



Does Safe Experience in the School Increase School Attendance Motivation?

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IJAPSP Editorial Board

International Journal of Asia Pacific School Psychology is an official journal of the Asia Pacific School Psychology Association (APSPA). A peer-reviewed, bi-annual journal serves as a resource for original contributions in School Psychology. The issue will be published by January and July every year. Potential contributors are requested to send their APA style manuscripts on different aspects of School Psychology through the email: apspa2019@gmail.com at any time. An Instruction to Authors given in this issue should be followed for submission of articles. Please note that the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (7th ed., 2020) and the APA Style web site (<http://www.apastyle.org>) provide a comprehensive reference guide for writing using APA style, organization, and content.

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Editorial Desk

I am happy to write a brief welcome message to our first issue of the “International Journal of Asia Pacific School Psychology” Publishing from Bangkok. This is an official journal of the “Asia Pacific school Psychology Association” (APSPA). Now, there are around 200 members and hope that it will raise to 400 soon by this year. We are enrolling members with genuine need for professional help in the area of School Psychology. In such a way, we created a network among nations nominating country secretaries to promote school psychology in their countries. The first International conference is proposed at Colombo, Sri Lanka in 2020.

Vision

Assur easy accessibility of academic resources, development of skills for mental health and well-being in all children and youth for thriving in life.

Mission

The Asia Pacific School Psychology Association (APSPA) is a professional organization that supports and advocates for school psychologists to provide professional training so as to have a positive impact on school systems to improve academic skills, social-emotional functioning, and mental-behavioural health of all students.

Core Values

Integrity: APSPA is committed to high standards, ethical principles, social justice, honesty, fairness, and treating others with dignity and respect.

Diversity: APSPA honours individual, cultural, and other contextual differences in our own interactions as they shape students’ development.

Collaboration: APSPA collaborates with other organizations, agencies, and others to develop common concern.

Excellence: APSPA promotes high standards of service delivery and resource deployment.

Purposes

- To serve the educational and mental health need of all students
- To provide opportunities for the professional growth of school psychologists
- To provide professional training to meet the specific demands of the particular country as well as the global needs in general.
- To popularize the services and practices of psychology in the schools among the public
- To advance the standards of the profession of school psychology
- To cooperate with other agencies, offices, and organizations on subjects of common concern

Launching of Asia Pacific School Psychology Association (APSPA)

The Asia Pacific School Psychology Association (APSPA) has been launched during the First International Conference on School Psychology held at Hotel Grand Seasons, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia on 11th January 2019 by Dr. Panch. Ramalingam of Pondicherry University. Followed by the launching, deliberations of core committee members unanimously resolved to form office bearers of the association with available school psychologists from different countries to look the promotion of school psychology services in the Asia Pacific region. This will cater to the needs of promotion of common school psychology services in the Asia Pacific region especially in the area of mental health and well-being. The present headquarters is in Malaysia.

Release of the Book Successful Mental Health and Well-being

The volume *Successful Mental Health and Well-being* was released at University of Basel, Switzerland on 11.07.2019. Prof. Gurmeet Singh, Vice-Chancellor, Pondicherry University has released the book and Dato Dr. L. Krishnan, Malaysia has received the first copy of the book. This volume is an outcome of the some of the select papers presented during the 3rd International Conference and 6th InSPA International Conference on Successful Mental Health and Well-being held on 13 – 15 October, 2016 at Pondicherry University, Puducherry. The conference was organized with the collaboration of Indian School Psychology Association (InSPA) by the Department of Applied Psychology of the Pondicherry University. There are twenty papers included in this volume titled *Successful Mental Health and Well-being*. Hope this will help the researchers and professionals to find it useful resources for their research in the particular field of study.

International Seminar on Developing the Japanese Style: Classroom Management Model in Japan and India

The Asia Pacific School Psychology Association, Malaysia, and Department of School Education, Government of Puducherry, and UGC-Human Resource Development Centre, Pondicherry University jointly conducted a one day International Seminar on Developing the Japanese Style Classroom Management Model in Japan and India on Monday 05th August 2019 at Seminar Hall, HRDC, (Silver Jubilee Campus), Pondicherry University, Puducherry.

It was said that the classroom management is a powerful component of the overall classroom climate as it impacts the level of student engagement, the frequency of inappropriate behavior, and, by extension, the quality of student learning (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1994). The Japanese elementary school system follows effective classroom management conducive to the children. Japanese style cultivation of life-Diligence and ethics, etc. are important elements. In an international assessment of students by PISA 2015 (The Programme for International Student Assessment), there were 54,000 children participated from 72 countries.

In 2015 Japan ranking for Science: 2nd place, Mathematics: 5th place, and Reading: 8th place. Japan targeted in many aspects of elementary education. A child image targeted by a teacher, A well-thought-out child, Compassionate child for the surrounding people, A child who can tackle with anything tensely, and Healthy child. Likewise, a class image targeted by a teacher, Class with unity, Class with friendship, spirited class, and name of each classmate. Keeping in view the various aspects practiced in Japan, this International seminar was proposed at Pondicherry University to train and inculcate the primary school teachers of Puducherry.

Keeping in view of the high quality research initiatives, articles are invited from research scholars for publication in the International Journal of Asia Pacific School Psychology. This first issue consists of 16 papers. This is a peer-reviewed, bi-annual journal serves as a resource for original contributions in School Psychology. The issue will be published by January and July every year. Potential contributors are requested to submit their APA style manuscripts on different aspects of School Psychology through the email address: apspa2019@gmail.com at any time. An Instructions to Authors given in this issue should be followed for submission of articles.

I thank Dr. Santhosh Mohanan of Assumption University, Bangkok for his initiatives to bring out the journal as scheduled. I record my sincere thanks to the Editor Dr. Lertsiri Bovornkitti, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand for his timely help to publish the journal from Thailand after completing the official formalities to obtain ISSN.

Last but not the least to thank all the reviewers and contributors of this first issue of the journal.

Dr. Panch. Ramalingam
Chairman
Editorial Board

International Journal of Asia Pacific School Psychology

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Asia Pacific School Psychology Association (APSPA)

Regd No.NSID-005-05072019

Head Quarters: Tingkat 3, Manickavsagam, 1, Jalan Rahmat, 50350 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

The first General Body Meeting held on 13.11.2019 at Pandit Deendayal Petroleum University, Gandhinagar, Gujarat, India has unanimously approved the following Advisors, office bearers, country secretaries and Editors for three years up to 31.12.2021.

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International Journal of Asia Pacific School Psychology Instructions to Authors

The **International Journal of Asia Pacific School Psychology (IJAPSP)** is a referred, peer reviewed and indexed Journal. It is an official publication of the Asia Pacific School Psychology Association. All articles are sent to expert evaluators who examine each paper on several dimensions, such as originality of the work, scientific argument, style of writing, format of the paper, references, citations and finally they comment on suitability of the article for the Journal. In case of review articles, the importance of the subject and the extent the review is comprehensive are assessed.

Plagiarism is treated as an offense. Authors are advised to check plagiarism before submitting to the editor. Prospective authors are expected to abide by it. Before submitting any article for publication, they need to ensure that it strictly abides by the manuscript preparation instructions without any plagiarism.

The improvement of article may be achieved in the following ways (i) more attention to the writing style (ii) more attention to the logical coherence among the sections of the article (iii) attention to detect possible plagiarism (iv) checking whether the paper is strictly according to APA standard.

Submission of article for consideration

(a) Articles based on empirical data: Word limits is 5000

(b) Theoretical or Review Articles: Word limits is 6000

Submission can be made by email till the web portal accepts online submission: Manuscript may be sent to the editor's email: apspa2019@gmail.com. The Editor will acknowledge receipt of your manuscript within three days. The Editor will send the paper for peer review and the comments will be shared within a month. Before submission, please make sure you have provided the following:

- Name of the author designated as the corresponding author, along with their e-mail address, full postal address, and telephone and fax numbers. Abstract about 200 words and four to five keywords
- Text files in a standard word-processing format (preferably Georgia 11 point)
- Graphics of high-resolution in separate page. Preferred formats are either TIFF or EPS.
- All necessary files have been uploaded/ attached.
- All figure captions are available.
- All tables are present (including title, description, footnotes).

Process of Review:

The IJAPSP has a two tier review process. The submitted article will go for a blind review and the reviewers as applicable will inform the corresponding author of the comments. The article may be accepted as it is, or need to be revised (with major or minor revision), or considered as not acceptable. The editor's decision is binding. At the same time, the authors may withdraw the manuscript if they do not find the suggested revisions acceptable.

Manuscript preparation

The manuscript should contain a separate title page with title of the article, abstract, name of the author(s) and affiliations. Author identification notes should be typed only on the title page. E-mail address of the corresponding author may be provided. All correspondence will be through email only. The manuscript should be typed in 1.5 line spacing in Georgia, Font size 11.

Authors should prepare manuscripts according to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA 6th Edition). Formatting instructions and instructions on the preparation of tables, figures, references, metrics, and abstracts appear in the Manual. According to our convenience, the style in table caption and certain style is specific to our journal. Authors advised to refer our publication style in earlier issues. Graphic files are should be supplied as Tiff format. When possible, please place symbol legends below the figure instead of to the side.

Major Components of an article

Title: It should be sharp and short. It should be accurate, no need to prefix "A study of". Please avoid abbreviations in the title. Also please provide a short title of 2/3 words for use as running head of the article. Author/s Name and

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Abstract: It should be short; not more than 200 words. Please mention essential background information, objectives, method and findings and implications in brief. Three to five keywords must be given.

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Introductory part should be precise and pertaining to the specific area of study covering only relevant research. Please avoid use of references more than 15 years old unless they are essential. In providing references within text, please follow the APA style.

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Evaluation of Multiple-Choice Questions in Secondary School Certificate Examination in Bangladesh

Muhammad Kamal Uddin and Tasnuva Tazrin Mullick
University of Dhaka, Bangladesh

Many people believe today that the quality of education has drastically fallen and one of the reasons being Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs). The present study addressed the issue by evaluating the quality of MCQs used in Secondary School Certificate (SSC) Examination, one of the most important public examinations in Bangladesh. The evaluation was made by computing item difficulty, item discriminability, and distracter's functionality. A total of 987 examinees' responses on 5 compulsory subjects namely Bangla 1st paper, Bangla 2nd paper, Mathematics, Islam & Moral Education (IME), and Physical Education, Health Science & Sports (PEHSS) were collected. The mean item difficulty (p) ranged from .55 to .73 (.62, .55, .65, .62 and .73, respectively). The mean item discrimination ($rpbs$) was fair for Bangla 1st paper and PHESS (.29 and .27 respectively), good for IME (.32), and excellent for Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics (.42 and .44 respectively). Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics had highest percentages of functional distracters (100%) followed by Bangla 1st paper and IME (97.5% and 97.37%, respectively) and then by PHESS (94.29%). The findings suggest that though the popular belief is not correct more care in constructing MCQs should be taken especially for Bangla 1st paper and PHESS to improve the quality of student assessment. The findings have implications for teachers, students, educators, policy makers, and school psychologists.

Keywords: MCQ, difficulty, discriminability, distracters' functionality.

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) are widely used in classroom tests in colleges and universities and they often account for a substantial portion of a student's course grade (Mavis, Cole, & Hoppe, 2001; McDougall, 1997). The Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examination is the third in the hierarchy of public examination in Bangladesh which presently relies 35-40% on multiple choice questions (MCQ) for students' merit assessment. Objective type questions were not included before 1992 in this examination. From 1992 objective type questions was introduced and except for some subjects (Bangla 1st paper, Bangla 2nd paper, Mathematics and Physical Education, Health Science and Sports) all the subjects included it. Almost 50% of the marks was allotted for objective questions (N. Uddin, personal interview, October 25, 2016).

These objective questions are developed by teachers teaching the courses. However, a few teachers have proper education and adequate

training in developing high-quality MCQs. Teachers either develop MCQs themselves or rely on MCQ test-banks as a source of questions, both of which may result in question quality which is less than optimal. The intermediate and secondary education board, which is responsible for conducting the SSC examination, has made numerous reforms in our education system since 1996 till now. Quality at all levels of education has been a matter of growing concern for teachers, educators, and policy makers in Bangladesh. It has been a talk of the town today that quality is gradually falling. Many believe that quality of education has drastically fallen and one of the reasons is MCQs, they claim. However, there is no known research in Bangladesh that has empirically addressed the issue. Since there are often substantial deficiencies in tests prepared by course teachers (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1991), it seems prudent to look carefully at the quality of the MCQ items on these public examinations.

A typical MCQ consists of a question, referred to as the stem, and a set of two or more options that consist of possible answers to the question. The student's task is to select the one option that provides the best answer to the question posed. The best answer is referred to as the keyed option and the remaining options are called distracters (Cizek & Oday, 1994). Function of a distracter is to attract students who do not know the correct answer while students who know the correct answer ignore them. The MCQ format offers many advantages. It allows teachers to efficiently assess large number of students with minimal human intervention (McCoubrie, 2004); grading tends to be quick and easy, especially when students indicate their answers on an optically scanned MC response sheet (DiBattista & Kurzawa, 2011). Another important advantage is that a well-constructed MCQ test can yield test scores at least as reliable as those produced by a constructed-response test, while also allowing for broader coverage of the topics covered in a course (Bacon, 2003; Downing, 2002).

Despite these advantages, MCQ testing is often criticized. Some authors have pointed out that MCQs are only capable of testing facts and so are ill suited for testing higher-order cognitive skills (Masters, Hulsmeier, Pike, Leichy, Miller, & Verst, 2001; Walsh & Seldomridge, 2006). Another criticism is that the format of MCQ's lets students guess even when they have no substantive knowledge of the topic under consideration (Biggs, 1999). However, thoughtfully written MC items can serve to assess higher-level cognitive processes, although creating such items does require more skill than writing memory-based items (Buckles & Siegfried, 2006; Palmer & Devitt, 2007). Furthermore, MCQs can accurately discriminate between high-and-low achieving students (Downing, 2002; Schuwirth, & van der Vleuten, 2003).

Good item construction is critical since test grades affect students' educational outcomes and subsequent career paths (Tarrant, Knierim, Hayes, & Ware, 2006). However, well-constructed MCQ items are time consuming and difficult to write, and it is estimated that a good MCQ may require about one hour to construct (Farley,

1989). Teachers often spend a great deal of time constructing the stem and much less time on developing probable options. High quality MCQ requires the plausible options to be well-written (Haladyna & Downing, 1989). Poorly constructed options or distracters frequently contain clues/ cues that allow students to guess the correct answer without the prerequisite knowledge and as a result, the item poorly discriminates between high-and-low achieving students (Biggs, 1999; Downing, 2002). Therefore, where test items are designed to measure educational outcomes, distracters must perform acceptably (Haldane & Downing, 1993).

Many studies have focused on assessing the quality of MCQs. For instance, Oppenheim (2002) studied a business law exam that included 66 MCQs developed by a task force of the Academy of Legal Studies in Business. The source of the items was a test bank. When 41 students took this test, the mean SD was 0.24 ± 0.17 . It is noteworthy that despite the great care that went into the development of these test items, more than one-third had discrimination coefficients less than 0.20. Several studies have looked at how the difficulty and discriminatory power of MCQs change when dysfunctional distracters are either replaced or deleted (e.g., Cizek & Oday, 1994). In a study of four year-end medical school tests containing 389 MCQs, Ware & Vik (2009) considered any distracter selected by at least 5% of examinees to be functional. Using this lenient definition, which ignores whether distracter selection is negatively correlated with test scores, they found only 36% of 1557 distracters to be functional. Tarrant, Ware, & Mohammed (2009) more appropriately defined a functional distracter as one that was selected by at least 5% of examinees and was also negatively correlated with test score. By this definition, only 52% of 1542 distracters on seven nursing tests functioned properly. Furthermore, 12% of items had no functional distracters, and 35% had only one. In summary, the available evidence suggests that many, if not most, of the distracters that are used on various tests function quite poorly.

There are many factors to consider when evaluating the quality of MCQs. One might examine the extent to which items conform

to widely accepted item-writing guidelines (Haladyna, Downing, & Rodriguez, 2002). Deviating from the guidelines can be problematic because it can detract from the quality of individual items and of the entire test (Downing, 2005; Tarrant & Ware, 2008). Another way to examine the quality of MCQs involves analyzing the responses that examinees give, and this is the approach used in this research.

In this study, we will analyze MCQs on SSC Examination 2016 of some subjects (Bangla 1st paper, Bangla 2nd paper, Mathematics, Islam & Moral education, Physical education, Health Science & Sports) and will focus on three key characteristics of individual MCQ: difficulty, discrimination, and effectiveness of the distracters. The hypothesis of this research would be the MCQs used in the SSC examination are poor in quality. It means that the items are not effective, the distracters of the items are poor in discriminating among the more knowledgeable students from the less knowledgeable ones.

Rationale of the Study

The main purpose of the present study, therefore, is to examine the quality of the entire test and individual items of MCQs on SSC Examination. It is very important to evaluate if the questions that are used in such an important public examination like SSC can assess students' actual level of knowledge. The outcomes of such kind of public examinations bear significant importance in the long run in a student's academic as well as professional life. Admission into a good college or university, career choices, income, lifestyle etc. may directly or indirectly depend on the results of SSC as well as other major public examinations.

So, assessing what is being used to assess the students' academic success is mandatory. This study may help our educators and education specialists to find ways to improve the quality of academic achievement tests as well as the education system overall. It may also be helpful to ensure quality education. This, in future, may prevent the malpractices of our education system like leaking board questions, enhanced dependence of coaching centers and so on.

Method

Settings:

The study was carried out in the Department of Psychology. Data were collected from the Dhaka Education Board. The authority of the board was approached to provide the responses along with answer keys and demographics.

Sampling:

The sample size was determined using the following formula:

$$n = \frac{p(1-p)}{d^2} z^2$$

Where, n = sample size, z = 1.96 (value of 95% CI), p = prevalence of outcome = .5, d = .05, therefore, the sample size is n = 384.

It is evident from the above formula that the minimum responses required is 384. However, we collected random responses of about 3000 examinees. To avoid complexities, we analyzed the responses of students who were examined on set A for each of the five subjects. For this we eventually analyzed the responses of 987 examinees. We have evaluated the quality of MCQs on SSC Examination 2016. We delimited our evaluation to those subjects of general education system which are common to three streams namely science, humanities and business studies and which involve MCQs e.g., Bangla 1st paper, Bangla 2nd paper, Mathematics, Islam and Moral Education, Physical Education, Health Science and Sports.

Data Analysis

Data was fed into an IBM desktop computer. The high confidential protocol prevented us from getting any demographic information for our data resulting in no statistical analysis for demographics (t-test based on gender or socio-economic status or educational institutions). Item analysis was conducted using Excel and SPSS for Windows. For assessing reliability of the test, we computed Coefficient Alpha as an index of Internal Consistency Reliability of the test. Then we had computed Item Difficulty Index. The difficulty index of an item, symbolized as p, ranges from 0 (no one selected the keyed option)

to 1 (everyone selected it). When multiplied by 100, p converts to percentages, indicating the percentage of students who got the item correct. The formula for calculating difficulty index is

$$p = \frac{\text{Number of students who selected the correct answer}}{\text{Total no.of respondents}}$$

The higher the p value, the easier the question. If item difficulty index is either very low or very high, its discriminatory power tends to suffer (DiBattista & Kurzawa, 2011). Generally, items with a p value between 20-90% are considered as good and acceptable, between 40-60% are considered excellent (because discrimination index is maximum at this range). Items with p value is less than 20% (too difficult) and more than 90% (too easy) are not acceptable and need modifications (Mukherjee & Lahiri, 2015).

We further calculated Item Discrimination Index by computing Pearson point-biserial correlation between an item and the test score. The discrimination index symbolized as r_{pbs} , is mathematically equivalent to the more familiar Pearson r and is interpreted in the same way. The value of item discrimination index ranges from -1 to +1. Hence, for an MCQ item to function effectively, its discrimination coefficient must be a positive value, which indicates that examinees with higher test scores performed better on the item than did those with lower scores. When an item's discrimination coefficient is positive but small, it is not discriminating properly between the higher- and lower-scoring examinees to contribute to the overall quality of the test. Items having r_{pbs} 40 and greater are excellent items, .30 to .39 are good, .11 to .29 are fair items, 0 to .10 are considered poor items and below 0 are mis-keyed or have other major flaw/s (Hopkins, 1998).

We computed the frequency of Functioning and Non-Functioning distracters along with Distracter Discrimination Power, and Distracter Efficiency (DE. Discriminating power measures, the difference in the proportion of responses between the upper and lower 27% of examinees (Ebel & Frisbie, 1991). Distracters are considered discriminating if the index for them is negative. Distracter Efficiency (DE) was determined for

each item based on the number of functioning distracters (FDs) in it and ranges from 0 to 100%. If an item contains three or two or one or nil nonfunctioning distracters (NFDs), then DE would be 0 or 33.3 or 66.6 or 100% respectively (Gajjar, Sharma, Kumar, & Rana, 2014).

Results

The internal consistency reliability index namely Cronbach alpha of the MC questionnaire for all the five subjects are presented in Table 1. Table 2 presents the interpretation of p and r_{pbs} value for all the items of the subjects. The Table 3 represents the frequency of items with nonfunctioning distracters and distractor efficiency. Table 4 shows the correlation among the narrative and objective scores. In Table 5, distractor analysis of the five subjects can be found. The proportion of students choosing all the options for all the items, the discrimination index of the items and the discrimination power of the distracters can be found in Table 6 in the supplemental materials. Also, the item characteristic curves for each of the items of all the subjects are also attached as supplemental material. These parameters for the five selective compulsory subjects are sequentially presented in the next section.

Table 1: The internal consistency reliability of the MC questionnaires of the five subjects

Subjects	Cronbach Alpha (α)
Bangla 1st paper	.83
Bangla 2nd paper	.91
Mathematics	.92
IME	.85
PEHSS	.78

Note. IME = Islam and Moral Education, PEHSS = Physical Education, Health Science and Sports

Bangla 1st paper: From Table 2 it is seen that for Bangla 1st paper the average score of the students on the objective portion was found to be 24.80 which is 62% of the total score. Out of 40 MCQs, 2 (5%) were very difficult and 5 (12.5%) were very easy. Questions with difficulty index ranging from .13 to .97 were found. The mean p was .62. There were 7 (17.5%) poor,

13 (32.5%) fair, 9 (22.5%) good and 11 (27.5%) excellent questions considering the r_{pbs} value. The mean r_{pbs} was found .29 and the minimum and maximum values of r_{pbs} were .01 and .59 respectively. From Table 3 we can see that in Bangla 1st paper there were 39 (97.5%) of the questions which had no NFDs and 1 (2.5%) had 1 NFD. For the items with no NFDs, the mean p, mean discrimination power and mean r_{pbs} values were .588, .399 and .299 respectively. The same parameters for MCQs having 1 NFD are .958, .057 and .086 respectively. Essay mark and objective mark were found to be moderately correlated (.344) for this subject. So, Bangla 1st paper questionnaire was found to be moderate in assessing the students' knowledge level and discriminating among high and low scorers.

Bangla 2nd paper: The value of reliability coefficient for Bangla 2nd was found to be very high which is .91. The mean test scores of the students was 22.17 and all the questions fall within the acceptable range of p. The arithmetic mean of p for all the 40 questions is .55; minimum and maximum values of p are .23 and .77 respectively. A substantial portion of the

questions have excellent r_{pbs} value, 24 (60%) out of 40. 12 (30%) of the questions are good and the remaining 4 (10%) are fair items considering the r_{pbs} value. There are no mis-keyed or poor items for this subject. The mean, minimum and maximum values of r_{pbs} for this subject are .42, .14 & .56 respectively. All the 40 questions had no NFDs. The mean p mean discrimination and mean r_{pbs} for these questions are .554, .552 and .419 respectively. The correlation coefficient between essay mark and objective mark was .320 which is moderate. The statistics suggest that Bangla 2nd paper MC questionnaire was satisfactorily assessing students' knowledge level as well as discriminating among higher and lower scorer students.

Mathematics: The Cronbach alpha coefficient value for mathematics was found to be .92 which is the highest among the subjects within our consideration. On the average students got an average score of 26.98 on the test. Although there were 40 questions, there was one item that had more than one correct answer. We had excluded such kind of questions as it could mislead and neither can discriminate among

Table 2: Descriptive statistics and no. of items falling within or out of the acceptable range of difficulty index and discrimination index for all the subjects

Subjects	Mean test scores	Mean SD of scores	No. of item within the range of difficulty index (p)				Mean p (Min-Max)	No. of items within the range of corrected item total correlation (r_{pbs})					Mean r_{pbs}	Min r_{pbs}	Max r_{pbs}
			p < .20	.20 ≤ p ≤ .90	p > .90	$r_{pbs} < 0$		$r_{pbs} ≤ .10$	$.11 ≤ r_{pbs} ≤ .29$	$.30 ≤ r_{pbs} ≤ .39$	$r_{pbs} > .39$				
Bangla 1st paper	24.80	0.42	2	33	5	0.62 (0.13-0.97)	0	7	13	9	11	0.29	0.01	0.59	
Bangla 2nd paper	22.17	0.48	0	40	0	0.55 (0.23-0.77)	0	0	4	12	24	0.42	0.14	0.56	
Mathe-matics	26.98	0.44	0	38	1	0.65 (0.33-0.92)	0	1	4	4	30	0.44	0.00	0.61	
IME	26.74	0.42	0	36	2	0.62 (0.27-0.95)	0	4	9	10	15	0.32	0.00	0.54	
PEHSS	25.53	0.38	0	26	9	0.73 (0.29-0.97)	1	1	18	10	5	0.27	-.07	0.46	

Note. IME= Islam and Moral Education, PEHSS= Physical education, Health Science and Sports, p = Difficulty index and r_{pbs} = Discrimination index of the item.

students properly. So, for mathematics we considered 39 items. Among the 39 items 38 (97.4%) fall within the acceptable range of p. One item was too easy. The arithmetic mean of the p values is .65. 30 (76.9%) of the items had excellent r_{pbs} value, 4 (10.3%) were good, 4 (10.3%) were fair and one (2.5%) was poor considering the acceptable range of r_{pbs} values. The values of r_{pbs} ranged from 0 to .61. The mean r_{pbs} value was .44. From Table 3 it is seen that all the 39 items had no NFDs. The mean p means discrimination power and mean r_{pbs} for these items are .666, .561 and .449 respectively. The essay mark and objective mark are highly correlated (.672) for this subject. It is evident that the MCQs perform adequately with respect to the subjects under consideration.

Islam and Moral Education: From Table 1 the reliability coefficient of this subject is found to be .85. Students, on average, got 26.74 score. Two items were found to be very easy and 36 of them were acceptable. The remaining two had more than one option correct and were excluded from our consideration. The mean p value is .62 for this subject; the range of p was .27 to .95. 15 (39.5%) items were excellent, 10 (26.3%) items were good, 9 (23.7%) items were fair and 4 (10.5%) items were poor considering the r_{pbs} values. The mean r_{pbs} value was found to be .32. 37 (97.368%) of the items had no NFDs. The mean p for these items was .646, mean discrimination power was .437 & mean r_{pbs} was .334. The remaining 1 item had one NFD. The p, discrimination power and r_{pbs} value for this

Table 3: The distracter efficiency, mean difficulty index and mean discrimination index (D and r_{pbs}) of items with and without non-functioning distracters

Subjects	Parameter	Items with 0 NFD (DE = 100%)	Items with 1 NFD (DE = 66.67%)	Items with 2 NFDs (DE = 33.33%)	Items with 3 NFDs (DE = 0%)
Bangla 1st paper	Number (%)	39 (97.5)	1 (2.5)	0	0
	Mean p	0.588	0.958		
	Mean D	0.399	0.057		
	Mean r_{pbs}	0.299	0.086		
Bangla 2nd paper	Number (%)	40 (100)	0	0	0
	Mean p	0.554			
	Mean D	0.552			
	Mean r_{pbs}	0.419			
Mathematics	Number (%)	39 (100)	0	0	0
	Mean p	0.666			
	Mean D	0.561			
	Mean r_{pbs}	0.449			
Islam and Moral Education	Number (%)	37 (97.368)	1 (2.632)	0	0
	Mean p	0.646	0.847		
	Mean D	0.437	0.348		
	Mean r_{pbs}	0.334	0.338		
Physical Education, Health Science and Sports	Number (%)	33 (94.286)	2 (5.714)	0	0
	Mean p	0.716	0.951		
	Mean D	0.353	0.113		
	Mean r_{pbs}	0.271	0.175		

Note.DE= Discriminator efficiency p = Difficulty index, r_{pbs} = Discrimination index of the item and D= Discrimination power of the distracters.

item was .847, .348 & .338 respectively. The correlation between essay mark and objective marks for this subject was poor (.299). These suggest that MCQs of this subject was moderate from all the perspectives.

Table 4: Correlation between objective and narrative scores of the five subjects

Subjects	Correlations
Bangla 1st paper	0.344**
Bangla 2nd paper	0.320**
Mathematics	0.672**
Islam and Moral Education	0.299**
Physical Education, Health Science and Sports	0.317**

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

Physical Education, Health Science and Sports: It had the lowest value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient value which is .78 compared to the other subjects. Mean test score was 25.38. This subject had total 35 MCQs among which 9 are too easy and the remaining ones are acceptable. The range of difficulty index was found to be .29 to .97 with a mean of .73. A very rare case is found for this subject considering the r_{pbs} value. One item had a negative r_{pbs} value which suggests that the item was mis-keyed and

needs to be revised or omitted. There was one item which was poor, 10 items were good and only 5 had excellent r_{pbs} values. As many as 18 items had fair r_{pbs} values. The items had a range of -.07 to .46 r_{pbs} values with a mean of .27. From a distracter's functionality perspective 94.286% (33) were functioning properly. The remaining 5.715% (2) had one nonfunctioning distracter. Students' essay marks and objective marks are found to be moderately correlated (.317). Therefore, among the five compulsory subjects MCQs of PEHSS were found to be poor.

