers to beliefs about one's capabilities to learn or perform behaviors at designated

levels (Bandura, 1997). Schunk (1994) defined self-efficacy as "a dynamic set of beliefs that are linked to particular performance domains and activities." Self-efficacy expectations influence the initiation of specific behavior and the maintenance of behavior in response to barriers and difficulties. Self-efficacy can be defined as the concept that an individual's successes or failures of an action are attributed to internal factors of the individual, and can be assessed by looking at the amount of effort or perseverance one puts into tasks that they perform. According to Mathur and Bhatnagar (2012) it consists of eight factors (a) self-regulatory skills, (b) self-influence, (c) self-confidence, (d) social achievement, (e) self, (f) self-evaluation, (g) self-esteem and (h) self-cognition.

Self-efficacy and locus of control are important behavioural constructs which can determine the effectiveness of a person in different ways (Hans, Deshpande, Pillai, Fernandes, Arora, Kariya & Uppoor, 2017).

Locus of Control refers to whether or not individuals believe that the events of their lives are related to their own behavior (Rotter, 1954). Locus of control can be defined as the expectancy of internally or externally controlled reinforcements to an

event (Lefcourt, 1976). The locus of control of a person is conceptualized as either internal or external. An internal locus of control can be defined as the belief that the individual can control what happens to them, or can influence their own fate whereas, an external locus of control is defined as the belief that the individual thinks that what happens to them is by chance, fate, or luck. Locus of control according to Vohra (1992) includes three dimensions (a) powerful others (means other people control the person's outcome), (b) chance control means chance or random events control the person's outcome), and (c) individual control (means the person himself/herself control his/her outcome). According to Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine (2013) locus of control refers to one's general predisposition to perceive control, or lack thereof, across various situations. The extent to which one attributes valued outcomes or reinforcement to either internal or external circumstances reflects their dimension of locus of control. Joelson (2017) locus of control is an individual's belief system regarding the causes of his or her experiences and the factors to which that person attributes success or failure.

Schunk and Meece (2005) suggest that 'the self-efficacy of adolescents is strongly influenced by their peers'. Peer influence on self-efficacy also occurs because adolescents are unfamiliar with many tasks and have little information other than their friends' behaviors with which to gauge their own self-efficacy (Schunk & Meece, 2005).

Ryan (2000) defined peer pressure as when people of your own age encourage or urge you to do something or to keep from doing something else, no matter if you personally want to do it or not. According to the Singh and Saini (2010), a peer is a person who belongs to the same societal group based on age, grade, or status while a friend is a person who we are attached to by affection or esteem. Peer Pressure is feeling pressure from other age-mates to do something harmful for self and others. Peer pressure is associated with many antisocial activities and risky behavior among youths. According to Dictionary.com (2020) peer pressure means social pressure by members of one's peer group to take certain action, adopt certain values, or otherwise confirm in order to be accepted. According to Merriam Webster Dictionary (2020) peer pressure is a feeling that one must do the same things as

other people of one's age and social group in order to be liked or respected by them

Related Literature

Self-Efficacy and Locus of Control

Qazi (2009) conducted a study on 86 school students of class XI and XII. The result of the study revealed significant positive ($r=0.22$, $p<0.05$) between internal locus of control (effort) and general self-efficacy.

Naseri and Ghabanchi (2014) conducted a study on 81 English students (63 female and 18 male) from University of Neishabour, Iran. Result of the study indicated significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control.

Ashagi and Beheshtifar (2015) conducted a study on 220 people from Yazd Central University of Medical Science. The result of the study showed significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and internal locus of control and no significant relationship between self-efficacy and external locus of control.

Gajendrana and Nagle (2016) conducted a study on 465 job aspirants (264 male and 201 female). The result of the study revealed no significant relationship

between self-efficacy and locus of control in Indian Youth.

Self-Efficacy and Peer Pressure

Binnaz (2012) conducted a study on 546 high school students. Result of the study indicated significant negative relationship of peer pressure with both general and academic self-efficacy.

Gunnarsdottir (2014) conducted a study on 2261 adolescents in Icelandic population-based survey in 2014, by The Icelandic Centre for Social Research and Analysis (ICSRA). The result of the study revealed that adolescents having high peer support had high self-esteem.

Devi and Jyotsana (2018) conducted a study on 200 students (100 boys and 100 girls) from Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya Devrala, Bhiwani, Haryana, India of the age group of 14-18 years. The result of the study revealed no significant relationship between peer pressure and self-esteem.

Mujiyati and Adiputra (2018) conducted a study on 40 research students (20 of Lampung tribe and 20 of Javanese tribe). Result of the study showed significant influence of peer group on self-esteem.

Binnaz (2012) reported significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure. Zawadi (2019) conducted a study on 100 (Martah high school and Stafford high school) students between the age group of 12-18 years. The result of the study showed that as the levels of negative peer pressure increase, the levels of self-esteem decrease among adolescents.

