PERSONALITY STUDY
AND
GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Volume 36   **2016**

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

GURU NANAK DEV UNIVERSITY

AMRITSAR - 143005   (INDIA)

LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS

Kalpana Jain Associate Professor
Department of Psychology
Mohanlal Sukhadia University, Udaipur

Shruti Chittora Research Scholar
Department of Psychology, Mohanlal Sukhadia
University, Udaipur

N.S. Tung Professor, Department of Psychology
Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

Harjot Kaur Junior Research Fellow
Department of Psychology
Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

Kiransinh N. Rajput Assistant Professor
Department of Psychology,
Faculty of Education and Psychology
The M. S. University of Baroda, Vadodara

Naina Rajnish Suri Student- M.A. (Clinical Psychology)
Department of Psychology
Faculty of Education and Psychology
The M.S.University of Baroda, Vadodara.

Tanu Gupta 52/16, V.T. Road, Shipra Path, Mansarover,
Jaipur, Rajasthan, Pin : 302020

U.K.Sinha Additional Professor & Head
Department of Clinical Psychology
Institute of Human Behaviour & Allied Sciences
New Delhi-110095.

K. Jayasankara Reddy Professor of Psychology
Christ University, Bangalore

Smitha M Reddy Research Scholar
Research and Development Center
Bharthiar University, Coimbatore

Shruti Jha Amity Institute of Psychology and
Allied Sciences, Amity University
Noida, Uttar Pradesh.

Abha Singh　　　　Amity Institute of Psychology and
　　　　　　　　　　Allied Sciences, Amity University
　　　　　　　　　　Noida, Uttar Pradesh

Anuradha Sharma　Amity Institute of Psychology and
　　　　　　　　　　Allied Sciences, Amity University
　　　　　　　　　　Noida, Uttar Pradesh.

Anjana Bhattacharjee　Assistant Professor
　　　　　　　　　　Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Tripura University
　　　　　　　　　　Suryamaninagar, Tripura-799022.

Sukriti Banda　　Research Scholar, Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Tripura University, Suryamaninagar
　　　　　　　　　　Tripura-799022

Chandra Mallik　PG Student, Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Tripura University, Suryamaninagrar
　　　　　　　　　　Tripura-799022.

Kamlesh Rani　　Assistant Professor in Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Ansal University, Gurgaon.

SarikaBoora　　　Assistant Professor in Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Sri Aurobindo College, Delhi.

Sisodia Devendra Singh　B-39, Amba Mata Scheme, Udaipur, Rajasthan

K. R. Santhosh　Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Jain University, Bangalore, Karnataka-560027

R. Aparna　　　Department of Psychology, Jain University
　　　　　　　　　　Bangalore, Karnataka-560027

H.L. Kaila　　　1406, Shree Shashwat, Sejal Park
　　　　　　　　　　Gharten Pada 2, Dahisar-E
　　　　　　　　　　Mumbai - 400068.

Nishtha Mehra　 Research Scholar, Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

Madhu Jain　　　Associate Professor, Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　University of Rajasthan, Jaipur.

Ruchi Joshi　　　C/O Dr. Madhu Jain, Department of Psychology
　　　　　　　　　　University of Rajasthan, Jaipur.

Vipin Chilana　　C/o Dr. H.L. Kalia
　　　　　　　　　　1406, Shree Shashwat, Sejal Park
　　　　　　　　　　Gharten Pada 2, Dahisar-E
　　　　　　　　　　Mumbai - 400068.

CONTENTS

Personality36-16-1

A STUDY OF RELATIONSHIP OF PERCEIVED PEER PRESSURE AND SMOKING AMONG TRIBAL AND NONTRIBAL ADOLESCENTS

Kalpana Jain* and Shruti Chittora**

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to find out the relationship between perceived peer pressure and smoking behavior of Tribal & Non-Tribal adolescents. The sample consisted of 400 subjects selected purposively from colleges of Udaipur city. The age range of subjects is 18 to 22 years. Peer pressure scale (self-prepared) was used to collect the data. 2x2 factorial design with four groups (smoker tribal, non smoker tribal, smoker non tribal, and non smoker non tribal) was used in the study. Factorial analysis of variance was applied for analysis of the data. Results indicated that perceived peer pressure among smokers was significantly higher than nonsmoker adolescents. Tribal and non tribal adolescents did not differ on level of peer pressure. Interaction effect of smoking and type of community was found significant.

INTRODUCTION

Smoking is a major problem among adolescents. Cigarette smoking has been implicated as a significant risk factor for the establishment and progression of several diseases. **Sharma and Grover (2010)** reported that seventy percent of premature deaths among adults are due to behavioral patterns that emerge in adolescence including smoking.

During adolescents, kids assert independence and explore their identity yet they still crave the approval of their peers and worry, often unnecessarily, about being rejected. Adolescents behave in accordance with their perceptions which do not always match reality (Jacqueline, 2004).

Adolescents may be particularly susceptible to social influences given their developmental stage and the importance of school and peer groups

* Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, Mohanlal Sukhadia University, Udaipur

** Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, Mohanlal Sukhadia University, Udaipur

Personality36-16-1

in adolescent life (Steinberg and Monahan, 2007). Moreover, there may be uniquely social aspects of adolescent smoking and other substance use, in that other adolescents provide access, opportunity, and reinforcement (Kirke, 2004). Therefore, adolescent substance use and peer use can be highly associated. The effect of peer groups on adolescent smoking and substance use have been widely documented but not among different communities, especially among tribal and non tribal adolescents.

Tribal adolescents today feel social pressure in countless ways from clothing and music choices to risky areas such as drugs, sex and smoking. The intensity of peer pressure varies from situation to situation. Adolescents experience it when friends or other admire pressure on them to do something they don't want to do, or when they feel they have to do something to fit in. Tribal adolescents say peer pressure makes them feel they're being pulled in two directions. They may not want to do what they're feeling pressured to do, but they're also afraid of losing their friends if they say no. They worry about being on people's bad sides and really want to avoid feeling like outsiders.

Adolescent friendship are often formed or cemented on the basis of a common behavior such as smoking; and, in these cases, "Peer pressure" rather than influence produces the association between friends and smoking (Wen et.al., 2011).

Peer pressure is commonly associated with episodes of adolescent risk taking (such as delinquency, drug abuse, sexual behaviors, and reckless driving) because these activities commonly occur in the company of peers. (Cherie and Berhane, 2012). Popular adolescents are the most socialized into their peer groups and thus are vulnerable to peer pressures, such as behaviors usually reserved for those of a greater maturity and understanding. Socially accepted kids are often accepted for the sheer fact that they conform well to the norms of teen culture, good and bad aspects included. Popular adolescents are more strongly associated with their peer groups' likes such as alcohol, tobacco and drugs. (Brown, 2004). Many adolescents start smoking because their friend smoke and they want to fit in. Adolescents in this situation have to deal with "Peer pressure" and most will be asked by their friend at one time or another to smoke with him/her. Since everyone wants to fit in with their friends they will most likely be too afraid to say no when their friends asks them.

Mosbach (2004) investigated the relation between cigarette smoking and peer group affiliations in junior high school students. The results

revealed that two high risk groups who made up 14.7 % of the sample accounted for 55.6% of smokers. In addition, a discriminate analysis revealed that cigarette smoking was the best discriminator of social group affiliations. The results suggested that smoking intervention programs would have a greater chance of being a success if they address specific social and emotional needs of individuals who are at greater risk for becoming smokers.

OBJECTIVES
1. To develop the peer pressure scale.
2. To study the effect of smoking on peer pressure of adolescents.
3. To study the effect of community (Tribal & Non Tribal) on peer pressure of adolescents.
4. To study the interaction effect of smoking status (smokers & non smokers) and types of community (tribal &non tribal) on peer pressure.

HYPOTHESIS
1. There is significant difference in peer pressure of smokers and non smokers' adolescents.
2. There is no difference in peer pressure of tribal and non tribal adolescents.
3. There is significant interaction effect of smoking status (smokers &non smokers) and types of community (tribal &non tribal) on peer pressure.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The sample was comprised of 400 adolescents (age between 18 to 22 years) out of whom 200 (100 smokers boys and 100 non smokers boys) were tribal adolescents and 200 (100 boys smokers and 100 boys non smokers) were non tribal adolescents. The sample was selected purposively from Schools and colleges of Udaipur city.

Tool

The scale developed by Kalpana Jain and Shruti Chittora, it's a five point scale categorized into 'always, often, sometimes, rarely, never'. The questionnaire constitutes of twenty items. There is no time limit.

Design

2x2 Ex-Post-Factorial with four groups namely, tribal smokers (A1B1), tribal non smokers (A2B1) and non tribal smokers (A1B2), non tribal non smokers (A2B2) was used for the study.

Personality36-16-1

Variables

The independent variables of the study were smoking status (smokers & non smokers) and types of community (tribal and non tribal). The dependent variable was perceived peer pressure.

Procedure

Peer pressure scale was administered individually on students. Brief instructions were given to them. The responses were collected and scored according to the manual. The scores obtained were analyzed by factorial analysis of variance.

Result and Discussion

<div align="center">

Result Table-1

The mean and standard deviation scores of types of community from smokers and non smokers adolescents for Peer pressure.

</div>

	Smokers	**Non Smokers**
Tribal Adolescents	**M**= 68.65	**M**=61.58
	S.D=13.02	**S.D.**=12.64
Non Tribal Adolescents	**M**=65.15	**M**=65.13
	S.D.=12.31	**S.D.**=15.02

It is clear from Table-1 that the mean and S.D. score of tribal smokers on peer pressure was 68.65 &13.02 and for tribal non smokers on peer pressure the mean and S.D. score was 61.58 & 12.64. Table-1 also shows that the mean and S.D. scores of non tribal smokers on peer pressure was 65.15, 12.31 and for non tribal non smokers 65.13, 15.02 respectively. In order to find out the significance of difference between the means of different groups analysis of variance was done. The result so obtained are given in table-2

<div align="center">

Result Table-2

Summary of the Analysis of Variance for Smoking Status and Types of Community on Peer Pressure

</div>

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F-Ratio
Smoking Status	1256.70	1	1256.70	7.10**
Types of community	0.062	1	0.062	Non significant
Interaction	1242.56	1	1242.56	7.021**
Within Group	70075.17	396	176.95	
Total		399		

** Significant at .01 level

Personality36-16-1

Main Effect

From result table-2 it is clear that smoker and non smoker adolescents (F-Ratio=7.10, d.f.=1/36) differed on perceived peer pressure significantly. In the present investigation it is clearly observed, that smokers have higher perceived peer pressure than nonsmoker adolescents. It indicates that peer pressure may be contributory factor for smoking. It may be that adolescents perceive smoking as a way acquiring a respectable status in peer group.

Adolescents spend more time with their friend as compared to family members and they are easily influenced by their friends. The presence of high status models and peers may also encourage smoking, because teenagers are influenced more by their peers than by adults. Richardson et.al. (1994) revealed that peer pressure has a significant effect in initiation of smoking behavior. Other studies like of Sen and Basu (2003) revealed that peer influence had strongest association with adolescent smoking. Kabus (2003) revealed that the effect of peer groups on adolescent substance use have been widely documented much remains to be learned, especially regarding the mechanisms of peer influence. Popular adolescents are more strongly associated with their peer groups likes such as alcohol, tobacco and drugs. (Brown, 2004).

Peer pressure is influence that a peer group observers or individual exerts that encourages other to change their attitudes, values or behaviors to conform the group norms. Peer becomes an important influence on behavior during adolescence and peer pressure has been called a hallmark of adolescent experience (Steinberg and Monahan, 2007).

The main effect of types of community (tribal and non tribal) on peer pressure level was not found to be significant (F=Ratio-0.16). It shows that tribal and non tribal adolescents did not differ on level of peer pressure. The adolescent of tribal's & non tribals experiences equal peer pressure.

Personality36-16-1

Result table-3

The mean and standard deviation scores and t-value of types of community from smokers and non smoker's adolescents for Peer pressure

Smoking Status Types of Community	Smokers (A1)	Non Smokers (A2)	t score
Tribal (B1)	Mean=68.65 S.D.=13.06	Mean=61.58 S.D.=12.64	3.90**
Non Tribal (B2)	Mean=65.15 S.D.=12.31	Mean=65.13 S.D.=15.02	Non significant
t score	Non significant	Non significant	

Significant=.01**

Interaction effect

Result table-2 indicates that the interaction effect of peer pressure and types of community on smoking status was found to be significant (F=Ratio-7.021). It shows that interaction effect of smoking and types of community on peer pressure was found significant.

Result table-3 shows that peer pressure of tribal smokers and non tribal smokers (t –value =1.95) was found to be non significant. The tribal smoker adolescents and non tribal smoker adolescents possess equal level of peer pressure. In both the communities friends encourages adolescents to get indulge in smoking behavior. In other words the community do not affect level of peer pressure of smokers.

Peer pressure of tribal non smokers and non tribal non smokers (t-value=1.00) also found to be non significant. It implies that there is equal peer pressure on non smokers regardless of type of community.

The effect of peer pressure on tribal smokers and tribal non smokers (t-value=3.90**) was found to be significant. In other words peer pressure among tribal smokers was significantly higher than tribal non smoker adolescent. It indicates that smoking behavior of tribal adolescents is more influenced by perceived peer pressure than non tribal community. It may be due to that tribal smokers smoke because their friends smoke. They do not avoid their friends request so the effect of peer pressure regarding the tribal smokers was significantly high. The peer pressure of smoking among tribal community may also be more because in tribal community of southern Rajasthan in tobacco and Bidis are a part of the

social-cultural customs or traditions. Bidi is also locally available is cheaper rates and common reason for starting tobacco use peer pressure, work-relief, pleasure and remedy for toothache (Jayakrishnan et al.2009). Thus, the tribal smokers are being affected by communities as they are following their social cultural customs or hospitality traditions. But the tribal non smokers are not affected by above customs and traditions.

Peer pressure of non tribal smokers and non tribal non smokers (t-value=0.01) was to be non significant. There is no difference of peer pressure among smokers & non smokers of non tribal's. Tribal's peer pressure may be an important factor for smoking but not for non tribal's. Because the non tribal smokers considered smoking as prestige issue they became quite addicted to smoking but non tribal non smokers are conscious regarding their health and know the harmful effect of smoking and other drugs.

Conclusion

Peer pressure of smokers was significantly high than non smokers adolescents. Tribal and non tribal adolescents did not differ on level of peer pressure and interaction effect of smoking and types of community was found significant.

References

Brown, B.B. (2004). Adolescents relationship with peer In:Lerner, R.M., and Steinburg (Eds.). *Handbook of Adolescent Psychology*, (2nd ed.). (PP. 363-394) New York: Wiley.

Jacqueline,V.L.(2014). *Peer Pressure & Smoking.* Retrived from Context reverse.net/ traduccion/ingl….

Jayakrishnan R.et al. (2009). *Tobacco use an smoking dependency among the District T population of Kerala state* Retrieved from http://www.sctimst.ac.in..Asian.

Kobus, K. (2003). Peer and Adolescent Smoking. *Addiction*, 98: 37- 55.

Kirke, D.M. (2004). Chain reactions in adolescents' cigarette, alcohol, and drug use: Similarity through peer influence or the patterning of ties in peer networks. *Social Networks,* 26: 3-28.

Manitoba Addictions Awareness Week Resource Kit (2002). Substance Use and Mental Health: Youth. Retrieved from www.gov.mb.ca › Manitoba Healthy Schools.

Richardson,J., Sussman, S., Siddiqui, O., Day, L.E., Hedeker, D., Flay, B.R. (1994).Differential influence of parental smoking and friend smoking on adolescent initiation and escalation of smoking. *J Health Soc Behave*., 35(3):248-65.

Sen U., and Basu, A. (2003).Factors influencing smoking behavior among adolescents: Asian Pacific Prevention cancer Institute 39.*Journal of Cancer*, (1), 306.

Steinberg, L. and Monahan, C.K. (2007). Age Differences in Resistance to Peer Influence. *Development Psychology*, 43(6):1531-1543.

Sharma, R. Grover, C., V. (2010) .Tobacco use among adolescent student and the influence of role models. *Indian Journal of Community Medicine,* 35 (2): 272-275.

Wen, C.P., Tsai, S.P. Cheng, T.Y., HSU, C.C., Chen, T.,& Lin, H.S. (2005).Role of parents and peer in influencing the smoking status of high school students in Taiwan.*Tobacco Control*, 14. i 10- i 15.

HEALTH PROMOTING BEHAVIORS AND BODY IMAGE CONCERN AMONG ADOLESCENTS

Harjot Kaur*, N.S Tung**

Abstract

The present research aimed to study Health Promoting Behaviors in relation to body image concern among adolescents in the light of model of Health Promoting Behavior proposed by Pender (1982) which mentions 'Aesthetics' as one factor to inculcate in health promoting lifestyle. The sample comprised of 106 adolescents (Males=69, Females=37) in age range 14-17 years. They were purposively selected from grades 10th and 12thof a public school in the city of Amritsar. The tools administered were Adolescent Health Promoting Lifestyle Profile-AHLP (Chen,Wang &Yang,2003) and Body Image Concern Questionnaire (Littleton & Axson, 2005) to assess health promoting behaviors and body image concern which led to finding that this behavior is not significantly correlated with body image concern. Among the six individual dimensions of AHLP i.e. nutrition, social support, health responsibility, life appreciation, exercise ,stress management ; only the dimension of 'exercise' could correlate significantly with Body image concern. Correlational analysis even revealed slight gender differences in the above attributes.

INTRODUCTION

Health Promotion is defined by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as 'the process of enabling people to increase control over their health and its determinants, and thereby improve their health'. The basis of the present research is the Health Promotion model (**HPM**) proposed by Nola Pender, which came up in the field of Public Health in 1982 with the purpose to assist health professionals in understanding major determinants of health behaviors as a basis for behavioral counseling to promote healthy lifestyle and was later revised in 1996 based on changing theoretical perspectives and empirical findings. Its theoretical roots lie in Expectancy value theory

---

  * Research Scholar, Dept of Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University,Amritsar.

  ** Professor, Dept of Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

which emphasizes how individuals engage in actions to achieve goals that are perceived as possible and that result in valued outcomes, and Social cognitive theory which focuses on three areas firstly individual characteristics and experiences, secondly behavior-specific cognitions and affect and lastly behavioral outcomes.

Health Promoting behaviors is the desired behavioral outcome and is the end point in the Health promotion. Health promoting behaviors should result in improved health, enhanced functional ability and better quality of life at all stages of development. Health promoting lifestyle is a coherent whole of six dimensions as per theorists: nutrition, social support, health responsibility, life appreciation, exercise and stress management. Modifying these lifestyle factors can potentially prevent any sort of illness whether physical or psychological. The diagrammatic layout of the model in Figure1 clearly describes the functioning of various factors towards health promotion. There are assumptions underlying the use of this model. First, it is assumed that people want to control their own behavior and have a drive to do so. Engaging in a health-promoting behavior is not a passive occurrence. The second assumption is that people are constantly interacting with their environment, which has an influence on their actions and decisions. The third assumption is that healthcare professionals are a part of the interpersonal influences. The last assumption is that people must alter their environments to promote change before action can occur and be sustained (Pender et al., 2011).
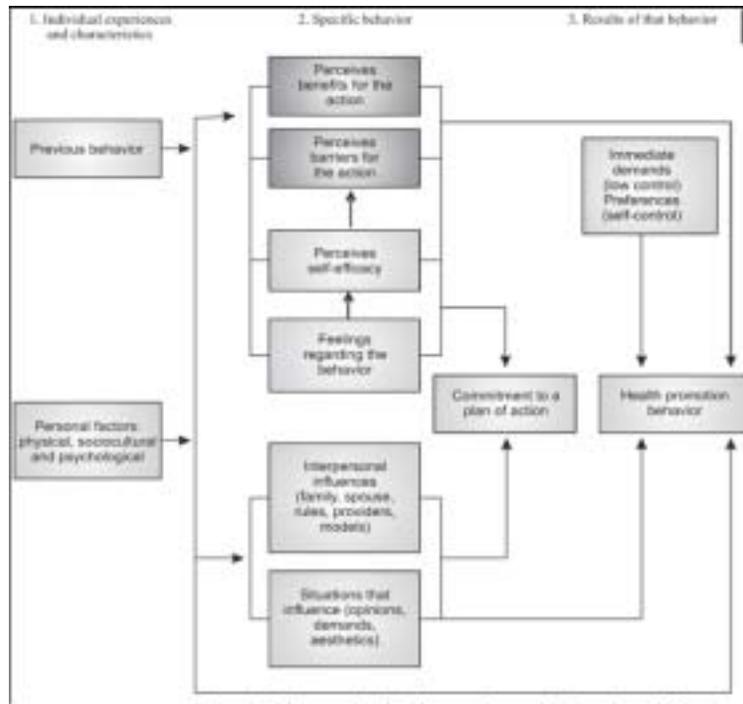
Figure 1 – Diagram of the health promotion model – Fortaleza - 2002.

Adapted from Guedes, Moreira , Cavalcante, Araujo and Ximenes,(2002). Student's physical activity: an analysis according to Pender's health promotion model.

Figure 1. Diagrammatic representation of Health Promotion Model

Considering the factors mentioned above from the situational factor we took the attribute of 'aesthetics' and tried to relate it to body-image concern among teenagers.

Body image is a multidimensional construct encompassing how we perceive, think, feel, and act toward our bodies and lies on a continuum from healthy body perceptions (i.e., accurate and mostly positive) to unhealthy body perceptions (i.e., inaccurate and mostly negative).

Body image has "developmental significance" such that it is not a static personal characteristic, but rather a dynamic aspect of ourselves that changes over the lifespan. As we know that adolescents are a unique population with specific health concerns and needs as it is the peak age of onset for serious mental illness like depression and psychosis. Erickson (1963) identified 'adolescence' as a time that young people are trying to develop their own identity, apart from their family and to explore the roles that they want to take on and be connected with.

Personality36-16-2

On one hand Body image is influenced strongly by self-esteem and self-evaluation, and on other hand is also affected by cultural messages and societal standards of appearance and attractiveness. Given the overemphasis to thin and lean female images and strong and lean male images in almost all societies, body image concerns have become widespread among adolescents worldwide(Kaur et al.,2003.). Young boys and girls become dissatisfied with their bodies when it comes to media influence and social stereotypes (Labre, 2002 &Tiggemann, 2002). According to a recent study adolescent females tend to report greater body dissatisfaction than adolescent males and that females reported a greater size discrepancy from their actual body size than did their male counterparts (Jones et al., 2007). Body dissatisfaction has been linked to low self-esteem (Presnell , Bearman& Stice, 2004); a higher BMI (Paxton , Eisenberg & Neumark-Sztainer, 2006),depressive symptoms in adolescents and racial and cultural differences regarding general health, depression, and low self-esteem (Swallen, Reither& Haas. 2005).Even unhealthy weight control behaviors have been linked to suicidal ideation in the adolescent population (Neumark-Sztainer, 1998).Considering the above findings present study was planned find relationship between health promoting lifestyle and body image concern in adolescents.

In light of the above discussion three objectives were laid out for the present study

  i. To study type of relationship between Health promoting lifestyle and body image concern in adolescents.

  ii. To study gender differences regarding Health promoting lifestyle behaviors and body image concern.

  iii. To study all individual dimensions of Health promoting lifestyle and its relationship with body image concern.

METHOD

Sample: The   sample in the present study consists of   106 students (Males=69, Females=37) in age range 14-17 students of tenth and twelfth standards(non-medical, commerce streams) of Khalsa College Public School (Sr.Sec), Amritsar.

Instruments: The two validated tools were used on the above sample in classroom settings are the following;

1. Body Image Concern Inventory(BICI) (Littleton & Axson, 2005)

The Body Image Concern Inventory (BICI) is a brief, 19-item self-report measure designed to assess dysmorphic appearance concern by Littleton(2005). For each item, individuals indicated how often they have the described feeling or perform the described behavior on a 5-point Likert scale bounded by 1 (*never*) and 5 (*always*).The measure is scored by summing all the items. Scores can range from 19 to 95 (higher scores represent higher levels of dysmorphic concern). Dysmorphic appearance concern includes intense concern and preoccupation with a perceived defect in appearance, as well as behaviors connected to this concern for e.g., camouflaging of perceived defect, avoidance of situations where defect would be exposed, reassurance seeking about appearance, and social concerns and avoidance related to appearance defects.

2. Adolescent Health Promotion (AHP) Scale (Chen, Wang & Yang, 2003)

The original AHP-40 is a self-administered instrument designed by Chen, Wang & Yang (2003) to measure adolescent health promoting behaviors comprised of six subscales: social support (7 items), life appreciation (8 items), health responsibility (8 items), nutritional behaviors (6 items), exercise behaviors (5 items), and stress management (6 items). The instrument uses a 5-point Likert-type response format to obtain data regarding frequency of reported behaviors with scores ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*always*). The total score ranges from 40 to 200, with higher scores indicating better health promoting behaviors.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

With aim to find relationship between Adolescent Health Promoting behaviors and Body image concern and on applying Pearson's Product moment correlation; the following results could be traced out in the present research.

Table 1

Correlation Coffecients between Adoloscent Health Promoting Behaviors and Body Image Concern (n=106)

	AHPB (adoloscent health promoting behaviors)
bic (body Image Concern)	.029

The results in Table 1 reveal that Health Promotion behaviors in adolescents show insignificant low correlations to body image concern. Many research

findings tried to elaborate that a poor body image can have a negative effect on healthy lifestyle behaviors but no such link could be traced out in present study. Reason for this can be many, one of them may be that sample which has been taken is quite small as well as homogenous on basis of demographics, SES and even culture. Even there can be problem in tests which are self rating ones, which failed to bring out true responses from the subjects. Physical appearance has great impact on adolescents as their body image is 'elastic' during that time (Grogan,2008) So we are sure adolescents have body image anxiety but in today's fast world they adopt measures other than health promoting ones. Teens might have all knowledge regarding nutrition but they fail to adopt nutritional habits (Von Bothmer & Fridlund, 2005).Instead they try to adopt heuristics for improving their appearance which they model from media sources like changing hairstyles, getting tattoos, wearing all sorts of jewellery, changing ways of their dress up, applying cosmetics. Teenagers of today do not follow strict healthy regimes but want instant transitory solutions to their problems. Fast food binging is clear-cut indication of neglecting nutrition and being irresponsible towards health. Technology on one verge is making teens lost in virtual world and isolation though connected, so this virtual social support is of no use in minimizing body dissatisfaction. Cosmetic surgeries are also becoming another way-out for them.

Table 2

Correlation Coeffecients Cetween Six Dimensions of Health Promoting Behaviors and Body Image Concern (n=106)

	Dimensions of Adloscent Health Promoting Behavior (AHPB)						
	Nutrition Support	Social Responsi-bilty	Helath Appreciation	Life	Exercise	Stress Manage-ment	Nutrition +Excercise
BIC	.096	.034	.040	-.171	.255**	-.071	.236*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

*Correlation significant at 0.05 level.