Discussion

This study was aimed at evaluating the quality of MCQs used in five compulsory subjects (Bangla 1st paper, Bangla 2nd paper, Mathematics, IME and PEHSS) of the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examination of Bangladesh, 2016. For this purpose, the Cronbach alpha, as a measure of internal consistency reliability was calculated for the MCQ questionnaire of the subjects under consideration in this research. From Table 1 it is revealed that among the five subjects, the Cronbach alpha for Mathematics was the highest (.92) and for PEHSS was the lowest (.78). The lowest value which is .78 is considered as acceptable according to George and Mallery (2001). High values of Cronbach alpha suggest

Table 5: Distracter analysis of the five subjects

Subjects	No. of items	No. of distracters	No. (%) of FD	No. (%) of NFD	No. (%) of items with no NFD (DE = 100%)	No. (%) of items with 1 NFD (DE = 66.67%)	No. (%) of items with 2 NFDs (DE = 33.33%)	No. (%) of items with 3 NFDs (DE = 0%)
Bangla 1st paper	40	120	119 (99.17)	1 (0.83)	39 (97.5)	1 (2.5)	0	0
Bangla 2nd paper	40	120	120 (100)	0	40 (100)	0	0	0
Mathematics	39	117	117 (100)	0	39 (100)	0	0	0
Islam and Moral Education	38	114	113 (99.12)	1 (0.88)	37 (97.37)	1 (2.63)	0	0
Physical Education, Health Science & Sports	35	105	103 (98.01)	2 (1.90)	33 (94.29)	2 (5.71)	0	0

that items of a set measure different substantive areas within a single construct. So, it can be said that MCQs of Mathematics are excellent whereas MCQs of PEHSS are acceptable and measure different domains of knowledge within the respective subjects.

From Table 2 it is seen that Bangla 2nd paper had the lowest (22.17) whereas Mathematics had the highest (26.98) mean test scores. Bangla 2nd paper had the highest mean SD (.48) followed by Mathematics (.44), IME (.42), Bangla 1st paper (.42) and lastly PEHSS (.38). This can be interpreted as Bangla 2nd paper had the highest SD, so the scores are spread out over a wider range of values compared to PEHSS, which had the lowest mean SD value. Low SD value suggests that the scores are closer to the mean. These mean SD values are higher than the value Oppenheim found in 2002.

Considering the difficulty index (p), it is observed that none of the subjects include too difficult items ($p < .20$) except for Bangla 1st paper. There were two items with less than .2 difficulty index hence considered as too difficult items. These findings are also contradictory with Oppenheim's study. Oppenheim found one third of the items to be very difficult but in our study only Bangla 1st paper had two very difficult items. All the subjects included one or more too easy items ($p > .90$) except for Bangla 2nd paper. For Bangla 2nd paper all the 40 items were acceptable as p of all the questions of this subject fall within .23 to .77 range. It is noteworthy that PEHSS had too many easy items as well as a low mean SD value. This suggests that the scores of 987 examinees for this subject show less variation and are closer to the mean as it had too many easy questions. Since there were too many easy questions, both the more knowledgeable and less knowledgeable students could answer them correctly and so the scores of both more and less knowledgeable students did not deviate much from the mean. The nine items which were too easy could not discriminate among students. This would be clearer when the discriminatory index is also seen.

According to Hopkins (1998) range of r_{pbs} values, no mis-keyed or questions with other major flaw were found for any of the subjects except for PEHSS. It had one such item which had $-.072$ r_{pbs} value. This question need to be omitted or revised. There were no poor items in Bangla 2nd paper but there were as many as 7, 1, 4 and 1 poor items in Bangla 1st paper, Mathematics, IME and PEHSS, respectively. Bangla 1st paper had 13 fair, 9 good and 11 excellent items, Bangla 2nd paper had 4 fair, 12 good and 24 excellent items, Mathematics had 4 fair, 4 good and 30 excellent items, IME had 9 fair, 10 good and 15 excellent items and at last PEHSS had 18 fair, 10 good and only 5 excellent items. From the discrimination index perspective, Mathematics subject performed satisfactorily while PEHSS shows poor performance.

The mean r_{pbs} value for all the five subjects was found to be consistent with the mean SD and p found for these subjects. Mathematics and Bangla 2nd paper can excellently discriminate while PEHSS can discriminate fairly (as the mean r_{pbs} was .27) among students. If the mean p value and the mean r_{pbs} are considered, it is evident that the subject which has the lowest mean r_{pbs} value (PEHSS; 0.27) also has the highest mean p value (0.73). This indicates that items of PEHSS were comparatively easier than other subjects and discriminate fairly among high and low scoring students.

The Table 3 represents the number of items with nonfunctioning distracters (NFDs) for each subject. By considering the two criteria required for a distracter to be an NFD, it is observed that none of the subjects included items more than one NFD. For Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics, all the items had functional distracters. Bangla 1st paper and IME, both subjects had one item which had 1 NFD and PEHSS had two items with one NFD. So, unlike the findings of Tarrant et.al (2009) we found only few NFDs for all the five subjects. Although there were many distracters which were selected by less than 5% of the examinees, only a few had positive or zero discrimination correlation. These findings are consistent with the findings

of DiBattista and Kurzawa (2011) that as the number of functional distracters increased the discrimination power also increased. As Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics had no NFDs, the mean discrimination index for these two subjects were found to be the highest (.42 & .44 respectively).

From Table 3 it can also be seen that for Bangla 1st paper the p , D and r_{pbs} of the item which had one NFD were .958, .057, and .086 respectively. For IME the p , D and r_{pbs} of the one item which had an NFD were .847, .348 and .338 respectively. For the two items of PEHSS which had an NFD, the arithmetic mean of p , the mean of D and the mean of r_{pbs} were .951, .113 and .175 respectively. It is noteworthy that items with one NFD had high p values and low discrimination values. Item with greater p value makes the item easier and this automatically decreases its discrimination power which is what we have found in our current study. Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics had all the items with 100% of discriminatory efficiency (DE), Bangla 1st paper had 39 items with DE 100% and 1 item with 66.67% of DE, IME had 37 items with 100% of DE and one item with 66.67% of DE and finally PEHSS had 33 items with 100% of DE and two items with 66.67% of DE.

The correlation among the examinees' narrative scores and objective scores have also been calculated and presented in Table 4. The scores of narrative and objective portions were found to be highly correlated for Mathematics (.672). The correlation value for Bangla 1st paper, Bangla 2nd paper, and IME represents moderate correlation (.344, .320 & .317 respectively). PEHSS had the lowest correlation between the narrative and objective scores which was .299. Table 5 shows that for all the 5 subjects, there are no items with two or three NFDs. Bangla 1st paper, IME and PEHSS had respectively 1, 1 and 2 items with 1 NFD. But all the distracters of Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics were found to be functioning.

So, it can be said that our teachers do not construct a low-quality questionnaire for students' assessment. The objective portion of

two subjects out of the five we have focused on in the research, namely Bangla 2nd paper and Mathematics shows satisfactory results. But for Mathematics there was one and for IME there were two such items which had more than one correct option. These items or their distracters must be revised. Bangla 1st paper and IME questionnaires perform moderately from all the perspectives. PEHSS performs poorly from all the perspectives. The overall performance of the five subjects of SSC examination 2016 was not very poor according to previous studies but there is enough room for improvement.

This study had some limitations. Due to budget and time constraints, we could only analyze the MCQ portion of the SSC examination. The inclusion of the narrative part in the analysis could have more precisely assessed and the quality of the present education system. Another limitation is that we considered only five compulsory subjects. Large scale studies should be encouraged that would consider all the subjects of this level. This study only took Dhaka board into account which can also be viewed as a shortcoming. All the eight boards should be considered if we want to generalize the results nationally.

Methodologically there were some limitations too. One was, not taking the item writing guidelines into account. The findings of this study could be more efficient if guidelines would be considered. Additional analysis considering the Bloom's taxonomy could also be performed. In this study we mainly focused on the classical test theory. Following modern test theory would have produced more standardized findings. Lastly if the results of several years of SSC examination could be included in the analysis, it would have been very informative.

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How Teachers Enable School Students to be Resilient in Times of Ranau Earthquake

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The Ranau Earthquake that struck on 5, June 2015 was a new disaster in Sabah and caused many Sabahan in panic. The unpredicted disaster also caused serious impact on all aspects of life in Sabah. The earthquake has caused severe damage to ten primary schools and eight secondary schools in the vicinity of the epicenter; although no casualties were reported. However, the disaster has passing deep psychological effects among students. In this study, we examine how school teachers enabled student to be resilient during and after the disaster. Based on the interviews of two elementary and two high school students it was revealed that most of the teachers used WhatsApp to support resilience during and after the earthquake. Interviews with two primary and two secondary school teachers revealed there two main reason for them to communicate with students namely, delivering emotional aid and monitoring their stress. Based on student interviews, five content categories of emotional support were identified: caring, reassuring, emotion sharing, belonging, and distracting. The main contribution of this study is social media can be used as spontaneously and proactive tool to support students resilience during and after the earthquake trauma.

Keywords: earthquake, resilience, WhatsApp, emotional support.

The earthquake refers to the vibrations experienced by the crust when energy is released due to friction or plate friction. This shock will produce a seismic wave that is in the form of a circle starting at the center of the quake. It occurs in three stages, namely the initial tremor, the main shake and the end of the tremors. The stronger the tremors will be, the greater the seismic waves to be released and the earthquake phenomenon will become more and more powerful. According to Arbogast (2014) and Strahler (2013) the friction between the two plates allows energized energy. The accumulated power that cannot be buried again will be released. This causes the earth's crust to vibrate. An earthquake usually occurs along the continental plate and 75% of Earthquakes in the world are in effect of the Pacific Api Link. Generally there are two types of earthquakes that occur, namely the technological and volcanic earthquakes. Tectonic earthquakes occur as a result of sudden energy releases when tectonic plates collide, diverge, and diffuse between each other. While volcanic earthquakes occur as a result of volcanic eruptions that cause magma

movement and breakdown of the rocks in the holes.

Malaysia is one of the world's most strategic geographical locations and is safe from earthquake threats because it is located outside the Circle line (Felix Tongkul, 2015) which is the main zone of volcanoes and earthquakes. However, Malaysia has experienced a series of small earthquakes which have been impacted by neighboring countries in the earthquake zone (Mohd Izham Unnip, 2015). For example, in 2007-2008, the Richter scale earthquake between 2.7 and 3.5 occurred in Bukit Tinggi and was believed to be caused by a strike-slip and also associated with the release of earth pressure due to earthquakes occurring in Sumatra, Indonesia (MOSTI, 2009). Additionally, since the 1960s, Sabah located on Plat Sunda was exposed to 80 series of earthquake catastrophe with a strength ranging from 3.3 to 5.0 Richter scale.

Felix Tongkul (2015) geologist from University Malaysia Sabah states that almost all areas in Sabah have the risk of earthquake and this level

of risk varies according to the area based on the activity of seismic activity or the movement of the earth in each area. However, he stressed that the Ranau-Kundasang and Lahad Datu-Kunak areas were at higher risk than elsewhere. In addition, the Sabah Meteorological Department reported in the next 20 years, a strong scale earthquake will hit Sabah.

Sabah Earthquake

Razan and Ebit (2015) reported that since 1897, in the north and northeast of Sabah, have experienced at least 80 earthquakes. On June 5, 2015 a powerful earthquake with a 5.9-magnitude scale in the Ranau area was one of the districts in the North West Coast of Sabah. The Center for Earthquake and Tsunami National reported the epicenter centered at 6.1 north, 116.6 easts, about 16 kilometers south-west of Ranau. Earthquakes were detected at a depth of 54 kilometers below the ground in Tambunan, inland and west coast, including Tuaran, Kota Kinabalu, Beaufort and Kota Belud. Statement from the Senior Director of the National Earthquake & Tsunami Center of the Malaysian Meteorological Department, Dr. Wan Azli Wan Hassan said that the crossover lines or rock layers in the earth moving between blocks and other blocks were suddenly one of the causes of this catastrophic event. The Meteorological Department reported that 100 follow-up shocks took place after the earthquake including the Richter 5.1 scale earthquake, early June 13 (Singh, Rathakrishnan, Talin, Norizah, & Roslee Talip, 2017). The earthquake has caused severe damage to ten primary schools and eight high schools. However, no casualties were reported. The Ranau District Education Office reported that among the damage that occurred was the fracture of the school building. An earthquake that took place on 5, June 2015 also disrupted the well-being of life and profound psychological effects were seen amongst rural pupils and teachers. A study conducted by Singh et al., (2017) shows students living around schools near the epicenter point are very worried and traumatized by the earthquake shaking. This is because they are not well-prepared and ready for this disaster. These concerns and trauma cause the students to have sleep issues

enough for fear of an earthquake following. Therefore, this study conducted to studies how school teachers support student resilience, that is: their ability to maintain stable levels of psychological and behavioral functioning in the face of earthquake in Ranau.

The Current Study

The data for the current study was collected after Ranau hits by Earthquake on 5 June 2015. The data collected through semi-structured, one to one interview.

Method

Participants

The information for the present study was gathered after six months of Ranau earthquake. Random sampling methods were applied to select two secondary school teachers and two primary school teachers. A total of two female and male teachers were selected. The same sampling methods were applied to selected two primary and two secondary school students.

Teacher data collection

A one-on-one, in-depth interview was conducted with two secondary and two primary school teachers at their school meeting rooms. According to Guest, Bunce, & Johnson (2006) in depth interviews is a best choice to reveal insight into respondent and to give a more profound understanding into respondents' experiences, emotions and attitude. A total of six one to one interview was conducted. The interviews were conducted by the trained research assistants for 60 to 90 minutes and were audio-taped.

Student Data Collection

The interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis in the school's administrative meeting room. The venue was chosen because it was cozy, appropriate, and secured of interruptions. A total of six interviews were conducted. Each interview session began with a brief description of the structure of the interview to be conducted, and ended with the researcher thanking the student for their participation and ensuring them of the confidentiality of their responses. The researcher also assured the students that their responses will be kept confidential. Each interview session took around 50 and 60 minutes

to be conducted and all the sessions were audio taped.

Data Analysis

The verbal content of the interviews data in the current study was transcribed and were analysed based on the six phases of thematic analysis suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006): a) the audiotapes of the student participants were transcribed verbatim. The transcribed version was then checked again with the tapes for accuracy; b) open coding was used to create categories or related codes from the initial points, this having been identified in the data familiarization process; c) The initial codes created during the open coding were refined. The refined codes were then analysed with a view to re-arranging and collating the different codes in potential themes; d) the initial themes were reviewed again to refine, combine or separate them to generate overarching themes e) examining the validity of the themes with respect to the data set as a whole by moving back and forth between the data extracts and themes f) the themes using direct quotations from the data set. The findings were then triangulated with the quantitative findings to provide explanation and better understanding of this study findings.

Results

Students view on how school teachers contact them after the earthquake:

Almost all the student participants were saying that the schoolteachers used WhatsApp, telegram and text messages to contact them. Below are some of the citations from the students' responses

"Teacher always contacts me through WhatsApp and advises me not to be afraid and everything will be alright" (Participant 1)

"She messaged me last night through telegram. She asked me to pray, stay strong and not get afraid of the earthquake" (Participant 2)

The above responses seem to suggest that social media can be used as one of the important tools to support students' emotions during natural disaster.

Student perspectives on benefit of communication with their teachers:

Three of the students' participants reported the communication with their teacher make them feel that the teachers care for their emotional state during and after the earthquake. For example participant 2 was saying:

"I had a more grounded suspicion that all is well and good since I realized that the teacher was caring and thinking about us." (Participant 3)

The respondent elaborated further that the conversations with the teacher act as an interference helping them to divert their attention from the negative experiences which helped the students to cope with the situation by taking their mind of the stressful events.

Another Student mentioned that having communication interaction with their teacher as a platform for emotional sharing. Students reported that their teachers were available figure with whom they could express their fears and share their distress.

Another student explained that the conversation with their teacher as a stage for passionate sharing. Students detailed that their teacher were accessible figures with whom they could share their feelings of dread and offer their distress.

The reason for teachers to interact with students :

The teachers' interview data analysis yielded two unmistakable teacher intentions correspond with their student after the earthquake.

Emotional Support :

According to the teachers, their first motive was to interact with students after the earthquake and provide emotional support to their students without any personal connections in the classroom.

Teachers believe that they progress students resolve and give psychological in a prompt and unhampered way. These included sending quieting messages which were sending following negative earthquake related news. More interestingly, online emotional support was found to be a two way communication between teachers' and students.' Two of interview

teachers reported that the few of students were express their concerns towards the teacher. For example one of secondary school teacher giving an example of the students concerns:

Teacher, I heard that our school was badly damaged because of the earthquake. I pray that you are ok and take care (TS1)

The teachers offered three purposes behind why they trusted this “reversed” emotional support to be important (1) it demonstrated a genuine worry for educators, as a disguise of the instructive brilliant principle of correspondence (regarding others as one would wish to be dealt with); (2) worried for others may diminish students’ own fears; (3) these outflows of concern fortify the common association among instructors and students

Observing Distress:

Another intention of communicate through WhatsApp with their students was to observe the students distress after the earthquake. A few teachers deciphered their student’ quietness in the on the web is a sign of emotional difficulties:

Most of the school students expressed their thought and feelings on WhatsApp. It was all there: fears, tensions, adapting techniques. It was accordingly clear that those students, who decide not to take part in the online discussions, are experiencing issues in emotional sharing. So I have decided to visit their house and contact them personally (PS 1)

Nearly all of the students expressed their thought and feeling on WhatsApp. All of it was there: worries, tension, adapting techniques such as crawl under the table, stay away from window and protecting head with a pillow. This is very clear that students who are not interested to join the online discussion are having a problem with emotional sharing. Thus, I have decided to visit their home.

Discussion

The aim of this study is to investigate how teachers supporting students’ resilience after the Ranau earthquake. The analysis of students’ interview data shows that most of the teachers communicates through WhatsApp and this communication have played an important role

in contributing student resilience. Data were gathered from students, additionally from the teachers’ point of view. The data from student interviews show that the teachers prefer to use WhatsApp, telegram and text messages to contact them for emotional support. The students’ interviews also revealed that the emotional support was delivered by showing they cared for the students’ prosperity, by giving express consolation, through respond feeling sharing by giving a feeling of having a place, and by diverting students from unpleasant considerations and occasions. The essential commitment of the present study is to the literature on students’ resilience during traumatic situation and the teacher’s psychosocial role in them. Formal school-based trauma program to reinforce students’ resilience traditionally envisions the teacher’s role as a part of the recovery procedure and after the occurrence of the traumatic occasion (Wolmer et al., 2011). This study also discovers that teachers unexpectedly offer constant interventions through WhatsApp during the traumatic event without any formal guidance to do such actions. Other contribution of the present study is to the rising literature on usage of social media in times of massive-scale disaster. This specific literature has already demonstrated the benefits of information sharing in real-time (Palen et al., 2009). For instance, using Facebook enabled university officers to coordinate a response to an earthquake disaster (Dabner, 2012). The present study broadens past findings (Ophir et al., 2017), showing another capability of web-based social networking inside the midst of emergencies, to be more specific to mortgage social emotional support and help students enhance their resilience.

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Measurement of Adolescent Well-being: Application of Rough Set Theory

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The purpose of the study was to develop and standardize a new self-report scale to measure the well-being of Indian adolescents. One of the significant approaches of the study was to adopt a new mathematical method—Rough set theory—to derive a shorter form of the scale instead of using the frequently used method of principal component analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis in scale construction process. The findings gave rise to a 117-item scale, named as Indian Scale of Adolescent Well-being (ISAW) and its shorter form, known as ISAW-SF in the form of a super reduction consisting of 15 items. The psychometric properties of the ISAW and ISAW-SF were established on a sample of 3271 adolescents selected from three States of India. Developing the norm, the ISAW-SF was recommended to be used as a screening, diagnostic, or research instrument. The 15-item ISAW-SF is the first of its kind to measure the significant 12 dimensions of well-being. Its usability may be extended to other cultures after cross-cultural adaptation and validation.

Keywords: rough set theory; super reduction; adolescent well-being; psychometric properties.

The construct of 'well-being' is complex. From a holistic perspective it includes multiple dimensions encompassing a spectrum of contiguous areas of life. The comprehensiveness of the construct led to differential connotations and partial measurements such as construed feeling of satisfaction and contribution to community (Shah & Marks, 2004), sense of achievement, utility, and happiness welfare (Easterlin, 2003), and belongingness, marked by absence of distress, dissatisfaction, or worry (Verma & Verma, 1989), positive and sustainable state leading to flourishing (Huppert, Baylis, & Keverne, 2005), positive social support, active partnership in empowered communities, social health, financial security, rewarding employment, and a healthy and enriching environment (Steuer & Marks, 2008). Bringing order to the complex construct, the Center for Disease Control (2013) has identified the functional factors, such as mental well-being, physical well-being, emotional well-being, social well-being, and economic well-being as integral part of well-being. Thus, these may be regarded as significant dimensions measuring the construct of well-being.

Well-being is affected by factors like heredity (Barry & Jenkin, 2007; Diener, Oishi, & Lucas 2003; Schnittker, 2008), social environment (Helliwell, 2003; Putnam 2001), and age (Argyle, 1999). Argyle has traced a 'U' shaped well-being curve across life span indicating a higher well-being among the young and the old groups. Going by this the well-being of adolescents is expected to be on the upper part of the left vertical line of the 'U' curve. Nevertheless, the statistics on adolescents across the globe present a different picture. Adolescents constitute a substantial proportion of 19.6% of Indian population (Census of India, 2011).

As per the available data, 83.2% of children below 18 years use tobacco, 67.7% consume alcohol, 35.4% use cannabis, and 18.1% used pharmaceutical opioids while 7.9% used heroin and sedatives (NCPCR, 2013). Further, the adolescents are also found to indulge in health risk behaviour, such as having multiple sex partners and unprotected sex (Parasuraman, Kishore, Singh, & Vaidehi, 2009) and poor menstrual hygiene (Garg, Goyal, & Gupta, 2012). As per the recent research findings, 22.6% of adolescents are found to have conduct

problems, 12.8% are facing peer problems, and 12.2% with emotional problems (Sreenivasan & Kumar, 2014), 20% of adolescents are experiencing mental health problems, such as anxiety and depression at one point or the other (Kumar & Talwar, 2014). The incidence of juvenile crime to total crimes increased from 1% in the year 2003 to 1.2% in the year 2013 (National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs in its recent report, 2013). The total cognizable offence by this group increased from 17819 in the year 2003 to 27936 in the year 2012.

It is not uncommon that the symptoms of the deviations and problems mentioned above manifest in different forms such as physical illness or in minor behavioural forms (e.g. irritability and academic failure) which remain undiagnosed and untreated until they manifest in full bloomed form. This places an urgent demand for a comprehensive measure of well-being which can be used as a diagnostic tool to identify well-being deficit in specific dimensions to enable the need-based interventions. In view of the cultural loading and age specific needs, an attempt is made to construct and standardize an Indian Scale of Adolescent Well-being (ISAW).

Our process of standardization deviated from the convention of following the Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). We adopted a new mathematical model known as Rough set theory (Pawlak, 1998) with specific algorithm (Sai Prasad & Rao, 2011). The Rough set theory is used in data mining with emphasis on the treatment of uncertain or vague information.

“The important contribution of Rough set for the Data mining and Soft Computing community is the concept of the Reduct, a subset of the Conditional Attributes preserving the classification ability of the original system. In the case of classification, this theory implicitly calculates reducts of the full set of attributes, eliminating those that are redundant or meaningless. Such reducts may even serve as input to other classifiers other than Rough Sets” (Pessoa & Stephany, 2014).

Objective

The objective of the study was to evolve a user-friendly well-being scale for the Indian adolescents to provide a holistic measure of the construct with robust psychometric properties using a new mathematical model known as Rough set theory.

Method

Phases in development of the scale

The development of the ISAW was done in five phases—item construction, content evaluation, pre-test and establishing psychometric properties, derivation of the reducts, and development of the norm.

Phase I: Item construction

Initially items were pooled by six experts from the field of Psychology by brainstorming through discussion and review of literature. The item pooling by the experts was based on theoretical modules, status reports (UNICEF, 2012; Verma & Saraswathi, 2002), review articles, empirical findings, and available psychological measures. The experts' decision was to include all dimensions related to adolescent life in the scale. Complying with this, a total of 16 dimensions were identified for inclusion. The number of items in the form of statements distributed under 16 dimensions totalled to 130 statements in positive and negative form. The 16 dimensions were autonomy, achievement, freedom from anxiety, academic involvement, control, coping, freedom from depression, feelings of happiness with family, life style, personal competence, physical health, personal morale, spiritual quality, social support, social contacts and interpersonal trust.

Statements related to each dimension were rated by the experts. Importance was given to keep these statements simple in terms of language and content. Attention was also given to structure these statements in a way so that respondents would easily relate the items to themselves. To this effect the response options were on the continuum of 'like me–unlike me' on a 6-point scale. Thus, the six response choices varied from 1 = 'Very much unlike me' (1) to 'Very much like me' (6).

Phase II: Content evaluation

The content validity of the scale was checked by following the Lawshe's (1975) method. The 130 items were placed before 10 experts from the field of Psychology without labelling their dimensions. The experts were asked to classify the 130 items under the 16 dimensions. Then they were asked to decide if the item was 'essential' or 'not essential' for measuring the well-being under that dimension. A score of 1 was given if it was marked as 'essential' and a score of '0' was given if marked as 'not essential'. Lawshe's method of content validity ratio (CVR) which ranged between +1 to -1 was adopted to select essential items for the scale. As the exercise involved 10 experts, the recommended CVR for retaining an item was calculated and found to be 0.62 and above. A total of 13 items with CVR below 0.62 were deleted. The ISAW was translated into three Indian languages—Hindi, Telugu, and Odia—to make the items easier for the Indian adolescents. Thus, the ISAW consisted of 117 items, which was prepared for the preliminary trial-run to measure adolescent's well-being.

Phase III: Pre-test and establishing psychometric properties

Participants. The scale with 117 items was put to pre-test on a sample. In order to have a representative sample of urban India, it was decided to include the capital city of India (Delhi), one cosmopolitan city (Hyderabad) of Andhra Pradesh, and one smaller city (Berhampur) of a developing State (Odisha) in India. Multi-stage sampling was adopted. In the first stage the list of government and non-government schools, colleges, and professional colleges in the three identified cities were obtained. Forty educational institutions that included government and non-government schools, junior colleges, under-graduate and professional colleges as well as universities from each city were contacted for permission to conduct the study. A total of 86 educational institutions (24 from Andhra Pradesh, 26 from Odisha, and 36 from Delhi) which responded positively in the first two weeks were included in the study. In the second stage of sampling, with respect to the high schools, all children of 8th, 9th, and 10th

classes of the selected schools, students from all streams pursuing their 11th and 12th classes from junior colleges, students from all streams pursuing their 1st and 2nd year of undergraduate course from undergraduate colleges, first and second year students from all streams pursuing their 5-year integrated course, and students in their 1st and 2nd year of professional courses from professional colleges were included in the sample. In the third stage, students willing to participate by signing the informed consent form constituted the final sample.

Procedure

The Research Investigators trained the Research Assistant for a week. The training included conceptual clarity, need of standardization, procedure in test administration, process of obtaining informed consent, handling questions from the respondents, and data entry. Data were collected by both the Research Investigators and Research Assistants. After obtaining the informed consent from the educational institutions and the individual students, the participants were asked to assemble in the class rooms and the scale was administered in groups. The participants were given verbal instructions in addition to the written instruction. Verbal clarification was provided wherever needed. The participants were contacted once again exactly a week later, assembled in the classroom and that time they were administered the 40-item Subjective Well-being Inventory (Nagpal & Sell, 1985). The response options ranged between 'Very much unlike me' to 'Very much like me' on a 6-point scale. The scores ranged from 1 to 6 in that order and reverse scoring was followed in case of negative items.

The data analyses were conducted using two software packages—Matlab for Rough set and IBM SPSS 20.0 for all other statistical analyses. The psychometric properties of the 117-item ISAW was established by computing its reliability and validity.

Psychometric properties of the ISAW

Reliability: Internal consistency. To establish the reliability of the ISAW, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the 117 items and was found to be .87, indicating high internal consistency, which

was as per the fixed standard criterion of $\alpha \geq .70$ (Nunnally, 1978).

Validity: Criterion validity. To establish validity, we had administered concurrently a criterion scale, i.e. Subjective Well-being Inventory (Nagpal & Sell, 1985), a standardized measure, on the total sample ($N = 3271$). A significant positive correlation between the two scales was observed, $r(3269) = .47, p < .001$.

To develop and standardize a Shorter Form of ISAW (ISAW-SF), we adopted a new mathematical approach, i.e. Rough set theory (Pawlak, 1998) instead of the popular approaches of PCA, EFA, and CFA. Using Rough set theory, we developed a Super Reduct, which was the ISAW-SF.

Phase IV: Derivation of the reducts

To derive at a reduct, the entire data set (DT), where $N=3271$, was divided into two parts—the data collected by the Research Investigators (DI) and the data collected by the trained Research Assistants (DA). The number of cases in DI and DA was 1276 and 1995 respectively.

The specific reduct computation methodology using I Quick Reduct Information Gain (IQRA_IG) algorithm (Sai Prasad & Rao, 2011) based on Rough set theory (Pawlak, 1998) was employed to develop shorter version of the ISAW. Initially two reducts were obtained independently from DI and DA, and were labelled as RI and RA respectively. The reducts along with items are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Reduct of 15 items with dimensions (ISAW-SF)

SN	Items	Dimensions	Direction
1	When I face challenging tasks, I do not easily give up	Control	Positive
2	While accepting an important assignment, I feel confident and relaxed	Freedom from anxiety	Positive
3	I don't give importance to spiritual aspects	Spiritual quality	Negative

4	I feel that I live my life the way I want to	Control	Positive
5	I worry about past things in my life	Freedom from depression	Negative
6	I have strong, supportive circle of friends	Social support	Positive
7	I like to make friendship with a stranger	Interpersonal trust	Positive
8	I do not find dependable persons around	Interpersonal trust	Negative
9	I do my duty even in adverse circumstances	Personal morale	Positive
10	I can stop bad things happening in my life	Autonomy	Positive
11	I work harder to face challenges	Personal competence	Positive
12	My achievement is relatively lower than my efforts	Achievement	Negative
13	My sleeping timings are flexible	Life style	Negative
14	I prefer to be alone rather than with others	Social contacts	Negative
15	I regularly do at least one of the following for exercise (Walk / Yoga / Gym / Swimming / Pranayama / aerobics)	Life style	Positive

© Permission is required to use the ISAW-SF. For the permission, please write to the corresponding author.

The reduct RI contained 10 items whereas the reduct RA contained 9 items with an intersection with three items, namely item numbers—3, 5, and 15. This indicated that the perception captured by the reducts might

be independent. Therefore, the union of these two reducts (RI U RA=RU) was considered for understanding the entire data set (DT).

