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Prevalence of OCD in Andhra Pradesh, India

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the prevalence of Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD) among adults in Vijayawada and Tirupathi, Andhra Pradesh. Utilizing the Yale-Brown Obsessive Compulsive Scale (YBOCS) and symptom checklist, data were collected from 60 participants, revealing significant findings on the severity of OCD symptoms. Results indicate that participants experience more obsessions (mean: 16.85) than compulsions (mean: 15.97), with contamination obsessions being the most prominent. Male participants exhibited higher scores in obsession severity compared to females, although no significant differences were found regarding compulsions between genders. Additionally, marital status did not significantly influence OCD symptoms. These findings highlight the urgent need for awareness and targeted interventions for OCD within the Indian population, given its detrimental impact on quality of life and functioning. The study underscores the importance of further research to explore the prevalence and characteristics of OCD in diverse demographic settings.

Keywords- Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder.

INTRODUCTION:

According to WHO Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD) is one of the common and sixth most disabling psychiatric disorders in the world. OCD is highly comorbid with other psychiatric illnesses most commonly depression and anxiety disorders. OCD is described by the presence of one or many obsessions and compulsions that consume time and significantly interfere with the client's routine work, family, and social life that causing marked distress (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). This disorder comprises three different elements such as (i) obsession, (ii) compulsion, and (iii) extensive avoidance (McKay, 2004). Obsession deals with unwanted and intrusive images, thoughts as well as it evokes doubts

about actions. Compulsion is the second element that has been elucidated as distinct behavioural actions which include mental ritual that intends to neutralize the obsessions or to verify behaviours that are subjected to doubts. The third element is extensive avoidance, people with OCD involve deliberately avoiding the situation, places etc., to check for the stimulation caused by obsessive thoughts and compulsive acts tied to it. Both compulsive behaviour and extensive avoidance behaviour serve as the maintaining factors of OCD (Hawton, 1989).

The adverse impact of OCD can be seen in the impairment caused in the quality of life for an individual. The loss of occupation/income, financial burden, overall well-being, and functioning of individuals are also largely influenced by the presence of OCD. Because of such detrimental effects caused by OCD the World Health Organization (WHO) ranked OCD among the top ten of the most debilitating illness (Eaton et al., 2008; Bobes et al., 2001; Chakrabarti et al, 1993).

Obsessive Compulsive Disorder is equally common in men and women, and there are often prominent anankastic features in the underlying personality. OCD begins in childhood or early adult life. The course is variable and more likely to be chronic in the absence of significant depressive symptoms.

NEED FOR THE STUDY:

Literature on the prevalence of OCD and in Indian population is sparse. There are no data from the adult population therefore a need is felt to conduct a study on prevalence of OCD in Vijayawada and Tirupathi regions of AP

THE AIMS OF THIS STUDY:

To explore the prevalence of OCD among adults in Andhra Pradesh

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE:

The tests were administered to a sample of 60 men and women who were from regions of Vijayawada and Tirupathi in Andhra Pradesh. They include both men and women, married

and unmarried, with educational qualifications ranging from undergraduates to graduates with different levels of socio-economic status constituted the sample of the study. All the persons were informed that the information would be kept confidential.

TOOLS:

1. Yale-Brown Obsessive-Compulsive Scale (YBOCS) developed by Goodman et al. (1989)
2. Yale Brown OCD Symptom Check list

This rating scale is designed to rate the severity and type of symptoms in patients with obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD). In general, the items depend on the patient's report; however, the final rating is based on the clinical judgement of the interviewer. Rate the characteristics of each item during the prior week up until and including the time of the interview. Scores should reflect the average (mean) occurrence of each item for the entire week.

Since the 1980s, a lot of people have used the Yale-Brown Obsessive Compulsive Scale (Y-BOCS) to evaluate the existence and intensity of symptoms related to obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD). The 10-item severity scale with subscales that individually evaluate the intensity of obsessions and compulsions (5 items each) and a symptom checklist (67 items) make up the clinician-rated semi-structured interview known as the Y-BOCS. Every item covers the domains of resistance and control over symptoms, distress and interference from symptoms, and time spent on symptoms. Each item is graded from 0 (no symptoms) to 4 (severe symptoms). Further questions evaluate severity in the areas of insight, avoidance, indecision, exaggerated feeling of duty, widespread slowness, and pathological doubting. But in order to provide more details for evaluating, these extra things are considered "investigational items."with the purpose of offering more details in determining the intensity of compulsions and obsessions; nonetheless, they are excluded from the final score. This approach offers a methodical way to quantify the intensity of OCD symptoms that is independent of the kind or quantity of obsessions or compulsions a patient may encounter. Y-BOCS has been applied consistently in both intervention and phenotyping studies, which is different from the case for disease classes for which many commonly used outcome measures are frequently available. The Y-BOCS's psychometric qualities, such as its sensitivity to change and generally good validity and reliability, have been validated. The factor structure

of the Y-BOCS has been debated over time, however investigations generally support the proposed 2-factor structure of the severity of compulsion and obsession.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TESTS:

The tests were administered to a sample of 60 men and women through semi structured interviews. Their responses were scored accordingly and this constitute the data of the study.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

The data were first exported to Microsoft Excel and then to Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software used for quantitative statistical analysis. Prior to analysis, all variables were screened for possible code. To test the hypothesis, descriptive statistics such as Mean, SD were used.

Table 1: Means and SD's of scores on severity of OCD

S.no	Variables	N	Mean	S.D
1	YBOCS Obsessions	60	16.85	3.76
2	YBOCS Compulsions	60	15.97	3.73
3	YBOCS Total	60	32.82	6.20

Table 1 depicts the means and SD's of scores on obsessions and compulsions of the sample. The mean and SD on obsessions are 16.85 and 3.76 respectively. Whereas for compulsions the means and SD's are 15.97 and 3.73. The higher mean of 16.85 clearly indicates that the adults are experiencing more of obsessions compared to compulsions. In other words it can be said that the severity of obsessions is more compared to compulsions among the adults.

Table 2: Means and SD's of scores on various components of Obsessions

S.No	Components	N	Mean	S.D
1	Aggressive Obsessions	60	3.33	2.00
2	Contamination Obsession	60	3.62	2.16
3	Sexual Obsession	60	0.63	0.88
4	Hoarding or Saving Obsessions	60	0.58	0.62
5	Religious Obsessions	60	1.00	0.71

6	Obsessions with need for Symmetry or Exactness	60	0.75	0.91
7	Miscellaneous Obsessions	60	3.10	2.58
8	Somatic Obsessions	60	0.63	0.74
9	Total Obsessions	60	13.65	5.84

An observation of table 2 clearly indicates that the subjects mean value for contamination obsession 3.62 indicating they are more obsessed with contamination whereas lowest mean of 0.63 on somatic and sexual obsessions suggesting they are less obsessed with somatic and sexual thoughts.

Table 3 Means and SD"s of scores on various components of Compulsions

S.no	Variables	N	Mean	S.D
1	Cleaning Compulsions	60	1.55	1.17
2	Checking Compulsions	60	2.58	2.20
3	Repeating Rituals	60	1.05	0.93
4	Counting Compulsions	60	0.46	0.19
5	Ordering or Arranging Compulsions	60	0.4	0.53
6	Hoarding Compulsions	60	0.4	0.53
7	Miscellaneous Compulsions	60	2.02	0.63
8	Total Compulsions	60	8.45	2.43

Subjects have obtained the highest mean of 2.58 for checking obsessions components whereas lowest mean of 0.4 is for ordering and hoarding components of compulsions. So the subjects are more involved in checking compulsions whereas they are less involved in hoarding and ordering compulsions.

Table 4: Means, SD"s and t-test of scores on severity of OCD in males and females

Sl.NO	Variables	Male			Female			t-value	p value
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D		
1	YBOCS Obsessions	27	18.26	2.263	33	15.70	4.35	2.94	0.01
2	YBOCS Compulsions	27	15.81	4.197	33	16.09	3.42	0.28	NS
3	YBOCS Total	27	34.07	4.938	33	31.79	6.98	1.92	NS

Table 4 depicts means, SD'S and T-Test of scores on severity of OCD in males and females. With regard to obsessions males have obtained high scores (18.26) whereas females have obtained lowest mean of 15.70 indicating that males are more obsessive compared to females. t-value of 2.94 is significant at 0.01 level suggesting that males and females differ significantly in their obsessive feelings. With regard to compulsions there is no significant difference between males and females. the t-value of 1.92 is not significant suggestive that there is no significant difference between males and females with regard to obsessions and compulsions. Both males and females almost experience same severity of obsessions and compulsions.

Table 5: Means and SD"s of scores on components of obsession in males and females.

Sl.NO	Variables	Males			Female		
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D
1	Aggressive Obsessions	27	3.89	2.063	33	2.88	1.85
2	Contamination Obsession	27	3.93	2.417	33	3.36	1.92
3	Sexual Obsession	27	0.93	0.874	33	0.39	0.83
4	Hoarding or Saving Obsessions	27	0.74	0.656	33	0.45	0.56
5	Religious Obsessions	27	0.96	0.759	33	1.03	0.68
6	Obsessions with need for Symmetry or Exactness	27	0.85	0.818	33	0.67	0.99
7	Miscellaneous Obsessions	27	3.00	2.337	33	3.18	2.79
8	Somatic Obsessions	27	0.63	0.792	33	0.64	0.70
9	Total Obsessions	27	14.93	5.313	33	12.61	6.12

From table 5 it can be seen that males have obtained the highest mean of 3.93 for contamination obsessions whereas women have obtained the lowest mean of 0.39 on sexual obsessions indicating males are more obsessed with contamination and women are least worried about sexual feelings.

Table 6: Means and SD's of scores on components of compulsions

Sl.NO	Variables	Males			females		
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D
1	Cleaning Compulsions	27	1.15	1.199	33	0.21	0.49
2	Checking Compulsions	27	2.3	1.996	33	0.42	0.61
3	Repeating Rituals	27	0.93	0.675	33	0.24	0.61
4	Counting Compulsions	27	0.54	0.582	33	0.24	0.44
5	Ordering or arranging Compulsions	27	0.41	0.501	33	0.18	0.39
6	Hoarding compulsions	27	0.44	0.506	33	0.18	0.39
7	Miscellaneous compulsions	27	2.04	1.605	33	0.55	0.62
8	Total Compulsions	27	7.78	3.423	33	2.33	2.26

Table 6 shows that male subjects have obtained highest mean of 2.3 on checking compulsions whereas women subjects have obtained lowest mean of 0.18 on ordering and hoarding compulsions

Table7: Means and SD'S of scores on severity of OCD in married and unmarried people

Sl.NO	Variables	Unmarried			Married			t-value	p value
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D		
1	YBOCS Obsessions	14	16.71	4.27	46	16.89	3.65	0.14	NS
2	YBOCS Compulsions	14	14.71	5.36	46	16.35	3.10	1.09	NS
3	YBOCS Total	14	31.43	7.79	46	33.24	5.67	0.808	NS

From table 7 it can be seen that there no significant difference between married and unmarried sample with regard to obsessions and compulsions suggesting that marital status has no significant impact on compulsions and obsessions.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results obtained the following conclusions are drawn.

1. In general people have more obsessions than compulsions
2. Subjects have more of contamination obsessions in comparison to other components
3. Subjects have more checking compulsions than other components of compulsions.
4. Men have more obsessions when compared to women
5. There is no significant difference between men and women with regards to compulsions
6. Marital status has no significant influence on obsessions and compulsions.

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Influence of behaviour therapies and relaxation technique on OCD

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT), including Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP), Jacobson's Progressive Muscle Relaxation (JPMR), and mindfulness techniques in treating obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD). A sample of 60 patients was selected from a larger pool of 300, with pre- and post-treatment assessments using the Yale-Brown Obsessive-Compulsive Scale (YBOCS) and Symptom Checklist. The findings reveal significant reductions in both obsession (mean pre-test: 16.85; post-test: 3.22) and compulsion severity (mean pre-test: 15.97; post-test: 2.23). All components of obsessions and compulsions showed statistically significant improvements, indicating that the combined therapeutic approaches effectively alleviate OCD symptoms. The results underscore the potential of behavioral therapies and relaxation techniques in enhancing the quality of life for individuals affected by OCD, highlighting a marked shift from poor to favourable treatment outcomes.

Keywords- Cognitive Behavior Therapy, Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder.

INTRODUCTION:

COGNITIVE BEHAVIOR THERAPY (CBT)

Cognitive Behavior Therapy (CBT) is an intervention strategy that helps in finding a solution to emotional and behavioral disturbances seen in clients by making use of their cognitive and behavioral reactions to internal stimuli and external events. This therapy is used as a strategy for the treatment of numerous mental health problems that can be applied cross-culturally. Although cognitive-behavioral intervention varies in its application and form, all of them

highlight the significance of modifying behaviors and cognitions as a method to reduce symptoms and to improve the overall functioning of the affected individual.

EXPOSURE AND RESPONSE PREVENTION (ERP)

Exposure and response prevention (ERP) is a first line treatment for OCD (Koran, Simpson and Guideline Watch, 2013, American Psychiatric Association, 2010). ERP is a form of cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) that involves providing psychoeducation to the patient, helping the patient confront fears or discomfort related to their obsessional thoughts (exposure), and having the patient resist performing compulsions (response prevention). Patients can be exposed to actual situations (in vivo exposure), imagined situations (imaginal exposure), or the physical sensations associated with anxiety or discomfort (interoceptive exposure). The goal of ERP is to challenge how a patient responds to distress and to eventually learn that feared stimuli are safe. In this review, we will discuss the theoretical background of ERP, factors related to the efficacy and effectiveness of ERP, and treatment utilization and dissemination.

Exposure and Response Prevention (ERP) is considered the most effective psychotherapeutic treatment for obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD). The literature supports its adoption yet results vary and vagueness regarding therapy protocol exists. ERP therapy developed from Meyer's (1966) ground-breaking approach which incorporated previous behavior research (Abramowitz, 2006a) based on prolonged exposure to distressing stimuli to modify 'patients' expectations. Today, therapy is guided by a widely used and comprehensive treatment manual (Foa et al., 2012), developed via evidence-based research supporting necessity of: *in vivo* and *imaginal* exercises (Foa et al., 1980; Foa & Goldstein, 1978); combined exposure with response prevention (Foa et al., 1984); daily up to weekly sessions (Abramowitz, Foa, & Franklin, 2003; Foa et al., 2012); and therapist guidance (Abramowitz, 1996; Tolin et al., 2007).

JACOBSON PROGRESSIVE MUSCLE RELAXATION TECHNIQUE (JPMR): is a therapy that helps the patient to relax and tighten the muscle in a series or in a progressive way. Initially Progressive muscle relaxation was initially developed by American physician Edmund Jacobson in 1908. The main purpose of this technique is to reduce stress and anxiety. This is a technique that will help the patient to be calm. Even though the root cause of anxiety is not reduced, the ability to face the situations increase.

MINDFULNESS

Mindfulness-based interventions seem suitable for treating OCD for several reasons. The meaning and significance people give to symptomatic intrusions in OCD are an important factor in causing and maintaining OCD (Rachman, 1997). Because mindfulness meditation advocates nonjudgmental awareness and acceptance of every thought, feeling, or sensation (Bishop et al., 2004), the attached significance to intrusions can be reduced by mindfulness (Baer, 2003). Of relevance, mindfulness also teaches –letting go of bothering thoughts and feelings. Letting go may reduce the need to perform a –compensatory compulsion related to obsessive thoughts (APA, 1994) and may decrease the risk of attaching significance, both of which could decrease OCD symptoms (Rachman, 1997).

OBSESSIVE COMPULSIVE DISORDER AND COGNITIVE BEHAVIOR THERAPY

The psychological interventions have been shown to be effective in the management of OCD since the last two to three decades (Mckay et al., 2015; Haven et al., 2015; Ost et Al., 2015, Romanelli et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2013; Fisher et al., 2005). After, the emergence of CBT intervention the prognosis of OCD has changed from poor to good (Mckay et al., 2015; Ost et al., 2015). Cognitive Therapy in CBT refers to specific methods and techniques that help to change irrational beliefs and ideas, including those prevalent in OCD.

Specifically, Behavior Therapy of CBT for OCD refers to particular processes and techniques for altering behavior like the compulsive act involved in OCD. In other words, CBT for OCD is a type of psychotherapy that employs both behavioral and cognitive therapy techniques to decrease or eliminate the symptoms of obsessions, compulsive behaviour, and extensive avoidance changing the specific core beliefs, faulty appraisals, and dysfunctional neutralization responses that are associated in the etiology and maintenance of the obsessive- compulsive disorder.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE:

From 300 patients 60 patients are randomly selected. They include both men and women, married and unmarried, with educational qualifications ranging from undergraduates to graduates with different levels of socio-economic status constituted the sample of the study.

TOOLS:

1. Yale-Brown Obsessive-Compulsive Scale (YBOCS) developed by Goodman et al. (1989)
2. Yale Brown OCD Symptom Check list

PROCEDURE:

After seeking required permission from hospital authorities and participants, Participants were diagnosed with OCD according to the ICD 10 criteria. Participants were given information about the study and presented with the option of taking part. Written consent was received by all persons choosing to participate in the study. Participants were administered YBCOS rating scale and Symptoms Checklist before starting the interventions and this constitute pre-test score on OCD. Then CBT is given for about 10 sessions each of 45-60 mins, ERP 10 sessions each 45 mins, JPMR 1-2 sessions 60 mins and mindfulness one session 30 mins. After completing the intervention sessions, participants were administered YBCOS rating scale and Symptoms Checklist. This constitutes the post test scores of OCD. Booster sessions were given if needed.

RESULTS:

Table 1 : Paired t-test : Pre-test and Post test Difference in SEVERITY of OCD

Sl.NO	Variables	Pre test			Post test			t-value	p value
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D		
1	YBOCS Obsessions	60	16.85	3.76	60	3.22	2.54	38.940**	0.000
2	YBOCS Compulsions	60	15.97	3.73	60	2.23	2.68	32.548**	0.000
3	YBOCS Total	60	32.82	6.20	60	5.45	4.56	43.302**	0.000

An observation of Table-1 shows that the mean value is 16.85 and SD 3.76 in pre-test for obsessions and 3.22 and 2.54 on post-test respectively. There is a phenomenal decrease in the severity of obsessions. The t-value of 38.940 is significant beyond 0.01 level suggesting that there is significant reduction in the severity of obsessions. With regard to compulsions the mean value is 15.97 and SD 3.73 in pre-test and after intervention the mean value is 2.23 and SD 2.68. The t-value of 32.548 is significant at 0.01 level suggesting that it has significantly reduced the severity of compulsions attributing to the administration of Behaviour therapies and relaxation techniques.

Table 2 :Pre test and Post test scores on symptoms of Obsessions

Sl.NO	Components	Pre test			Post test			t-value	p value
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D		
1	Aggressive Obsessions	60	3.33	2.00	60	0.55	0.75	12.008**	0.000
2	Contamination Obsession	60	3.62	2.16	60	0.57	0.79	11.742**	0.000
3	Sexual Obsession	60	0.63	0.88	60	0.23	0.43	3.288**	0.002
4	Hoarding or Saving Obsessions	60	0.58	0.62	60	0.17	0.38	4.483**	0.000
5	Religious Obsessions	60	1.00	0.71	60	0.20	0.44	7.762**	0.000
6	Obsessions with need for Symmetry or Exactness	60	0.75	0.91	60	0.25	0.47	3.748**	0.000
7	Miscellaneous Obsessions	60	3.10	2.58	60	0.57	1.02	9.331**	0.000
8	Somatic Obsessions	60	0.63	0.74	60	0.20	0.44	3.771**	0.000
9	TOTAL OBSESSIONS	60	13.65	5.84	60	2.35	2.10	16.509**	0.000

Table – 2 presents means and SDs of scores on various components of obsessions and t- values. A closed observation of the table 2 reveals that all the t-values for various components are significant beyond 0.01 level. It indicates that the intervention program is highly effective in reducing the symptoms of various components of obsessions.

Table 3 :Pre test and Post test scores on symptoms of Compulsions

Sl. NO	Variables	Pre test			Post test			t-value	p value
		N	Mean	S.D	N	Mean	S.D		

1	Cleaning Compulsions	60	1.55	1.17	60	0.20	0.48	8.782* *	0.00 0
2	Checking Compulsions	60	2.58	2.20	60	0.45	0.70	8.781* *	0.00 0
3	Repeating Rituals	60	1.05	0.93	60	0.17	0.49	7.734* *	0.00 0
4	Counting Compulsions	60	0.46	0.19	60	0.536	0.39	3.132* *	0.00 3
5	Ordering or Arranging Compulsions	60	0.40	0.53	60	0.18	0.39	2.621*	0.01 1
6	Hoarding Compulsions	60	0.4	0.53	60	0.22	0.42	2.381*	0.20 0
7	Miscellaneous Compulsions	60	2.02	0.63	60	1.672	0.71	7.771* *	0.00 0
	Total Compulsions	60	8.45	2.43	60	4.248	2.06	11.66* *	0.00 0

Table 3 presents the means and SDs of scores on various components of compulsions and corresponding t-values. Here also all that values are significant suggesting that intervention programs have significantly reduced the symptoms of various compulsions. The intervention programs are highly effective in reducing the symptoms of various compulsions.

CONCLUSIONS:

1. Behaviour therapies and relaxation techniques have significantly reduced the various symptoms of Obsessions and its severity
2. Behaviour therapies and relaxation techniques have significantly reduced the various symptoms of Compulsion and its severity

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A study of cognitive abilities and educational achievement of Visually Impaired Students

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the cognitive abilities and educational achievements of visually impaired students, focusing on gender differences and the relationship between these two constructs. A sample of 40 secondary and senior secondary students, consisting of equal numbers of boys and girls aged 14 to 18, was selected from various institutions for visually impaired individuals. Using the Indian adapted version of the WISC-R (Verbal), cognitive abilities were assessed, while educational achievement was measured through standardized academic assessments. The findings revealed no statistically significant differences in cognitive abilities (mean scores: boys = 93.30, girls = 98.10; t -value = -1.116, $p > 0.01$) or educational achievement (mean scores: boys = 51.70, girls = 51.56; t -value = 0.089, $p > 0.01$) between visually impaired boys and girls. Additionally, a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.150 indicated a weak positive correlation between cognitive abilities and educational achievement, which was not statistically significant ($p = 0.356$). These results suggest that cognitive abilities and educational outcomes among visually impaired students are influenced more by environmental factors and individual support rather than gender. The study underscores the need for inclusive educational strategies that address individual learning needs to foster success for all students, regardless of gender or cognitive ability.

Keywords: - cognitive abilities, educational achievement, Boys, Girls.

INTRODUCTION:

An individual receives impressions of the world through the sense organs. Vision is the most important modality for acquisition of knowledge as it is general acceptance that 80% of information is gained through it in just a glimpse and it serves the purpose of integrating the information received by other modalities. It means visual sense provides a rich and complex

set of information about the surrounding environment, and in particular it informs an organism about the positions and properties of objects in the world.

Cognitive ability is any cognitive activity that is associated with enhanced cognitive processing. Cognitive ability is conscious intellectual activity such as thinking, reasoning, remembering, imagining or learning words. Cognitive is a mental process. The term Cognition is used very loosely in several contexts. However, it always refers to a faculty for the mental processing of information, applying knowledge and changing performances. Ability is any cognitive activity that is associated with enhanced cognitive processing. For example, rapid mental calculation is a cognitive ability that is associated with ability to solve math problems. Cognitive ability is conscious intellectual activity such as thinking, reasoning, remembering, imagining, or learning words. Cognitive is a mental process. The cognitive ability is affected by various environmental factors. The recent interest in compensatory education has focused on certain aspects of the Child's environment which are instrumental in advancing or retarding his cognitive functioning. There are some theoretical grounds and relevant evidences that prolonged environmental deprivation includes retardation in intellectual development. It is assumed that whatever the individual's genetic potentials are, development of cognitive ability occurs largely in response to a variable range of stimulations requiring incorporation, accommodation, adjustment and reconciliation.

The intersection of gender and cognitive development among visually impaired students is another important aspect of this field. Gender differences in cognitive abilities have been widely documented in the literature, with research suggesting that boys and girls may excel in different areas (Hyde, 2019). For instance, boys are often found to perform better in spatial tasks, while girls tend to excel in verbal tasks (Voyer et al., 2020). These differences can be further complicated by the challenges posed by visual impairment. Studies examining the cognitive abilities of visually impaired boys and girls have yielded mixed results. Some research indicates that boys with visual impairments may face more significant challenges in academic performance due to behavioral issues and a tendency towards hyperactivity (Fitzgerald & Rogers, 2021). Conversely, girls may be more likely to develop strong verbal skills, which can enhance their educational outcomes, despite the challenges they face (Hall & Dineen, 2019).