Emergence of the Problem

Investigator did not find much research done on the proposed study. Only few studies (Qazi, 2009; Naseri & Ghabanchi, 2014; Ashagi & Beheshtifar, 2015; and Gajendrana & Nagle, 2016) conducted on relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control. Only one study by Binnaz (2012) was found conducted on the relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure. Few studies (Gunnarsdottir, 2014; Devi & Jyotsana, 2018; Mujiyati & Adiputra, 2018; and Zawadi, 2019) were found conducted on relationship between self-esteem and peer pressure). The proposed study thus seems fully justified.

Objectives

1. To investigate the significance of relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control.

2. To investigate the significance of relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure.
3. To study the significance of conjoint effect of locus of control and peer pressure towards the prediction of self-efficacy.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significance of relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control.
2. There is no significance of relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure.
3. The conjoint effect of locus of control and peer pressure towards the prediction of self-efficacy is not significant.

Method: Descriptive survey method of research was used in the study.

Sample: The sample consisted of 300 senior secondary schools selected randomly from Government schools of Jammu and Kashmir State of India.

Tools Used

1. Self-efficacy Scale by Mathur and Bhatnagar (2012).
2. Levenson's Locus of Control Scale by Vohra (1992).
3. Peer Pressure Scale by Saini and Singh (2010).

Result and Discussion

Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Locus of Control: To investigate the significance of relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control Pearson's co-efficient of correlation was applied and the values are given in table 1 below:

Table 1: Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Locus of Control (N=300)

Variables	r
Self-efficacy	0.02 (NS)
Powerful others control dimension of locus of control	
Self-efficacy	0.06 (NS)
Chance control dimension of locus of control	
Self-efficacy	0.37*
Individual control dimension of locus of control	

NS means non-significant

**Significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 1 reveals that the correlation between self-efficacy and powerful others control dimension of locus of control is 0.02, which is non-significant ($p>0.05$). The values of correlation between self-efficacy and chance control dimension of locus of control is 0.06, which is non-significant ($p>0.05$). The values of correlation between self-efficacy and individual control dimension of locus of control is 0.37, which is significant ($p<0.01$). Thus there is no significant relationship of self-efficacy with powerful others control and chance dimension of locus of control and significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and individual control dimension of locus of control for secondary school students. Hypothesis 1 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and locus of control,' is partially accepted.

Individuals having strong individual control or the internal locus of control will have strong self-efficacy. This finding is well supported by studies conducted by Qazi (2009), and Ashagi and Beheshtifar (2015).

Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Peer Pressure: To investigate the

significance of relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure Pearson's coefficient of correlation was applied and the values are given in table 2 below:

Table 2: Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Peer Pressure (N=300)

Variables	r
Self-efficacy	-0.19*
Peer Pressure	

*Significant at 0.01 level of significance

Table 2 shows that the values of correlation between self-efficacy and peer pressure is -0.19, which is significant ($p<0.01$). Thus there is significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure for secondary school students. Hypothesis 2 which states that 'There is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and peer pressure,' is rejected. This finding is in line with the study conducted by Binnaz (2012).

Conjoint Effect of Locus of Control and Peer Pressure towards the Prediction of Self-Efficacy: To investigate the conjoint effect of locus of control and peer pressure towards the prediction of self-efficacy R , along with R^2 and F-ratio were worked out and the values are given in table 3 below:

Table 3 Step-up Regression Equations for Self-Efficacy (N=300)

Variable	Degree of freedom	R ²	R	F-ratio	Step up Regression Equation
Individual control dimension of locus of control	1, 298	0.14	0.37	48.31*	$Y = 53.54 + 0.37X_1$
Peer pressure	1, 298	0.04	0.19	10.99*	$Y = 82.141 - 0.19 0.17X_2$
Individual control dimension of locus of control + Peer pressure	1, 297	0.17	0.41	29.13*	$Y = 58.98 + 0.36X_1 - 0.16X_2$

*Significant at 0.01 level of significance

Table 3 reveals that for secondary school students, value of R^2 for individual dimension of locus of control is 0.14 and that of peer pressure is 0.04. Thus 14% of self-efficacy is predicted by individual dimension of locus of control and 4% by the peer pressure. The combined R^2 is equal to 0.17. Thus 17% of self-efficacy is predicted by individual dimension of locus of control and peer pressure taken together. 83% of self-efficacy is predicted by the variables not included in the present study. The F for individual dimension of locus of control and peer pressure taken together is 29.13 which is significant ($p < 0.01$). Thus individual dimension of locus of control and peer pressure taken together predict self-efficacy significantly higher as compared to their

separate prediction. Hypothesis 3 which states that 'The conjoint effect of locus of control and peer pressure towards the prediction of self-efficacy is not significant,' is thus rejected. Self-efficacy is significantly predicted by individual dimension of locus of control and peer pressure for secondary school students as the relationship of self-efficacy and individual dimension of locus of control (Table 1) and with peer pressure (Table 2) is significant.