For this purpose, by adopting the same IQRA_IG algorithm with RU as seed reduct, a reduct for the total data set (DT) was arrived and labelled as RUT. Then treating RI as seed, another reduct was computed from the total data set (DT) and was labelled as RIT. The size of the RUT and RIT was 12 and 13 respectively with a good intersection of 10 items (Items 2, 3, 5, 11, 15, 26, 39, 42, 46, and 51). This revealed that the Research Investigators were consistent though their data set (DI) that was relatively smaller (n = 1276) in comparison with the data set (n = 1995) of the trained Research Assistants (DA).

As these reducts—RUT and RIT—were derived based on the data collected, it was recommended to take the union of RUT and RIT as the Final Item Set for the Shorter Form of the ISAW (ISAW-SF) that contained 15 items (Items 2, 3, 5, 11, 15, 24, 26, 38, 39, 42, 46, 51, 76, 78, and 93). This 15-item Super Reduct—ISAW-SF—evolved from Rough set had the power that was equal to 117 items in predicting the well-being of the adolescent. To find out the relationship between the total scores of the 117-item ISAW and 15-item ISAW-SF, Pearson r was computed. A significant positive correlation was found between these two scores, r (3269) = .65, p < .001.

Phase V: Development of the norm for the ISAW-SF

The norm for the ISAW-SF was established on the basis of transformed score and the derived weighted means.

First, the transformed scores were calculated by giving appropriate weightage to each of the items on the basis of their presence in the set basing on the occurrence of the items on the specific reducts – RUT and RIT. If the item concerned occurred in both the sets, the weightage of 2 was assigned, where as any item occurred either in RUT or RIT, a weightage of 1 was assigned. Accordingly, Weight of 2 was assigned to items such as 2, 3, 5, 11, 15, 26, 39, 42, 46, and 51, whereas weight of 1 was assigned to items such as 24, 38, 76, 78, and 93. Then the weighted mean was calculated for each

of the 15 items. The distribution of the weighted means was plotted in the form of a histogram (M = 3, SD = .67, N = 3271)) which possessed the quality of the normal distribution (Figure 1).

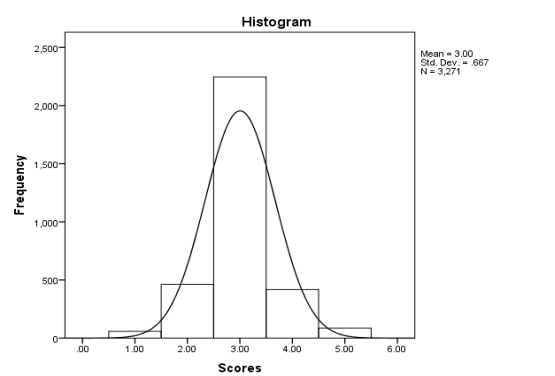


Figure 1. Histogram showing the distribution of the weighted means.

Second, to develop the norm, basing on the principle of Class Interval, we categorized weighted mean scores into five classes by following the principle of $M \pm 2SD$. The norm is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Norms of the ISAW-SF (N = 3271)

S. N.	Level of adolescence well-being	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	f (%)
1	Very high well-being	4.9	6	86 (2.6%)
2	High well-being	4.43	4.89	419 (12.8%)
3	Average well-being	3.47	4.42	2246 (68.7%)
4	Low well-being	2.99	3.46	462 (14.1%)
5	Very low well-being	1	2.98	58 (1.8%)

From Table 2, it was found that the weighted mean scores ranging from 3.47 to 4.42 represented the neutral point. The weighted mean scores between 4.43 to 4.89 represented ‘high well-being’, weighted mean scores between 2.99 to 3.46 represented as ‘low well-being’ and weighted mean scores between 4.9 to 6 represented ‘very high well-being’.

Finally, the weighted mean scores from 1 to 2.98 represented ‘very low well-being’.

After establishing the norm, the frequency distribution of 3271 participants was done. It was found that out of 3271 adolescents, 58 (1.77%) adolescents came under ‘very low well-being’ category whereas 462 (14.12%) were included in ‘low well-being’ category. The maximum number of adolescents (n = 2246, 68.66%) were included in ‘normal well-being’ category. In ‘high well-being’ category only 419 (12.81%) adolescents were found, whereas 86 (2.63%) adolescents were included in the ‘very high well-being’ category. The distribution of total sample according to norm is plotted which is presented in Figure 2 which suggested a normal distribution.

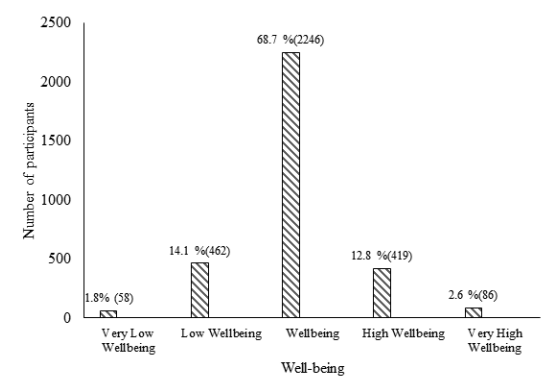


Figure 2. Distribution of sample according to norm.

Process of administration and scoring of ISAW-SF

Process of administration of ISAW-SF. The 15-item ISAW-SF with a 6-point rating scale is a paper-pencil test and easy to administer. The scale may be used as a screening, diagnostic,

or research instrument. The scale may be administered by a psychology graduate with training experience, trained professional, or any person having knowledge in test administration. The scale may be administered on an adolescent individually or in group. It may be administered in schools, community, and medical setting. Ideally the group should not include more than 20 participants at a time. Though there is no time limit to administer the scale, yet the administration of the scale may take approximately 15 to 20 minutes for each participant.

Instructions for ISAW-SF. Before responding, the participants should be given simple verbal instructions that reinforce the written instructions. In group administration, the test administrator may read the instructions loudly, emphasizing that there are no right and wrong answers. It should be reiterated that only one option for each item should be ticked and every item needs to be answered honestly.

Scoring procedure of ISAW-SF. Table 3 provides the basic scoring of responses.

Once the responses are scored the weightages need to be assigned. A weight of 2 is assigned to Items No.1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, and 12, whereas a weight of 1 is assigned to Items No. 6, 8, 13, 14, and 15. These weights are to be added ($\sum W = 25$).

The score of each of the items is to be multiplied by its corresponding weight and the product is known as transformed score (WX). The individual transformed scores are to be added and symbolized as $\sum WX$. The weighted mean is to be calculated by dividing the total of the transformed score by sum of weights. The following formula may be followed.

Table 3: Scoring key for the ISAW-SF.

Nature of items	Number of items	Scoring					
		Very much like me	Like me	Somewhat like me	Somewhat unlike me	Unlike me	Very much unlike me
Positive	1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 15	6	5	4	3	2	1
Negative	3, 5, 8, 12, 13, 14	1	2	3	4	5	6

$$\text{Weighted Mean} = \sum WX / \sum W$$

Where, (1) $\sum WX$ = Sum total of the products of weight and raw score

(2) $\sum W$ = Sum of weights

The weighted mean is the level of the well-being of the adolescent and is to be interpreted according to the Norm as mentioned in Table 2.

Discussion

The scale standardized in this study measures well-being on 12 dimensions. Literature has evidence that a single dimension scale will not be able to convey the multifaceted nature of the construct. To get a holistic picture of well-being, it is necessary to provide a multidimensional well-being scale with theoretical constructs. The contribution of the present scale took into consideration both theoretical, and experiential aspects. Diener et al. (2010) reported that “capturing the complex nature of the phenomena is difficult if researchers focus on one component of well-being and the multifaceted approach to well-being not only suggests the necessity of multiple measures, but the choice of measure should be theoretically meaningful”. Several multi-item scales have been designed which do not focus on all different dimensions of well-being. For example, the Adolescent Well-being Scale devised by Birlson (1980) to pick up possible depression in older children and adolescents, and WHO-Five Well-being Index (WHO-5) belong to this category.

The ISAW or ISAW-SF in this study has focused on all the main dimensions of well-being, such as physical, emotional, cognitive, social, spiritual, moral, and intra-personal dimensions—thus making it highly holistic. The dimensions in this scale included the personal and social dimension found in the review by Pollard and Lee (2003) and as well as several personal dimensions cited by Masse et al. (1998). Pollard and Lee (2003) have undertaken a review of more than 1600 studies and discovered that five distinct domains of well-being are particularly prevalent—physical, psychological, cognitive, social, and economic. The six-factor well-being manifestation measure scale by Masse et al. (1998) includes dimensions, such as control of self and events, happiness, social involvement,

self-esteem, mental balance, and sociability, but the spiritual aspect, which is an important dimension of well-being, has not been included. It may be reiterated that an effort has been made in this research to identify and measure such distinct domains of well-being including the spiritual aspect.

The product of this research is a 15-item adolescent's well-being instrument covering 12 distinct dimensions. The dimensions are autonomy, achievement, freedom from anxiety, control, freedom from depression, lifestyle, personal competence, personal morale, spiritual quality, social contacts, social support, and interpersonal trust, and these dimensions play a key role in assessment of well-being of adolescents. This standardized scale of adolescent well-being—ISAW-SF—enjoys the advantages of being simple, short, and user-friendly. The scoring and interpretation can be made easy by referring to the manual. Standardizing the norms enables the administrator to compare the participants, identify those with low scores, and plan dimension specific interventions.

Implications

The field of well-being assessment is largely at a formative stage. Adolescents' well-being differs from that of adults and varies cross culturally and within a culture. According to Resnick (2005), advancing healthy adolescent development and well-being is “an intentional, deliberate process of providing support, relationships, experiences, and opportunities that promote positive outcomes for young people, most broadly viewed as enhancing the capacity to be happy, healthy, and successful”. Adolescents need to be viewed as recipients of intervention in the field of education and health for being in the critical stage of deciding career options, career building, and protection from health hazards including unsafe sexual and reproductive life. The ISAW-SF is helpful to find out the indicators for developing the right strategies to enhance the well-being of adolescents. Adolescent's well-being assessment aids in the promotion of related areas of well-being, like control of self and events, social involvement, mental balance, prevention of abusive behaviours, and

identification of factors which contribute to the sense of well-being. Moreover, the usability of ISAW-SF may be extended to other cultures after cross-cultural adaptation and validation.

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Exploring Perceived Sources of Happiness, Psychological Well-being and Coping among Institutionalized Buddhist Monks of Sikkim State of India

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The present study was done to understand the factors contributing to the enhancement of happiness, well-being, and coping mechanism. For this purpose, 30 Buddhist monks (Age Mean = 39.9 and SD= 4.97) were randomly selected for in-depth interview from eight different monasteries of East Sikkim. Qualitative analysis of the data revealed that there is huge psychological pleasure and contentment among the monks. For a majority of the monks, practicing meditation, understanding the truth of life and practicing the Buddhist principles were found to be the major contributing factors for a positive and healthier life elevating self-concept, happiness, purpose of life, being compassionate and grateful, thus improving overall well-being among the monks. This result of the present study can be fruitful for developing a constructive life and mind of contemporary society that is constantly changing all over the world. Limitations of the study and suggestions for the further researches have been discussed.

Keywords: Happiness, Well-being, Monks, Meditation, Buddhist.

"Wonderful, indeed, it is to tame the mind, so difficult to tame, ever swift, and seizing whatever it desires. A tamed mind brings happiness".

*-Buddha (as cited in
Buddharakkhita, 1966, p. 15)*

Buddhist perspective of happiness is analysed to be more thoughtful and intense. Happiness is deep rooted with attaining objects without hurting others, accomplishing internal freedom without the emergence of lustful desires, liberation from impurities like anger, greed, and acquiring peace (Bikkhu, 2005; Richard, 2006). For most part, practice of meditation awakens individual's joy of the present moment (Michael, 2008), get insight into reality of pain and suffering, emptiness of everything brings peace, love, kindness, and understandings strives to achieve happiness as well as reduce the feelings of negative emotions (Kabat-Zinn, 1990; Verma et al., 2010).

Buddhist philosophy supports the notion of selflessness and beliefs that permanent self is the root cause of sufferings (Miller, 1996). As permanent self will lead to self-centredness and selfishness, which in turn, increases the craving

for desires, increases egoism and destroys the harmony of the social relationships (Gyatso, 1992; Lai, 2015). According to Buddhism, the quest of happiness for oneself is destined to failure. Therefore, it is essential to cultivate inner conditions for happiness that diminishes self-centeredness and promotes altruism and compassion (Richard, 2011). Research shows that people who are oriented towards intrinsic aspirations are likely to engage in pro-social behaviour and are more cooperative and have behaviours that encourage good will and well-being (Kasser, 2006). Buddhism continually promotes the enrichment of intrinsic values, which can contribute to the mankind. These includes compassion, empathy, cleanliness, self-discipline, inner-satisfaction and global responsibility (Richard, 2011).

Every individual has the competence to become free from a negative state of mind that causes sufferings for self and others. Each has the potential to find the inner peace that contributes to wellbeing. However, there is a need to train the mind (Richard, 2006) to encourage happiness. Since happiness is

recognized as ability, it requires enough effort and time.

Buddhist believes that if any emotion that strengthens the inner peace, is constructive such as altruistic love being compassionate generates happiness and strengthens the clarity of thinking; if it deeply disturbs the mind and harm others, is destructives such as anger and greed distorting the perception of reality. Therefore, Buddhist's goal in treating emotion is to free selves from the elementary cause of sufferings (Richard, 2011).

Moreover, Buddhism offers a broader perspective of coping. Firstly, coping is a way to be free from all the troubles. Secondly, coping is to transform the stressful situation rather than reducing the stress. Thirdly coping depends on personal transformation that helps in attainment of inner state of contentment. The Buddhist have a better way of coping as they follow the four Nobel Truths: The truth of sufferings, the truth of arising of sufferings, the truth of liberation of sufferings and the truth of eight folds (Chen, 2006).

Buddhists characterize coping as the cognitive and behavioural methods of reducing the discrepancy between reality and the origin of reality (Webber, 1997). Meditation helps to visualize the reality with less bias mostly self-centred bias and increase life satisfaction. Spirituality, religion and Mindfulness meditation decreases pain and is found to have positive impact on mental health such as reduction in depression and anxiety, alleviating psychological distress (Leite et al., 2010). It also improves physical pain and increases well-being (Hoffman et al., 2010; Yiengprugsawan et al., 2010). Buddhist monks have a unique lifestyle, where mind control plays an important role in their daily existence. Therefore, it is essential to explore the significant factors that play a vital role to be in command of the mind. This study looks forward to elicit whether Monks who are practicing the art of meditation experience a better quality of life.

Objective:

To explore perceived sources of happiness, psychological well-being and coping among institutionalized Buddhist monks of Sikkim.

Method

The study was performed using an explorative qualitative research design, as detailed in the following sections:

Research Design

In-depth interview was conducted on 30 monks from eight different monasteries of Gangtok to understand the factors that play a role in controlling the mind. This was done after getting permission from the authority of the monasteries. The narrative was selected as a tool for the exploration.

Sample

Sample size was 30 monks (males) aged 20-50 years ($M= 39.9$, $SD=4.97$) from eight different monasteries of East Sikkim, district of Sikkim state such as: 1. Enchey Monastery, 2. Rumtek Monastery, 3. Ranka Monastery, 4. Tsuklakhang Monastery, 5. Guru Lhakhang Monastery, 6. Chorten Gonpa Monastery, 7. Gonjang Monastery, and 8. Jamang Monastery. Participants were selected for the study through purposive sampling.

Participant Inclusion Criteria

- Indian Buddhist Monks residing in any monastery
- Monks practicing meditation on a regular basis
- Practicing Vipassana meditation at least for a period of 2 years
- Monks willing to participate voluntarily
- Males
- Monks in the age group of 20 to 50 years
- Can read and speak English

Participant Exclusion Criteria

- Monks having a history of major psychiatric/physical illness
- Monks who did not agree to participate in the study
- Consent is withdrawn from the study (which could be at any stage)

Ethical Considerations

- All the participants were contacted with due permission from the concerned authorities of eight different monasteries.
- During the initial contact, participants were informed of the purpose and the content of the study.
- Prior to the in-depth interview, consent was taken from all the participants.
- Participants were reminded at each interview that they may withdraw their

consent at any stage.

- A thank you letter was sent to each participant after their interview.

Procedure

After receiving consent from the participants, prior appointment was scheduled, and the in-depth interview was conducted one by one in the respective monastery. Initially, socio-demographic details of the participants were collected by using open-ended questions. It helped to establish rapport with the participants

Table 1:

Sl No.	Themes	Sub-themes	Explanation
1.	Sense of self (one's perception, image or insight of oneself)	Self-confidence	Self-confidence leads to the evaluation, expectations and reliance in their intrinsic worth and abilities. This helps to have command over one self.
		Self-awareness	Self-awareness facilitates the monk to deliberately monitor judgments, actions and opinions of their own and others from time to time.
		Purposeful life	Purposeful life makes the monk capable to make life decision, figure the goals and give a sense of route to discover the true meaning of life with a sense of satisfying work.
2.	Good life (experiencing pleasure by being appreciative, avoiding negative experiences, seeking self-development through cleanliness of mind and body)	Grateful	Grateful is the quality of being thankful that leads to a good life and helps to cope with the various hurdles of life.
		Cleanliness of mind through meditation	Cleanliness of the mind with meditation keeps selves away from sufferings and worldly desires.
		Good health through meditation	Good health is the balance between the mind and the body as well as life and the environment, where meditation plays a vital role.
3.	Life satisfaction (doing what one adores, contributing for others' happiness and performing rightful duties)	Altruism	Altruism serves others that provide satisfaction in their life, without expecting anything in return.
		Forgiveness	Forgiveness aims to let go of pain, suffering and bring harmony, peace and happiness to self and others.
		Compassion	Compassion is an aspiration, a state of mind, wanting others to be free from suffering.
4.	Understanding the truth of life (understanding the causes of happiness and suffering situation)	Wisdom	Wisdom is to understand the ultimate truth, listening to others view, forming one's own opinions and beliefs, and to carefully examine them.

as well as to obtain a rich description of their unique experiences, understanding of life and realities. Although, there was no initial time limitation for an in-depth interview, the length of the interviews of thirty participants ranged from 40 to 60 minutes. With permission from the participants, an audio recording was carried out during the interview session and later transcribed to enable analysis.

Results

Thematic analysis was done from the transcript scripts collected from 30 participants:

Sense of self: Sense of self is one's perception, image or insight of oneself. It is the way an individual thinks and views his/her traits, beliefs and purpose. Nature of self, according to Buddhist teaching, is hard to comprehend although it is the innermost to the spiritual beliefs. Fully perceiving nature of self is the way to characterize enlightenment.

a. Self-confidence: Monks are trying to gain a sense of self by means of self-confidence through evaluation, expectations, and reliance in their intrinsic worth and abilities. This helps them to be happy and have control over themselves. Therefore, confidence might give self-satisfaction, healthy life and be the best version of self.

Participant 1: *"Self-confidence is necessary to achieve the chosen path. When we have a higher level of confidence in our self, it helps us to make ourselves free from arrogance, and seek what is positive. Since we have our own goals, it is our responsibility to move forward. For this, we need to rely on our own effort and have belief in ourselves. However, the lack of self-confidence limits our capacity to grow and contribute to anger, guilt, making mistakes and unrealistic expectations. So, believing in self is very important as it helps in believing in our abilities to overcome the challenges and obstacles of life".*

b. Self-awareness: Self-awareness is another crucial factor for developing their sense of self. It facilitates the monk to deliberately monitor the judgments, actions, and opinions from moment

to moment. It is the key to identify with selves better. For alternative words of self-awareness, monks use interchangeable words like focus, awareness, and concentration. Through practice, they learn to bring more mindfulness/awareness into all the activities through constant questioning and being thoughtful about self. Young monks are taught to think, identify and solve their problems. Therefore, self-education facilitates self-demanding, self-learned, self-enriching and self-reflecting without relying upon others' support. There were eight participants who contextualized and related awareness of their life activities.

Participant 13: *"It is very important to grasp the reality to have a better understanding of self. Constantly examining our characters, abilities, and qualities help us to increase our good qualities and decrease the negative qualities. When I am speaking to you, I am being more aware of the feelings that I am having with regard to the words and this gives me a sense of the quality of my speaking. Moreover, mindfulness helps us in decreasing the chances of accidents".*

Some participants created self-awareness by analysing and evaluating the harsh situations.

Participant 18: *"If a man is angry upon me or ends up telling me harsh words, then it is my duty to analyse the situation, understand the circumstance from his viewpoint and find out the reason behind that behaviour instead of being sad or angry upon that person. It will help in polishing all the negativity I might have towards the person as well as the pessimist thoughts that I might have within me. These activities will definitely help me live a better life".*

Purpose

It guides individual's sense of self. It makes an individual capable to make a life decision, figure the goals and give a sense of route to create meaning with a sense of satisfying work. Therefore, according to the Buddhist perspective, it is vital to go through the experiences and insights. This will help to discover the true meaning of life and goals to achieve.

Participant 9: *"People don't have any aim*

of their life. They remain confused and these people are the sufferers. But we, the monks, have a purpose and we try to move forward in our life accordingly. We have various purposes like an offering, helping people unconditionally, praying for the people as our foremost purpose is to end the cycle of suffering. Another purpose is to study Buddhist philosophy for 18 years and after that, it's our wish whether we want to become a teacher in the monastery or go for a retreat. Meanwhile, we need to meditate on a daily basis to keep ourselves calm and composed. But our goal is to achieve the state of nirvana. It is the enlightenment where an individual's desires and sufferings go away".

Good life: This may be defined from different perspectives. One might define good life as living a comfortable life with few problems or worries. However, from monk's perspective, good life can be understood as experiencing pleasure by being appreciative, avoiding negative experiences and seeking self-development (through cleanliness of mind and body).

Grateful: Participants believed that gratefulness is the quality of being thankful that leads to a good life and helps to cope with the various hurdles. It helps to focus on what we have instead of what we don't have. Emmons and McCullough (2003) also found that gratefulness makes the monk happier and more contented. Rather than being hopeful for greater and superior, it is important for monks to be grateful for what they have.

Participant 29: *"No matter if we face bad luck and hardships but we should still try to be happy. Because we should be grateful for whatever we have achieved and feel every moment as a gift. We cannot assure that there will be another moment given to us. Sometimes, I am confronted with pain, difficulties, and stress in my life. But I am obliged enough to have those kinds of situations because it gives me an opportunity to respond to it. Painful experiences decrease the perception of pain, worries and increase happiness. It actually trains our brain to grab the positivity in our lives".*

Cleanliness: A number of participants referred to the concept of cleanliness as cleanliness of mind. Cleaning the mind is as necessary as to clean the surroundings. Monks stated that meditation helps them to clean their mind and live a simple life by keeping themselves away from negative thoughts, sufferings, and worldly desires. This helps in reducing stress, anxiety, and tension.

Participant 15: *"We remove negative thoughts from our mind to sweep away from the worldly desires. We free ourselves from the attachments or materialistic desires which eliminates lots of sufferings. It is not just the monks but everyone in this hectic world is in need of this. Dirt can be defined as the symptoms of unhappiness or illness. Therefore, meditation helps us to be focused, calm our mind, and reduce stress and anxiety leading us to the path of inner peace".*

Good health: In understanding the importance of good life, Buddhist monks emphasized the importance of good health. They believe that good health is the balance between the mind and the body as well as life and the environment, where meditation plays a vital role.

Participant 22: *"The power of meditation is great. The practice of meditation releases tensions in the body. When we give ourselves a chance to set free of all our stress and tension, the natural ability of the body to repair our wounds begin to work. This helps us gain good health, with a better quality of sleep and less bodily pain. The art of relaxation also helps to prevent the onset of many illnesses, which might develop through chronic tension."*

Life satisfaction: It is the delight gained from doing what one adores, contributing to others' happiness and performing duties rightfully.

Altruism: Buddhist monks keep pace with the desire of the Buddha to accomplish a distress-free state. This motivates the Buddhist monks to serve others that provide satisfaction in their life, without expecting anything in return, developing an altruistic behaviour. Monks summarized with their statements.

Participant 3: *"I believe that satisfaction comes from within by "practice of dana" which means offering, and it doesn't mean the exchange of material tenure. However, it includes non-tangible offerings such as education and wisdom. I am keen to help others so that other people can get relief from distress and when I help others, I feel helping myself more recurrently".*

Buddhists are not only concerned about their own interest but they also give equal importance to the betterment of the society and the environment.

Forgiveness: It aims to let go of pain, suffering and bring harmony, peace to oneself and happiness to other people, leading to satisfaction of life. Forgiveness helps the monks to let them free from inner conflict, anger, and regret leaving away enmity and developing a bridge of love between the self and other people.

Participant 25: *"Forgiving someone gives me mental peace. If someone hates us or ill-behaves with us, we should not keep alive those hatred behaviours. Instead, we should release our positive thoughts so that our mind is at peace. So, forgiveness benefits an individual by relieving from sufferings and provides a way to happiness and satisfaction. According to Buddhism, forgiveness is free from anger".*

Compassion: According to Buddhism, compassion is a state of mind and aspiration, wanting others to be free from suffering. The monks perceive themselves as a member of conscious being and consequently, they practice compassion that brings satisfaction to them as stated by a number of participants.

Participant 19: *"Compassion helps to keep inner strength, gives confidence and reduces negative emotions. When we see someone in stress or pain, we try to feel their pain as if it is ours. We strive to lessen their pain and that is compassion. All human beings should have qualities like carrying, sharing, ready to give comfort, being concerned about others and be sympathetic. We have learned in the Buddhist philosophy that spirituality helps in fostering to be concerned for the welfare of others".*

Understanding the truth of life: Understanding the causes of happiness, suffering and the cause of the situation are very crucial. One is not only aware of oneself but also facilitate others' happiness, minimize suffering and the ability to view entity as the way to react to basic needs without comparing, hurting others (Phongvarin et al., 2012).

Wisdom: According to Buddhist philosophy, wisdom is to understand what brings us happiness and suffering and covers understanding of the world as it functions. It is the direct experience of ultimate truth or emptiness. Wisdom is to keep an open mind rather than being narrow-minded, listening to others' viewpoint, forming our own opinions and beliefs, carefully examining our facts that contradict our beliefs. According to the monks, a person who does this can arrive at a true understanding with courage, flexibility, patience, and intelligence. Wisdom is seeing the world by mind and considering its advantages and non-advantages.

Participant 30: *"Nothing is permanent in this world. We, human beings, cannot get rid of sufferings by just saying - I will not suffer. We cannot escape from those elements, but we can eliminate suffering by realizing those misconceptions as everyone wants to be free from problems. It is important to realize the truth of life. So true wisdom is to understand and see directly for ourselves rather than believing what we were told."*

Discussion

Perceived happiness among the monks can be well thought-out as a state of mind (e.g., self-awareness, life satisfaction, and good life) based on the inner quality that leads to a life of integrity. A mind with calm and contentment from inside, wisdom and understanding the truth of life leads to subjective well-being. Compassion, forgiveness and self-confidence developed through meditation could be considered as coping resources used by the monks. The conceptual framework for the study was based on the combination of the studies on happiness (Diener, 1984), psychological well-being (Ekman, Davidson, Richard, & Wallis, 2005) and coping

(Webber, 2000). It also incorporates the Buddhist perspective of happiness, understanding both the consequences and the state that leads to real happiness. Studies showed that Meditation increases positive emotions and empathy, and decreases psychological distress (Lutz et. al., 2004; Fredrickson et. al., 2008).

A principle for evaluating actions in the Buddhist concept is having a good state of mind and satisfaction from performing rightful duties (Bhikku, 2007). In addition to it, the results are also congruent with Ekman et al.'s (2005) the concept that happiness and well-being in Buddhism comprises of kindness, absence of craving and maintenance of a good relationship with others through compassionate, altruism and forgiveness.

Finally, the study in the context of Buddha Dhamma is supported by Ekman et al. (2005) which indicated that happiness envelops a peaceful and content mind, wisdom to see the reality of all beings, leading to true happiness, well-being and coping resources which is the final goal of Buddhism.

The Buddhist monks defined the goals and purpose of their life which they felt are responsible for promoting future well-being and protecting them from being disappointed. However, recognizing the potential stressors and appraising the situation prevents them from escaping the situation, thus, helping them to enhance coping that ensures a better quality of life.

Life choices and beliefs among the monks have a positive impact on their life reducing anger and distress, boosting happiness and well-being. This helps them to adopt positive coping strategies. Understanding the reality of life such as truth of sufferings, truth of arising of sufferings, right actions, right thoughts, and right mindfulness lead to mental concentration which helps the Buddhist monks to cope in their life. In times where the negative sense of self, distress, and lack of mindfulness is a growing concern all over, the Buddhist monks offered the potential indication by transforming their lives,

creating a productive sense of their sufferings and pains. This motivates for the betterment of self and others.

Limitation

The study was limited only to the Buddhist monks of Sikkim. Additionally, some elements of quantitative data might be present for a better result.

Conclusion

The happiness, well-being and coping among the monks related to meditation and Buddhist philosophy is not only limited to positive psychological state as well as life satisfaction. Rather, it is the state of balanced mind with vision and wisdom enabling to live happily and compassionately with others. Based on the present findings, meditation should be promoted among individuals, especially students and professionals through educational program or activities that promote the development of wisdom and understanding the reality of life. This would be helpful to reflect on the lives and duties, learning to respond to the needs without attachment to external objects. This would moreover, help to cope with physical sufferings without any kind of psychological bearings. The findings of the study can be fruitful for developing a constructive life and mind of contemporary society that is constantly changing all over the world.

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Intelligence, Locus of Control and Self-Esteem correlates to Academic Achievement among High School Students

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Our intelligence, locus of control and self-esteem relationship to academic achievement is well established. The objective of this research is to examine a significant relationship among the dependent variables, and independent effect of academic achievement and gender, and interaction effect of 'academic and gender' on dependent variables among the samples. 200 high school students {100 high academic achiever (50 boys and 50 Girls) and 100 low academic achiever (50 boys and 50 Girls)}, age range between 10-13 years of age served as the sample. The results provided significant and positive correlations between self-esteem, internal locus of control and negative effect of the level of intelligence. The results also provided the significant independent effect of gender and academic achievement on self-esteem, internal locus of control and intelligence as well as significant interaction effect of independent variables (gender and academic achievement) on dependent variables (self-esteem, locus of control and intelligence) which indicated that the need of psychological diagnosis and appropriate intervention for academic success among the samples.

Keywords: intelligence, locus of control, internal, external, esteem, gender.

Academic achievement has long been considered as one of the important goals of education globally. Education in every sense is one of the fundamental factors of development as it improves productivity, creativity and promotes entrepreneurship and technological advances leading to the higher standard with quality of their lives and leads to broad social benefits to individuals and society (Ozturk, 2001). Research has confirmed that the academic achievement is a product of several factors such as intellectual capacity, psychological adjustment and environmental factors which deserves in-depth study of the present study. Overall literacy rate has improved and literacy rate has an impact on increasing a country's economic growth rate and decreasing population growth rate (www.researchgate.net).