Academic achievement plays a key role in the successful development of students in society. Academic achievement measures the quantities of qualities of a student. Academic

achievement tests the student ability to master knowledge. Academic achievement measures the performance outcomes of a person that has accomplished specific goals which focuses on particular activities in instructional environments. Academic achievement includes the variety of educational outcomes. According to Moores (2001) research evidences that deaf or hard of hearing students' performance in school subject are significantly low. Researches of Mertens (1991), Moores & Sweet (1990), Qi & Mitchell (2012), Allen (1986), Traxler (2000), Roald, & Mikalsen (2000), Spencer & Marschark (2010) mentioned that deaf and hearing-impaired lagging behind in academic performance than their hearing peers than similar grade level or ages student. Research indicates that visually impaired students generally achieve lower academic outcomes compared to their sighted peers. A study by Johnson et al. (2021) found that while both boys and girls with visual impairments struggled academically, girls tended to perform slightly better than boys in standardized tests, particularly in reading and language arts. This finding aligns with previous research suggesting that girls, regardless of visual status, may develop better literacy skills, potentially due to socialization patterns that encourage verbal communication (Sullivan & Williams, 2020). In conclusion, understanding the cognitive abilities and educational achievements of visually impaired students, while taking into account gender differences, is crucial for developing effective educational strategies. Continued research in this area will provide insights that can help create more inclusive educational environments for all students, regardless of their visual status.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Gender on cognitive abilities

Cattaneo et al. (2015), children with visual impairments may develop heightened abilities in non-visual modalities, such as auditory and tactile processing, which can influence overall cognitive performance. **Ginsburg and Burchinal (2020)** suggested that while there are observable differences in cognitive abilities, these differences are not necessarily indicative of overall cognitive capability. The study highlighted that both boys and girls possess unique strengths and weaknesses, which may be amplified in visually impaired populations due to their reliance on non-visual senses. **Loo et al. (2017)** found that girls tended to perform better in verbal tasks, while boys excelled in spatial tasks, although these findings varied based on the degree of visual impairment. The authors emphasized that these differences might be attributed to socialization patterns, where boys and girls are encouraged to develop different

skill sets from a young age. **McCarthy et al. (2019)** showed that girls outperformed boys in language arts, while boys performed better in mathematics, suggesting that gendered learning strategies might be at play. Furthermore, the study highlighted that the educational interventions tailored for visually impaired students often overlook these differences, potentially impacting the overall academic success of both genders. **McLinden and Douglas (2018)**, the support systems available to these children—such as family, educators, and peers—play a crucial role in their cognitive outcomes. Girls often benefit from stronger social networks, which can enhance verbal and interpersonal skills, while boys may be encouraged to engage in more exploratory and risk-taking behaviors, influencing their spatial skills. **Rahi et al. (2016)** suggest that the lack of visual input may lead to enhanced spatial awareness skills in some visually impaired individuals.

Gender on cognitive abilities

Al-Azawei et al. (2021) found that girls tend to exhibit higher levels of intrinsic motivation, which correlates with better academic performance. In contrast, boys often display higher extrinsic motivation, which can lead to varied outcomes in educational contexts. This difference in motivation may be influenced by societal expectations and gender roles, affecting how each gender approaches learning and achievement. **Cattaneo et al. (2015)** found that while both genders face challenges, girls tend to outperform boys in verbal subjects, such as language arts and reading comprehension. Conversely, boys often excel in mathematical and spatial tasks. **Fuchs et al. (2017)** emphasizes that early intervention and tailored educational programs are crucial for improving academic outcomes. **Ginsburg and Burchinal (2020)** emphasizes the importance of inclusive educational practices that accommodate diverse learning needs. The study found that boys and girls benefit differently from individualized support, with girls typically responding more favorably to collaborative learning environments, whereas boys may thrive in more competitive settings. **Loo et al., (2017)** this study found that the pattern aligns with broader trends in educational performance where girls typically achieve higher grades in language-based subjects, while boys perform better in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) areas. **McCarthy et al. (2019)**, the presence of specialized instructors and access to assistive technologies can significantly impact educational achievement. Their findings indicate that visually impaired girls often receive more emotional and social support from teachers and peers, which can contribute to higher academic performance compared to boys, who may experience social isolation. **McLinden and Douglas (2018)**, these barriers can stem from limited access to

resources, insufficient educational support, and the unique learning needs of visually impaired individuals. **Rahi et al. (2016)** conducted research indicating that gendered expectations and socialization may influence the educational experiences of boys and girls. Girls, often encouraged to develop communication and collaboration skills, may benefit from social learning environments, leading to better performance in verbal tasks. In contrast, boys may engage more with hands-on activities, enhancing their performance in subjects requiring spatial reasoning.

Relationship between cognitive abilities and educational achievement

Al-Azawei et al. (2021) supports the integration of technology in the classroom to facilitate learning and enhance cognitive engagement, thereby improving academic outcomes for visually impaired students. **Cattaneo et al. (2015)** found that visually impaired students often exhibit strengths in non-visual cognitive domains, such as spatial reasoning and auditory memory. These cognitive skills can compensate for the challenges posed by visual impairment, allowing students to navigate academic tasks effectively. **Ginsburg and Burchinal (2020)** further emphasized that the interplay between cognitive abilities and educational outcomes is nuanced by gender. For instance, girls' strengths in verbal cognition may lead to higher performance in language arts, whereas boys may achieve better in math and science due to their spatial reasoning skills. **McCarthy et al. (2019)** argue for the implementation of individualized educational plans that focus on the specific cognitive profiles of students, promoting engagement and academic success. **McLinden and Douglas (2018)** suggests that cognitive skills, such as working memory and problem-solving, are significant predictors of academic performance among visually impaired students. Their study demonstrated that students with stronger cognitive abilities in these areas tend to achieve higher grades and exhibit better overall academic performance. **Rahi et al. (2016)** highlighted the importance of cognitive flexibility in learning. Visually impaired students who demonstrated better cognitive flexibility—the ability to adapt their thinking and approach to problem-solving showed improved academic outcomes, particularly in subjects that require critical thinking and analysis.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

To study of cognitive abilities and educational achievement of visually impaired students.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To examine the cognitive abilities of Boys and Girls visually impaired students.
- To examine the educational achievement of Boys and Girls visually impaired students.
- Relationship between cognitive abilities and educational achievement of visually impaired students.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is no significant difference in cognitive abilities of Boys and Girls visually impaired students.
- There is no significant difference in educational achievement of Boys and Girls visually impaired students.
- There would be a positive correlation between the cognitive abilities and educational achievement of visually impaired students.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

Sample was consist of 40 visually impaired students (Boys and Girls) selected from various institutions for visually handicapped students. Only Secondary and Senior Secondary boys & girls will be included in this study. Age range of the subjects will be 14 to 18 years.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

The research design of study to find the relationship between cognitive abilities and the educational achievement correlation of visually impaired students with descriptive survey method by using standardized tools.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent Variables- visually impaired students- Boys and Girls

Dependent Variables- 1) Cognitive abilities 2) Educational achievement

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

- **Indian adapted version of WISC –R (Verbal) developed and standardized by- National Institute for the Empowerment of Person with Visual impairment (Divyangjan) (NIEPVD)**

The tool which was used by the researcher is known as research tool which depend upon the need of the study. In this study, An Indian adapted version of WICS-R (Verbal) tool used for assessing the cognitive abilities of visually impaired students. Indian adaptation of WICS- R (Verbal) developed and standardized by National Institute for Visually Handicapped (NIEPVD), used in this study. This test consists of six sub- test size. Information, Digit Span, Similarity, Arithmetic, Vocabulary, and Comprehension. Wechsler considered these sub-tests as the most important cognitive abilities and classified them as being primarily verbal test. During the adaptation process reliability was established by test-retest technique by NIEPVD which was found to be ranged from .89 to .98 for six sub-tests. During the adaptation process, validity was determined by Concurrent Validity and was found to be 0.94.

PROCEDURES OF DATA OLLECTION: -

For the present study subjects were called in a small group of 5-10 subjects and there seating arrangements, was made in a classroom. Following the instructions and procedure suggested by the author of the test. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data was collected.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AD DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation and ANOVA was done by using SPSS Software.

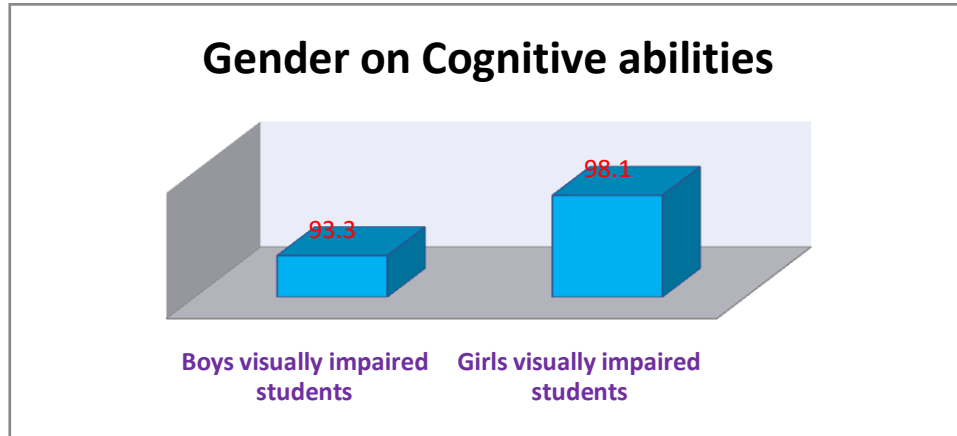
Genderon Cognitive abilities

Table No.01 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Genderon Cognitive abilities

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	„t“ Value	Sign.
Cognitive	Boys visually impaired students	93.30	12.38	20	38	1.116	NS

abilities	Girls visually impaired students	98.10	12.54	20			
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Graph No. 01 Mean of Genderon Cognitive abilities



The results in Table 01 and Figure 01 indicate a notable difference in cognitive abilities based on gender. Specifically, boys visually impaired students reported a mean score of 93.30 (SD = 12.38), while girls visually impaired students had a higher mean score of 98.10 (SD = 12.54). However, the t-value of -1.116, with degrees of freedom (1, 38), and a non-significant p-value of 0.01 suggest there is no statistically significant difference in cognitive abilities between boys and girls visually impaired students.

Research on cognitive abilities among visually impaired students has increasingly focused on understanding the impact of gender. The prevailing evidence suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in cognitive abilities between boys and girls in this population. This finding is crucial for developing inclusive educational strategies that cater to the needs of all students, regardless of gender. A study by Hatzichristou and Liora (2007) examined cognitive performance among visually impaired students and found that gender differences in cognitive abilities were minimal. Their analysis indicated that both boys and girls demonstrated similar capabilities in areas such as problem-solving and memory, emphasizing that cognitive development in visually impaired students is largely influenced by factors such as environmental support and access to resources rather than gender. research by McLinden and McCall (2017) explored the educational outcomes of visually impaired students and highlighted the importance of tailored interventions that focus on individual strengths and needs, rather than making assumptions based on gender. Their findings indicated that boys and girls benefit equally from strategies designed to enhance cognitive

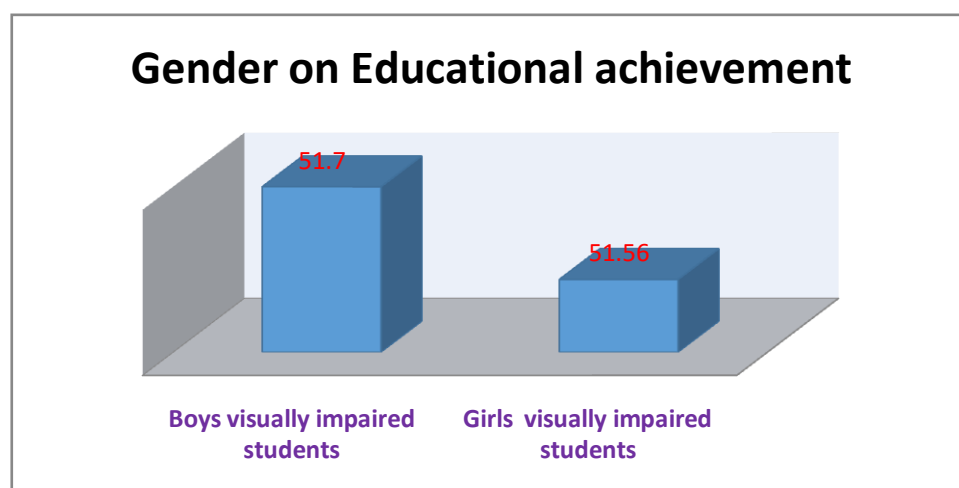
skills, underscoring that both genders can achieve comparable cognitive outcomes when provided with appropriate support. the work of Pino and Puglisi (2018) reinforced the idea that social and educational environments significantly shape cognitive abilities in visually impaired students. They noted that stereotypes and societal expectations can influence both boys' and girls' performance, but when these factors are controlled, gender differences in cognitive ability virtually disappear. This suggests that creating an inclusive and supportive educational environment can mitigate any perceived disparities. the evidence suggests that there are no statistically significant differences in cognitive abilities between visually impaired boys and girls. Instead, cognitive outcomes are shaped by environmental factors, individual experiences, and the educational context. Efforts to promote equity in education should focus on addressing these influences to support the cognitive development of all visually impaired students.

Genderon Educational achievement

Table No.02 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Genderon Educational achievement

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	„t“ Value	Sign
Educational achievement	Boys visually impaired students	51.70	1.74	20	38	0.089	NS
	Girls visually impaired students	51.56	1.41	20			

Graph No. 02 Mean of Genderon Educational achievement



The results in Table 02 and Figure 02 indicate a slight difference in educational achievement based on gender among visually impaired students. Specifically, boys reported a mean score of 51.70 (SD = 1.74), while girls had a mean score of 51.56 (SD = 1.41). However, the t-value of 0.089, with degrees

of freedom (1, 38), and a non-significant p-value of 0.01 suggest that there is no statistically significant difference in educational achievement between visually impaired boys and girls.

The findings indicating no statistically significant difference in educational achievement between visually impaired boys and girls contribute to the growing body of literature on gender and educational outcomes in students with disabilities. This aligns with several studies that suggest cognitive and educational performance is influenced more by individual capabilities and environmental factors than by gender alone. Research by Kauffman and Landrum (2013) highlights those students with disabilities, including visual impairments, often exhibit similar educational outcomes regardless of gender. The study emphasizes that educational interventions tailored to individual needs can mitigate any potential differences in achievement. This suggests that when provided with appropriate support, both visually impaired boys and girls can achieve comparable levels of academic success. a meta-analysis by Voyer and Voyer (2014) underscores that gender differences in cognitive abilities tend to diminish in specific populations, such as those with disabilities. The authors argue that factors like teaching methods, classroom dynamics, and peer influences play a crucial role in shaping educational outcomes. For visually impaired students, the emphasis on inclusive practices and individualized education plans can further support this parity in achievement. the work of Hatzichristou and Liora (2007) found that socio-emotional factors, such as motivation and self-esteem, significantly impact academic performance in visually impaired students. Their research indicates that both boys and girls benefit equally from supportive educational environments that foster confidence and engagement, which can ultimately lead to similar achievement levels. the absence of a statistically significant difference in educational achievement between visually impaired boys and girls highlights the importance of focusing on individual learning needs and creating inclusive educational settings. This evidence suggests that, rather than gender, factors such as teaching quality, support systems, and tailored interventions are pivotal in ensuring all students reach their full potential.

relationship between the cognitive abilities and educational achievement

Table No.03 Show the relationship between the cognitive abilities and educational achievement

Correlations			
		cognitive abilities	educational achievement
cognitive	Pearson Correlation	1	.150

abilities	Sig. (2-tailed)		.356
	N	40	40
educational achievement	Pearson Correlation	.150	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.356	
	N	40	40

The correlation analysis presented Table 03 indicates a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.150 between cognitive abilities and educational achievement, with a significance level (p-value) of 0.356. This suggests a weak positive correlation between these two variables; however, the p-value indicates that this correlation is not statistically significant. Given that the sample size (N = 40) is adequate for correlation analysis, the lack of significance suggests that there is no strong relationship between cognitive abilities and educational achievement within this sample of visually impaired students. This result aligns with findings from other studies that have explored the relationship between cognitive functioning and academic outcomes, suggesting that factors beyond cognitive abilities may play a more critical role in educational achievement. The findings of this correlation analysis indicate that, while there is a slight positive correlation between cognitive abilities and educational achievement among visually impaired students, the relationship is not statistically significant. This aligns with previous research that emphasizes the complexity of educational achievement, which often cannot be fully explained by cognitive abilities alone. For instance, McLinden and McCall (2017) argue that educational outcomes for students with disabilities are influenced by a variety of factors, including teaching practices, emotional and social support, and access to resources. Their research highlights that cognitive abilities may not be the sole predictors of success in educational contexts, particularly for students with visual impairments who may rely on alternative learning strategies. Additionally, a study by Voyer and Voyer (2014) found that socio-emotional factors such as motivation and engagement can significantly impact educational outcomes, suggesting that these elements may mediate the relationship between cognitive abilities and achievement. In environments where students feel supported and motivated, they may perform better academically, regardless of their cognitive ability scores. The work of Hatzichristou and Liora (2007) emphasizes the importance of tailored educational interventions. Their findings suggest that students with disabilities, including those who are visually impaired, benefit more from individualized support than from broad-based measures of cognitive ability. This indicates that educational achievement may be more closely related to the effectiveness of instructional strategies and support systems than to inherent cognitive differences.

In conclusion, while the analysis shows a weak correlation between cognitive abilities and educational achievement, the lack of statistical significance suggests that educational outcomes for visually impaired students are influenced by a broader range of factors. Future

CONCLUSION: -

teaching practices, and emotional support in shaping educational success.

- There is no statistically significant difference in cognitive abilities between visually impaired boys and girls.
- There is no statistically significant difference in educational achievement between visually impaired male and female students.
- the study found no strong relationship between cognitive abilities and educational achievement of visually impaired students.

LIMITATIONS

- The study was limited to the area of Uttar Pradesh.
- The present study was limited to 40 visually impaired students (Boys and Girls) from Uttar Pradesh.
- The sample is limited to visually impaired students of 14 to 18 years age groups from Uttar Pradesh.
- The major statistical technique used for analysis of data is Pearson's correlation in order to obtain the results by overcoming the limitations.
- The scales used to collect data, may have its own limitations.

DELIMITATIONS

- The investigator has not selected representative sample of the population under study, viz., visually impaired students in Uttar Pradesh.
- The present study being a descriptive one, selecting a representative sample of the entire population was not practicable.
- The influential factors which are identified through this study should be taken seriously during counseling of adolescents.

SUGGESTIONS

- The present study was conducted in this particular state only. This may be extended to other districts and other states in the country.
- The same study may be undertaken for students suffering from other disabilities at various levels of formal education in different school subjects in inclusive settings.
- Further research on larger samples can be taken to enhance the validity of findings of the study.

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A Panel Data Study on Financial Inclusion of Indian States

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ABSTRACT

Digitalisation has revolutionised the financial service sector, deepening the financial inclusion has become the prerequisite to attain inclusive growth for the economy. This is more relevant in nations like India, where there is a huge disparity among the citizens as far as the access and affordability of finance products is concerned. The paper has attempted to develop a state-wise financial inclusion index using a weighted average. Further, the authors explore the key variables that influence financial inclusion in India's context. The study employs panel data analysis and relies on the secondary data for ten years from 2011 to 2021. The various diagnostic test has been employed to ensure the reliability of results. The result calculated using STATA 13, reveals that Credit deposit ratio, State Domestic Product and equality in gender and is positively significant at whereas literacy rate is negatively significant to financial inclusion at 10 per cent. The lateral result, although seems contradictory to the literature highlights overall poor financial inclusion among females and the majority of states with lower SDP having weak penetration of financial inclusion, especially to rural and backward areas.

Keywords: Financial inclusion, financial literacy, Banking, Inclusive growth

Key Variables: Cash Deposit Ratio (CDR), Financial Index, Gender Ratio, Literacy Ratio

JEL Codes: G21, G22, G38, G41, O16

Abbreviation: Asian Development Bank (ADB), Alliance for Financial Inclusion (AFI), Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas (BSP), Basic Savings Basic Deposits (BSBD), Business Facilitator (BFs) or Business Correspondents (BCs), Cash Deposit Ratio (CDR), Credit Rating Information Services of India Limited (CRISIL), dummy Gender Ratio (DGNR),

dummy literacy rate (DLIT), Economic Research Southern Africa (ERSA), Financial Index (FINDEX), Financial Inclusion Index (FIN), International Monetary Fund (IMF), log of State Domestic Product (LSDP), MOSPI, National Agricultural Bank for Rural Development (NABARD), Non- Banking Financial Corporations (NBFCs), Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY), Reserve Bank of India (RBI), Sustainable Development Goals (SDG's), United Nations (UN), Unified District Information System for Education (UDISE).

INTRODUCTION

In the early 2000s, the World Bank identified a direct correlation between financial inclusion and poverty eradication (*et. al* Demirguc-Kunt, 2017)¹ *Financial inclusion means individuals have availability of affordable financial products and services like saving, payments, credits, and insurance, provided in a responsible way* as defined by World Bank. Banking institutions and government policymakers of developing nations consider financial inclusion as an emerging paradigm of economic development. Atamirbhar Bharat has collateral-free automatic loans for ₹3,00,000 and street vendor schemes providing liquidity leverage ₹500 crores (Lunawat and Bohra, 2020)². Reserve Bank of India (RBI), has released National Strategy for Financial Inclusion 2019-2024, to follow a target-based approach, a bank-led model to achieve the highest level of financial inclusion in India. Specific financial inclusion scheme of Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY), has banked 39.95 Crore beneficiaries. (RBI, 2019) and 51.04 Crore beneficiaries as on 29.11.2023³⁴ CRISIL index, the score's India 58 out of 100, with 14 districts scoring 100.⁵ Also, inclusive growth targets cannot be achieved without financial inclusion, which is related with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), like poverty eradication, food security, reducing inequality, and others. Thus, it is important to know the relation between financial inclusion and determining economic variables.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

¹Asli Demirguc-Kunt, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer (2017), "Financial Inclusion and Inclusive Growth A Review of Recent Empirical Evidence", World Bank, Development Research Group Finance and Private Sector Development Team

²Mahavir Lunawat*, Nidhi Bohra, (2020), "SME Capital Market - Strengthening MSME Ecosystem and Funnelling Growth", The Journal For Governance Professionals, Vol 50|No. : 07 pp. 52-56

³Government of India, Reserve Bank of India, (2019), Annual Report, <https://m.rbi.org.in/Scripts/AnnualReportPublications.aspx?Id=1259>

⁴Government of India, Press Information Bureau

<https://pib.gov.in/PressReleaseIframePage.aspx?PRID=1985619#:~:text=2023%2C%20a%20total%20of%2051.04.0f%20State%20for%20Finance%20Dr.>

⁵CRISIL Inclusix February 2018 | Volume 4 Financial inclusion surges, driven by Jan-Dhan Yojana

Global Findex database, provides, 76% of the global population now has an account, with 71% in developing countries. World Bank, 2021 database provides, the Global Findex, which measures use of financial products across nations covering 97 percent of the world's population, brings the prominence of financial inclusion as a parameter of development of nations. Reserve Bank of India (RBI), 2006, financial inclusion leads to financial development which accelerates economic development⁶ (Mahajan, 2004). Economic growth has a strong positive relationship with financial inclusion (Julie, 2012)⁷ Financial inclusion is considered to be a pre-condition for economic development⁸. The gap of awareness and recognition is palpable from the literature. (Gary, 2005) Macro-scale financial globalization of 1970's, for two decades causes financial exclusion, contrary to this micro-scale globalisation contributes to financial inclusion. ⁹All India Debt Investment Survey 2012, brings out the dependency of rural India on Informal Sector, for credit.

Watershed movement, 1969 is attributed to nationalization of 14 banks, followed by 1980 nationalization of six more banks in India, with policy measures to ensure mushrooming of banks in India. Some of them were 1:4 branch ratio of urban rural banks, and 40 percent priority banking towards agriculture. The rural credit of 70 percent from non-institutional financing fell as low as 36 percent in 1991. In 1991, when Narshima Committee recommended, commercial model of banks, leading to closure of 900 rural banks, for the non-viability in operations and management of these banks. However, the term financial inclusion came in recognition only recently, RBI (2005), the steps for financial improvement can be said as an effort to reduce financial exclusion, for, there was very vague knowability of what exactly financial inclusion is?

Defining Financial Inclusion

RBI committee (Rangrajan, 2008) accepted financial inclusion to be *"The process of ensuring access to financial services and timely and adequate credit where needed by vulnerable groups such as weaker sections and low-income groups at an affordable cost."* (Conroy, 2005; Mohan, 2006; Rangrajan's Committee, 2008) The definition was further

⁶ Mohan, Rakesh (2006), "Economic Growth, Financial Deepening, and Financial Inclusion", Deputy Governor of RBI at the Annual Bankers Conference, Hyderabad.