In Table 2, Results of individual dimensions of AHPB i.e. Nutrition, Social-support, Health Responsibility, Life appreciation, Exercise and Stress management with BICI scores reveal that only the dimension of 'Exercise' did correlate significantly with Body image concern among adolescents. This is also supported with help of similar findings that participation in sports and activities that have a strong focus on appearance is related to

high levels of BIC (Tiggemann ,2005) .Body dissatisfaction as motivation to exercise has been established by many researchers(Tiggemann & Slater,2013).This can also be seen in the increased trend of gyming especially among teenagers. To great extent teenagers have become aware of joining health clubs as it is socially desirable too and portrayal of their ideal figures in media compels them to do so.

The dimension of 'nutrition and exercise' collectively correlates significantly with body image concern. This can be attributed to fact that during gyming practice, the adolescents tend to avoid certain foods told by their instructors and girls even start omitting meals. Although being physically active is usually encouraged as a health-promoting behavior, exercising compulsively and excessively is a common purging strategy used to compensate for caloric intake or to change one's body weight, size, or shape (Hausenblas, Cook & Chittester, 2008). One fact seen in boys is taking supplements to achieve muscular strength.

Table 3

Correlation Coeffecients between total Lifestyle Scores and Body Image Concern among Boys (n=69) and Girls (n=37).

	AHPB -Boys (n=69)	AHPB- Girls (n=37)
BICI	-.053	.137

In Table 3, the scores of boys and girls were separately analyzed, but low insignificant correlations were obtained between total adolescent lifestyle scores and body image concern score which can be due to almost equivalent unhealthy sedentary lifestyle patterns being adopted by both boys and girls while getting engaged in gadgets. Extensive hours devoted to studies only during these years makes teenagers neglect health and healthy lifestyle completely.

Table 4

Correlation Coefficients of Six Dimensions of Heath Promoting Lifestyle and Body Image Concern

	Nutrition	Health Responsi-bilty	Social Support	Life Appre-ciation	Exercise	Stress Management
BICI (Boys)n=69	-.085	-.026	.070	-.139	.179	-.172
BICI (Girls)n=37	.324	-.067	-.002	-.153	.331**	.209

** Correlation is significant at 0.05 level.

In Table 4, the score of girls and boys on body image concern and six dimensions of health promoting behaviors were analysed. Significant correlation on the single dimension of 'Exercise' with body image concern was seen only in girls though sample is unevenly distributed on gender basis(boys-69 and girls-37). Studies have also proven that young females are more likely than young males to engage in exercise to improve appearance (Grogan, 2010 ; Connor Smith et al., 2000). Peer modeling and social comparison have also been seen as accountable factors in girls. It can be attributed as reason for exercise in girls is body image concern but in boys reason for exercise may be different. Males also enjoy taking part in physical activities for recreational purposes more so than females (Lee & Yuen Loke, 2005 ; Mc Cabe & Riccardelli, 2001). Many findings suggest that there may be age and gender differences in body dissatisfaction. The dual process of sociocultural and peer pressure may contribute to such gender differences, as well as markers of identity (Field, Camargo, Taylor, Berkey, Roberts & Colditz., 2001). Some studies reaveal that both school and school health services may influence perceived health and body image in adolescence (Field et al., 2003)

The main aim of study was to see the relationship between Health Promoting behaviors and body image concern among adolescents but no such significant link could be established . So this makes us conclude that teenagers of today donot have enough agents which can motivate them towards healthy lifestyle.Those agents can be family, school, society, health clubs and media. Unhealthy habits in adolescence are definitely markers of lifestyle diseases of adulthood. Exercise is being taken up by them to enhance body aesthetics but healthy lifestyle is somewhere lacking. Health promoting behaviors along with stress management and the above said agents can prove as first hand tools to curb teenage bodily anxieties.

References

Chen M.Y., Wang E.K., Yang R.J., Liou Y.M. (2003). Adolescent Health Promotion Scale: Development and Psychometric Testing. *Public Health Nurs.* 20(2):104–10.

Connor-Smith, J. K., Compas, B. E., Thomsen, A. H., Wadsworth, M. E., & Saltzman, H.(2000). Responses to stress: Measurement of coping and reactivity in children and adolescents. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,* 68, 976-992

Erikson, E.H. (1963). *Childhood and society.* (2nded.). New York, NY: Norton.

Field, A.E., Camargo, C.A., Taylor, C.B., Berkey, C.S., Roberts S.B.& Colditz ,G.A.(2001). Peer, parent, and media influences on the development of weight concerns and frequent dieting among preadolescent and adolescent girls and boys. *Pediatrics* 2001;107(1):54-60.

Field, A.E., Austin, S.B.& Taylor ,C.B.(2003)Relation between dieting and weight change among preadolescents and adolescents.*Pediatrics,* 112 pp. 900–906

HEALTH PROMOTING BEHAVIORS   17

Guedes,N.G. , Moreira,R.P. , Cavalcante,T.F , Araujo, T.L. , Ximenes, L.B.(2002) .Student's physical activity: an analysis according to Pender's health promotion model.Retrieved on December 5,2015, http://www.scielobr.in

Grogan, S. (2008). *Body Image: understanding body dissatisfaction in men, women, and children*. Londres: Routledge Publishers.

Grogan, S. (2010).Promoting positive body image in males and females: contemporary issues and future directions. *Sex Roles, 63*(9-10),757-765. doi 10.1007/s11199-010-9894-z

Hausenblas H.A., Cook B.J.& Chittester N.I.(2008) Can exercise treat eating disorders? *Exerc Sport Sci Rev.* 36(1):43–47.

Jones, L.R., Fries, E., & Danish, S.J. (2007). Gender and ethnic differences in body image and opposite sex figure preferences of rural adolescents. *Body Image,* 4, 103-108. doi: 10.1016/j.bodyim.2006.11.005

Kaur, R., Singh, A.K., &Javed, A. (2003).Body image and depression among adolescents. *Journal of Personality and Clinical Studies,* 19, 51-56.

Labre, M.P. (2002). Adolescent boys and the muscular male body ideal. *Journal of Adolescent Health,* 30, 233–242

Lee, R.L., & Yuen Loke, A.J. (2005). Health-promoting behaviors and psychosocial well-being of university students in Hong Kong. *Public Health Nursing*, 22, 209-220. doi: 10.1111/j.0737-1209.2005.220304.

Littleton,H.L.& Axson, D.(2005). Development of Body Image Concern Inventory.*Behavior Research and Therapy*,43:229-241[Pub Med:15629752]

McCabe, M.P., &Riccardelli, L.A. (2001). Body image and body change techniques among adolescent boys. *European Eating Disorders Review,* 9 (5), 335-347

Neumark-Sztainer, D., Story, M., Dixon, L.B., & Murray, D.M. (1998). Adolescents engaging in unhealthy weight control behaviors: Are they at risk for other healthcompromising behaviors? *American Journal of Public Health*, 88, 952-955. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.88.6.952

Neumark-Sztainer, D., Croll, J., Story, M., Hannan, P.J., French, S.A., & Perry, C. (2002a). Ethnic/racial differences in weight-related concerns and behaviors among adolescent girls and boys: Findings from Project EAT. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 53, 963-974. doi: 10.1016/S0022-3999(02)00486-5

Neumark-Sztainer, D., Story, M., Hannan, P.J., Perry, C., & Irving, L.M. (2002b).Weight-related concerns and behaviors among overweight and nonoverweight adolescents.*Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine,* 156, 171-178.

Paxton, S.J., Eisenberg, M.E., & Neumark-Sztainer, D. (2006). Prospective predictors of body dissatisfaction in adolescent girls and boys: A five-year longitudinal study. *Developmental Psychology*, 42, 888-899. DOI: 10. 1037/0012-1649.42.5.888

Pender, N.J., Murdaugh, C.L., & Parsons, M.A. (2011). *Health promotion in nursing practice* (6thed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Presnell, K., Bearman, S.K., & Stice, E. (2004). Risk factors for body dissatisfaction in adolescent boys and girls: A prospective study. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 36, 389-401. DOI: 10.1002/eat.20045

Schneider, S., Weib, M., Thiel, A., Werner, A., Mayer, J., Hoffmann, H, ... Diehl, K. (2013). Body dissatisfaction in female adolescents: extent and correlates. *European Journal of Pediatrics, 172*(3),373-84. doi: 10.1007/ s00431-012-1897-z

Swallen, K.C., Reither, E.N., Haas, S.A., & Meier, A.M. (2005). Overweight, obesity, and health-related quality of life among adolescents: The National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. *Pediatrics*, 115, 340-347. doi: 10.1542/peds.2004-0678

Tiggemann, M. (2002).'Media influences on body image development' in *Body*

image: a handbook of theory, research and clinical practice, ed. TF Cash and

T Pruzinsky, Gulliford Press, New York, pp. 91–98.

Tiggemann, M. (2005). The role of media exposure in adolescent girls' body dissatisfaction and drive for thinness: Prospective results. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology,* 25,523-541.

Tiggemann, M., Slater, A.(2013) Netgirls: the internet, facebook, and body image concern in adolescent girls. *Int J Eat Disord*. 46(6):630–633.

Von Bothmer, M.I., & Fridlund, B. (2005). Gender differences in health habits and in motivation for a healthy lifestyle among Swedish university students. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 7, 107-118. DOI: 10.1111/j.1442-2018.2005.00227

DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY AND CYBER LOAFING: A SURVEY RESEARCH

Mr. Kiransinh N. Rajput*
Ms. Naina Rajnish Suri**

Abstract

The present research was conducted to study the correlation between the five dimensions of personality and cyberloafing (using the Internet for personal purposes during working hours) among employees.100 employees were taken as sample and survey research design was used. To measure personality the 50-item International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, et al., 2006) and Cyberloafing Scale developed by Lim et al. (2005) were used to indicate personality and cyberloafing respectively among employees. Results indicated that employees who are emotionally stable engage less in cyberloafing. Employees who engage in activities that involve intellect/imagination refrain from cyberloafing activities at workplace.

Keywords: Cyberloafing, Personality, Intellect/Imagination and Emotional stability

We live in a technological age that some say is more radical than the agrarian and industrial revolutions of the past, where 90% of all human innovations have appeared in less than 5% of the time modern humans have been on the planet. It took radio 37 years to reach a global audience of 50 million and television about 15 years, while the Internet took just 3 years to achieve this figure (Forster, 2006). In December 1995, the number of Internet users globally was 16 million. Less than 20 years later, in March 2014, this number was 170 times higher, at 2,937 million Internet users worldwide (Internet Growth Statistics, 2014). Business activities, such as marketing, media and sales, have been transformed by the Internet and its associated technologies (Ugrin, Pearson & Odom, 2007). With just a few mouse clicks, shipments can be tracked, products purchased, finances managed, and more. With the same few clicks, however, employees can waste billions of dollars of company time (Ugrin et al., 2007).

* Assistant Professor,Department of Psychology,Faculty of Education and Psychology,The M.S.University of Baroda, Vadodara.

** Student- M.A (Clinical Psychology)Department of PsychologyFaculty of Education and Psychology,The M.S.University of Baroda, Vadodara

Personality36-16-3

According to the American Psychological Association, *Personality* refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. The study of personality focuses on two broad areas: One is to understand individual differences in particular personality characteristics, such as sociability or irritability. The other is to understand how the various parts of a person come together as a whole. Many psychologists have defined personality in a variety of ways. According to Allport (1961), personality refers to a set of dynamic and organized characteristics that are possessed by an individual, which uniquely defines an individual's cognitions, emotions and behaviors on various situations. Weinberg and Gould (1999) have defined personality as a blend of characteristics that make a person unique. Both definitions emphasize the uniqueness of the individual and consequently adopt an idiographic view.

Research conducted since the 1970's has begun to converge on a refreshingly simple conclusion. In fact, there are only five key or central dimensions of personality (Costa and McCrae, 1988, Digman, 1990; McCrae,1989). These are labelled as the following:

*Extraversion***:** A dimension ranging from sociable, talkative, fun-loving, affectionate and adventurous at one end to retiring, sober, reserved, silent and cautious at the other.

*Agreeableness***:**A dimension ranging from good-natured, gentle, cooperative, trusting and helpful at one end to irritable, ruthless, suspicious, uncooperative and headstrong at the other.

*Conscientiousness:*A dimension ranging from well organized, careful, self-disciplined, responsible, and scrupulous at one end to disorganized, careless, weak-willed and unscrupulous at the other

Emotional Stability: A dimension ranging from poised, calm, composed, and not hypochondriachal at one end to nervous, anxious, excitable and hypochondriachal at the other.

Openness to experience: A dimension ranging from imaginative, sensitive, intellectual, and polished at one end to down-to-earth, insensitive, crude and simple at the other.

Deviant behaviours in the workplace take many forms. Loafing is a perennial phenomenon that has plagued organizations since their inception (Lim, 2002). Some common forms of workplace loafing include personal telephone calls, water cooler chitchatting, and extended lunches. Although the Internet is often viewed as a major contribution to the knowledge and resource capabilities of organizations, the ready availability

Personality36-16-3

of Internet access on many jobs also provides workers with the opportunity to engage in "cyberloafing" by accessing the Internet for personal use during work hours. Indeed, recent research has demonstrated that the Internet is a double edged sword that companies should deploy with caution (Lim & Teo, 2006).

Cyberloafing is defined as "any voluntary act of employees using their companies' Internet access during office hours to surf non work related Websites for non work purposes and access (including receiving and sending) non-work related email" (Lim, et al., 2005). Unlike traditional forms of workplace loafing, cyberloafing enables workers to engage in personal pursuits via the Internet while seemingly hard at work (Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001).

Contributing to significant business opportunities and the enhancement of employees' productivity, the Internet has changed how work is done. These benefits, including cost reductions, decreased product cycle times, and easier access to information are not without a downside. The use of the Internet in the workplace has also raised concerns regarding privacy, productivity losses and organizational liability as a result of employees' Internet activities (Lim & Teo, 2005). A Vault.com survey, conducted in 2000, revealed that over 90% of employees engage in cyberloafing behavior on a daily basis. As much as 40% of employee productivity can be lost as a result of cyberloafing (Verton, 2000).

Employees' productivity and knowledge asset management are now at a point of major concern for organizations (Mahatananankoon, 2006). Unlike other forms of loafing, cyberloafing not only exposes organizations to productivity losses, it poses additional threats like bandwidth loss, computer viruses and legal liabilities (Lim et al., 2005; Nair, 2005).

High Internet usage is associated with negative behaviors such as procrastination, having clear workplace implications (Lavoie & Pychyl, 2001). Workers misuse the Internet as a means of filling time or to avoid less rewarding tasks (Hills & Argyle, 2003; Lavoie and Pychyl, 2001) or to exact organizational justice by allocating time to work activities based on what they view as consistent with their compensation and treatment in the organization (Lim, 2005).

Rationale of the Study

As seen from the studies mentioned earlier internet use at the workplace has increased a great deal as most workplaces today are

Personality36-16-3

equipped with technology (computers) and every individual through the medium of their cell phone are in a position to access the internet and communicate with other individuals which has led to decreased productivity. There have been few studies in India that have looked at cyberloafing in the workplace; this study aims to help organizations for selecting suitable employees.

Objectives

To study the correlation between the five dimensions of personality (conscientiousness; emotional stability; agreeableness; extraversion and openness to experience) and cyberloafing

Hypothesis

1. There will be a significant negative correlation between emotional stability and cyberloafing behavior.

2. There will be a significant negative correlation between agreeableness and cyberloafing behavior.

3. There will be a significant negative correlation between extraversion and cyberloafing behavior.

4. There will be a significant negative correlation between openness to experience and cyberloafing behavior.

5. There will be a significant negative correlation between conscientiousness and cyberloafing behavior.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

100 employees were included in the study as sample. Employees had to be above the age of 18 and needed to be working professionals who had access to computers at their workplace no upper age limit was set. Also, employees who are well versed with the English language were included in sample as the questionnaires are available in English.

Tools

IPIP Scale

The questionnaires consisted of the 50 item International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, et al., 2006). This 50 items scale is widely used among researchers, maps well onto other Big Five personality measures, provides a higher level of internal consistency than similar scales, and has highly adequate convergent and discriminant validity, this scale has been used in the present study for the purposes of measuring the Big Five personality

traits. The questionnaire responses were structured using a seven point Likert type scale, anchored by "very inaccurate" and "very accurate." Given the fairly large number of items in the questionnaire, we expected to see sufficient variability within the scale.

Cyberloafing scale:

In the present study the cyberloafing scale developed by Lim (2002) was used. The final 17item scale was used to measure cyberloafing. It is a six point scale where 1 means 'never' and 6 means 'constantly'.

Research Design

Survey research design was used. This was done by collecting information about cyberloafing behaviour and personality dimensions through the medium of questionnaires that were administered to working professionals who had access to a computer especially internet at their workplace. The employees belonged to the cities of Vadodara and Ahmedabad in the state of Gujarat.

Procedure

Permission of data collection was taken from different organizations. The study involved responding to two questionnaires that were given to the employees in the form of a hard copy. Subjects indicated their responses after which the questionnaires were taken back. The scoring of each questionnaire was first done manually after which the items of the questionnaire were coded under different variable names in SPSS.

Result and Discussion:

To study the correlation between five dimensions of personality and cyberloafing, Pearson's product moment correlation was used and results are as below.

Dimensions	extra-version	agreeable-ness	conscientious-ness	emotional stability	intellect/-imagination	cyberloafing total
Extraversion	1					
Agreeableness	.330**	1				
Conscientiousness	0.036	.342**	1			
emotional stability	-0.089	-0.175	0.014	1		
intellect/imagination	-0.089	-0.175	0.014	0.900**	1	
cyberloafing total	0.163	0.025	0.012	**-0.237***	**-0.237***	1

**correlation is significant at 0.01 level* correlation is significant at 0.05 level

Table 1: Pearson's product moment correlation showing correlation between dimensions of personality and cyberloafing behavior.

Personality36-16-3

There is no significant correlation was between extraversion and cyberloafing behaviour (r=0.163, p>0.05). There is no significant correlation was found between agreeableness and cyberloafing (r=0.025, p>0.05). There is no significant correlation between conscientiousness and cyberloafing behavior (r=0.012, p>0.05). There is significant negative correlation found between cyberloafing and emotional stability (r=-0.237, p<0.05) and between cyberloafing and intellect/imagination (r=-0.237, p<0.05).

It was hypothesized that the five dimensions of personality will have a negative correlation with cyberloafing behavior. From the results it was seen that emotional stability and intellect/imagination had a significant negative correlation with cyberloafing and hence the hypothesis that emotional stability will have a significant negative correlation with cyberloafing and intellect/imagination will have a significant negative correlation with cyberloafing was accepted. This was also found in a study done by Lee and Kim (2004). The hypotheses extraversion will have a significant negative correlation with cyberloafing; conscientiousness will have a significant negative correlation with cyberloafing and agreeableness will have a significant negative correlation with cyberloafing were rejected.

Limitations

The study had a small sample size (N=100) and was restricted to the cities of Vadodara and Ahmedabad.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Many organizations already conduct personality assessments for potential new hires, looking to enhance job satisfaction, productivity, and other characteristics. Knowing of the relationships between personality and cyberloafing behavior is useful to managers and can provide them with additional information from which to base their hiring decisions; however organizations should be cognizant of the legal implications related to making hiring decisions based on personality alone. A more promising strategy might be to match individuals to work assignments least likely to activate cyberloafing based on personality influences. By observing the frequency of each of the different types of cyberloafing activities, organizations can devise strategies to curb cyberloafing behavior.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this research study has taken the important, initial step toward understanding the relationship between personality and cyberloafing. There is a significant negative correlation found between emotional stability and cyberloafing and between openness to experience

Personality36-16-3

(intellect/imagination) and cyberloafing behaviour that means those employees who are high on emotional stability are less likely to cyberloafing and those employees who are low on emotional stability are more likely to cyberloafing. Also those employees who are high on intellect/imagination (openness to experience) are less likely to cyberloafing and employees who are low on intellect/imagination are more likely to engage in cyberloafing behavior.

References

Allport, G. W. (1961). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: H. Holt and. Company.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1988). Personality in adulthood: A six year longitudinal study of self reports and spouse ratings on the NEO Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 853 863.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41, 417 440.

Forster, N. (2006). The Impact of Emerging Technologies on Business, Industry, Commerce and Humanity During the 21st Century. *VISION—The Journal of Business Perspective* 10 (4).

Goldberg, L. R., Johnson, J. A., Eber, H. W., Hogan, R., Ashton, M. C., Cloninger, C. R., & Gough, H. C. (2006). The International Personality Item Pool and the future of public domain personality measures. *Journal of Research in Personality,* 40, 84 96.

Hills, P., & Argyle, M. (2003). Uses of the Internet and their relationships with individual differences in personality. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 19, 59 70.

Lavoie, J., & Pychyl, T. (2001). Cyber slacking and the procrastination superhighway: A web based survey of online procrastination, attitudes, and emotion. *Social Science Computer Review*, 19, 431 444.

Lee, Z., Lee, Y., & Kim, Y. (2004). Personal Web usage in organizations. In M. Anandarajan & C. A. Simmers (Eds.), *Personal web usage: A guide to effective human resources management* (pp. 28 45). Hershey, PA: Information Science Publishing.

Lim, V. K. G., & Teo, T. S. H., (2005). Prevalence, perceived seriousness, justification, and regulation of cyberloafing in Singapore: An exploratory study. *Information and Management,* 42, 1081 1093.

Lim, V. K. G., & Teo, T. S. H., (2006). Cyberloafing and organizational justice: The moderating role of neutralization technique. In M. Anandarajan, T. S. H. Teo, & C. A. Simmers (Eds.), *The Internet and workplace transformation: Advances in management information systems* (pp. 241 258). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Lim, V. K. G., (2002). The IT way of loafing on the job: Cyberloafing, neutralizing, and organizational justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.* 23, 675 694.

Mahatanananankoon, P. (2006). Internet abuse in the workplace. In M. Anandarajan, T. S. H. Teo, & C. A. Simmers (Eds.), *The Internet and workplace transformation: Advances in management information systems* (pp. 15 27). Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

McCrae, R. R. (1989). Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120, 323 337.

Nair, S.K. (2005). The psychology of cyberloafing. *Business Cognizance*, 1(5)

Ugrin, J.C., Pearson, J.M., & Odom, M.D. (2007). Profiling Cyber-Slackers in the Workplace: Demographic, Cultural and Workplace Factors. *Journal of Internet Commerce*, 6 (3), pp.75-89.

Verton, D. (2000). Employers ok with e surfing. *Computer World,* 34, 1 16.

Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (1999). Personality and sport. *Foundations of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 25-46.

PATTERNS OF EMOTIONAL PROCESSING IN DEPRESSION

Tanu Gupta* & U.K.Sinha**

Abstract

The study aimed to compare the patterns of emotional processing in symptomatic and improved depressive patients. The cross sectional study design and purposive sampling was used to collect the sample of 40 patients with depression (n=10) in each category of mild, moderate depression, severe depression and improved depression within the age range of 18 to 50. After obtaining the informed consent, they were assessed on semi-structured interview schedule, Beck Depression Inventory-II and Emotional processing Scale. Results revealed that all the depressive patients used suppression, avoidance and experienced unprocessed, unregulated and impoverished emotions however the usage of all these emotional processing styles was higher in severe depression. The avoidance style of emotional processing was the most frequent style of emotional processing in all depressive patients. Symptomatic and improved depressive patients differed significantly with regards to different patterns of emotional processing.

Key words: Depression, Emotional Processing

Introduction

Depression is common mental health disorder that affects individual's personal, social and emotional life. The World Health Organization (WHO) has predicted that by 2020 depression will become the third leading cause of disability worldwide. Depressive individuals generally present with disturbances in emotional processing, which are expressed as a negative bias in processing emotional information (Gotlib et al., 2005; Koster et al., 2005; Siegel et al., 2002) Patients with depression show attentional biases toward negative emotions such as sadness and dysphoria (Gotlib et al.,

---

* Research Associate, Department of Psychiatry, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi-110029.

** Additional Professor & Head, Department of Clinical Psychology, Institute of Human Bahaviour & Allied Sciences, New Delhi-110095.

Personality36-16-4

2004) and tend to interpret neutral or positive information negatively compared to nondepressed counterparts (Gollan et al., 2008; Gur et al., 1992). Emotional processing is defined as a process to understand how an individual deals with emotional situations, attribute meaning to those situations, expresses his emotions in those situations and is able to label and link them to events that happens in his/her life (Baker, 2001). Based on the theoretical model, Baker (2001) defined five different styles of emotional processing: *Suppression:* Excessive control of emotional experience and expression, *Signs of Unprocessed emotions:* Intrusive and persistent emotional experiences, *Unregulated emotion:* Inability to control one's emotions, *Avoidance:* Avoidance of negative emotional triggers, *Impoverished Emotional Experience*: Detached experience of emotions due to poor emotional insight.

Emotions are an important target in the psychological as well as pharmacological treatment of depression because the way in which a person processes emotional experiences is important in facilitating their management of everyday life. However, a number of questions remain unanswered in current literature about the styles of emotional processing used by patients with depression at different stages of depression. Therefore it becomes imperative to understand the patterns of emotional processing of depressive patients to manage their illness and possibly preventing the recurrence of depression in future.

With this background, the present study was planned to answer an important research question *"Is there any difference between the symptomatic and improved depressive patients with regards to their patterns of emotional processing?"*

Hypothesis: There will be difference between the symptomatic and improved depressive patients with regards to their patterns of emotional processing.

METHOD

Participants

The cross sectional study design and purposive sampling was used to collect the sample of 40 depressed patients with 10 patients in each category i.e mild, moderate, severe and improved depressive patients. The sample was collected from the Psychiatry and Clinical Psychology outpatients departments of Institute of Human Behavior and Allied Sciences (IHBAS). In order to maintain the ethical principles necessary in the research, it was ensured that all the ethical considerations were taken care of during the course of the study.

Personality36-16-4

Study Criteria

1. Patient diagnosed with Depressive Disorder (mild/moderate/ severe) as per ICD-10 criteria.

2. Improved depressive patients was defined as patients who have shown improvement on treatment as perceived by treating psychiatrist, no findings suggestive of core depressive features in cross sectional mental status examination and subjective report of improvement by patient on 10 point visual analog scale and who got scores of 0-13, indicate minimal depression on BDI-II

3. Age range of 18 to 50 year.

4. Patients with Co-morbid medical or psychiatric diagnosis, current or lifetime history of alcohol/ substance abuse and past history of significant head injury or any neurological illness were excluded from the study.

Procedure

Participant fulfilling the selection criteria were approached for inclusion. After written informed consent, first author performed the evaluation and assessment for each participant in a single session.