Academic outcome or academic achievement is the result of acquiring education, the full extent of academic potential to which a pupil, lecturer or academic institution can reach in order to achieve their educational targets. Student's grades or GPA (grade point average) is used to describe the student's academic outcome in

most of the research studies (Wechsler, 1944).

Intelligence: It is most often studied in humans, animals and in plants which have been recognised as the ability to perceive or infer information, and to retain it as knowledge to be applied towards adaptive behaviours within an environment or context. David Wechsler: "Intelligence can be regarded as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Wechsler, 1944). Many researchers have found that intelligence correlates with school achievement (Brody, 1997) with a positive and significant relationship (Agarwal, 2002) and a very strong positive relation (Deary, Strand, Smith & Fernandes, 2007). Also, significant difference differences in average performances where males scored higher than females on tests of general knowledge, mechanical reasoning and females scored higher than males on tests of language usage but no notable sex differences in general verbal ability, abstract reasoning and memory span (Feingold, 1992), having relationship with demographic which indicated

significant differences between males and females (Bruni et al., 2006).

Locus of control: It has been a topic of interest for the past several decades in explaining the differences in individual motivation and its outcomes.

Rotter (1966) defines locus of control as the degree to which the individual comprehends that a reward occurs or is dependent upon his or her own behaviour or attitude, in contrast to the degree to which he/she feels that a reward is controlled by external forces and may appear irrespective of his/her actions. In such a way, 70% of these hypotheses found internals to have significantly higher academic achievement than externals (Findley and Cooper, 1983). Locus of control and academic achievement have a positive correlation between the two variables (Bar-Tal and Bar-Zohar (1977). Individual with internal locus of control are expected to be rewarded for performing specific behaviours by exerting their effort to achieve academically, and feel great pride when it is obtained (Ray, 1980). Children with high internal scores in all grade levels have significantly higher report card grades (McGhee & Crandall, 1968); males scores to be more internal than females (Findley and Cooper, 1983) and this may be due to social desirability (Stipek & Weisz, 1981) that females who were high in beliefs of social desirability to have higher external scores than females with low beliefs in social desirability (Weisz, 1981). Researchers found a significant relationship between self-esteem and academic performance and a significant difference between male and female students on self-esteem and academic performance scores, which indicate that female students have high scores on academic performance as compared to male students and male students have high scores on self-esteem as compared to female students (Twinomugisha, 2008).

Self-esteem: It reflects a person's overall subjective emotional evaluation of his or her own worth, judgment of oneself as well as an attitude toward the self (Hewitt, 2009). Researches have attempted to determine any relationship between students' academic performance and their self-esteem, revealing that a statistically

significant degree between self-esteem and academic achievement tests with high self-esteem would have higher achievement than with low self-esteem (Fink, 1958); high self-esteem is an important factor and strengthen the prediction of academic achievement in the pre-university students (Mohammad, 2010) as it has a link to academic achievement among university students and positive relationship (Sadaat, Ghasemzadeh & Soleimani, 2012), psycho-sociological evidences affirms that lack of achievement motivation and low self-esteem, creates in students lack of interest to strive for high academic performances, and zeal to contribute positively and efficiently to national development (Abdullah (2000) due to a positive relationship between self-esteem and academic performance (Akinleke (2012). It also has a positive relationship between gender (Twinomugisha, 2008) and CGPA; boys scored significantly higher on self-esteem as compared to girls and students with higher self-esteem performed better in their academics (Rosli, Othman, Ishak, Lubis, Saat & Omar, 2011).

The available literature review showed that there was a positive correlation between self-esteem and academic performance of students and the students with higher self-esteem were more likely to show a higher academic achievement. In the light of the provided literature, the current study aimed to study the level of intelligence, locus of control and self-esteem and its correlation to the academic achievement among high school students.

Objectives

Based on the available literature, the following objectives were framed: (i) To examine the level of self-esteem, locus of control and intelligence between the two gender groups; (ii) to examine any significant relationship between dependent variables (iii) to examine any significant effect of academic and gender on dependent variables, (iv) any significant interaction effect of academic achievement and gender on dependent variables.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis of the present study was framed in trying to meet the objectives of the

study, which are: (i) there will be a different level of self-esteem, locus of control and intelligence between the gender; (ii) there will be a significant relationship between dependent variables (iii) there will be a significant effect of academic and gender on dependent variables, and (iv) there will be a significant interaction effect of academic achievement and gender on dependent variables.

Method

Sample

200 hundred Mizoram High School Students {100 boys (50 high academic achiever and 50 low academic achiever) and 100 girls (50 high academic achiever and 50 low academic achiever)} from different high schools of Mizoram were randomly selected, age range between 13-17 years of age for the present study. Socio-demographic profiles was recorded to cross check the true representation as per the design.

Design: 2 x 2 factorial design {2 boys (high academic achiever and low academic achiever) and 2 girls (high academic achiever and low academic achiever)}.

Tools

1. *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale* (Rosenberg, 1965) which developed by Rosenberg (1965) consist of 10 items with four response choices - strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree, reported internal consistency, reliability ranging from .85 to .88 for college sample, and the construct validity was found to be .72 was employed.

2. *Locus of Control: Internal-External Locus of Control Scale* (Rotter, 1966) which comprises 29 double suggestions or statements, was used. A low score indicates an internal control while a high score indicates external control.

3. *Standard Progressive Matrices* (Raven, 1995). The test consists of 5 sets having 12 problems each. This test measures intellectual level of the subject; and was designed to cover the widest possible range of mental ability and to be equally useful with persons whatever their education, nationality or physical condition (Raven, 1981).

Procedures

The necessary permissions and consent were taken and the implementation of the test was in accordance with the manuals of the tests and strictly adhered to the APA ethical codes.

Results

The raw data were checked to screen out any missing components; did the psychometric adequacy for the targeted population of the study. The results of the reliability provided the trustworthiness of the tests/scales for the population under study (alpha and split half reliability scores were higher than .60). The descriptive statistics (normal distribution kurtosis and skewness), the Levene Statistic-test of homogeneity of variance (non-significant) and Brown-Forsythe- Robust tests of equality means (all significant) showing the fulfilment of parametric statics analysis. The higher academic achiever showed higher self-esteem ($M=35.53$, 29.83), internal locus of control ($M=9.45$, 15.52) and higher intelligence level ($M=79.06$; 56.78) than lower academic achiever. Male samples showed higher self-esteem ($M=51.97$, 30.27), internal locus of control ($M=12.40$, 15.56) and higher intelligence level ($M=68.73$; 57.69) than female subjects.

The Pearson correlation results showed that there is a significant, negative relationship between self-esteem and locus of control ($r=-.74$; $p<.01$), and a positive relation with intelligence ($r=.57$; $p<.01$); whereas locus of control and self-esteem showed a positive and significant relationship ($r=.62$; $p<.01$) conforming to the earlier findings.

The ANOVA (two way) results showed a significant independent effect of academic achievement on self-esteem ($F=51.36$; $p<.01$; $Eta\ sq=.43$), locus of control ($F=74.83$; $p<.01$; $Eta\ sq=.50$) and intelligence ($F=27.71$; $p<.01$; $Eta\ sq=.28$), and also independent gender significant effect on self-esteem ($F=10.92$; $p<.01$; $Eta\ sq=.05$), locus of control ($F=48.70$; $p<.01$; $Eta\ sq=.19$ and intelligence ($F=24.80$; $p<.01$; $Eta\ sq=.11$) among the samples. The results also revealed the interaction effects of academic achievement and gender on self-

Table: Mean, Kurtosis, Skewness, Reliability, Homogeneity, Correlation and ANOVA for the samples.

Academic Achievement	Gender	Self-esteem	Locus of Control	Intelligence
Descriptive Statistics				
High	Male (X<<	34.53	10.08	79.06
	Female	31.55	14.28	60.23
	Total	35.08	9.45	69.64
Low	Male	28.75	15.70	58.41
	Female	27.59	18.55	55.15
	Total	29.83	15.52	56.78
Total Male		31.97	12.40	68.73
Total Female		30.27	15.66	57.69
Grand total		31.12	14.03	63.21
SD		3.73	3.68	3.89
Kurtosis		-0.91	-0.82	-0.82
Skewness		-0.03	0.01	0.06
Reliability ($\alpha =$)				
Alpha		.71	.63	.87
Split half		.73	.66	.71
Homogeneity				
Levene Statistic (test of homogeneity of variance)		.27	.06	.35
Brown-Forsythe (Robust tests of equality means)		.00 ($p<.01$)	.00 ($p<.01$)	.00($p<.01$)
Correlations				
		Self-esteem	Locus of Control	Intelligence
Self-esteem		1	-.74** ($p<.01$)	.57**($p<.01$)
Locus of Control			1	-.62**($p<.01$)
Intelligence				1
ANOVA				
Academic effect		51.36 ** (Eta sq=.43)	74.83** (Eta sq =.50)	27.71** (Eta sq =.28)
Gender effect		10.92 ($p<.01$) (Eta sq =.05)	48.70 ($p<.01$) (Eta sq =.19)	24.80 ($p<.01$) (Eta sq =.11)
Academic x Gender effect		115.47 ($p<.01$) (Eta2=.37)	202.79 ($p<.01$) (Eta2=.51)	90.76 ($p<.01$) (Eta2=.31)

esteem ($F=115.47$; $p<.01$; Eta sq=.37), locus of control ($F=202.79$; $p<.01$; Eta sq=.51 and intelligence ($F=90.76$; $p<.01$; Eta sq =.31) among the samples.

Overall results showed the intelligence, locus of control and self-esteem relationship to academic achievement in confirming the objective of the study that (i) different level of self-esteem, locus of control and intelligence were found between male and female as well as high academic achiever and low academic achievers;

(ii) there was a significant relationship between self-esteem, locus of control and intelligence. The results also provided significant, independent effect of gender and academic achievement on self-esteem, internal locus of control and intelligence as well as significant interaction effect of independent variables (gender and academic achievement) on dependent variables (self-esteem, locus of control and intelligence) which indicated that the need of psychological diagnosis and appropriate intervention for academic success among the samples.

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Hidden Curriculum Vs Contemporary Approaches to Moral Education – Need and Challenges

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Moral development concerns rules and conventions about just interactions between people. Contemporary social life is becoming more complex with the advent of rapid advancements in science and technology and the fast-paced, largely digitally engulfed lifestyle. Technological advancement paradoxically offers both anonymity and the risk of exposing personal identities. Though the need for moral education in schools has been acknowledged for a long time, in the present-day context, the different ways in which moral education can promote positive development in children and the challenges of implementing them in India are discussed in this paper. However, a truly effective character-education program can have far-reaching positive outcomes for children. The range of positive outcomes includes advances not only in student's moral and prosocial development, but also in their academic performance and avoidance of high-risk behaviors. Successful implementation will result in positive outcomes that would be manifested in all the three domains of moral development namely – cognitive, behavioral and emotional.

Keywords: Moral education, Hidden curriculum, character education program.

Moral Education – Vital Need

Government of India sets up several education commissions from time to time. The reports of these commissions undoubtedly influence education policy. However, if we practically implement these recommendations certain gaps are observed due to social and political pressures and administrative lapses. These recommendations also included the need for moral education.

In its “Education for Values in Schools – A Framework” National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) while discussing the need for education for Values concedes that present model of education puts exclusive focus on the cognitive aspect and a total neglect of the affective domain. A systematic observation of current education system confirms the point made by NCERT that there is excessive emphasis of cognitive domain. Further, the persistent recommendations made by such knowledge centers and commissions have forced in some welcoming changes to include other domains such as emotional and physical in

the curriculum. Moral domain is not essentially a part of the curriculum of many systems, if at all; it is not given as much weightage as cognitive domain. As a result, there is a bountiful of students thriving in cognitive functioning but quite often, some are physically deprived in terms of health, emotionally stunted in terms of intrapersonal and interpersonal relations and morally handicapped to understand good or bad, violates ethics and finds it hard to choose between competing behavioral alternatives. Moral education is also required because one's character and values orient life goals, choice of personal and social affiliations, occupation, and how one conducts him – or herself in these pursuits.

Character: The Result of Moral Education

Moral development involves the development of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors regarding rules and conventions about what people should do in their interactions with other people. There are three components of moral development – i) moral feelings, ii) moral reasoning and iii) moral behavior.

Moral Feelings - Feelings such as guilt and empathy are believed to be significant contributors to moral development. The ability to discern another person's inner psychological state, perspective taking help to advance children's moral development.

Moral Reasoning – Piaget observed that from about 4 to 7 years of age, children display heteronomous morality, the first stage of moral development according to him is when children think of justice and rules as unchangeable properties of the world, removed from the control of people. From 7 to 10 years they are in transition period and from 10 years and above, children show autonomous morality when they become aware that rules and laws are created by people and in judging an action, they consider the actor's intentions as well as the consequences. Piaget believed that the changes in moral reasoning come through the mutual give-and-take of peer group, where others have power and status like the children. Parent-child relations, in which parents have the power and children do not, are less likely to advance moral reasoning, because rules are often handed down in an authoritarian way.

Moral Behavior – According to the behavioral and social cognitive approaches, the development of moral behavior is the process of reinforcement, punishment, and imitation. However, since punishment may have adverse side effects, it needs to be used judiciously and cautiously. In the moral behavior view, the situation and the ability of the child to resist temptation is also important. Children should therefore learn to delay gratification to achieve self-control.

Conscience – It refers to an internal regulation of standards of right and wrong that involves an integration of all three components of moral development – moral feelings, moral reasoning, and moral behavior.

Character can be described as the overall goodness of one's personality. Goodness is a broad-based positive, psychological demeanor characterized by the absence of inordinately self-centered attitudes of impudence, harsh boldness, rash assertiveness and lack of empathy. "High character" means taking

reasonable responsibility for the authorship of one's actions.

Conventionally, character is an evaluation of an individual's personality as described by others. Subjectively, it is part of one's self-concept, the way one defines himself/herself. Character to a large extent, comprises of one's values – fundamental and preferred beliefs about principles and used to make decisions about what is good, right and just.

Theories of Moral Development

Moral development is a multifaceted, complex concept. Piaget proposed that younger children are characterized by heteronomous morality. By age of 10 years, however they move into a higher stage called autonomous morality. According to Piaget, older children consider the intentions of the individual, believe that rules are subject to change and are aware that punishment does not always follow wrongdoing.

According to Kohlberg's view, there are three levels – preconventional, conventional, and postconventional – and six stages of moral development. Kohlberg maintained that these stages were age-related. Influences on movement through the stages include cognitive development, imitation and conflict, peer relations and perspective taking.

Gilligan criticizes Kohlberg's theory and advocates a stronger care perspective. Other criticisms focus on the inadequacy of moral reasoning to predict moral behavior, culture and family influences and the distinction between moral reasoning and social conventional reasoning.

While other theories focused primarily on development of moral reasoning, the study of prosocial moral behavior has placed more emphasis on the behavioral aspects of moral development (Eisenberg & others, 2009). Children engage in both immoral, antisocial acts such as lying and cheating and prosocial moral behavior such as showing empathy or acting altruistically (Gasser & Keller, 2009). Prosocial behavior occurs more often in adolescence than in childhood (Eisenberg & others, 2009).

During their first years, when children share, it is not usually for reasons of empathy but for the

fun of social play ritual or out of imitation. Later, at about 4 years of age a combination of empathic awareness and adult encouragement produces a sense of obligation on the part of the child to share with others. Children's sharing comes to reflect a more complex sense of what is just and right during middle and late childhood. Hence, it can be concluded that moral education may be more effective through middle, high school and college education.

Moral Personality

Researchers also focus on identifying the possible components of moral personality and have narrowed down on three components – (1) moral identity - Individuals have a moral identity when moral notions and moral commitments are central to their lives. They construct the self with reference to moral categories. Violating their moral commitment would place the integrity of their self at risk. (2) moral character – A person with moral character has the willpower, desires and integrity to stand up to pressure, overcome distractions and disappointments and behave morally. A person of good moral character displays moral virtues such as “honesty, truthfulness, and trustworthiness, as well as those of care, compassion, thoughtfulness, and considerateness. Other salient traits revolve around virtues of dependability, loyalty and conscientiousness” (Walker, 2002) and (3) moral exemplars – People who have lived exemplary moral lives. Their moral personality, identity, character, and set of virtues reflect moral excellence and commitment (Walker & Frimer, 2008).

Crystallization of personality is the result of early childhood experiences and long-term rewarding experience one gets through the course of development. In India, the transition from standard X to XII and standard XII to college is important as the students narrow down their choice of subjects to trail through their career path. Even those schools that offer moral education at junior and middle school shift their focus to only academics. To inculcate moral personality, consistent inputs may be needed, and it will also be beneficial when moral education happens alongside the changes in cognitive functioning when the adolescents become capable of formal operational thinking.

Role of Parents and Teachers

Many believe that moral education is learnt from home. Though it begins at home, school and teachers have a larger role to play in facilitating moral development of children. It becomes more effective when there is a productive parent-school partnership. In the present-day context, the collectivistic culture in India is rapidly disintegrating especially in urban cities and major towns. With both parents working, children are not just left alone but left alone with technology. The gadgets and the cyber world open a new vista. This can be beneficial as well as detrimental. While in some cases it keeps productive company, children need to distinguish and learn to do the right thing as these technological advancements paradoxically offers them the comfort of anonymity and the risk of exposing personal identities both at the same time. Parents and schools can effectively work together to monitor and regulate many such issues like negative peer pressure, bullying, exposure to media, devices assisted by technology, and so on. Parents can be an effective partner in following-up the progress of development of moral values. According to Ross Thompson (2006, 2009c), young children are moral apprentices, striving to understand what is moral. Relational quality with parents, parental discipline, proactive strategies, and conversational dialogue are important aspects of relationship between parents and children and their moral development.

Peterson and Seligman (2003) listed six core positive psychological traits that teachers are encouraged to promote in children. This includes: (1) wisdom – including both a knowledge base as well as a sense of curiosity, open-mindedness and ability to take other perspectives (2) courage – the ability to accomplish goals in the face of adversity (3) love and humanity (4) Justice – a sense of citizenship, leadership and equity (5) Temperance - a sense of emotional regulation and tolerance and (6) Transcendence – appreciating the bigger picture of the world we live in and others.

Hidden Curriculum

Dewey (1933) recognized that even when schools do not have specific programs in moral

education, they provide moral education through a 'hidden curriculum'. The hidden curriculum – conveyed by the moral atmosphere that is a part of every school – is created by school and classroom rules, the moral orientation of teachers and school administrators and text materials. Teachers serve as models of ethical or unethical behavior (Mayhew & King, 2008). Classroom rules and peer relations at school transmit attitudes about cheating, lying, stealing and consideration for others. Through its rules and regulations, the school administration infuses the school with a value system.

The Temperance Oath of a sect of Christianity reads as follows: "We, the members of International Health and Temperance association of Seventh-day Adventist believe that our body is the temple of God. We pledge ourselves to abstain from all that which is harmful to health such as intoxicating drinks, all forms of tobacco and narcotic drugs. We pledge ourselves to use moderately that which is good. We pledge to spread the principles of true temperance among our fellow citizens and strive hard to bring about a clean society". Along with other methods children are actively engaged in week-long activities that reinforces these values.

Few other religious minority schools also use their scriptures and religious material to inculcate moral values. This is done more rigorously in elementary and middle school. Apart from these schools, various other schools follow their own hidden curriculum which is diverse in content and strategy.

Character Education

It is suggested that schools can take a direct approach to moral education that involves teaching students' basic moral literacy to prevent them from engaging in immoral behaviour and doing harm to themselves or others (Nucci & Narvaez, 2008). The argument is that behaviours such as lying, stealing and cheating are wrong, and that students should be taught this throughout their education (Davidson, Lickona, & Khmelkov, 2008). According to the character education approach, every school should have an explicit moral code that is clearly communicated to students. Any violations of the code should be met with sanctions. Instruction in moral

concepts with respect to specific behaviors, such as cheating, can take the form of example and definition, class discussions and role-playing, or rewards to students for proper behavior. An emphasis on the importance of encouraging students to develop a care perspective has been accepted as a relevant aspect of character education (Sherblom, 2008). Rather than just instructing adolescents refraining from engaging in morally deviant behavior, a care perspective advocates educating students in the importance of engaging in prosocial behaviors, such as considering other's feelings, being sensitive to others, and helping others. Critics argue that some character education programs encourage students to be too passive and noncritical.

Strategies to Offer Character Education

Contemporary approaches to moral education hovers around the innovative methodologies and proactive strategies including creating a classroom environment that allows freedom of expression, non-judgmental and democratic teacher who can create this environment with ease, providing constructive feedback, leading the students to think alternative ways of behaving and positive reinforcement also helps.

Any creative methodology such as role play, theatre, using moral dilemma situations, play, imitation, exposure to altruistic models in media such as cartoons, children's movies, games, etc., art, spinning a story, etc. may be a means to inculcate moral values in children. Sky is the limit for inventing innovative methodology.

Teachers may be trained to integrate value contexts in subjects' not just imparting knowledge about that discipline. For example, a teacher of geography can communicate the values of oneness, interdependence of countries, unity of diversity, global unity, responsibility towards conserving environment, etc. This will simultaneously enhance passion for the subject along with acquiring necessary knowledge and assimilating invaluable values.

Middle and high school children also benefit when they are involved in community programs with purposeful agenda after initial necessary pre-briefings such as participating in events that takes them closer to the environment, visit to orphanages or old age homes or institutions

that cater to the challenged, underprivileged housing communities on a regular basis. Active long-term involvement in community services such as NCC, NSS, RRC, Rotaract club, etc. helps the children to evolve into citizens with moral personality.

Challenges

In India, the major challenge is to arrive at a uniform module which can be part of the curriculum because of diversities such as caste, religion, language, differences in socio-economic status, literacy of parents, belief systems, etc. Social expectations also focus on outcomes in the short term such as gainful employment, monetary benefits, etc. which is another major impediment.

Conclusions

Moral education should be a mandatory component of curriculum especially in middle and high school.

Though a uniform module is difficult to arrive at, a template of values to be included in the curriculum may be derived. Character education approach may be adopted than hidden curriculum.

Different approaches and strategies can be empirically tested to determine the effectiveness.

Parent and community partnership should be solicited for effective implementation and long-term effects.

Moral education should not be a neglected domain of curriculum throughout school education.

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Role of School Family Partnerships (SFPs) in Promoting Internal Assets and Positive Student Development

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Internal assets like happiness, life-satisfaction, hope and optimism, strength of character, positive self-concept, emotional regulation, empathy and pro-social behaviour of the school going students are very important for effective teaching-learning process. A happy, satisfied, hopeful and optimist student is likely to grasp and assimilate the subject-matter taught to him/her more effectively as compared to a student who is sad, depressed, less-hopeful, and pessimist. These internal assets of the students are very important in positive and effective schooling. Families and schools can play a pivotal role in developing and promoting these internal assets among school going students. School psychologists can also play an essential role in bringing about school family partnerships (SFPs). When teachers and parents work together as partners, they create important opportunities for the students to develop social, emotional, and academic competencies. SEL (Social and Emotional Learning) programs is now widely used in many schools. Several research studies have also shown that the SEL programs become more powerful when they are extended into the homes. A school going child has to spend more time with his/her parents rather than with the teachers at school. Many personality traits (both positive and negative) of the children may be attributed to the parenting styles of their parents. SEL and SFPs share a common mission to create an engaging and supportive climate for learning both in school and at home. CASEL (Collaborative Academic Social Emotional Learning) programs is also important in this regard.

Keywords: School-Family Partnerships, Life-satisfaction, Happiness, Hope and Optimism, positive parenting, SEL, CASEL.

Families and schools have essential roles to play in promoting overall development of the school going students. Positive development of students and their academic performance depend to a very great extent on the collaborative efforts of parents and teachers. When teachers and parents work together as partners, they create important opportunities for school going children to develop social, emotional, and academic competencies. Education, today, is increasingly viewed as a shared responsibility of educators and families. The collaborative efforts of parents and teachers in developing strategies for promoting children's social emotional and academic development and are viewed as very important.

SEL (Social and Emotional Learning) has been found to be very useful imparting quality education. SEL programs is now widely used

in many schools. Several research studies have also shown that SEL programs become more powerful when they are extended into the families of the students. (Albright and Weisberg, 2010; Patrikakou and Weisberg, 2007).

A school going child could spend more time with his/her parents rather than with the teachers at school. Parent-child interaction, therefore, is very meaningful in overall development of the students. Many personality traits of the children may be attributed to the parenting styles of their parents. SEL and SFPs share a common mission to create an engaging and supportive climate for learning both in school and at home. Establishing effective partnerships between educators and families, and using complementary strategies to promote learning in school and at home, create optimal conditions to create children's academic, social and emotional development.

SEL is the process of developing basic social and emotional competencies that serve children in all areas of life. The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) has identified five primary skill clusters for SEL: 1) Self-awareness, 2) Self-management, 3) Social-awareness, 4) Relationship skills, 5) Responsible decision-making. The results of many research studies evince that these five competencies can be taught and enhancing these social and emotional skills improves children's behaviour and achievement (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Greenberg et al., 2003; Zins, Weissberg, Wang & Walberg, 2004).

Cultivating these competencies among students requires safe and nurturant environment where SEL programs is coordinated across settings where children spend their time and offer developmentally appropriate instructions across grade levels- from pre-school to high school.

Research has shown that the children whose parents are more involved in their education have higher rates of attendance, home-work completion, and school-work completion as well as better scholastic performance (Barnard, 2004; Henderson & Berla, 1987). Family environment also facilitates children's cognitive, social, and emotional functioning and has been linked to increased self-esteem, improved behaviour, and more positive attitude towards school (Christenson & Havsy, 2004; Patrikakou, Weissberg, Redding, & Walberg, 2005). Parental involvement continues to be important as children mature. However, children of over involved and over indulgent parents suffer from some psychological problems (e.g. teasing by classmates).

Following fifteen skills have been found to be cultivated among school going students by school family partnerships:

1. Recognizing emotions in self and others
2. Regulating and managing strong emotions (positive and negative)

3. Recognizing strengths and areas of need
4. Listening and communicating accurately and clearly
5. Taking others' perspectives and sensing their emotions
6. Respecting others and self and appreciating differences
7. Identifying problems correctly
8. Setting positive and realistic goals
9. Problem solving, decision making, and planning
10. Approaching others and building positive relationships
11. Resisting negative peer pressure
12. Cooperating, negotiating, and reducing conflict nonviolently
13. Working effectively in groups
14. Help seeking and help-giving
15. Showing ethical and social responsibility

An individual's quality of life (and also the quality of student's life) can be conceptualized within an ecological perspective, which reflects the notion that individuals live in a number of inter-locking systems that influence the development of their physical, social, health, emotional and cognitive competencies. Schalock and Alonso (2002) have developed an integrative model of quality of life. Four major system levels are considered: Micro system, Meso system, Exo system, Macro system.

The micro system consists of immediate settings, such as home, peer group, and school which directly influence a person's life. The meso system, and its extension, the exo system, refer to more distal conceptual factors such as the neighborhood, social organizations and interactions between micro-system variables (e.g. parent-school interactions). The macro system is comprised of the "overarching institutional patterns of the culture or sub-culture, such as the economic, social, educational, legal, and political systems, of which the micro system, meso system, and exo system are concrete manifestations" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) that indirectly affect one's life.

An inordinate number of students report high levels of boredom, anger, and stress in schools. This often leads them to their disengagement from critical learning and school development. Positive mental health is the pre-requisite of a school going child and adolescent to develop into a good competent and critical thinking student. If a child or adolescent is unhappy, stressed, tense, worried, he or she is not able to understand and grasp the subject-matter which is being taught in the classroom. On the other hand, a student who is happy, free from worries, stress and tension and possesses positive mental health is likely to be efficient and competent learner, who can understand and grasp the matter effectively and meaningfully.

Noddings (2003) said, happy people are rarely mean, violent or cruel. She further remarked “children learn best when they are happy.” Thus, happiness and education are interrelated and happiness should be a major goal of education. Noddings further concluded that the discussions regarding this nexus (between happiness and education) should shape future educational reform efforts.

Internal Assets and Positive Student Development- Besides developing and learning skills through SEL & CASEL, some internal assets are necessary for promoting students' overall development can also be promoted through school family partnerships. These internal assets include quality of life including quality of student-life, happiness and life-satisfaction, hope and optimism, character strength, emotional regulation, empathy and pro-social behaviour. Rich Gilman, E. Scott Huedner & Michael J. Furlong (2009) have advocated the utilization of internal assets of the students playing a role in positive student development. Students' potentials and internal assets play a crucial role in positive student development. The important internal assets which promote positive student development are: Life satisfaction, Hope and optimism, Strength of character, gratitude in school, positive self-concepts, emotional regulation, Empathy and prosocial behaviour.

Life Satisfaction- One major component of happiness in children and youth is life satisfaction. Lot of research work has been done

on life satisfaction but most of the researches have been conducted upon adults. However, life satisfaction research using child and adolescent samples began only recently (Suldo, S. M. and Shaffer, E. J., 2007). Students' life satisfaction reports have been found to be associated with specific individual characteristics and their interaction with multiple environmental contexts. There is a developing body of research related to Noddings' (2003) contention that school should pay greater attention to the life satisfaction of their students, and that school professionals can do well to make systematic efforts to facilitate current and future life satisfaction in their students as a fundamental aim of education. In this manner, schools could provide a firm foundation in basic academic skills and at the same time they could provide a broader array of curricular options, instructional methods, and evaluation procedure to promote global and domain-specific satisfaction. In this direction additional research is clearly needed, but there is preliminary evidence to support Noddings' notion that educational experiences and happiness among students do go together.

One of the most robust findings in child and adolescent satisfaction research is that youth who hold positive evaluations of their self-worth and or personal characteristics (i.e. self-efficacy) often perceive the highest levels of global satisfaction (Huebner, Gilman, & Laughlin, 1999; Nevin et.al., 2005). Such findings also extend to domain-specific self-efficacy, that is, youth who report high confidence in their emotional regulation, as well as their social and educational abilities, also report elevated levels of satisfaction.

Hope and Optimism

Promoting Hope among school children and adolescents can be enhanced by

- a) helping students to set goals,
- b) helping students to develop pathways thinking, and
- c) helping students to enhance their agency.