⁷ Oruo Julie (2002/2003-2011/2012) "The Relationship Between Financial Inclusion And Gdp Growth In Kenya"

⁸ Mahajan, Vijay (2004), "Deregulation the rural credit", (2005), Indebtness of farmers household

⁹ Dymski, Gary. (2006). Banking Strategy and Financial Exclusion: Tracing the Pathways of Globalization. Revista de Economia. 31.

given in an extended scale by a committee headed by Prof Raghuram Rajan's, defines *–Expanding access to financial services, such as payment services, savings products, insurance products, and inflation protected pensions”*. Though varied definitions were explored in Indian context. The term financial inclusion is used in different parlance which has led to difficulty in using standard yardstick for benchmarking its policy parameters. World Bank (2014), gives the basic idea of financial inclusion as *–proportion of individual or firms using financial services”*, which is parallel to what economists consider as financial deepening. Each country is at different level of development, Asian Development Bank (ADB), 2018 states that there are various definitions of Financial Inclusion (Gary, 2006)¹⁰. The absence of universal definition is because of multidimensional nature and varied jurisdiction of financial inclusion (Tita and Aziakpono, 2017)¹¹. This multidimensional phenomenon across regions can be captured in a panel data analysis, as it is attributed to regional and time differences. (Beck, Demirguc-Kunt, and Levine, 2007; Honohan, 2008; Pal and Vaidya, 2012, ch. 12)¹²¹³¹⁴. Thereby, specific definition and common framework is significant to be established (Alliance for financial Inclusion, 2015)¹⁵. As domain for financial inclusion can be vast, the domain should remain uniform for comparisons between countries and regions. (Chakravarty and Pal, 2013) However, a definition provided by World Bank, 2018 is *–Financial inclusion means that individuals and businesses have access to useful and affordable financial products and services that meet their needs – transactions, payments, savings, credit and insurance – delivered in a responsible and sustainable way.”*¹⁶(World Bank, 2018). This definition is more holistic as it covers the insurance part of

¹⁰ Cyn-Young Park and Rogelio V. Mercado, Jr. (2018). Financial Inclusion: New Measurement and Cross-Country Impact Assessment. ADB economics working paper series no. 539. Last Accessed: August 2020. <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/408621/ewp-539-financial-inclusion.pdf>

¹¹Tita, Anthanasius Fomum and Aziakpono, Meshach Jesse. (2017). The effect of financial inclusion on welfare in sub-Saharan Africa: Evidence from disaggregated data. ERSA working paper 679 Last Accessed: August 2020. https://www.econrsa.org/system/files/publications/working_papers/working_paper_679.pdf.

¹² Beck, T., Demirguc-Kunt, A., & Levine, R. (2007). Finance, inequality, and the poor. Journal of Economic Growth, 12(1), 27–49.

¹³ Honohan, P. (2008). Cross-country variation in household access to financial services. Journal of Banking and Finance. 32(11), 2493–2500.

¹⁴ Pal, R., & Vaidya, R. (2011). Outreach of Banking Services across Indian states: 1981–2007 converging or diverging? In D.M. Nachane (Ed.), India Development Report 2011 (pp. 116–129) Oxford University Press

¹⁵ <https://www.bis.org/ifc/publ/ifcb38.pdf>

¹⁶ <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/financialinclusion/overview#1>

financial services, acknowledging it to be a responsibility to be delivered, and in a sustainable way. This links the definition to the sustainable development goal of poverty eradication.

Origin

The term financial exclusion was coined by geographers in 1993 for limited banking access to population (Leyshon and Thrift, 1995; Caro, 2005; Mohan 2006; Joseph, 2014). Former United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan, on 29 December 2003, said:

-The stark reality is that most poor people in the world still lack access to sustainable financial services, whether it is savings, credit or insurance. The great challenge is to address the constraints that exclude people from full participation in the financial sector. Together, we can build inclusive financial sectors that help people improve their lives.¶

Financial inclusion can better understand as what is not available first, making it challenging to reduce poverty and inequalities, thus exclusion from financial services is a barrier to economic development (Beck et. Al, 2008). World bank underlined voluntary exclusion as when firm or individual chooses not to avail financial service (World Bank, 2004). The discovery of 7.5 million population not having bank account, made the British Lexion to derive the term financial inclusion (Raju, 2006). Alliance for Financial Inclusion (AFI) Executive Director Alfred Hannig highlighted on 24 April 2013 progress in financial inclusion during the IMF-World Bank 2013 Spring Meetings: *"Financial inclusion is no longer a fringe subject. It is now recognized as an important part of the mainstream thinking on economic development based on country leadership."* National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development, with the UN aims to increase financial inclusion of the poor by developing an appropriate financial product for them and increasing awareness on available financial services strengthening financial literacy, particularly among women.

Development of Financial Inclusion

Recently, International Monetary Fund (IMF) examined the linkages of financial inclusion with economic growth, economic and financial stability and inequality on a cross country level as well as time series analysis. Its major conclusions were that financial inclusion increases economic growth up to a point. However, the marginal benefits for growth wane as both inclusion and depth increase. As such, these benefits could be low, and even negative,

for some advanced economies (Sahay, 2015).¹⁷ The UN (United Nations) SDG's of poverty eradication and Universal Health coverage can be achieved by financial inclusion. To achieve universal health coverage, [the poor need access to both financial and health services](#) (Lisa & Carig, 2016).¹⁸ The Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas (BSP) report on Financial Inclusion Initiatives and Financial Inclusion (2019) in the Philippines summarizes the country's milestones in financial inclusion. These reports show that 4 out of 10 Filipinos saved money in 2015 (2 out of 10 in 2009). Among Filipino adults, 24.5 percent never saved and only 23 percent of adults have a formal account (BSP, 2017). The lack of enough money was cited as the main reason for not having a bank account, and having a bank account was considered luxury. (BSP,2019)

In 2017 it was estimated that about 1.7 billion adults lacked a bank account (World Bank, FINDEX)¹⁹. Among those who are unbanked a significant number were women and poor people in rural areas and often those who are excluded from financial institutions face discrimination and belong to vulnerable or marginalized populations. However, while Asia is well positioned for robust growth, policymakers need to address the lack of access to financial services in order to ensure that this growth is equitable and inclusive. Furthermore, it is estimated that, within developing Asia, only 27 percent of adults have an account in a formal financial institution, while only 33 percent of firms reportedly have a loan or line of credit (Bhardwaj *et al.*, 2018). In spite of many initiatives being taken to promote financial inclusion in Asia, fostering financial inclusion remains a critical challenge in the region.

In India, 70 percent households are dependent on agriculture, 82 percent are small/marginal farmers, accounts for 25 percent of global production and 27 percent of global consumption (UN, 2018). Living conditions of the farmers non-farm enterprise, and other groups can be improved by financial inclusion, while the requirement is to understand risk elements of small/marginal farmers, where formal-banking services are not available despite the demand.

¹⁷ Ratna Sahay, Martin Čihák, Papa N'Diaye, Adolfo Barajas, Srobona Mitra, Annette Kyobe, Yen Nian Mooi, and Seyed Reza Yousefi, 2015 "Financial Inclusion: Can It Meet Multiple Macroeconomic Goals?", IMF staff discussion note.

¹⁸ Lisa Morgan and Craig Churchill, "How Financial Inclusion Can Boost a Nation's Health & Well-Being", 2016

¹⁹The Unbanked, Global Finindex Database, 2017
https://globalindex.worldbank.org/sites/globalindex/files/chapters/2017%20Finindex%20full%20report_chapter2.pdf

The fact remains that nearly half of the Indian population doesn't have access to formal financial services and are largely dependent on money lenders. (Anupam & Sumita, 2013) Much holds true for the statement even today. The Government of India and the Reserve Bank of India have been making concerted efforts to promote financial inclusion as one of the important national objectives of the country. Some of the major efforts made in the last six decades include - nationalization of banks (1969), building up of robust branch network of scheduled commercial banks, co-operatives and regional rural banks, introduction of mandated priority sector lending targets, lead bank scheme, formation of self-help groups, permitting BCs/BFs to be appointed by banks to provide door step delivery of banking services, zero balance BSBD accounts, etc. The fundamental objective of all these initiatives is to reach the large sections of the hitherto financially excluded Indian population. However Financial exclusion is when a large section of a society is deprived of such financial services. Demand-side factors also contribute to dimensions of financial exclusion, for which two-thirds of the underserved segment resort to high-cost financial services from informal sector (Mahadeva, 2008). The 63.26 percent of demand side factors are accounted from Accessibility, Culture, Assets, Literacy and Income (Ghatak, 2013).

Financial consequences are affecting the patterns of consumption of various sections of the society, access to social welfare of which state domestic product and gender ratio is the most important aspect and the distribution of income and wealth. Karnataka, Gulbarga district claiming 100 percent financial inclusion, results were re-examined centre for microfinance which found 36 percent of them remain excluded from saving accounts, the accounts were opened to receive grants from government under NREGP (National Rural Employment Guarantee Program) and not during drive for financial inclusion, implying need to promote financial literacy (Minakshi, 2007)²⁰. Coupling financial inclusion with social security schemes is important because unless the previously unbanked population has a reliable stream of income, the demand for a bank account will not be generated²¹ (Anant & Ashish, 2008). Mere opening of no-frill bank accounts is not the purpose or the end of financial inclusion (Anupam & Sumita, 2013). Also, the risk of financial stability is more when there is unsupervised access to credit and vice-versa, *ceteris paribus* (Sahay, 2015). People with low finances tend to believe that banks are for rich people. Literacy rate and financial inclusion

²⁰ Ramji, Minakshi, (2007) 100% Financial Inclusion: Improving Access and Usage: A study Report on Financial Inclusion

²¹ Anant Jayant Natu, Dr. Aashish Bansal, Amrita Kurian, Gurinder Pal Singh Khurana, Tanushree Bhushan, (2008), Linking Financial Inclusion with Social Security Schemes

relation showcases varied results and this relation can be in opposite direction thus, policy initiatives are required to be more focused on behavioural factors.²²

This also calls for the review of current policy and its implementation mechanism. However, micro-finance services have been successful for improving financial inclusion (Ghosal, 2005; Mohan & Chakarvarty, 2007; FINISH, 2016) Recent study suggests that financial literacy especially for investment variable negatively impact microfinance.²³

Identifying aspects of Financial Inclusion

Readily available data outlining gaps in access and contextualizing the situation of financial inclusion is necessary for both Banks and policy makers looking to achieve financial inclusion. Several organizations conduct surveys to measure indicators of financial inclusion. A vast array of literature, still growing presents variable to study financial inclusion, as per country/region, cross-country, time series and panel data types and/or the developmental stage of country for state/province level analysis.

Access and possibility of use, and actual use variables determined, demographic (100,000 persons) and geographic (1000 km sq.), bank branches and ATMs closely predict banking service (Beck & Kunt, 2007)²⁴ Bank Penetration, Availability of Banking Services and Usage of Banking System has computed the values of IFI for 55 countries using these three basic dimensions of financial inclusion, where Spain had the highest value, followed by Austria and Belgium, while India ranked 31 out of 55. (Sarma, 2008)²⁵ Savings, payments, credits and delivery were access of financial services variables used which revealed in majority of developing countries, population served per branch was much higher in rural areas in comparison to urban areas (The Consultative Group to Assist the Poor, 2009)²⁶. The three dimensions Outreach Dimension, Ease of Transaction Dimension and Cost of transaction Dimension (Arora, 2010; Gupte 2012). A social index developed new socio-

²²Gupta Pallvi, Singh Bharti (2013), Role of Literacy Level in Financial Inclusion in India: Empirical Evidence, Role of Literacy Level in Financial Inclusion in India: Empirical Evidence

²³Hasan, M., Le, T. & Hoque, A. How does financial literacy impact on inclusive finance?. *Financ Innov* 7, 40 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40854-021-00259-9>

²⁴ Beck, T., A. Demircuc-Kunt, and M.S. Martinez Peria. 2007. 'Reaching Out: Access To and Use of Banking Services ac Sarma, M. (2008), Index of Financial Inclusion, ICRIER Working Paper, August 2008. ross Countries'. *Journal of Financial Economics* 85 (1): 234–66.

²⁵ Sarma, M. (2008). Index of Financial Inclusion, Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations (ICRIER) Working Paper 215.

²⁶The Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (C-GAP). 2009. 'Financial Access 2009: Measuring Access to Financial Services Around the World'. World Bank. Retrieved from www.gsma.com/mobilefordevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/faz009_6.pdf

economic index which includes financial access index, while studying it with HDI. It showed highest rank of Belgium in developed countries and Hungary in developed countries, amongst lowest were Nepal and Pakistan (Arora, 2010)²⁷. Adding the usage dimension key factors were identified for the financial inclusion in India and found geographic branch penetration was highly significant (Gupte, 2012)²⁸. The Global Findex Database (Kunt and Klapper, 2012) for 148 countries considered formal accounts (payments & penetration), savings, borrowings (purpose and use of credit) and insurance as parameters, concluding that only 50 percent adult population is financially included (Kunt and Klapper, 2012)²⁹, also found lack of savings account with 460 million adults and lack of formal source of borrowing for 650 million adults with overlap.

In 2013, the CRISIL -InclusiX, an index to measure the status of financial inclusion was launched in India, which had parameters of Branch penetration, Credit penetration, and Deposit penetration. CRISIL, findings with regional, state-wise, and district-wise assessments, score of India was 58.0 which showed significant improvement from 35.4 (2009). Deposit penetration is the key driver of financial inclusion – the number of deposit accounts (1646 million), is almost eight times the number of credit accounts (196 million), with top three states being Kerala, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh (CRISIL Report, 2018).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Primary objective of financial inclusion is to provide access of financial services in an equitable manner. Despite the numerous efforts of the government, Reserve Bank of India (RBI), NABARD, NBFCs and microfinancing measures, this objective achievement has been challenging. Thus, to detail out the pressing concerns for achieving financial inclusion the study is conducted

- To develop a state-wide index of financial inclusion of India
- To understand key variables that influence financial inclusion in India

²⁷ Rashmi Umesh Arora, (2010). Measuring Financial Access. Griffith University, Discussion Paper Economics 7, ISSN 1837-7750.

²⁸ Gupte, R., Venkataramani, B., & Gupata, D. (2012). Computation of financial inclusion index for India. International Journal of Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 37, 133 – 149.

²⁹ Kunt, Demircuc A., and L. Klapper. 2012. 'Measuring Financial Inclusion: The Global Findex Database'. Policy Research Working Paper 6025. Washington, DC: World Bank.

- To perform panel data analysis and understand the role of CDR, Literacy Ratio and Gender Ratio in Financial Inclusion
- Policy Recommendations and Implication on a National level
- For Policy Recommendation and Implication on State Level

DATA, METHODOLOGY AND MODEL SPECIFICATION

The study takes into consideration three variables for calculation of the weighted index of financial inclusion, that is FIN (Financial Inclusion Index), which are Bank deposit, branch penetration and Banks loans. The index is a state-level index for India. For determining the impact, the variables considered are CDR (Credit- Deposit ratio), LSDP (log of state domestic product), DGNR (Gender Ratio: Dummy; **1 < 1000 females per 1000 men**), Dlit (Dummy Literacy, State education performance; $0 > 100$). The study is conducted for ten years from 2011-2021, where data for variables Bank deposit, Branch Penetration, Bank loans, State domestic product, Credit- Deposit ratio was made available from National Data Analytical Platform (NDAP), NITI Aayog.

Dynamic panel data model (Arellano and Bond, 1991), is used to specify the relation between financial inclusion index (FIN), and LSDP, DGNR, DLIT, and CDR (Baltagi, 2005), which can be formulated as follows:

$$\text{Model I: } FIN_i = a + b_i LSDP_i + c_i DGNR_i + v_i Dlit_i + \pi_i cdr_i + \mu_i \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where, in Model I- FIN_i denotes financial inclusion index, $LSDP_i$ denotes log of State Domestic Product, $DGNR$ denotes dummy Gender Ratio, $DLIT_i$, denotes dummy literacy rate, CDR_i denotes credit deposit ratio, i - denotes corresponding state.

$$\text{Model II-IV: } FIN_{it} = a + b_i LSDP_{it} + c_i DGNR_{it} + v_i DLIT_{it} + \pi_i CDR_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Where, in Model II-IV- FIN_i denotes financial inclusion index, $LSDP_i$ denotes log of State Domestic Product, $DGNR$ denotes dummy Gender Ratio, $DLIT_i$, denotes dummy literacy rate, CDR_i denotes credit deposit ratio, i - denotes corresponding state, t - denotes time period.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis employed both pooled and panel data analysis and various Models are developed and tested namely: Pooled, Fixed effect, random effect. The unit root test reveals

that variables are stationary at levels. The diagnostic test F-Test and Hausman Test reveals that fixed effect model is most consistent of all the alternatives. Hence, Fixed effect model with robust S.E is calculated to take care of inbuilt heteroskedasticity.

	Pooled OLS	Fixed Effect	Random Effect	Fixed Effect (Robust)
	Model I	Model II	Model III	Model IV
VARIABLES	FIN	FIN	FIN	FIN
CDR	0.0141*** (0.00113)	-0.00132* (0.00075)	-0.000456 (0.000769)	-0.00132 (0.000909)
Dlit	0.0246 (0.0675)	-0.0192 (0.0119)	-0.0187 (0.0125)	-0.0192** (0.00846)
DGR	0.299 (0.221)	0.0621* (0.0358)	0.0602 (0.0376)	0.0621 (0.0433)
LSGDP	0.148*** (0.0441)	-0.0015 (0.00711)	-0.00118 (0.00749)	-0.0015 (0.00677)
Constant	-1.541*** (0.399)	0.631*** (0.0735)	0.584*** (0.119)	0.631*** (0.049)
Number of Codes		35	35	35
Observations	385	385	385	385
R-squared	0.313	0.313		0.313
F-test	43.33***			
Hausman chi2(4)	40.80***			
Standard errors in parentheses				
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1				

Source: Authors Calculations, using STATA

The study provides status of the determinants of financial inclusion in states of India. It considers 35 states, for a 10-year time period from 2011 to 2021. Results indicate that CDR and state GDP tends to impact positively on financial inclusion over a time period in case of pooled analysis. Within the state the fixed effect model indicates gender equality positively effects the financial inclusion and state GDP negatively impacts the financial inclusion. This

may indicate that supply side efforts are positively promoting financial inclusion. Surprisingly, literacy rate is negatively related to financial inclusion.

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THE INFLUENCE OF PARENTING STYLES ON YOUTH PROBLEM OF ADOLESCENCE

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the influence of parenting styles on the problems faced by adolescents, focusing on 10th-grade students in Jalna city, Maharashtra. A stratified random sample of 50 students (25 boys and 25 girls, aged 16-17) was selected to examine the relationship between perceived parenting styles and youth problems. The Parenting Style Scale (Gupta & Mehtani, 2017) and the Youth Problems Scale (Verma) were employed to gather data. Descriptive statistical techniques and Pearson's product-moment correlation were used for analysis. Findings revealed a significant negative correlation ($r = -0.271$) between parenting styles and youth problems, indicating that positive parenting styles are associated with fewer issues among adolescents.

Keywords: - Parenting Styles, Youth Problem, Adolescence.

INTRODUCTION:

Adolescence is a critical developmental stage characterized by significant physical, emotional, and social changes. During this period, youth are particularly susceptible to various behavioral and emotional issues, including anxiety, depression, and conduct disorders. One of the influential factors contributing to these adolescent problems is the parenting style employed by caregivers. Research indicates that different parenting styles can significantly impact the development and well-being of adolescents (Baumrind, 1966; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Adolescence is a transformative period marked by significant emotional, psychological, and behavioral changes. During this developmental stage, the influence of parenting styles can profoundly impact adolescent outcomes. The way parents interact with their children—through democratic (authoritative), autocratic (authoritarian),

permissive, or uninvolved approaches—can shape their emotional well-being and behavioral tendencies (Baumrind, 1966; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Understanding these relationships is crucial for addressing and mitigating adolescent problems.

Parenting Styles

Baumrind's seminal research categorized parenting styles into authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Her findings indicated that authoritative parenting, which combines high responsiveness with high demandingness, is generally associated with positive adolescent outcomes such as higher self-esteem and better academic performance. Conversely, authoritarian parenting, characterized by high demandingness but low responsiveness, often leads to increased behavioral problems and lower self-esteem in adolescents (Baumrind, 1966). This study explored how different parenting practices impact adolescents' academic achievement and overall development. It confirmed that authoritative parenting, with its balance of support and structure, is positively associated with better academic performance and psychological adjustment. The study also highlighted the role of parental involvement and encouragement in enhancing adolescent outcomes (Steinberg et al., 1992). Pinquart's meta-analysis examined the relationship between various parenting dimensions (e.g., responsiveness, demandingness) and internalizing symptoms such as anxiety and depression in children and adolescents. The analysis found that authoritative parenting was associated with lower levels of internalizing symptoms, while authoritarian and permissive styles had mixed effects depending on the specific symptoms and contexts (Pinquart, 2017). Reddy's study focused on the link between parenting styles and both academic achievement and behavioural problems in adolescents. It found that permissive parenting was associated with lower academic performance and higher behavioural issues, while authoritative parenting was linked to better academic outcomes and fewer behavioural problems (Reddy, 2020).

Youth Problem

Adolescence is a critical developmental phase characterized by significant psychological, emotional, and social transformations. This period, typically ranging from ages 12 to 18, is marked by the pursuit of identity, increased autonomy, and heightened sensitivity to peer influence. The challenges encountered during adolescence can have profound implications for long-term development and well-being (Steinberg, 2008). Common youth problems include emotional disorders, behavioural issues, and academic difficulties, which can be influenced by various factors, including parenting styles, peer relationships, and

environmental stressors (Arnett, 1999; Moffitt, 1993). Adolescents often experience heightened emotional instability and vulnerability to mental health issues. Academic challenges and behavioural issues are also prevalent during adolescence. A significant body of research links these problems to various factors, including parenting styles, peer influence, and socio-economic status. For example, a study by Eccles and Roeser (2009) found that adolescents' academic performance and motivation are influenced by the quality of their relationships with parents and teachers. Similarly, behavioural issues such as delinquency and substance abuse are often linked to environmental stressors and familial factors (Moffitt, 1993).

Parenting Styles on Youth Problem

Adolescence is a critical developmental stage characterized by significant physical, emotional, and social changes. During this period, individuals often face a myriad of challenges, including identity formation, peer pressure, and increased autonomy, which can lead to various behavioral problems (Steinberg, 2014). The parenting style adopted by caregivers plays a crucial role in shaping adolescents' responses to these challenges. Research has identified several distinct parenting styles—authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful—each influencing youth behavior in different ways (Baumrind, 1991). Authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth and structure, has been linked to positive outcomes, such as higher self-esteem and better social competence among adolescents (Steinberg, 2001). Conversely, authoritarian parenting, marked by high demands and low responsiveness, often correlates with increased rates of anxiety and rebellion (Milevsky et al., 2007). Permissive and neglectful parenting styles can also contribute to behavioral issues, leading to difficulties in self-regulation and academic performance (Baumrind, 1991; Eisenberg et al., 2005). This Study aims to explore the impact of various parenting styles on the behavioral problems faced by adolescents, emphasizing the need for informed parenting practices to foster healthy development during this tumultuous phase.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Cummings & Davies, 1994) this study found that Adolescents with uninvolved parents frequently face the highest risk of behavioral problems. The absence of parental involvement and supervision is linked to increased delinquency, substance abuse, and antisocial behavior. **Elgar et al. (2003)** found that adolescents with neglectful parents tend to have lower grades

and poorer educational outcomes. **Harris et al., (2017)** This Study found that parenting style often results in a lack of guidance and support, leading to significant behavioral issues. **Hopra, & Sharma (2019)** this study highlights the negative impact of autocratic parenting on adolescent behavior, noting increased aggression and substance abuse. The rigid nature of autocratic parenting is shown to stifle adolescent autonomy, leading to emotional and behavioral issues. **Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch (1991)** found that authoritarian parenting is associated with increased aggression and rebellion in adolescents. **Mehta, & Patel (2021)** this study found that adolescents exhibiting behavioral problems like irresponsibility and poor academic performance. The lack of boundaries and expectations is linked to issues with self-regulation and achievement. **Pinquart (2017)** found that adolescents with authoritative parents exhibit lower levels of anxiety and depression. **Singh, & Kumar (2017)** this study indicated that study explores how democratic parenting correlates with lower levels of adolescent anxiety and depression. It emphasizes that democratic parents, by involving their children in decision-making, contribute to their emotional stability and resilience. **Steinberg, (2001)** this study indicates that adolescents raised by democratic parents exhibit fewer behavioral problems. This parenting style promotes self-discipline, responsibility, and prosocial behavior through its balanced approach of support and structure.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

- To Study the Influence of Parenting Styles on Youth Problem of Adolescence.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To find out the Relationship between Parenting Style on Youth Problem of Adolescence

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is no relationship between Parenting Styles on Youth Problem of Adolescence.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

In this study, the population consists of all 10th-grade secondary school students in Jalna city, Maharashtra. A stratified random sample of 50 students was drawn from this population, ensuring equal representation by gender (25 boys and 25 girls). The students in the sample were aged between 16 and 17 years, with a mean age of 15.80 years and a standard deviation of 1.20 years. The gender ratio in the sample was 1:1."

RESEARCH DESIGN:

Simple Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Demographic variables- Gender- 1) Boy 2) Girls

Dependent variables: -1) Parenting style 2) youths Problems

Control variables: - 1) Age 15 to 17 Age 2) Class- 10th Class Students.