Implications: Result of the study reveals that there is significant positive relationship of self-efficacy with individual dimension of locus of control (i.e. internal locus of control). Significant negative relationship of self-efficacy is found with peer pressure. It

is thus suggested to parents and teachers to create conditions conducive for the development of internal locus of control. Develop sense of responsibility among the adolescents, build confidence, and develop positive attitude. Parents and teachers should use their influence to guide adolescents and try to convert peer pressure into peer support. Development of internal locus of control and peer support will help in the development of self-efficacy among the adolescents.

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MENTAL HEALTH OF CHILDREN DURING PANDEMIC

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Abstract

In the present article impact of COVID-19 pandemic, started in China in December 2019, on children is discussed. COVID-19 pandemic has affected 34.8 million people in the world. Schools have been closed and classroom changed to Google Meet Class room, Zoom Class rooms. This has broader impacts on children. The children especially in rural India find it difficult to connect online classes. COVID-19 has affected them mentally, psychologically, and physiologically. Parents need to help children in this pandemic situation by spending quality time with them, making them aware about the problem, encouraging them to take proper precautions, encouraging them to develop their hidden talent and utilizing the time properly.

Key Words: COVID-19 pandemic, mental health, children.

Introduction

The outbreak of the COVID-19 started in China in December 2019 (Prem, Liu, Russell, Kucharski, Eggo & Davies, 2020). In three months' time, precisely in March 2020 it was declared a "Pandemic" by World Health Organization (World Health Organization, 2020). It has affected all most all countries around the world (African region 55% and Europe region 23%). The number of people affected is 34.8 million and death toll reaching over one million (World Health Organization, 04 October 2020). Although the number of children affected by the disease is small, and most of

the affected children show only mild symptoms the far reaching effect is deep and wide (Gudbjartsson, Helgason, Jonsson, Magnusson, Melsted, Norddahl, Saemundsdottir, Sigurdsson, Sulem, Agustsdottir, Eiriksodottir, Fridriksdottir, 2020). The disease is likely to affect negatively the mental health & well-being of children. Even though children all over the world are going to be affected, those with disabilities, living in slums, isolation centers, and conflicts zones are going to be at a greater risk (Castaneda, 2020).

Covid-19 has brought in the SMS:

SMS - Social Distancing, Mask and the

Sanitizing (Abrol, 2020; Prem, et. al., 2020; Suppawittaya, Yiemphat & Yasri, 2020). The world has come to a standstill ever before. Covid-19 has affected all the areas invariably. The worst affected would be the educational system. The Covid-19 has snatched away the classrooms, playground, friends, activities, tuitions, sports, and weekend celebrations etc. from school children. "Corona," you were good for children only for few days (Because they got holidays...but now they are fed-up), now you are the worst enemy to all children!

The most active group, the children are forced to stay at home. Parents at home find it very difficult to manage this accidental attack of the pandemic. This forceful, unending and continuous staying at home has made children to go into stress. From the institutions side it is compelled to depend on all the possible technological assistance to give away the teaching learning process. A shift from classroom to mobile assisted, TV assisted or offline video assisted classes. A shift from technologically savvy classroom to Google Meet Class room, Zoom Class rooms (Kim, 2020). The receiving end of course had to suffer a lot. But the worst affected ones were the school, universities and the teachers.

Children's Mental Health Problems in Relation to Pandemics

Public health emergencies like pandemics or epidemics, cause damage on physical as well as mental health. Children are particularly vulnerable because of their limited understanding of the event. They are unable to escape the harms of the situation physically and mentally as they have limited coping strategies. They may not be able to communicate their feelings like the adults. Closure of schools and separation from friends has further caused stress and anxiety in children. Exposure to mass media coverage of crisis and unverified information circulating on social media also has aggravated the mental distress. This pandemic has definitely affected mentally, psychologically, socially, economically and physiologically to the all walks of life.

In a survey during lockdown in Bangladesh 30.5% of children were found mild, 19.3% moderate, and 7.2% severe mental health problem. In another survey in Italy 38% of children reported nervousness, 31.3% loneliness, 30.4% uneasiness, 30.1% and worries (Wagner, 2020).

Mental Health of Children during Pandemic

The worst affected group of people in this pandemic period across the world is children. Of course, some of the countries have managed the show, but those are exceptions. Children are not in any way exempted to the significant psychological impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. They experience fears, uncertainties, changes to their routines, physical and social isolation alongside high level of parental stress. In this situation, understanding their emotions and responses is essential to properly address their needs during this pandemic. I would recommend that prioritizing mental health including child & adolescent mental health is an essential component of any universal, community led response to COVID-19 pandemic.

When we speak about children, education what comes to the first priority! At the receiving end, the students face the problem of affording the compatible gadgets, the network availability, and a conducive atmosphere to concentrate and listen to the classes (Jha, 2020; Nair, 2020). At the opposite side teachers so far comfortable with the smart boards and digital class room were made to shift to test

their ability in preparing offline videos, using the digital distant modes in the lack of physical proximity of students. The management at the same time faced crisis in facilitating the befitting digital atmosphere. [According to Pandey (2020) urban areas have over 104 internet subscriptions per 100 people, many of them have dual SIM cards with internet connectivity; while the figure for rural areas is a little over 27]. However, let us not forget that our country is basically a country of villages. It has yet to rise to face this grooming challenge. It is fighting to fill the empty stomach. It is fighting for the just price for the agricultural products. It is waiting for the irrigation and timely rain. Where do they go for Smartphone's and smart gadgets?