When working with individual students, school psychologists and counsellors may use a variety of standard testing instruments aimed at tapping interests and aptitudes. In addition

to these instruments for measuring interests and aptitude, a school psychologist considers giving the CHS for the younger children and Hope Scale for those who are 15 years of age or older. Students with the least hope can be benefitted most from hope interventions. Lopez, Bouwkant, et.al. (2000) advocate school hope programs for raising hope levels. They also suggest that for those students who are identified as having low levels of hope, special approaches may be tailored to raise their hopeful thinking. The foundation of the imparting hope rests on helping students set goals. The goals must be calibrated to the student's age and specific circumstances. School psychologists and counsellors can help students in selecting their goals by identifying their potentialities. They may also help adolescents to select alternative goals, when they face a profound blockage and obstacles in one goal. School psychologists and counsellors may first measure values, interests, abilities, when specific goals can be designed for each given student. High-hope students also appeared to be interested in other people's goals, in addition to their own. Synder, et.al. (1997) see advantages in instructing students to think in terms of "we" goals in addition to their own "me" goals. This has the benefit of helping students to get along with their peers, and it makes for easier and more fulfilling interpersonal transactions. Thus, they have the pleasure of feeling good about themselves as they think and attend to the welfare of others and thus fulfill natural human altruism needs. School psychologists and counsellors can also help students in developing pathways to thinking. They can help students to break down large goals into smaller sub goals. The idea of such "stepping" is to take a long-range goal and separate into steps that are undertaken in a logical, one-at-a-time-sequence.

- School psychologists and counsellors can also help students in enhancing their Agency. Results of several studies conducted in this area evince that goals that are built on internal, personal standards that are more energizing than those based on external standards.

Intrinsic motivation, therefore, seems to be more important in enhancing agency than the extrinsic ones.

- It has been found through several studies and observations that hopeful teachers enhance Goals, Pathways, and Agency among their students in a more effective manner than their counterparts who are low on hope. Therefore, it is imperative that school should periodically organize programs for raising hope-levels of the teachers also. Positive teachers are likely to enhance positive traits among their students.
- Alena Slezackova & Andreas Krafft (2016), consider Hope as a driving force of optimum human development. They consider hope as the key to a happier future and if one loses the key, the door remains closed and if a person loses hope, he or she remains locked in adversity and helplessness.
- Monika Gautam (2018) found a relationship of hope with two other positive psychology variables -forgiveness and gratitude. Students who were found to be high on AHS (Adult Hope Scale) were also found to be high on forgiveness and gratitude, and vice- versa.
- Optimism can play a vital role in helping children to adapt to new situations and can ultimately protect children from depression and range of other mental health issues.
- It is important to understand that optimists' lives are not perfect and they also have negative events in their lives. It is their ability to recover from these events and dissolve problems more quickly. Thus, hopeful students possess more resilience as compared to less hopeful ones.
- Building children's levels of optimism will not prevent them from encountering problems and trauma in their lives, but it will make sure that they deal with them well and adjust psychologically in the best possible way. School psychologists and

counsellors can contribute meaningfully in this direction.

- “A pessimist sees the difficulty in every opportunity; and an optimist sees the opportunity in every difficulty” (Sir Winston Churchill, Ex-Prime Minister of England).

Character Strength

Character strengths are a family of positive traits that manifest in a range of thoughts, feelings, and actions. They are the foundation of lifelong healthy development. Character strengths are also critical for the well-being of the entire society. They play an important role in positive youth development, not only as broad protective factors, preventing onset of psychological problems but also as enabling conditions that promote thriving and flourishing.

Children and youth with certain sets of character strengths are happier, do better at school, are more popular among peers, and have fewer psychological and behavioural problems. These strengths can be cultivated and strengthened by appropriate parenting, schooling, and various youth development programs.

Emotional Regulation

- Emotional regulation, including the ability to modulate emotional arousal and manage emotional expression, facilitates adopted coping. Emotional regulation skills play role in developmental outcome.
- Children with well-developed emotional regulation skills, particularly in terms of strong negative emotions, face better socially, emotionally, behaviourally, and academically. They are more likely to manage their feelings in a manner that facilitates goal attainment. Studies conducted in the field of emotional regulation suggest that both direct and complex relationships exist between emotion regulation and developmental outcomes.
- There is increasing evidence that problematic behavioural outcomes are associated with a combination of negative

emotionality and the inability to regulate negative emotions.

- School psychologists can explore the various pathways through which emotional regulations may exert its influence, such as its relationship to academic attitudes and behaviours (e.g., attitudes, motivation, attention) and its connection to social support (e.g. relationships, teachers, peers).

Empathy and Prosocial Behaviour

- The ability to respond appropriately to others' distress is an important topic in child development. Prosocial behaviour has been defined as voluntary behaviour intended to benefit another (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998). Hoffman (2000) outlined a series of phases in the development of empathy, shifting from self-concern to more empathetic, other-oriented concern. During infancy empathetic responses are rudimentary reactions, typically marked by reactive or contagious crying in response to the crying of other infants. In the second year of life, toddlers are capable of experiencing concern for another, rather than simply seeking comfort for themselves.
- Children's appropriate responses to others' distress have important implications for school success. Empathy and prosocial behaviour have been linked with children's social competence and problem behaviours, and in much of the work these constructs have been measured in the school context (i.e. reported by teachers).
- Empathy and prosocial skills have been shown to academic functioning, although children's social competence and problem behaviours possibly mediate the relation between empathy / prosocial behaviour and a level of the child's academic achievements.
- Researchers have shown considerable interest in understanding the contribution of the social environment to the development of children's empathy and

prosocial behaviours (Knafo & Plomin, 2006).

- School-based programs has also been found useful in promoting empathy and prosocial behaviour (Solomon, et.al., 2000). They developed a program that promoted positive teacher-child relationships and provided opportunities for children to engage in collaborative interactions. Teachers were trained in child-centered approaches. There is a need to develop programs designed to improve children's prosocial behaviour and empathy and to test the complexities involved in supporting children's positive development.

Four key ingredients to promote school-home communication:-

School-home communication and family involvement at home and in school is conducive to the development of internal assets of the children among students comprise:

- Child-Centered communication
- Constructive communication-information
- Clear and concrete guidelines
- Continual, ongoing communication

Goals of SFPs :-

1. The school climate is conducive to involving parents and families in their children's education.
2. Teachers and administrators understand the importance of a positive school climate in relation to family involvement.
3. Teachers and administrators know how to create a positive school climate and are consistent in their approach.
4. Family members feel welcome in the school. They know that they are valued and supported in their efforts to becoming more involved.
5. Families are involved in their children's learning experiences at school.
6. Families are involved in school activities and governance.

Steps for Establishing and Maintaining a Positive Climate by School

1. Develop a plan to promote parent-educator partnerships.
2. Devise a questionnaire to assess parent perspectives and participation.
3. Recognize the skills needed to work effectively with parents and families and participate in professional development and training in parent involvement. Such activities might include college course that emphasizes the importance of family involvement, family development, human relation, and parenting strategies.
4. Find ways for school to become an extension of the family, thereby providing continuity between the two settings.
5. Help parents increase their knowledge of child development and support them in their parenting skills.
6. Encourage many different types of parental involvement and develop school strategies for increasing this involvement.
7. Breakdown barriers and establish trust by reaching out to families through home visits, having meeting in less formal and intimidating setting, and using written communication that all parents can understand.
8. Communicate regularly with parents in a variety of ways to keep them informed about their children's progress and school activities.
9. Accommodate parents' work schedules and time constraints when creating parent-involvement opportunities.
10. Ensure that school staff is accessible to parents and families.
11. Learn about the various ethnic, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds of students and know how to communicate with diverse families; reach out to families who are not comfortable in English.
12. Begin building close relationships with families in the opening conference of

the school year and continue to provide a comfortable environment for parents-teachers conferences.

13. Make parents feel welcome in the school by providing opportunities for parents to visit the school, observe classes, and give feedback. Consider building a parent center for parents to use while at school.
14. Engage parents in decision-making practices of advisory groups, school reform committees, and other school restructuring efforts.
15. Write a school policy statement that delineates ways to ensure a positive school climate for family involvement.

Eleven suggestions for parents and teachers

1. Do not criticize children. If children live with criticism, they learn to condemn.
2. Don't have hostility with children. If children live with hostility, they learn to fight.
3. Don't ridicule children. If children live with ridicule, they learn to be shy.
4. Don't shame the children. If children live with shame, they learn to feel guilty.
5. Be tolerant with children. If children live with tolerance, they learn to have patience.
6. Always encourage children. If children live with encouragement, they learn to have confidence.
7. Praise the children. If children live with praise, they learn to appreciate.
8. Always be fair towards children. If children live with fairness, they learn to do justice.
9. Let the children feel secure. If the children live with security, they learn to have faith.
10. Always approve their good behaviour. If children live with approval, they learn to like themselves.
11. Always show acceptance and friendliness with them. If children live with acceptance and friendliness, they learn to find love in the world.

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Neuropsychological Test Battery

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Neuropsychological assessment has become increasingly dependent upon the use of test batteries. The objective of the study is to standardize the Neuropsychological test battery among 90 people with Mild Traumatic Brain Injury. The test battery comprised of four sub-scales namely cognitive disability, attention, memory and decision making scales. Cognitive disability scale with 15 items was developed to assess the level of cognition and adaptive behaviour and the Cronbach alpha value is 0.81. Attention scale consists of 20 items with four dimensions namely focused, sustained, selective and divided attention were found to be consistent with Cronbach alpha value of 0.71. Memory scale was designed with 10 items, which were found to be consistent with Cronbach alpha value of 0.76 to ascertain the level of memory problems. Decision making scale was developed with 15 items and the Cronbach alpha value for it is 0.69. Neuropsychological test battery was standardized based on their reliability and validity, which is a valuable tool for neuropsychological assessment.

Keywords: Neuropsychological, assessment, test battery, mild traumatic brain injury

Neuropsychological test battery is a formal standardized scale with prescribed wording and order of questions to ensure clarity. It is a well-designed scale, based on the prescribed response format to enable rapid administration of the scale while the data is collected. The scale is complete with accurate information possible. This scale is organized and worded to encourage respondents to provide precise, unbiased and necessary information so that sound analysis and interpretation is made possible. Kurt Goldstein's (1939) theories assumed that all brain dysfunction (regardless of location, etiology, phase of illness, or the like) resulted in a central deficit in the ability to assume the abstract attitude.

Neuropsychological test battery was developed based on the information required, target respondents, methods of reaching the target respondents, question content, question wording and questions based on meaningful order and format, length of the scale, pre-test the scale and develop the final scale. It comprises of four measures such as cognitive disability, attention, memory and decision making. Flourens (1824) and Lashley (1929), who argued

that the effect of cerebral lesions on behavior was related to the amount of brain tissue that was damaged or destroyed.

Cognitive disability is substantial sources of morbidity for affected individuals, their family members, and society. Disturbances in language development, reasoning, problem-solving, planning, abstract thinking, judgment and learning from experience are particularly problematic, as disruption of these relatively essential cognitive functions causes additional disturbances in executive function, communication and other relatively more complex cognitive functions.

Attention is a cognitive process of selecting specific information from among many and focusing selected mental resources. It functions as a filter that inhibits the processing of some stimuli and allows the processing of other information since attention is selective. Attentional problems are common indications of brain impairment and are assessed by some psychological tests.

Memory processed by the brain takes in, keeps, recalls, and uses information efficiently. Brain injury affects these facets of memory. The misperception is widespread for people in the early recovery phase of a brain injury. People

with traumatic brain injury (TBI) do not remember events that happen immediately before the injury occurred or happenings during their hospital stay. As they recover, they have enormous memory problems, difficulty with remembering recent events and learning new information in recent memory, forgetting their identity and events that occurred in the remote past in remote memory. Even after the acute recovery phase has passed, people with TBI continue to have problems with memory.

Vigilant decision-making skill is essential to the success of self-management. The prospect of taking on responsibility for self-management seem unsafe and threatening especially if one is unaccustomed in taking charge of one's life. People tend to avoid repeating past mistakes. The survivors of brain injury find it difficult to understand the concept of time and money, have poor abstract thinking, a particular approach to problem-solving, difficulties in planning, strategizing, priority setting, cognitive flexibility, increased impulsivity and a lack of insight and poor judgment. These deficits affect the ability to make decisions.

Cognitive disability, attention, memory and decision making play a vital role to assess the magnitude of impairment which deliberately affects cognition of people with a brain injury that requires immediate reintegration procedures.

Assessment

Traditional neuropsychological tests are useful in determining the extent to which an intervention leverages individual's performance on everyday cognitive tasks (Chaytor et al., 2003). Several neuropsychological measures are structured with ecological validity as a primary consideration and are progressed widely. They include Behavioural Assessment of the Dysexecutive Syndrome (BADS) (Wilson et al., 1996) and Rivermead Behavioural Memory Test (RBMT) (Wilson et al., 1985). The purpose of the neuropsychological evaluation is exceptionally relevant in rehabilitation, where the primary goal is treatment planning compared to determining the type and place of cerebral abnormalities.

Moss Attention Rating Scale (MARS) was developed by John Whyte in 2003. The MARS was considered as an observational rating scale to provide a reliable, quantitative and ecologically valid measure of attention-related behaviour after TBI. Continuous performance tasks (CPT) first came to prominence when Rosvold et al., (1956) confirmed its understanding to brain damage, and the mission has since been used to measure the capability to withstand attention over time in a variety of clinical populations. This test is used to measure individual differences in sustained attention.

Rivermead Behavioural Memory Test (RBMT) by (Wilson et al., 1985) predicts everyday memory problems in people with acquired, non-progressive brain injury and monitor change over time. Multiple Errands Test (MET) test by (Alderman et al., 2003; Burgess et al., 2006) evaluates the effect of executive function deficits on everyday functioning through a number of real-world tasks (e.g. purchasing specific items, collecting and writing down specific information, arriving at a stated location).

Cognitive Reflection Test (CRT) by Frederick's (2005) measures the ability to suppress correct answers that spring to mind impulsively. The errors specify an inability to favour analytic over automatic processes when needed in judgment and decision making. Cognitive Ability Marker Tests by Baltes et al., (1980) measures were selected from a large body of factor-referenced tests that are developed and validated over decades of research on the structure of mental abilities.

Objective of the Study:

To standardize a comprehensive Neuropsychological test battery

Cognitive disability: It harmfully affects an individual's brain in a way that it would be harder for them to perform routine work making them dependent. It has two dimensions:

Cognition: A set of all mental capabilities and processes related to thinking, attention, memory, decision making and rational.

Adaptive behaviour: Collection of conceptual, social, and practical skills that needed to function

in one’s daily lives. This dimension encompasses feeding, toileting and grooming habits of people with TBI.

Attention: potentiality to focus on specific components of the environment that are considered relevant or exciting to flexibly operate the information (Sohlberg & Mateer, 1987). It has four dimensions:

Focused attention: used when a person is actively attending to something. It is the ability to attend to one thing to the exclusion of everything else

Sustained attention: ability to concentrate on one task for a specified period without switching off

Selective attention: enables a person to avoid distractions, from both external stimuli, e.g., noise and internal stimuli, e.g., thoughts

Divided attention: ability to react to multiple tasks at the same time, or to give two or more responses simultaneously

Memory: constructed on previous experiences to use information in the present situation. The memory comprises many structures and processes in the storage and consequent recovery of information.

Decision making: procedure that selects a perfect choice or a course of actions from a set of substitutes by specified standards or approaches.

Administration and scoring

Objectives of the study were explained to people with MTBI and confidentiality was

assured. There are countless variations of cognitive test that requires detailed explanation; the cognitive test is often separated into tests of ability and tests of achievement. The respondents were given the following instructions “Try to be genuine and authentic, there is no time limit, give your immediate response, do not think for a long time, your answers will be kept strictly confidential and used only for research purpose, there are no right or wrong answers and clarify doubts if any regarding the questions”.

Cognitive disability scale consists of 10 items under cognition ‘1’ score for every correct answer and ‘0’ for an incorrect answer and 05 items under adaptive behaviour ‘1’ for behaviour present and ‘0’ for absent. A score above 05 and 02 in cognition and adaptive behaviour denote better cognition and good adaptive behaviour respectively. Score less than 05 and 02 indicates poor cognition and bad adaptive behaviour.

Attention scale comprises of 20 items, with five items under each dimension. A 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 (1 – strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Agree, 4 – strongly agree) was calculated by adding all items. Higher the score (15 - 20) indicates low attention in that particular dimension. A lower score (below 15) indicates high attention.

Memory scale comprises of 10 items, on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 (1 – strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Agree, 4 – strongly agree) was calculated by adding all items. Higher the score (6 - 10) indicates better memory, lower score (below 6) indicates poor memory.

Table 1: Neuropsychological Test Battery

No.	Measure	Author	Year	Reliability Cronbach's Alpha	Test -Retest
01.	Cognitive disability	Vasanth Prabha, Sarah Manickaraj	2015	0.81	0.88
02.	Attention	Vasanth Prabha, Sarah Manickaraj	2015	0.71	0.78
03.	Memory	Vasanth Prabha, Sarah Manickaraj	2015	0.76	0.79
04.	Decision making	Vasanth Prabha, Sarah Manickaraj	2015	0.69	0.72

Decision making scale comprises of 10 items, on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 (1 – strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Agree, 4 – strongly agree) was calculated by adding all items. Higher the score (6 - 10) indicates better decision making skill, lower score (below 6) indicates poor decision making skill.

Data collection

People identified with MTBI were explained about the purpose of the study, and the provision of Neurobehavioural Rehabilitation. The researcher collected the data by visiting the neurology department in private hospitals. Active time scheduling for each person with MTBI was structured. Neuropsychological test battery was standardized based on item analysis which provided the important information about the quality of test items. Item difficulty measured whether an item was too easy or too hard, item discrimination established whether the items were discriminated between the respondents who knew the items well or not.

Item development was done with the initial set of questions for an eventual scale that composed of: (1) identification of the domain(s) and item generation, and (2) consideration of content validity. The second phase, scale development, i.e., turning individual items into a harmonious and measuring construct, (3) pre-testing questions, (4) sampling and survey administration, (5) item reduction, and (6) extraction of latent factors (7) tests of dimensionality, (8) tests of reliability, and (9) tests of validity.

Item analysis is a statistical method that was used to determine the quality of the test by considering each individual item and determining if they were sound. Item analysis is established to increase test effectiveness, each item contribution was analyzed and assessed. The main objective was to obtain the effective items and to examine whether they measure the fact, idea or concept for which they are intended.

Results

Cognitive disability scale was developed to assess the level of cognition and adaptive

behaviour among the people with mild brain injury. It was constructed initially with 20 items with two dimensions namely cognition and adaptive behaviour. Only 15 items were found to be consistent with high Cronbach alpha value 0.81. The remaining five weak items with less than 0.52 value were eliminated. The test-retest reliability score for 15 strong items was found to be 0.88.

Attention scale was developed with four dimensions namely focused, sustained, selective and divided attention components to measure the level of attention in people with MTBI. This scale was developed with 26 items initially, later it was reduced to 20 items, with five items under each dimension. Only 20 items were found to be consistent with high Cronbach alpha value of 0.71. The remaining six weak items with less than 0.42 value were eliminated. The test-retest reliability score for 20 items was found to be 0.78.

Memory scale was designed to ascertain the level of memory problems faced by people with mild brain injury. Initially, this tool had 15 items which were reduced to 10 items. The weak items were eliminated through reliability analysis. Only 10 items were found to be consistent with high Cronbach alpha value 0.76. The remaining five weak items with less than 0.40 Cronbach alpha value were eliminated. The test-retest score is 0.79.

Decision making scale was developed with 15 items to find out whether people with MTBI were able to take any decision on their own in their day-to-day life. Weak items were removed which constituted less than 0.44 Cronbach alpha value through reliability analysis resulting in 10 items, with a good Cronbach alpha value of 0.69. The test-retest reliability score is 0.72.

Neuropsychological test battery was derived based on the content validity used in previous studies. Content validity confirms that the measure includes an adequate and illustrative set of items that tap the thought. To examine the issue of the validity of the instrument used in the current study the supervisor and an advisor's point of view have been applied.

Discussion

To establish reliability and validity good test items were analyzed and chosen. The difficulty

and discrimination indices among people with mild traumatic head injury were checked to improve the quality of the test items. In the present study the Cronbach alpha values were found and considered to be reasonably good. The items were analyzed to determine their potential effectiveness and promote the quality of framing the items. The current study shows that the items had high Cronbach alpha values for all the four sub-scales, thereby increasing their reliability and validity.

Conclusion

Neuropsychological test battery was standardized based on their reliability and validity, which is a valuable tool for neuropsychological assessment. It is a very useful test battery in everyday clinical practice where standardized psychometric measures add evidence that help the clinicians for diagnosis and treatment. It can also be used as a powerful tool for screening and evaluating the prevalence of certain psycho neurological issues. This test battery provides the methods to measure, study, understand and explore latent traits, facilitating knowledge in mental health sciences.

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Emotional Abuse: Prevalence and Gender Comparison among Indian Adolescents

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Approximately 236.5 million adolescent population are living in India which is 19.6% of country's total and highest in the world. Only 40% of young students can attend secondary school. The basic aim of the present study is to find out emotional abuse among male and female adolescent students of India and then suggest strategies to cope with the issues. Emotional abuse is one of the burning issues and key concern of social scientists. Broadly, emotional abuse can be taken as an act including confinement, isolation, verbal assault, humiliation, intimidation, terrorizing etc. which may diminish the sense of identity, dignity and self-worth. In fact, emotional abuse is a type of psychological abuse that causes trauma and mental illness and every second in India a child is emotionally abused. The present study was conducted on 100 adolescents including boys and girls by using emotional abuse scale which was recently developed by Alam and Nasheen on Indian sample. The scale consists of total 42 items having five dimensions. Simply the data was analyzed by using simple independent sample t- test. The major findings were boys and girls were significantly different from each other in terms of emotional abuse and boys are high on emotional abuse than girls..

Keywords: Emotional abuse, humiliation, intimidation, isolation, terrorizing, counselling.

Emotional abuse is the most common global form of abuse and yet least talked about in India. It has been prevailing in all civilization and has become a part of all cultures. It can happen to anyone at any time in their lives, but scars of emotional abuse are invisible as many physical and sexual abuse survivors have revealed that emotional abuse was often more devastating and had immediate as well as long-term effect on psychological wellbeing although the scars of physical and sexual abuse are visible. In 2012, the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention revealed that 3.3 million children were being abused and neglected as reported by Child Protective Services (2008). United States, a developed country, spent a total cost of \$ 214 billion each year for child welfare, health care, criminal justice etc. (Fang, Brown, Florences, Mercy, 2012).

In recent years it has been experienced that the Indian adolescents have developed negative aspects in their personality. They have lost patience, tolerance, becoming irritated, hostile, aggressive, undisciplined, careless, they

don't pay respect to elders, parents, teachers, don't bother about their customs, traditions etc. Is it due to emotional abuse or lack of proper guidance and counseling, lack of employment opportunity, no space of value education, misuse of youths by politicians, impact of social media, pressure and over expectations from parents?

From many research studies mostly adolescents are victims of emotional abuse or they reflect effects of emotional abuse at their point of development. Adolescence is the second decade of life; the period of transition between childhood and adulthood which begins with the onset of puberty and ends with the acceptance of adult roles and responsibilities. This is a crucial period of life because anxieties, frustration, identity crisis, looking out for support and independence are associated with this period. W.H.O. defines adolescence both in terms of age (10-19 years) and in terms of a phase of life marked by special attributes. These attributes include rapid physical, psychological, cognitive and behavioral changes and development including, urge to experiment attainment of

sexual maturity, development of adult identity, and transition from socio-economic dependence to relative independence.

So far as child emotional abuse in India is concerned the situation is graver. India is one of the fast-developing countries in the world in the field of technology, economy and human resources but problems of emotional abuse are also increasing and so the concern for all of us. According to the Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India, study on child abuse, (2007) reported 48.37% children are emotionally abused in one form or the other, 49.99% boys and 50.10% girls were found emotionally abused respectively. The age wise break up of children facing emotional abuse in one form or other was 47.02% in the age group 5-12 years, 25.61% in the age group 13-14 years and 27.37% in the age group 15-18 years. The highest percentage of emotional abuse is the age group of 05 to 12 years.

Brief data on emotional abuse in India:

- Every second child reported facing emotional abuse.
- Almost equal percentage of both boys and girls reported facing emotional abuse.
- In 83% of the cases parents were the abusers.
- 48.37% children reported emotional abuse of one form or the other.
- 49.99% boys and 50.01% girls reported emotional abuse.
- 47.02% in the age group 5-12 years, 25.61% in the age group 13-14 years and 27.37% in the age group 15-18 years facing emotional abuse of one form or the other.

In many states of India, the percentage of boys' emotional abuse was higher as compared to girls. The state wise statistics show that Andhra Pradesh is hit by 69.70%; Assam by 50.21%; Bihar by 54.56%; Delhi by 60.62%; Madhya Pradesh by 52.81%; Rajasthan by 59.44% respectively. While Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Mizoram, Goa, Maharashtra, Kerala were found to have higher percentages of girls who were emotionally

abused. Another fact is that on various forms of emotional abuse humiliation is on the top, 44.13% children reported facing humiliation. Among those humiliated the percentage of boys was 51.02% and of girls was 48.98%.

This is an alarming condition as these groups could have negative outcomes in adulthood. The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) Study revealed increased risks for suicide attempts, alcoholism, drug abuse, and depression for those with a history of abused compared to those who were not exposed to abusive experiences (Felitti et.al.1998). Additionally, adverse childhood experiences for example neglect, sexual abuse, physical abuse play a factor in a victim's later physical health in both direct and indirect ways (Bonomi, Cannon, Anderson, Rivara & Thompson 2008, Perry, 2002). Perception of emotional abuse is largely individual driven, and what one child perceives as emotional abuse may not be perceived by another child. The fact is that such a large percentage of children are emotionally abused is indicative of the fact that the parents, adults, care givers deal with children badly.

Study on child abuse in India revealed the fact that the States where children reported high percentage of emotional abuse were Assam (71.3%), Delhi (62.01%), Madhya Pradesh (60.22%), Bihar (53.81%) and Maharashtra (50.85%). The report further pointed out that higher percentage of emotional abuse was found among boys compared to girls. This means that boys are generally treated more harshly by being shouted at or spoken rudely to or abusive language used when addressing them. We can imagine the mental health of such children as foundation of good mental health are laid down in the emotional development that occur in infancy and later childhood appears to be dependent upon the quality and frequency of response to an infant or child from a parent or primary caregivers (O'Hogan,1993; Oates 1996).

As far as the term emotional abuse is concerned a variety of labels appear to be used interchangeably such as mental cruelty (Navarre 1987); psychological maltreatment (Hart, Germain & Brassard 1987); emotional neglect (Whiting 1976; Hunwick 1998), mental injury (Kavanagh 1982); psychological battering

(Garabarino, Guttman & Seely 1986) and Coercive family processes (Patterson 1982). It is true that there is no agreement on the definition of emotional abuse as the main issue in defining the term has gotten into a long debate and that is why a variety of labels appear to be used interchangeably with emotional abuse.

It is a fact that any label of abuse, whether intentionally or unintentionally places a greater significance on the impact on a child's feeling and capacity to express emotion and develop relationship (O' Hogan 1993). Thus, emotional abuse can be referred to as psychological abuse, is a type of maltreatment in which the caregivers repeatedly make a child feel used, unloved and worthless (Iwaniec, Larkin & McSherry 2007) whereas as physical abuse refers to harming a child via causing a physical injury, for instance, punching, kicking, beating etc. (US Department of Health & Human Service, 2010).

The World Health Organization pointed out that emotional abuse is the most complex type of abuse – invisible and difficult to define. However, the WHO has defined emotional abuse as “emotional abuse includes the failure to provide a developmentally appropriate, supportive environment, including the availability of a primary attachment figure, so that the child can develop a stable and full range of emotional and social competencies with her or his personal potentials and in the context of the society in which the child dwells. These may also be acts towards the child that causes or have a high probability of causing harm to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. These acts must be reasonably within the control of the parents or person in a relationship of responsibility, trust or power. Acts include restriction of movement, patterns of belittling, denigrating, threatening, scaring, discriminating, ridiculing or other non-physical forms of hostile or rejecting treatment.”

The UN Secretary General's study on violence against children has also highlighted the difficulties in defining emotional abuse. The study says “standard definition is lacking, and little is known about the global extent of this form of violence against children. It is agreed that Garbarino and associates (1986) have done

wonderful and effective contribution and have provided the basis for more recent attempt at defining what Garbarino terms as psychological maltreatment. This can be understood as a concerted attack by an adult on a child's development of self and social competence, a pattern of psychologically destructive behaviour (Garbarino, Guttman & Seely, 1986). Finally, the American Human Association (2010) defines emotional abuse as a “pattern of behaviour by parents or caregivers that can seriously interfere with child's cognitive emotional, psychological, or social development.”

Emotional abuse related studies:

Emotional abuse is a problem that has been affecting people of all races, religions, socio-economic groups, sex, age, culture (Lueders 2002; Jolly, Aluede & Ojugo, 2009). In fact, emotional abuse appears to be more damaging than other forms of abuse. Iwaniec et.al (2007) pointed out that emotional maltreatment can be harmful to child's verbal and non-verbal communication skills and goal settings behaviour. Further, they pointed out that being emotionally maltreated can damage self-esteem and trigger later emotional and behavioural problems. Emotional maltreatment may negatively affect an individual's empathetic understanding by hindering the individual from being able to connect with the emotions of others (Sorsoli, 2004). Once the psyche of the child is affected the overall performance is bound to influence. Kurtz et al (1993) conducted a study on 139 school aged adolescents and found that abused children displayed pervasive and severe academic and socio-emotional problems. Childhood victimization is associated with long-term intellectual and academic outcomes. Perez and Wisdom (1994) revealed that abused and neglected individuals differed significantly in IQ and reading ability than those who are abused and neglected. Competencies like academic tasks and paying attention in the classroom be also influenced by childhood maltreatment. Shonk and Chicctti (2001) pointed out children who are maltreated are prone to difficulty in forming new relationship with peers and adults and in adapting to norms of social behaviour.