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Parenting style scale (2017)

The Parenting Style Scale developed by Gupta and Mehtani (2017) was utilized in this study to assess the perceived parenting styles of school-going students. This scale, tailored to Indian cultural contexts, evaluates four distinct parenting styles—autocratic, permissive, democratic, and uninvolved—through a set of 44 statements. Each parenting style is represented by a specific number of items: 12 for democratic, 11 each for autocratic and permissive, and 10 for uninvolved. The scale employs a five-point response format (Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never). The scale demonstrates high reliability, with a test-retest reliability of 0.911 and a split-half reliability of 0.795. Reliability coefficients for each parenting style range from 0.712 to 0.794. The scale also shows strong construct validity, with a range of 0.508 to 0.819.

Youth problems scale

The Youth Problems Scale (YPS), developed by M. Verma, is a comprehensive tool designed to assess issues faced by adolescents and young adults aged 16 to 20. Comprising 80 items, the YPS evaluates problems across four domains: family, school, social, and personal. The YPS demonstrates strong reliability, with coefficients ranging from 0.76 to 0.86 across its

various domains and an overall reliability of 0.80. Validity was established through comparisons with established tests, showing coefficients of 0.75.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

For the present study 50 samples were used and two instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group were adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and their seating arrangements, was made in a Place. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data were collected.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS and DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard deviation. At the second stage data were subjected to analysis of pearson product Moment Co-efficient Correlation (Pearson r). And finally, the analysis was done by using SPSS software.

Table No.01 Relationship between Parenting Styles on Youth Problem of Adolescence

Variable	Mean	SD	N	Coefficient of Correlation	Interpretation
Parenting style	119.44	7.76		-.271	significant
youths Problems	116.20	15.64			

Observation of Table No. 01 the relationship between parenting styles and youth problems during adolescence. The mean and standard deviation values for parenting style are 119.44 and 7.76, while for youth problems, they are 116.20 and 15.64. The obtained r value is - 0.271, indicating a significant negative correlation. This suggests that parenting style negatively affects youth problems during adolescence. Therefore, the hypothesis stating -There is no relationship between parenting styles and youth problems of adolescencell is rejected. This implies that parenting style has a negative impact on youth problems during adolescence.

The findings of this study indicate a significant negative correlation between parenting style and youth problems during adolescence. Specifically, the negative r value of -0.271 suggests that more positive and supportive parenting styles are associated with fewer problems faced by adolescents. This aligns with existing literature that highlights the critical role of parenting

in adolescent development. Research has consistently shown that authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth and structure, leads to better psychosocial outcomes for adolescents. For instance, Baumrind (1991) found that adolescents from authoritative households are less likely to engage in risky behaviors and experience emotional difficulties. Conversely, neglectful or authoritarian parenting styles can contribute to higher levels of behavioral and emotional problems in youth (Steinberg et al., 1992). Moreover, the impact of parenting on adolescent outcomes is not limited to behavioral issues; it also encompasses emotional well-being. Studies by Lamborn et al. (1991) emphasize that adolescents who perceive their parents as supportive are more likely to report higher self-esteem and lower levels of depression. These findings underscore the importance of nurturing parenting styles in fostering resilience and positive mental health in adolescents. The negative correlation identified in this study suggests that as the quality of parenting improves, youth problems tend to decrease. This finding is particularly relevant in the context of increasing mental health challenges faced by adolescents today. Interventions aimed at promoting positive parenting practices could be instrumental in alleviating youth problems, thus highlighting the necessity for educational programs focused on effective parenting strategies. In conclusion, the results of this study contribute to the growing body of evidence suggesting that parenting styles significantly impact adolescent behaviour and emotional health. Future research should explore the specific mechanisms through which parenting influences youth problems, as well

CONCLUSION: -

- **Parenting style significantly impacts youth problems during adolescence, with more positive styles leading to fewer challenges faced by adolescents.**

Parenting styles significantly influence adolescent development, producing both positive and negative outcomes that shape youth behaviour and emotional health. This discussion examines the dual impact of parenting styles, highlighting the benefits of authoritative parenting, characterized by high warmth and expectations, which fosters self-esteem, emotional resilience, and effective communication skills. Conversely, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful parenting styles can lead to issues such as anxiety, rebellion, and feelings of abandonment among adolescents. To optimize positive outcomes and mitigate negative effects, the discussion suggests practical strategies for parents, including adopting an authoritative approach, fostering open communication, setting clear boundaries, providing emotional support, encouraging extracurricular involvement, modelling positive behaviour, and staying engaged with their adolescents' challenges. By implementing these strategies,

parents can create a nurturing environment that supports healthy adolescent development and well-being.

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Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy among College Students

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates gender differences in self-efficacy among college students, focusing on dimensions such as self-confidence, efficacy expectations, positive attitude, and outcome expectations. A sample of 100 college students, equally divided between male and female participants aged 18 to 21, was analyzed using the Self-Efficacy Scale. The research employed non-probability purposive quota sampling and used ANOVA for statistical analysis. Results reveal significant gender differences in all dimensions of self-efficacy. Female students exhibited higher levels of self-confidence and self-efficacy compared to male students. In contrast, male students reported higher efficacy expectations and a more positive attitude. Additionally, female students had higher outcome expectations. These findings challenge some stereotypes and highlight nuanced gender differences in self-efficacy dimensions. The results suggest that educational and social environments, as well as societal norms, significantly influence self-efficacy perceptions among male and female college students. These insights have implications for designing gender-sensitive interventions to enhance self-efficacy and academic performance.

Keywords: Self-Efficacy, self-confidence, efficacy expectations, positive attitude, outcome expectations.

INTRODUCTION

Self-efficacy, a concept introduced by Bandura (1977), refers to an individual's belief in their ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish tasks. This belief significantly influences motivation, behavior, and emotional reactions (Bandura, 1997). In the context of

college students, self-efficacy can play a crucial role in academic performance, persistence, and overall well-being. Research indicates that self-efficacy is a strong predictor of academic success (Zimmerman, 2000). However, gender differences in self-efficacy have been documented, with varying implications for male and female students (Pajares & Valiante, 1999). Studies suggest that male and female students may experience and express self-efficacy differently, which can affect their academic and social experiences in higher education settings (Else-Quest, Mineo, & Higgins, 2013). For instance, a study by Hackett and Betz (1981) found that female students often report lower self-efficacy in traditionally male-dominated fields, which can impact their career choices and performance. Conversely, male students typically exhibit higher self-efficacy in these areas, which may contribute to their higher participation rates in such fields (Pajares & Graham, 1999).

Furthermore, self-efficacy is not only influenced by personal experiences but also by social and cultural factors (Bandura, 1986). Gender stereotypes and societal expectations can shape how self-efficacy develops and manifests among college students (Schunk, 1991). Understanding these gender differences is crucial for developing targeted interventions that support all students' academic and personal growth.

The dimensions of self-efficacy, including self-confidence, efficacy expectations, positive attitude, and outcome expectations, play critical roles in shaping students' academic experiences.

1) Self-confidence

Self-confidence refers to the assurance students have in their own abilities, which affects their approach to challenging tasks and their resilience in the face of difficulties (Pajares, 1996).

2) Efficacy expectations

Efficacy expectations pertain to the belief that one can perform the required actions to achieve desired outcomes, which is essential for setting and pursuing academic goals (Bandura, 1986).

3) Positive attitude

Positive attitude involves maintaining an optimistic perspective towards learning and problem-solving, which can enhance academic motivation and performance (Schunk, 1991).

4) Outcome expectations

Outcome expectations relate to the anticipated consequences of one's actions, influencing how students value and approach different academic tasks (Bandura, 1997).

Research has shown that gender can influence these dimensions of self-efficacy. For example, studies suggest that female students often report lower self-confidence in STEM fields compared to their male counterparts, which can affect their academic choices and performance in these areas (Else-Quest, Mineo, & Higgins, 2013). Similarly, gender differences in efficacy expectations and outcome expectations can influence students' academic persistence and achievement (Pajares & Valiante, 1999).

Understanding these gender-based differences in self-efficacy is crucial for developing strategies to support both male and female students effectively. By addressing the unique challenges and needs associated with each gender, educators and policymakers can foster a more equitable and supportive academic environment.

This study aims to explore self-efficacy among male and female college students by examining key dimensions: self-confidence, efficacy expectations, positive attitude, and outcome expectations. By identifying and analyzing gender differences in these areas, the research seeks to provide insights into how self-efficacy influences academic experiences and outcomes for male and female students.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chemers, Hu, and Garcia (2001) observed that female college students exhibited lower levels of self-efficacy related to academic tasks compared to males, even though their actual performance was comparable. **Chopra, S., & Singh, M. (2021)** examined the relationship between positive attitude and academic performance among Indian students. They found that while both genders benefit from a positive attitude, interventions tailored to increase positivity in female students yielded significant improvements in academic outcomes. **Kaur, P. (2017)** in her study "Self-Efficacy and Academic Performance: Gender Differences" found that male students generally reported higher self-confidence compared to female students.

Mehta, P. (2020) conducted research on "Impact of Efficacy Expectations on Academic Success" and highlighted that female students' lower efficacy expectations could be a result of less exposure to high-stakes situations and fewer role models in STEM fields. **Pajares and Graham (1999)** found that self-confidence in math and science is often lower among female students compared to male students, which contributes to the gender gap in these fields. **Pajares and Valiante (1999)** found that female students reported lower self-efficacy in mathematics compared to their male counterparts. **Patel, V., & Reddy, R. (2018)** found that male students typically display a more optimistic attitude towards academic challenges, whereas female students. **Rao, G., & Gupta, S. (2020)** studied "Outcome Expectations and Gender Differences in Career Choices Among Indian Students" and revealed that male students generally have higher outcome expectations related to their careers, influenced by societal norms and gender-specific encouragement. **Schunk (2003)** explores how efficacy expectations differ between genders, suggesting that female students often have lower efficacy expectations in traditionally male-dominated fields. **Sharma, N., & Kumar, A. (2018)** explored how self-confidence impacts academic performance among Indian students and reported similar trends. Their findings suggested that enhancing self-confidence among female students could bridge the gender gap in academic achievements. **Sinha, A., & Singh, R. (2019)** investigated "Gender Differences in Efficacy Expectations Among Indian College Students" and found that male students often exhibit higher efficacy expectations due to greater encouragement and opportunities provided in traditionally male-dominated fields. **Verma, A. (2022)** explored how outcome expectations affect students' career aspirations and found that female students' lower outcome expectations could be mitigated by targeted mentorship and career guidance programs. **Zimmerman (2000)** discusses how outcome expectations can differ between genders, particularly in areas where traditional gender roles influence students' perceptions of their capabilities and the rewards associated with their efforts. Female students, for instance, may have different outcome expectations in STEM fields compared to their male counterparts.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

- To Study the Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy among College Students

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To investigate the levels of self-efficacy among male and female college students, focusing on dimensions such as self-confidence, efficacy expectations, positive attitude, and outcome expectations.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

- There is no significant difference between male and female students in terms of self-efficacy dimensions, including self-confidence, efficacy expectations, positive attitude, and outcome expectations.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

Total sample of present study 100 College Going Students, in which 50 were Male Students and 50 Female Students. The subject selected in this sample was used in the age group of 18 years to 21 years (Mean – 19.16, SD- 2.01.) and Ratio 1:1. non-probability purposive Quota Sampling will be used.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

Simple Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent variables- Gender- 1) Male students 2) Female students.

Dependent variables - self-efficacy- 1) self-confidence,

2) Efficacy expectations

3) Positive attitude

4) Outcome expectations.

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Self-Efficacy Scale

The Self-Efficacy Scale (SES-SANS), developed by Arun Kumar Singh and Shruti Narain in 2014, was employed to assess the self-efficacy levels of our participants. This scale is designed for individuals aged 12 and above and evaluates self-efficacy through four distinct

dimensions: Self-Confidence, Efficacy Expectations, Positive Attitude, and Outcome Expectations. Each dimension includes 5 items, with 4 positive and 1 negative item per dimension, totaling 20 items. The responses are measured using a 5-point Likert scale, where ‘5’ indicates strong agreement and ‘1’ denotes strong disagreement. The scale demonstrates robust psychometric properties, with a test-retest reliability of .82 and a split-half reliability of .74. Additionally, it has a high concurrent validity of .92, ensuring its effectiveness in accurately measuring self-efficacy.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION:-

The following research methodology was used in the present study. The primary information was gathered by giving personal information from to each student. The students were called in a small group of 20 to 25 students. To fill the inventories subjects were given general instructions belongs to each test. The students provided the Self-Efficacy Scale. Data were obtained by using particular scoring particular scoring palter standardized for each scale.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation and ANOVA was done by using SPSS Software.

Table No. 01. Mean SD and F Value of Gender on self-efficacy.

Sr. No	Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Table 01(A)	self-confidence	Male Students	8.74	2.29	50	98	142.03	0.01
		Female Students	13.74	1.88	50			
Table 01(B)	efficacy expectations	Male Students	12.94	2.23	50	98	53.35	0.01
		Female Students	9.66	2.25	50			
Table 01(C)	positive attitude	Male Students	11.64	1.68	50	98	43.73	0.01
		Female Students	9.22	1.96	50			
Table 01(D)	outcome expectations	Male Students	9.70	2.67	50	98	47.20	0.01
		Female Students	12.92	1.95	50			
Table 01(E)	self-efficacy	Male Students	43.02	5.60	50	98	5.63	0.01
		Female Students	45.54	4.99	50			

GENDER ON SELF-CONFIDENCE

Hypotheses:-01

- There is no significant difference between male and female students in terms of self-efficacy dimensions including self-confidence.

The analysis presented in Table 01(A) reveal a significant difference in self-confidence levels between male and female students, as indicated by the observed mean self-confidence scores and the statistical analysis. The mean self-confidence score for male students was 8.74 with a standard deviation of 2.29, while female students had a mean score of 13.74 with a standard deviation of 1.88. The calculated 't' value (142.03) substantially exceeds the critical table values at both the 0.01 (3.94) and 0.05 (6.90) significance levels, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. This suggests that there is a statistically significant difference in self-confidence levels between male and female students.

The findings indicate that female students exhibit higher levels of self-confidence compared to male students. This result contradicts some common stereotypes that may suggest men are generally more self-confident than women. The observed trend aligns with some studies that report higher self-confidence levels among women in specific contexts or domains. For example, a study by Belenky et al. (1986) suggests that women often develop self-confidence through personal relationships and supportive environments, which could be influential in academic settings. In contrast, other research has shown that gender differences in self-confidence can vary significantly depending on the domain (Toulouse, 1994). A study by Meece, Glienke, and Burg (2006) demonstrated that females often outperform males in areas related to language and communication, potentially affecting self-confidence scores in those domains. This may partly explain why female students in your study exhibit higher self-confidence.

GENDER ON EFFICACY EXPECTATIONS

Hypotheses:-02

- There is no significant difference between male and female students in terms of self-efficacy dimensions, including efficacy expectations.

The analysis presented in Table 01(B) highlights a notable difference in efficacy expectations between male and female students. The mean efficacy expectation for male students was 12.94 with a standard deviation of 2.23, whereas female students had a mean score of 9.66 with a standard deviation of 2.25. The calculated 'f' value (53.35) is significantly higher than the critical values at both the 0.01 (3.94) and 0.05 (6.90) significance levels, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. This finding indicates that male students have higher efficacy expectations compared to female students.

The significant difference in efficacy expectations suggests that male students tend to have higher beliefs in their capabilities to achieve desired outcomes compared to female students. Efficacy expectations, or self-efficacy, are crucial as they influence students' motivation, academic performance, and resilience in the face of challenges. The higher levels of efficacy expectations among male students observed in this study may have implications for their academic and personal development. These results align with several studies that have examined gender differences in self-efficacy. For instance, research by Pajares and Schunk (2001) indicates that males often report higher levels of self-efficacy in certain domains, particularly in areas perceived as traditionally male-dominated, such as mathematics and engineering. Conversely, female students may experience lower self-efficacy in these domains, which can impact their academic choices and performance (Pajares & Valiante, 1999). A study by Hackett and Betz (1989) supports the notion that gender differences in self-efficacy can be attributed to societal and educational influences, which might contribute to the observed disparity in efficacy expectations.

GENDER ON POSITIVE ATTITUDE

Hypotheses:-03

- There is no significant difference between male and female students in terms of self-efficacy dimensions including positive attitude.

The analysis of Table 01(C) demonstrates a significant difference in positive attitudes between male and female students. The mean positive attitude score for male students was 11.64 with a standard deviation of 1.68, whereas female students had a mean score of 9.22 with a standard deviation of 1.96. The calculated 'f' value (43.73) is significantly higher than the critical values at both the 0.01 (3.94) and 0.05 (6.90) significance levels. This leads to the

rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis, indicating that male students have a higher level of positive attitude compared to female students.

The significant difference observed suggests that male students generally exhibit a more positive attitude than female students. Positive attitude, which encompasses optimism, enthusiasm, and a general sense of well-being, can influence various aspects of academic and personal success. The higher positive attitude scores among male students could reflect greater optimism or confidence in their academic and social environments. The finding that male students have a higher positive attitude than female students is consistent with some research on gender differences in attitude and well-being. For example, a study by Leaper and Brown (2008) found that boys often report higher levels of positive emotions and optimism in academic and social settings compared to girls. Similarly, research by Eagly and Wood (1999) suggests that gender differences in attitudes can be influenced by societal expectations and gender roles, which might contribute to the observed disparities. Additionally, the work of Diener and Seligman (2004) indicates that while positive attitudes are linked to well-being and academic success, the manifestations of such attitudes can vary by gender due to different socialization experiences and expectations. Several factors could contribute to the higher positive attitude scores among male students. One factor might be societal and cultural influences that shape boys' and girls' attitudes differently. For instance, societal norms and expectations might encourage boys to adopt more optimistic or confident attitudes (Brody & Hall, 2000). Moreover, educational and social environments that emphasize achievement and positive reinforcement might also play a role. Male students might receive more encouragement or validation in settings where positive attitudes are rewarded, leading to higher positive attitude scores (Eccles, 1994).

GENDER ON OUTCOME EXPECTATIONS

Hypotheses:-04

- There is no significant difference between male and female students in terms of self-efficacy dimensions including outcome expectations.

The analysis of Table 01(D) reveals a significant difference in outcome expectations between male and female students. The mean outcome expectation for male students was 9.70 with a standard deviation of 2.67, while female students had a mean score of 12.92 with a standard deviation of 1.95. The calculated 'f' value (47.20) far exceeds the critical values at both the

0.01 (3.94) and 0.05 (6.90) significance levels, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. This result indicates that female students have higher outcome expectations compared to male students.

The findings suggest that female students generally anticipate more favorable outcomes from their academic and personal efforts than their male counterparts. Outcome expectations, which refer to beliefs about the likely results of one's actions, are crucial as they influence motivation, persistence, and overall academic success. Higher outcome expectations among female students. These results are consistent with some research that suggests women may exhibit higher outcome expectations in specific contexts. For example, a study by Schunk and Pajares (2002) found that women often have high expectations for success in domains they find personally meaningful. This aligns with the higher outcome expectations observed among female students in your study. Additionally, Bandura (1997) highlights that outcome expectations are influenced by self-efficacy beliefs, social norms, and prior experiences, which may contribute to the observed differences between genders. Conversely, the higher outcome expectations among female students could reflect a response to educational or social environments that emphasize positive reinforcement and support for women's achievements. Research by Eccles and Wigfield (2002) suggests that females might develop higher outcome expectations when they receive encouragement and validation in their academic pursuits. Several factors might contribute to the higher outcome expectations observed among female students. One possibility is that female students may experience a more supportive academic environment that fosters positive expectations about their achievements. Educational programs and interventions targeting female students might be effective in reinforcing positive outcome expectations. Additionally, societal and cultural factors may play a role, as gender-specific encouragement and role models can influence outcome expectations (Stangoret al., 1996). It is also possible that female students have developed higher outcome expectations due to greater emphasis on performance and achievement in certain academic settings. This may be reflected in increased encouragement from educators, family, or peers (Pomerantz et al., 2002).

GENDER ON SELF-EFFICACY

Hypotheses:-05

- There is no significant difference between male and female students in terms of dimensions including self-efficacy.

The data presented in Table 01(E) indicate a significant difference in self-efficacy between male and female students. The mean self-efficacy score for male students was 43.02 with a standard deviation of 5.60, whereas female students had a mean score of 45.54 with a standard deviation of 4.99. The calculated 'f' value (5.634) is notably higher than the critical values at both the 0.01 (3.94) and 0.05 (6.90) significance levels, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis. This suggests that female students exhibit higher self-efficacy compared to their male Students.

The observed difference in self-efficacy levels indicates that female students generally have a stronger belief in their capabilities to accomplish tasks and achieve goals. Self-efficacy, which refers to individuals' confidence in their abilities to execute behaviors required to produce specific performance attainments, plays a crucial role in academic achievement and personal development. Higher self-efficacy among female students could imply greater confidence and resilience in facing academic challenges. The finding that female students have higher self-efficacy aligns with several studies in the field. For instance, Bandura (1997) asserts that self-efficacy is influenced by personal experiences and social support, which can vary by gender. Some research suggests that women often demonstrate higher self-efficacy in certain contexts, such as academic achievement and interpersonal relationships, due to supportive environments and positive reinforcement (Pajares, 2002). Furthermore, a study by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2000) found that women frequently report higher self-efficacy in fields that emphasize collaboration and social interaction. This might explain why female students in your study exhibit higher self-efficacy, particularly if they have experienced positive academic and social support.

CONCLUSION:-

- Female students exhibit higher levels of self-confidence compared to male students.
- Male students have higher efficacy expectations compared to female students.
- Male students have a higher level of positive attitude compared to female students.
- Female students have higher outcome expectations compared to male students.
- Female students exhibit higher self-efficacy compared to their male Students.

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"Exploring the Potential of Autonomous Delivery Robots in Urban Environments: Opportunities and Challenges"

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ABSTRACT

The rapid growth of urban populations and the increasing demand for efficient delivery solutions have spurred interest in the deployment of autonomous delivery robots in cities. This research paper explores the potential of autonomous delivery robots in urban environments, highlighting the opportunities and challenges that accompany their integration. The study primarily investigates the operational viability of these robots, examining their navigation capabilities, safety measures, and overall efficiency in complex urban landscapes. By exploring the potential benefits of autonomous delivery robots, the paper delves into their ability to reduce delivery times, cut operational costs, and enhance convenience for urban residents. Additionally, the research analyzes the environmental impact of these robots, particularly their potential to alleviate traffic congestion and reduce carbon emissions, contributing to more sustainable urban logistics.

However, the paper also addresses the significant challenges related to the integration of autonomous delivery robots in urban areas. These challenges include regulatory and legal hurdles, technological limitations such as reliable navigation in densely populated areas, and the compatibility of existing urban infrastructure.

Ultimately, this research seeks to provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors that will shape the successful adoption of autonomous delivery robots in urban settings. By investigating these areas in depth, the study aims to offer strategic recommendations for stakeholders, including policymakers, businesses, and city planners, on how to effectively manage and integrate autonomous delivery robots into the fabric of urban life.

Keywords: Robots, Opportunities, Challenges.

INTRODUCTION:

The growing interest in autonomous delivery robots reflects a broader trend towards automation in logistics and transportation, driven by the need for more efficient, sustainable, and cost-effective delivery solutions in urban areas. These robots, equipped with advanced sensors, artificial intelligence, and navigation systems, have the potential to revolutionize last-mile delivery services by reducing traffic congestion, minimizing carbon emissions, and offering contactless delivery options—particularly relevant in the post-pandemic world.

However, the deployment of autonomous delivery robots in urban environments is not without challenges. Cities are dynamic and complex, with unpredictable traffic patterns, varying infrastructures, and diverse populations. Navigating these spaces safely and efficiently requires overcoming significant technical and regulatory obstacles. This paper delves into the opportunities that autonomous delivery robots present in urban logistics, while also examining the key challenges that must be addressed to fully realize their potential.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:

The significance of this study lies in its exploration of the transformative impact that autonomous delivery robots could have on urban logistics and sustainability. As cities continue to grow and consumer demand for rapid, convenient delivery services increases, the need for innovative solutions becomes more pressing. Autonomous delivery robots offer the potential to address several urban challenges, including reducing traffic congestion, lowering carbon emissions, and enhancing the efficiency of last-mile delivery. This is especially relevant in the context of climate change and the need for environmentally sustainable practices in transportation and logistics.

Moreover, this study is significant in its examination of the barriers that must be overcome for the widespread adoption of these technologies. By identifying the technical, regulatory, and social challenges associated with deploying autonomous robots in densely populated urban areas, the research provides valuable insights for policymakers, technology developers, and logistics companies. Understanding these factors is crucial for enabling the successful integration of autonomous delivery systems into urban environments, ultimately contributing to smarter, more sustainable cities.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

The increasing demand for rapid and efficient delivery services in urban areas has placed significant pressure on traditional delivery methods, often leading to traffic congestion,

increased pollution, and logistical inefficiencies, particularly in the last-mile delivery process. Autonomous delivery robots have emerged as a potential solution, offering promises of increased efficiency, reduced delivery times, and potentially lower environmental impact. However, the practical viability of these robots in complex urban environments remains uncertain.