Pandemic and its Controlling Measures on Children's Mental Health

Educational institutions closed. Many of the competitive and other examinations have been postponed. Shopping malls, restaurants, film theatres and all areas of public gathering are under a strict lockdown. The challenging rise in the number of infected and deaths, home quarantine, fear of infection, social distancing from colleagues, peers & friends and lack of access to educational institutions have

created a feeling of uncertainty and anxiety among the children.

According to Kumar, Nayar and Bhat (2020) World Health Organization, UNICE, and Indian Association For Child and Adolescent Mental Health and National Institute of Mental Health and Neuroscience in India warn about the broader impacts on children and call for urgent action to support the world's children amidst the pandemic which may have lasting consequences.

Excessive Media Coverage

Stay at home is a positive and constructive campaign. It is in a way call to self-quarantine. In this testing time of social distancing and isolation, children and teens are becoming exposed to the excessive media coverage of the pandemic. On one hand, electronic and social media is providing continuous updates on nationwide and worldwide situation, and advising people to adopt social distancing but on the other hand, it is also creating sensationalism and spreading misinformation. Research has shown that excessive television exposure led to increased incidences of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and other mental health disorders. There are fears that similar disorders can develop in children due to excessive usage of electronic and social

media. Furthermore, excessive social media usage makes children vulnerable to online predators, and cyber bullying (Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020).

Children are observing

Social isolation, lack of celebrations like marriage & festivals, visiting family friends, or going to mall or movie theatre, dining out or going for a long drive on car or motorcycle etc., may aggravate the impact of stressors. This has forced the family members to lock themselves in the house. This has affected the children. They are always under watch. Children are extremely sensitive to the emotional state of the adults around them, who are their essential source of security and emotional well-being. Young children feel, absorb, experience their parents' stress and may display their worries in ways that caregivers may interpret as misbehaviour. Parents may notice that their toddlers and preschoolers are more fussing and winning, are struggling to focus or engage in play, and are becoming more aggressive. Some children may start showing typical regressive behaviours like asking for bottle, thumb sucking, toileting accidents, not wanting to dress or feed themselves, becoming clingier and

demanding, wanted to be carried, as well as problem in sleeping.

Let Us Work Together

- Try to spend more quality time with children ever before (World Health Organization, 18 June 2020; Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020)).
- Allow children to engage activity based enjoyment like listening to music, dancing at home playing games (Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020).
- Sit with the whole family and plan a quarantine timetable.
- Turn off the news channels when young children are around (Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020; Suppawittaya et. al., 2020).
- Refrain from talking about the pandemic related situation if not necessary (Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020).
- A loving hug or cuddle can cure any stress or anxiety.
- Encourage younger children to stick on the mantra of SMS (Abrol, 2020; Prem et. al., 2020; Suppawittaya, et. al., 2020; UNICEF, 2020).
- Remember that you are maintaining social distancing but definitely, you can think of family group chats, zoom meets, Google meets with friends and peers (Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020).
- Teach your children to treasure their hidden talents. Let them find joy in exploring the world of books, hobbies (Lukman, 2020; Marwaha, 2020).
- Fun with family must be an unwritten law in this period of pandemic. Cook together and sit & eat together. Pray together. Fix a time so that family members come together for health and hygiene.
- Stay at home does not mean be on bed. Stay at home also means stay safe, take care of health.
- There should be adequate arrangements for children in quarantine to contact their parents frequently. They should be able to contact mental health professionals if need arises (Imran, Zeshan & Parvez, 2020).

Conclusion

To sum up I must say that there are several mental health issues associated with the present pandemic, Covid-19. I would affirm that it is time that the child and adolescent

psychiatrists, concerned government bodies to rise to ensure continuity of care during all phases of this pandemic. COVID-19 associated mental health risks will disproportionately hit children and adolescents who are already disadvantaged and marginalized. With utmost conviction, I would affirm that research is needed to assess the implications of policies enacted to contain the pandemic on mental health of children and adolescents. Let us also not forget to estimate the pros and cons of home schooling, children staying at home, parental pressure etc., in order to be better equipped for future developments. At the same time, I opine that parents should look after their own mental health, coping strategies, and model positive psychological attitude in order to support children to get through this difficult phase.