Experiencing any kind of abuse as a child has negative outcome in adulthood. Felitti et al. (1998) pointed out that the adverse childhood experiences increased risk for suicide attempts, alcoholism, drug abuse and depression for those with a history of abuse compared to those who were not exposed to abusive experience. In another research study adverse childhood experience such as neglect, sexual abuse, physical abuse plays a factor in a victim's later physical health in both direct and indirect ways. (Bonomi, Cannon, Anderson, Rivara & Thompson, 2008; Perry, 2002). It is true that being exposed to childhood abuse can lead to having high level of stress for long periods of time (Brunners & Marmot, 2006; Davidson & Spratt, 2010). Davidson (2010) found that abuse is associated with unhealthy behaviours such as smoking. Abuse can also influence later parenting practices (Bert, Guner & Lanzi, 2009). Bert and associates further revealed that history of emotional and physical abuse was also significantly correlated with maternal use of physical punishment, and a history of physical abuse increases the risk for punitive parenting as an adult (Dixon, Hamilton-Giachritsis & Brown, 2005). It has been theorized that mothers who have been victims of abuse have lower thresholds for reacting to their children's misbehaviour; thus, they are more likely to use punitive practices (Bart et al., 2009).

The general population tends to show a high rate of acceptance of the use of corporal punishment in parenting when asked their opinions about various forms of discipline. In a survey of 700 college students, 85% believed that parents hold that the right to spank their children and 83% stated that they would use such practice with their own children (Graziano & Namaste, 1990). Hence with regards to future parenting, research suggests that individuals who experienced harsh and abusive disciplinary practices as children are also more likely to report approval of such practices in their own parenting (Rodriguez & Price, 2004). Hence, any type of abuse during infancy, childhood has adverse effects on adolescents and adulthood.

Objectives:

The following objectives have been setup for the present study.

1. To find out the level of emotional abuse among boys and girls.
2. To understand the level of various aspects of emotional abuse among boys and girls.
3. To assess the difference of emotional abuse among boys and girls.
4. To suggest ways on how to reduce problems of emotional abuse.

Method

Sample:

The sample consists of 100 students studying in higher secondary classes. Both boys and girls were included with equal numbers (Boys, n=50 & Girls, n=50). A purposive sampling technique was used. The age group ranged from 17 to 18 years for both boys and girls.

Tools:

Emotional Abuse Scale: This scale was developed and standardized by Alam & Nasheen (2015) and was used to assess the emotional abuse score of respondents. The scale consists of five dimensions viz-Rejection, Terrorizing, Isolation, Ignoring and Corruption. There are 42 items ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The reliability index determined by split-half and Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale as whole was found to be .995 and .998 respectively. Before the pilot study and calculating the reliability, the items were given to experts to assess the emotional abuse who agreed its contents validity and asserted that the items in the scale provided adequate coverage of the concept.

Procedure:

A sample of 100 students' – boys and girls – aged 17 to 18 years old was administered to complete the Emotional Abuse Scale. The data was collected through personal contact with the participants. Before giving the questionnaire the purpose of study was explained to the participants and were assured that their response would be kept as confidential and will be used only for research purpose. After establishing rapport with the participants, they were requested to fill the emotional abuse scale carefully. The scale took

25 to 30 minutes to complete. The obtained data was analyzed by applying t-test.

Results and Discussion

Table 1: Showing overall difference between girls and boys in terms of emotional abuse

Gender	N	Mean	SD	T-Value	Sig.
Girls	50	108.18	12.668	3.042	.003*
Boys	50	116.22	13.740		

Note*p L 0.05

It is very evident from table 1 that girls and boys on emotional abuse scale differ each other as t-value = 3.042 resulted in sign (P) value (P=.003) that is less than alpha of 0.05 level. Hence, it can be concluded that a significant difference exists between the two groups in terms of emotional abuse. The mean scores of boys were found to be higher (Mean=116.22) than the girls (Mean=108.18). There are certain reasons behind this difference. The prominent reasons may be that Indian parents have much more expectations from boys and they see their dreams in their children. They want to bequeath the responsibilities of family, business to their son and so they put more pressure on them. As soon as they experience low achievement from the side of a male child they abuse them emotionally. The parents, teachers withdraw this love, affection and care. They also punish

them or create a fearful climate in the house, isolate them and psychologically demoralize them. Hence, these results in poor academic achievement or poor performance in all fields and this might explain higher prevalence of emotional abuse among boys than girls. It is also a fact that boys are more prone to anti-social practices in the classroom and outside of the school. These all might incite teachers and parents to abuse them emotionally. The Indian parents, caregivers, teachers blow flaws out of proportion, they make fun, call names, berate, criticize openly, give threat to their children. They may blame children for everything or humiliate and as a result the children of this type of abuse completely destroy a child’s feeling of self-worth and self-esteem.

Table 2. Depicts a significant difference between boys and girls on five dimensions of emotional abuse. Only two dimensions rejection and terrorizing were found to be significantly different as t-value was 2.163 and 2.190 at 0.05 confidence level respectively. Rest of three dimensions viz: ignoring and corruption were found insignificant and it may be due to a small number of sample size. The second reason may be that there is less difference of mean values of both groups.

The aim of the present research was to examine the level of emotional abuse among

Table 2: Showing difference between boys and girls in terms of different dimensions of emotional abuse.

Dimension	Gender	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig.
Rejection	Girls	12	131.25	35.732	22	2.163	.042*
	Boys	12	161.25	32.131			
Terrorizing	Girls	10	100.80	24.796	18	2.190	0.42*
	Boys	10	121.50	16.695			
Isolation	Girls	7	145.14	43.237	12	.320	0.755
	Boys	7	152.14	38.497			
Ignoring	Girls	7	169.14	38.497	12	.439	.668
	Boys	7	178.43	41.793			
Corruption	Girls	6	101.33	22.836	10	.250	807
	Boys	6	104.33	18.425			

Not*pL.05

boys and girls and find out the difference between two groups. The table reveals the fact that boys are more abused than girls and only on two dimensions – rejection and terrorizing, emerged as significant predictors of difference between two groups. The first reason is that the girls are good at suppressing their feelings and emotions as compared to boys. They do not reveal to others. The second reason may be that in Indian culture the parents, teachers and even general people have sympathetic attitude towards girls than boys, so the boys receive less love and affection and get threat, punishment from their parents, caregivers and others. The boys easily reveal to others whatever they experience but the girls do not express their feelings and experiences as they are less expressive. Sometimes the parents completely neglect the emotional aspects by not showing love or affection, continually ignore them or even refuse to support during the time of emotional need.

The above result may go in line with the current study made by Saddiq & Heltab (2012). Another fact of the result is that girls were also found to be just above average on emotional abuse scale. This can be validated with the report of Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India (2007).

Recommendations:

No doubt all parents, teachers, caregivers want a disciplined and well- behaved child/ student. However, there are times when a parent or teacher crosses the boundary in ignorance and loses control or simply has no control over their child/ward. This is when simply parenting crosses the line and becomes emotional abuse.

1) Individual Level:

The problems of emotional abuse may be dealt at various levels, but two levels are important.

Understand that it is not their fault: Though the abusers may influence you to feel personally responsible for his/her emotions, and the way they treat you, ultimately, it is the choice of the abusers to be abusive. It is not your fault and hence not acceptable to you. So, come out this guilt feeling.

Find someone to talk out: The best way is to share with others. There are many people, your friend, teacher and a counselor can help you. They may not change the situation but they will at least be by your side. Talk to a close, trusted friend of family member who may help you to cope. Do not let yourself believe that nobody cares, because it is not true. At least counselor will listen you.

Find Coping strategies: It is important to identify the things that help you express your emotions, release anger, bitterness and grief, or take your mind off your pain. There may be something that particularly soothes you or helps you take out all of your negative feelings: writing in a diary, poems, and songs, or writing stories, playing a musical instrument, listening to music is a good way to help him cope and enjoy.

Accept yourself as loving and caring: Many situations are out of our control. You cannot change others but you can modify yourself. It is in your hand. Learn to remember that none of this is your fault. You are worthy of love, care, respect and acceptance. Learn to love yourself. You are completely unique. You have your own qualities. Remember your qualities and respect yourself.

Think of the best reaction to the abuse: Fighting back or retaliating in kind is not always advisable or the smartest option. If abuser seems to be guilty about the abuses, then talking with him about how he/she will feel when it happens with him/her. Sometimes it works and may give the time to work out a better plan.

General /Public Level:

Capacity Building: Parents, guardians and caregivers are primarily responsible and accountable for the safety and security of the children in their care. Many studies reveal that parents have not lived up to these expectations. Therefore, there is a need to enhance parenting skills, knowledge, so that they may handle their children in right direction. As soon as parents, caregivers will be able to understand the emotions of their children and control their own negative emotions most of the problems of emotional abuse will be resolved.

Awareness among Students: The school

can be best place where students could learn life skill education which may enhance their knowledge and capacity to deal with emotional abuse. At the same time electronic and print media should be used to spread awareness. By organizing debates and discussion with children participation along with parents, social workers can be a regular feature in order to enhance people's knowledge and sensitivity on emotional abuse issues.

Government Policy and Legislation: There is a need to revise government policy and law on child protection. Every state should set up a State Commission to look after the emotional problems of children and formulate plans of action for children at the block district and state levels. At various levels accountability must be fixed and time to time monitoring is also important.

Sensitization of Family: Many studies have proved and revealed that majority of abuse cases takes place within the family environment and the perpetrators are close relatives. The family members particularly the parents be sensitized about the ill effects of emotional abuse because the children hesitate to reveal that they been abused or being emotionally abused. The family should learn how to identify their abused children.

Professional Assistance and shared responsibility: A child who has been abused or continues to be in an abusive situation, needs a variety of services such as counseling services, legal support and police service. Such services should be established especially for emotionally abused children. Finally caring of a child is a shared responsibility. The psychologists, social workers and social scientist must conduct researches on the issue of emotional abuse and try to find out various strategies/interventions to deal with this social evil.

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Locus of Control and Learned Optimism as Predictors of Happiness in Students in School

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The present research was executed to elucidate the role of locus of control and learned optimism on happiness of school students. The sample consisted of 60 students studying 10th standards.. They were assessed by scales of locus of control , learned optimism and happiness. The results of correlation coefficient indicated that all of the studied variables were positively significantly correlated with happiness. Also, the regression analysis showed that locus of control and learned optimism could predict happiness significantly.

Keywords: locus of control, learned optimism, happiness and school students.

Students are the greatest resource of a nation. They need to be given appropriate guidance and counseling so that they can lead their lives successfully. The need to be happy is an urgent requirement for students. They need happiness to lead life successfully. The present study is an attempt in making an understanding of how locus of control and learned optimism contribute to the happiness in school students. Locus of control is a personality construct and an expectation about fundamental causes of events in a person's life, particularly, whether causes of events are internal and influenced by personal action, or external and influenced by outside forces such as luck, fate or other people." Internal locus of control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being an outcome of one's own actions and thereby under personal control. External locus of control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behaviour in certain situations and therefore are beyond a person's control.

Learned optimism is a sense of enthusiasm, confidence and control, which develops once one achieves small successes. How an individual thinks about events in his /her life greatly affects the kinds of actions he / she take. Learned optimism is having a strong expectation that despite the inevitable setbacks and frustrations, events and experiences will eventually turn out alright. Happiness is a positive emotional state. It involves the detailed evaluation of one's current

position in the world. It is the sum total of positive effect and general life satisfaction. It is flourishing of human beings and associated with living a life of virtue. The happiness level of a person is governed by three factors which are a set point for happiness, happiness relevant circumstantial factors, and happiness-producing activities and practices. There are two traditions on happiness. They are eudemonic and hedonic.

Hedonic happiness parallels parts of the way of thinking of gratification going back to the old Greeks, a general form of hedonism holds that the main objective of life is the quest for delight and bliss. Inside psychology, this perspective on well-being is communicated in the investigation of Subjective well-being (SWB) .Subjective well-being takes a wide perspective on bliss, past the quest for present moment or physical delights characterizing a limited indulgence. SWB is characterized as life fulfillment, the nearness of positive effect and a general nonappearance of negative effect. The three segments are alluded as happiness.

Eudaimonic happiness takes help from Aristotle's composition and characterize happiness as self-realization, which is articulation and satisfaction of internal possibilities .From this point of view, "*good life*" comes about because of living as per one's "*daimon*" (one's actual self). Happiness comes about because of endeavoring towards self-completion a procedure wherein our abilities, needs and profoundly held qualities

direct the manner in which we lead our lives. It results from acknowledgment of our possibilities. April *et.al*, (2012) studied the impact of locus of control on the level of happiness of an individual. The research results conclude that happiness is achieved by individuals with a balanced locus of control expectancy – a mix of internal and external locus of control, known as ‘bi-local expectancy’.

Tammy Pannells & Amy Claxton (2008) studied the relationship between happiness, creative ideation, and locus of control among students. The results reveal that a significant difference on the happiness with individuals with internal locus of control, creative ideation was positively correlated with happiness and internal locus of control was positively correlated with creative ideation. Sonja Lyubomirsky *et.al*, (2006) found out that happy people are able to achieve across various life divisions.

Hong, Fu-Yuan (2017) said that the main purpose of this research was to examine the relationships among school principals’ transformational leadership, school academic optimism, teachers’ academic optimism and teachers’ professional commitment. The results revealed that principals’ transformational leadership has a positive effect on school academic optimism and teachers’ academic optimism. The academic optimism prevailing in an institution has a positive effect on teachers’ academic optimism. The transformational leadership of the head of the institution and academic optimism of faculty members have a positive effect on professional commitment of the teaching staff.

Batik, Meryem *et.al*, (2017) said that this research was conducted to study the forgiveness and subjective happiness level of university students in terms of gender, faculty, grade, residence, and parental attitudes, and to understand the role of forgiveness on subjective happiness. The results show that forgiveness was found as a determinant of subjective happiness. Flynn, Deborah *et al*., (2015) explored the relationship between happiness, and six other life domains: Academic Success, Financial Security, Familial Support, Living Environment, Self-Image and Social Relations. The results show that these domains determined student’s happiness.

Objectives

- To study the relationship between locus of control, learned optimism and happiness among school students .
- To assess the role of Internal and external locus of control and learned optimism on happiness among school students I.

Hypotheses

- There is a positive and significant relationship between internal and external locus of control, learned optimism and happiness among school students.
- There is a positive and significant contribution of internal and external locus of control on happiness among school students.
- There is a positive and significant contribution of learned optimism on happiness among school students .

Method

Sample

Participants: Sample of the study consisted of 60 students; their age range was 15 to 17 years. There are 30 males and 30 females. They were selected by snowball sampling technique from a school.

Tools

Locus of control Scale: It was developed by Bhutia and Nongtdu and has 40 statements based on one’s behavior. There are five responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Learned Optimism Scale: It was developed by Pethe, Chaudhari, Dhar and Upinder Dhar and has 22 statements related to one’s behavior and five possible modes of responses are provided, such as : Strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. Higher the scores, higher is the learned optimism.

Happiness Scale: It was developed by Rastogi and Moorjani was used. This scale has set of 62 statements related to one’s behavior. Five possible modes of responses are provided, such as: Strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. Higher the scores, higher is the happiness.

Procedure

The students were approached and asked to complete the questionnaires of self- efficacy, learned optimism and happiness. All the respondents were also told that their anonymity will be preserved and their responses will be confidential. After that questionnaires were collected from the respondents and scored manually.

Results and Discussion

Ha1: There will exist a positive correlation between internal locus of control and the happiness in school students

Table 1: Pearson’s correlation coefficient among the internal locus of control and the happiness in school students (n=60)

Measures	Internal locus of control	Happiness
Internal locus of control	1	0.405**
Mean	98.78	235.97
SD	9.482	10.797

** Significant at the 0.01 level * Significant at the 0.05 level

The Pearson’s coefficient of correlation was computed to measure the relationship between internal locus of control and happiness in school students. It was found that internal locus of control had a significant positive correlation with happiness (r=.405, p<0.01). The mean and SD scores on internal locus of control (M=98.78 & SD=9.482) and happiness (M=235.97, SD=10.797). Thus the hypothesis that there will exist a positive correlation between internal locus of control and the happiness in school students is proved.

Ha2: There will exist a positive correlation between external locus of control and the happiness in school students

Table 2: Pearson’s correlation coefficient among the external locus of control and the happiness in school students (n=60)

Measures	External locus of control	Happiness
External locus of control	1	0.430**

Mean	79.58	235.97
SD	7.872	10.797

** Significant at the 0.01 level * Significant at the 0.05 level

The Pearson’s coefficient of correlation was computed to measure the relationship between external locus of control and happiness in school students. It was found that external locus of control had a significant positive correlation with happiness (r=.430, p<0.01). The mean and SD scores on external locus of control (M=79.58 & SD=7.872) and happiness (M=235.97, SD=10.797). Thus the hypothesis that there will exist a positive correlation between external locus of control and the happiness in school students is proved.

Ha3: There will exist a positive correlation between learned optimism and the happiness in school students

Table 3: Pearson` s correlation coefficient among the learned optimism and the happiness in school students (n=60)

Measures	Learned optimism	Happiness
Learned optimism	1	0.235
Mean	85.25	235.97
SD	6.158	10.797

** Significant at the 0.01 level * Significant at the 0.05 level

The Pearson’s coefficient of correlation was computed to measure the no relationship between learned optimism and happiness in school students. It was found that learned optimism had no significant correlation with happiness (r=.235, p=>0.01). The mean and SD scores on learned optimism (M=85.25 & SD=6.158) and happiness (M=235.97, SD=10.797). Thus the hypothesis that there will not exist a positive correlation between learned optimism and the happiness in school students is rejected.

Ha4: There will exist a predictive value of internal locus of control, external locus of control, learned optimism in relation to the happiness in school students.

Table 4: Stepwise multiple regression analysis predicting the happiness from internal locus of control, external locus of control and learned optimism (N=60)

Predictors	β	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	t-value	F
Internal locus of control	0.237	0.503	0.253	0.213	1.476	6.317**
External locus of control	0.444				2.482**	
Learned optimism	0.218				0.983	

** Significant at the 0.01 level

* Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4 showed that stepwise regression revealed a significant model of happiness, $F=6.317$, $p=.000$, which explained 21% of the variance (Adjusted $R^2=0.213$). In the model, Internal locus of control ($\beta=0.237$), $t=1.476$ ($p<0.01$), External locus of control ($\beta=0.444$), $t=2.482$ ($p<0.01$) and Learned optimism ($\beta=0.218$), $t=0.983$ ($p>0.01$) emerged as a significant predictor for happiness. Thus the hypothesis that there will exist a predictive value of Internal locus of control and External locus of control in relation to the happiness in school students is proved.

Conclusion

Consequently, it is concluded that locus of control(internal and external) are positively and significantly correlated with happiness. It is also concluded that locus of control (internal and external) and learned optimism are having significant variance on happiness of students. It means that the people having greater level of internal and external locus of control most probably experience better happiness and vice versa. Because, people who have high level of learned optimism are expected to tackle bad circumstances more conveniently as compare to low level of learned optimism. So that it may inferred that people are having high internal and external locus of control and high level of learned optimism may also have higher level of happiness. The findings of study show a glimpse of the impact of student's locus of control and learned optimism on happiness. However, more researches are needed to study the moderating factors of happiness among different professions, culture as well as age groups. The

findings of students could be compared with those found in other area of the world to decode similarities and differences.

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Assessing the Impact of Ethnicity on Psychological Correlates of School Teachers

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Teachers are the backbone of schools. They affect the school system in many ways. They are a role model for students. Their personality, attitude, and motivation affect the children. This study assesses the impact of ethnicity on temperament, altruism and psychological hardiness of schoolteachers. For this, 120 schoolteachers were selected as a sample through disproportionate stratified sampling technique. The sampling area was Ranchi, Ramgarh, and Hazaribag districts of Jharkhand, India. The sample was divided into two parts - 60 tribal schoolteachers and 60 non-tribal. Four tools, Personal Data Sheet Temperament scale, Altruism scale and Psychological hardiness scale were administered in two sessions. In session I Personal Data Sheet Temperament scale were administered, while in session II Altruism Scale and Psychological Hardiness scales were administered. The procured data were analysed with the help of M, SD and t-ratio. It was found that tribal and non-tribal schoolteachers differed on temperament, while tribal and non-tribal schoolteachers did not differ on altruism and psychological hardiness. It means ethnicity has an impact on temperament but not on altruism and psychological hardiness and several factors are impact these findings.

Keywords: Altruism, Psychological Hardness, Temperament, Non-tribal, Tribal.

Schools are the key institutions in any nation's development. Its environment, facilities and administration, etc affect learning and teaching. Despite these, the teachers of school are crucial factors which influence the whole teaching and learning process. It is only teachers who play an important role in shaping the careers of students. A good teacher will help the nation in producing civilised citizen. Teachers shape the future of the nation. So future development of any nation is in the hands of teachers. Every child no matter where they come from need good teachers. Passionate, motivating and effective teachers are the foundation of quality education which opens the doors of all-round development. The teachers are architect of our future generations. Unfortunately, sometimes incapable people of the society find their way into this profession. Also, teaching is considered to be a non-lucrative job in the society. Thus, many teachers are frustrated and depressed. Some teachers have either resigned or taken voluntary retirement. Their status is supposed to be lower than employees of the administration, doctors and engineers. Nevertheless, there are some

people who intentionally join school. Considering this fact, it was decided to assess the impact of ethnicity on school teachers.

Temperament is an important dimension of personality. It is composed of several individual traits. Allport (1961) has said that temperament refers to the characteristic phenomena of an individual's nature including his susceptibility to emotional situations, his customary strength, mood and all the peculiarities of fluctuation and intensity of mood. These phenomena are regarded as dependent on constitutional make up and largely hereditary in origin. Hilgard and Atkinson (1975) defined temperament as the aspect of personality revealed in the tendency to experience mood change in characteristics ways. It is a general level of reactivity and energy. Temperament is the general emotional responsiveness of the individual (Hindgren, 1956). Murphy (1962) defined temperament as more or less characteristic persistent emotional disposition of the individual probably having a conditional basis. Temperament desires qualities of a person derived from his behaviour

like dullness, alertness, gentleness, sympathy, apathy, emotionality and the like.

Altruism refers to acts that brings benefit to other people. These acts are aimed at producing, maintaining or improving the physical and psychological welfare and integrity of others (Wispe, 1978). It implies an unselfish concern, the interest of others above concern for oneself. For example, altruistic behaviour covers a wide range including expression of interest, support and sympathy. Murphy (1937) opined that altruism is the desire to help others. It expresses self in many ways through sympathy, philanthropy, etc. The person with a strong altruism has affection and concern for others and usually in contrasted with a selfish person. Altruistic behaviour varies greatly across societies and cultures (Cohen, 1978). Margret Mead (1935) explained cultural difference in terms of early rearing practices. She showed that Arapesh adults love and cherish their children and this closeness is carried into adulthood.

Bronfenbreinner (1970) in comparing children in USA and Soviet Union notes that social responsibility norms are particularly stressed in Soviet school system. Even in India, rural people are supposed to differ from their urban counterparts in social values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, cooperation, sharing affiliation, association, empathy, etc. (Alam, and Srivastava 1992). Latane and Darley (1976) found that size of hometown influence helping behaviour. Some laboratory studies provide evidence that loud, irritating noise, interferes with helpfulness (Sherwood and Darwin, 1974).

Psychological hardiness is one of the major factors which is related to performance. Hardiness is often considered as an important factor in psychological resilience or an individual level pathway leading to resilience outcome (Bartone and Hystad, 2010; Bonano, 2004). Hardiness has beneficial effects and buffers the detrimental effect of stress on health and performance. Its buffer effect has been demonstrated in a large variety of occupational groups as well as non-professional including military groups (Bartone, 2006, Westman, 1990) teacher and university (Klags and Bradley, 2004; Nishizaka, 2002) fire-fighters (Jimenez, et al., 2006) and students (Hystad, et al., 2009).

There is a debate whether the effect of hardiness is interactive or primarily independent of level of stress (Funk, 1992).

Psychological hardiness is a pattern of personality characteristics firstly introduced by Suzanne C Kobasa in 1979. It is a personality structure comprising three related general dispositions of commitment, control and challenges that functions as a resistance resource in encountering with stressful conditions (Kobasa, 1979, Kobasa, Maddi and Kahn, 1982). The commitment disposition is a tendency to involve oneself in activities of life and as having a genuine interest in and curiosity about the surrounding world. The control disposition is a tendency to believe and act as if one can influence the events taking place around oneself through one's own effort. The challenge disposition was defined as the belief that changes rather than stability. It is a normal mode of life and constitutes motivating opportunities for personal growth rather than threats to security. According to Kobasa (1982) individuals high in hardiness tend to put stressful circumstances into perspective and interpret them in a less threatening manner. Psychological hardiness is related to psychological resilience or an individual level pathway leading to resilient outcome (Batone and Hystad, 2010; Bonano, 2004).

Objectives

1. To measure the impact of ethnicity on temperament of schoolteachers.
2. To measure the impact of ethnicity on altruism of the schoolteachers.
3. To measure the impact of ethnicity on psychological hardiness of schoolteachers.

Hypotheses:

Considering above aims, the following hypotheses were formulated.

- H1. Tribal teachers have better temperament than non-tribal schoolteachers.
- H2. Tribal teachers have higher level of altruism than non-tribal teachers.
- H3. Tribal teachers have better psychological hardiness than non-tribal teachers.

Method

Sample:

A sample of 120 teachers were selected. Ranchi, Ramgarh, Chatra and Hazaribag districts of Jharkhand. Disproportionate stratified sampling technique was adopted. The sample was divided into two parts.

Tribal	Non-tribal
60	60

Inclusion Criteria:

1. The sample were residents of Ramgarh, Ranchi, Hazaribag, Chatra districts of Jharkhand, India.
2. The sample were normal (physically and psychologically).
3. The qualification of the sample was a master’s degree and above.
4. The teachers belonged to government schools of Jharkhand.
5. Only male teachers were included in the sample.
6. Primary and middle school teachers were included in the sample.

Exclusion Criteria:

- 1) The teachers suffering from chronic diseases like cancer, AIDS, Hepatitis-B and like.
- 2) Those teachers were excluded who were facing legal cases.
- 3) Those teachers were excluded who were handicapped.
- 4) Contractual teachers and Para teachers were excluded.

Tools used:

Personal Data Blank (PDB): This Personal Data Blank was used to acquire some demographic information like name, age,

academic qualification, residence, districts, types of school, etc.

Temperament Scale: This scale was used to measure the temperament of the sample. It has been developed by N. K. Chadha and Sunanda Chandna. It has been developed in Hindi and published by National Psychological Corporation, Agra.

Altruism Scale: This scale was used to measure the altruism level of the sample. It has been developed by S. N. Rai and Sanwat Singh. It is published by National Psychological Corporation, Agra in Hindi.

Psychological Hardiness Scale: This scale was used to measure the psychological hardiness of the sample. It has been developed by Arun Kumar Singh. It is published by National Psychological Corporation, Agra in Hindi.

Test Administration: The researcher contacted the proposed sample, then their appointment was taken. On the proposed day, these scales were administered in two sessions. In session I, PDS and Temperament Scales were used, while in session II, Altruism Scale and Psychological Hardiness Scale were administered. Data were collected and tabulated.

Results

In accordance with the aims, this work was done to measure the impact of ethnicity on temperament, altruism and psychological hardiness of the schoolteachers. For this, four scales were administered in two sessions. Data were collected and analysed theme wise.

Impact of ethnicity on temperament: After administering PDB and Temperament Scale, procured data were arranged in table no 1.

Considering table no. 1, it is observed that the N, M, SD of tribal schoolteachers are 60, 96.97 and 1.56 respectively, while N, M, SD of non-tribal teachers are 60, 99.15 and 1.08. The t-ratio between these two groups is 9.08 which is significant on .01 level. It means these

Table 1: (N, M, SD and t-ratio of temperament of tribal and non-tribal schoolteachers)

S. No.	Ethnicity	N	M	SD	t	P
1	Tribal	60	96.97	1.56	9.08	.01
2	Non-tribal	60	99.15	1.08		

Table 2: (N, M, SD and t-ratio of altruism of tribal and non-tribal teachers)

Sl. No	Ethnicity	N	M	SD	t	P
1	Tribal	60	43.50	5.54	0.65	NS*
2	Non-tribal	60	44.21	6.43		

*NS= Not significant.

Table 3: (N, M, SD and t-ratio of psychological hardness of tribal and non-tribal sample)

Sl. No	Ethnicity	N	M	SD	t	P
1	Tribal	60	109.52	8.22	0.37	NS*
2	Non-tribal	60	108.93	10.52		

*NS= Not significant.

two groups vary on temperament. Further, it is also observed that non-tribal have better temperament than tribal schoolteachers. So, the hypothesis which states that tribal teachers have better temperament than non-tribal teachers aren't accepted. It means non-tribal teacher have better temperament. Thus, it can be said that ethnicity does have an impact on temperament.

Impact of ethnicity on altruism: After administering-PDB and Altruism Scales, procured data were arranged on table no 2.

Considering table no. 2, it is observed that the N, M, SD of altruism of tribal sample are 60, 43.50 and 5.54 respectively, while N, M, SD of altruism of non-tribal sample are 60, 44.21, 6.43 respectively. The t-ratio between these two groups is 0.65 which is not significant on any level. It means tribal and non-tribal do not differ on altruism. Thus, the hypothesis 'tribal teachers have higher level of altruism than non-tribal teachers' is rejected, and null hypothesis is accepted. It means ethnicity has no impact on altruism.

Impact of ethnicity on psychological hardness: For this, two scales PDB and Psychological Hardiness Scale were administered. Procured data were arranged in table no. 3.

From the above table no. 3, it is observed that N, M, SD of tribal sample on psychological hardness are 60, 109.52 and 8.22 respectively, while N, M, SD of psychological hardness of non-tribal sample are 60, 108.93 and 10.52 respectively. The t-ratio between these two

groups is 0.37 which is not significant on any level. It means these two groups are not different on psychological hardness. Thus, the hypothesis which states that tribal teachers have better psychological hardness than non-tribal teachers is rejected, and null hypothesis is accepted. It means tribal and non-tribal schoolteachers are not different on psychological hardness.

Discussion

Considering above findings, it is noticed that the first finding is that non-tribal teachers have better temperament than tribal schoolteachers. Several factors are responsible behind this finding. In fact, temperament is consistent to individual difference in behaviour which is biologically based and is relatively independent of learning, system of value and attitudes. So due to some biological factors, non-tribal have better temperament than the tribal sample. Genetic factors contribute to differences between human groups, environmental factors do so too (Rushton, 1995). Kagan, et al (1994) found in their research that Irish children differed in motor activities, vocalization, fretting, crying and smiling. Teachers reported better social adjustment and less hostility, aggression from Mongolian children than from Caucasoid children who in turn were better adjusted and less hostile than Mongolians (Tremblay and Bailargeon, 1984).