Measures

Semi structured interview schedule: A semi-structured interview schedule was prepared and used to collect the necessary socio-demographic details (age, sex, marital status, education, occupation, socio-economic status) of the patient. It also explored about the history of present illness, duration of illness, presence of any co-morbid condition or past history, family history and treatment obtained. ***Beck Depression Inventory II (Beck et.al., 1996):*** The Beck Depression Inventory Second Edition (BDI-II), Hindi version was used was used to assess the existence and severity of symptoms of depression. The criterion-based validity of BDI-II showed good sensitivity and specificity for detecting depression. The internal consistency was reported as 0.90 and the test-retest reliability ranged from 0.73 to 0.96. ***Emotional Processing Scale:*** The EPS has been developed based on the emotional processing model given by Baker et.al. (2007). EPS contain 25 items which are rated across 10 scales from "completely disagree" to "completely agree". EPS measure five different styles of emotional processing as described above. EPS has been found to be a reliable test in terms of : internal consistency (0.92) and Split- Half reliability (0.91), test-retest reliability (4 to 6 weeks) of the entire scale was found

Personality36-16-4

to be (0.74). EPS was also found to have high sensitivity and specificity.

For the present study, EPS was translated in Hindi using a standard forward and back translation procedure to obtain bi-lingual (English and Hindi) equivalents and to enable better understanding and acceptability of this measures.

Statistical Analysis: Mean and standard deviation of the scores on EPS was calculated to for each group. *Kruskal-Wallis Test* was used to compare the pattern of emotional processing between symptomatic and improved depressive patients under study. All the statistical analysis was done with the help of SPSS-17.

Results

The age range of the participants in four groups was 18-28 years. Symptomatic depressive patient's sample was male dominant however in improved depressive patients; sample consisted of equal number of males and females. Most of the patients in all the four groups were married and belonged to middle class.

Table 1

Mean and SD and comparison of Various Styles of Emotional Processing in Symptomatic and Improved Depressive Patients (Kruskal Wallis Test)

Styles of Emotional Processing	Mild Depression (n=10)	Moderate Depression (n=10)	Severe Depression (n=10)	Improved Depression (n=10)	x^2 (df=3)
	Mean(S.D)	Mean(S.D)	Mean(S.D)	Mean(S.D)	
SUPP	4.38 (1.74)	5.24 (1.71)	6.06(2.40)	3.08(1.91)	**9.96***
UNPRO	5.22 (1.34)	5.20 (1.68)	7.08(.795)	3.10(1.40)	**26.38***
UNREG	3.82 (1.65)	4.40 (1.93)	6.46(2.16)	2.58(.968)	**14.60***
AVOID	5.36(1.81)	5.90 (1.48)	7.34(.961)	5.46(1.90)	**8.20***
IMPOVER	3.86 (1.13)	5.38 (1.57)	7.22(1.19)	2.66(1.20)	**25.55***

P<0.05*; P<0.001**

SUPP= Suppression, **UNPRO**= Signs of Unprocessed Emotions, **UNREG**= Unregulated Emotions, **AVOID**= Avoidance, **IMPOVER**= Impoverished Emotional Experience

Table 1 represent the mean and S.D of various components/styles of emotional processing and comparison of emotional processing between symptomatic and improved depressive patients. Irrespective of the group,

Personality36-16-4

avoidance style of emotional processing was found to be high in all the patients as indicated by the high mean scores followed by signs of unprocessed emotions, suppression, impoverished emotional experiences and unregulated emotions. Emotional processing was found to be highly disturbed in severe depression as suggested by high mean scores of different components of emotional processing.

Table 1 also revealed that all the four groups differed significantly on all the components of emotional processing: suppression ($p < 0.005$), signs of unprocessed emotions ($p < 0.001$), unregulated emotions ($p < 0.001$), avoidance ($p < 0.005$) and impoverished emotional experience ($p < 0.001$).

Discussion

The present study found significant difference in emotional processing of symptomatic and improved depressive patients which is in accordance with the study hypothesis. Avoidance style of emotional processing was high in all the patients, which indicate that all the patients tried to avoid the negative emotional triggers. This implies that avoidance has been used as a most frequent style of emotional processing by depressive patients. A possible explanation could be that in general avoidance is the most commonly used coping style to deal with the negative emotions and patients with depression have been using this style for a long time and become habitual of avoiding every negative emotional triggers which in turn relieved them from a state of discomfort for some time and reinforce their usage of avoidance. These findings were found to be in consonance with previous Indian study done in the same institute in which Kedia and Sinha (2006) found that all the three groups of depressive patients (mild, moderate, severe) use avoidance as a way of controlling their emotional experiences and all of these patients tried to avoid the negative emotions.

Patients with severe depression tend to express negative bias in processing emotional information. They also experience increased negative affect and reduced positive affect (Koster et al., 2005). Our study also found that the severe depression was associated with negative affective biases during the perception and interpretation of emotional information and leading to high level of unprocessed emotions, suppression, unregulated emotions and impoverished emotional experiences in most severe depressive patients.

Significant differences of emotional processing were found between symptomatic and improved depressive patients. These differences could be attributed to the treatment as most of our patients (65%) were taking

Personality36-16-4

medicines and psychotherapy session and both pharmacotherapy and psychotherapy would first target on decreasing the negative emotional bias in depressed patients and increase the processing of positive affect. These findings are also supported by the previous researches that reported positive effects of antidepressant and psychotherapy on emotional processing of depressive patients (Harmer, Goodwin & Cowen, 2009).

Conclusion

Preliminary findings suggest that emotional processing styles of depressive patients differ at different stages/severity of depression. These finding needs to be interpreted in view of study's small sample size and use of a cross sectional design that did not allow us to comment on longitudinal patterns of emotional processing. The major implication of the study is that although preliminary these findings have a potential to guide professionals in planning interventions with a specific focus on these emotional issues of depressed patients.

Acknowledgements

References

Baker, R., Thomas, S., Thomas, P.W., Owens, M. (2007). Development of an Emotional Processing Scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*. 62(2), 167-178.

Baker, R. (2001). An emotional processing model for counselling and psychotherapy: a way forward. *Counselling in Practice*, *7*(1), 8-11.

Beck, A. T., Steer, R. A., & Brown, G. K. (1996). *Beck depression inventory*-II. *San Antonio, TX: Psychological Corporation*, b9.

Gollan, J. K., Pane, H. T., McCloskey, M. S., & Coccaro, E. F. (2008). Identifying differences in biased affective information processing in major depression. *Psychiatry research*, *159*(1), 18-24.

Gotlib, I. H., Krasnoperova, E., Yue, D. N., & Joormann, J. (2004). Attentional biases for negative interpersonal stimuli in clinical depression. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *113*(1), 127.

Gotlib, I. H., Yue, D. N., & Joormann, J. (2005). Selective attention in dysphoric individuals: the role of affective interference and inhibition. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *29*(4), 417-432.

Gur, R. C., Erwin, R. J., Gur, R. E., Zwil, A. S., Heimberg, C., & Kraemer, H. C. (1992). Facial emotion discrimination: II. Behavioral findings in depression.*Psychiatry research*, *42*(3), 241-251.

Personality36-16-4

Harmer, C. J., Goodwin, G. M., & Cowen, P. J. (2009). Why do antidepressants take so long to work? A cognitive neuropsychological model of antidepressant drug action. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, *195*(2), 102-108.

Kedia, S & Sinha U.K. (2006). *Emotional Processing and Adjustment Patterns in Depression,* Unpublished M.Phil Dissertation, Delhi University.

Koster, E. H., De Raedt, R., Goeleven, E., Franck, E., & Crombez, G. (2005). Mood-congruent attentional bias in dysphoria: maintained attention to and impaired disengagement from negative information. *Emotion*, *5*(4), 446-55.

Siegel, G. J., Ingram, R. E., & Matt, G. E. (2002). Affective interference: An explanation for negative attention biases in dysphoria?. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *26*(1), 73-87.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDE AND QUALITY OF LIFE ABOUT DYSCALCULIA AMONG ADOLESCENTS WITH AND WITHOUT DYSCALCULIA

*Smitha M Reddy**

*Dr. K. Jayasankara Reddy***

Abstract

The current study was intended to understand the Knowledge, Attitude and Quality of Life, about Dyscalculia among adolescents with and without Dyscalculia. A piloted semi structured questionnaire and WHOQOL-BREF was used for the same. The research was conducted on 17 adolescents with and without Dyscalculia matched on various criteria.

The results indicated that lack of accurate knowledge about Dyscalculia and negative attitude of the same among adolescents without Dyscalculia can be an important factor in creating stigma or emotional disturbances. The present study revealed that adolescents with Dyscalculia were more aware about the Problem and symptoms than the adolescents without Dyscalculia.The results also depicted that QOL of adolescents with Dyscalculia was lower in all the domains than the adolescents without Dyscalculia

Keywords: Knowledge, Attitude, Quality of life, Dyscalculia, Adolescents

Learning disability is significant learning problems related to the academic area. Learning disorder is where the individual meets certain criteria which are determined by a professional. The difference between the two is in the form of degree, frequency, as well as intensity of the symptoms and both should not be confused (Coleman et. al., 2013).

The terminology "learning disability" is used, to describe a group of disorders in which there exists inadequate development in the following

---

  * Smitha M Reddy, Research Scholar, Bharthiar University, Research and development center, Coimbatore.

 ** Dr. K. Jayasankara Reddy, Professor of Psychology, Christ University, Bangalore.

areas of academic, language, and speech .There are a variety of learning disabilities which includes reading disability also called as Dyslexia, mathematical disability also called as Dyscalculia and writing disability which is also called as Dysgraphia. Dyscalculia is where the individual faces difficulty in comprehending numbers, and ways how to manipulate numbers, and learning variety of facts in mathematics(Ansari, 2010).

In dyscalculia the following problems are noted:

- Difficulty in reading clockshttp
- Difficulty identifying which of the two numbers is larger
- Inability to understand budgeting
- Difficulty faced with multiplication tables
- Problems with subtraction and addition
- Difficulty in comprehending time
- Difficulty in differentiating between left and right
- Inability to visualize numbers
- Difficulty with directions and navigation
- Difficulty identifying any form of measurements.
- Problem with grasping concepts or formulas

Dyslexia is defined differently by various segments of people which contribute to the misperceptions surrounding it and further compound the problems associated with undiagnosed dyslexia because of a lack of services and resources (Wadlington & Wadlington, 2005; Shaywitz,2003; Rubin, 2002; Vail, 2001; Currie & Wadlington, 2000; Thorton, 1999)

According to Good and Brophy, (1997) it has long been established that society attitudes and expectations can have lasting consequences; particularly in the case of a classroom teacher who holds a less than positive attitude towards students with a disability.

Research also suggests that when individuals have limited access to information, training or support, a sense of learned helplessness (Kerr, 2001) develops in learner. This conversely affects the level of support provided for dyslexics (Gordon, 2011).

For students, differing perceptions may be experienced with dyslexia, due to the wide spectrum of the condition. According to Rowan (2010), some may believe it is integral to their identity, burgeoning their creativity and building strength and resilience.

When dyslexia is discussed as a learning disability or disease, blame is attributed to the individual and manifests itself negatively (Kerr, 2001, p. 83).The majority of individuals may not struggle with identifying indicators of dyslexia, although what is required beyond this detection appears to be where the problem begins. Simply having an established diagnosis does not necessarily provide a direct solution for support (literacyonline.tki.org.nz). Still pressing, are the adverse consequences if dyslexia is not addressed correctly (Shaywitz, 2003).

Aims and Objectives
1. To identify the knowledge about Dyscalculia among adolescents with Dyscalculia
2. To identify the knowledge about Dyscalculia among adolescents without Dyscalculia
3. To compare the knowledge about Dyscalculia among adolescents with Dyscalculia compared with adolescents without Dyscalculia.
4. To identify the attitude about Dyscalculia among adolescents with Dyscalculia
5. To identify the attitude about Dyscalculia among adolescents without Dyscalculia
6. To compare the attitude about Dyscalculia among adolescents with Dyscalculia compared with adolescents without Dyscalculia.
7. To identify the quality of life among adolescents with Dyscalculia
8. To identify the quality of life among adolescents without Dyscalculia
9. To compare the quality of life in adolescents with Dyscalculia compared adolescents without Dyscalculia

Research Design
A cross-sectional study was conducted in Bangalore from 2 special schools called Brindavan Special School and Asha Academy. The adolescents chosen were diagnosed with LD- Dyscalculia by the government and they visited the centers for special assistance for dealing with simple Mathematics and other subjects.

Sample
29 adolescents with Dyscalculia were part of the study initially. The study was conducted on adolescents matched for age. The students of Dyslexia were chosen with the help of a certificate they obtain from the government or a hospital.

Personality36-16-5

Adolescents with Dyscalculia were selected with the help of purposive convenience sampling and consent for the study was obtained. Adolescents with psychiatric problems were excluded from the study with the help of GHQ. Consent for the study was obtained from children, schools and parents. Adolescents with any form of psychiatric issues were excluded from the study with the help of GHQ. Thus, 17 cases were selected for the study. These Dyslexic children were compared with 17adolescents without Dyslexia.

Measures used

- Demographic sheet containing information about the subject
- Consent form
- A pre-designed semi structured qualitative questionnaire was used to evaluate knowledge and attitude in adolescents of Dyscalculia. A pilot study was undertaken and necessary changes were made to the semi structured questionnaire. Questions related to the same can be seen in the analysis table below. The knowledge of Dyslexia covered information on the following areas: Knowledge about Dyscalculia, Knowledge about symptoms of Dyscalculia and Knowledge about causes of Dyscalculia. The attitude towards Dyscalculia covered topics related to adolescents with Dyscalculia attending a separate school, taking a separate test for a job, if teachers have to be different towards them, if they are less ambitions and are low achievers.
- WHOQOL-BREF was used to understand the quality of life of adolescents with and without Dyscalculia. WHOQOL-BREF items are divided into four domains: physical, psychological, social relationships and environmental. Each item uses a 5-point response scale, with higher scores indicating a better QOL in the respective area.

Data analysis

- Knowledge of Dyscalculia was identified with the help of percentage of adolescents saying "yes or no" in both the groups i.e. Adolescents with and without Dyscalculia
- Attitude towards Dyscalculia was identified with the help of percentage of adolescents saying "yes or no" in both the groups i.e. Adolescents with and without Dyscalculia
- WHOQOL-BREF total scores on physical, psychological, social

relationships and environmental domains subscales were compared between adolescents with Dyscalculia and without Dyscalculia.

RESULTS

Age of the adolescents

The Demographic profile of the adolescents with and without Dyscalculia is shown in Table 1. It is seen that age of both the adolescents with Dyscalculia and without Dyscalculia are comparable.

Table 1

Depicts Demographic profile of study subjects

Age of the adolescents	With Dyscalculia (N=17)	Without Dyscalculia (N=17)
Age In Years	Numbers	Numbers
14-15	3	3
15-16	6	6
16-17	4	4
17-18	4	4

Knowledge of Dyscalculia

Table 2 compares the knowledge regarding Dyscalculia among adolescents with and without Dyscalculia. It is seen that 41.17% of adolescents with Dyscalculia were aware that Dyscalculia is different from math's anxiety compared to 11.76% adolescents without Dyscalculia. 94.22% of adolescents with Dyscalculia were aware of the symptoms of Dyscalculia compared to47.6% of adolescents without Dyscalculia. It was, however, seen that the causes of Dyscalculia was poorly known in both the groups. 82.35% of adolescents with Dyscalculia and 88.23% of adolescents without Dyscalculia did not know causes of Dyscalculia. Here we have a clear understanding that knowledge of Dyscalculia is higher among adolescents who suffer from it.

Personality36-16-5

Table 2
Knowledge about Dyscalculia among Dyscalculia adolescents and control group.

KNOWLEDGE ABOUT DYSCALCULIA	With Dyscalculia N (%)	Without Dyscalculia N (%)
Knowledge about Dyscalculia		
Specific learning disability	4 (23.52)	0 (0)
Impairment of particular parts of the brain involved in mathematical	1 (5.88)	1 (5.88)
cognition	3 (17.64)	0 (0)
1 in every 20 individuals suffer with		
Dyscalculia	7 (41.17)	2 (11.76)
Different from Math's anxiety	2 (11.76)	14 (82.35)
Don't know	17 (100)	17 (100)
Total		
Knowledge about symptoms of		
Dyscalculia	7 (41.17)	2 (11.76)
Delay in counting	7 (41.17)	2 (11.76)
Difficulties in memorizing arithmetic	1 (5.88)	0 (0)
facts	2 (11.76)	4 (23.52)
Difficulty understanding place value	1 (5.88)	9 (52.94)
Lack of number sense	17 (100)	17 (100)
Don't know		
Total		
Knowledge about causes of		
Dyscalculia	1 (5.88)	0 (0)
Turners' syndrome	2 (11.76)	1 (5.88)
Fetal alcohol syndrome	0 (0)	1 (5.88)
Low birth weight	0 (0)	0 (0)
Fragile X syndrome	14 (82.35)	15 (88.23)
Don't know	17 (100)	17 (100)
Total		

Attitude towards Dyscalculia adolescents

Table 3 shows the attitude among adolescents with and without Dyscalculia about Dyscalculia. 58.82 % Adolescents believed that adolescents suffering with Dyscalculia should go to a separate school. A

little more than half the individuals not suffering from Dyscalculia were of the belief that they should not spend time with adolescents with Dyscalculia whereas, the other half believed that they would like to spend time with them.88.23% and 82.35 % of the same set of adolescents were of the opinion that individuals adolescents suffering with Dyscalculia should undergo a separate test to join any job and that teacher's attitude should be different towards students with Dyscalculia respectively . It was also strange to see that 88.23% of adolescents with Dyscalculia think that individuals with Dyscalculia are less ambitious when compared to 70.58% of adolescents without Dyscalculia. This could be possible because of the low self-esteem these individuals hold. 82.35% adolescents without Dyscalculia believe that adolescents with Dyscalculia are low achievers when compared to 5.88% adolescents with Dyscalculia.

Table 3
Depicts the attitude toward Dyscalculia

Attitude	With Dyscalculia N (%)	Without Dyscalculia N (%)
Do you think students suffering with Dyscalculia should go to a separate school		
Yes	2 (11.76)	10 (58.82)
No	15 (88.23)	7 (41.17)
Would you spend time with adolescents who suffer with Dyscalculia	8 (47.05)	
Yes	17 (100)	
No	0 (0)	9 (52.94)
Do you think individuals suffering with Dyscalculia should undergo a separate test to join any job		
Yes	5 (29.41)	15 (88.23)
No	12 (70.58)	2 (11.76)
Do you think teachers attitude should be different towards students with Dyscalculia		
Yes	1 (5.88)	14 (82.35)
No	16 (94.1)	3 (17.64)
Do you think individuals with Dyscalculia are less ambitious		
Yes	2 (11.76)	12 (70.58)
No	15 (88.23)	5 (29.41)
Do you think individuals with Dyscalculia are low achievers		
Yes	1 (5.88)	14 (82.35)
No	16 (94.1)	3 (17.64)

Personality36-16-5

WHOQOL-BREF of adolescents with and without Dyscalculia

To compare total WHOQOL-BREF scores between two groups. The mean QOL scores for cases and with and without Dyscalculia in each domain are indicated in Table 4.

In all domains the mean scores for adolescents with Dyscalculia were significantly lower than those for adolescents without Dyscalculia. Variations in SD can also be seen.

Table 4

Mean quality of life scores by domain

Quality of life assessed by domains	Dyscalculia adolescents N=17		Without Dyscalculia adolescents N=17	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Physical	24.23	2.16	26.35	3.56
Psychological	15.3	3.7	25.89	3.17
Social Relationships	10.96	2.70	17.41	1.86
Environmental	13.76	1.78	15.46	2.39

Discussion and Conclusion

The present study revealed that the lack of accurate knowledge about Dyscalculia among adolescents without Dyscalculia can be an important factor in creating stigma. It also shows that adolescents with Dyscalculia were more aware about the Problem and symptoms than the control group but, were unaware about the causes of their problem similarly to the other group.

QOL of adolescents with Dyscalculia was lower in all the domains than adolescents without Dyscalculia. A significant difference was found in the Psychological domains. Moreover, students and teachers expressed strongly positive attitudes toward the construct of dyslexia, with the majority expressing confidence in their ability to support dyslexic pupil. The findings are thus consistent with the findings of other studies (Coccossis, *2012*).

It is seen that there is negative attitude toward Dyscalculia individuals in the society among adolescents without dyscalculia

Clinical Implications

1. Awareness to society can be created about the problem of Dyscalculia.

2. Negative attitude related to Dyscalculia can be eliminated by providing the community with proper resources and information about Dyscalculia and about adolescents suffering for it.

3. Specific attention should be paid to adolescents suffering with Dyscalculia as negative attitude by society can increases cases of self-injury, inappropriate behavior or Psychological problems especially among the adolescent population.

References

Ansari D. (2010). Neurocognitive approaches to developmental disorders of numerical and mathematical cognition: the perils of neglecting development. *Learning and Individual Differences.* 20, 123–129 10.1016/j.lindif.2009.06.001

Ryan, M (2004,pp: 1,2,3,4,5), *Social and Emotional Problems Related to Dyslexia,* Just The Facts…, Information provided by The International Dyslexia Association, Baltimore. Available from www.interdys.org (Accessed on June 25th2007).

Coleman, M. R., (2013). *Recognition and response: An earlyintervening system for young children at-risk for learning disabilities.* Full report, ChapelHill: The University of North Carolina, Frank Porter Graham Child Development Institute, 563-5995.

Currie, P., & Wadlington, E. (2000). *The source for learning disabilities*. East Moline, IL: Linguisystems.

Good, V., Borphy. (2010). *Impact of two interventions on ISAT scores in small, rural schools.* Olivet Nazarene University Doctoral Dissertation. Retrieved July 14, 2011, from http://digitalcommons.olivet.edu/cgi.

Gordon O. Ade Ojo.(2011). Practitioners' perception of the impact of the vision of policy makers on practice: the example of the recommendations of the Moser Commission. *Research Papers in Education*. Pp. 53-77

Kerr, H. (2001). *Dyslexia in ABE: Beliefs and consequences.* Masters Thesis, University of Sheffield.

Coccossis,M.G., Vasiliki, R. (2012). Quality of life in newly diagnosed children with specific learning disabilities (SpLD) and differences from typically developing children: a study of child and parent reports: Quality of life of children with SpLD, *Child Care Health and Development* (Child Care Health Dev), 39(4)

Rowan, A. C. (2010). Virtual child: the terrifying truth about what technology is doing to children. *Create Space Independent Publishing Platform*. Pp. 226-228

Rubin, D. (2002). *Diagnosis and correction in reading instruction.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Shaywitz, S. (2003). *Overcoming dyslexia.* First Vintage Books Edition, New York

Vail, J. (2001). Public Perceptions. *Perspectives*, 27(1)3-4.

Thorton, K. (1999). Help for dyslexia comes too late. *The London Times Educational Supplement,* 25-27.

Wadlington, E., & Wadlington, P. (2005). What educators really believe about dyslexia. *Reading Improvement,* 42(1)16-33.

World Health Organization (1992). *ICD-10 classification of mental and behavioral disorders: Clinical description and diagnostic guidelines.* Geneva: World Health Organization.

WHOQOL-BREF *instrumentation, administration, scoring and generic version of the assessment.* Geneva: World Health Organization; 1996. World Health organization.

OPENNESS TO CHANGE & CONSERVATION AS PREDICTORS OF LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG MARRIED FEMALE GAZETTED OFFICERS

Shruti Jha, Prof (Dr.) Abha Singh and Dr. Anuradha Sharma

Amity Institute of Psychology and Allied Sciences, Amity University, Noida, Uttar Pradesh

Abstract

Value hoists, enhances and amplifies the human soul for positive societal improvement. The extreme disintegration and erosion of moral values prompts individual ineffectiveness, dissatisfaction and disappointment further leaving a negative effect on the society at large. The objective of the present research is to study the relationship between Openness to Change (self-direction and stimulation) and Conservation (tradition, conformity and security) as predictors of Life Satisfaction among Married Female Gazetted Officers. The sample consists of 220 married female gazetted officers from a Government training institute in New Delhi. The psychological tools used are The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; 1985) and Short Schwartz's Value Survey (SSVS; 2005). Spearman Rank Order Correlation method was used as part of the statistical analysis. The results indicated that a positive correlation exists between the dimension of openness to change and life satisfaction. On the other hand, a negative correlation is seen between the dimension of conservation and life satisfaction. Thus, openness to change and conservation are conflicting to each other in terms of life satisfaction.

From time immemorial women have been working; working all over the places, be it at home, in fields, in production lines or numerous different working environments. However, women as a distinct section of workers emerged and got acknowledgment only with the developing of the

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to:

Shruti Jha, shruti23jha@gmail.com, +91 9654437721

Personality36-16-6

industrial production (Verma, 1996). After the industrial revolution, the social circumstances changed all through the world including India. Due to industrialization and urbanization new social standards, norms and values emerged. Job opportunities, monetary hardships, favorable cultural and social situations encouraged women to look for employment outside the home.

This change upgraded the status of women and the nation's prosperity but it also gave rise to numerous problems, difficulties by way of exploitation, discrimination and dismal working conditions. Women had to perform dual obligations respectively termed as "reproductive" and productive by social scientists (Rai, 2002). The major problems for working wives emerged out of their dual responsibilities - house work and the job work.

The adjustment between these role obligations and commitments is not an easy task. It not only requires ability and goodwill but also physical endurance and psychological acceptance (Joshi, 1999)

In addition to the above portrayed burden of the women, the dual roles additionally demands two distinct sets of values. Difficulties and challenges emerges on the grounds that these two roles make a simultaneous and synchronous demand on the individual whose physical capacity, vitality, endurance and time have definite limits. Often the fulfillment of these two roles require qualities of different and diverse kinds - one requiring cooperation and self negation and the other requiring competitions and self enhancement. Women's work places require qualities such as efficiency, courage, determination, intelligence, sense of reality, responsibility and independence.

The ethos, culture and heritage of this country require a woman, who is also a wife to be sweet and soft, sensitive and adaptable, gentle, unassertive, good humored and domesticated. Hence the conflict arises as the maladjustment between two competing roles which is prone to be confronted by those persons who have to comply with dual obligation at one time (Rai, 2002).

Torn between these two incompatible and incongruent roles, women suffer, silently. They encounter psychological problems emerging from inner conflict and a feeling of guilt, anxiety or tension brought about by the double responsibility and concern. They gradually may become dissatisfied

Personality36-16-6

with their lives. This may lead to a comprise in their value systems, which functions as standard guiding thoughts and actions of an individual.

Life satisfaction is described as an evaluation of feelings and attitudes about one's life at a particular point in time as indicated by the individual's chosen criteria (Valentina, 2011). It can create disastrous and catastrophic consequences for both, the individual as an employee or the individual as a family member. It is further characterized as an individual's global appraisal of his or her life in positive terms (Diener, et.al.,1985).

Values on the other hand, have been a vital concept in social sciences since their initiation. Values are crucial for explaining, clarifying and illuminating social and personal organization and change (Durkheim, 1954; Weber, 1958).