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IMPACT OF AUTHORITATIVE AND AUTHORITARIAN PARENTING STYLES OF MOTHERS AND FATHERS ON SELF-ESTEEM OF ADOLESCENTS

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Abstract

The study was undertaken to investigate the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles of mothers and fathers on the self-efficacy of adolescents. A sample of 300 adolescents (150 boys and 150 girls) of IX class from three different schools of Ludhiana city of Punjab, India along with their mothers and fathers were selected randomly for the study. Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) based on Robinson, Mandleco, Roper and Hart (2001) and Rosenberg Self-esteem scale (2017) were used for data collection. Result of the study revealed no significant difference in self-esteem among adolescent (total) as well as for adolescents girls due to the interaction between mother's and father's parenting style. There is a significant difference in self-esteem among adolescent boys due to the interaction between mother's and father's parenting style. However it is revealed that the self-esteem of adolescent (total) as well as for adolescent boys and adolescent girls is highest when both the parents are authoritative in their parenting style and least when both parents are authoritarian.

Key Words: authoritative parenting styles, authoritarian parenting styles, mothers, fathers, self-esteem, and adolescents.

Introduction

Adolescence is a critical link between childhood and adulthood, characterized by significant physical, psychological, social and temperamental transition which in turn presents new opportunities for progressive and positive influences towards immediate as well as remote mental and social health of millennial on one hand and carry new risks

for them on the other. The importance of this stage is very well evident from the declaration of "Investing in Young People" as the theme of World Population Day 2014 by United Nation (UN News, 14 July 2014). Adolescent well-being is not just a question of individual progress, rather a major determinant of economic and social development and progress, especially in developing countries like India. Hence self-

esteem of adolescents has grown as one of the prime area of interest among teachers, researchers, social and political leaders.

Self-esteem is an overall assessment of the individual's worthiness, expressed in a positive or negative orientation towards them. It is the way individuals think and feel about themselves and how well they do things that are important to them. Rosenberg (1965) defined self-esteem as a 'stable sense of self-worth' whereas Branden (1969) defined self-esteem as the 'disposition to experience oneself as being competent to cope with basic challenges of life' and as being worthy of happiness. Self-esteem is believed to have two elements – self-knowledge and self-awareness. It included the individual's perceptions about their own strengths and weaknesses, abilities, attitudes and values. Its development starts at birth and is constantly developing under the influence of experience. Leavitt, Covarrubias, Perez, and Fryberg (2015).

Self-esteem is a fundamental human need; it is part of the process of life and is indispensable to normal and healthy self-development and is vital for survival. The positive self-esteem for teens is important as it allows them to try new

things, take healthy risks and solve problems. In turn, their learning and development will be productive and will set them up for a healthy and positive future. A young person with healthy self-esteem is more likely to display positive behavioural characteristics. On the other hand, the individuals with low self-esteem have a difficult time dealing with day to day problems, are overly self-critical, and can become passive, withdrawn, and depressed. Such persons may hesitate to try new things, may speak negatively about themselves, are easily frustrated, and often see temporary problems as permanent conditions. They are pessimistic about themselves and their life as well as the people around them.

Self-esteem among adolescents is arguably one of the most widely studied constructs in the modern social sciences and more than 35,000 publications have been published on this construct. A large body of literature has been characterized by contentious theoretical debates about the origins, causes, and consequences of self-esteem (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Gebauer, Wagner, Sedikides & Neberich, 2015; Leary, 2004), but the field has recently come to a more unified view of the life span development of global self-

esteem among men and women in relation to the parenting style of adolescents.

Fletcher, Walls, Cook, Madison, and Bridges, (2008) explained parenting in terms of two components such as parental responsiveness and demandingness. Parental demandingness refers to the extent to which parents set guidelines for their children, and how their discipline based on these guidelines. Parental responsiveness may be defined as emotional characteristic of parenting. It passes on to the degree to which parents support their children and attend their children's needs. Findings from the studies noted that both parenting (responsive and demanding) has been linked to secure attachment in children (Karavasilis, Doyle & Markiewicz, 2003).

The parent-adolescent relationship has gained significant insight as an essential factor in parenting, and researchers have found that parenting styles (e.g., authoritative, authoritarian) are closely related to various qualities of parent-adolescent relationships (e.g., cohesion, conflict). Parenting style is defined as a constellation of parents' attitudes and behaviours toward children and an emotional climate in which the parents' behaviours are expressed (Darling &

Steinberg, 1993). They further defined that the parenting style represents the family emotional context where parents try to achieve their main socialization objectives, such as demanding maturity, respecting the social norms, or avoiding harming other people. Research has shown that in the field of parenting Maccoby and Martins's (1983) and Baumrind's (1991) typological approach of conceptualizing parenting has an immense impact. Hart, Coates and Bynum (2019) stated that parenting style is a strong predictor of parent-adolescent relationship quality.

Researchers classified parenting into four types based on responsiveness and demandingness (Maccoby & Martins, 1983; and Baumrind, 1991). They described that authoritative parenting style is characterized as high in responsiveness and demandingness. The behaviour of authoritative parents provides not only support and warmth, but also clearly defined rules and consistent discipline (Baumrind, 1991). Authoritarian parenting style is one which characterized as low in responsiveness but high in demandingness. It has been observed that parents of this style tend to use hostile control or harsh punishment in an arbitrary way to gain compliance, but they seldom provide

explanation or allow verbal give-and-take. The indulgent parenting style which is characterized as low in demandingness but high in responsiveness and parents are responsive to their children and satisfy children's needs, but they fail to set proper disciplinary, exhibit behavioural control, or make demands for mature behaviours. Finally, neglectful parenting style which is characterized as low in responsiveness and demandingness and parents are parent-centered and they are seldom engaged in child rearing practices. They neither provide warmth nor set rules for their children (Bi, Yang, Li, Wang, Zhang & Deater-Deckard, 2018).