Several critical aspects of autonomous delivery robots require deeper investigation. Their ability to operate effectively in diverse urban settings, navigate complex environments, and adapt to unpredictable scenarios must be thoroughly assessed. Additionally, while these robots could offer substantial benefits, such as reducing carbon emissions and minimizing human labour, the extent of these advantages is not well-documented.

Moreover, the integration of autonomous delivery robots into existing urban infrastructures poses significant challenges. Regulatory frameworks, public safety concerns, and the need for supportive infrastructure are just a few of the barriers that must be addressed to enable widespread adoption. Without careful consideration and planning, these challenges could hinder the effective deployment of autonomous delivery robots in cities.

Therefore, this study aims to explore the operational viability, potential benefits, environmental impact, and challenges associated with the integration of autonomous delivery robots in urban environments. It seeks to provide a comprehensive analysis that will guide stakeholders in making informed decisions about the future of urban delivery systems.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

The primary aim of this study is to Exploring the Potential of Autonomous Delivery Robots in Urban Environments: Opportunities and Challenges.

1. To investigate the operational viability of autonomous delivery robots.
2. To explore the potential benefits of autonomous delivery robots.
3. To analyze the environmental impact of autonomous delivery robots in urban areas.
4. To identify and evaluate the challenges related to the integration of autonomous delivery robots.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY:

The current study encompasses the following four components.

1) Topical Scope:

The focus of the current study is to Exploring the Potential of Autonomous Delivery Robots in Urban Environments.

2) Geographical Scope:

The geographic extent of this research study encompasses the entire Kolhapur city.

3) Analytical Scope:

The analytical focus includes Exploring the Potential of Autonomous Delivery Robots in urban area. The analysis incorporates two dimensions, namely opportunities and challenges. The researchers used MS-Excel, MS-Word, and SPSS for data analysis. Percentages and average calculations.

4) Periodical Scope:

The study on Exploring the Potential of Autonomous Delivery Robots in Urban Environments in Kolhapur city spans the period from 2023-24

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY:

Primary Data:

Primary data have been collected from 150 respondents through questionnaires.

Secondary Data:

The secondary data have been collected from published and unpublished sources.

SAMPLING METHOD:

Simple random Sampling method used for the selecting respondent in present study.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA:

Table No 1. Autonomous delivery robots operate efficiently

Sr. No	Operating Efficiently	Yes	No
1	Traffic Barrier.	130 (86.66)	20 (13.34)
2	Infrastructure Barrier.	110 (73.33)	40 (26.67)
3	weather conditions(rain ,heat)	135 (90)	15 (10)
4	Navigation problems, mechanical failures	142 (94.66)	08 (05.34)
5	Technical malfunctions	145 (96.66)	05 (03.34)
Average		88.26	11.74

(Sources: Compiled by researcher)

Graph No 1

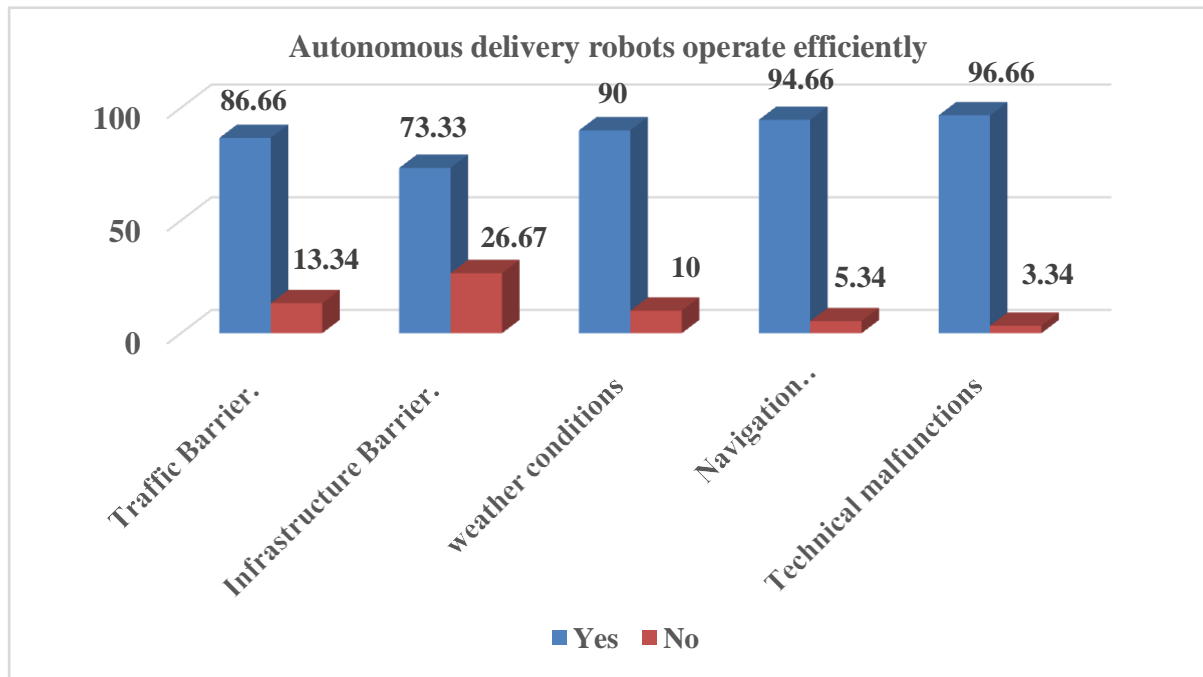


Table no 1 indicate that autonomous delivery robots can operate efficiently. It observed that 96.66 percent respondents positively reply that there will be Technical malfunctionspossibility and 94.66 percent respondents positively reply that there will be Navigation problems, mechanical failures when Autonomous delivery through robots. While 90 percent sample respondents positively reply that there will be weather conditions problem arise such as rain and heat and 86.66 percent sample respondents traffic Barrier problem. Only 73.33 percent sample respondents tell that there will be Infrastructure Barrier in autonomous delivery robots.

It concluded that autonomous delivery robots face significant challenges, with technical malfunctions 96.66 percent and navigation issues 94.66 percent being the most critical. Weather conditions 90 percent, traffic barriers 86.66percent, and infrastructure barriers 73.33 percent also pose concerns that need to be addressed for efficient operation.

Table No 2
Potential benefits of autonomous delivery robots

Sr. No	Particulars	Yes	No
1	Are you interested in trying out new technologies like autonomous delivery robots	125 (83.33)	25 (16.67)
2	Are you Convenience and Efficiency with autonomous delivery robots	45 (30)	105 (70)
3	Are you safety and security of packages delivered by autonomous robots	38 (25.33)	112 ((74.67)
4	Autonomous delivery robots contribute to reducing the environmental impact of delivery services (e.g., reducing carbon	141 (94)	09 (06)

	emissions)		
Average		58.16	41.84

(Sources: Compiled by researcher)

Graph No 2

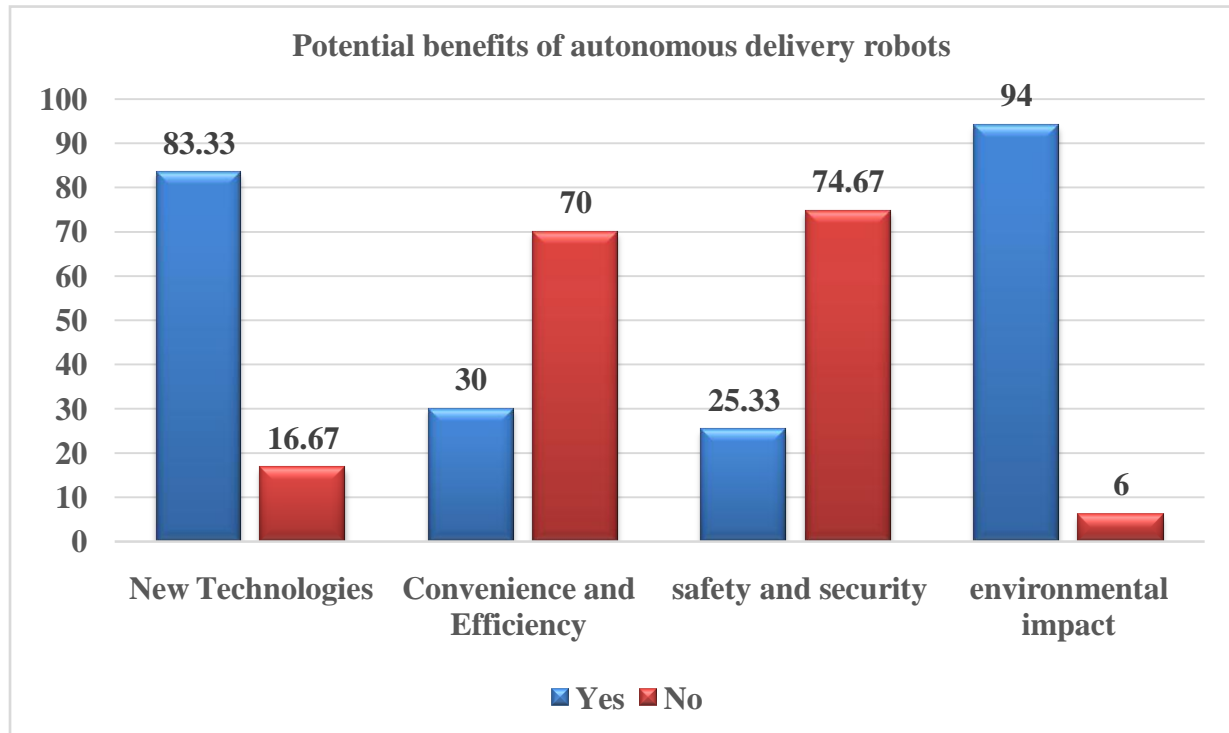


Table No 2 displayPotential benefits of autonomous delivery of robots. It observed that 94 percent sample respondents positively reply that autonomous delivery robots reducing the environmental impact such as reducing carbon emissions and 83.33 percent sample respondents positively reply that they are interested in trying out new technologies like autonomous delivery robots. While 30 percent sample respondents positively reply that they are Convenience and Efficiency with autonomous delivery robots and 25.33 percent sample respondents given reply that they are safety and security of packages delivered by autonomous robots.58.16 average percent sample respondents positively reply and 41.84 percent sample respondents negatively reply about Potential benefits of autonomous delivery robots.

It conclude that the primary perceived benefits of autonomous delivery robots are environmental impact reduction (94%) and interest in new technology (83.33%). However, fewer respondents see these robots as beneficial for convenience and efficiency (30%) or package safety (25.33%). Overall, while more than half (58.16%) view the potential benefits positively, a significant portion (41.84%) remains skeptical.

Table No 3
Environmental impact of autonomous delivery robots.

Sr. No	Particular	Yes	No
1	Robots could help reduce the environmental impact of urban	144	08

	deliveries (e.g., lower carbon emissions, reduced fuel consumption)	(96)	(04)
2	Energy consumption and battery disposal associated with the large-scale use of autonomous delivery robots.	141 (94)	09 (06)
3	Robots would help reduce noise pollution compared to traditional delivery vehicle	135 (90)	15 (10)
4	Robots could help to maintain environmental sustainability	132 (88)	18 (12)
Average		92	08

(Sources: Compiled by researcher)

Table No 3 reveal that Environmental impact of autonomous delivery robots. It found that 96 percent sample respondents positively reply that robots could help reduce the environmental impact of urban deliveries such as lower carbon emissions, reduced fuel consumption and 94 percent sample respondents positively reply that energy consumption and battery disposal associated with the large-scale use of autonomous delivery robots. While 90 percent sample respondents also positively reply that robots would help reduce noise pollution compared to traditional delivery vehicle. There are only 88 percent sample respondents tell that robots could help to maintain environmental sustainability. Averagely 92 percent sample respondents positively reply that environmental impact of autonomous delivery robots such as lower carbon emissions, reduced fuel consumption, energy consumption, and battery disposal, reduce noise pollution and maintain environmental sustainability.

It concluded that the majority of respondents believe autonomous delivery robots have a positive environmental impact. Specifically, 96 percent of respondents noted benefits such as reduced carbon emissions and fuel consumption, 94 percent emphasized concerns related to energy use and battery disposal, and 90 percent highlighted noise reduction. Additionally, 88 percent believed robots could contribute to environmental sustainability. On an average, 92 percent of respondents expressed positive views on the environmental impact of these robots.

Graph No 3

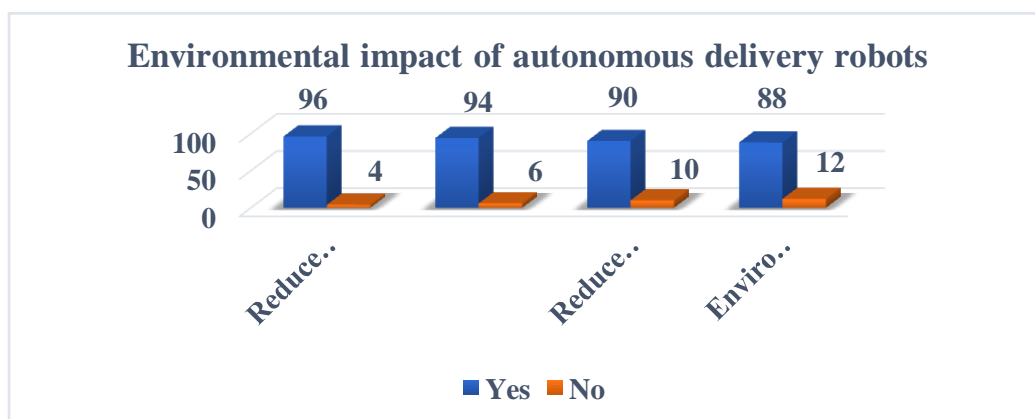


Table No 4
Challenges of integration of autonomous delivery robots

Sr. No	Particulars	Yes	No
1	Technical challenge in integrating autonomous delivery robots into existing delivery systems	138 (92)	12 (08)
2	Maintenance and servicing of robots	139 (92.66)	11 (07.34)
3	Real-time communication with other systems (e.g., traffic management, GPS)	145 (96.66)	05 (03.34)
4	Public acceptance and trust in autonomous delivery robots	131 (87.33)	19 (12.67)
5	operational costs (e.g., purchase, maintenance, energy consumption) be as a barrier to adoption of autonomous delivery robots	147 (98)	03 (02)
6	Expect the regulatory approval process (e.g., safety standards, city permits) for the autonomous delivery robots in urban areas	121 (80)	29 (20)
7	Security and privacy issues (e.g., data protection, hacking risks) related to the integration of autonomous delivery robots.	139 (92.66)	11 (07.34)
Average		91.33	08.67

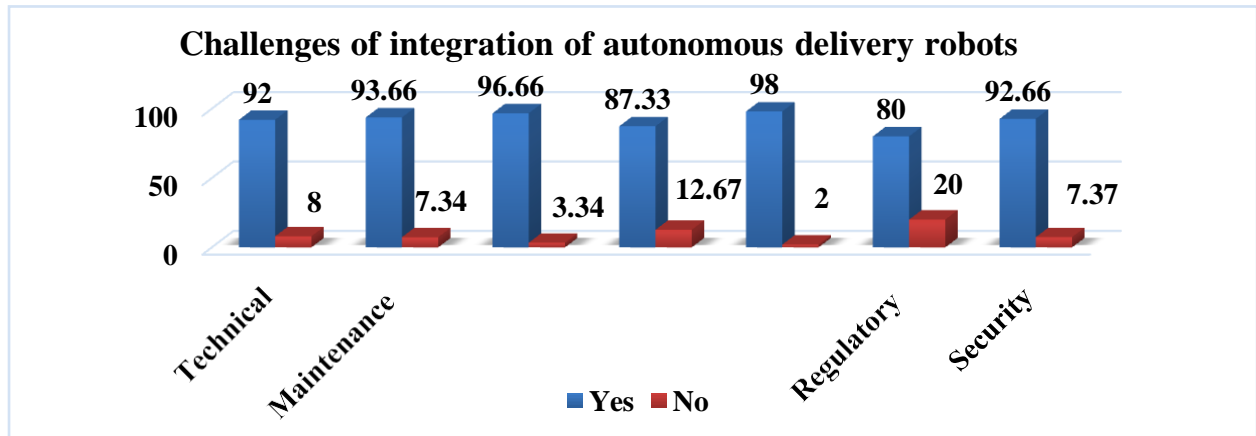
(Sources: Compiled by researcher)

Table No 4 reveal that challenges of integration of autonomous delivery robots. It found that 98 percent sample respondent tell that there is operational costs such as purchase, maintenance, energy consumption etc. As a barrier to adoption of autonomous delivery robots. There are 96.66 percent sample respondents positively reply that Real-time communication challenges such as traffic management, Global Positioning System and 92 percent sample respondents positively reply that technical, maintenance, servicing , Security and privacy issues are challenges of autonomous delivery robots. While 87.33 percent sample respondents positively reply that Public acceptance and trust and 80 percent sample respondents agreed about expect the regulatory approval process such as safety standards, city permits for the autonomous delivery robots in urban areas. Averagely 91.33 percent sample respondents positively agreed about Challenges of integration of autonomous delivery robots and only 8.67 percent sample respondents are give negatively reply about Challenges of integration of autonomous delivery robots such as Technical, Maintenance, communication, Public acceptance and trust, operational costs, regulatory approval process and Security and privacy issues.

It concluded that that the major challenges of integrating autonomous delivery robots include operational costs (98%), real-time communication issues (96.66%), and technical, maintenance, and security concerns (92%). Public acceptance and trust were identified as challenges by 87.33% of respondents, and 80% pointed to regulatory hurdles such as safety standards and city permits. On

average, 91.33% of respondents agreed that these are significant challenges, with only 8.67% responding negatively. These findings highlight the broad range of barriers to the successful adoption of autonomous delivery robots.

Graph No 4



FINDING

- 1) It found that the majority of respondents identified technical malfunctions (96.66%) and navigation or mechanical failures (94.66%) as major challenges to the efficient operation of autonomous delivery robots, along with concerns about weather conditions (90%) and traffic barriers (86.66%).
- 2) There are majority of respondents see environmental benefits (94%) and show interest in trying new technologies like autonomous delivery robots (83.33%), but only a smaller portion perceives significant advantages in terms of convenience and efficiency (30%) or package safety and security (25.33%).
- 3) It significant 92% of respondents believe that autonomous delivery robots could positively impact the environment by reducing carbon emissions, fuel consumption, noise pollution, and promoting sustainability, though concerns remain about energy consumption and battery disposal (94%).
- 4) It observed that 91.33 percent respondents recognize significant challenges in the integration of autonomous delivery robots, particularly operational costs (98%), real-time communication issues (96.66%), and technical, security, and privacy concerns (92%).

SUGGESTIONS:

1. It address these challenges, enhancing the reliability of navigation systems and

improving weather-resistant designs, along with upgrading urban infrastructure and implementing effective traffic management solutions, are essential for the successful integration of autonomous delivery robots.

2. It maximize the potential benefits of autonomous delivery robots, efforts should focus on enhancing user confidence in the convenience, efficiency, and security of these systems while continuing to promote their environmental advantages.
3. It enhance the environmental benefits of autonomous delivery robots, efforts should focus on improving energy efficiency and developing sustainable battery disposal methods, while continuing to emphasize their advantages in reducing emissions and noise pollution in urban areas.
4. It address these integration challenges, solutions should focus on reducing operational costs, improving communication systems, and enhancing technical and security measures, alongside building public trust and streamlining regulatory approval processes for autonomous delivery robots in urban areas.

CONCLUSION:

This research aimed to investigate the operational viability, potential benefits, environmental impact, and challenges associated with the integration of autonomous delivery robots in urban environments. The findings highlight both the opportunities and obstacles that come with adopting this technology. While there is clear potential for environmental benefits, including reduced carbon emissions, fuel consumption, and noise pollution, operational and technical challenges present significant barriers to widespread adoption.

The majority of respondents expressed concerns about technical malfunctions (96.66%) and navigation issues (94.66%), as well as the impact of weather conditions and traffic barriers on the efficiency of these robots. Although 83.33% of respondents showed interest in trying out autonomous delivery robots, fewer saw clear benefits in terms of convenience, efficiency, or package safety and security. Additionally, while 92% of respondents recognized the positive environmental impact of these robots, concerns about energy consumption and battery disposal persist.

To overcome these challenges, solutions must focus on enhancing the reliability of navigation systems, improving weather resistance, upgrading urban infrastructure, and implementing effective traffic management solutions. Additionally, efforts should be made to increase user confidence in the convenience, efficiency, and security of these systems while continuing to emphasize their environmental advantages. Reducing operational costs, improving communication systems, and

addressing technical, security, and privacy concerns are also crucial for the successful integration of autonomous delivery robots in urban areas. Finally, fostering public trust and streamlining regulatory approval processes will be key to ensuring that autonomous delivery robots can contribute positively to urban environments.

Autonomous delivery robots have the potential to revolutionize urban delivery systems, but their success will depend on overcoming significant technical, operational, and regulatory challenges to unlock their full potential.

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A Study of Parenting Styles of Adolescence

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the parenting styles of adolescents in Jalna District, Maharashtra, focusing on gender differences among male and female participants aged 18-21 years. A total of 100 adolescents were sampled using quota sampling, and the Parenting Style Scale (2017) by Gupta and Mehtani was employed to assess perceived parenting styles. Data collection involved administering the scale to groups of 5-10 participants, with subsequent analysis using descriptive statistics and ANOVA via SPSS software. Results indicated a significant difference in parenting styles based on gender, with female adolescents exhibiting higher scores than male adolescents. The F-value underscores the significant main effect of gender on parenting styles. These findings suggest that gender influences socialization processes and parenting dynamics, with female adolescents demonstrating greater engagement and sensitivity in parenting roles.

Key words- parenting styles, Male adolescents, Female adolescents.

INTRODUCTION:

Adolescents are particularly vulnerable to the influences of parenting due to the myriad changes they experience during this developmental stage, such as identity formation and increased independence (Steinberg, 2001). The interplay between parenting styles and adolescent outcomes has been the subject of extensive research, highlighting the need for a nuanced understanding of how these dynamics operate across different demographics, including gender (Chao, 1994).

Parenting styles play a crucial role in shaping the development and behavior of adolescents. These styles, which encompass the methods and approaches parents use in raising their children, have significant implications for various aspects of adolescent growth, including emotional regulation, academic performance, and social relationships (Baumrind, 1991). Research identifies four primary parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful, each characterized by different levels of responsiveness and demandingness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parenting styles are critical in shaping the development and behavior of adolescents. Researchers have identified four primary styles: autocratic (authoritarian), permissive, democratic (authoritative), and uninvolved (neglectful), each influencing adolescent outcomes in distinct ways (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). **Autocratic parenting**, characterized by high demands and low responsiveness, often leads to compliance but can stifle independence and critical thinking in adolescents (Baumrind, 1991). In contrast, **permissive parenting** offers high responsiveness with few demands, which may foster creativity but can also result in difficulties with authority and self-regulation (Rothrauff et al., 2009). **Democratic (authoritative) parenting**, regarded as the most effective style, combines warmth and structure, promoting independence while setting appropriate boundaries. This style is associated with positive outcomes such as higher academic performance and better social skills (Steinberg, 2001). Lastly, **uninvolved parenting** reflects low demands and low responsiveness, which can lead to a range of negative outcomes, including emotional distress and behavioral issues in adolescents (Lamborn et al., 1991). Understanding these parenting styles is vital, especially during adolescence a period marked by identity exploration and increased peer influence. The dynamics between parenting styles and adolescent behavior can vary across genders, cultural contexts, and individual temperaments, necessitating a comprehensive examination of these factors (Chao, 1994). This study seeks to explore how different parenting styles impact male and female adolescents, providing insights for parents, educators, and mental health professionals to better support healthy adolescent development.