"What makes people happy?" is one of the most examined question in positive psychology. Hence the main aim of the present research is to find the total life satisfaction score and the value systems of married female gazetted officers working in the Government of India.

The present study involves the use of five values, namely self direction, stimulation, tradition, conformity and security. These values are placed on the contrasting dimension of *'openness to change'* and *'conservation'* (Schwartz, 2012). This dimension captures the conflict between values that emphasize independence of thought, action, and feelings and readiness for change (self-direction and stimulation) and values that emphasize order, self restriction, preservation of the past, and resistance to change (tradition, conformity and security).

Self direction refers to the independent thought and action, which implies choosing, creating and exploring. Stimulation includes the excitement, novelty, and challenges that an individual encounters in his life. Tradition refers to the respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that culture or religion provides for the self. Conformity includes the restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms. Security refers to the safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self (Schwartz, 2012).

Personality36-16-6

METHODOLOGY

The sample for the present study consisted of 220 married female gazetted officers in the age range from 45 to 58 years, belonging to middle class socio economic strata. The sample has been collected from a government training institute in New Delhi. The approximate work experience for each sample ranges from 30 to 35 years.

The sampling technique used was purposive sampling. The dependent variable was life satisfaction and the independent variables were openness to change and conservation.

Measures used

Two standardized tools were used for the study, namely (1) The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; 1985) by Ed Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin.

The Satisfaction With Life Scale is a five-item scale that asks the subjects for an overall judgement of their life in order to measure the concept of life satisfaction. Individuals indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 7-point likert-type scale. Scores range from 5 to 35 with higher scores indicating greater life satisfaction.

(2) Short Schwartz's Value Survey (SSVS; 2005) by Marjaana Lindeman and Markku Verkasalo.

The Short Schwartz's Value Survey (SSVS) contains 10 items and estimates people's opinions on 10 values namely, Stimulation, Self-Direction, Hedonism, Tradition, Conformity, Security, Power, Achievement, Universalism, and Benevolence. The present study includes only five values, namely self direction, stimulation, tradition, conformity and security. These values have been categorized into two dimensions, namely openness to change (self direction and stimulation) versus conservation (tradition, conformity and security). The values were ranked in accordance to their importance as a life-guiding principle from 1 (opposed to principles) to 10 (supreme importance).

Personality36-16-6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1

Showing the Mean, Standard Deviation and Standard error of means of the Total Life Satisfaction, Age, No of Married Years and the Years of Working Experience of the Married Female Gazetted Officers

S. No	N	Variables	Min. Value	Max. Value	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
1		Total Life Satisfaction	10	30	22.45	6.491	0.438
2		Age	45	58	53.85	2.600	0.175
	220						
3		No. of years Married	23	32	28.45	2.296	0.155
4		Years of working experience	30	35	31.65	1.462	0.099

Table 2

Showing the Frequency Percentage and Cumulative Percentage of the Life Satisfaction Scores of the Married Female Gazetted Officers

S. No	Life Satisfaction Label	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
1	Satisfied	99	45.0	45.0
2	Slightly Satisfied	55	25.0	70.0
3	Neutral	11	5.0	75.0
4	Slightly Dissatisfied	11	5.0	80.0
5	Dissatisfied	44	20.0	100.0
6	Total	220	100.0	

Table 3

Showing the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficients of Openness to Change and Conservation with Total Life Satisfaction of the Married Female Gazetted Officers

S.No	N	Variables	Correlation Coefficients
1		Openness to	0.414 **
	220	Change	
2		Conservation	- 0.364 **

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A positive Spearman rank order correlation coefficient of 0.414 is observed between the dimension of openness to change (self direction and stimulation) and total life satisfaction score at 0.01 level of significance. Hence, greater the life satisfaction, greater will be the values of self direction and stimulation in an officer.

The defining goal of self direction value is autonomous thoughts and activities, which suggests choosing, creating and exploring. Self-direction derives itself from the organismic needs for control, mastery and dominance (Bandura, 1977; Deci, 1975) and interactional prerequisites of autonomy and independence (Kluckhohn, 1951; Kohn & Schooler, 1983). They express the motivational objectives of creativity, freedom, choosing own goals, curiosity, independence and autonomy.

The characterizing goal of stimulation value is excitement, novelty, and challenges in life. Stimulation values derives itself from the organismic need for variety and stimulation in order to maintain an optimal, ideal and positive, rather than threatening level of activation (Berlyne, 1960). This need probably relates to the needs underlying basic self direction values (Deci, 1975). A varied life, an energizing and daring life constitutes their motivational goals.

A negative Spearman rank order correlation coefficient of -0.364 is observed between the dimension of conservation (tradition, conformity and security) and total life satisfaction score at 0.01 level of significance. Hence, greater the life satisfaction, lower are the values of tradition, conformity and security in an officer.

The defining goal of tradition value is respect, commitment, and acknowledgment of the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion

Personality36-16-6

provides. Groups all over the world create practices, images, symbols, ideas, thoughts, and beliefs that represent their common experience. These become sanctioned and authorized as valued/ esteemed group customs and traditions. They symbolize the group's solidarity, express its unique and exceptional worth, and contribute to its survival (Durkheim, 1954; Parsons, 1951). They often take the form of religious ceremonies, convictions, and standards of conduct or behaviour. They express the motivational goals of respect for tradition and humbleness.

The characterizing objective of conformity value is restriction of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm/damage others and violate the social expectations, norms or standards. Conformity values derives itself from the prerequisite that individuals repress inclinations that may disrupt and undermine smooth communications and group functioning. These values emphasize self-restraint in regular everyday interaction, usually with close others. They express the motivational aims of dutifulness, obedience, self discipline, politeness and honouring elders.

The defining goal of security value is safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self. Security values derives itself from the basic essential individual and group prerequisites (Kluckhohn, 1951; Maslow, 1965). Some security values serve primarily and fundamentally individual interests (e.g., cleanliness), others deal with a more extensive and wider group interests (e.g., national security). Even the latter, however, expresses, to a significant degree, the objective of security for self or those with whom one identifies. They express the motivational objectives of social order, family security, national security and reciprocation of favours.

Tradition and conformity values are especially close motivationally; they share the aim of subordinating the self to socially imposed expectations and desires. They vary primarily in the objects to which one subordinates the self. Conformity entails subordination to individuals with whom one frequently interacts and communicates like parents, teachers, and bosses. On the other hand, tradition involves subordination to more abstract objects like religious and cultural customs/ideas. As a result, conformity values exhort responsiveness to current, possibly changing expectations and tradition values demand responsiveness to immutable expectations from the past.

Conclusion

The results indicated that a positive relationship exists between the dimension of openness to change and life satisfaction. On the other hand, a negative correlation is seen between the dimension of conservation and

Personality36-16-6

life satisfaction. Thus, openness to change and conservation conflicts each other in terms of life satisfaction. The results reflect that officer's value self direction and stimulation more as compared to tradition, conformity and security.

References

Bandura, A. (1977). Self efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84,* 191-215.

Berlyne, D. E. (1960). *Conflict, arousal and curiosity*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Deci, E. L. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation.* New York: Plenum.

Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction With Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*. 49 (1), 71-75.

Durkheim, E. (1954). *The elementary forms of religious life*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Joshi, M.V. (1999). *Women Rural Labourers*, Problems and Prospects.

Kluckhohn, C. (1951). Values and value-orientations in the theory of action: An exploration in definition and classification. In T. Parsons & E. Shils (Eds.), *Toward a general theory of action,* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 388-433.

Kohn, M. L., & Schooler, C. (1983). *Work and personality.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Lindeman, M. & Verkasalo, M. (2005). Measuring Values With the Short Schwartz's Value Survey, *The Journal of Personality Assessment*, 85:2, 170-178.

Maslow, A. H. (1965). *Eupsychian Management*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey. Parsons, T. (1951). *The social system*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Rai, C.P. (2002). *Working Women in India,* 2(1), 459 - 462.

Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An Overview of the Schwartz Theory of Basic Values. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2*(1), 3 - 19.

Valentina, K.V. (2011). A Longitudinal Analysis of the Relationship between Life Satisfaction and Employee Volunteerism, *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 10, 54-64.

Verma, A.P. (1996). *Women labour in India - A Comprehensive Manual,* Noida, V.V. Giri National Labour Institute, 1- 4.

Weber, M. (1958). *The Protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism.* New York: Scribner's.

PERSONALITY PATTERN AND FEELING OF HAPPINESS AMONG TRIBAL POST GRADUATE STUDENTS OF TRIPURA

Anjana Bhattacharjee* Sukriti Banda**
Chandra Mallik** *

Abstract

The objective of the present study was to ascertain personality pattern and feeling of happiness among tribal post graduate students of Tripura. The study also attempted to find out differences between tribal and non tribal students with respect to both the mental health variables. Finally, the study intended to find out the relationship between personality pattern and happiness of the study subjects. For the said purpose the present study was carried out among 100 tribal and 100 non-tribal post graduate students of various departments of Tripura University. NEO Five-Factor Inventory by Costa and Mc Crae(1992) and Oxford Happiness Questionnaire by Hills and Argyle(2002) were used for data collection. Three hypotheses were formulated and they were verified by applying suitable statistical tests. Findings revealed that tribal post graduate students are happier, less neurotic and less open to experience than non-tribal post graduate students.

Key Words: *Personality, Happiness, Student*

Happiness is the fundamental human goal and universal aspiration. Happiness is a state of mind. The feeling of satisfaction and pleasure in various life aspects is called happiness (Yang, 2008). Happiness can be defined in terms of a mental state of satisfaction and contentment, positive feelings/emotions, a harmonious homeostasis, achievement and hope and freedom from ill-being (Lu et al., 2001). There are three components of

    * Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Tripura University

  ** Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, Tripura University

 *** PG Student, Department of Psychology, Tripura University.

Address for Correspondence: Dr. Anjana Bhattacharjee

Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Tripura University, Suryamaninagar, Tripura: 799022 Phone: 09436797347

Email: anjanabhatta2008@yahoo.com.

Personality36-16-7

happiness: pleasure, engagement and meaning. Out of these three factors pleasure is the least consequential and engagement whereas meaning is much more important (Davis, 2004). The sense of transcendence and self-actualization is a main component for experiencing happiness (Pawar, 2008) and psychological well-being (Park et al., 2010). Research findings showed that happiness can improve mental and physical health (Meyers, 2000, and Peterson, 2000). Overall, happy people respond to events and conditions more positively and friendly, their stress level is less and their immunity system is stronger than unhappy ones (Lyubomirsky et al, 2005). Diener et al. (1991) found that happy people often experience positive mental feelings and moods. Happiness affects our quality of life directly. As researches show, happy people are more successful in many aspects of life such as familial life, relations to friends, income, health, and job performance. The reason is not only that success guarantees happiness but also because happiness has a casual relationship with success (Fisher, 2009). Factors that affect happiness of a person range from internal sources to external sources, right from genetic influences to social situation. Boehm & Lyubomirsky indicated that happiness is created genetically (50%), environmentally (10%) and by enhancing personal skills and activities (40%). One can promote personal skills and activities by practicing gratitude sense, kindness, and forgiveness, nurturing social relationships, spirituality, meditation and physical exercise (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). Other factors such as age, gender, marital status, religion, educational level and income are also found to have a strong association with happiness. (Peir´o, 2006. Easterlin, 2006. Lelkes, 2006 Mookerjee & Beron, 2005. Dehejia et al, 2007). At the same time factors like hope, optimism may also affect level of happiness of a person (Seligman, 2002). Ghamari (2012) conducted a study to find out the relationship of social capital and happiness among high school students and found significant relationship between social capital and happiness and positive relationship between social participation, social trust, neighbourhood relations, family and friend's relations, self-believe, attitudes towards others, giving to strangers, social control, lack of deprivation and happiness. Tiwari (2011) conducted a study to examine the relationship between happiness of people and environmental degradation. For the research purpose he used log-linear method for the panel of 21 countries for the period 1970-2005, and also analyzed sensitivity of the results. The result revealed that environmental degradation matters for the happiness of the people, and as environment degradation increases, their happiness decreases.

Personality36-16-7

Personality plays an important role in happiness occurrence. Personality refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. According to Allport (1962), 'personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to the environment'. Personality also refers to the pattern of thoughts, feelings, social adjustments, and behaviours consistently exhibited over time that strongly influences one's expectations, self-perceptions, values, and attitudes. It also predicts human reactions to other people, problems, and stress. The personality of an individual is determined by his/her genetic factors as well as his/her environment (Schaffer, 2005). Feist & Feist (2002) defined personality as a relatively stable trait, tendencies or features that perpetuate individual's behavior to some extent~`` or more specialized, personality is made up of traits and tendencies which led to individual differences in behavior, behavior stability over time and behavior continuity in various situations.

Personality is introduced as one of the strongest happiness predictors. Paramount studies have tried to find that how personality impacts on happiness. Many researches (Cheng and Furham, 2003` Berbner, 2001` Lyubomirsky et al., 2005) showed that extraversion and neuroticism are two personality traits which can create a significant variance on happiness. Evidences show that there is positive relationship between happiness and extraversion (Argyle & Lu, 1990` Furnham & Brewin, 1990` Brebner et al, 1995` Francis et al, 1998, Francis, 1999).

One of the important personality factors is extraversion. Extraverts' responses to positive stimuli are stronger than introverts'~ thus, when extraverts are in pleasure situations, they express more positive feelings. Extraverts choose special types of situations which are pleasurable for them and are adaptable to their personality. They spend most of their time in social activities (Larsen & Keterlaar, 1991). Researches show that extraversion correlates prosperity sense and happiness positively (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Extraverts control their social relations further and quicker and expand their positive feelings more than negative ones (Berbner, 2001).

Neuroticism has a strong negative relation with happiness (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Many researches revealed that neuroticism has a negative relation with happiness` extraversion and openness are related to happiness positively (Furnham & Petrides, 2003` Spangler & Palrecha, 2004). Warner and Vroman (2011) conducted a study to find out the

relationships between happiness-inducing strategies, perceived happiness, gender, and the Big Five personality traits. The result indicated that women reported significantly higher perceived happiness than men, and significantly higher use of some happiness-inducing strategies. Big Five personality traits also significantly predicted happiness-inducing strategies with conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness, and extraversion as positive predictors. The relationship between happiness-inducing behaviours and perceived happiness was not moderated by gender or by the Big Five traits.

Sharma et al. (2009) conducted a study to predict the happiness among tribal students of Himachal Pradesh. The study evaluated the role of family environment and, personality hardiness in the development of happiness disposition among tribal students of Himachal Pradesh. The present research indicates that tribal people are happier than normal because they are more controlled, self-contained and self-contended, have lesser desires which are the factors of personality hardiness. Results indicated that personality hardiness, cohesion, intellectual - cultural - orientation and achievement orientation are significant predictors of happiness in boys and explaining 39% of variance. In girls personality turned out to be the only significant predictor, explaining 45% variance in happiness.

Objectives

To study the personality pattern among tribal and non tribal post graduate students. To study the happiness among tribal and non tribal post graduate students.

To determine the difference between tribal and non tribal students and in regard to their happiness and personality.

To study the relationship between happiness and personality among tribal and nontribal post graduate students.

Hypotheses

There is no significant difference between tribal and non tribal post graduate students in regard to different dimensions of personality.

There is no significant difference between tribal and non tribal post graduate students in regard to their happiness.

There is no significant correlation between happiness and personality among the subjects.

Personality36-16-7

METHOD

Sample

A sample of 200 post graduate students was selected purposively from various departments of Tripura University for the present study. Out of which 100 were tribal students and 100 were non-tribal students. All of them belonged to the age group of 21-24 years. All the subjects were unmarried and they were from middle socioeconomic status. Any subjects having any history of mental health problems or any major physical health problem were excluded from the study.

Study Tools
Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ)

Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ) was developed by Hills and Argyle (2002). It is a six point Likert type scale to measure happiness. The questionnaire has 29 items. There are six options beside each question ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Out of 29 statements 12 are of reverse nature. For ascertaining the happiness score of the subject all the responses in the respective 29 items (including the reverse items) have to be added and then need to be multiply by 29. Here high score indicates greater happiness. The reliability coefficient of this questionnaire is .91 and the validity index ranges between 0.61-0.85.

NEO-Five Factor Personality Inventory (NEO-FFI)

NEO-Five Factor Personality Inventory developed by Costa and McCrae (1992) is a 60-item self-report instrument. It measures the five major domains or dimensions of personality. The five domains are Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C). Each domain has 12 items. The NEO FFI includes self-descriptive statements where the subject has to respond in a five point Likert scale ranging from completely disagree (1) to fully agree (5). Scores for each domain are calculated by summing the 12 item responses. The alphas across the five domains are 0.74 for neuroticism, 0.61 for extraversion, 0.50 for openness, 0.62 for Agreeableness, and 0.77 for Conscientiousness.

Procedure

At first the two questionnaires of happiness and personality were arranged. After that 100 tribal post graduate students and 100 non-tribal post graduate students was selected to collect data from them. First of all proper rapport established with the subjects. After that the NEO Five Factor Inventory and Oxford Happiness Questionnaire were

Personality36-16-7

administered to the subjects, where the subjects were instructed to select one out of some options according to his/her feelings. In this way, data were collected from 100 tribal and 100 non-tribal post graduate students. Lastly the analysis of the scores were done with the help of the scoring key and manual of the respective scales and necessary calculations were done to measure their levels of happiness and personality dimensions.

Results and Interpretation

Personality is a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his/her environment, cognitions, emotions, motivations and behavioural science in various situations. So far as personality pattern of tribal and non tribal students are concerned the findings of the present study are depicted below in tabular form:

Table 1

Comparison of Sub-Scales of Personality Dispositions of Tribal and Non-tribal Post Graduate Students

Personality Dimensions	Sample Group	Mean	S.D.	't' Value	Level of Significance
Neuroticism	Tribal Students (N=100) Non-tribal Students (N=100)	22.35 25.48	5.35 4.92	4.29	P<0.01
Extraversion	Tribal Students (N=100) Non-tribal Students (N=100)	26.32 27.26	5.49 5.18	1.25	P>0.05
Openness to experience	Tribal Students (N=100) Non-tribal Students (N=100)	24.59 26.11	4.41 5.35	2.20	P<0.05
Agreeableness	Tribal Students (N=100) Non-tribal Students (N=100)	25.35 26.34	5.49 5.99	1.22	P> 0.05
Conscientiousness	Tribal Students (N=100) Non-tribal Students (N=100)	26.36 26.44	5.12 5.17	0.11	P>0.05

Personality36-16-7

Table 1 showed the personality pattern of tribal and non tribal students. In the dimension of Neuroticism (N), the findings revealed that the mean value of Neuroticism among tribal and non tribal students were 22.35 and 25.48 respectively. The calculated SD values were 5.35 and 4.92 respectively. The t value was 4.29 which is significant at 0.01 level of significance. This indicated that tribal students are less neurotic than their non tribal counterparts. So far as Extraversion (E) is concerned, the mean value of the tribal post graduate students was found to be 26.32, which was found to be lower than the mean value of the non-tribal students (27.26). The respective SD values of tribal and non tribal students were 5.49 and 5.18 respectively. The t-value was found to be 1.25. Therefore, the result revealed that the tribal students do not differ significantly from non-tribal counterparts with respect to Extraversion. However the results showed significant difference between tribal and nontribal students with respect to the third dimension of personality, ie., Openness to experience (O). From the mean value it can be said that tribal students scored low (24.59) than the non tribal students (26.11) in regard to this domain of personality. This further showed that non tribal students are more creative. Interestingly in the dimension of Agreeableness (A) and Conscientiousness (C), the calculated t values did not reveal any significant differences among tribal and non tribal post graduate students. Although there are differences in the mean values which further interpret that non tribal students are more agreeable and conscientious than the students belong to tribal communities.

Table 2
Showing the Mean, SD and t-value of Happiness Scores of Tribal and Non- tribal Post Graduate Students

Variable	Community	Mean	SD	't' Value	Level of Significance
Happiness	Tribal Students (N=100)	4.69	1.24	3.7	Significant at 0.01 level
	Non-tribal Students (N=100)	3.95	1.51		

Table 2 showed that the mean value of happiness score of the tribal post graduate students was 4.69, which was found to be higher than the mean value of happiness score of the non- tribal post graduate students

(3.95). The respective SD values of happiness scores of tribal and non tribal students were 1.24 and 1.51 respectively. The t-value was found to be 3.7. Thus the result revealed that the tribal students differ significantly than their non-tribal counterparts with respect to feeling of happiness. Hence the second hypothesis, ie., 'there is no significant difference between tribal and non tribal post graduate students in regard to their happiness' has been rejected.

Table 3

Showing the Coefficient of Correlation between Happiness and Personality Dimensions among Tribal and non-tribal Post Graduate Students

Name of the variables	Coefficient of Correlation	Level of Significant
Neuroticism & Happiness	-0.166	Significant at 0.05 level
Extraversion & Happiness	-0.077	Insignificant
Openness to Experience & Happiness	-0.091	Insignificant
Agreeableness & Happiness	-0.033	Insignificant
Conscientiousness & Happiness	-0.085	Insignificant

Table 3 showed the coefficient of correlation between happiness and the different dimension of personality. The results revealed that only neuroticism seems to be significantly correlated with happiness (the coefficient of correlation -0.166). On the other hand the other personality domains like extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness are not significantly correlated with happiness of the study subjects.

DISCUSSION

In the present study the personality traits and its association with happiness among postgraduate students was determined. For the said purpose, Oxford Happiness Questionnaire and NEO Five Factor Inventory was used. The five factor model measures five personality factors: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness and agreeableness. Neuroticism is associated with low emotional intelligence which involves emotional regulation, motivation and interpersonal skills. It is also a risk

Personality36-16-7

factor for 'internalizing' mental disorders such as phobia, depression, panic disorder and other anxiety disorders traditionally called neuroses (Hettema, 2006). People with neuroticism tend to become more upset over daily stressors than those low on this dimension (Lahey, 2009). On the other hand extraversion is a general attitude or group of traits characterized by dominant interest in the external world and social life and correspondingly diminished concern for fantasies, reflections and introspection. On the other extreme of it is introversion. Openness to experience refers to individuals' differences in intelligence, interests and creativity (Kim et al., 2007). It encompasses the desire for curiosity, imagination, aesthetics, wisdom and humanism (Mc. Crae and Costa, 1992~ Mc. Crae & John, 1992). Agreeableness refers to warmness, friendly behaviour, kindness, confidence, obedience and sacrifice. Agreeable people tend to avoid interpersonal conflict. On the other hand, individuals with low agreeableness are likely to be competitive, critical, suspicious and impatient. Conscientiousness points out trustworthiness as well as wilfulness. It encompasses the desire for organisation, discipline, autonomy, efficiency, reliability, progressiveness and reflections (Mc. Crae & John, 1992~ Watson & Clark, 1997). Conscientious people tend to be disciplined, well organised, punctual and dependable.

The findings of the present study revealed that tribal and the non-tribal post graduate students differ significantly in the two dimensions of personality namely neuroticism and openness to experience. In case of the rest three personality dimensions namely Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness they did not differed significantly. The results also showed that tribal students scored lower in all the domain of personality. Therefore on the basis of mean values, it can be inferred that non-tribal students are more neurotic, experience more emotional instability and moodiness, more irritable and more anxious than their tribal counterparts. They are more sociable, imaginative and have broad range of interests also. On the contrary tribal students are less stressful and hence are happy than the non-tribal students. The study of Sharma et.al. (2009) revealed that tribal people are happier than normal because they are more controlled, self-contained and self-contended and they have lesser desires which are the factors of personality hardiness. The present study corroborates with the findings of Sharma et al (2009). In the view of previous literature it is evident that neuroticism has a strong negative relation with happiness (Costa &Mc Crae, 1980). This study too supports the present study i.e, neurotic persons are less happy. Another research reveals that extraversion,

Personality36-16-7

agreeableness and openness to experience are related to happiness positively (Fumham & Petrides, 2003). However, in the present study significant relationship between happiness and personality was not found in the various dimension of personality. Interestingly, happiness was found to be significantly negatively correlated with neuroticism.

Conclusion

So in conclusion it can be inferred that the tribal post graduate students were happier and less neurotic as well as less open to experience than the non-tribal post graduate students of Tripura University. However in the domain of Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness the subjects did not differ significantly in regard to their community differences. Again significant correlation had been found only between happiness and neuroticism. In case of other personality domain and happiness, no significant correlation was found.

References

Allport, G. (1962). The general and the unique in psychological science. *Journal of Personality*, 30, 405-422.

Argyle, M., & Lu, L. (1990). The happiness of extraverts. *Personality and Individual Differences*,11,1011-1017.

Boehm, J. k., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2008). Does Happiness Promote Career Success?.University of California, *Journal of Career Assessment,*16,101–116.

Berbner, J. (2001). Personality and stress coping. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31, 317-327.

Brebner, J., Donaldson, J., Kirby, N., & Ward, L. (1995). Relationships between happiness and personality. *PersonalityandIndividualDifferences,*19,251-258.

Cheng, H, Furnham A (2003). Personality, self esteem, and demographic predictions of happiness and depression. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34, 921-942.

Costa, P. & McCrae, R. (1980). Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being: Happy andunhappypeople.*JournalofPersonalityandSocialPsychology,*38,668-678.

Costa, P. T. Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Davis,T.D.(2004).*Comtemporary moral and social issues*.UK:JohnWiley&SonsLtd.

Dehejia, R., DeLeire, T., & Luttmer, E. F. P. (2007). Insuring consumption and happiness through religious organizations.*JournalofPublicEconomics*, 91,259- –279.

Diener, E., Sandvik, E., & Pavot, W. (1991). Happiness is the frequency, not the intensity, of positive versus negative affect. In F. Strack, M. Argyle, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Subjective well-being: An interdisciplinary perspective* (pp. 119–139). Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.

Easterlin, R. A. (2006). Life cycle happiness and its sources Inter sections of psychology, economics, and demography. *JournalofEconomicPsychology*,27,463-482.

Feist, J., & Feist, G. J. (2002).*Theories of personality* (5th edition), Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Fisher, C. D. (2009). Happiness at work, *International Journal of Management Reviews*.doi: 10.1111/j.1468- 2370.00270.

Francis, L. J. (1999). Happiness is a thing called stable extraversion: a furtherexamination of the relationship between the Oxford Happiness Inventory and Eysenck's dimensional model of personality and gender. *Personality and Individual Differences,*26,5-11.

Francis, L. J., Brown, L. B., Lester, D., & Philipchalk, R. (1998). Happiness as stableextraversion: a cross- cultural examination of the reliability and validity of the Oxford Happiness Inventory among students in the UK,USA, Australia and Canada .*Personality and Individual Differences,*24,167-171.

Furnham,A.,&Brewin,C.R.(1990).Personalityand happiness.*Personality and Individual Differences,* 11, 1093-1096.

Furnham, A., & Petrides, K. V. (2003). Trait emotional Intelligence and happiness. *Social BehaviorAnd Personality,*31,815–823.