Diana Baumrind who is considered to be the pioneer of introducing parental style and control has given three types of parenting style: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive with four imperative dimensions of parenting including expectations of adulthood and control, communication styles, nurturance and warmth and disciplinary strategies. Cherry (2015) and Baumrind (1966) points out that a majority of parents show one of three mentioned parenting styles.

Authoritarian ("Too hard") is characterized by high demandingness with

low responsiveness. The behavior of authoritarian parent is rigid, harsh, and demanding. Abusive parents usually fall in this category (although Baumrind is careful to emphasize that, not all authoritarian parents are abusive). Research indicated that power-assertive techniques of socialization (threats, commands, physical force, and love withdrawal) use by authoritarian parents and restrain children's self-expression and independence (Zupančič, Podlesek & Kavčič, 2004). Specifically, adolescents with authoritarian parents reported greater empathy, temperance, and resistance to peer pressure but often characterized by lacking spontaneity and intellectual curiosity (Cole, Cole & Lightfoot, 2005).

Permissive ("Too soft") is characterized by low demandingness with high responsiveness. The behavior of permissive parent is overly responsive to the child's demands, seldom enforcing consistent rules. It has been seen that the 'spoiled' child often has permissive parents.

Authoritative ("Just Right") parenting style is characterized by high demandingness with huge responsiveness. The authoritative parent is one who is firm but not rigid, willing to make an exception

when the situation warrants. They are responsive to the child's needs but not indulgent. 'Baumrind' favours the authoritative style. Parents under this parenting make logical demands, set limits and insist on children's compliance, whereas, at the same time, they are warm, accept the children's points of view, and encourage the children's participation in decision making and often seek their children's views in family considerations and decisions (Berg, 2011; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Zupančič, et. al., 2004). This type of parent monitors and disciplines their children fairly, while being very supportive at the same time (Baumrind, 1971). It has been found that authoritative parenting is the most beneficial parenting style for promoting healthy child and adolescent adjustment (Pinquart, 2017; Steinberg, 2001; Steinberg & Morris, 2001).

Emergence of the Problem

Research indicated that child's and adolescents' perceptions of their parents as authoritarian, non-nurturing and non-supportive (Smith, 2007; Hickman, Bartholomae & McKenry, 2000; Lambom, Mounts, Steinberg & Dombusch, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Marcia, 1993) leads to low self-esteem. Kim and Chung

(2003) reported similar results in Korean American college students. Further many studies suggest that the interaction between parents and children is related to children's self-esteem (Grove, 1980; Buri, Kichner & Walsh, 1987; Felson & Zielinski, 1989; Buri, 1989; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). Studies suggest that parenting styles is related to self-esteem (Grove, 1980; Buri et al., 1988; Felson & Zielinski, 1989; Buri, 1989; Oh, 2004). Scholte, Van Lieshout and Van Aken, (2001) found that supportive parenting is positively related to self-esteem. Thus, self-esteem and parenting styles or parental behaviours are highly correlated. In western culture, authoritative parenting style brings more benefits to the adolescents' self-esteem when compared with other parenting styles (New & Cochran, 2007). Mruk (2006) also suggested that authoritative parenting style is more conducive and tend to develop high level of self-esteem in adolescents. However, findings of Chao (1994) show that authoritarian parenting style are more likely to increase students' self-esteem in China. This difference is due to vary cultural practices among countries. The recent studies conducted in India also advocated authoritative parenting style as the best parenting style (Radhika & Joseph, 2015). Again authoritative parenting in case of both

mothers' and fathers' resulted in higher self-esteem among adolescents as compared to authoritarian style of parenting which is found to have a significant negative correlation with the self-esteem of adolescents (Sahithya, Manohari & Vijaya, 2019; Tripathi & Jadon, 2017; Nayak & Kochar, 2016; Sharma & Pandey, 2015; Sharma & Aggarwal, 2015). However there is still dearth of studies pertaining to the impact of parenting styles on self-esteem of children in Indian context which initiated the present study.

Keeping in view the varying parenting styles adopted by parents and its impact on personality of the children, the role of self-esteem in achievement in life and their mutual interaction, the investigator tried to explore the effect of authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles of mothers and fathers on the self-esteem of adolescents.

Operational Definitions

Parenting Style: Parenting style is the way parents deals with their children in terms of rules, behavior and affection to their children. Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) used in the study conceptualized three types of parenting styles namely Authoritarian,

Authoritative and Permissive parenting styles. However for the present study only two types of parenting styles i.e. Authoritarian and Authoritative parenting styles has been taken.

Authoritative Parenting Style: It is the parenting style in which adolescents perceive that their parents are demanding and responsive. A rational, democratic approach in which both parents and adolescent's rights are respected.