The present study aims to explore the various parenting styles exhibited by parents of adolescents and how these styles impact the emotional and social development of male and female adolescents. Understanding these relationships is essential for educators, mental health professionals, and parents themselves, as it can inform strategies to foster healthier adolescent development and family dynamics.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Baumrind, (1991) and Steinberg et al., (1992) this Research shows that male adolescents may respond with rebellion and aggression, while females may internalize stress and anxiety. Gonzalez et al., (2015) this study indicated that Gender differences in the impacts of neglectful parenting are less studied, but emerging research suggests that both boys and girls face significant challenges, though the nature of these challenges. Kerr et al., (2004) this study indicated that Gender differences in the effects of authoritarian parenting are notable, with boys typically showing higher levels of aggression and girls experiencing more anxiety and depression. Kumar and Rani (2019) highlighted that neglectful parenting is associated with significant challenges for both boys and girls, though the specific issues faced may vary by gender. Lamborn et al., (1991) this study found that the Gender differences include variations in self-regulation and social competence, with boys often exhibiting more externalizing behaviors compared to girls. Luthar & Becker, (2002) this study found that this parenting style can be particularly detrimental to female adolescents, leading to issues with self-worth and autonomy. Maccoby & Martin, (1983) this study found that Gender differences suggest that while both male and female adolescents benefit from authoritative parenting, females may experience greater emotional security. McKee et al., (2007) this study found that female adolescents often seek approval and validation more than their male counterparts, which can lead to differing outcomes under authoritarian parenting. Sharma and Sharma (2017) found that girls tend to respond more negatively to authoritarian parenting, exhibiting higher levels of anxiety and depression, while boys may respond with increased aggression and defiance. Sharma et al., (2020) this study found that Gender differences were evident, with authoritative parenting promoting more positive outcomes in girls, such as better emotional regulation and academic success. Singh and Gupta (2015) show that authoritative parenting leads to higher academic achievements and better social skills in girls compared to boys. Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, (2014) this study found that Gender differences have been observed, with authoritative parenting often promoting higher academic achievement in girls compared to boys. Zahn-Waxler et al., (2000) this study found that boys may engage in more overt resistance to authoritarian styles, whereas girls may comply outwardly while struggling internally.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

To Study of Parenting Styles of Adolescence

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To find out the Parenting style among Male and Female Adolescence.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is no significant difference between Parenting style among Male and Female Adolescence.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

For the present study total sample of 100 was comprised into two clusters like Male and Female Adolescence. Present Study Sample belonging to Jalna Dist. in Maharashtra state. The age of Adolescence was 18-21 years. Quota Sampling was used.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

Simple Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent variables -Gender- 1) Male Adolescence 2) Female Adolescence

Dependent variables - Parenting Styles

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Parenting style scale (2017)

The Parenting Style Scale developed by Gupta and Mehtani (2017) was utilized in this study to assess the perceived parenting styles of school-going students. This scale, tailored to Indian cultural contexts, evaluates four distinct parenting styles—autocratic, permissive, democratic, and uninvolved—through a set of 44 statements. The scale employs a five-point response format (Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never). The scale demonstrates high reliability, with a test-retest reliability of 0.911 and a split-half reliability of 0.795. The scale also shows strong construct validity, with a range of 0.508 to 0.819.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

For the present study 100 samples were used and two instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group ware adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and their seating arrangements, was made in a Place. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data were collected.

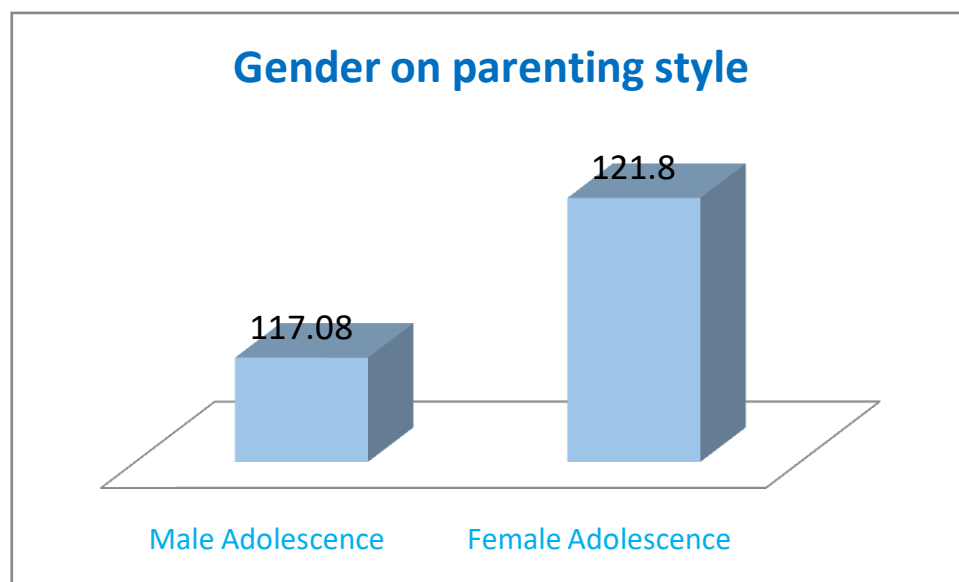
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation and ANOVA was done by using SPSS Software.

Table No.01 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Gender on parenting style

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Parenting style	Male Adolescence	117.08	7.43	50	98	4.991	0.01
	Female Adolescence	121.80	7.48	50			

Graph No. 01 Mean of Gender on parenting style



The analysis presented in Table No. 01 and Figure No. 01 indicates that The analysis presented highlights a significant difference in parenting styles based on gender among adolescents. Specifically, the mean score for female adolescents ($M = 121.80$, $SD = 7.48$) surpasses that of male adolescents ($M = 117.08$, $SD = 7.43$). The F-value of 4.991 indicates a

significant main effect of gender on parenting styles, with an associated p-value of less than 0.01 ($F(1, 99) = 4.991, p < 0.01$). This result suggests a statistically significant difference that is unlikely to have occurred by chance.

The significant difference observed in parenting styles between female and male adolescents aligns with existing literature that posits gender can influence socialization processes and parenting dynamics. Female adolescents often exhibit higher engagement and sensitivity in parenting roles, which may stem from societal expectations and gender norms that encourage nurturing behaviors in females (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Conversely, male adolescents may adopt more authoritative or less involved styles, which could be indicative of traditional masculine norms that prioritize independence and emotional restraint (Rudman & Glick, 2001). This finding is critical as it emphasizes the need for educators and practitioners to recognize these gender differences when developing interventions or educational programs aimed at promoting effective parenting skills. Understanding that female adolescents may be more inclined towards nurturing behaviors can help tailor programs that foster these skills while also encouraging male adolescents to explore and develop their parenting competencies in a supportive environment.

CONCLUSION: -

Female adolescents show greater engagement and sensitivity in parenting roles compared to their male adolescents.

The observation that female adolescents often show greater engagement and sensitivity in parenting roles compared to their male counterparts, the greater engagement and sensitivity of female adolescents in parenting roles reflect a complex interplay of socialization, emotional development, and contextual influences. Understanding these dynamics can help promote more equitable and supportive environments for all adolescents, encouraging both boys and girls to develop essential skills for effective parenting.

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“Impact of Self-Esteem on Gender, Area of Residence, and Academic Stream among College Students”

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates self-esteem across different demographic variables including gender, area of residence, and academic stream among college students in North Delhi District. A sample of 100 college students, aged 18-21 years, was selected using quota sampling and research examined differences in self-esteem with respect to gender (Male and Female), area of residence (urban vs. rural), and academic stream (Arts, Commerce, and Science). The study utilized the Self-Efficacy Scale (Singh & Narain, 2014). The Descriptive statistics, including mean and standard deviation, were calculated, and ANOVA was performed using SPSS software. The findings revealed that female students exhibited higher self-esteem than their male counterparts. Additionally, urban students demonstrated higher self-esteem compared to their rural peers. Among academic streams, students in the Commerce stream had higher self-esteem than those in the Arts and Science streams. These results underscore the influence of gender, residence, and academic focus on self-esteem among college students.

Keywords: gender, residence, and academic streams and self-esteem.

INTRODUCTION

Self-esteem, a fundamental aspect of psychological well-being, refers to an individual's overall sense of self-worth or personal value. It encompasses both self-acceptance and self-respect, influencing how people perceive themselves and their capabilities. High self-esteem is generally associated with positive outcomes such as better mental health, higher resilience to stress, and more effective coping strategies (Baumeister et al., 2003). Conversely, low self-esteem is linked to various psychological issues, including depression, anxiety, and decreased life satisfaction (Orth, Robins, & Roberts, 2008).

The concept of self-esteem has evolved significantly over time, with various theories attempting to explain its development and impact. According to the sociometer theory, self-esteem acts as a gauge of social acceptance and rejection, suggesting that our self-worth is closely tied to how we believe others perceive us (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). Additionally, the self-determination theory posits that self-esteem is influenced by the fulfillment of basic psychological needs such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Understanding self-esteem is crucial as it affects numerous aspects of life, including interpersonal relationships, academic and professional achievement, and overall mental health. As research continues to explore the complexities of self-esteem, it remains a vital area of focus in psychology and personal development.

Gender on self-esteem

Self-esteem is a critical component of psychological well-being and is often considered a key factor influencing academic performance, social interactions, and overall mental health. It is commonly defined as an individual's subjective evaluation of their own worth (Rosenberg, 1965). Research has shown that self-esteem plays a significant role in shaping students' experiences and outcomes in educational settings. However, the impact and expression of self-esteem can vary between male and female students due to a range of social, cultural, and developmental factors. For male students, self-esteem has been frequently associated with academic and social success, with many studies suggesting that high self-esteem can enhance motivation and resilience (Marsh & Martin, 2011). On the other hand, female students often face different challenges related to self-esteem, including societal pressures related to body image and social comparison, which can influence their academic and personal experiences (Hargreaves & Tiggemann, 2004). These gender differences in self-esteem may lead to distinct patterns in how self-esteem affects educational outcomes and social interactions among male and female students. Understanding these gender-specific variations in self-esteem is essential for educators and psychologists who aim to create supportive learning environments and interventions tailored to the unique needs of male and female students. This paper explores the influences of self-esteem on male and female students, examining how gender differences can impact their academic performance, social relationships, and overall well-being.

Area of residence on self-esteem

The area of residence can significantly impact self-esteem, influencing individuals' perceptions of their own worth and their social and academic experiences. Self-esteem, defined as an individual's evaluative judgment of their own value (Rosenberg, 1965), is influenced by various environmental factors, including one's living conditions. The residential environment encompasses both physical characteristics, such as neighborhood safety and amenities, and social aspects, including community cohesion and socioeconomic status (Sampson, Morenoff, & Gannon-Rowley, 2002). Research suggests that the area of residence can affect self-esteem through several mechanisms. For instance, individuals living in affluent or resource-rich neighborhoods often experience higher levels of self-esteem, partly due to greater access to educational resources, supportive social networks, and safer living conditions (Wilson, 1987). Conversely, residents of economically disadvantaged areas may face challenges such as limited educational opportunities, higher crime rates, and social isolation, which can negatively impact self-esteem (Kawachi & Berkman, 2001). Moreover, the social comparison theory posits that individuals assess their own worth relative to others in their environment (Festinger, 1954). Therefore, residents of lower-income neighborhoods may experience diminished self-esteem due to negative comparisons with more affluent peers. This dynamic can be further exacerbated by social stigma and perceived lower status associated with their residential area (Leventhal & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). Understanding the interplay between area of residence and self-esteem is crucial for developing targeted interventions that address the unique needs of individuals in different residential contexts. This paper explores how the characteristics of one's area of residence can influence self-esteem, highlighting the disparities and challenges faced by individuals in various living environments.

Academic stream on self-esteem

The choice of academic stream—Arts, Commerce, or Sciences—can profoundly influence students' self-esteem, shaping their academic experiences, career aspirations, and overall self-perception. Self-esteem, defined as the evaluative aspect of the self, reflecting how individuals perceive their worth and abilities (Rosenberg, 1965), is a critical factor in students' academic and personal development. The stream students choose often correlates with their interests, aptitudes, and societal expectations, which in turn can impact their self-esteem. Students in the Arts stream, which typically includes subjects such as literature, history, and performing arts, often face different challenges and opportunities compared to

their peers in Commerce or Sciences. Research indicates that Arts students may experience a sense of lower academic prestige due to societal perceptions that prioritize Science and Commerce fields (Baker & LeTendre, 2005). This perception can influence Arts students' self-esteem, potentially leading to feelings of inadequacy or undervaluation, despite their own sense of fulfillment and creativity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Commerce students, involved in subjects related to business, economics, and management, often experience a different set of pressures. The practical and financially rewarding nature of Commerce subjects can contribute to higher self-esteem, particularly if students perceive their chosen field as offering more promising career prospects (Hoxworth, 2008). The alignment of their academic pursuits with perceived economic benefits can enhance their self-worth and motivation. Science students, engaged in subjects such as mathematics, physics, and biology, frequently encounter rigorous academic challenges that can impact their self-esteem. Success in these subjects is often associated with high academic achievement and intellectual capability, which can positively influence self-esteem. However, the high expectations and competitive environment in Science fields can also lead to stress and self-doubt, particularly in the face of academic difficulties (Marsh & Martin, 2011).

This Study explores how self-esteem varies among students in the Arts, Commerce, and Science streams, examining how academic stream choice influences students' self-perceptions, academic experiences, and overall well-being. Understanding these dynamics can provide valuable insights for educators and policymakers aiming to support students across diverse academic paths.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

GENDER ON SELF-ESTEEM

Anirudh Ramesh and Vandana Jain, (2018) this Study indicates there is no significance difference in the level of self-esteem between boys and girls pre university students. Robin. (2002), Joshi & Srivatsava (2009),; Srivastava & Agarwal, (2013), Singh, Haasan & Wani, (2017), Robin., 2002; Joshi & Srivatsava (2009); Srivastava & Agarwal, (2013); Singh, Haasan & Wani, (2017), Malik, S. and Saida (2013), Rajesh Kumar & Beenu Varma, (2018), Arshad, Zaidi and Mahmood (2015), Quatman and Watson (2001), Rajesh Kumar & Beenu Varma, (2018), this study found that the male students significantly higher level of self esteem as compared to the female university students. Baumeister (1993), Hossaini, (2002),

Marcotte et al. (2002), Pipher (1994), Pollack (1998), SarAbadaniTafreshi (2006), and Zareh (1994) this study found that females average, have a lower sense of self-esteem than males. Mohd Moshahid, (2017), Vishavpreet Kaur and Gurbinder Singh, (2016), Mohammed (2010), Ramesh. A & Jain. V (2018) this study found that No significant differences were found in self-esteem between males and females.

AREA OF RESIDENCE ON SELF-ESTEEM

Anirudh Ramesh and Vandana Jain, (2018), Ramesh. A & Jain. V (2018), this Study indicates that rural area have higher level self-esteem than urban area. JahnabeeLahkarBoruah, (2016) this study found that Comparison of urban and rural students in their levels of Self-esteem showed a significant difference. Muhammad Faisal Farid and Mumtaz Akhtar, (2013) this study found that Urban students showed higher self-esteem than rural students. Ponmozhi1, D. & S. Seetha Lakshmi, (2017) this study found that the urban and rural student respondent do not differ in their Total Self Esteem. Srivastava & Joshi, (2014) this study found that there is significant difference in terms of self esteem among students urban and rural area. Vandana Mishra and Dr. HGR Tripathi, (2020) this study found that Urban women showed greater amount of self-esteem than the rural women. Veena Gretta Tauro, Vijetha Kottari and , Princia Rolita D'Souza, (2018) this study found that urban Pre-university College had high level of Self-esteem compared to rural Pre-university College.

ACADEMIC STREAM ON SELF-ESTEEM

Awan, R. U., & Naz, N. (2010) this study found that study found that vocational and professional students often report higher self-esteem compared to their peers in non-vocational streams, attributing this to the perceived relevance and career prospects associated with their studies. Bakar, N. A., & Al-Saadi, N. (2011) this research highlighted that while Science students might experience high self-esteem due to mastery of complex subjects, they could also face pressures and stress related to high expectations and rigorous coursework. Brenner, R. (2012) argues that arts students often face less direct competition compared to commerce and science students, which can lead to a more stable self-esteem. Garg, R. (2011), students in commerce disciplines frequently experience high levels of stress due to the competitive nature of business and financial sectors. This stress can impact self-esteem, particularly if students perceive their performance as inadequate compared to peers. Harris and Martin (2021) this study found that arts students may experience lower self-esteem due to the subjective nature of artistic evaluation and the high levels of self-criticism associated with

creative work. However, the personal fulfillment and emotional expression associated with arts can also enhance self-esteem for many students. Kumar and Jha (2019) highlights that commerce students frequently experience high levels of stress due to competitive job markets and expectations of high academic achievement. This stress can lead to fluctuating self-esteem, where periods of high stress correlate with lower self-esteem. Conversely, positive academic outcomes and successful internships can bolster self-esteem. Kumar, R., & Kumar, R. (2015) this study indicated that study showed that Arts students may experience lower self-esteem compared to students in vocational or professional streams due to societal perceptions and the perceived lack of practical application of their studies. Lee and Kim (2022) conducted a study comparing self-esteem levels across commerce, arts, and science students and found that while commerce students experienced self-esteem fluctuations based on academic performance, arts students' self-esteem was more closely tied to personal fulfillment and creative validation. Science students' self-esteem was generally higher but more vulnerable to academic stress and performance pressure. Liu, L., & Zhang, Y. (2012) this study review explored differences in self-esteem among students from different academic streams, including Commerce, Arts, and Science, and found that Commerce students often reported higher self-esteem, attributed to career-oriented curricula and perceived future opportunities. Misra, R., & McKean, M. (2000) found that commerce students, due to the nature of their curriculum, may experience fluctuations in self-esteem based on their academic achievements and career aspirations. Their self-esteem is often closely tied to their perceived career success. Smith et al. (2020) found that science students generally have higher self-esteem related to their perceived competence in problem-solving and critical thinking skills. However, the pressure to maintain high academic performance and the fear of failure can also negatively affect their self-esteem. Younis, M. F., & Saleh, M. A. (2016) this study compared self-esteem among students from various academic streams and found that Commerce students had higher self-esteem compared to Arts and Science students. The study attributed this to the practical and professional focus of Commerce education.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

- Study the Self-Esteem on Gender, Area of Residence, and Academic Stream among College Students.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- › Investigate Self-Esteem on Gender, Area of Residence, and Academic Stream among College Students.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- › There is no significant difference Between Male and Female Students with dimension on self-esteem.
- › There is no significant difference Between Urban and Rural Students with dimension on self-esteem.
- › There is no significant difference in self-esteem between Arts Stream, Commerce Stream and Science Stream students.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

For the present study total sample of 100 was comprised into two clusters like Male and Female Adolescence. Present Study Sample belonging to North Delhi Dist. in Delhi state. The age of Adolescence was 18-21 years. Quota Sampling was used.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

Simple Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Table No.01 variable

Variable	Type of variable	Sub. Variable	Name of variable
Gender	Independent	02	1)Male Students 2) Female Students
Area of Residence	Independent	02	1)Urban Students 2) Rural Students
Academic Stream	Independent	03	1)Arts Stream 2) Commerce Stream 3) Science Stream
Self-Esteem	Dependent		Self-Esteem

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Table N0.02 Self-Efficacy Scale

Aspect	Name of the Test	Author	Discription
Self-Esteem	Self-Efficacy Scale	Arun Kumar Singh Shruti Narain (2014).	Item- 20
			Scoring- a 5-point Likert scale, where '5' indicates strong agreement and '1' denotes strong disagreement
			Reliability - .82
			Validity -.92.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

The following research methodology was used in the present study. The primary information was gathered by giving personal information from to each student. The students were called in a small group of 05 to 10 students. To fill the inventories subjects were given general instructions belongs to each test. The students provided the Self-Efficacy Scale. Data were obtained by using particular scoring particular scoring palter standardized for each scale.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation and ANOVA was done by using SPSS Software.

Gender on Self-Esteem

Hypotheses:-01

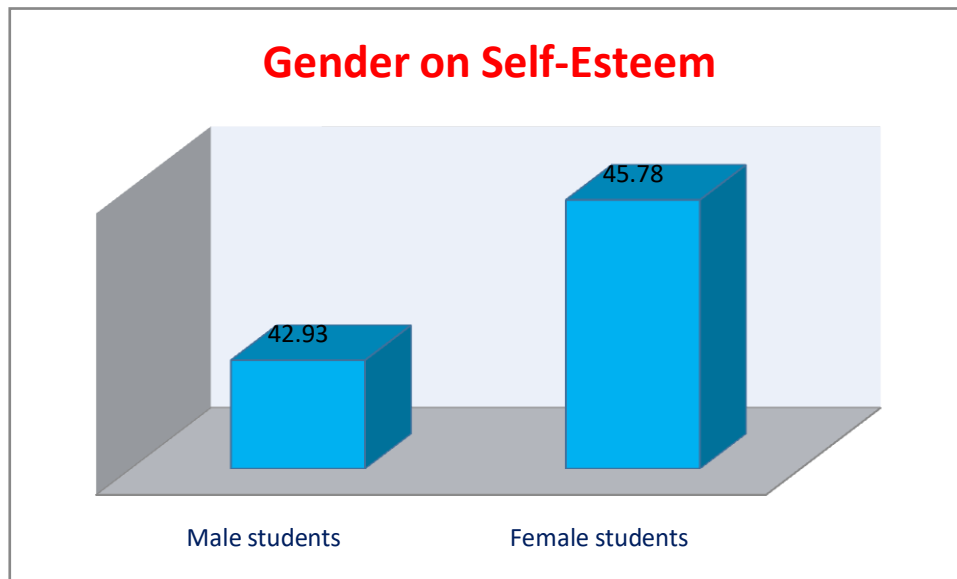
- There is no significant difference Between Male and Female Students with dimension on self-esteem.

Table No.03 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Gender on Self-Esteem

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Self-Esteem	Male students	42.93	5.51	60	118	11.71	0.01

	Female students	45.78	4.98	60			
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Graph No. 01 Mean of Gender on Self-Esteem



Observation of Table No. 03 and Figure No. 01 indicates that the mean self-esteem scores differ between the two groups. The mean and standard deviation (SD) for male students were 42.93 ± 5.51 , while for female students, they were 45.78 ± 4.98 . The F-value for the gender effect was 11.71. This effect was statistically significant ($F = 11.71$, $df = 1$ and 118 , $p < 0.01$), as they obtained F-value exceeds the critical value at the 0.01 significance level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. This means that female students have higher self-esteem than male students.

Self-esteem, a crucial component of psychological well-being, can significantly impact academic performance, social interactions, and overall mental health. Research into gender differences in self-esteem among students reveals a complex picture, with some studies suggesting that female students may have higher self-esteem than their male counterparts, while others indicate the opposite or show no significant difference. Research indicates that gender differences in self-esteem can vary depending on the context and the age group studied. For instance, a meta-analysis by Kling, Hyde, Showers, and Buswell (1999) found that, on average, males tend to report higher self-esteem than females, particularly during adolescence. This study suggests that males often perceive themselves as more competent in areas related to physical appearance and academic ability, which can contribute to higher self-esteem.

AREA OF RESIDENCE ON SELF-ESTEEM

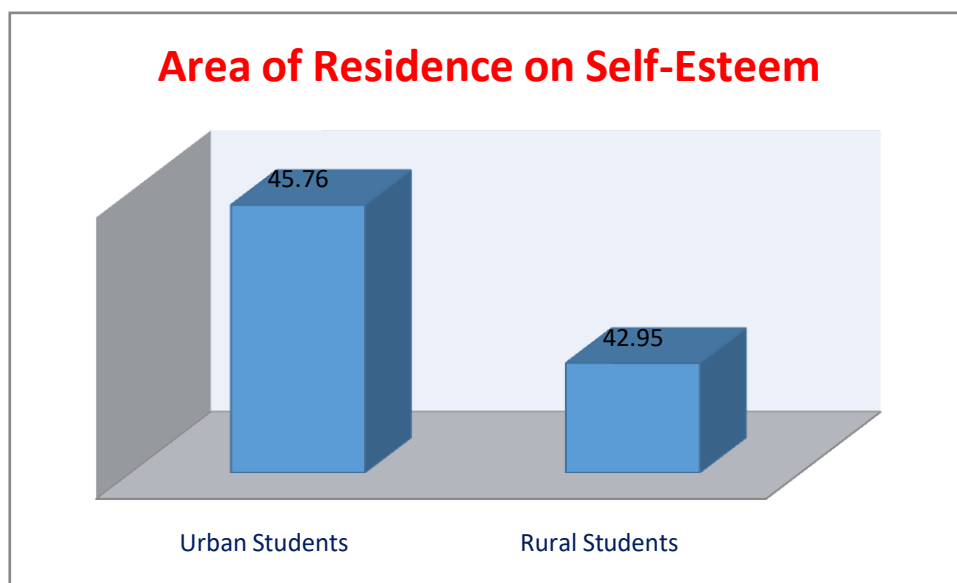
Hypotheses:-02

- There is no significant difference Between Urban and Rural Students with dimension on self-esteem.

Table No.04 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Area of Residence on Self-Esteem

Factor	Area of Residence	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Self-Esteem	Urban Students	45.76	5.58	60	118	11.44	0.01
	Rural Students	42.95	4.92	60			

Graph No. 02 Mean of Area of Residents on Self-Esteem



Observation of Table No. 04 and Figure No. 02 indicates that the mean self-esteem scores differ between the two groups. The mean and standard deviation (SD) for urban students were 45.76 ± 5.58 , while for rural students, they were 42.95 ± 4.95 . The F-value for the area of residence effect was 11.44. This effect was statistically significant ($F = 11.44$, $df = 1$ and 118 , $p < 0.01$), as they obtained F-value exceeds the critical value at the 0.01 significance level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. This means that urban students have higher self-esteem than rural students.