Ghamari, M. (2012). The Relationship of Social Capital and Happiness among High School Students of Karaj City. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences,* 2, 353-363.

Hettema, J. M., Neale, M.C., Mayers, J.M., Prescott, C.A., & Kendler, K.S. (2006). A Population based twin study of the relationship between neuroticism and internalizing disorders. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 163, 857-864.

Hills, P., & Argyle, M. (2002). The Oxford Happiness Questionnaire: a compact scale for the measurement of psychological well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 33 (7), 1073–1082.

Kim, J. H., Shin, H. K., & Umbreit, W. T. (2007). Hotel job burnout: the role of personality characteristics. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26 (2), 421-34.

Lahey,B.B. (2009). Public health significance of neuroticism. *American Psychologist*, 64, 241-256.

Larsen, R.J. ,& Keterla ar, T.(1991).Personality and susceptibility to positive and negative emotional statues. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 61, 132-140.

Lelkes, O. (2006). Tasting freedom: Happiness, religion and economic transition. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization,*59,173 –194.

Lu, L., Gilmour, R., & Kao, S. F. (2001). Cultural values and happiness:An East-West diagloag. *Journal of Social Psychology,*141(1),477-493.

Lyubomirsky, S., Sheldon, K. M., & Schkade, D. (2005). Pursing happiness:The architecture of sustainable change.*The General Psychology*,9(2),111-131.

McCrae and Costa, P.T. jr.(1992). Validation of the five facto model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 81-90.

McCrae, R. R. & John O.P. (1992). An introduction to the five factor model and its application. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 175-215.

Meyers,D.(2000).Thefriends,funds,andfaithofhappypeople.American Psychologist,55(1),59-67. Mookerjee, R., & Beron, K. (2005). Gender, religion and happiness. *The Journal of Socio- Economics*, 34, 674–685.

Personality36-16-7

Park, N., Park, M. and Peterson, C.(2010). When is the search for meaning related to life satisfaction? *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 2(1), 1-13.

Pawar, B.S (2008). Two approaches to workplace spirituality facilitation: A comparison and implications. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 29(6), 544–567.

Peir´o, A. (2006). Happiness, satisfaction and socio-economic conditions: Some international evidence. *The Journalof Socio-Economics*,35,348- 365.

Peterson,C.(2000).Thefutureofoptimism.*AmericanPsychologist*,55(1),44-55.

Seligman, M.E.P.(2002). Authentic happiness: usingthe new positive psychologytore alise your potential for lasting fulfillment. New York: free press.

Shaffer, D. R. (2005). *Social and personality development*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/ Wadsworth.

Sharma, A., Thapa, M., & Malhotra, D. (2009). Prediction of happiness among Tribal Students of Himachal Pradesh. *Journal of Indian Health Psychology,* 4(1), 57-64.

Spangler, W. E., & Palrecha, R. (2004). The relative contributions of extraversion, neuroticism, and personal strivings to happiness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37,1193-1203.

Tiwari, K. A. (2011). Happiness and Environmental Degradation: What Determines Happiness? *Economics Bulletin,* 31(4),3192-3210.

Warner, R. M., & Vroman, K. G. (2011). Happiness inducing behaviours in everyday life: An empirical assessment of 'The how of happiness'. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*, 1063- 1082.

Watson & Clark (1997). On traits and temperament: general and specific factors of emotional experience and there relation to five factor model. *Journal of Personality ,* 60, 441-467. Yang, Y. (2008). Long and happy living: Trends and patterns of happy life expectancy in the U.S., 1970 – 2000. *Social Science Research*, 37,1235–125.

SELF-ESTEEM AND PERSONALITY CORRELATES OF SUICIDE IDEATION

Dr. Kamlesh Rani*
Dr. Sarika Boora**

Abstract

The present study was mainly aimed at the exploration of self esteem and personality correlates of suicide ideation. For this 200 Senior Secondary School students randomly drawn for various schools of Gurgaon, participated in the study. Selected subjects were tested with Beck Scale for Suicide Ideation (Beck et al., 1988), NEO-FFI (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and SEI (Coopersmith, 1989)). Obtained data were analyzed by Descriptive Statistics, Pearson's Correlations.On the basis of their scores on BSS, subjects were selected(N=200) and other two testwere administered. The sample did not include the students having the history of suicide attempts.

Key Words: - Suicide Ideation, personality, adolescents.

Every year, almost one million people die from suicide; a "global" mortality rate of 16 per 100,000, or one death every 40 seconds (WHO, 2011). According to WHO (2012) suicide rates have increased by 60% worldwide in the last 45 years. Suicide worldwide was estimated to represent 1.8% of the total global burden of disease in 1998; in 2020 this figure is projected to be 2.4% in countries with market and former socialist economies. According to the most recent WHO (2012) report, the rates of suicide range from 0.7/100,000 in the Maldives to 63.3/100,000 in Belarus. India ranks 43rd in descending order of rates of suicide with a rate of 10.6/100,000 reported in 2009 (WHO, 2012).

The term 'suicide' has been derived from the Latin *sui* (of one self) and *cide or cidium* (a killing). Suicidal behaviors include a spectrum of behaviour ranging from precursor behaviour such as suicide ideation, suicide plan and suicide attempt to completed suicide. Suicide ideation is defined as thinking of engaging in suicide-related behaviour and it varies in severity from passive thinking of death and that "life is not worth living" to having suicidal thoughts associated with intent or plan whereas suicide

* Assistant Professor in Psychology, Ansal University, Gurgaon.
** Assistant Professor in Psychology, Sri Aurobindo College, Delhi.

Personality36-16-8

attempt is "self-inflected behaviour" intended to result in death (Abel et al., 2011). Researchers report that adolescents are at greatest risk for suicide ideation and have found that early onset of suicide ideation links with a greater risk of suicide plan and attempt, and that the transition from ideation to plan and attempt occurs within the first year of onset (Bridge et al., 2006; Abel et al., 2012). Consequently, adolescent suicide has been realized as one of the major health problems recently and now it ranks among the top five causes of death among adolescents, along with unintentional injuries, violence, HIV/AIDs and other communicable diseases. Analyses of trends in adolescent suicide depict that rate is increasing across the world over the last quarter century (Patton et al., 2009) including India (Radhakrishanan& Andrade 2012).

Most people, including youth, who contemplate, attempt and/or die from suicide suffer from one or more psychopathologies (Groholt and Ekeberg, 2009). Mood disorders are the most common mental disorders found being associated with suicidal behaviors (Nguyen et al., 2013). Psychological autopsy studies have reported a wide range of mortality due to BPD ranging from 7% to 30% (Linehan et al., 2001). Suicide attempts in alcoholics are common and are also linked to behavioural inhibition, impulsivity and aggression with the use of violent methods for attempts (Phoung et al., 2013). 43% of the subjects with alcohol dependence have been found having life-time suicide attempts (Wojnar et al., 2009). Persons with other substances dependence also have the tendency towards more impulsive aggressive personality and having the history of suicidal thought and behaviours (Pompili et al., 2009).

Conclusively, the presence of psychopathology is probably the single most important predictor of suicide. Approximately 90% of suicide cases meet the criteria for a psychiatric disorder, particularly major depression, substance use disorders, cluster B personality disorders and schizophrenia (Gvion&Apter, 2012). However, despite the fact that most suicide attempters do suffer from psychopathology, most persons with psychiatric disorders do not attempt suicide, hence it implies that other factors over and above psychopathology are involved in suicide. Personality traits commonly found as predisposing factors in suicidal behaviors (included attempts, completed, and ideation) in researches are hopelessness, neuroticism, extraversion, aggression, anger, impulsivity, and perfectionism (Brezo& Tremblay 2006; Brezo et al., 2008; Giegling et al., 2009). Majority of the studies in this regard have attempted to identify psychometric personality correlates of suicide ideation by using personality questionnaires

Personality36-16-8   65-71

which suffer from various limitations such as faking, social desirability, response set etc. (Cattell, 1957; Cattell&Dreger, 1977).

METHOD

Sample

200 (males and females) students of 11th and 12th grades with the age ranging from 15 to 18 years were selected from various Public Schools of Gurgaon. All the subjects were tested with Beck Scale for Suicide Ideation (Beck et al., 1988), NEO-FFI (Neo-FFI; Costa & McCrae, 1992)and SEI (Coopersmith, 1989). On the basis of their scores on BSS, subjects were selected (N=200). The sample also did not include the students having the history of suicide attempts.

Measure/Test

1. ***Beck Scale for Suicide Ideation*** (BSS; Beck, Steer, and Ranieri, 1988) is a 21 item self-report instrument that clinicians use to detect and measure the severity of suicidal ideation in adults and adolescents. BSS measures a broad spectrum of attitudes and behaviours that clinicians routinely consider when assessing patient' suicide risk; it also reveals specific suicidal characteristics which require greater clinical scrutiny. The BSS scores are best considered as indicators of suicide risk rather than as predictors of eventual suicide in a given case. Out of 21 items, the first five BSS items serve as a screen for suicide ideation. If a respondent circles the zero statements in both Item 4 (indicating no suicide intention) and Item 5 (indicating avoidance of death if presented with a life threatening situation), then he or she is instructed to skip to the next 14 items which relate to specific information about the respondents plans and attitudes. Any respondent who has previously attempted suicide is requested to rate Item No.21. The severity of suicide ideation is calculated by summing the ratings for first 19 items (items 20 & 21 are not included in the score). The total BSS score can range from 0 to 38.

2. ***Neo-Five Factor Inventory (Neo-FFI Short Version):*** is based on five factor model of personality. Costa & McCrae (1992) developed Neo –FFI to index five personality dimensions – neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The original Neo-Personality Inventory (Neo-PI) consisted of 180 items, from which Costa & McCrae (1989)

Personality36-16-8

selected 12 items for each scale to develop a short version called Neo-Five Factor Inventory (Neo-FFI). The Neo-FFI has been used in the present study to index the five factors of personality. The five scales of Neo-FFI have been assessed for internal consistencies and test-retest reliabilities. The alpha coefficients for individual facet-scales ranged from .56 to .81. The full scale coefficient alphas ranged from .86 to .95. The test-retest reliabilities (with 3 months interval) of Neo-FFI scales obtained from college samples have been found to be .79, .79, .80, .75 and .83 for N, E, O, A, and C respectively. Hence, it is considered to be a reliable and valid measure of five factors of personality across the world.

3. *Self Esteem Inventory (SEI; Coopersmith 1989):*The school short form of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory is a widely used measure of children's global self-esteem. Sub scales of these form includes general self, social self peers, home-parents and school academics. In the present study only general self was used

Results and Discussion

Descriptive Statistics Mean and SD were computed in terms of significance of mean differences in scores of PAI, BSS and SEI variables.

Table – 1

Mean Scores of female and male students on NEO-FFI, SEI and BSS

S. No.	Variables	Mean	SD
1	N	26.12	4.29
2	E	25.94	4.30
3	O	24.18	4.12
4	A	26.34	4.73779
5	C	27.80	5.53
6	GS	15.41	3.91
7	SI	5.90	4.05

Intercorrelations

Pearson's correlation coefficients were obtained among/ between all the 7 variables (5 of Neo-FFI; 1 of SEI & 1 of BSS) in the data. (Table 2). Degree of Freedom being 200(N-2) in adoloscents data, correlation coefficients of .14 and .18 are significant at .05 and .01 probability levels respectively.

Table – 2
Correlations between variables of NEO-FFI, SEI and BSS

S.No.	Scales	BSS
1	**Neuroticism(N)**	**.494**
2	**Extraversion(E)**	-.122
3	**Openness(O)**	-.062
4	**Agreeableness(Agree)**	.066
5	**Conscientiousness(C)**	-.015
6	**General Self-Esteem(GS)**	**-.374**
7	**Suicide Ideation (SI)**	1.000

In adolescents data Intercorrelations among five factors of personality (Neo-FFI) are in general low. Only 4 of 10 correlations are significant, maybe because of their association with super factors at higher order level. Only neuroticism of Neo-FFI has marked significant positive correlation with suicide ideation (.494 p< .01) and general self-esteem has marked significant negative correlation with suicide ideation (-.374 p< .05).

Conclusion

Suicidal thoughts and behavior during college present unique challenges to both researchers and clinicians. The transition between late adolescence and young adulthood is typically characterized by high levels of stress associated with adjusting to a new social environment and increased academic demands. Moreover, social support networks undergo radical changes during college. If replicated, these findings may point to promising new strategies for suicide prevention. Rather than focusing primarily on students who are depressed, campus suicide prevention initiatives could include programs aimed at enhancing student social support networks, increasing students' awareness about the possible signs of suicide ideation (including AUD), and educating parents about effective ways of supporting students who might be at risk for suicidal behavior. In the end, we can conclude that moderate level of suicide ideation can be found in everybody at some point of time in life. But certain risk factors such as depression, anxiety, hopelessness and aggression etc are associated with suicidal behavior and should be identified by teachers and parents which should be seriously taken in to consideration in the development and implementation of interventions to prevent suicide and even to rate out suicide ideation among adolescents. For that, psychotherapy, CBT, should be used in the management of suicide ideation and behaviors.

Personality36-16-8

References

Abel, W., James, K., Bridgelal-Nagassar, R., Holder-Nevins, D., Eldemire, H.& Sewell, C. (2011). *The epidemiology of suicide in Jamaica 2002–2010: rates and patterns* [unpublished data]. Kingston: University of the West Indies.

Beck, A.T., Steer, R.A., & Ranieri, W.F. (1988).Scale for Suicide Ideation: Psychometric properties of a self-report version. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*. 44:499–505.

Brezo. J., Paris, J., Tremblay, R. & Vitaro, F. et al. (2006). Personality traits as correlates of suicide attempts and suicidal ideation in young adults.*Psychological Medicine 36*(2):191-202.

Brezo, J., Paris, J., Hebert, M. & Vitaro, F. et al. (2008). Broad and narrow personality traits as markers of one-time and repeated suicide attempts: A population-based study. *BMC Psychiatry 8*(15. Date of Publication: 6 Mar 2008).

Bridge, J.A., Barbe, R.P., Birmaher, B., Kolko, D.J. & Brent, D.A. (2005). Emergent suicidality in a clinical psychotherapy trial for adolescent depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 162: 2173-2175.

Bridge, J.A., Iyengar, S., Salary, C.B., Barbe, R.P., Birmaher, B., Pincus, H.A., Ren, L.& Brent, D.A. (2007).Clinical response and risk for reported suicidal ideation and suicide attempts in pediatric antidepressant treatment. A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *JAMA,* 297:1683-1696

Cattell, R. B. (1957). A Universal Index for Factors. *Psy-chologia,* X 74-85.

Cattell, R. B. (1977). The grammar of science and the evolution of personality theory. In R. B. Cattell & R. M. Dreger (Eds.). *Handbook of modern personality theory* (pp.3–42). NewYork: Wiley/ HalstedPress.

Coopersmith, S., (1989). *Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Giegling, I., Olgiati, P., Hartmann, A.M., Calati, R., Möller, H.J., Rujescu, D.& Serretti, A. (2009). Personality and attempted suicide. Analysis of anger, aggression and impulsivity. *Journal of Psychiatry Res.*c;43(16):1262–1271

Groholt. B.& Ekeberg, O. (2009). Prognosis after adolescent suicide attempt: mental health, psychiatric treatment, and suicide attempts in a nine-year follow-up study. *Suicide and Life-Threatening Behavior 39*(2):125-36.

Gvion, Y. & Apter, A. (2011). Aggression, impulsivity and suicide behavior: a review of the

Literature. *Suicide Life Threat Behav*. 15:93-112.

Linehan, M.M. & Dimeff, L. (2001). Dialectal Behaviour Therapy in a nutshell. *The California Psychologist,* 34, 10-13.

Patton, G.C., Coffey, C., Sawyer, M., Viner, R.M., Haller, D.M., Bose, K.& Mathers, C.D(2009). *Global patterns of mortality in young people: A systematic analysis of population health data. Lancet.* 374:881–892.

Phuong, T. B., Huong, N. T., Tien, T.Q., Chi, H. K. & Dunne, M. P. (2013). Factors associated with health risk behavior among school children in urban Vietnam. *Global Health Action*, *6*(18876).

SELF-ESTEEM AND PERSONALITY CORRELATES   71

Pompili, M., Innamorati, M., Lester, D. & Akiskal, H.S et al. (2009). Substance abuse, temperament and suicide risk: evidence from a case-control study. *Journal of Addictive Diseases 28*:13-20.

Morey, L. C. (1991). *Personality Assessment Inventory: Professional manual.* Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Nguyen, T. V., Mccracken, J., Ducharme, S., Botteron, K. N., Mahabir, M. & Johnson, W et al. (2013). Testosterone-related cortical maturation across childhood and adolescence.*Cereb. Cortex* 23 1424–1432.

Radhakrishnan, R. & Andrade, C. (2012). Suicide: *An Indian perspective. Indian J Psychiatry* 54:304-19.

Wojnar, M., Ilgen, M.A., Czyz, E., Strobbe, S., Klimkiewicz, A., Jakubczyk, A. & Brower, K.J. (2009). Impulsive and non-impulsive suicide attempts in patients treated for alcohol dependence. *Journal of Affective Disorders*. 115:131–139.

World Health Organization (2011).*Figures and facts about suicide*. Geneva: WHO.

BEING NEUROTIC COULD ACTUALLY BE A GOOD THING

Sisodia Devendra Singh*

Abstract

The objective of the study was to study the effect of aging, gender and nature of life on Neuroticism. The locale of the study was confined to the state of Rajasthan. The total sample for the present study consisted of 240 respondents. The respondents were divided into early old age i.e. 60-70 years and advance old age i.e. 70-80 years age range, gender i.e. male and female and nature of life i.e. married or single. Neurosis Measurement Scale developed by Uniyal and Bisht (1989) was used. The results indicate that elderly people showed no signs of neurotic trends. Both males and females do not show any personality disturbance characteristics of neuroticism. Similarly, both married and single elderly do not have any symptoms of neuroticism.

Human development refers to the series of changes the individual characteristics show as they progress in time forwards maturity and through adult phase towards old age. Every stage of life is important for the human being. But later life of old age is a very critical period for them. Aging is a natural phenomenon which has broad scientific implication for all being forms and also has profound personal implications for each individual. Man has been reflective about changes occurring in behaviour and temperaments with advancing age.

Aging has always been known as the final part of the life's journey. The aged have to face many problems like decreasing physical strength, diseases, retirement, financial difficulties, death of spouse etc.

The aged face tremendous life adjustments. They are expected to cope with their own personal problems, responsibilities and obligations to life with less of everything like less physical ability and attractiveness

---

* Head, Department of Psychology, B N Girls College, MLSUniversity, Udaipur, Email: dr.sisodia@yahoo.com

less income, less support from family friends and colleagues. One of the serious problems our country is facing today is an apparent increase in the number of the aged in the population. This would increase the demand for the care of the aged, and the need for the rejuvenating their second class senior citizenship.

Dhar (2007) stated that Aging is normal and inevitable but one can increase active life span with changing life styles including diet and exercise.

However meditation will increase glamour, personality vision and intelligence as well as reduce illness and aging process. Quantum Meditation in addition to all benefits of meditation will reverse the aging process with all its manifestations and disease process beyond the reach of drugs and chemicals.

Prakash (2003, 2004) reported studies carried out in India. Using drawings depicting older people, attitudes were elicited in children. Then psycho educational programs were carried out to change the attitudes in a positive direction.

Neuroticism is a personality disturbance characterized by the inner struggle and discordant social relationship which are precipitated by emotional stress and conflicts.

It is very clear that a man is not older by his age but by his mindset. The day he stops planning, thinking, dreaming, he stops developing. Mental and behavioral disturbance can be devastating in older adults. The aged people not only suffer from chronic diseases, frailties of age but also by unhappiness caused by feeling of uselessness, unhappiness and despair.

Neurosis is the actual disorder while neuroticism is a mild condition of neurosis. The negative pole of adjustment is called neuroticism.

Christoline (2006) Depression is a leading cause of debility among older people which can change the scope of daily life for them and threaten their ability to live independently in community.

Koopman,Classen and Spiegel (1995) stated that during and immediately following a traumatic event, people may manifest a pattern of dissociative and anxiety symptoms and other reactions, referred to as Acute Stress Disorder.

George (1993) found that the aged respondents of his study have a higher degree of neuroticism as compared to youth. Dependency due to old age problems, lack of occupation, boredom, and decreased social mobility, and self esteem, emotional rejection by family may account for

this. This may be due to disrupt functioning in social relationship and to reduce quality of life.

OBJECTIVES

- To see the effect of aging (60-70 years) and (70-80 years) on neuroticism.

- To see the effect of gender on neuroticism.

- To see the effect of nature of life (married or single) on neuroticism.

METHOD

Sample

The locale of the study was confined to the state of Rajasthan. The total sample for the present study consisted of 240 respondents. The respondents were divided into early old age i.e. 60-70 years and advance old age i.e. 70-80 years age range, gender i.e. male and female and nature of life i.e. married or single.

Design of the study

$2\times2\times2$ factorial design was formulated for the present study.

Materials

Neurosis Measurement Scale developed by Uniyal and Bisht(1989) was used to collect data in this study.

PROCEDURE

Neurosis Measurement Scale was administered individually upon the aged persons. Brief instructions were given to them. The answered questionnaires were collected and scored according to the manuals.

The scores obtained were analyzed statistically. Measures of central tendency and variability and F value were calculated to see the effect of independent variables on neuroticism.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1

Means, Standard deviations and F-value of scores of early old age and advance old age persons on Neuroticism

Age group	Mean	Standard Deviation	F-value
Early old age	161.47	14.37	5.40*
Advance old age	169.35	15.59	

Table 1 shows: The F value was 5.40* which was observed significant at .01 level. Findings have revealed that Elderly do not possess any signs of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of early old age i.e. advanced old aged persons show higher trend towards neuroticism.

Table 2

Means, Standard deviations and F-value of scores of male and female aged persons on Neuroticism.

Age group	Mean	Standard Deviation	F-value
Male	176.72	13.9	5.21*
Female	179.87	17.35	

Table 2 shows: The F value was 5.21* which was observed significant at .01 level. Findings have revealed that Both males and females do not show any personality disturbance characteristics of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of males i.e. females show higher trend towards neuroticism.

Table 3

Means, Standard deviations and F-value of scores of Married and Single aged persons on neuroticism

Age group	Mean	Standard Deviation	F-value
Married	165.89	15.12	5.38*
Single	169.54	15.23	

Table 3 shows that the F value was 5.38* which was significant at .01 level. Findings have revealed that both married and single elderly do not have any symptoms of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of married elderly i.e. single elderly show higher trend towards neuroticism.

Elderly people do not possess any signs of neuroticism but a slight comparison

is seen in the favor of early old age i.e. advanced old aged show higher trend towards neuroticism. "Old age does not depend on years, but upon temperament, treatment and health(Basheer, 2008).

As the person advances in age there is more deterioration in health, they are more dependent on their children for their day today activities. Children consider them as burden, they are not involved in the household decisions and emotional rejection by family may account for neuroticism. With the advancement of age, ill health, neglectance by family results in the feeling of lack of confidence and courage, depression, lack of concentration, nervousness, pessimism resulting in neuroticism.

Both males and females do not show any personality disturbance characteristics of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of males i.e. females show higher trend towards neuroticism. Females show higher trends towards neuroticism because they are more sensitive in nature and hence due to illness experience more stress and experience higher level of state anxiety because they are perhaps aware that the probability of developing disease related complications increases with age and they are worried about their prospective look after and medication.

Similarly, both married and single elderly do not have any symptoms of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of married elderly i.e. single elderly show higher trend towards neuroticism.

Single elderly shows a trend towards neuroticism because the spouse is dead and He/She is all alone Cordial family atmosphere is most essential for the aged people to develop a sense of life satisfaction and to reduce the level of neuroticism.

Neuroticism is characterized by reactions of the type of anxiety, dissociation, conversion, phobia, obsession-compulsion and depression (Uniyal and Bisht. 1989). The elderly from all the three groups do not show any of these reactions. In this age, socialization plays an important role as the elderly are either retired and diminished physical capacities do not allow them to engage in any external work that leads to earning. To reduce the feeling of decreasing self-concept, engaging in social and creative activities becomes the most important developmental task of the old age. Therefore any trend on neuroticism does not persist in elderly.

The results are in line with the findings of *George (1993)*. He found that the aged respondents of the study have a higher degree of neuroticism as compared to youth. Dependency due to old age problems, lack of occupation, boredom, and decreased social mobility, and self-

esteem, emotional rejection by family may account for this. This may be due to disrupt functioning in social relationship and to reduce quality of life.

Conclusion

1. Elderly people showed no signs of neurotic trends.

2. Elderly people do not possess any signs of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of early old age i.e. advanced old aged show higher trend towards neuroticism.

3. Both males and females do not show any personality disturbance characteristics of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of males i.e. females show higher trend towards neuroticism.

4. Similarly, both married and single elderly do not have any symptoms of neuroticism but a slight comparison is seen in the favor of married elderly i.e. single elderly show higher trend towards neuroticism.

References

Basheer, K.P.M. (2008) Life begins at 60 for elders. *The Hindu,* India's National Newspaper. Friday July 1 1.

Christoline, D. (2006) Disability in older adults with depression. *Dissertation Abstract* International 67/(l)5b

Dhar, H.L. (2007); Recent advances on anti aging. *Indian Journal of Gerontology,* 2007, Vol. 21, No.l, pp. 87-90.

George, L (1993): The adjustment of old age: *Psychological studies,* 13(1) PP 60-63.

Koopman, C., Classen, C., and Spiegel, D. (1995). Predictors of Posttraumatic stress symptoms among survivors of the Oakland/Berkley, Calif., and firestorm. *American Journal of Psychiatry.* 15(6)884-894

Prakash, I. J. (2003) *Aging: Diverse experiences.* Bangalore University. Bangalore.

Prakash, I. J. (2004) *Ageing: Emerging issues.* Bangalore University, Bangalore.

Uniyal, M. P. and Bisht, Abha Rani (1989) : *Neurosis Measurement Scale*, Ankur Psychological Agency. Luknow:

Personality36-16-10

PURCHASE OF TEAM MERCHANDISE, DISLIKE TOWARDS RIVAL TEAM, TEAM AFFILIATION AND SPORT CONSUMER MOTIVES WITH RESPECT TO THE LEVELS OF TEAM IDENTIFICATION AMONG TEAM SPORT FANS

R.Aparna*
K.R.Santhosh**

Abstract

The present study is an attempt to find out the association of team identification with the purchase of team merchandise and dislike towards the rival team, among team sport fans. The study further tried to find out if fans differed in team affiliation and sport consumer motives with respect to their levels of team identification. The sample for the study consisted of 135 football fans aged between 18 and 30 years from different cities in India. Data was collected using the sport-fan profile (developed by the investigators), Team Identification Scale (Wann and Branscombe, 1993) and Sport-Consumer Motives Scale (James & Ross, 2004). Chi-Square analyses indicated that team identification has a significant association with the purchase of the team merchandise and dislike towards the rival team. Mann-Whitney U Test showed that team affiliation and sport consumer motives differ with respect to the level of team identification of the team sport fans.