Authoritarian Parenting Style: It is the parenting style where adolescents perceive that their parents are more of demanding but low in responsiveness to adolescent's rights and needs.

Self-Esteem: Self-esteem is 'an individual belief in one's self-worth'. Self-esteem is only one component of the self-concept, which Rosenberg in his Self-esteem Scale used in the present study, defines as "totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings with reference to himself as an object' (Bandura, 1997).

Objectives

1. To examine the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescents

2. To examine the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent boys
3. To examine the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent girls

Hypotheses

1. There exists no significant impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescents.
2. There exists no significant impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent boys.
3. There exists no significant impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent girls.

Method

Descriptive survey method was used by the investigator.

Sample: The target population for the present study was adolescents. A sample of 300 adolescents comprising 150 boys and 150 girls of IX class from three different schools of Ludhiana city of Punjab, India along with their mothers and fathers were selected randomly.

Tools

1. Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) based on Robinson, Mandleco, Roper and Hart (2001).
2. Rosenberg Self-esteem scale (2017)

Results

Impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescents: To examine the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescents 2x2 analysis of variance was applied and the values are given in table 1(a) and (b) below:

Table 1 (a): The Impact of Parenting Style of Mother and Parenting Style of Father of Adolescents on Self-Esteem of Adolescents (N=300)

Dependent Variable		Independent Variable	SS	df	MS	F-value
Self-esteem	Main Effects	Mother's Parenting Style	186.25	1	186.25	7.23*
		Father's Parenting Style	143.66	1	143.66	5.57*
	Interaction Effects	Mother's Parenting Style x Father's Parenting Style	28.94	1	28.94	1.12 ^{NS}
	Within Group (Error)		7628.06	296	25.77	
	Total		8049.67	299		

*Significant at 0.01 level of significance.

NS means non-significant

Table 1(b): Mean Scores of Self-Esteem of Adolescents due to Authoritative and Authoritarian Parenting Style of Mothers and Fathers (N=300)

	Authoritative Fathers	Authoritarian Fathers	Total
Authoritative Mothers	21.32	18.85	21.12
Authoritarian Mothers	19.30	18.04	19.00
Total	20.65	18.68	

The perusal of Tables 1(a) and 1(b) show that (i) a significant difference exists in self-esteem of adolescents due to mother's parenting style of being authoritative or authoritarian ($F = 7.23$, $p < 0.01$, mean (authoritative) = 21.12, mean (authoritarian)

= 19.00). This implies that self-esteem of adolescents whose mothers are authoritative is higher than those whose mothers are authoritarian; (ii) a significant difference exists in self-esteem of adolescents due to father's parenting style of being authoritative

or authoritarian ($F = 5.57, p < 0.05$, mean (authoritative) = 20.65, mean (authoritarian) = 18.68). This implies that self-esteem of adolescents whose fathers are authoritative is higher than those whose fathers are authoritarian; (iii) the interaction effect of mother's parenting style (authoritative and authoritarian) and father's parenting style (authoritative and authoritarian) was not significant for self-esteem of adolescents ($F = 1.12, p > 0.05$) with mean score of self-esteem of adolescents with authoritative mother and father, authoritarian mother and father, authoritative mother and authoritarian father, and authoritative father and authoritarian mother as 21.32, 18.04, 18.85 and 19.30

respectively. Thus, there is no significant difference in self-esteem among adolescents due to the interaction between mother's and father's parenting style. However it is revealed that the self-esteem of adolescents is highest when both the parents are authoritative in their parenting style and least when both parents are authoritarian.

Impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent boys: To examine the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent boys 2x2 analysis of variance was applied and the values are given in table 2(a) and (b) below:

Table 2(a): The Impact of Parenting Style of Mother and Parenting Style of Father of Adolescents on Self-Esteem of Adolescent Boys (N=150)

Dependent Variable		Independent Variable	SS	df	MS	F-value
Self-esteem	Main Effects	Mother's Parenting Style	110.44	1	110.44	4.47*
		Father's Parenting Style	106.63	1	106.63	4.31*
	Interaction Effects	Mother's Parenting Style x Father's Parenting Style	154.09	1	154.09	6.23*
	Within Group (Error)		3610.42	146	24.73	
	Total		3981.58	149		

*Significant at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 2(b): Mean Scores of Self-Esteem of Adolescent boys due to Authoritative and Authoritarian Parenting Style of Mothers and Fathers (150).