The second finding is that ethnicity have no impact on altruism. Needless to say, that human altruism is a product of culture (Campbell, 1975;

Margolis, 1982; Hill, 1984, Lopreato, 1984; Simon, 1990). But it is not whole heartedly accepted. How is it possible that a culture can induce people to sacrifice their apparent interests in ways that would not ordinarily be expected based on their genetic makeup. Secondly, if cultural make up exists, one must explain how they get transmitted and maintained over time and generations. The reasons one can suspect could be strong selective forces operating against altruistic behaviour (Allison, 1992). Both tribal and non-tribal are part of their culture and altruistic behaviour is part of their cultural heritage.

The third finding is that tribal and non-tribal are not different on psychological hardiness. Both groups suffer from some frustrating situations (Hicks and Heastic, 2008). Both groups normally suffer from same type of stress and situations like work situation, economic pressures, frustration with academics and coping with new demands and responsibilities. Both tribal and non-tribal experience same type of stressors. But in some countries schoolteachers feel a diverse range of stressors like discrimination, racism, etc. (Chambers, 2009).

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Does Safe Experience in the School Increase School Attendance Motivation?

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Relation of safe experience in school and motivation to attend the school was examined in this study. 396 high school students of Grade VII and VIII participated in this study. Considering the observation and focused group discussion a 72-item questionnaire was prepared measuring safe school experience and school attendance motivation. Results revealed that school attendance motivation was strongly predicted by the bullying and school climate. Besides caste no other individual characteristics like gender, age and religion were correlated with safe school perception.

Keywords: safe school perception, school attendance motivation, bullying, school climate.

Safe school reflects the vision or the goal for making a school safe. A place where students, teachers and staff feel physically, psychologically and emotionally free, and where enriched school program nurture students' skills (Donmez & Guven, 2002). Perception of safe school is a holistic feeling about the school being safe in terms of its climate, sense of belongingness among students towards their school, incivility, delinquent behaviour, feelings of personal safety in school, social discrimination among students by teachers or students or staff members, cleanliness. These together represent the psycho-social environment provided by the school and may act as determinants of school attendance motivation.

School Climate, Connectedness and Belongingness

Schools are environments where children not only acquiring knowledge, but also where they learn to know, to be, to do and to live together (UNESCO). School climate being a broad, multifaceted concept encompasses many aspects of student's experience like norms, values and expectations that support feeling socially, emotionally and physically safe (National School Climate Council, 2007). As noted by Skiba et al., (2004) it is the degree of connectedness that students feel with the school and their perception of the responsiveness of the

school environment. Positive school climate acts as one of the critical factors in the perception of safe school and is found to be linked to teaching, learning, effective risk-prevention and health promotion efforts (Juvonen, Le, Kaganoff, Augustine & Constant, 2004; Najaka, Gottfredson, Wilson, 2002; Cohen, 2001; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993). School climate has an impact on individual experience (Comer, 1980). Positive school climates also tend to have less student discipline problems (Thapa et al., 2013) such as aggressive and violent behavior (Gregory et al., 2010) and fewer high school suspensions (Lee et al., 2011). Positive school climates strengthen school connectedness, belief held by students that teachers and peers in the school care about their learning as well as about them as individuals (Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2009). With reference to attachment theory, students feel comfortable and secure to learn when they feel connected to their school environment which also fosters the sense of belongingness among them (Goodenow, 1992; Hamm & Faircloth, 2005). School connectedness is a powerful predictor of adolescent health and academic outcomes (McNeely, Nonnemaker, & Blum, 2002; Shochet, Dadds, Ham, & Montague, 2006; Whitlock, 2006). Violence prevention (Karcher, 2002a, 2002b), acts as a protective factor in risky sexual, violence, and drug use behaviours (Catalano,

Haggerty, Oesterie, Fleming, & Hawkins, 2004; Kirby, 2001). Students who feel connected to their school have better school attendance and stay in school longer (Battin, Newcomb, Abbot, Hill, Catalano and Hawkins, 2000). An unsupportive or negative school climate may decrease the sense of belongingness in students which further leads to drop-out of high school students (Fine, 1991). Feelings of belongingness may also be threatened by low-level forms of mistreatments such as incivility leading to increase in gang-related problems (Brunett and Walz, 1994).

Incivility, Bullying and Delinquency

Studies have suggested that civility in schools and society has declined in recent years (see e.g., Feldman, 2001; Forni, 2002; Leo, 1996; Peck, 2002) and that incivility can lead to violence (Boxer, Edwards-Leeper, Goldstein, Musher Eizenman, & Dubow, 2003; Forni as quoted in O'Mara, 2008; Mayer, in press; Skiba et al., 2004). Though civil behaviors alone cannot produce an instantly perfect society but these behaviors can improve society and this can be done by teaching civility in schools (Hatch, 1998). Incivility has been considered as a major factor shaping students' perceptions of school safety (Mayer; Skiba et al., 2004). Incivility is offensive, intimidating, or hostile behavior that interferes with students' ability to learn and with instructors' ability to teach, which can also lead to violence, which can be defined as the problem behavior displayed by the minor that includes stealing, drinking alcohol, smoking, using and selling drugs, threatening others. Prevalence of such behaviors in school also shapes students' perception of safe school. Other behaviors such as bullying, which is an aggressive behaviour intended to cause distress or harm, which involves an imbalance of power or strength and occurs repeatedly over time, also found to be negatively associated with perceptions of personal safety at school (Bauman, 2008; Beran & Tutty, 2002; Noaks & Noaks, 2000; Sharp, 1995; Slee & Rigby, 1993).

Personal Safety, Cleanliness, Participation and Social Discrimination

Personal safety in school focuses on the experiences that impact the feelings of personal

safety among students like feeling safe in classroom, during lunchtime, feeling safe to use washrooms and feeling safe while coming to or going from school. A safe learning environment helps students to focus on learning skills needed for a successful education and future. Another factor related to safe learning environment is the cleanliness factor that is to have proper sanitation and hygiene facility in school which will protect children from illness and exclusion. Cleanliness, orderliness and other school characteristics have been found to influence student's behaviour (Lackney 1996). Perception of safe learning environment also promotes participation among students, encouraging them to take part in different activities at school (Ralph & McNeal, 1999). Schools where some students can participate or given some benefits or resources than other students depending on their social situation can also affect student's perception of safe school. Previous research has also suggested that perception of school climate differs in ethnic groups (Fan, Williams, & Corkin, 2011).

School Attendance Motivation

Further, safe school perception influences school attendance motivation, which is the desire to attend the school, despite of all the difficulties. Positive school climate is associated with significantly lower levels of absenteeism (deJung & Duckworth, 1986; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Reid, 1982; Rumberger, 1987; Sommer, 1985). Students miss classes when their personal safety is threatened or when they feel unsafe going to or coming back from school (Centre for disease Control and Prevention, 2008). Such unsafe learning environments create a climate of fear and insecurity which leads to a perception that teachers do not have control or care about students' well-being which further leads to absenteeism. This is one of the outcomes of bullying at school, avoiding school may be a way to prevent or reduce victimization (DeRosier, Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 1994).

Plethora of research has suggested adverse effect of school violence and bullying on school attendance but the relationship that exists between student's perception of safe school and his motivation to attend school has not

much been explored as to the best knowledge of the present researcher. Also, most of the previous research has focused more on physical aspect of safety that is safety related to school infrastructure. Therefore, the objectives of this study are (a) to examine the pattern of safe school perception, and (b) to explore the relationship between safe school perception and school attendance motivation.

Method

Participants

Students of classes seventh and eighth grade from four schools participated in this study. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed 396 (Boys=197; Girls=199) were completed, representing 99% response rate. The students were selected from schools that had mixed population with respect to religion, caste, poverty level, age and gender. Mostly they were Hindus (95%) of General (45%) and Schedule Caste (38%). Since the data were collected from the village most of the students were in below poverty line (46%). Their mean age was 12.7 with SD 0.87. Boys and girls were equally distributed (50%).

Measures

Safe School Perception. This was measured with the 64-item questionnaires measuring eight aspects of safe school perception. Each question contained binary responses (Yes/No). The eight measures were - Connection/Climate (19 items, $rtt=0.74$, e.g., School rules are clearly defined and explained so that I can understand them; I am always welcomed in my school); Incivility (7 items, $rtt=0.76$, e.g., group of students cause problems to other students, arguments among students are common at school); Personal safety (6 items, $rtt=0.68$, e.g., I feel safe going to and coming from school, I feel safe in the bathrooms at school); Delinquency (8 items, $rtt=0.81$, e.g., I have seen students smoking at school, robbery or theft of school property is common); Social Discrimination (6 items, $rtt=0.23$, e.g., friendship depends on similarity in social status, each one gets equal right despite differences in social status); Participation (7 items, $rtt=0.39$, e.g., students can give their views if there is any problem at school, every student can participate or contribute to any program in school); Bullying (5 items, $rtt=0.23$, e.g., students call other

students by satirical names, students mock other students on internet); Cleanliness (6 items, $rtt=0.53$, e.g., there is a fixed place to throw waste/garbage at school, bathrooms at school are clean). Negatively worded items were reversed scored then responses averaged across items to provide subscale scores and then overall scores. Higher scores are indicative of higher safe school perception. The internal consistency reliability of the total scale was satisfactory ($rtt=0.85$).

School Attendance Motivation. It was measured with 8-item questionnaire (e.g., Going to school makes me happy). Each question contained binary responses (Yes/No). Negatively worded items (e.g., Often I don't feel like going to school) were reversed scored and then responses were averaged across items to provide overall scores. Higher score indicated higher school attendance motivation. The internal consistency of the total scale was satisfactory ($rtt=0.51$).

Individual Characteristics. Students' gender, age, religion, caste and poverty level were obtained, since they could co-vary with independent and dependent variables.

Procedure

Initially permission was collected from school authority for data collection. Questionnaire was administered to the student in classrooms. Two invigilators including authors were present for any query. After completion, response sheets were collected from students.

Results

Descriptive statistics

In the current study, questionnaire includes binary responses – Yes and No and the total number of items are 64. With respect to number of items, it is noted that 70.37% ($M=45.04$, $SD=9.42$) of the total sample perceived the school was safe. There are 8 domains with different number of items. The results have suggested that 87.37% ($M=16.60$, $SD=2.80$) of the sample perceived good academic climate, followed by personal safety in school which was reported by 75.08% ($M=4.51$, $SD=1.57$) of the sample. Delinquency was reported by 71.24% ($M=5.70$, $SD=2.33$) of the sample followed by

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics, Reliability coefficient and correlation among safe school perception and school attendance motivation

Sl. No.	Variables	Mean	SD	rtt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Safe School Perception (64)	45.04	9.42	0.85	-									
2	Climate (19)	16.60	2.80	0.74	.821**	-								
3	Incivility (7)	4.24	2.16	0.76	.699**	.505**	-							
4	Personal Safety (6)	4.51	1.57	0.68	.603**	.455**	.222**	-						
5	Delinquency (8)	5.70	2.33	0.81	.791**	.567**	.589**	.323**	-					
6	Social Discrimination (6)	2.97	1.28	0.23	.422**	.230**	.194**	.232**	.350**	-				
7	Participation (7)	4.42	1.60	0.39	.556**	.353**	.253**	.362**	.248**	.157**	-			
8	Bullying (5)	2.49	1.25	0.23	.475**	.232**	.201**	.293**	.295**	.196**	.329**	-		
9	Cleanliness (6)	4.11	1.49	0.53	.540**	.449**	.268**	.245**	.370**	-.030	.231**	.147**	-	
10	School Attendance Motivation (8)	5.01	1.87	0.51	.330**	.283**	.155**	.218**	.240**	.120*	.197**	.325**	.140**	-

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N.B. Number of items is within parentheses.

cleanliness, participation and incivility which was reported by 68.43% (M=4.11, SD=1.49), 63.10% (M=4.42, SD=1.60) and 60.57% (M=4.24, SD=2.16) of the sample. Bullying and social discrimination was reported by a smaller number of samples that is 49.83% (M=2.49, SD=1.25) and 49.54% (M=2.97, SD=1.28) suggesting prevalence of this variables in school.

With respect to school attendance motivation 62.63% (M=5.01, SD=1.87) of the students reported to be motivated to attend school.

Mean difference with demographic variable:

Mean difference by demographic variables, namely, gender, caste, religion and poverty level were considered. Results revealed no significant mean difference in safe school perception by gender (Boy, M=44.81, SD= 9.16; Girl, M=45.26, SD=9.69, t (394) =-0.47, p=<0.640; M=), religion (Hindu, M= 45.05, SD=9.47; Non-Hindu, M= 44.68, SD= 8.63, t (394) = 0.17, p<0.868) and poverty level (BPL, M= 44.91, SD=9.31; APL, M= 45.16, SD= 9.59, t (386) =-0.26, p<0.797). But there was difference with respect to caste (t (394) = 7.29, p<0.0001). Students of minority community (M= 41.95, SD= 9.07) experienced less safety in school with respect to majority community (M= 48.45, SD= 8.62).

Inter Correlation Matrix

All the subscales of safe school perception were positively and significantly correlated with each other as well as with the total score of the safe school perception scale (Table 1). Out of eight sub scales six (climate, incivility, personal safety, delinquency, participation, cleanliness) were more correlated (r>0.5), it suggests that students comprehended safe school by experiencing teacher student trust worthy relations, well-mannered relation among peers, feeling secured, lawful and disciplined, opportunity to participate into school activities and perceiving the school clean.

Correlation with school attendance motivation

All the sub-scales of safe school perception were significantly correlated with school attendance motivation (Table 1). Out of the eight, bullying r (394) = 0.325, p<0.0001 and school climate r (394) = 0.283, p<0.0001 were more related.

Regression

Since, safe school perception variables were interrelated with each other and were also significantly correlated with school attendance motivation, standardized partial regression was

Table 2: Mean difference in Safe School Perception and its sub-scale with respect to Caste

Variables	Groups	Mean	SD	T	p-value
Climate	Majority in Caste	17.66	2.26	7.67	0.0001
	Minority in Caste	15.64	2.89		
Incivility	Majority in Caste	4.86	1.55	5.64	0.0001
	Minority in Caste	3.68	2.08		
Personal Safety	Majority in Caste	4.58	1.55	0.90	0.367
	Minority in Caste	4.44	1.58		
Delinquency	Majority in Caste	6.37	2.13	5.63	0.0001
	Minority in Caste	5.10	2.35		
Social Discrimination	Majority in Caste	3.28	1.31	4.68	0.0001
	Minority in Caste	2.69	1.19		
Participation	Majority in Caste	4.62	1.58	2.44	0.015
	Minority in Caste	4.23	1.61		
Bullying	Majority in Caste	2.65	1.24	2.38	0.018
	Minority in Caste	2.35	1.25		
Cleanliness	Majority in Caste	4.43	1.36	4.21	0.0001
	Minority in Caste	3.81	1.54		
Safe School Perception	Majority in Caste	48.45	8.62	7.29	0.0001
	Minority in Caste	41.95	9.07		

**p<0.0001

Table 3: Correlation, Beta Coefficients, t-values of the sub scales of safe school perception regressed against school attendance motivation

Safe School Perception	r	p-values	Beta Coefficients	t	p-values
Climate	0.28	0.0001	0.18	2.76	0.006
Incivility	0.15	0.002	-0.04	-.074	0.46
Personal Safety	0.22	0.0001	0.04	0.73	0.47
Delinquency	0.24	0.0001	0.07	1.11	0.27
Social Discrimination	0.12	0.02	-0.003	-0.07	0.95
Participation	0.20	0.0001	0.03	0.61	0.54
Bullying	0.32	0.0001	0.25	4.84	0.000
Cleanliness	0.14	0.005	-0.01	-0.21	0.83

**p<0.

computed to determine relative importance of limited predictors of school attendance motivation. Table 3 shows that when effect of other variables was constant, bullying (beta = 0.25, t (394) =4.84, p<0.0001) and school

climate (beta = 0.18, t (394) =2.76, p<0.006) could predict school attendance motivation. Together they accounted for 15% (R2=0.15, F (8,387) = 8.990, p<0.000) of the total variance of school attendance motivation.

Discussion

Results revealed three important things- (a) differential perception in safe school experiences, (b) relation of safe school experience with school attendance motivation, (c) demography-wise difference in safe school perception.

Differential Pattern

Since safe school perception is multi-dimensional, it is assumed with eight variables namely climate, incivility, personal safety, delinquency, social discrimination, participation, bullying and cleanliness, most of the participants reported that school was safe. Based on domain and total scores correlation it can be said that their safe experience was may be due to good teacher-student relationship, control over delinquency in the school, civility and personal safety. Findings are consistent with past research (Juvonen, Le, Kaganoff, Augustine & constant, 2004; Najaka, Gottfredson, Wilson, 2002; Cohen, 2001; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993). Present findings suggest that students feel safe when they are accepted, treated fairly and recognized by their teachers. Students feel that they are always connected to school and they will get support from the school, teachers and their peers during any unsafe situation.

Inter-domain correlation suggests that students, who reported good teacher-student relationship, also experienced more civility and less delinquency. This suggests that good teacher-student relationship reduces both delinquency and the incivility as also evident in past researches (Anderman, 2002; Noguera, 1995; Wilson, 2004). Good teaching climate helps student in communicating personal problems, conflict with peer groups and maintaining civilized relations in the school campus. Besides delinquency and incivility, the safe school climate was related to other five variables that is personal safety (Skiba et al, 2004), social discrimination (Dotterer & Lowe, 2015), participation (Ralph & McNeal, 1999), bullying (Birkett et al., 2009; Kosciw & Elizabeth, 2006; Meraviglia, et.al., 2003; Meyer Adams & Corner, 2008; Yoneyama & Rigby, 2006) and cleanliness (Lackney, 1996) suggesting that good school climate changes overall safe experience in the school (Bauman, 2008; Beran

& Tutty, 2002; Noaks & Noaks, 2000; Sharp, 1995; Slee & Rigby, 1993)

Relation with school attendance motivation

Results revealed 62% students reported their willingness to attend school. All the variables of the safe school experience are related to school attendance motivation but positive school climate and bullying play most important role in school attendance motivation. This finding is in conformity with previous studies that suggested feelings of alienation and the risk of absenteeism or drop-out are often increased because of bullying (Rigby, 2002), unfriendly school environment (Lewin, 2007) and the fear of physical violence in school from teachers (Marin and Brown, 2008).

Both the data of safe school perception and school attendance motivation revealed almost 30% and 28% of students experiencing less safety in the school and they were less motivated to attend the school respectively. Further, studies are needed to identify specific safe school perception as well school attendance motivation of this percentage.

Community categorization plays an important role in safe school perception. Categorization weakens the bond between the student and the school (Dotterer & Lowe, 2015). Students of minority community (non-general) reported less safe school experience in comparison with the majority community. Students of minority community felt that there was a relatively poor climate, more delinquency, social discrimination and incivility in the school.

Limitations and Implications

There are some limitations in the study. First, data represents only the perception of students in rural school. Second, the emphasis was more on the perception of the students and less on the objective incidents in and around school. However, the findings have several implications; first, the study offers one reliable and valid instrument for assessment of multidimensional safe school perception in the school. The instrument is useful for counseling and guidance and it's a time efficient scale. Second, results identified specific variable like - good teacher student relationship, incivility, delinquency and

personal safety for safe experience in the school. Third, two important variables of safe school perception are identified as major factors for school attendance motivation that is bullying and school climate.

To sum up, the current study provides one reliable and valid tool for assessment of multidimensional safe school perception questionnaire and the theory related to safe perception and school attendance motivation.

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Spiritual Intelligence, Perceived stress and Psychological Well-Being of Adolescents

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The purpose of this study is to find out if any relation exists between spiritual intelligence with perceived stress and psychological well-being in adolescents. Adolescence is a critical stage of life with various changes in physical, psychological and emotional spheres. Spiritual intelligence is a higher state of mind. Therefore, possessing it may help to adapt to these challenges in a constructive way. Hence, the influence of spiritual intelligence on perceived stress and psychological wellbeing was examined. The study was conducted on 110 males and females each (sample= 220) of an age range of 15-17 years. The tools used were Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory (SISRI-24), Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) and Ryff's Psychological Well-Being scale. Correlation was done on the data. A significant negative correlation between spiritual intelligence and perceived stress and a significant positive correlation between spiritual intelligence and psychological well-being was found. Therefore, the hypotheses were accepted. Hence it was concluded that spiritual intelligence helps in reducing stress and enhancing wellbeing.

Keywords: spiritual intelligence, perceived stress and psychological well-being.

Adolescence is a period with major physical and psychological changes. This is when an individual creates his/her behavioural and emotional response pattern which is stable throughout life. It is a period when most of the psychopathologies originate. Therefore, positive development is essential at this stage. All the challenges faced should be dealt positively. Adolescents at this risk period may go through stressful situation as major decisions of life are to be made. Adolescents go through major academic challenges, relationship conflicts etc. at this stage.

There are many factors which contribute to the positive development of adolescents. Personality traits, intelligence, parental role, social support, peer relations etc are a few of them.

Spiritual intelligence fosters the positive development of an individual. Cindy Wigglesworth (2012) defines spiritual intelligence as "the ability to behave with wisdom and compassion, while maintaining inner and outer peace, regardless of the situation". Robert Emmons (1999)

defined spiritual intelligence as "the adaptive use of spiritual information to facilitate everyday problem solving and goal attainment". Amram (2007) conceptualized spiritual intelligence as the ability which causes self-consciousness, self-control, understanding meaning of life, purposefulness, increase in peace, effective communication with others and mental health.

Spiritual intelligence was reviewed by many researchers (Emmons, 1999; Sisk & Torrance, 2001; Wolman, 2001; Zohar and Marshal, 2002; Nasel, 2004; Khavari, 2000; MacHovec, 2002; Rogers, 2003; Yang, 2006; Mark, 2004; King, 2007 and Howard et al, 2009).

King (2008) defines spiritual intelligence as a set of mental capacities which contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one's existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of a transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states.

Four core components of spiritual intelligence were identified.

- (1) Critical existential thinking: The capacity to critically think about the meaning and purpose of one's existence and to contemplate non-existential issues in relation to one's existence.
- (2) Personal meaning production: The ability to derive personal meaning and purpose from all physical and mental experiences including the capacity to create and master a life purpose.
- (3) Transcendental awareness: The capacity to identify transcendent dimensions/patterns of the self (i.e., a transpersonal or transcendent self), of others, and of the physical world (e.g., holism, non-materialism) during normal states of consciousness, accompanied by the capacity to identify their relationship to one's self and to the physical world;
- (4) Conscious state expansion: The ability to enter and exit higher/spiritual states of consciousness (e.g. pure consciousness, cosmic consciousness, unity, oneness) at one's own discretion (as in deep contemplation or reflection, meditation, prayer, etc.).

Adolescence is a period when spiritual capacities are formed resulting in identity formation and abstract reasoning (Ellsworth, 1999; Fitzgerald, 2005; Helminiak, 1987). Existential skills expand during high school (Cook & Oltjenbruns, 1982). This can contribute to physical, psychological and emotional growth.

Stress is the imbalance between the demands of the environment and the resources to cope with them. It is a psychological agent which influences physical and emotional well-being (Lazarus & Folkman 1984) in a negative way. Perceived stress is the degree to which an individual appraises a situation to be stressful. Perceiving in such a way that the situational demands exceeds their ability to cope. The perception of stress is an important aspect in experiencing stress. Coping with stress is very important for the individual to function normally. Managing stress well is important for an individual's wellbeing.

Spiritual intelligence can help an individual to solve the problems and cope with the stress.

Wellbeing is the physical, psychological and emotional health of an individual. Gough and McGregor (2007) defines wellbeing as something that people are notionally able to do and to be, and what they have been able to do and to be.

According to Carol Ryff (1989) there are six components of well-being, namely, autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life and self-acceptance.

Wellbeing is directly and indirectly affected by spiritual intelligence (Schreiber, 2009).

An individual with spiritual wellbeing exhibits mental well-being along with internal and external compassion and reconciliation in any situation (Kates, 2002 and Wigglesworth, 2006).

Therefore, spiritual intelligence acts as a protecting factor to a level off the effect of stress and leads to well-being. Farideh Hosseinsabet and Habil Ataei (2016) studied the relationship between spiritual intelligence with patience and perceived stress in 150 undergraduate students of faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Allameh Tabataba'i University. The result showed a positive significant relation between spiritual intelligence and patience and significant negative relationship between spiritual intelligence and perceived stress.

Meena Jain and Santosh Meena (2013) studied the relationship of spiritual intelligence and adjustment of adolescents on 100 female students of Banasthali University, Rajasthan. The result showed a significant and positive relation between spiritual intelligence and adjustment in adolescents. This shows lesser level of stress and wellbeing.

Mascaro and Rosen (2006) studied the role of existential meaning as a buffer against the effect of stress on depression and hope with a sample of 143 undergraduate students. It showed if spiritual meaning is low, the relationship between stress and depression will be high. It suggests that spiritual sense acts as a barrier against the effect of stress on wellbeing.

The spiritual sense can lessen the effect of stress and enhance wellbeing.

Sarita Sood, Arti Bakhshi and Richa Gupta (2012) studied the relationship between personality traits, spiritual intelligence and wellbeing in university students. Positive relation was found between factors of spiritual intelligence and personality. Mostly importantly transcendental awareness, a factor of spiritual intelligence predicted wellbeing. Maryam Eslami Farsani, Shahram Arofzad and Taghi Agha Hosaini (2013) studied the relationship between spiritual intelligence with personality traits among 121 physical education managers in Isfahan province. A positive, meaningful correlation between spiritual intelligence personality sub-scales such as Openness to Experience, conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Extraversion was found.

M. P. Singh and Jyotsna Sinha studied the impact of spiritual intelligence on quality of life taking 303 government officers of different ranks as sample. The result showed that spiritual intelligence leads to better quality of life. Quality of life indicates the wellbeing of an individual.

Li-Chuan Chu (2009) evaluated the benefits of meditation regarding emotional intelligence (EI), perceived stress and negative mental health with cross-sectional and experimental studies. Study on 351 full time working adults showed that greater meditation experience exhibited higher EI, and less perceived stress and negative mental health than those who had less or no meditation. Experiment on 20 graduate students by dividing them into mindfulness meditation treatment and control group and then measuring pre-treatment and post-treatment condition showed significant improvement.

A study by Khadijeh Ahoei, Mahbobeh Faramarzi, and Ramezan Hassanzadeh (2017) on the relationship between spiritual intelligence and psychological well-being in women with breast cancers was done on 90 women with breast cancer referring for treatment to Shahid Rajaei hospital of Babolsar, and Ayatollah Rouhani and the counseling center for cancer registry of Babol (Iran). The result showed that spiritual intelligence is a strong independent predictor of psychological well-being.

Masoumeh Khosravi and Zahra Nikmanesh (2014) studied the relationship of spiritual intelligence with resilience and perceived stress on 307 students of Sistan and Baluchistan University. A significant, positive relation was found between spiritual intelligence and resilience and a significant, negative relationship was found between spiritual intelligence and perceived stress.

Researches has shown the positive impact of spiritual intelligence on work performance among nurses (Rani, Abidin & Hamid, 2013), job satisfaction among schoolteachers (Zamani, Reza, Karimi & Fariba, 2015), and psychological empowerment among nurses (Torabi, Moghimi & Monavarian, 2013).

Objectives

1. To examine the relationship between spiritual intelligence and perceived stress in adolescents.
2. To examine the relationship between spiritual intelligence and psychological wellbeing of adolescents.

Hypotheses

1. Spiritual intelligence would be negatively correlated to perceived stress.
2. Spiritual intelligence would be positively correlated to psychological wellbeing.

Method

Sample

The study was conducted on 110 males and females, each (sample=220) of an age range of 15-17 years from Kannur district, Kerala.

Tools

1. Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory (SISRI), developed by D. King (2008).
2. Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), developed by Sheldon Cohen (1998).
3. Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale, developed by Carol Ryff (1995).

Results

The result table shows the correlation coefficients of spiritual intelligence with perceived stress and psychological wellbeing.

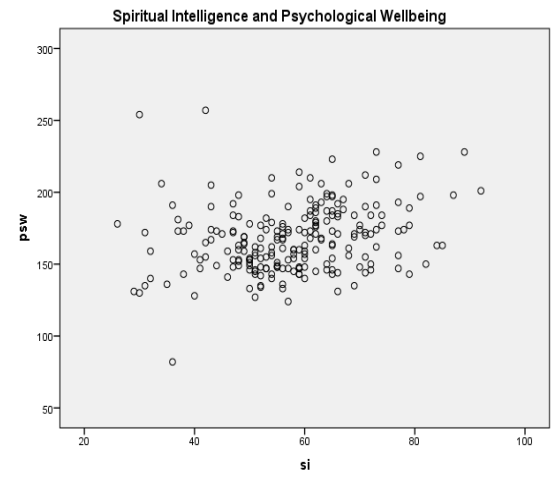
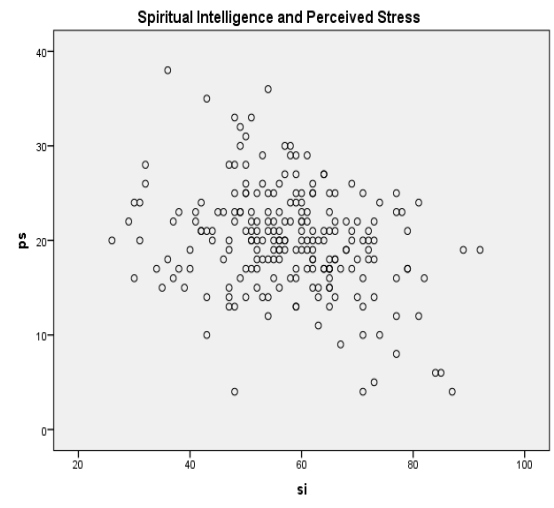
Table 1: Correlations of spiritual intelligence with perceived stress and spiritual intelligence with psychological well-being.

		si	Ps	psw
Si	Pearson Correlation	1	-.283**	.342**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	220	220	220
Ps	Pearson Correlation	-.283**	1	-.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	220	220	220
Psw	Pearson Correlation	.342**	-.340**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	220	220	220

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

**(si-spiritual intelligence; ps-perceived stress; psw-psychological wellbeing)

The scatter plots show the relation of spiritual intelligence with perceived stress and spiritual intelligence with psychological well-being.



Discussion

The present study was done to examine the relationship of spiritual intelligence with perceived stress and psychological well-being in adolescents.

The first hypothesis, spiritual intelligence would be negatively correlated with perceived stress was accepted. Spiritual intelligence and perceived stress has a negative correlation ($r = -.283$) which is significant at 0.01 level (Table 1). The high level of spiritual intelligence may indicate low level of perceived stress.