Keywords: Purchase of Team Merchandise, Dislike towards Rival Team, Team Affiliation, Sport Consumer Motives, Team Identification, Team Sport Fans

People generally watch sports to find pleasure with fun and to get relief from boredom and tension (Zillman & Bryant, 1989). But for some, it is to develop a safer base of individual identity as fans (Porat, 2010). Fandom can satisfy the need to be associated with, or to be distinguished

* Department of Psychology, Jain University, Bangalore, Karnataka-560027.

** Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Jain University, Bangalore, Karnataka-560027.

from other individuals (Absten, 2011). The extent to which a fan feels a psychological connection with a team and views team's performances as self-relevant is called Sport Team Identification (Wann, 2006). Fandom has its growth from mere attraction to pledging alliance and loyalty towards a sports team. Status of a fan in this growth depends on their emotional reactions to the team, their functional knowledge about the team and their ability to cultivate symbolic value for benefits and qualities associated with the sports team (Funk & James, 2006)

Fans identify with a team towards which they feel strong emotional reactions, have the good functional knowledge and give great symbolic value. Reasons for this team identification are related to certain motives (Greenwood, 2001). Some of the commonly identified motives are parental influence, family influence, closeness of the team, nativity of the team, peers, media, etc. (Greenwood, 2001). Collectively, these motives due to which a fan consumes sports are known as Sports Consumer Motives. According to American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, a motive is a psychological feature (an emotion, desire or need) that acts as an incitement to action (Mahony, Makoto, Funk, James & Gladden, 2002).

Motives that lead a fan to identify with a team include team effort, team affiliation, vicarious achievement, entertainment, drama, physical skills, escape, aesthetics, social interaction and family (Wann&Branscombe, 1993). According to James and Ross (2004), motives may be sport-related, self-definitional or it may be related to personal benefits. Sport-related motive includes entertainment, skill, drama and team effort. Achievement and team affiliation are self-definitional motives. Social interaction and family relationship are the motives related to personal benefits. Higher order aspects of involvement with a team are identified to be an attraction, self-expression, centrality to lifestyle, and risk (Funk, Ridinger& Moorman, 2004).

People who identify with a sports team spend a lot of time and money in order to watch the team play. They display ego-enhancing patterns of acknowledgements for the team's success and have positive aspirations concerning the team's future performances (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). According to Kwon and Armstrong (2002), team identification can lead to impulsive buying of sport and team licensed merchandise. Highly identified individuals tend to spend more money on

buying merchandise related to the sport team (Sutton et al., 1997). They engage in wish fulthinking in favor of the identified sports team (Dietz-Uhler& Murrell, 1999). They are also likely to imagine greater positive outcomes and success of their teams than less identified fans (Wann &B ranscombe, 1993).

Some fans even have a tendency to place these teams above their own needs. Such a tendency can lead to psychological as well as social consequences. However, these consequences have a positive segment as they can promote good social interaction, well-being and happiness. As per the findings of Wann (2006), being associated or identified with a sports team can promote psychological wellness. It can contribute to social well-being too (Wann & Pierce, 2005) because fans that identify with a sports team tend to form associations with other fans of the same team. An intimacy will be developed within the group members who believe to be an exclusive group and feel positive about each other's beliefs (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). This then aids in forming better social connections, thereby assisting well-being (Wann, 2006).

Team identification will lead fans to involve themselves in gaining knowledge about team-related facts, history of the team and player information. Highly identified fans are found to be greatly involved in these aspects (Wann&Branscombe, 1995). They think more about the team.Therefore, they are deeply affected by the team's performance (Funk & James, 2001). For example, a good performance and a win by the team would lead fans to exhibit more positive, optimistic and cheerful behaviors; whereas a poor performance or a loss by the team would lead to the exhibition of negative, pessimistic and gloomy behaviors. Therefore, it can be said that the level of identification with a sports team has an impact on the fans' general mood and efficiency.

In conclusion, sports fandom is an important component in a fan's identity profile (Porat, 2010). Fans have significant roles in the progress and popularity of the sport, the team and the players. Fans influence a sport and a team through attending the games, purchasing team merchandise, etc., which in turn, would increase the popularity and fanbase of the team and the players. Higher the team identification, greater will be the loyalty, and stronger will be their support to fulfill these roles. The level of identification with a team by a fan and the reasons to be identified with the team are potential areas where literature lacks comprehensible information.It would be worth realizing these factors that could contribute

to team identification as it has both psychological and social implications (Wann& Pierce, 2005; Wann, 2006).The present study is an attempt to find out if team identification has an association with purchase of team merchandise and dislike towards rival teams. The study further tries to find out if fans differ in team affiliation and sport consumer motives with respect to their levels of team identification.

HYPOTHESES

1. Purchase of team merchandise teamsport fans has no association with their levels of team identification.

2. Dislike towards rival teams by team sport fans has no association with their levels of team identification.

3. Fans do not differ in team affiliation with respect to their levels of team identification.

4. Fans do not differ in Sport Consumer Motives factors with respect to their levels of team identification.

METHOD

Sample

The present study follows a quantitative research design with a sample of 135 football fans, aged between 18-30 years, and hailing from various states and cities in India. Data was collected through the method of snowball sampling technique. Subjects in the sample belonged to the geographical areas of Bangalore in the state of Karnataka, Chennai in the state of Tamil Nadu and Kochi and Calicut in the state of Kerala.

Tools of Assessment

1. *Sport Fan Profile* developed by the researcher was used to gather information regarding the team merchandises the fans own and their like or dislike towards a rival team.

2. *Team Identification Scale* developed by Wann and Branscombe (1993) was used to measure the level of team identification of the fans. It is a seven item rating scale, with a 5 point Likert-type response category (least descriptive to most descriptive). The scale is identified to have good reliability in the present sample (Cronbach's á = 0.80)

3. *Sport Consumer Motives Scale* (James & Ross, 2004; Trail & James, 2001) was used to find out the different motives behind one becoming a fan of a certain sport and/or team(s). The scale has six domains, each of which has three sub-domains. The participants rate their responses on

a scale of 1-7. The scale is identified to have good reliability in the present sample (Cronbach's á = 0.87)

RESULTS

Team identification is classified to the two levels – high team identification and low team identification – based on the median (43, minimum = 10 and maximum = 50) of the scores on team identification scale. Of the total 135 participants, 70 are seen to have low team identification and 65 are seen to have high team identification.

In order to find out if thepurchase of team merchandise by the team sport fans has an association with their levels of team identification, chi-square test of independence was used; the results are given in table 1.

Table1
Association between purchase of team merchandise and team identification

Variables	Team Identification				
	Classification	Low	High	Total	$\eth^2$
Purchase of	**Yes**	59	62	121	4.467*
Team	**No**	11	3	14	
Merchandise	**Total**	70	65	135	

*p < 0.05

Chi-square analysis (table 1) indicated that of the total 135 subjects in the sample, 59 who purchase team merchandise are low in team identification and 11 who do not purchase team merchandise are also low in team identification. On the other hand, 62 who purchase team merchandises are high in team identification and 3, who do not purchase team merchandise are also high in team identification. Team merchandise is identified to have a significant ($\eth^2$ = 4.467, p < 0.05) association with team identification.

In order to find out if disliking the rival team by team sport fans has an association with their levels of team identification, chi-square test of independence was used; results are given in table 2.

Table 2
Association between dislike towards rival team and team identification

Variables	Team Identification				
	Classification	Low	High	Total	$\eth^2$
Dislike towards	**Yes**	49	60	109	10.786**
Rival Teams	**No**	21	5	26	
	Total	70	65	135	

**p < 0.01

As per the results (table 2) of Chi-square analysis, 49 participants who dislike the rival teams are low in team identification and 21 participants who do not dislike the rival teams are low in team identification. On the other hand, 60 participants who dislike the rival teams are high in team identification and 26 participants who do not dislike the rival teams are high in team identification. Disliking the rival teams by the participants is identified to have a significant association ($\delta^2 = 10.79$, $p < 0.01$) with team identification among the present sample.

In order to find out if there is a significant difference between fans with high and low team identification in their team affiliation, Mann-Whitney U test was used; the results are summarized in table 3.

Table 3
Difference between fans with low team identification and those with high team identification in team affiliation

Team Identification	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z
Low	70	51.4	3598	1113	5.185**
High	65	85.88	5582		
Total	135				

*p < 0.01

Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the participants differ significantly (U= 1113, Z=5.185, p<0.01) in team affiliation with respect to their levels in team identification. Considering the mean rank and sum of ranks, participants who are high in team identification are high in team affiliation (MR=85.88, SR=5582) when compared to the participants who are low in team identification (MR=51.40, SR=3598).

In order to find out if there is a significant difference between fans with high and low levels of team identification in their Sport Consumer Motive factors Mann-Whitney U test was used; the results are summarized in table 4.

Personality36-16-10

Table 4

Difference between fans with low team identification and those with high team identification in Sport Consumer Motive factors

Sport Consumer motive	Team Identification	N Ranks	Mean Ranks	Sum of U	Mann-Whitney	Z
Social	Low	70	68.21	4775	2260	.066
Interaction	High	65	67.77	4405		
	Total	135				
Family	Low	70	71.43	5000	2035	1.088
	High	65	64.31	4180		
	Total	135				
Entertainment	Low	70	63.91	4473.5	1988.5	1.274
	High	65	72.41	4706.5		
	Total	135				
Achievement	Low	70	52.45	3671.5	1186.5	5.149**
	High	65	84.75	5508.5		
	Total	135				
Escape	Low	70	59.81	4186.5	1702	2.535*
	High	65	76.82	4993.5		
	Total	135				
Overall SCM	Low	70	59.96	4197	1712	2.480*
	High	65	76.66	4983		
	Total	135				

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

As per the results of Mann-Whitney U test, participants who are low in team identification differ significantly from the participants who are high in team identification in achievement (U=1186.5, Z=5.149, p<0.01), escape (U=1702, Z=2.535, p<0.05) and in overall sport consumer motive scores (U=1712, Z=2.480, p<0.05). Comparing the mean ranks and sum of ranks, achievement motive is higher among the participants with high team identification (MR=84.75, SR=5508.5) than those with low team identification (M.R.=52.45, SR=3671.5). Escape motive is higher among

the participants with high team identification (MR=76.82, SR= 4993.5) than those with low team identification (M.R.=59.81, SR=4186.5). Overall sport consumer motive is higher among the participants with high team identification (MR=76.66, SR=4983) than those with low team identification (M.R.= 59.96, SR=4197).

DISCUSSION

Team identification represents the intensity of psychological connect a fan has with a team (Wann, 2006). The findings indicate that team identification has an association with the purchase of team merchandise. A higher number of participants with high team identification level tend to purchase team merchandise. Moreover, highly identified fans consume more team merchandise than the low identified fans. With a high level of team identification, there arises a more prominent need to feel as a part of the team. Hence, fans tend to purchase merchandises that may exhibit them as a part of the team they are identified with. These merchandises include the team jersey, any official team products, insignia, posters etc. While watching a match of the identified team with a rival team, fans tend to display these merchandises. Through this behavior, their attempt is to provide a contribution to the success of the team. In their extremities, illogical and superstitious connections between the usage of merchandise and the success of the team would be derived.

A higher segment of the participants with low team identification also tends to purchase team merchandise. Human tendency to copy a fancy can be the reason here or it may be an indication that some of the fans in the present sample are in the process of the growth from low to high team identification. It can also be an attempt for a snob-appeal. Compared to the purchase of the fans with high team identification, this has a lesser psychological impact. They are not purchasing these merchandises to gain an identity. Fans with high levels of team identification believe possessing team merchandises as an indicator for their allegiance with the team. They are ready to invest a lot of time and money in purchasing these merchandises. Many a times, these purchases may be impulsive (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002).

Findings further show that team identification has an association with the dislike of the participants to the rival teams. A higher number of participants with high team identification level dislike the rival team. This seems to be quite natural. According to Wenger and Brown (2014), fans associate positivity with their identified team, and negativity with the teams'

Personality36-16-10

rivals. The intensity of dislike depends upon the competency of the rival team, geographical closeness of the rival team with the identified team, history of the rival team and emotional affinity of the fan to the identified team. Dislike is always projected through repartee with the other team fans. When their team might be on the verge of facing failure, some of the highly identified fans may express hostility against the rival team fans. Expression of hostility shall be expected even against the players of the rival team from a gallery of fans with high identification.

As per the results, the difference in the levels of team identification can be influenced by team affiliation, the psychological closeness the fan feels towards a team. Team affiliation is high among the participants with high team identification. Team affiliation is one of the most important motives behind a fan to be identified with a particular team. Fans tend to define themselves from the point of view of their affiliated team. They will take pride in calling themselves a fan of the team. Hence, team affiliation is identified to be a self-definitive motive. Team affiliation can be speculated as a mediating factor that makes highly identified fans to spend more time and money to watch the team sport. The team grows to their personality and becomes an inevitable part of their day-to-day affairs. They incessantly engage in acquiring knowledge about the team (Wann & Branscombe, 1955), for instance, the team's history, facts about the players etc.

Team identification is influenced by different sport consumer motives of the fans. Achievement motive and escape motive are the two domains which indicated a difference with respect to the level of team identification. Overall sport consumer motive also showed a difference. Achievement motive represents vicarious achievement felt by the fans. According to Sutton, McDonald, Milne, and Cimperman (1997), fans with high levels of team identification may view teams as an expansion of their community. The achievements of the team will be a credit for the fans and hence, it is called vicarious. Escape motive represents the tendency of fans to escape from the aggravation of daily life. It encourages them to find enjoyment in sporting events. Chien and Ross (2012) suggest that entertainment motives are identified to be one of the most important motives that may drive the fans to identify with a team. Fans of football in India share this along with another major motive, achievement. Achievement motive seems to be a more cultural influence.

As noted before, there is a gap in the literature regarding motives of the fans and its influence on team identification. Further, sufficient

Personality36-16-10

information relating to team affiliation and dislike for the rival teams and purchase of team merchandise by fans are also missing in the literature. The present study is a pioneer attempt to fill these gaps. However, there are numerous limitations which cannot be ignored. Notably, the sample belongs to the fans in India, who are more associated with the team sport – football. More studies are recommended to be conducted in this area with large sample sizes and considering more team sports.

References

Absten, S. L. (2011). *Factors that influence Team Identification: Sport Fandom and the Need for Affiliation.* Retrieved April 17, 2015, from Western Kentucky University Top Scholar: http://digitalcommons.wku.edu/theses

Chien, C.-I. J., & Ross, S. D. (2012). Identifying Important Spectator Motives for Game Attendance in Taiwanese Professional Baseball Industry. *Contemporary Management Research, 9* (2), 137.

Dietz-Uhler, B., & Murrel, A. J. (1999). Examining fan reactions to game outcomes: A longitudinal study of social identity. *Journal of Sport Behaviour, 22* (1), 15-27.

Funk, D. C., & James, J. D. (2001). The Psychological Continuum Model (PCM): A Conceptual Framework for understanding and individuals Psychological Connection to Sport. *Sport Management Review, 4* (2), 119-150.

Funk, D. C., & James, J. D. (2006). Consumer Loyalty: The Meaning of Attachment in the Development of Sport Team Allegiance. *journal of Sport Management, 20*(2), 189

Funk, D. C., Ridinger, L. L., & Moorman, A. M. (2004). Exploring Origins of Involvement: Understanding the Relationship Between Consumer Motives and Involvement with Professional Sports Teams. *Leisure Sciences, 26*(1), 35-61.

Greenwood, P. (2001). *Sport Fan Team Identification in a Professional Setting.* Raleigh: University of North Carolina.

James, J. D., & Ross, S. D. (2004). Comparing Sport Consumer Motivations Across Multiple Sports. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 13*(1), 17-25.

Kwon, H. H., & Armstrong, K. L. (2002). Factors Influencing Impulse Buying of Sport Team Licensed Merchandise. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*(3), 151-163.

Mahony, D. F., Nakazawa, M., Funk, D. C., James, J. D., & Gladden, J. M. (2002). Motivational Factors Influencing the Behaviour of J. League Spectators. *Sport Management Review, 5* (1), 1-24.

Porat, A. B. (2010). Football fandom: A bounded identification. *Soccer & Society, 11*(3), 277-290.

Sutton, W. A., McDonald, M. A., Milne, G. R., &Cimperman, J. (1997). Creating and fostering fan identification in professional sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 6, 15-22.*

Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). The motivation scale for sport consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behaviour, 24* (1), 108-127.

Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1993). Sports Fans: Measuring Degree Of Identification With Their Tean. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*., 24, 1-17

Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1995). Influence of identification with a sports team on

objective knowledge and subjective beliefs. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 26* (4), 551-567.

Wann, D. L., & Pierce, S. (2005). The Relationship Between Sport Team Identification and Social Well-being: Additional Evidence Supporting the Team Identification-Social Psychological Health Model. *North American Journal of Psychology, 7* (1), 117-124.

Wann, D. L. (2006). Understanding the Positive Social Psychological Benefits of Sport Team Identification: The Team Identification Social Psychological Health Model. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 10*(4), 272.

Wenger, J. L., & Brown, R. O. (2014). Sport Fans: Evaluating the Consistency between Implicit and Explicit Attitudes Toward Favorite and Rival Teams. *Psychological Reports, 114*(2), 572-584.

Zillman, D., & Bryant, J. (1989). Enjoyment from sports spectatorship. *Sports, games, and play: Social and psychological viewpoints*, 241-278.

Personality36-16-11

RE-CONTEXTUALIZING SAFETY CULTURE THROUGH BEHAVIOUR BASED SAFETY IN ORGANIZATIONS

Dr. Harbans Lal Kaila*

Abstract

This research paper attempts to identify and reviews a host of strengths and gaps in Indian organizations towards managing the at-risk behaviours at work sites which included 30 multinational companies from 24 geographically distinct diverse locations in India. Nearly 45000 participants were trained as mentors and observers over a period of 15 years 2000-2015 including heads of departments, managers, contractor's workmen, safety officers. The intervention programme included the concept and process of BBS, plant visits for observation and correction of at-risk behaviours, developing road map for implementation of BBS, developing training module for imparting training to all employees, formation and functions of BBS steering team. Both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered from participating companies in India. A comparison of the multinational organizations all over India revealed the following behavioural trends that on an average, 70% safe behaviours, 30% unsafe behaviours, 67% corrections of unsafe behaviour, and interestingly safe behaviours went up to 94%, which means there is a 24% increase in safe behaviour after corrections by all-category observers. The unsafe/at-risk behaviours resulting into accidents are rooted in organizational culture. Hence in order to achieve total safety culture, the identified gaps that organizations need to address are: the major concerns of BBS while shifting from safety culture 1 to 2, the key BBS elements for implementation assessment, the functions and concerns of BBS lead trainers, making use of BBS implementation feedback, the barriers in BBS implementation, keeping in mind the way forward for BBS implementation after every quarterly review, monitoring reduction in injuries every 6 months post-BBS implementation, the 10 criteria for BBS audit, the significant questions of corporate safety department on BBS implementation for bench-marking.

* Former Professor - Organizational Psychology, SNDT Womens' University. Mumbai, Tel: 9322006518; kailahl@hotmail.com

Personality36-16-11

Indian Corporates have now recognized that the unsafe behaviours of employees greatly hit the company's business and its balance sheet, and it is hoped that people at workplace would involve to put their efforts to prevent the pain, suffering and financial losses brought about by accidents and related injuries at work (Health and Safety Executive, 2005). While inaugurating a safety seminar, a plant manager of an oil industry stated, "our productivity is going to hamper if we don't efficiently implement behaviour safety practices. We should be recognized as a safe organization". Sustainability being a core value of organizations today, behaviour safety approach provides us the best sustainable safety for our fellow employees and workmen". "Safety mostly suffers as an attachment to the contractor, hence the financial responsibility should be of the contractor but safety responsibility must be held with the company" (Chakraborty, 2016).

A group of 27 safety officers and 20 plant heads in a workshop collectively listed a set of safety compromises they allow and violations that the employees practice on daily basis as below:

Production targets contradict safety

Work permits rules are violated.

Global/horizontal corrections are not done

Top management is more concerned about sale not safety

Pressure from seniors that load had to go for marketing

No safety – No operations is a clear instruction from the top management but it is not practiced, as the sync between top, senior, middle, junior employees is lacking.

PPE are given by the contractors but the quality of PPE is compromised often.

Officers and contact workmen are checked differently by the security personnel at the gate. Seniors are not checked but workmen are thoroughly scrutinized.

Speed limit of vehicles by company officers is not complied.

Safety briefing before issue of work permit is overlooked/not practiced.

Production capacity as per OISD guidelines is not followed. Production often exceeds the plant capacity.

Mock drills and night inspections are compromised for production targets.

"Unsafe is ok" is the unconsciously driven mindset in Indian industry what needs a change through BBS approach.

In a concluding session of BBS lead trainers programme on 4th June 2015 (Personal Communication, 2015), the CEO of an Indian copper company emphasized that sometimes it happens that when an observer keeps reporting unsafe behaviours in his department, the HOD may indirectly ask him to suppress it, or it becomes a conflict between the both which is very serious issue, as by not highlighting an unsafe behaviour, one is risking the life of other colleagues. Hence it is significant that the observers and lead trainers don't hide the at-risk behaviours during discussion in monthly BBS meetings for their rectifications. He empathically mentioned, "let us face this issue, and save lives".

Indian industry is now witnessing a positive transformation in safety management. The behavioural trends across 9 sites in India during the year 2015 (Table 1) indicate the varying degree of safe and at-risk behaviours that exist in industrial settings. The correction of at-risk behaviour varied from 30% to 100% and the safe behaviours after correction ranged between 86% to 100% that shows a healthy effect of BBS intervention across sites (Kaila, 2014a).

Table 1
Behavioural Trends across 8 Sites

Location	Number of Observations	Safe Behaviour	At-risk Behaviour	Corrected Behaviour	Correction of At-risk (%)	Safe Behaviour (%)
1	14	10	4	4	100%	100%
2	837	641	196	167	85%	97%
3	5066	4336	730	482	66%	95%
4	727	590	137	128	93%	99%
5	154	118	36	18	50%	88%
6	392	282	110	94	85%	96%
7	661	506	155	119	77%	95%
8	161	128	33	10	30%	86%

Objective

A major objective of this article is to gain knowledge for organizations considering to implementing BBS towards achieving zero unsafe behaviour targeting zero injury at workplaces.

METHOD

The BBS programme was implemented at work sites which included 30 multinational companies from 24 geographically distinct diverse locations in India. Nearly 45000 study participants were trained as mentors and observers over a period of 15 years 2000-2015 which included heads of departments, managers, contractor's workmen, safety officers. This programme included the concept and process of BBS, plant visits for observation and correction of at-risk behaviours, developing road map for implementation of BBS, linking BBS with safety systems such as hazard identification, accident investigation and safety audits, developing training module for imparting training to all employees, formation and functions of BBS steering team. The training participants included managers, heads of departments, contractors, safety officers and contractors staff from across the plants.

This field study includes critical reviews of behaviour based safety implementation and action plan to implement BBS approach and behavioral trends from multinational companies such as a large gas company, aluminum plants, ship-building company and an engineering plant. Both qualitative and quantitative data was gathered from participating companies in India.

This article has covered the following aspects about the full implementation of BBS towards total injury prevention reviewing data of Indian companies implementing BBS at their sites (Kaila, 2013, 2015).

1. Concerns of BBS Steering Committee

2. Reduction in Injuries 6-Months Post-BBS Implementation

3. The BBS Queries & Concerns of CMD

4. BBS review after 1-year of implementation

5. Conclusions and Implications

1. Concerns of BBS Steering Committee

A construction site in-charge speaks out, "we compromise safety due to financial and time pressures from the senior management, as a result of which, I nearly missed a serious accident". Health and safety has become a major concern of industrial organizations all over the world. The key elements shared at the large Gas Company's BBS Project Corporate Meeting on March 2015 were: the BBS project is a Change Management from Culture 1 to Culture 2.

Personality36-16-11

The major concerns of the BBS Steering Committee included as below:

1. Whether HODs are aware of the existing at-risk behaviours?
2. Is BBS really becoming a line function?
3. Are motivational awards for observers/lead trainers in place?
4. Is BBS a part of the monthly operational review as 20% behavioural risk exists for operations?
5. In 6 months, 38% injuries decreased, safe behaviors went up from 70 to 80%, number of observers increased but BBS training is not fully completed for all employees/contract workmen.
6. What is the action plan for achieving zero at-risk behaviour for HODs?
7. BBS banners are still not visible in the plant areas.
8. Quarterly external review is needed for BBS follow-up by the expert.
9. BBS sustainability is simple if we focus on zero compromise/ tolerance for at-risk behaviours. Regular refresher training for existing BBS observers is needed for keeping the momentum on.

Some of the remarks made by the senior managements across Indian work sites are: safety culture is being improved in many aspects as a result of BBS implementation. BBS has made a positive impact on the day to day working by way of enhanced safety consciousness and concern among majority of employees including contract employees towards safe behaviours.

In overall, there is a significant change in safe behaviours and involvement of employees and contractors. The employees are committed for building safer organization marching towards zero incidents and no harm culture for which BBS must sustain in the company. Continuity of BBS approach is the success mantra for total safety culture (Kaila, 2013a).

With BBS awareness, you are trying to enhance your perception about the presence of something that happens just before an accident occurs, which is an unsafe behaviour, and BBS training helps an organization to reduce and remove this, so that the work environment is safe, everybody is safe, and the production, business etc go smoothly. Moreover when you close your eyes to an unsafe, then you open your eyes to a fatal. BBS is an off-shoot of behavioural science research (Kaila, 2014b).

Personality36-16-11

2. Reduction In Injuries 6 Months Post-BBS Implementation
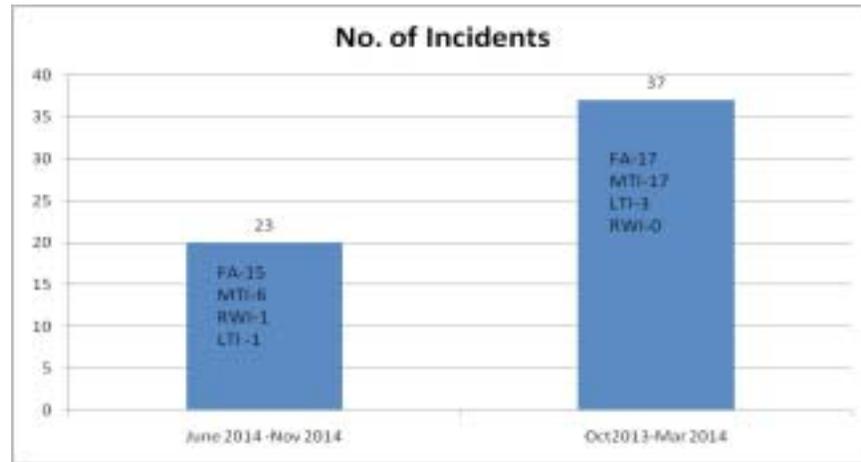
There was a 37% reduction in injuries 6 months post BBS implementation in an aluminum unit.