	Authoritative Fathers	Authoritarian Fathers	Total
Authoritative Mothers	21.14	17.67	20.75
Authoritarian Mothers	18.86	18.56	18.74
Total	20.30	18.33	

The perusal of Tables 2(a) and 2(b) show that (i) a significant difference exists in self-esteem of adolescent boys due to mother's parenting style of being authoritative or authoritarian ($F = 4.47$, $p < 0.05$, mean (authoritative) = 20.75, mean (authoritarian) = 18.74). This implies that self-esteem of adolescent boys whose mothers are authoritative is higher than those whose mothers are authoritarian; (ii) a significant difference exists in self-esteem of adolescent boys due to father's parenting style of being authoritative or authoritarian ($F = 4.31$, $p < 0.05$, mean (authoritative) = 20.30, mean (authoritarian) = 18.33). This implies that self-esteem of adolescent boys whose fathers are authoritative is higher than those whose fathers are authoritarian; (iii) The interaction effect of mother's parenting style (authoritative and authoritarian) and father's parenting style (authoritative and

authoritarian) was significant for self-esteem of adolescent boys ($F = 6.23$, $p < 0.05$) with mean score of self-esteem of adolescent boys with authoritative mother and father, authoritarian mother and father, authoritative mother and authoritarian father and authoritative father and authoritarian mother as 21.14, 18.56, 17.67 and 18.86 respectively. Thus, there is a significant difference in self-esteem among adolescent boys due to the interaction between mother's and father's parenting style.

Impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent girls: To examine the impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent girls 2x2 analysis of variance was applied and the values are given in table 3(a) and (b) below:

Table 3(a): The Impact of Parenting Style of Mother and Parenting Style of Father of Adolescents on Self-Esteem of Adolescent Girls (N=150).

Dependent Variable		Independent Variable	SS	df	MS	F-value
Self-esteem	Main Effects	Mother's Parenting Style	139.75	1	139.75	5.36*
		Father's Parenting Style	104.05	1	104.05	3.99*
	Interaction Effects	Mother's Parenting Style x Father's Parenting Style	4.41	1	4.41	0.17 ^{NS}
	Within Group (Error)		3803.51	146	26.05	
	Total		4051.72	149		

*Significant at 0.05 level of significance,

NS means non-significant

Table 3(b): Mean Scores of Self-Esteem of Adolescent girls due to Authoritative and Authoritarian Parenting Style of Mothers and Fathers (N=150)

	Authoritative Fathers	Authoritarian Fathers	Total
Authoritative Mothers	21.48	21.50	21.48
Authoritarian Mothers	19.88	18.71	19.27
Total	20.02	19.00	

The perusal of Tables 3(a) and 3(b) show that (i) a significant difference exists in self-esteem of adolescent girls due to mother's

parenting style of being authoritative or authoritarian ($F = 5.36, p < 0.05$, mean (authoritative) = 21.48, mean (authoritarian)

= 19.27). This implies that self-esteem of adolescent girls whose mothers are authoritative is higher than those whose mothers are authoritarian; (ii) a significant difference exists in self-esteem of adolescent girls due to father's parenting style of being authoritative or authoritarian ($F = 3.99$, $p < 0.05$, mean (authoritative) = 20.02, mean (authoritarian) = 19.00). This implies that self-esteem of adolescent girls whose fathers are authoritative is higher than those whose fathers are authoritarian; (iii) The interaction effect of mother's parenting style (authoritative and authoritarian) and father's parenting style (authoritative and authoritarian) was not significant for self-esteem of adolescent girls ($F = 0.17$, $p > 0.05$) with mean score of self-esteem of adolescent girls with authoritative mother and father, authoritarian mother and father, authoritative mother and authoritarian father and authoritative father and authoritarian mother as 21.48, 18.71, 21.50 and 19.88 respectively. Thus, there is no significant difference in self-esteem among adolescent girls due to the interaction between mother's and father's parenting style.

Discussion of results

On the basis of the results depicted in Tables 1(a) and 1(b), it may be concluded that the

parenting style of mothers and fathers have significant impact on self-esteem of adolescents with adolescents of authoritative mothers and fathers having higher self-esteem than the adolescents with authoritarian mothers and fathers leading to rejection of hypothesis 1 stating 'There exists no significant impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescents'. However no significant interactional effect of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers was found on self-esteem of adolescents. Similarly Tables 2(a) and 2(b) revealed that the parenting style of mothers and fathers have significant impact on self-esteem of adolescent boys with adolescent boys of authoritative mothers and fathers having higher self-esteem than the adolescent boys with authoritarian mothers and fathers leading to rejection of hypothesis 2 stating 'There exists no significant impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent boys'. A significant interactional effect of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers was also found on self-esteem of adolescent boys adolescent boys. Tables 3(a) and 3(b) revealed that the parenting style of mothers and fathers have

significant impact on self-esteem of adolescent girls with adolescent girls of authoritative mothers and fathers having higher self-esteem than the adolescent girls with authoritarian mothers and fathers leading to rejection of hypothesis 2 stating 'There exists no significant impact of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers on self-esteem of adolescent girls'. However no significant interactional effect of authoritative and authoritarian parenting style of mothers and fathers was found on self-esteem of adolescent girls.

Implication: Result of the study revealed that the self-esteem of adolescents (total) as well as for adolescent boys and adolescent girls is highest when both the parents are authoritative in their parenting style and least when both parents are authoritarian. It is thus suggested to parents that they should have rational and democratic approach of parenting which will help in developing self-esteem of adolescents.

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