Self-esteem, the evaluative perception individuals have of themselves, can be influenced by numerous environmental and social factors. The debate on whether urban students have higher self-esteem than their rural counterparts is multifaceted, involving considerations of socio-economic conditions, educational opportunities, and social support systems. The research indicates that urban students often have access to more resources, better educational

facilities, and broader social networks, which can contribute to higher self-esteem compared to their rural counterparts. Urban environments generally offer a more supportive and resource-rich context that enhances opportunities for achievement and social integration. However, it is essential to acknowledge that self-esteem is influenced by a multitude of factors beyond geographic location. Personal experiences, family support, and individual personality traits also play crucial roles. Rural students may exhibit resilience and self-esteem despite fewer resources, driven by strong community ties and personal achievements.

ACADEMIC STREAM ON SELF-ESTEEM

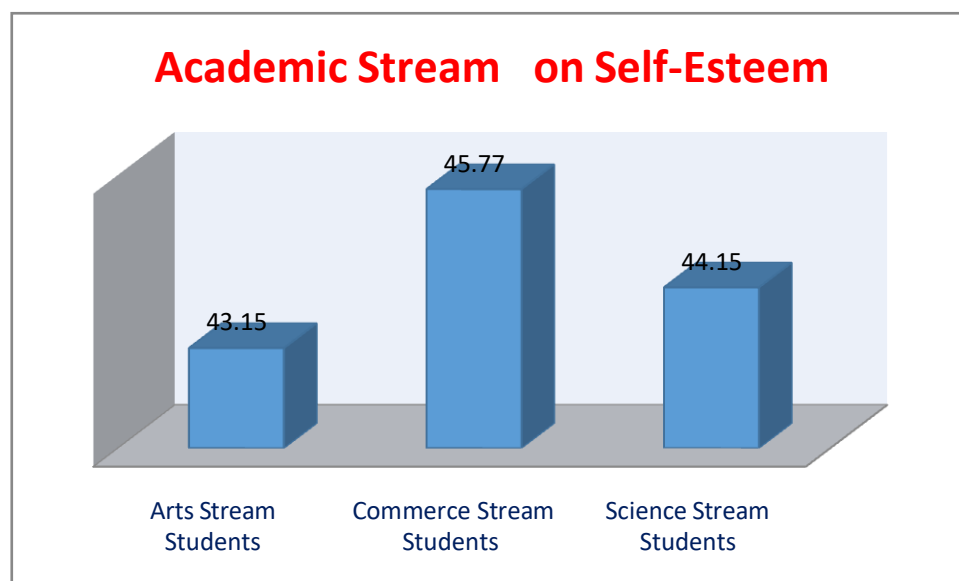
Hypotheses:-03

- There is no significant difference in self-esteem between Arts Stream, Commerce Stream and Science Stream students.

Table No.05 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Academic Stream on Self-Esteem

Factor	Academic Stream	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Self-Esteem	Arts Stream Students	43.15	4.37	40	117	3.98	0.05
	Commerce Stream Students	45.77	6.37	40			
	Science Stream Students	44.15	5.16	40			

Graph No. 03 Mean of Academic Stream on Self-Esteem



Observation of Table No. 05 and Figure No. 03 indicates that the mean self-esteem scores differ among the three academic streams. The mean and standard deviation (SD) for Arts

stream students were 43.15 ± 4.37 , for Commerce stream students were 45.77 ± 6.37 , and for Science stream students were 44.77 ± 5.16 . The F-value for the effect of academic stream on self-esteem was 3.98. This effect was statistically significant ($F = 3.98$, $df = 2$ and 99 , $p < 0.05$), as they obtained F-value exceeds the critical value at the 0.05 significance level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. This means that Commerce stream students have higher self-esteem compared to Arts stream and Science stream students.

Commerce stream student's exhibit higher self-esteem compared to their peers in the Arts and Science streams is a complex issue involving various psychological and educational factors. Studies suggest that students in the Commerce stream may have a higher self-esteem compared to those in the Arts and Science streams. One potential explanation is the perceived practical utility and job prospects associated with Commerce subjects. Commerce students often engage in subjects related to business, economics, and finance, which are associated with high employability and potential financial success (Wang et al., 2017). This direct link between their studies and future career opportunities might enhance their confidence and self-worth. A study by Wang et al. (2017) found that students who perceive their field of study as directly beneficial for their career are likely to experience higher self-esteem. Commerce students, seeing their education as a stepping stone to lucrative careers, may therefore feel more confident about their future prospects compared to their peers in the Arts and Science streams, where job outcomes can be less immediately apparent.

CONCLUSION:-

- 1) Female students have higher self-esteem than male students.
- 2) Urban students have higher self-esteem than rural students.
- 3) Commerce stream students have higher self-esteem compared to Arts stream and Science stream students.

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Role of Emotional Intelligence among Male and Female Bank Employees

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the role of emotional intelligence among male and female bank employees, focusing on various dimensions including self-awareness, empathy, self-motivation, emotional stability, relationship management, integrity, self-development, value orientation, commitment, and altruistic behavior. A sample of 100 bank employees (50 male and 50 female) was analyzed using a stratified random sampling method. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA to determine significant differences between genders across emotional intelligence dimensions. Results indicate that female bank employees exhibit higher levels of self-awareness, empathy, and emotional stability, while male employees demonstrate higher self-motivation and integrity. No significant differences were found in value orientation, commitment, or altruistic behaviour between genders. Overall, female bank employees were found to possess higher emotional intelligence than their male counterparts.

Keywords: -Emotional Intelligence, Male Bank Employees, Female Bank Employees.

INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence (EI) has emerged as a critical factor in understanding individual and organizational success, particularly in high-stakes environments like the banking sector. Defined broadly, emotional intelligence refers to the ability to recognize, understand, manage, and influence emotions both one's own and those of others (Goleman, 1995). The dimensions of EI encompass self-awareness, empathy, self-motivation, emotional stability, relationship management, integrity, self-development, value orientation, commitment, and altruistic behavior. As banks navigate an increasingly competitive landscape, the role of emotional intelligence in enhancing employee performance and organizational effectiveness cannot be overstated.

The banking sector is unique in its demands, requiring employees to interact continuously with clients, manage complex financial products, and navigate high-pressure situations. These interactions often necessitate a profound understanding of emotional cues and an ability to manage interpersonal relationships effectively. As O'Shea (2019) notes, emotional intelligence plays a pivotal role in customer service, teamwork, and leadership within this context, making it essential for employees to cultivate EI competencies. Research into emotional intelligence has also highlighted the impact of gender on EI competencies. Studies have suggested that female employees generally exhibit higher levels of empathy and emotional awareness compared to their male counterparts (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). Women tend to excel in interpersonal relationships and are often more attuned to the emotional states of others. This heightened empathy can facilitate better communication and conflict resolution, which are vital in customer-oriented sectors like banking. Conversely, males have been shown to score higher in areas such as self-motivation and emotional stability (Brackett et al., 2011). These attributes can contribute to resilience and drive, helping them to navigate the pressures associated with financial services. Such differences underscore the need to explore how gender influences emotional intelligence among bank employees, as it may have significant implications for team dynamics, leadership styles, and customer interactions.

The banking industry is characterized by rapid changes, including technological advancements and evolving customer expectations. In this environment, emotional intelligence is not merely an asset; it is a necessity. According to a study by Niven et al. (2011), employees with high EI levels are more adept at managing stress, resolving conflicts, and fostering positive workplace relationships, all of which are essential for maintaining customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Furthermore, the dimension of self-awareness allows employees to understand their emotional triggers and behavioral tendencies, enabling them to respond more effectively to challenges (Cherniss, 2010). For instance, a bank employee who recognizes their stress levels can take proactive steps to manage their emotions during busy periods, thereby enhancing their interactions with customers. Similarly, integrity and value orientation play a crucial role in establishing trust, a vital currency in the banking industry. Customers are more likely to remain loyal to institutions where they feel their needs are understood and prioritized.

Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence

1. **Self-Awareness:** This dimension involves recognizing one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, and values. Employees with high self-awareness can accurately assess their capabilities and manage their responses in various situations.
2. **Empathy:** Empathy is the ability to understand and share the feelings of others. In a banking context, empathetic employees are better equipped to comprehend client concerns, which can lead to improved service delivery and customer satisfaction.
3. **Self-Motivation:** This refers to the ability to harness emotions to pursue goals with energy and persistence. Self-motivated employees are more likely to engage in proactive problem-solving and exhibit resilience in the face of challenges.
4. **Emotional Stability:** Employees with high emotional stability can remain calm under pressure, which is crucial in a fast-paced banking environment. This stability allows them to manage stress and maintain professionalism during difficult interactions.
5. **Managing Relationships:** This dimension encompasses the ability to build and maintain healthy relationships. Strong relationship management skills contribute to effective teamwork and enhance collaboration within banking teams.
6. **Integrity:** Integrity involves adhering to moral and ethical principles. In banking, integrity is paramount as it fosters trust and credibility, both among colleagues and with clients.
7. **Self-Development:** A commitment to self-improvement enables employees to enhance their emotional competencies continuously, adapting to changing circumstances and evolving expectations in the banking sector.
8. **Value Orientation:** This dimension reflects the alignment of personal and organizational values. Employees who are value-oriented are more likely to engage in behaviors that support organizational goals and enhance workplace culture.
9. **Commitment:** Commitment refers to an employee's dedication to their organization and its goals. High levels of commitment are associated with increased job satisfaction and reduced turnover rates.
10. **Altruistic Behavior:** Altruism involves acting in the best interests of others, often at a personal cost. In the banking sector, altruistic behavior can enhance customer experiences and foster loyalty.

Understanding emotional intelligence and its dimensions among male and female bank employees is vital for fostering a productive and harmonious workplace. As this sector continues to evolve, recognizing the strengths that both genders bring to the table can inform

training, recruitment, and employee development strategies. By leveraging the diverse emotional competencies of their workforce, banks can enhance customer satisfaction, improve employee morale, and ultimately drive organizational success. As such, this study aims to explore these dynamics in greater depth, contributing to both academic literature and practical applications within the banking industry.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Agarwal and Sharma (2016) noted that female employees in Indian banks demonstrated greater self-awareness than males, which facilitated better emotional regulation and decision-making. Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, and Salovey (2006) found that women typically score higher on emotional abilities such as empathy and emotional awareness compared to men. Goleman and Boyatzis (2008) noted that female employees often excel in relational skills, which are critical in client-facing roles. Conversely, male employees might display strengths in self-motivation and emotional stability but lag in empathic engagement. Gupta and Kumar (2014) emphasize that gender influences emotional intelligence in the Indian context. Their study revealed that female bank employees generally exhibited higher levels of empathy and social skills compared to their male counterparts. Kahneman, (2011) this study indicates that women in banking often demonstrate greater self-awareness, enabling them to understand their emotional responses and those of clients. Meyer and Allen (1991) emphasize that employees with high EI are more likely to exhibit commitment and altruistic behavior, positively impacting organizational culture. Mikołajczak et al. (2008) show that female bank employees exhibit higher levels of empathy, which positively influences client satisfaction and loyalty. Rani and Kumar (2019) found that female employees in banks are more likely to demonstrate commitment to their organizations and engage in altruistic behaviors compared to male employees. Sharma and Ghosh (2017) this study indicates that female bank employees possess higher empathy levels, which enhances their ability to manage client relationships effectively. Sharma and Rani (2020), such programs should be tailored to enhance specific emotional competencies among male and female employees, focusing on developing empathy and relationship management skills in men, while also boosting self-motivation and leadership skills in women. Singh and Kumar (2012), EI contributes significantly to employee performance and job satisfaction in the banking sector, where interpersonal relationships and customer interactions are paramount. They found that employees with high EI tend to perform better in teamwork and customer service roles. Sosik

& Megerian, (1999) This study found that female employees' ability to manage relationships effectively correlates with teamwork and collaboration, essential traits in high-stress banking environments.

the study of emotional intelligence among male and female bank employees is significant for
SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

driving organizational success. It offers a comprehensive understanding of how emotional competencies impact various aspects of banking operations and employee experiences.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To Study Role of Emotional Intelligence among Male and Female Bank Employees.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

- To examine Emotional Intelligence (self-awareness, empathy, self-motivation, emotional stability, managing relation, integrity, self-development, value orientation, commitment and altruistic behavior) among Male and Female Bank Employees.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Mental Health self-awareness, Empathy, self-motivation, emotional stability, managing relation, integrity, self-development, value orientation, commitment and altruistic behavior.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

In this study, the population consists of all Bank Employees in Ara city, Bihar. A stratified random sample of 100 students was drawn from this population, ensuring equal representation by gender (50 Male and 50 Female). The students in the sample were aged between 20 and 58 years. The gender ratio in the sample was 1:1."

RESEARCH DESIGN:

Simple Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Table No.01 variable

Variable	Type of variable	Sub. Variable	Name of variable
Gender	Independent	02	Male and Female Bank Employees
Emotional Intelligence	Dependent	10	I. self-awareness, II. empathy, III. self-motivation, IV. emotional stability, V. managing relation, VI. integrity, VII. self-development, VIII. value orientation, IX. commitment and X. altruistic behavior.

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Table N0.02 Emotional Intelligence Scale

Aspect	Name of the Test	Author	Sub- factor	
Emotional Intelligence	Emotional Intelligence Scale)	Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe and Upinder Dhar.	1) self-awareness, 2) Empathy, 3) self-motivation, 4) emotional stability 5) managing relation, 6). Integrity 7 self-development, 8) value orientation 9) commitment 10) altruistic behavior.	Item- 34 Scoring - Strongly Agree- 5 points, Agree- 4 points, Uncertain- 3 points, Disagree- 2 points, Strongly Disagree- 1 point. Reliability - 0.88 Validity -0.93

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

For the present study 100 samples were used and these instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group were adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and their seating arrangements, was made in a Place. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data were collected.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation and ANOVA was done by using SPSS Software.

Table No.03 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Gender on youths Problems

Table No.	Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
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Table No.03 (A)	self-awareness	Male Bank Employees	12.10	1.66	30	58	75.10	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	15.66	1.51	30			
Table No.03 (B)	empathy	Male Bank Employees	14.30	0.70	30	58	96.41	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	16.90	1.26	30			
Table No.03 (C)	self-motivation	Male Bank Employees	18.33	0.94	30	58	20.66	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	19.73	1.36	30			
Table No.03 (D)	emotional stability	Male Bank Employees	11.00	2.01	30	58	65.94	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	14.73	1.50	30			
Table No.03 (E)	managing relation	Male Bank Employees	16.23	1.59	30	58	63.61	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	13.30	1.23	30			
Table No.03 (F)	integrity	Male Bank Employees	12.60	1.24	30	58	66.51	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	10.03	1.18	30			
Table No.03 (G)	self-development	Male Bank Employees	6.90	1.47	30	58	4.21	0.05
		Female Bank Employees	7.66	1.42	30			
Table No.03 (H)	value orientation	Male Bank Employees	7.93	1.11	30	58	1.25	NS
		Female Bank Employees	7.53	1.61	30			
Table No.03 (I)	commitment	Male Bank Employees	7.43	1.22	30	58	0.818	NS
		Female Bank Employees	7.7.	1.05	30			
Table No.03 (J)	altruistic behavior	Male Bank Employees	7.16	1.20	30	58	2.50	NS
		Female Bank Employees	7.66	1.24	30			
Table No.03 (K)	Emotional Intelligence	Male Bank Employees	110.63	7.38	30	58	44.87	0.01
		Female Bank Employees	123.73	7.75	30			

DISCUSSION

Gender on self-awareness.

Hypothesis: -01

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on self-awareness.

Observation of the Table No. Table No.03 (A). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 12.10 ± 1.66 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 15.66 ± 1.51 on self-awareness and F value is 75.10 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained $\underline{F^*}$ value is High than table values at 0.05

and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Female Bank Employees high level self-awareness than Male Bank Employees. Self-awareness is a critical component of emotional intelligence, influencing interpersonal relationships, decision-making, and overall job performance. The premise that female bank employees exhibit a higher level of self-awareness than their male counterparts is supported by various studies in psychology and organizational behavior. studies by Schutte et al. (2001) indicate that self-awareness is linked to reflective practices, which are more frequently engaged in by women in professional settings. This could be particularly pertinent in banking, where customer interaction and relationship management are crucial. As women often take on roles that involve significant emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983), they may cultivate a heightened awareness of their emotions and the emotions of others. if female bank employees possess higher self-awareness, this may contribute to more effective team dynamics and improved client relationships. female bank employees may demonstrate higher levels of self-awareness than their male counterparts, individual variability and contextual factors must be considered. Continued research is necessary to explore the nuances of self-awareness across genders within the banking industry. Understanding these dynamics can help organizations create more inclusive environments that leverage the strengths of all employees.

Genderon empathy.

Hypothesis: -02

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on empathy.

Observation of the Table No. Table No.03 (B). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 14.30 ± 0.70 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 16.90 ± 1.26 on empathy and F value is 96.41 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained F' value is High than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Female Bank Employees high empathy than Male Bank Employees. female bank employees tend to exhibit higher levels of empathy than their male counterparts, which can positively influence customer relations and workplace dynamics. However, the implications of these differences must be balanced with awareness of emotional labor and the importance of supporting all employees in developing their empathetic skills. Future research should continue to explore the nuances of empathy in diverse workplaces, focusing on practical applications that enhance both employee well-

being and organizational performance. Empathy, defined as the ability to understand and share the feelings of others, is crucial in service-oriented roles like banking, where interpersonal interactions significantly impact customer satisfaction and employee performance.

Genderon self-motivation

Hypothesis: -03

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on self-motivation.

Observation of the Table No.03 (C). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 18.33 ± 0.94 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 17.73 ± 1.36 on self-motivation and F value is 20.66 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained F' value is High than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Male Bank Employees high self-motivation than Female Bank Employees. male bank employees exhibit higher levels of self-motivation compared to their female counterparts raises important questions regarding workplace dynamics and performance in the banking sector. Self-motivation, defined as the internal drive to achieve goals without external incentives, is crucial for success in high-pressure environments such as banking, where productivity and initiative are key to meeting performance targets. male bank employees may demonstrate higher levels of self-motivation compared to female employees, this generalization overlooks the complexities of individual differences and the varied motivational factors at play. Banking institutions can benefit from understanding these dynamics and fostering an environment that encourages self-motivation in all employees. By recognizing and valuing diverse motivational styles, organizations can enhance overall performance and employee satisfaction.

Genderon emotional stability

Hypothesis: -04

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on emotional stability.

Observation of the Table No.03 (D). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 11.00 ± 2.01 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was

14.33 \pm 1.50 on emotional stability and F value is 65.94 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained $_F'$ value is High than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Female Bank Employees high emotional stability than Male Bank Employees. female bank employees exhibit greater emotional stability than their male counterparts is a nuanced topic that intersects with psychological theory, workplace dynamics, and organizational behavior. Emotional stability, defined as the ability to remain calm and composed under stress, is particularly valuable in high-pressure environments like banking, where employees often face challenging customer interactions and demanding performance targets. female bank employees may demonstrate greater emotional stability compared to their male bank employees, this conclusion should be viewed through a lens of individual variability and organizational context. Understanding and valuing the emotional strengths of all employees, regardless of gender, can lead to improved workplace dynamics and enhanced customer service. As banks continue to evolve, fostering emotional intelligence and stability across their workforce will be essential for achieving long-term success.

Genderon managing relation

Hypothesis: -05

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on managing relation.

Observation of the Table No.03 (E). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 16.23 \pm 1.59 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 13.30 \pm 1.23 on managing relation and F value is 63.61 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained $_F'$ value is High than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Male Bank Employees high managing relation than Female Bank Employees. male bank employees are better at managing relationships than their female counterparts invites a critical examination of gender dynamics, interpersonal skills, and the complexities of workplace interactions. Relationship management defined as the ability to foster and maintain positive interpersonal relationships is crucial in the banking sector, where client interactions and teamwork are fundamental to success. male bank employees may exhibit strengths in certain aspects of relationship management, this perspective overlooks the diverse skills and contributions of female

employees. Both genders bring valuable qualities to relationship management, and an inclusive approach that recognizes and harnesses these diverse strengths can lead to improved performance and customer satisfaction in the banking sector. By fostering an environment that values relational skills across the workforce, banks can enhance their overall effectiveness and client relationships.

Genderon integrity

Hypothesis: -06

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on integrity.

Observation of the Table No.03 (F). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 12.60 ± 1.24 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 10.03 ± 1.18 on integrity and F value is 66.51 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained F' value is High than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Male Bank Employees high integrity than Female Bank Employees. male bank employees display higher integrity than their female counterparts is a complex and contentious issue that touches upon various aspects of ethics, gender roles, and workplace behavior. Integrity, defined as the quality of being honest and having strong moral principles, is vital in the banking sector, where trustworthiness is foundational to client relationships and organizational reputation. male bank employees exhibit higher integrity than their female counterparts oversimplifies a complex issue influenced by gender stereotypes and organizational culture. Both men and women can display high integrity, driven by their individual values and ethical frameworks. To foster a culture of integrity, banking institutions should focus on cultivating ethical behavior across their entire workforce, valuing diverse contributions to enhance trust and accountability.

Genderon self-development

Hypothesis: -07

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on self-development.

Observation of the Table No.03 (G). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 6.90 ± 1.47 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was

7.66 \pm 1.42 on self-development and F value is 4.213 which found significant at 0.05 level because they obtained $_F'$ value is High than table values at 0.05 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Female Bank Employees high self-development than Male Bank Employees. female bank employees prioritize self-development more than their male counterparts is an intriguing area of exploration within organizational behavior and gender studies. Self-development, which encompasses the pursuit of personal and professional growth, is crucial in the dynamic and competitive environment of banking, where ongoing learning and adaptation are necessary for career advancement. female bank employees may prioritize self-development more than male employees, this finding is influenced by various factors, including socialization, workplace dynamics, and individual aspirations. Recognizing the importance of self-development for all employees can help banking organizations foster a culture of continuous learning and growth, ultimately benefiting both individuals and the organization as a whole.

Genderon value orientation

Hypothesis: -08

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on value orientation.

Observation of the Table No.03 (H). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 7.93 \pm 1.11 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 7.66 \pm 1.42 on value orientation and F value is 1.25 which found not significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained $_F'$ value is Low than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that No significant differences between Male Bank Employees high than Female Bank Employees on value orientation. there are no significant differences between male and female bank employees regarding value orientation invites a thorough examination of how values are formed, expressed, and manifested within organizational contexts. Value orientation refers to the priorities and principles that guide individuals' behaviors and decision-making processes. In the banking sector, understanding the value orientations of employees can be critical for fostering a cohesive workplace culture and ensuring alignment with organizational goals. This alignment can foster effective teamwork and enhance organizational performance. By recognizing the commonalities in value orientation and promoting an inclusive culture, banking institutions can leverage the strengths of all employees to achieve greater success.

Genderon commitment

Hypothesis: -09

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on commitment.

Observation of the Table No.03 (I). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 7.43 ± 1.22 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 7.70 ± 1.05 on commitment and F value is 0.818 which found not significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained $_F'$ value is Low than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that No significant differences between Male Bank Employees high than Female Bank Employees on commitment. there are no significant differences between male and female bank employees in terms of organizational commitment is an important consideration in understanding workforce dynamics and employee engagement within the banking sector. Organizational commitment refers to the psychological attachment and loyalty an employee feels toward their organization, which can significantly influence job performance, retention, and overall workplace morale. there are nosignificant differences in organizational commitment between male and female bank employees is supported by evidence indicating that commitment is shaped more by organizational factors than by gender. By fostering a culture of support, equity, and opportunity for growth, banking institutions can enhance commitment levels across their workforce, ultimately benefiting organizational performance and employee satisfaction.

Genderon altruistic behavior

Hypothesis: -10

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension Emotional Intelligence on altruistic behavior.

Observation of the Table No.03 (J). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 7.16 ± 1.20 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 7.66 ± 1.24 on altruistic behavior and F value is 2.50 which found not significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained $_F'$ value is Low than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that No significant differences between Male Bank Employees high than Female Bank Employees on altruistic behavior. there are no significant differences between male and female bank employees regarding altruistic behavior invites an

exploration of how altruism manifests in workplace settings and the factors that contribute to these behaviors. Altruistic behavior refers to actions taken to benefit others, often at a personal cost, and can play a vital role in fostering a positive workplace culture, enhancing team collaboration, and improving customer service in the banking sector. There are no significant differences in altruistic behavior between male and female bank employees is supported by evidence suggesting that altruism is shaped more by individual and contextual factors than by gender. By fostering an organizational culture that encourages altruistic behaviors, banking institutions can enhance collaboration, improve customer service, and promote a positive workplace environment for all employees.

Gender on Emotional Intelligence

Hypothesis: -11

- There will be no significant difference between Male and Female Bank Employees with dimension on Emotional Intelligence.

Observation of the Table No.03 (K). Main effect indicated that Gender that Mean and SD of Male Bank Employees was 110.63 ± 7.38 and Second Mean of Female Bank Employees was 123.73 ± 7.75 on managing relation and F value is 44.878 which found significant at 0.01 level and 0.05 level because they obtained 'F' value is High than table values at 0.05 and 0.01 at were this hypothesis is Accepted it mean that Female Bank Employees High Emotional Intelligence than Male Bank Employees. female bank employees possess higher emotional intelligence (EI) than their male counterparts has been a topic of considerable research and discussion in organizational behavior. Emotional intelligence, defined as the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions as well as the emotions of others, plays a crucial role in effective communication, teamwork, and leadership within the banking sector, where interpersonal relationships are fundamental. female bank employees tend to exhibit higher emotional intelligence than their male counterparts, it is essential to recognize the complexity of this issue. Emotional intelligence is shaped by individual traits and contextual factors rather than solely by gender. By fostering an environment that promotes emotional intelligence development for all employees, banking institutions can enhance teamwork, improve customer service, and create a more supportive workplace culture.