3.   The BBS Queries & Concerns of CMD

Query: 1. what is the critical take away from BBS journey?

Reply: The critical take aways from BBS journey are: undoubtedly the heightened involvement of people and clarity about the criticality of unsafe behaviours at site and its spot-correction. However it needs to be further drilled down amongst contract workmen that need regular emphasis and accountability by the HODs which is evidently less.

Another outcome of BBS is the declining trend in unsafe behaviours. Critically speaking, the major take away would be to compare and comprehend the safety incidents record before and after the launch of BBS. This is very significant for reaching towards zero injury and zero at-risk behaviour at sites. However this would take a couple of years.

Query: 2. is there any internal assessment being done on the effectiveness of BBS program?

Reply: the internal assessment is being done on the effectiveness of BBS program through the monthly meetings of the BBS steering committees and the functional committees. What weakens the effectiveness of BBS program is the passive leadership of HODs and their weekly interaction with lead trainers. The leadership for safe behaviours from EICs is still not up to the mark. What further weakens the BBS implementation is the

Personality36-16-11

lack of sufficient motivation, reward and recognition for the BBS lead trainers. The ongoing identification and assessment of gaps through six follow-ups and hand-holding by the expert consultant is ensuring complete BBS implementation and its continual effectiveness. Both the qualitative (the field interactions/meetings) and quantitative (data driven) effectiveness index need equal emphasis.

Query: 3. is there any individual feedback system for people undergoing this BBS program, in case it is, what is the feedback?

Reply: the feedback is the spot correction and counselling on the unsafe behaviour observed and safe behaviours appreciated by the trained BBS observers. However all trained observers are not active, hence this individual feedback system is weak as because there is a lack of weekly interactions between lead trainers and observers to regulate this feedback process. What would really strengthen the BBS performance in the organization is the monthly BBS observations/feedbacks essentially being linked to the individual KRA/KRO of employees. The corporate monitoring through monthly reporting from the participating sites in the BBS project is serving as a strong tool and the real time feedback mechanism to sustain its implementation. Finally the continual leadership of top management over the years would assure and sustain the BBS full implementation and the practice of safe behaviours by all sites (Kaila, 2015).

4. BBS review after 1-year of implementation

   BBS review after 1-year of implementation in an iron ore business organization reveals as below:

	2013-14	2014-15		2015-16 till August	
	Before BBS	After BBS	%	After BBS	%
Near Miss	44	16	64	22	50
Incident	50	22	56	13	74
FAI	28	17	39	13	54
MTI	2	1	50	0	100
LTI	3	1	67	0	100
Fatalities	1	0	100	0	100
Total	128	57	55	48	63
Decrease in Total Number	71			80	
Increase in safe acts after BBS %	55			63	

o There is a reduction in LTI, MTI, and first aid injury. At-risk acts have gone down by 80% and safe behaviours are increased by 63%.

o 'Safety is not my concern' has reduced to almost 50%. At-risk behaviours are increasingly being identified. Regular meetings of the BBS steering team are happening. BBS data are being entered in SAP system.

o Reporting of near-miss is encouraged. But when near-miss was reported and a HOD was punished, then people stopped reporting near-misses. Also, as the data entry is by name of observee/defaulter, the observations have gone down from 1200 to 400 i.e. 3:1. Only 40% mentors/observers are active, hence there is a need to refresh and reflect upon the basics of BBS to practice for passive members.

o The company is providing resources if the contractor fails. A weekly observation round by each HOD is happening. Workmen ask for PPE before starting the work. Staff and workmen have started alerting seniors for their unsafe behaviors.

o The BBS drive is there but worker-to-worker (WTW) corrections are not seen. The mentors have to see that the observers training is effective, and it becomes learning for implementation, sharing by observers takes place on weekly basis.

o A safety officer expressed that we allow some minor unsafe behaviour which we should not do. This is in fact atypical of safety officers in most organizations.

o BBS is included in PAP (principles of accident prevention) and PEP (preliminary elaboration of procedures) talks.

5. Conclusions and Implications

Generally, people in Indian cultures are more than casual in safety precautions while crossing roads, travelling in overcrowded public vehicles, not following road safety rules, lack of safety education in schools etc. However, Safety Management Leadership across India has significantly increased due to BBS revolution. There is much pressure on senior managements for implementing safety in plants. According to a General Manager, "So far, BBS was happening as a corporate mandate to find out who is at fault and doing unsafe and take appropriate action, now we have refined BBS approach as a corrective, proactive way. Today as per Board of Directors, safety is on priority list".

Personality36-16-11

This document points out that the safety officers and site engineers allow several safety compromises, as a result of which the violations that the employees practice on daily basis impact the company's business. BBS postulates that it's not only keeping our plant accident-free, but also society free of accidents as well. We should not be a part of accident statistics rather be a part of 100% safe behaviour. The BBS system requires corporatization so that individual plants get integrated and continuous contribution gets appreciated. The ratio of how much a manager behaves unsafe in personal life as compared to work life, on an average, is almost 30:70. Hence there is a reason to emphasize upon self-corrections. One of the plant managers said, "Earlier I did not give time to safety officer, now I am trained in BBS, we both would implement BBS". An active leadership matters a lot in creating an accident-free plant (Kaila, 2014).

There is a direct correlation between percentage of employees/ workmen's involvement and percentage of safety culture. If you involve 50% of employees, you get 50% of safety culture. If you wish to have 100% safety culture, you need to involve 100% employees/contract workmen in observation and spot-correction of unsafe behaviours. As OHSAS: 18001 stated that all organizations must adopt a procedure on human behaviour aspects of safety by involving all employees so that they identify and control the risk at workplaces. The accuracy of observations are necessary in corrections of at-risk behaviours, hence employees must have knowledge about their jobs, hazards, SOPs, processes involved etc. BBS means to fill the missing link between an unsafe behaviour towards safe behaviour of your colleague working with you. A general manager said, "if they (employees) are safe, we are safe, safety is not only mandatory, it's a habit/behavioural pattern, safety trauma can be reduced the BBS way'. Our final goal is to make BBS everyone's life value, hence it is imperative to activate this dormant value of life saving in every human being in order to create safe societies and safe work life for all.

To conclude, if you hope to permanently put a stop to human, financial and production losses due to accidents at your work areas, then you need to essentially empower your manpower to get rid of their at-risk behaviours through BBS implementation and following it continuously by involving all. The key learnings of BBS implementation across industries emerged as follows: every trained employee is a BBS mentor, identification of unsafe acts / conditions becomes a routine activity, reduction of incidents due to timely intervention by observer, safe behaviour a part of DNA, and BBS is the framework for sustaining OH&S Management Systems towards

Personality36-16-11

creating safer workplace. BBS is truly a safety-in-action procedure, as a result of which, a monthly BBS score board is displayed in the plant as feedback to all employees. Finally, safety leadership through BBS system can totally transform performance of a business, taking it to newer heights. The management team must show enthusiasm in behavioural observations on continued cycle in sustaining the program (Kaila, 2014c).

References

GAIL India (2014). Launching of centralized portal on behaviour based safety. December 12, 2014. New Delhi.

Health and Safety Executive (2013). Why leadership is important. Retrieved on June 30, 2013. http://www.hse.gov.uk/leadership/whyleadership.htm

Health and Safety Executive (2005). Good Health and Safety is Good Business. Retrieved on June 9, 2015. http://www.hse.gov.uk/costs/costs_overview/costs_overview.asp

Kaila, HL. (2010), Behavior-based Safety Programs Improve Worker Safety in India. *Ergonomics in Design.* Vol. 18 (4), 17-22.

Kaila, H.L. (2013). Review of BBS implementation in Indian organizations. *World Focus*, 13 (1), 10-16.

Kaila, H.L. (2013a). Is industry really poised for zero accidents? *World Focus*, 13 (2), 14-19.

Kaila, H.L. (2014). Emerging issues and outcomes of behaviour based safety implementation. *Industrial Safety Review,* June Issue, 80-86.

Kaila, H.L. (2014a). A case of behaviour based safety implementation at a multinational organization. *Journal of organization and human behaviour*, vol. 3, issue 2 & 3, 1-8.

Kaila, H.L. (2014b). Implementing behaviour based safety: issues and challenges. *International Journal of Management Research,* vol. 5(1&2), 39-48.

Kaila, H.L. (2014c). Implementing new BBS programs in organizations. *World Focus*, 13 (3), 1, 8-11.

Kaila, H.L. (2015). Field learnings from Behaviour Based Safety implementation: Reviews in Indian Organizations. *Indian Journal of Training and Development,* Vol. 45 (4), 53-61.

Chakraborty, J. (2016). Behaviour Based Safety and You. *Management Guru: Journal of Management Research,* Vol. 4 (1), 136-141.

Personal Communication (2015). A meeting with GM - Operations of a multinational aluminum company in south India.

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE FAMILIAL DYNAMICS OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AMONG TIBETAN ADOLESCENTS

Nishtha Mehra*, N.S. Tung**

Abstract

The concept of Cultural Intelligence is given by Dyne, Earley and Ang and it focuses on how well an individual can successfully adapt to a culturally diverse environment. Based on the four factor model of Cultural Intelligence (Earley and Ang, 2003), the present study attempts to find the correlates between Cultural Intelligence and familial variables in different cultural/ educational settings. Using purposive sampling, Tibetan adolescents studying in Tibetan school (N=50) and Tibetan adolescents studying in non Tibetan school (N=50) were taken. Standardized scales were used to collect data. Data was analyzed using factor analysis and coefficient of congruence. Results reveal the role of familial variables development of Cultural Intelligence. The role of maternal attitudes and paternal acceptance and paternal avoidance were also found to be significant correlates of Cultural Intelligence. The results of coefficient of congruence show that the factors so obtained in two groups are similar. The obtained results have been explicated.

Keywords: Cultural Intelligence, Family Environment, Expatriates

INTRODUCTION

The shift from studying general intelligence to focusing on more specific abilities started from Thorndike's concept of Social Intelligence (Thorndike and Stein, 1937). The level of an individual's General Intelligence is not sufficient to ascertain a person's success across variety of situations. Thus, of late, specific intelligences are being researched upon. Among these, Successful Intelligence (Sternberg, 2006), Emotional Intelligence (Mayer and Salovery, 1993), etc are being studied in order to assess an individual's specific abilities or his/her ability to successfully adapt himself to specific situations. Cultural Intelligence is one such ability that measures how well an individual adapts himself and can successfully thrive in an

   * Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar.

  ** Professor, Department of Psychology, G.N.D.U. Amritsar.

environment that is marked by cultural diversity. Schmidt and Hunter (2000) define Cultural Intelligence as "a specific form of intelligence that focuses on an individual's ability to grasp and reason correctly in situations characterized by cultural diversity". The concept of Cultural Intelligence was first coined by Earley and Ang (2003) and the driving question behind the concept was "Why some but not all individuals successfully thrive in intercultural settings". The concept draws upon Sternberg and Detterman's framework of multiple loci of intelligences that recognizes various covert and overt mental abilities that make up for the overall intelligence of a being. A four factor model of Cultural Intelligence as proposed by Earley and Ang (2003) describes sub dimensions of the ability: Metacognitive, Cognitive, Motivational and Behavioral.

```
  ⎛  CULTURAL   ⎞        ┌────────────────────┐
  ⎝ INTELLIGENCE ⎠───────┤ -METACOGNITIVE  CQ │
                         │ -COGNITIVE  CQ     │
                         │ -BEHAVIOURAL  CQ   │
                         │ -MOTIVATIONAL  CQ  │
                         └────────────────────┘
```
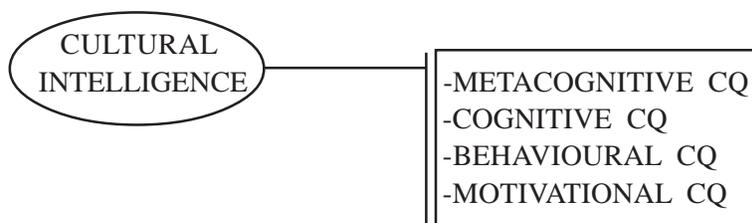
Metacognitve Cultural Intelligence represents how well an individual is aware of his own cognitions, cultural knowledge and cultural assumptions during a cross cultural interaction. People with a strong metacognitive cultural intelligence are conscious of the knowledge they use during such situations and also challenge their perception as and when needed.

Cognitive Cultural Intelligence is the measure of our knowledge about our own culture and how it is different from other cultures.

Motivational Cultural Intelligence is the ability of an individual to direct his/her energy and attention to understand the situations which involve cross cultural interactions and also to be driven by such behavior that support effective functioning in such situations. Motivational Cultural Intelligence has been studied by many researchers as an important component for success in cross cultural interaction (Bandura, 2002; Kanfer and Heggestad, 1997).

Behavioral Cultural Intelligence is the overt capability of the individual to express such verbal or nonverbal behavior that suits a particular cross cultural interaction. While the earlier three facets make up covert

or cognitive abilities in an individual, behavioral facet of cultural intelligence is the overt ability of an individual.

Earley and Ang (2003) have stated that Cultural Intelligence is a multi dimensional construct that encompasses aggregate of the three covert and one overt facet. The overall capacity of an individual to successfully adapt and adjust himself in a cross cultural situation depends upon the aggregate of the four sub dimensions. Though this specific intelligence is characterized by cultural diversity, yet the concept of Cultural Intelligence is not culture specific. The measure of Cultural Intelligence is not bound to any particular culture, rather it can be measured where individuals encounter cross cultural interactions. Likewise, the concept has gained much popularity in organizational psychology. Cultural Intelligence has been studied with various other constructs like Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence (Moon, 2010), personality (Stark, 2008; Moody, 2007) performance (Imai and Gelfand, 2010; Chen, 2010) and cultural adaptation (William, 2008; Ang and Earley, 2007). Cultural Intelligence can also be studied for expatriates or any such individuals who are living outside their home country. Expatriates or refugees thrive outside their culture and are to regularly engage in cross cultural interactions. Thus studying the development of Cultural Intelligence among expatriate adolescents becomes all the more significant.

Environment plays an important role in development and shaping of abilities in an individual. The environment may be studied as home environment, school environment, social environment, etc. Familial or home environment is of prime importance among these as it the first environment in which a child grows and is the prime source of support especially during sensitive phase of one's life as the period of adolescence. Familial Environment maybe studied as the Physical Family Environment which encompasses the family structure, living condition of a family, number of members in a family and so on. On the other hand Psychological Family Environment includes variables like cohesion, conflict, degree of control, autonomy, maternal and paternal attitudes, etc. Research indicates that familial environment holds prime importance in the development of personality (Nakao, Takaishi, Tatsuta, Katayama , Iwase ,Yorifuji ,Takeda, 2000), problem solving (Sternberg, 1997) and plays an important role on development of specific intelligences like Successful Intelligence (Shabnam and Tung, 2014) and Emotional Intelligence (Kalra and Tung, 2005)

Keeping in mind the literature on the role of family in development of abilities among individuals, the present study was designed to study the familial dynamics of Cultural Intelligence. The objectives of the study were:

1. To identify the familial correlates of Cultural Intelligence and the consequent adjustment of Tibetan adolescents

2. To measure Cultural Intelligence of Tibetan adolescents.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

The study was conducted on 100 Tibetan adolescents in the age group 14-18 yrs. Among these 50, Tibetans were studying in Tibetan School and had migrated from Tibet to India (Group I). Other 50 Tibetan adolescents were studying in Non-Tibetan school and had been born in India (Group II). Both the schools followed CBSE pattern so the medium of instruction for administration of tests was kept unified.

TOOLS

The following tools were used to measure the variables included in the study:

1. **Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang and Dyne, 2007):** The scale measures scores on four sub dimensions; Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence (mcq), Cognitive Cultural Intelligence (ccq), Behavioral Cultural Intelligence (bcq) Motivational Cultural Intelligence (mocq) and an overall score for Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

2. **Family Environment Scale (Moos and Moos, 1974):** It yields scores on ten dimensions of family environment namely, Cohesion (c), Expressiveness (ex), Conflict (con), Indepndence (ind), Achievement Orientation (ao), Intellectual Cultural Orientation (ico), Active Recreational Orientation (aro), Organization (org) and Control (ctl).

3. **Family Relationship Inventory (Sherry and Sinha, 1987):** The scale measures the maternal and paternal attitudes on three dimensions: Concentration, Acceptance and Avoidance. Mother Acceptance (ma), Father Acceptance (fa), Mother Concentration (mc), Father Concentration (fc), Mother Avoidance (mv) and Father Avoidance (fv)

4. **Bell's Adjustment Inventory (Ojha, 1999):** The inventory measures adjustment in four areas. These include Home

adjustment (home), Health adjustment (health), Social adjustment (socio) and Emotional adjustment (emotio). It also yield an overall score of adjustment (adjust).

Apart from the above mentioned scales, Family Information Questionnaire was formulated on which information about name, age, parents age, parent's educational qualification, birth order, no. of siblings and socio economic status of the adolescent and his/her family was collected.

RESULTS

The data so obtained was analyzed separately for the two groups using Factor Analysis and Coefficient of Congruence. As the sample size was small, the cut off point for factor loadings was taken as 0.40. Table 1 shows the result for factor analysis for 50 Tibetans studying in Tibetan school. Factor loadings of 1st factor of component matrix shows significant loadings for the four dimensions of Cultural Intelligence along with the overall Cultural Intelligence ($r \geq 0.55$). Familial variables in this group that show significant factor loadings on Factor I include: independence ($r = 0.53$), achievement orientation ($r = 0.48$), intellectual-cultural orientation($r = 0.60$) and organization($r = 0.47$) with positive factor loadings and control ($r = -0.46$) and conflict ($r = -0.57$) with negative factor loadings. Among Parental Attitudes, only maternal attitudes were found to contribute significant factor loadings to the first factor. These include maternal acceptance($r = 0.65$) and maternal concentration($r = -0.66$). Overall adjustment and three sub dimensions of adjustment, namely, home, health and emotional were seen to be significantly loaded on same factor as Cultural Intelligence. Table 2 shows the results of factor analysis for Group 2 i.e. Tibetan adolescents studying in Non-Tibetan school. Familial variables that were found be significantly loaded on 1st factor include independence ($r= 0.69$), active recreational orientation($r = 0.41$), moral religious emphasis($r = -0.71$) and control($r = -0.56$). Both maternal and paternal attitudes were found to be significantly loaded on same factor as Cultural Intelligence in this group (r e'' 0.40). Social adjustment ($r =-0.42$) and overall adjustment ($r = -0.43$) contributed significant factor loadings in first factor.

Coefficient of congruence = The coefficient of congruence for Factor 1 in the both the groups was $r = 0.81$

Table No. 1

Table showing results of factor analysis for Group I

var	COMPONENT								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
c	-	.341	.306	-.335	-.343	.569	-	-	-
ex	.323	-	-	.501	-	.338	-	-	-
con	-.567	-	-	-	-	-	-	.352	-
ind	.531	-	-	-.448	-	-	-	-	-
ao	.485	-	.439	.329	-	-	-	-	-
ico	.606	.353	-	-	.307	-	-	-	-
aro	.372	.452	-	.546	-	-	-	-	-
mre	.302	-	.402	-	-	-	-.585	-	-
org	.472	-	-	-	-	-	-.587	-	-
ctl	-.467	-	-	-	-	.466	-	-	-.422
mcq	.589	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.456
ccq	.719	-	-	-	.439	-	-	-	-
bcq	.791	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
mocq	.733	-	-	-	-	.334	-	-	-
CQ	.918	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ma	.656	-	-	-	-	-	-	.314	-
fa	.321	-	-	-.308	-	-	-	.598	-
mc	-.668	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
fc	-	.671	-	-	-	-	-	-	.353
mv	-	.741	-.303	-	-	-	-	-	-
fv	-	.727	-.389	-	-	-	-	-	-
home	-.667	-	-	-	.459	-	-	-	-
health	-.546	-	.401	-	.454	-	-	-	-
socio	-	-	.510	-	-.385	-	.320	-	.328
emotio	-.566	-	-	-	.354	-	-	-	-
adjust	-.758	-	.422	-	.334	-	-	-	-
Eigen Value	7.379	2.474	1.95	1.70	1.60	1.46	1.34	1.17	1.03
% of Variance	25.38	9.132	7.525	6.541	6.162	5.634	5.160	4.505	3.971

Table No. 2

Table showing results of factor analysis for Group II

var	COMPONENT							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
c	.323	-	-	.336	-	.636	-	-
ex	.370	.339	.332	-	-	-	-	-.352
con	-.327	-	.401	-	.424	.442	-	-
ind	.697	-	-	-	-	-	.325	-
ao	.357	-	-	.531	-.376	-	-	-
ico	-	-	.407	.657	-	-	-	-
aro	.416	-	.322	-	.527	-.365	-	.331
mre	-.717	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
org	-	-	.578	-	-	-	.303	-.410
ctl	-.567	-.413	.340	-	-	-	-	-
mcq	.755	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ccq	.664	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.436
bcq	.651	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
mocq	.689	-	-	-	-	-	-	.302
CQ	.924	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ma	.442	-	-	-.340	-	.345	-.371	-
fa	.499	-	.531	-	-	-	-	.300
mc	-.577	-	.410	-	-	-	-	-
fc	-	-	-.412	-	.566	-	.410	-
mv	-.524	-	-	.435	-	-	-	-
fv	-.434	-.338	-	.333	-	-	-	-
home	-	.774	-	-	-	-	-	-
health	-	.543	-	-	-	-	-	-
socio	-.426	.479	-	-	-	-	-	-
emotio	-	810	-	-	-	-	-	-
adjust	-.435	.881	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eigen Value	6.67	3.35	2.15	1.53	1.50	1.40	1.26	1.08
% of Variance	25.66	12.89	8.28	5.90	5.79	5.41	4.88	4.18

DISCUSSION

The results of factor analysis explain 77 percent variance in group I and 73 percent variance in group II. The variance explained by first factor alone in Group I and Group II is 25.68% and 25.66% respectively. All the variables of Cultural Intelligence are significantly loaded on first factor of component matrix in both the groups. The results show that familial variables have significant relationship in development of Cultural Intelligence in Tibetan adolescents. Results of factor analysis for Group I reveal that various familial variables like independence, achievement orientation, intellectual-cultural orientation and organization are associated with development of Cultural Intelligence. Those families that allow adolescents to cultivate independent thinking, focus on cultural orientation and are characterized by organization, the children from such families are more likely to develop Cultural Intelligence in comparison to those Tibetan families who do not focus on such positive family climate. Two dimensions of family environment, conflict and control have negative factor loadings on the first factor, showing that higher the family climate has conflict and higher is the parental control; the less conducive it is for the child to develop such specific intelligences as Cultural Intelligence. Especially for refugee adolescents, familial environment plays an important role in determining how they function socially or while interacting with people from other cultures. Similar results have also been reported by earlier studies. (Fong, 2004). Gottfried and Gottfried (1984) reported that positive family environment is essential for the development of intelligence in children.

In case of parental attitudes, role of maternal acceptance and maternal concentration were identified as significant correlates of Cultural Intelligence. Role of paternal attitude was not seen to be a significant correlate in development of Cultural Intelligence which may be due to a variety of factors. In case of refugee children this maybe due to dysfunctional families, this minimizes the role of fathers in development of child's cognitive abilities. Cultural Intelligence also correlated significantly with adjustment levels in these adolescents. Thus the findings of this study are in line with earlier studies that depict adjustment as an outcome of Cultural Intelligence. (Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski, 2001)

Perusal of Table 2 shows that familial variables that contribute in development of Cultural Intelligence in Tibetans studying in Non-Tibetan schools are independence, active-recreational orientation, moral religious emphasis and control. In those Tibetan families who encourage participation in social, cultural and other recreational activities and allow for independence

in thoughts and actions, their children are more likely to be culturally intelligent as compared to those families where a strict emphasis on following one's own culture and religion is endowed. Kemp. et al (1997) reported similar results that for development of intelligences, positive family climate is essential. Both maternal and paternal attitudes are also significantly loaded on Factor One. This depicts the role of both parents in developing specific intelligence in the child as Cultural Intelligence. Where the role of only mother was significant in Group I, in this group even paternal attitude was identified as a correlate of Cultural Intelligence. Role of parental attitudes is also seen to be significant in establishing academic intelligences in immigrant students (Fulgini, 1997). Social adjustment as well overall adjustment of Tibetan adolescents also correlated significantly with Cultural Intelligence.

Studying both the groups together, we can see that the dimension of conflict was a significant correlate of Cultural Intelligence in Group I but not in Group II where as moral religious emphasis was seen to be significantly loaded on familial factor in Group II. In case of Tibetan students studying in Non-Tibetan schools, parents might put strong emphasis on their children to follow the strict rules of their religion in order to not let their children get influenced by other cultures. But this in turn, reduces the level of their Cultural Intelligence in adolescents, thus affecting their consequent adjustment as well. The role of fathers was seen to be a significant correlate of Cultural Intelligence in Group II along with role of maternal attitudes but in case of Group I only mother's role was highlighted in development of Cultural Intelligence among Tibetan adolescents.

Lorenzo-Seva and Berger (2006) reported Tucker's coefficient of congruence higher than 0.95 means that two factors can be taken as equal; and a value between 0.85-0.95 indicating that the factors are somewhat similar. The coefficient of congruence is fairly high (r = 0.81) for the first factor so obtained in both the groups. This indicates that the factors so derived in the both the groups, are somewhat similar but cannot be taken as equal. There is some difference in the familial dynamics of both the groups and the consequent development of cultural intelligence among Tibetan adolescents. All the three dimensions of family environment: interpersonal relationships, personal growth and system maintenance correlate significantly with Cultural Intelligence in both the groups. But there is a difference in the dimensions of family environment that associate with Cultural Intelligence. In case of parental attitudes also, where the role of both maternal and paternal attitudes was seen in Group II, only maternal

attitudes were found to be significant in development of Cultural Intelligence in Group I. The consequent adjustment of Tibetan refugee children was also affected by their familial environment and the level of Cultural Intelligence. Thus we can say that the first factor in both the groups shows the role of family in development of Cultural Intelligence but they cannot be taken as equal or exactly same.

Conclusion

The study was conducted in order to identify the familial variables associated with development of Cultural Intelligence in Tibetan adolescents. The results reveal that family environment and parental attitudes has a strong role in developing this specific intelligence and also affects the consequent adjustment of these adolescents in inter-cultural situations. Further research can be directed towards studying the specific relationships between environment variables and the sub dimensions of Cultural Intelligence. The problems that hamper the development of Cultural Intelligence may also be studied.

References

Ang, S. and Dyne, L.V. (2008). Concepualization of Cultural Intelligence. In *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence Theory, Measurement and Applications*. New York: ME Sharpe.