The second hypothesis, spiritual intelligence would be positively correlated with psychological well-being was also accepted. Spiritual intelligence and psychological well-being has a positive correlation ($r = .342$) which is significant at 0.01 level (Table 1). The high level of spiritual intelligence may indicate high psychological well-being.

The results are consistent with previous researches which show a positive impact of spiritual intelligence on life.

In a study, the relationship between spiritual intelligence with patience and perceived stress was examined in 150 undergraduate students of Allameh Tabatabai University. The result showed a positive and significant relation between spiritual intelligence and patience and significant and negative relationship between spiritual

intelligence and perceived stress (Hosseinsabet & Ataei, 2016). This supports first hypothesis of the current study.

Another study examined the role of existential meaning as a buffer against the effect of stress on depression and hope with a sample of 143 undergraduate students. It showed that if spiritual meaning is low, the relationship between stress and depression will be high. The spiritual sense can lessen the effect of stress and enhance wellbeing (Mascaro & Rosen, 2006). The finding supports both the hypotheses of the current study.

A study on the relationship of spiritual intelligence and adjustment of adolescents on 100 females showed a significant and positive relation between spiritual intelligence and adjustment in adolescents. Adjustment indicates low stress and good psychological wellbeing (Jain & Meena, 2013), which also supports the current findings.

Another study on the relationship between spiritual intelligence and psychological wellbeing among breast cancer patients in Iran showed that spiritual intelligence is a strong independent predictor of psychological well-being. This supports the second hypothesis of the current study (Ahoie, Faramarzi, & Hassanzadeh, 2017).

There are various other studies which indicates the positive effect of spiritual intelligence.

Research has shown positive relation of spiritual intelligence with resilience in school students (Khosravi & Nikmanesh, 2014), patience in undergraduate students (Hosseinsabet & Ataei, 2016), and transcendental awareness predicting wellbeing among undergraduate students (Sood, Bakhshi & Gupta, 2012).

Researches also strongly support spiritual intelligence having inverse relation with perceived stress (Hosseinsabet & Ataei, 2016; Mascaro & Rosen, 2006; Li-Chuan Chu, 2009; Khosravi & Nikmanesh, 2014).

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to find the relationship between spiritual intelligence

with perceived stress and psychological well-being among adolescents. A positive relation was found between spiritual intelligence and psychological well-being and a negative relation was found between spiritual intelligence and perceived stress. Both the hypotheses of the study was accepted.

Spiritual capacities expand during adolescence. It can lead to development of positive traits leading to wellbeing and proper management of stress.

Therefore, improving spiritual capacities should be taken into consideration during adolescence as it can lead to better development.

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Culturally Competent Practice in Psychological Assessment

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Culture is a way of life and it encompasses all that surrounds us and also things that are within us. The psychological assessment practice with multicultural populations in any country requires evidence based cultural competence. Culturally competent assessment practice includes culture-specific styles of service delivery, use of the patient's first language, culture, values, and an evaluation of the client as a cultural being prior to test administration using cultural orientation categories. This information is very essential for understanding health and illness related beliefs, to indicate the possible presence of culture-specific symptoms, and to select standard or culture-specific tests. Assessment ethics recognize the desirability of alteration or modification of standard tests by translation and development of new norms. Professional and societal benefits of cultural competence in assessment are suggested.

Keywords: psychological assessment, multi-culture, assessment ethics, cross cultural.

To understand cultural competence, we must first seek to fathom the depths of what constitutes culture. Culture is a way of life. It encompasses all that surrounds us and also things that are within us. The world currently stands at a whopping 7.7 billion and that is by no means a static number (Current World Population, n.d.). These people span close to seven continents and thrive and live together in a variety of climates and eat various types of food. The sources of these differences are as myriad as the effects, from the language we speak to the food we eat and the clothes we wear and even includes the kind of religion that we follow. Culture includes the qualities that a social group possesses, their endeavours, products, beliefs, customs, orientations, art, law and a collective way in which their minds are programmed, amongst other aspects (Oatey & Franklin, 2012).

In such circumstances, it becomes important for tolerance and acceptance of these differences and to also have the ability to cater to them. This pressure falls largely on medical professionals and doubly so mental health professionals. Psychology and Psychiatry have the burden of being influenced by culture and its various branches. This is readily highlighted by the presence of culture-bound syndromes. Manifestations of mental disorders that are

strangely restricted to a particular region and the culture that is predominant in that region. Dhat, Koro, Amok are just a few that are known to be usually found in Asian countries and has not been found anywhere else in the world (Prince & Tchong-Laroche, 1987).

Not only for culture-specific syndromes or illnesses affect these fields, but it has also been found that culture plays a role in the effectiveness and satisfaction with the treatment provided. Even research has shown that individuals are less satisfied with treatments belonging to other cultures, that are provided to them. They also have shown a tendency to prefer beliefs and procedures that have been followed by other individuals that they identify with as a part of their own culture (Armstrong & Swartzman, 1999). In such a scenario, the most effective skills a therapist or anyone should possess is cultural competence.

Cultural Competence and Indigenous Beliefs

Cultural competence would largely be defined as a set of skills that are a prerequisite for mental health professionals to provide their services to a culturally diverse population. These skills would largely include an understanding of the different cultures, respect and tolerance

for the same and aims to provide the services to the minority communities. These are also emphasized in colonial countries due to their past as well. There is more likely to be cases of discrimination in this regard. Immigrants are also a vulnerable population as they are more likely to survive and stick to the beliefs of their country of origin, rather than their new, adopted country. Therapeutic outcomes can be largely improved when it comes to the minority community with a little bit of empathy and the right attitude which also includes being aware of your own biases or judgments and to avoid the stereotypes (Bhui, Warfa, Edonya, McKenzie & Bhugra, 2007).

Cultural competence can further be defined on the basis of three major components: the beliefs held by the population, epidemiology, and treatment outcomes in the population. It includes being conscious and mindful about various aspects of individuals including their attitudes, race, background, languages and many more (Johnson & Munch, 2009). This also explores the fact that there are also several pre-existing models that are endogenous to the culture. Notable among these are the Indian shamans and mystics along with several temples and dargahs which are usually the first port of call for anyone who falls ill. These often coexist with the biomedical systems as well. There are many countries where these often represent the opposite ends of the spectrum but on the other hand, these also combine and work with rather than against each other.

In fact, the role of cultural competence comes in to realize that these so-called primitive methods might also prove effective given that modern science has still not been able to disprove them either. Cultural competence in this aspect combines its three components named earlier and often results in higher levels of care and patient satisfaction. It also helps tackle a largely heterogeneous patient population that also comes with its own challenges and obstacles. Awareness and cultural sensitivity would be the very first step in forming cultural competence (Lavizzo-Mourey & Mackenzie, 1995). As previous studies have shown us, engaging a client and forming a professional relationship with them, a bond of trust, leads

to more positive outcomes. These bonds are likely to be fostered by a deeper understanding of the client's culture and treatment modalities that address and incorporate them.

Campinha-Bacote (2002) has proposed a model in health care which looks at cultural competence as an ongoing process that is the delivery of healthcare within the appropriate cultural setting. The model is based on five constructs such as cultural awareness, cultural skill, cultural knowledge, cultural encounters and cultural desire. The intersection of these five processes shows the cultural competence process. These are not independent processes but they highlight the essentials of what is required to be culturally competent. The cultural awareness begins when there is the acceptance of cultures other than one's own.

Cultural skill is the ability to perform an assessment that is culturally relevant to the client. Cultural knowledge must include the three basic components of beliefs, outcomes epidemiology as discussed previously. Cultural encounters are engagements with the people of other communities that will help clear any preconceived notions or biases held. The glue and the steam for all these processes is cultural desire. The motivation and the concern of actually truly learning these skills and actively participating in these processes would be the cornerstone of the model (Campinha-Bacote, 2002). This model can be readily applied to other fields as well and can be used as a guiding framework. These frameworks will sustain irrespective of the field they are applied to and would require minor changes for the same.

Assessing Cultural Competence

In order to conduct culturally competent assessments, one must be culturally competent and the degree of cultural competence is also something that can be easily assessed. There are various tools to assess one's competence. The earliest one was called the cross-cultural adaptability inventory (Kelley & Meyers, 1995b). It measured the readiness to interact with members of other communities and even the willingness to adapt to their culture. It broadly defines it under four categories such

as openness, emotional resilience, perceptual acuity and personal autonomy. Openness is their ability to be accepting of other cultures, with a non-judgmental attitude. Emotional resilience is to remain positive when being confronted by the unfamiliarity of the other cultures and to not get shocked by the novelty of the situation. Perceptual acuity is a representation of the ability to openly communicate and personal autonomy is holding on to one's identity even when faced by a unique and strange environment. Factor analysis was done on the scale and it was found that this four-factor model does not hold up well and the results are not clearly interpretable thus, not being recommended for use (Davis & Finney, 2006).

Ang, Van Dyne and Koh (2006) proposed the four-factor model of cultural intelligence, much along the lines of other variables such as IQ and EQ. CQ was conceptualized as a multifactor concept that had mental, motivational and behavioural concepts. The mental component was a measure of the ability to process new information and metacognitively analyses this information. Motivational components are the push to use mental abilities and to strive to understand the different cultures. The behavioral component is the manifestation of the previous two components and is visible in overt actions (Earley & Ang, 2003). This scale also has a good correlation with the big five factors and has proven to be an adequate measure of cultural competence. The four factors are in line with the literature discussed previously as well and shows implications for personality in the development of cross-cultural competency. This further implies that not every person has an inherent capacity or rather, would find it easier to interact adequately with members of other cultures. Some may have a tendency to retain the in-group bias and readily believe a negative portrayal of the out-group and harbour harmful stereotypes as well.

Culture and Practice of Psychological Assessments

A strong conceptual foundation is a key requirement for assessments that are suitable to individual cultures. The complexity and dynamic

nature of culture demands this foundation (López, 2002). It is looked at as a form of critical thinking that professionals should engage in to be able to understand the role that one's culture plays in their behaviours and lives in general. These requirements include an understanding of the processes, methods, and theory of forming assessments. Followed by the knowledge of the important cultural as well as social aspects of the group of individuals to avoid forming inferences based on mislabeling or stereotyping them. Lastly, looking at both the culture specific and alternative testing and hypothesis is essential, with a shift in cultural perspectives (López, 2002).

Assessments should consider various cultural variables such as an individual's level of acculturation as well as their proficiency with languages. The results should always be accompanied with such information so that it can aid the process of interpretation of results and not hinder it based on basic cultural aspects (Awad, Patall, Rackley, & Reilly, 2016). Specifying the sample that the data is collected from, along with their specific characteristics and aspects will help prevent overgeneralization. Qualitative research methods have been suggested to fill some of the gaps that are not addressed by quantitative research (Awad, Patall, Rackley, & Reilly, 2016). Thus, these considerations should not be made an afterthought of research or assessment creations, but an emphasis should be placed on the need to be mindful about it throughout the process.

Very few current assessment tools, including the ones that have been translated and/or adapted to different cultures, mention clearly the process and methods that have been used. Some steps that have been suggested for the same include, contacting the original author of that assessment, theory or concept to ensure the permissions and quality of adaptations and translations. A professional translation team can then help guide the process with the help of certain procedures like completing the adaptation individually followed by a review by the entire team to identify gaps and individual differences. They should then be mindful about literal and

culture specific translations, mis-translations as well as addition, deletion or alteration of words and items in the assessments. Back-translation is often used to aid the process by providing feedback, however, it is recommended to not rely on it too heavily. Once the tool is ready, a small group of individuals should be tested before moving on to the larger cohort for establishing the item difficulty, reliability, validity and norms (van Widenfelt, Treffers, de Beurs, Siebelink, & Koudijs, 2005)

However, no matter how one fares in the cultural-competence assessments, in the practice or through self-assessment, understanding others and their culture completely is not definitive and this understanding has been said to have an infinite stance. This perspective known as Levinas perspective, which looks as the desire to understand a person as infinite and hence claims to treat them as such. They are innately unknowable and that knowledge must not be looked at as being instrumental, that forms the core of cultural competence (Ben-Ari & Strier, 2010).

Conclusion

A culturally competent assessment has become the need of the hour as the world gets increasingly inter-connected and boundaries seemingly merge into one. How a person conducts themselves in such a scenario would be largely dictated by their ability to adapt to the situation. This has always been the hallmark of psychiatry but it has also been increasingly adopted by organizations as well. The interactions between members of different cultures would usually lead to feelings of mistrust and hostility unless handled in a mature fashion. This means that even outside of a clinic, or glass-walled organizations, this must be practised in our everyday lives. The main objective is to get professionals motivated and open to the idea of perhaps understanding the others and to inculcate certain aspects while also retaining the uniqueness of one's own identity as well. This does not mean completely adopting other cultures but largely acknowledging the differences that exist and to work through them rather than white-wash the issue on the whole.

This would improve the quality of healthcare and even solidarity in various settings along with everyday interaction, leading to a more inclusive future.

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Use of Peer-Learning for Improving English Communication Skills among Students

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In order to overcome the stressed infrastructural setting in many engineering colleges in which English communication skills are taught to the engineering students, it was imperative to seek and identify viable alternative methods of learning. Hence, the objective of this study is to identify suitable methods to improve communication skills among the engineering students by using peer learning. Engineering graduates from Tamil Nadu were found to be seriously lacking in English communication skills which in turn affected their employability. Though several factors contribute to this inadequacy in English language communication skills, one of the principal reasons is that the students are under-prepared to handle English due to the faulty education during the secondary level. Students were seen to be communicating comfortably in their mother tongue but were very reluctant when it came to communicating in English. The students were seen to be appreciating the need to inculcate communicative skills but were unable to achieve this due their insecure feeling. Hence, it was imperative to devise and implement alternative learning methods for improving the communication skills among the engineering students. In the present paper an attempt has been made to identify viable alternative methods of learning. It appears that peer-learning would be a viable complementary method.

Keywords: Communication Skills, English as a Foreign Language, Peer Learning.

It was observed from the study on adequacy of English language teaching in engineering colleges in Tamil Nadu that there is a wide gulf between the expectations of the industry and the skills available with the engineering graduates. This deficiency in skills, particularly in English language skills is leading to increased unemployment. It's not that there is a shortage of jobs; it's a shortage of skilled hands that is required to get these jobs. The study sought to ascertain the reasons for the insufficiency in English language skills among the engineering students, identify areas which seriously hamper development of communication skills and also to suggest remedial action, if any. It was then observed that one of the most dominant factors which affect development of communication skills is the large number of intake of students in the class which the English teacher is unable to manage. Smaller number of students in the classroom would have enabled the teacher to implement the methods of ESP more effectively

and more importantly, individual attention could be offered to the students. Individual attention becomes very significant considering the fact that these entrants to the engineering colleges are unprepared and have scant knowledge of English language despite having been taught the language for at least 10 years. The infrastructure at the colleges too are stressed out as the management is unable to recruit more English teachers and arrange smaller classrooms to cater to the need of providing affective learning environment. Under these circumstances, it is imperative that a learning system beyond the ordinary is devised which could effectively cater to the needs of the students to improve English language communication skills. Peer learning is one such activity which could probably overcome the hurdles and enable better learning process.

Much of the learning in everyday life happens informally by learning from each other. It is common for us to approach a colleague or friend to understand an issue or to learn about

something before we approach an expert. In fact, this informal learning is all pervasive in our lives. We do not go to an engineer to seek an opinion before we buy a car or a kitchen equipment but approach someone who has already used the product or even read reviews. The reason we approach a friend or peer for this understanding or learning is that we realise they were or are in the same situation as we are in and understand our predicament and apprehensions better than an expert. While it could well be argued that such learning has its dangerous fallouts, the benefits far outweigh the weaknesses. The peers may be as less intelligible as we are or may provide us incorrect information. In learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), the inhibiting factor is the hesitancy and insecure feeling when they try to communicate in front of the teacher. Resultantly, this latent fear prevents them from attempting to communicate. This sense of insecurity could easily be overcome with peer learning.

English language communication is one of the dominant factors contributing to the decline in the employment of engineering graduates. The study sought the opinion of 42 recruiters. 14.3% of the respondents stated that lack of English communication skills is a major factor. 23.8% of the respondents stated that lack of core skills in the leading factor, 52.4% of the respondents believed that a combination of these factors contributes to the decline in employability of engineering graduates (Fig.1). The recruiters also were of the opinion that English language communication skills is at the core of vertical mobility of the graduates who are recruited. The recruiters also opined that those employees who are inept at communication skills also add to the cost of the company as they are required to be further trained in English language communication. Whenever a company recruits engineering graduates, they need to necessarily train them in the core areas depending upon specialization of the company. But when these recruits are also required to be trained in communication skills which is a natural skill, the employers express their dissatisfaction and annoyance.



Fig.1 Reasons for decline in employability-employers' perspective

Students-faculty ratio is very relevant in ESP scenario particularly when learners with varied ability are required to be taught. A higher ratio as in the case of engineering colleges in Tamil Nadu where there are very few teachers of English compared to the number of students in the class is one of the most deterrent factors. Teachers vociferously opined that small groups of 20 to 30 students would have been ideal. But in the present scenario where there are more than 100 students in a classroom, they hardly ever get any opportunity to interact with the students. In ESP, even though the students are at the centre and their opinion of what is required to be taught and how it should be taught is of paramount importance, teachers play a crucial role in initiating dialogues and monitoring and mentoring these discourses. When the number of students in the class is so large, the discourse degenerates to the didactic approach where the teachers merely speaks from the pulpit and the learners have no room for interaction. The primary purpose of ESP learning the foreign language by interaction is defeated.

Language learning in any foreign language situation requires frequent assessment and evaluation. Presently, in the engineering colleges in Tamil Nadu, only the written communication skills are evaluated. The current system does not provide any room for evaluation of the other skills of reading, listening and speaking. Development of communication skills, therefore is skewed. A system needs to be put in place which will evaluate the progress of the learner in all faculties of listening, speaking, reading and writing. This evaluation and assessment followed

by course correction should be a continuous process. With one teacher to attend to such a large number of students, this ideal would be an unassailable task. It is in this scenario that peer learning followed by peer assessment would play a major role.

The word 'peer' means a person with the same age, status or ability as another specified person. Therefore, 'peer learning' is an environment in which students learn from, and with each other (Boud, Cohen, & Sampson 2001). It has its genesis in cognitive psychology and became a very productive form of learning in the late 80s. Even though the concept of peer learning was advocated as early as 1916 by John Dewey, it gained momentum in the late 80s. Peer learning can be described as mutual learning where the participants share knowledge, ideas and experiences (Boud, 1988). Simple, as it may sound, peer learning is not a single educational strategy. There are numerous models of peer learning. Griffiths, Houston & Lazenbatt (1995) identified ten such models-the proctor model, student partnership, discussions schemes, laboratory work, study groups, peer assignments, project work, community activities etc. These models may be overlapping in methodology but the ultimate intent remains the same.

The most popular types of peer learning are proctor model, innovative learning cells, discussions & seminars, and private study groups. In the proctor model, senior students or the experienced students tutor the junior or less experienced students. The expertise of the seniors is shared. In this model, there is no mutual gain. In the innovative learning cell model, students with similar ability form partnership with each other to not only assist and enable each other in the course contents but sometimes even on matters of personal concerns. The discussion-seminar model, as the name suggests, involves activities where each student is assigned the task of presenting their lessons or experiences in a seminar. Seminar is followed by interaction among the students who are taking the same course and thus learn from each other. Private study group is an informal

type peer-learning where individuals make their own study circle and make their own strategies and work towards a common goal. Parrainage, buddy system, cascading groups, mentoring etc are other models of peer learning.

Peer learning as an educational strategy should not be misconstrued as the learners learning from each other in isolation. The teacher too plays a very significant role in this form. This type of learning would be useful only if the teacher provides something called the "intellectual scaffolding". Role of the teacher is crucial in formalising the informal association by selection of topic, providing the road-map and to nudge the learners towards making the learning process more meaningful (Nelson, 1999). Teachers may set up structured activities-they may define the ends to achieved and leave the specifics of the means to the learners themselves. The role of the teacher is limited to being a facilitator or at the most a negotiator who would engage the students in meaningful and fruitful conversation.

This form of learning has its own collateral gains. It kindles critical thinking, sense of participation, empathy, constructive criticism etc. Therefore, this approach is also known as constructive conversation (Bruffee, 1999), where the students learn by constructive knowledge as they converse and arrive at a consent or dissent. This conversation may include discussions, debates and deliberations.

While adopting this strategy of peer learning it is important to realize that this method is not a substitute for classroom teaching. When the resources of the colleges are stretched and stressed and the demands upon the teachers are increasing, this model would add to the repertoire of teaching and thereby enhance the learning experience. It would not replace classroom teaching and make teachers redundant. Teachers pay a very significant role and their place as a facilitator of the discourse by being a scaffolding to the learners.

Peers, as stated earlier are people who sail in the same boat. But peer learning as a strategy does not merely involve or is not limited to interaction and learning from similarly

placed people-students in this case. It could also involve peer-teaching or peer tutoring. It is a more deliberate and formal strategy where the senior students or sometimes the students of the same class interact. In this situation, one of the participants acts as the mentor and the other as a learner. In contrast, reciprocal learning involves simultaneous learning by both the participants.

Peer learning, Collaborative learning and Cooperative learning are terms which are often interchangeably used. These strategies, while it may appear to be similar, there are discernible and tangible differences among them. In cooperative learning, the learning process is more inter-dependent where every learner in the group is assigned a mutually exclusive activity or a "piece" of the final product (Johnston, 2009). However, in collaborative learning, the division of labour is more fluid and often members tread each other's path (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2006). Collaborative learning is often self-managed while cooperative learning, teachers play a vital role in scaffolding the activities.

Objective

The present study is based on the perception of recruiters on the importance of English language communication skills which formed the theoretical perspective of this study. The major objective of the present study was envisaged as follows: to see whether peer learning would enhance acquisition of communication skills among the engineering students of Tamil Nadu.

Research Questions

The following research question was formulated for the present study-Would peer-learning method help enhance communication skills among the students of engineering colleges in Tamil Nadu?

Method

Sample:

For the present study sample consisted of 2nd year engineering college students from seven engineering colleges in Tamil Nadu. Purposive sampling technique was used for the present study. A total sample 714 was taken into consideration.

Tools:

A tool was constructed for the present study consisting of two parts- personal data of the students and the perception of the students regarding English language teaching. From the second part, major items were taken into consideration. Content validity of the tool was established by a group of experts and the Cronbach's Coefficient of reliability was found to be 0.8159 for N=30.

Procedure:

The tool was administered on 714 students in small groups. The responses on two major items for the present study was analysed. The interpretation was made on the basis of percentage of responses. Further, p-Value was calculated by using Chi-square test. As the focus was on peer learning, the responses were considered for this area alone.

Observation and survey method were used in this study. A pre-designed questionnaire was used to conduct survey among the 2nd year engineering students in seven colleges in Tamil Nadu. During the survey, the researcher also carried out observational study of the students' behaviour and attitude. The data obtained by survey was subjected to quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The second-year students (N=714) were asked whether they received adequate attention from their Professors so that the weaker students could be mentored and monitored by the English language teachers. 14% of the 2nd year students stated that they faced this problem always and were not paid attention by the teachers because the number of students in the classroom was too high (Table.1). Another 46% of the students too stated that they faced this problem sometimes. Only 30% of the students stated that they never faced this problem and only 10% of the students replied that they "do not know". It is thus evident that considering the large number of students in the classroom, the English language teachers are unable to devote time for personal attention to the students (Fig.2). The large number of students in the English

Table1. Perception among the 2nd year students whether the number of students in the classroom was too high for the Professor to pay personal attention to the weaker students

Responses	Frequency	Percentage	Chi-square value	p-Value
Do not know	71	9.94%	226.930	<0.001**
No	217	30.39%		
Sometimes	325	45.51%		
Always	101	14.14%		
Total	714			

Table.2. Responses of 2nd year students whether techniques like peer-learning would have enabled everyone to learn English faster

Responses	Frequency	Percentage	Chi-square value	p-Value
Strongly Disagree	86	12%	249.507	<0.001**
Disagree	201	28%		
Agree	342	48%		
Strongly Agree	85	12%		
Total	714			

Note: ** Denotes significance at 1% level.

classes appears as a formidable impediment for the teachers to interact with the students effectively. Communicative English can only be improved with increased interaction between the teachers and among the learners themselves. It was observed in the engineering colleges in Tamil Nadu that for a particular branch, class in divided into sections and subject classes or core subjects are taught in comparatively smaller groups of students in each section. The size of each of these sections varies from 30 to 40. However, when it comes to English classes, all these sections are merged and the classes are conducted in a large class or auditorium where the number of students range from 100 to 200.

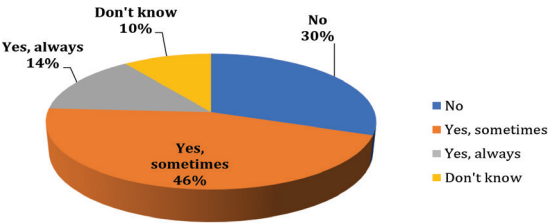


Fig. 2. Personal Attention to the students

On being asked whether their communication skills would have improved had the class been divided into groups of two students-one who knew English better and the other a learner. A small section of 12% of the students stated that they strongly agreed to this proposition and another 48% agreed to this proposition (Table.2). Thus almost 60% of the students in the survey subscribed to the idea of peer learning and opined that such a method would have been hugely beneficial to them to enhance their communication skills (Fig.3).

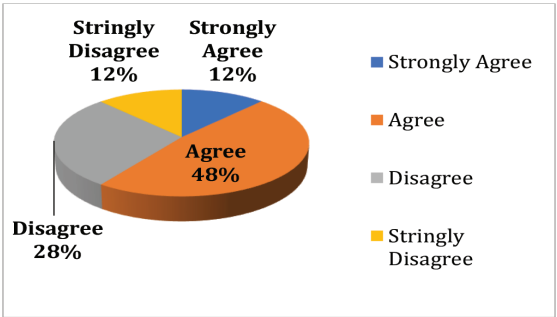


Fig.3 Communication Skills of the students

Conclusion

A question often asked is why is peer learning important? It is observed and accepted that there is a considerable amount of stress on the management of the colleges to appoint adequate number of teachers. With the ever-increasing load on teachers and an acute shortage of qualified teachers in the field of ESP, college administrators should adopt a more pragmatic approach and devise methods and strategies to supplement and augment the classroom teaching. As stated earlier, with the class size assuming unmanageable proportions, strategies like peer learning could be of immense benefit to the students in enhancing their communication skills.

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Venugopalan Nair, Research Scholar (Part-time), National Institute of Technical Teachers Training and Research, Taramani, Chennai.

S. Renukadevi, PhD, Professor and Head, Department of Education, National Institute of Technical Teachers Training and Research, Taramani, Chennai.



2nd International Conference on Multicultural Challenges and Diverse Approaches in School Psychology

21 - 22 January 2021

Assumption University of Thailand,
Suvarnabhumi Campus
88 Moo 8 Bang Na-Trad Km.
26 Bangsaothong, Samuthprakarn, Thailand 10570

Registration details will be available at
www.apspa.info
www.au.edu



Joint organisers:

**Asia Pacific School Psychology Association, Malaysia
Assumption University of Thailand, Bangkok, Thailand**

Asia Pacific School Psychology Association

International Conference

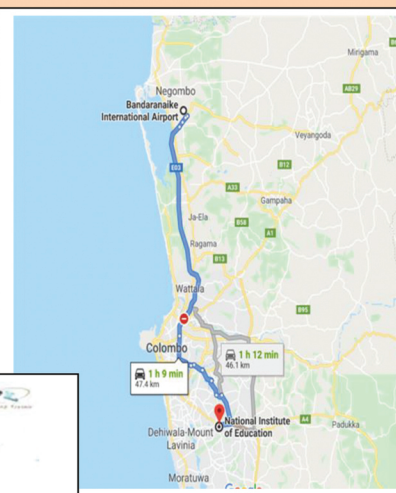
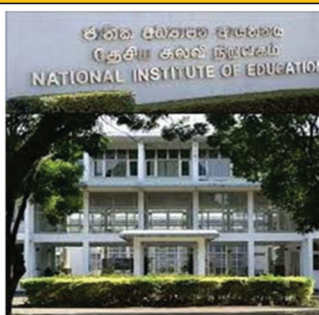
School Psychology: Mental Health and Well-being among Children

National Institute of Education (NIE), Colombo, Sri Lanka

11 – 12 February 2020

APSPA

The Asia Pacific School Psychology Association (APSPA) has been launched in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia on 11th January 2019. Our members from various countries to promote school psychology services in the Asia Pacific region. This will cater to the needs of promotion of common school psychology services in the Asia Pacific region especially in the area of mental health and well-being. We the Asia Pacific School Psychology Association established in Malaysia strongly believe that professional school psychologists alone can provide the necessary professional guidance to the children in schools and educational institutions such as special schools and mental health homes. At present the schools are badly in need of such professional school psychologists to create an ambience to teach and learn so as to provide the much-desired high-quality school education in the Asia Pacific countries by promoting mental health and well-being.



Registration Fee

Regular Registration fee payment closes on 30th November 2019

APSPA Members: USD 150/-
Non-Members: USD 250/-
Local delegates without accommodation: SLR 2000/-

The registration fee includes conference kit, simple double sharing accommodation at National Institute of Education, Colombo, hospitality for two days and sight-seeing in Colombo.

Local Organising Secretary:

Dr. M. Thayanithy

National Institute of Education
Colombo, Sri Lanka

Email: muruguthayanithy@gmail.com

Submission of Papers for Oral Presentation / Publication

Delegates are requested to submit their abstracts/ papers following APA style (6th Edition) on any of the listed sub themes. To ensure a consistent high quality of all the presentations, participants are requested to submit the abstract in 200 words. The full text around 5000 words can be sent by email: apspa2019@gmail.com.



Objectives

- To raise visibility about the importance of positive mental health and well-being among children and youth.
 - To suggest framework of mental health among youth and in the educational system.
 - The conference is structured around the following sub-themes:
 - Mental health initiatives in schools and educational institutions
 - Psychosocial rehabilitation in mental health
 - Challenges in the assessment and intervention of children
 - Scaling up mental health services in Asia Pacific region
 - Attitudinal challenges in mental health development
 - Impact of disaster and displacement on trauma in Asia Pacific region
 - Promoting Mental Health and Well-being in Asia Pacific region
- On each sub-theme of this conference, a team of invited speakers/experts will deliver keynote presentations.

Further details can be had from

Dr. Panch. Ramalingam

President,

Asia Pacific School Psychology Association,
Pondicherry University,
Puducherry - 605 014, India.

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