Ang, S. (2015). Cultural Intelligence and Competencies . In Wright, J (Ed), *International Encyclopedia of Social & Behavioral Sciences.*

Fishcher, R. (2011). Cross-cultural training effects on cultural essentialism beliefs and cultural intelligence. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35(1), 767-775

Gottfried, A. (1984). Home environment and early cognitive development: Integration, meta-analysis, and conclusions. In A. Gottfried (Ed.), Home environment and early cognitive development (pp. 329– 342). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Imai, L. & Gelfand, M. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes. *Organizational Behavior And Human Decision Processes*, *112*(2), 83-98.

Kraimer, M.L, Wayne, S.J & Jaworski, R.A. (2006). Sources of Support and Expatriate Performance: The Mediating Role of Expatriate Adjustment. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(1), 71-99.

Lorenzo-Seva, U. and Berge, J.M.F. (2006). Tucker's congruence coefficient as a meaningful index of factor similarity. *Methodology* (2), 57–64

Nakao, K., Takaishi, J., Tatsuta, K., Katayama, H., Iwase, M., Yorifuji, K., & Takeda, M. (2000). The influences of family environment on personality traits. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci*, *54*(1), 91-95.

Oolders, T., Chernyshenko, O.S., & Stark, S. (2008). Cultural intelligence as a mediator of relationships between Openness to Experience and Adaptive Performance. In S. Ang and L. Van Dyne (Eds.). *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement and Applications* (pp. 145 – 158). New York: M E Sharpe, Inc

Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (2000). Select on intelligence. In E. A. Locke (Ed.), *Handbook of principles of organizational behavior* (pp. 3-14). Oxford, UK: Blackwell

Shabnam & Tung, N.S. (2014). Familial Characteristics and Successful Intelligence. *Personality Study and Group Behaviour*, 33(1)

Sternberg, R. (2006). Cultural Intelligence and Successful Intelligence. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*(1), 27-39.

Sternberg,R., and Grigorenko, E. (2013). Family Matters: A System's Views of Family Effects on Children's Cognitive Health. In *Environmental Effects on Cognitive Abilities*, 39-43, New York: Psychology Press.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., and Koh, C. (2008). Development and validation of the CQS: The cultural intelligence scale. In S. Ang, & L. Van Dyne, (Eds.). *Handbook on Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement and Applications,* 16-38. Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.

PERCEIVED WORK ENVIRONMENT IN RELATION TO OPTIMISM AMONG THE EMPLOYEES OF CALL CENTERS

Ruchi Joshi* & Madhu Jain**

Abstract

The present study investigated the relationship of perceived work environment with optimism among the employees of call centres. The sample consisted of 149 call centre employees ,75 males and 74 females with a mean age of 24 years with work experience of 1 year, selected by purposive sampling method from various call centres of Jaipur city like Banana Outsourcing, Genpact, GO-4-Customers etc. Work environment and Optimism were measured by organizational climate inventory(Chattopadhayae & Agarwal, 1976) , optimism by life orientation scale, Revised (Scheier et al 1994) respectively. The results show that optimism was found to be significantly correlated with responsibility which is a domain of work environment for total sample and females, whereas males did not show any significant relation with variables under study.

Key Words: Work Environment, Optimism, Call center employees

INTRODUCTION

The present study intends to determine the relationship of perceived work environment with optimism among the employees of call centers.

Traditional psychology had for a long time focused on what is known as the "Disease model" that focused on alleviating and eradicating the troubles and problems, rather than focusing on the positive aspect of lives. The emergence of positive psychology focused on developing skills and aspects of human lives which would lead to their betterment and enhancement to the maximum in their abilities and strengths.

This rising interest in positive psychology also found its tide flowing towards work and organizational psychology, whereby it led to improvement in the dexterity and practices in the organization to bring about the maximum efficiency and productivity of the employees.

* C/o Dr. Madhu jain, Department of Psychology, University of Rajasthan, Jaipur.

** Associate Professor ,Department of Psychology University of Rajasthan

Personality36-16-13

It was since 2000's with seligman's presidential tenure in APA that more emphasis was laid on positive aspects of psychology, thereby giving a proper shape to efforts made in this direction. Ever since a new a renewed interest is seen in "positive psychology" and like other branches ,positive psychology also found its application in various facets of life, including organizational psychology and work environment.

According to Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970) work environment" is a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way the organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual members it takes the form of a set of attributes and expectancies, which describes the organization both in terms of static characteristics and behaviours, and distinguish it from other organizations, are relative enduring over a period of time, influences and are influenced by the behavior of people in it.

According to Kempner (1987) , work environment is" a social group deliberately created and maintained for the purpose of achieving specific objectives"

The environment concept is not concerned with performance of a single individual or a single unit , nor does it limits itself to relationships among a few members, but, with the social systems of total organizations science and people, technology and humanity, which are essentially different for different organizations, and that is the reason why all organizations have their individual "Work Environment". Work environment is actually the perception, i.e. what the employees see and feel about the culture that has been fashioned and perpetuated in their unit or organization"

Professional life influences many aspects of personality. To a large extent personality emotions like happiness, personal growth, optimism, self-efficacy are related to work and work environment of an individual.

Optimism has been defined as representing a "hopeful disposition" or, "inclination to take favorable views" (Sykes, 1984). It has also been defined in the literature as being a "mood or attitude associated with an expectation about the social or material future-one which the evaluator regards as socially desirable, to his [or her] advantage, of for his [or her] pleasure" (Peterson, 2000,). It is more in this sense of the word that we understand the term in psychology. Optimism then, is about "generalized expectations that good things will happen"(Scheier & Carver, 1985) or, in other words, "generalized expectancy for positive outcomes" (McKenna, 1993). It is obvious that employment of this term in psychology near

Personality36-16-13

more to the everyday usage of the word than the philosophical meaning as provided above.

According to Harter et al (2003) and Rose et al (2006) optimism leads to a sense of ownership which works like upward spiral and leads to an increased sense of achieving the organizational goals thus increases productivity. Moreover, the effect of positive workplace relation is known to lessen the adverse effects of stress on productivity. McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2005) developed a theoretical model to investigate the relationships among subordinate–manager gender combinations, perceived leadership style, experienced frustration and optimism, organization-based self-esteem and organizational commitment and concluded that there was a showed a dependency link between optimism and commitment.

Results of an exploratory study (Dolfi & Andrews, 2007), which aimed to establish optimism as a key variable in overcoming challenges in the project management work setting. The findings suggest that optimism in project managers is an important quality as only 7% optimistic regarded their work environment as negative, while 60% of pessimists thought of their work environment as negative.

Luthans et al (2008) attempted to study the effects of positive mood in health care services. Among other variables studies were optimism and its relation with job performance. The participants' state of optimism was measured through self-report method and performance outcomes were measured through supervisory performance results and these results were consistent with results of the present study which indicate positive relations between measured state of optimism and supervisory performance appraisal.

Chen, Chou & Wang (2015) found that transformational leadership behaviors enhance subordinate performance indirectly, through its increase in psychological optimism.

Optimism also equips an individual to deal effectively with a number of stressors in life in general and at workplace particularly. Faulkne (2015) found Emerging research identifies cyber bullying as a major workplace stress which can end in serious psychological injury. However, Workers who see the 'glass-half-full' rather than half-empty can cope better with the stress of cyber bullying in the workplace.

Optimism affects productivity and growth and workplace and optimism itself is affected by workplace. Due to dearth of literature available for variables in question, present research was undertaken to study whether perceived work environment is related to optimism among

Personality36-16-13

the employees of Call Centers in relation to work environment and its domains.

METHOD

Participants

A total number of 149 participants with the mean age of 22.5 (75 males and 74 females) were selected on the basis of purposive sampling from various call centers of Jaipur like Banana Outsourcing , Go4customers etc. who were unmarried with a work experience of at least an year in an organization and minimum educational qualification was graduation

Measures

Organizational climate inventory developed by Chattopadhyay and Agarwal(1979)it consists of 70 items covering 11 domains of work environment which are performance standard, communication flow, reward system, responsibility, conflict-resolution, organizational structure, motivational level, decision making process ,support system, warmth and identity problems. Reliability co-efficient by Spearman-Brown formula was.89, the factorial and face validity was high.

Optimism was measured through Life Orientation scale (Revised) developed by Scheier et al (.1994) was superseded by the LOT (Scheier & Carver, 1985) or the Life Orientation Test, And has 10 items and is briefer than the original version which came under criticism for a variety of reasons. The LOR (R) has good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha runs in the high .70s to low .80s) and is quite stable over time.

Procedure

To begin the data collection higher authorities and personnel officers were contacted (as per organization's rules and regulations) and told that we were carrying out a research work in the university of Rajasthan and that we were surveying certain variables and antecedents of Organizational Behaviour .After they were convinced about the purpose, requirement and significance of the study, and written informed consent of the participants was obtained, permission was sought to make a list of the Process Developers/ Process Associates. Apart from the questionnaires, a separate structured interview schedule was given to the respondents and information was collected individually. Product moment correlation was applied to find out the relation between variables under study i.e. Perceived Work Environment and Optimism.

Personality36-16-13

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Table 1

Mean and SD values of Males on diff. domains of Perceived work environment and personal growth

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OCI(Total)	221.99	32.520	3.755
Organizational Climate			
Performance standard	22.75	4.064	.469
Communication	34.05	5.664	.654
Reward	13.27	3.269	.377
Responsibility	12.55	3.059	.353
Conflict Resolution	23.32	4.031	.465
Organizational Structure	13.45	2.849	.329
MotivationalLevel	22.05	3.938	.455
DecisionMaking	22.00	4.818	.556
Support	28.55	7.332	.847
Warmth	16.07	4.491	.519
Identity	13.95	3.495	.404
LOT®(Optimism)	13.64	4.109	.474

Table 2

Mean and SD values of females on diff. domains of perceived work environment and personal growth

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean OCI(Total)
Organizational Climate	230.66	35.626	4.141
Performance Standard	23.26	4.259	.495
Communication	34.42	6.958	.809
Reward	13.95	3.083	.358
Responsibility	12.92	3.423	.398
Conflict resolution	23.93	5.219	.607
Organizational structure	15.53	3.401	.395
Motivational level	22.92	4.562	.530
Decision making	22.61	4.184	.486
Support	29.34	6.919	.804
Warmth	17.32	3.672	.427
Identity	14.47	4.594	.534
Optimism	13.93	4.208	.489

A close analysis of tables 1&2 shows the scores of values of Mean and SD of male and female call center employees on variables under study. Results reveal that males scored high on organizational climate inventory (230.66) along with all its dimensions as compared to females (221.99) meaning that males had perceived organizational climate better as compared to females. Males again scored higher on optimism (13.94), which meant males perceived optimism in organizational climate better as compared to females.

Table 3
Correlation between perceived work environment and its different domains with Optimism for total sample

OCI	LOT ®
Organizational Climate Inventory	0.024
Performance standard	0.049
Communication	0.001
Reward	-.085
Responsibility	**.219(**)**
Conflict Resolution	0.107
Organizational Structure	-0.016
Motivational level	0.123
Decision making	-0.032
Support	0.134
Warmth	-0.029
Identity	-0.019
LOT®	0.11

Table 4
Correlation between perceived work environment and its different domains with Optimism forFemales

OCIO	LOT ®
rganizational Climate Inventory	-0.057
Performance standard	-0.067
Communication	-0.03
Reward	-0.15
Responsibility	**.260(*)**
Conflict Resolution	0.128
Organizational Structure	-0.132
Motivational level	0.168
Decision making	-0.177
Support	0.076
Warmth	-0.113

Personality36-16-13

Results of correlation gives us a picture of relationship between different variables under study . Table 3 depicts correlation of perceived work environment with optimism for total sample and it was seen that Responsibility which is a domain of perceived work environment was significantly positively correlated with Optimism (p<.01).Table 4 depicts correlation of perceived work environment with optimism for females and it was seen that Responsibility which is a domain of perceived work environment was significantly positively correlated with Optimism (p<.01). Table 5 depicts correlation of perceived work environment with optimism for males and it was seen that there was no significant relationship between perceived work environment and optimism.

Table 5
Correlation between perceived work environment and its different   domains with Optimism for Males

OCI	LOT ®
Organizational Climate Inventory	0.105
Performance standard	0.167
Communication	0.037
Reward	-0.031
Responsibility	-0.178
Conflict Resolution	0.077
Organizational Structure	0.097
Motivational level	0.065
Decision making	0.089
Support	0.186
Warmth	0.03
Identity	0.109
LOT®	1

The findings of the study supported the hypothesis partially. In case of total sample it was found that optimism was positively correlated to responsibility which was a domain of work environment. Apart from analysis of data from questionnaires administered, the respondents were also interviewed. And in the course of interview they maintained that every time they were entrusted with new responsibilities at work, they were felt

Personality36-16-13

more optimistic about their personal and professional lives as they felt chances of their getting rewarded; financially or otherwise. (promotions, acknowledgements in front of superiors and coworkers etc.) increased manifold.

"Every time I am entrusted with a new responsibility at work, I feel more hopeful about my capacities" G case , Process Associate, Genpact.

"The more complex the task I am handed, the more optimistic I feel about my future with the organization." B case, Team leader, GO4 Customers.

The theoretical foundation for optimism as a strength in work place is largely drawn from the discussions of positive psychologist Martin Seligman (1998). Specifically, he defines optimism as making an internal, relatively stable, and global attribution regarding positive events To avoid the criticism of false optimism, emphasize was laid on realistic optimism (Luthans, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007). In other words, optimism is not based on an unchecked process that has no realistic assessment. This realistic optimism as a state (as opposed to a dispositional trait), includes an objective assessment of what one can accomplish in a specific situation, given the available resources at that time, and therefore can vary (Peterson, 2000). Similar to the other positive psychological capacities, empirical research on optimism in the workplace is just emerging.

Similar to the other positive psychological capacities, empirical research on optimism in the workplace is just emerging. Seligman (1998) found that optimism was significantly and positively related to the performance of insurance sales agents. In addition, in the study of the Chinese factory workers by Luthans et al. (2005), optimism was also found to have a significant relationship with rated performance. Youssef and Luthans (2007) found employees' was optimism related to their performance, satisfaction, and happiness.

Sharma and Srivastav (2013) found a positive relationship was found between work motivation and optimism among artisans are working in small scale surveying instrument industries in Roorkee, Uttrakhand.

In case of females the relationship between responsibility which is a domain of perceived work environment and optimism was significantly correlated. Upon being interviewed female employees maintained that responsibility made them more optimistic towards their careers in present as well as future.

Personality36-16-13

"Every new responsibility is a crack in the glass ceiling" Case D, Genpact Team Leader.

"New responsibilities are tiring some times, but they also mean that the work environment is becoming gender –neutral" Case M Banana Outsourcing.

It only shows that every time new responsibilities were entrusted it not only made females more optimistic towards their careers and future but also helped in the making of a gender neutral work environment.

Above results clearly demonstrates that in comparison to other domains of work environment under study, responsibility was the most important domain. This highlights how responsibility enhances an individual personally and professionally. The more responsibilities given to individuals meaning, they can be trusted with growth of an organization. Organizations should strive to distribute responsibilities in a proper and justified manner to improve the confidence and productivity of their employees.

Suggestions

No matter at what height one reaches there is always room for improvement. Be it an individual or organizations, flaws are bound to remain and through empirical and unbiased observation, improvements can always be made. In the course of this research , the results which came to fore by administration of questionnaires and through personal interviews were as follows:

1. Since   the call centers involve working at odd hours, there should be some flexibility in timings of the working hour, .i.e. without disturbing the discipline of the organization, some consideration should be provided to employees if they face personal problems.

2. The seniors must support the staff working under them. They should be generous with appreciation and not aggressive and intimidating while criticizing, they must always provide proper guidance and should also bail them out of tricky situations.

3. There should be provisions for time to time trainings and development programs for skill development of the employees.

4. There should be provisions of weekly or monthly meetings of juniors with their senior officials so as to voice their grievances, if any, and for proper reporting of progress of work.

Personality36-16-13

References

Chen, T.S.,Wu, C.M., & Wang, Y.C.(2015*).Impact of Transformational Leadership Behaviors and Psychological Optimism on Subordinate Performance in Taiwan's Tourism Hotel Industry.* Open Journal of Social Sciences. 3, 174-179. Retrieved from s. http://www.scirp.org/journal/jss http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/jss.2015.37028on 29/2/2016.

Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E., & Weick, K.E. (1970). *Managerial behavior, performance, and effectiveness.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Chattopadhaya , S.M & Agarwal, K.C.(1976) . *Organizational Climate Inventory :* Agra: National Psychological Corporation..

Dolfi, J.,Andrews, E. J. (2007): The subliminal characteristics of project managers: An exploratory study of optimism overcoming challenge in the project management work environment. *International Journal of Project Management,* 25, 674-682

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L. & Keyes, C. L. M. (2003). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes. A review of the Gallup studies. C. L. M. Keyes & J. Haidt, (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kerry Faulkne(2015) .Optimism beats workplace cyber bullies. *Retrieved from*

http://phys.org/news/2015-08-optimism-workplace-cyberbullies.html on 28/3/2016.

Kempner, T. (1987). The Penguin management handbook. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Clapp-Smith, R. & Li, W. (2008*).* More evidence on the value of Chinese workers' psychological capital: A potentially unlimited competitive resource? *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19, 818-827.*

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J.(2007*)* Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge. *Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.*

Luthans, F., Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F., & Li, W. (2005). The Psychological Capital of Chinese Workers: Exploring the relationship with performance. *Management and Organization Review, 1, 249-271.*

Luthans, F., & Jensen, S. M. (2002). Hope: A new positive strength for human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review 1,304-322.*

Luthans, F.(2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23, 695-706.*

McColl-Kennedy, Janet R. and Anderson, Ronald D. (2005), "Subordinate-manager gender combination and perceived leadership style influence on emotions, self-esteem and organizational commitment", *Journal of Business Research,* 58, 115-125.

McKenna, F.P.,(1993.) It won't happen to me: unrealistic optimism or illusion of control? *British Journal of Psychology* 84, 39–50.

Peterson, C. (2000*.)*The future of optimism. *American Psychologist, 55, 44-55.*

Rose J, Ahuja AK, Jones C. (2006) Attitudes of direct care staff towards external professionals, team climate and psychological wellbeing: a pilot study. *Journal of Intellect Disabilities. 10,105–120*

Scheier, M. F., & Carver, C. S. (1985). Optimism, coping, and health: Assessment and implications of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health Psychology,* 4, 219-247.

Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. (1994). Distinguishing optimism from neuroticism (and trait anxiety, self-mastery, and self-esteem): A re-evaluation of the

Personality36-16-13

Life Orientation Test. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67, 1063-1078.*

Seligman, M. E. P. (1998). *Learned optimism.* New York: Pocket Books.

Sharma, S.K.& Srivastav , S.K.(2013). Work Motivation and Optimism among artisans. *Indian Journal of Psychology & Education.* 3,108-114.

Srivastav. A.K.(2008).Effect of Perceived Work Environment on Employees' Job Behaviour and Happiness. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology,* 34, 47-55.

Sykes.J.B.(1984) . *The concise dictionary of current English.* (7th edition). Oxford. Oxford Dictionary.

Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F.(2007). Positive organizational behavior in the workplace: The impact of hope, optimism, and resiliency. *Journal of Management,* 33,774–800.

BOOK REVIEW

Organizational Psychology (2015) By Dr H L Kaila; New Delhi: IK International. ISBN: 978-93-84588-73-1; 309 pages.

Reviewed by: **Professor Vipin Chilana**
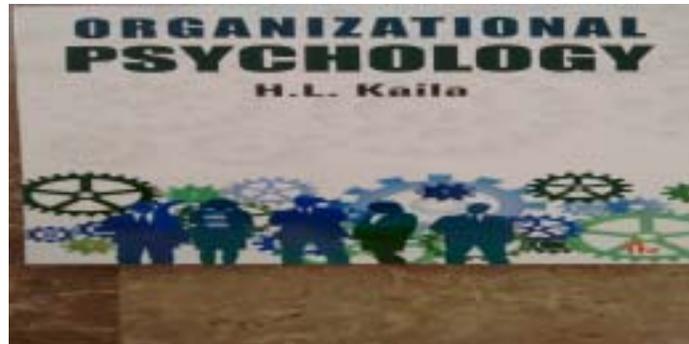
I have seen this subject grow over the years in popularity as well as in richness of context and content. I studied it in my Master's Degree as Industrial Psychology. I taught it as Organisational Behaviour in MBA programs. I found executive MBA students who had some work experience could relate to the concepts more dearly as compared to the fresher. The reason was very simple. They already knew the context, they have had some direct experience of it.

From this single perspective, I find this book does context setting very well with local perspective. The advances in the field call for updations of learning resources at regular intervals. Any new addition is always welcome. This book brings fresh air to the learning perspective. The book covers very well the theoretical concepts, researches, case studies and application of organizational psychology. It would appeal both to the students as well as practitioners.

It covers all major topics such as human resource planning, employee recruitment and selection, training and development, employee engagement and organizational commitment, organizational culture, motivation and job satisfaction, work-life balance, leadership and group dynamics, performance management, employee counseling.

Each chapter contains an interesting "opening story" which sets the tone. Each chapters contain margin notes annotated as "good to know", which will help get a quick reference for the accompanying material. Even the summary each chapter is very succinctly done. I first read the summary of each chapter to get an overview. Each chapter has included well laid out exercises for classroom discussion, field practice, undertaking projects and surveys. Research case at the end of the chapter is a unique icing on the cake. Many chapters have Questionnaires and other tools which readers and researchers can take to know about themselves as well as use then with some adaptation for their own project and research work.

This book is targeted at the undergraduate and postgraduate students of Psychology and Management. It will be also useful to researchers, practitioners and academics in I/O Psychology.

The book has a very refreshing approach of presentation and coverage. This makes it stand out among the plethora of books on this subject.

Vipin Chilana, Professor (Psychometrics) and Division Head, IBPS, Mumbai.

Prof. Vipin Chilana
Institute of Banking Personnel Selection (IBPS)
IBPS House, 90 Feet D.P. Road,
Near Thakur Polytechnic
Off. Western Express Highway, P.B. No. 8587, Kandivali (E)
Mumbai - 400101.

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS

PSGB is published annually in the month of July and copyrighted by Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar. Its printing, distribution, and all other business matters are handled by Director, Press & Publication Department, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar. The editorial office is housed at Department of Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar. All editorial decisions are rendered from this office, after consultation with members of the Editorial Board. PSGB is currently sent to individuals and libraries in some 80 Universities in India and other countries. The Journal is also abstracted in the Psychological Abstracts.

Editorial Office : Manuscripts as well as questions concerning editorial policies and decisions should be addressed to the Editor, Personality Study & Group Behaviour, Department of Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar-143005 (India). The email ID of the editor is editorpsgb@gmail.com

Publisher : Guru Nanak Dev University Press, Amritsar. Any recent issue of PSGB may be consulted for information concerning subscriptions rates. All correspondence concerning subscriptions, delayed or missing issues, advertising and other business matters should be addressed to the publisher.

Email address for submission : editorpsgb@gmail.com

Submission of Manuscripts : Submit two copies of manuscript to the Editor, Personality Study & Group Behaviour, Department of Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar-143005 (India). Submit CD in page maker system of type setting alongwith hard copy of manuscript. Empirical research papers, theoretical papers, review articles and book reviews can be submitted.

Manuscript Preparation

Manuscript should be as short and succinct as possible; 20 double spaced pages are ordinarily maximum although it is realized that some papers must exceed this limit. Figures should be included only if it is absolutely necessary. References should be carefully chosen, and only those that are relevant to the reported research should be given.

Personality36-16-15

Manuscripts should be typed in double spacing with wide margins and only on one side of each sheet. All articles should include an abstract of 100-175 words. Tables and foot-notes should be given on separate sheets. The place of their inclusion in the text must be indicated.

Tables should be typed in double spacing. Each should have a self-explanatory title and should be comprehensible without reference to the text. Data given should be checked for accuracy and must agree with mentions :n the text.

Figures, i.e. diagrams, graphs or other illustrations, should be on separate sheets, numbered sequentially 'Fig. I' etc. and each identified on the back with the author name and title of the paper. They should be carefully drawn, larger than their intended size, suitable for photographic reproduction and clear when reduced in size.

Bibliographical references in the text should be listed alphabetically by author at the end of the article, according to the following forrmat:

Cattell, R.B. The scree test for the number of factors. Multivariate Behaviour Research, 1966. 1-245-276.

Piaget, J. The origins of intelligence in children. New York : Norton, 1963.

Particular care should be taken to ensure that references are accurate and complete.

Copy Right and Permission

All rights reserved. Written permission must be obtained from the Director, Press & Publication, Guru Nanak Dev University, Arnritsar-143005 (India), for copying or reprinting text more than 500 words, tables or figures.

Reprints : Contributors of articles will receive twenty-five copies of their papers free. Additional copies are supplied at cost-price, if ordered when proofs are returned.

Subscriptions : Personality Study 'and Group Behaviour is published Annually in the month of July, by Guru Nanak Dev University Press, Amritsar-143005 (India). Orders should be sent to the Editor, Departrnent of. Psychology, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar-143005 (India).

Claims for missing issues will not be entertained unless made immediately upon receipt of the subsequent issue.

SUBSCRIPTION RATES

SUBSCRIPTION FORM

Editor,
Personality Study and Group Behaviour,
Guru Nanak Dev University,
Amritsar.

Dear Sir,

      Please enrol me/my institution as a subscriber for the research journal entitled **Personality Study and Group Behaviour**, for the year_____ A Bank Draft for Rs._____in favour of the Registrar, Guru Nanak Dev University, payable at Amritsar is enclosed.

                                    Yours Sincerely,

Dated_____   Name_____

        Address _____

                       _____

                       _____

SUBSCRIPTION RATES

	India	**Life Membership**
Individual	Rs. 150.00 per copy	Rs. 2500/-
Institution	Rs. 300.00 per copy	Rs. 6000/-

Note :

1. Subscription can be sent directly to the Professor Incharge, Publication Bureau through Bank Draft drawn in favour of Registrar, Guru Nanak Dev University payable at Amritsar.

2. The list of Research Journals published by University is given overleaf.

RESEARCH JOURNALS

1.	Personality Study and Group Behaviour	Annual
2.	Law Journal, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar	Annual
3.	Journal of Regional History	Annual
4.	Punjab Journal of English Studies	Annual
5.	Journal of Sikh Studies	Annual
6.	Guru Nanak Journal of Sociology	Bi-Annual
7.	Indian Journal of Quantitative Economics	Bi-Annual
8.	Punjab Journal of Politics	Bi-Annual
9.	PSE Economic Analyst	Bi-Annual
10.	Kj drpx (pjˇi`bl)	sˇlˇnˇ
11.	*Pradhikrit* (Hindi)	Annual
12.	Perspectives on Guru Granth Sahib	Annual
13.	Journal of Sports Traumatology and Allied Sports Sciences	Annual
14.	Journal of Management Studies	Annual