CONCLUSIONS

- Female bank employees have a higher level of self-awareness than male bank employees.
- Female bank employees exhibit higher empathy than male bank employees.
- Male bank employees demonstrate higher self-motivation than female bank employees.
- Female bank employees show greater emotional stability than male bank employees.
- Male bank employees are better at managing relationships than female bank employees.
- Male bank employees display higher integrity than female bank employees.
- Female bank employees prioritize self-development more than male bank employees.
- There are no significant differences between male and female bank employees regarding value orientation.
- There are no significant differences between male and female bank employees in terms of commitment.
- There are no significant differences between male and female bank employees regarding altruistic behavior.
- Female bank employees have higher emotional intelligence than male bank employees.

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A Comparative Analysis of Adjustment Levels Between Mothers and Fathers of Children with Intellectual Disabilities

Monica Sharma

ABSTRACT

This study aims to compare the adjustment levels between mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities, focusing on their psychological well-being and coping mechanisms. A total of 100 parents, comprising 50 mothers and 50 fathers, from Delhi participated in the research. The Bell's Adjustment Inventory, adapted for Indian conditions, was utilized to assess adjustment levels. The results indicated that mothers had a mean adjustment score of 41.22 (SD = 5.58), while fathers exhibited a higher mean score of 45.32 (SD = 4.37). Statistical analysis through one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference in adjustment levels between mothers and fathers ($F(1, 98) = 16.67, p < 0.01$). These findings support the hypothesis that fathers demonstrate better adjustment than mothers.

Keywords: - adjustment, mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities.

INTRODUCTION

Intellectual disabilities (ID) are a group of disorders characterized by significant limitations in both intellectual functioning and adaptive behavior, which encompass everyday social and practical skills (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). These disabilities manifest during the developmental period and can affect a person's ability to learn, communicate, and take care of themselves. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), approximately 1-3% of the population has some form of intellectual disability, making it one of the most common developmental disorders (CDC, 2020). Understanding the nature, causes, and implications of intellectual disabilities is essential for developing effective interventions and support systems. Intellectual disabilities are typically defined by two core criteria: an IQ score below 70 and challenges in adaptive functioning, which include difficulties in areas such as communication, self-care, and social skills (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The onset of these disabilities occurs during the developmental period, usually before the age of 18, and can result from a variety of genetic, environmental, and prenatal factors (Maulik et al., 2011). For example, genetic conditions

like Down syndrome or Fragile X syndrome are well-documented causes, while environmental factors may include exposure to toxins or infections during pregnancy (Bairdet et al., 2006).

The Role of Parenting in Intellectual Disabilities

Parents of children with intellectual disabilities often experience heightened stress, leading to emotional and psychological strain (Lecavalier et al., 2006). The adjustment process varies significantly between mothers and fathers due to differing societal roles, caregiving responsibilities, and coping mechanisms. Mothers frequently assume the primary caregiving role, which can amplify their emotional burden (Baker et al., 2003). Conversely, fathers may navigate their roles differently, often feeling societal pressure to maintain traditional breadwinning roles while also engaging in caregiving (Jones et al., 2009).

Mothers' Experiences and Adjustment

Mothers of children with ID often report experiencing higher levels of anxiety and depression compared to fathers. Research indicates that mothers may feel isolated and overwhelmed, largely due to societal expectations that place the primary caregiving responsibility on them (Hastings, 2003). For instance, Davis and Gavidia-Payne (2009) found that mothers exhibited higher rates of stress-related disorders, emphasizing the need for targeted mental health support for this demographic. The emotional toll on mothers can also be compounded by factors such as a lack of social support, financial strain, and the day-to-day challenges of caregiving (McIntyre et al., 2007).

Mothers may also experience guilt and self-blame, particularly if they perceive themselves as unable to meet their child's needs (Hastings & Taunt, 2002). This emotional burden can affect their overall quality of life, leading to a cycle of stress and diminished coping ability. The adjustment levels of mothers are crucial to understanding how they manage their roles and responsibilities, and how these levels affect their children's development and overall family dynamics.

Mothers often take on the primary caregiving role in families with children who have intellectual disabilities. This role can lead to increased responsibilities, which may heighten their stress levels and affect their mental health (Baker et al., 2003). Studies have shown that mothers experience higher rates of depression, anxiety, and isolation compared to fathers

(Davis & Gavidia-Payne, 2009). The emotional toll can be compounded by societal pressures that dictate traditional gender roles, placing an additional burden on mothers to manage both caregiving and household responsibilities.

Fathers' Experiences and Adjustment

While fathers may not be the primary caregivers in many families, their roles are equally important and often overlooked. Research has shown that fathers experience stress related to their children's disabilities, but their coping strategies can differ from those of mothers (Flouri & Buchanan, 2004). Fathers may engage in problem-focused coping, aiming to find solutions and manage challenges pragmatically (Jones et al., 2009). This approach can lead to resilience and adaptive functioning, although it does not negate the emotional difficulties they may encounter.

Fathers, on the other hand, may experience their own unique challenges. Traditionally, fathers have been expected to be the primary breadwinners, which can lead to feelings of inadequacy when faced with the demands of caregiving (Jones et al., 2009). However, recent shifts towards more engaged fatherhood are emerging, with some studies indicating that fathers may experience positive adjustments through their involvement in caregiving (Flouri & Buchanan, 2004). Understanding these evolving roles is essential for a comprehensive analysis of adjustment levels.

the adjustment levels of mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities are influenced by a complex interplay of caregiving roles, societal expectations, and support systems. This study aims to provide a comprehensive comparative analysis of these adjustment levels, highlighting the unique experiences of each parent. By understanding the differences and similarities in their coping strategies and emotional responses, we can develop targeted interventions that support the well-being of families navigating the challenges of raising children with intellectual disabilities. The insights gained from this research can contribute to the fields of psychology, social work, and special education, ultimately fostering a more supportive environment for families.

The present study aims to conduct a comparative analysis of the adjustment levels between mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities. Understanding the differences in experiences, coping mechanisms, and emotional responses between these two groups is essential for developing tailored interventions that address their unique needs. By analyzing

both qualitative and quantitative data, this research seeks to identify key factors that contribute to the adjustment processes of each parent.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Baker et al. (2017) this found that mothers often resorted to maladaptive coping mechanisms, such as avoidance, leading to higher levels of anxiety and depression. In contrast, fathers were more likely to engage in active problem-solving, which correlated with better adjustment outcomes. This difference suggests that interventions aimed at enhancing coping strategies could be beneficial for mothers, while also recognizing fathers' unique needs.

Ghosh and Choudhury (2019) this conducted a study assessing the psychological impacts of parenting children with intellectual disabilities. Their research revealed that both mothers and fathers experience considerable stress, but the nature of this stress varies. Mothers reported feelings of guilt and inadequacy, while fathers expressed frustration related to societal expectations and financial burdens.

Gupta and Sharma (2017) this indicate that coping mechanisms significantly affect the emotional well-being of parents. Mothers reported higher levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms, often resorting to avoidance strategies. In contrast, fathers were more likely to engage in active coping, which correlated with better emotional outcomes.

Hayes and O'Toole (2016), this study mothers frequently experience higher levels of stress and depression compared to fathers, primarily due to societal expectations and caregiving roles.

Hayes et al. (2018) this study demonstrated that both mothers and fathers experience elevated levels of stress, but the emotional outcomes can vary significantly. Mothers were found to report higher instances of depressive symptoms and anxiety, while fathers expressed feelings of frustration and helplessness. These differences underscore the importance of tailoring support and intervention strategies to the distinct experiences of each parent.

McIntyre et al. (2010), this study found that mothers reported greater feelings of isolation and lower levels of support, which contributed to poorer adjustment outcomes.

McKeever and Miller (2016), this study programs that consider gender-specific challenges and strengths can lead to improved outcomes for both parents. Such interventions could

include targeted counseling, support groups, and resources that address the unique experiences of each parent.

Nair and Thomas (2015), this study found that mothers often bear a larger share of caregiving responsibilities, leading to heightened levels of stress and anxiety. Their study emphasizes the need for community support systems to help alleviate the psychological burdens faced by mothers.

Pomerantz et al. (2014), this study found that mothers with access to strong social networks reported better psychological well-being, while fathers often reported feeling more isolated. This indicates that social support might mitigate some of the stress associated with parenting a child with ID, yet the sources and effectiveness of support can differ based on gender.

Sharma and Kaur (2020). Their findings suggest that mothers often feel more isolated than fathers, which impacts their adjustment levels negatively. Fathers, benefiting from their social networks, often reported feeling more supported and less stressed, thereby enhancing their adjustment.

Sinha and Sinha (2018) this study examined the differences in coping mechanisms between mothers and fathers of children with disabilities. They found that mothers tended to adopt a more emotional coping style, while fathers engaged in problem-solving approaches. This divergence in coping strategies suggests that fathers may have better adjustment levels due to their more active involvement in seeking solutions.

Turnbull et al. (2011) this study found that fathers tend to use problem-focused coping strategies, which may buffer against stress more effectively than the emotion-focused strategies often employed by mothers. This disparity suggests that fathers might experience different adjustment challenges and outcomes than mothers.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To Comparative Study Analysis of Adjustment Levels Between Mothers and Fathers of Children with Intellectual Disabilities.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To Study the Level of Adjustment on Mother and Father Parents of intellectual disability children.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There will be significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of intellectual disability children on Level of Adjustment.

METHODOLOGY:

SAMPLE:

The present study comprised 100 parents of children with intellectual disabilities from Delhi. The effective sample consisted of 100 parents of children with intellectual disabilities, including 50 mothers and 50 fathers. The age of the parents ranged from 30 to 45 years. Quota sampling was utilized for this study.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

In the present study Simple Research design was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent variable - Parents of children with intellectual disability- 1) Mother 2) Father

Dependent variable - Adjustment

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Bell's Adjustment Inventory

The Bell's Adjustment Inventory, originally developed in English by Bell, has been adapted for Indian conditions by Lalit Sharma, including a Hindi translation. This inventory consists of 80 items, where subjects respond with either "YES" or "NO." Scoring is straightforward: each "correct" response counts as one point, and the total score in different adjustment areas reflects overall adjustment levels. Higher scores indicate poorer adjustment. The inventory demonstrates high reliability, with a coefficient of .834 and a test-retest reliability of .927,

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

In the present study, a sample of 100 participants was utilized, and two instruments were administered both individually and in small groups. Subjects were gathered in groups of 5 to 10, with seating arrangements made in a designated room. Following the instructions and procedures suggested by the authors of the tests, the assessments were conducted, and a field copy of each test was collected. This process was consistently applied to gather the entire dataset. Primary information was obtained by administering personal information forms to the parents of children with intellectual disabilities. To complete the inventories, subjects were provided with general instructions pertaining to each scale.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT:

Mean, Standard Deviation and one Way ANOVA was used.

Statistical Analysis and Discussion

Hypothesis

- There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of intellectual disability children on Level of Adjustment.

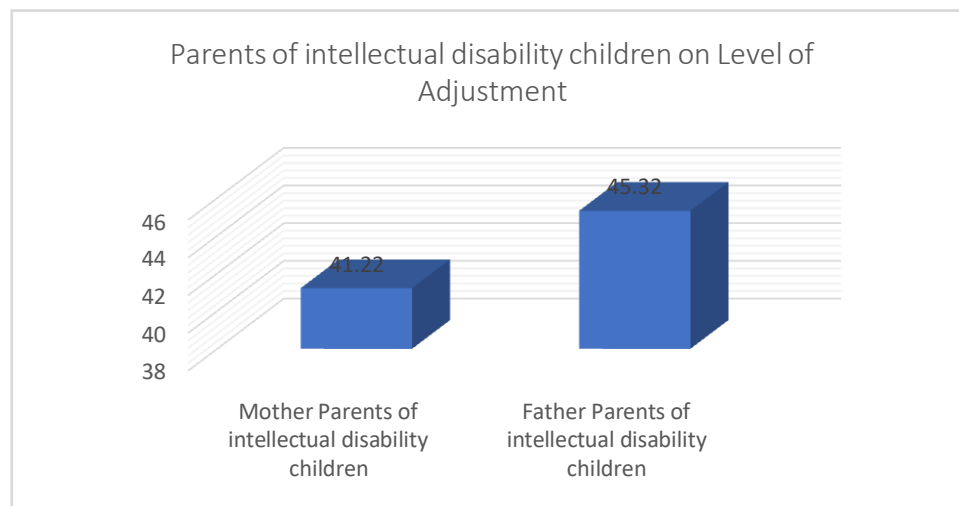
Table No. 01.

Mean SD and F Value of Parents of intellectual disability children on Level of Adjustment

Factor	Parents of Mentally Retarded children	Mean	SD	N	DF	F	Sign.
Level of Adjustment	Mother Parents of Intellectual disability children	41.22	5.58	50	98	16.67	0.01
	Father Parents of Intellectual disability children	45.32	4.37	50			

(Critical value of t_{fill} with df 98 at 0.01 = 3.84 and at 0.05 = 6.63 and NS- Not significant)

Figure No.01. Mean of Parents of intellectual disability children on Level of Adjustment



According to Table 01 and Figure 01, the analysis indicates that the mean score for mothers of children with intellectual disabilities was 41.22 ± 5.58 , while the mean score for fathers was 45.32 ± 4.37 regarding levels of adjustment. The F-value for this comparison was 16.67, suggesting a significant effect of parental role on levels of adjustment ($F(1, 98) = 16.67, p <$

0.01). This result is significant at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, as the obtained F-value exceeds the critical values at these significance levels.

These findings support the hypothesis of the study, indicating significant differences between the levels of adjustment for mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities. Specifically, the results show that fathers exhibited a better level of adjustment compared to mothers. However, it is essential to note that fathers of children with intellectual disabilities often experience more stress than mothers. This may be attributed to the fact that mothers typically bear the primary responsibility for childcare, making them more susceptible to the challenges associated with raising a child with a disability. For mothers, having a child with an intellectual disability can represent a profound loss of their expectations and dreams of motherhood. The experience of raising a disabled child can evoke feelings of failure to meet societal and personal expectations of maternity. The adjustment dynamics between married couples in such contexts differ significantly from other types of relationships, as the bond between husband and wife is public and binding. Kumar and Akthar (2001) also found that mothers of typically developing children reported better marital adjustment than mothers of children with intellectual disabilities. This aligns with the current study's findings and highlights the unique challenges faced by mothers in such circumstances.

CONCLUSIONS

Fathers of mentally retarded children have better adjustment level than mothers of mentally retarded children.

The observation that fathers of children with intellectual disabilities exhibit higher levels of adjustment compared to mothers invites several avenues for exploration. Understanding the dynamics of parental adjustment can provide insights into family functioning and the emotional well-being of both parents. Fathers might be socialized to adopt a more problem-solving approach, focusing on pragmatic solutions and resilience, which could contribute to their higher adjustment levels. In contrast, mothers often bear the brunt of caregiving responsibilities and may experience heightened emotional stress as they navigate the complexities of raising a child with special needs.

Fathers may have different access to support systems, both informal (friends and family) and formal (support groups, therapy). If fathers are more likely to seek help or engage in supportive networks, this could lead to improved adjustment. Furthermore, they might feel

less stigma or pressure to fulfill traditional caregiving roles, allowing for a more balanced distribution of emotional labor within the family. Fathers and mothers may employ different coping mechanisms when faced with the challenges of raising a child with intellectual disabilities. Research suggests that fathers may engage in more active coping strategies, such as seeking information and resources, while mothers may experience emotional distress more acutely. This difference in coping strategies could influence overall adjustment levels. Fathers might have a different perspective on intellectual disabilities, potentially viewing them through a lens of opportunity for growth and development rather than solely as a burden. This positive framing could foster resilience and adaptability, leading to better overall adjustment.

The findings suggesting that fathers of children with intellectual disabilities demonstrate better adjustment than mothers highlight the complexity of parental experiences in this context. A nuanced understanding of gender roles, support systems, coping strategies, and perceptions of disability is crucial for developing effective support mechanisms for families, ultimately fostering a more positive environment for both parents and their children.

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The Positive and Negative impact of Instagram on Adult's Mental health

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ABSTRACT

Instagram, as a popular social media platform, exerts a multifaceted influence on users globally, particularly on young adults. On one hand, it fosters global connectivity, creative expression, and entrepreneurial opportunities by allowing individuals and businesses to share narratives and goals. Users find inspiration and unity through support communities focused on self-improvement and mental health. However, Instagram also presents negative impacts, including social comparison, cyberbullying, and addiction. These effects can harm mental well-being, leading to self-esteem issues, social anxiety, and distorted perceptions of reality. The platform's endless content feed can result in excessive screen time, time distortion, and sleep disruption, while the pressure for perfection fosters unrealistic standards. Balancing Instagram's positive contributions with its challenges is essential, promoting responsible use and supporting users in nurturing mental health.

Keywords-Instagram.

INTRODUCTION:

Instagram has 1158 million active users worldwide, with 62.70% of users aged 18–34 years and 120 million active users in India as of October 2020 (Clement, n.d). Social media sites as Instagram, Face book, and Twitter have penetrated deeply into the life of young individuals (Lakhiwal& Kar, 2016). Instagram is the universal social media platform. It has certainly changed the way we interrelate, generate, and set up connections. It is not boasting that Instagram is a visually persuasive interface and a worldwide presence. Instagram is a digital platform where both persons and businesses display their narratives, wellbeing and goals.

Whether it's the magnificent allure of travel photography or the personal snapshots of daily life, this digital platform provides a varied selection of experiences that enthralls millions across the world. This has many-sided tapestry of Instagram influence.

Furthermore, the platform serves as a source of positive influence, with users often sharing motivational content, self-improvement tips, and nurturing support communities. This is from fitness journeys to mental health support; persons find encouragement and unity. This has been contributing to a positive online environment.

Positive Effects of Instagram

Instagram builds global connectivity and community. It inspires creative expression and propels industrial opportunities. This platform has role in promoting intellectual exchange, alertness and positive influence through support communities. This is important key points that make Instagram a medium for positivity and inspiration.

- 1. It facilitates the creation of diverse communities**, connecting people across the globe based on shared interests. Users can forge meaningful relationships, fostering a sense of belonging and understanding beyond geographical boundaries. The platform serves as a canvas for creative expression, allowing individuals to showcase their talents and unique perspectives. From art and photography to fashion and lifestyle, Instagram inspires creativity and provides a platform for individuals to discover new ideas.
- 2. Instagram empowers entrepreneurs.** This to showcase their products or services, providing a cost-effective and visually appealing way to reach a vast audience. The platform acts as a launch pad for small businesses. and individuals looking to build a brand, fostering innovation and economic growth. It acts as a window into diverse cultures, enabling users to explore and appreciate the richness of global

diversity. Through visual storytelling, the platform promotes cultural exchange, breaking down barriers and fostering a more interconnected world.

Negative Effects

The darker side of the well-liked social media platform is surrounding social comparison and its impact on self-esteem, the prevalence of cyber bullying and online harassment, and the addictive nature of the platform that can distort time and disrupt healthy lifestyles. There have been many researches held concentrating on the mental health issues that arise in society. Loneliness is the significant reasons of excessive use of social media.

While becoming inextricable to our daily lives, social media are blamed for increasing mental health problems in younger people. The World Health Organization reported that 10–20% of children and adolescents worldwide experience mental health problems. It is estimated that 50% of all mental disorders are established by the age of 14 and 75% by 18. Instagram, like many tech platforms, is designed to be bottomless, and you don't have to do much to access that bottomless content. Just keep scrolling," he said.

According to Jacqueline Nesi Social interactions also play out in different ways, said quantified measures of status—likes, views, and comments—tend to remain visible in time without end and can be viewed anytime, anywhere, and often by anyone.

Social Comparison and Self-Esteem Issues:

The curated scenery of happiness on Instagram can lead to social comparison. Users may feel insufficient or disappointed with their own lives. This can turn in to self-esteem issues. It may increase in an indistinct perception of reality, deteriorating mental well-being. Social comparison in particular is extremely common on Instagram, Fardouly 2017.

2) Cyberbullying and Online Harassment:

The anonymity provided by the platform sometimes leads to cyberbullying and online harassment. Negative comments, criticism, or even explicit threats can have severe consequences, affecting the mental health of the targeted individuals.

Addiction and Time Distortion:

The addictive nature of scrolling through endless feeds can contribute to excessive screen time, leading to a distorted sense of time. This can impact productivity, disrupt sleep patterns, and contribute to feelings of isolation.

Pressure for Perfection and Unrealistic Standards:

The pursuit of the ‘perfect’ life depicted on Instagram can create unrealistic standards for beauty, success, and happiness. This pressure to conform to idealized images may lead to feelings of inadequacy and a constant need for validation.

Privacy Concerns and Data Exploitation:

Instagram’s data-driven model raises concerns about user privacy and data exploitation. Issues such as third-party access to personal information and targeted advertising can compromise user privacy, prompting debates about the ethical implications of such practices.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Keles et al., 2020 The commonness of anxiety and depression has increased by 70% in the past 25 years in young people. the impact of social media on adolescents’ well-being has become a priority due to a simultaneous increase in mental health problems.

Kohler, M. T., 2021 when participants in one study viewed either appearance-conscious photos from fitness, modeling, and beauty Instagram accounts or control photos from nature, food, and home-décor accounts, those in the former condition experienced increases in negative mood and anxiety

Lonergan, A. R., et al 2020 stated men and boys are less likely to use Instagram for social comparison and status seeking, those who do experience a similar level of harm to women and girls.

Jiang, S. & Ngien (2020) resulted that adults who use Instagram app are prone to social comparison consistently face problems with social anxiety, self-esteem, and mood. This results correlates by the results of Midgley, C., et al (2021).

Sherlock, M., & Wagstaff, D. L., 2017 stated that Instagram users who engage in digital status seeking (looking for popularity online) and social comparison (evaluating oneself in relation to others) tend to experience negative psychological outcomes. These behaviors linked to increase in depressive symptoms, social anxiety, and body image concerns across age groups, as well as decreases in self-esteem.

Aswani, Kar & Ilavarasan, (2019) propagated that Instagram bullying is a significant issue where individuals post malicious or embarrassing photographs, write insulting captions, post hateful comments, use mean hash tag, create fake accounts/profiles, and most private and

sensitive information publicly. These types of bullying cause a negative effect on the brain leading to severe mental health issues

CONCLUSION

Navigating the twofold nature of Instagram effects discovers its contributions to global connectivity, creative expression and entrepreneurial opportunities, while it contrasted with issues like social comparison, cyber bullying and addiction. Instagram users must identify and find the way from these contrasting aspects, influence them to engage in a thoughtful and positive online community while managing potential drawbacks.

By advocating for authenticity, empathy, and responsible digital conduct, individuals can access the advantages of Instagram, safeguarding their mental well-being and cultivating meaningful digital connections in today's era. It is considerable that part of what makes Instagram problematic is its addictive nature. This is not like a magazine, television show or video game, that these platform seldom delivers and they have -stopping cues|| gentle nudges that prompt users to move on to a different activity.

It is observed that individuals with low social support are more likely to suffer from mental health problems like depression, anxiety and psychological distress compared to those with high social support from others. It is estimated that most individuals in need of mental health services do not receive any treatment in most countries.

So we can say that Social media Instagram could be regarded as a 'double- edged sword. Many Studies show the benefits of enabling people to express their thoughts and feelings and to receive social support

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A study the Mental Health among diabetes patients

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the mental health of diabetes patients, focusing on gender and living area as influencing factors. A total of 120 diabetes patients from Beed District, Maharashtra, were surveyed using a balanced factorial design. Participants included 60 males and 60 females, evenly split between urban and rural settings. Mental health was assessed using the Mental Health Inventory (MHI), with data analyzed through descriptive statistics and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Findings revealed that female diabetes patients exhibited significantly better mental health compared to male patients, rural diabetes patients reported better mental health than their urban counterparts.

Kay words: - Mental Health, diabetes patients, Gender.

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes has been recognized for thousands of years, with evidence suggesting its identification by ancient Egyptians around 3500 years ago. Historically, a clinical diagnosis of diabetes often resulted in a grim prognosis. The advent of insulin transformed diabetes from a fatal disease into a manageable condition. Today, diabetes affects millions globally, with India having the highest number of cases. The disease poses a significant public health challenge, exacerbated by factors such as rapid urbanization, changing lifestyles, and genetic predisposition. Both urban and rural areas in India are experiencing increasing prevalence rates. Fortunately, diabetes can often be prevented through lifestyle modifications, emphasizing the importance of awareness and proactive health measures (International Diabetes Federation, 2021).

Mental health is an integral component of overall well-being, particularly for individuals living with chronic conditions such as diabetes. The psychological burden of managing diabetes can significantly impact mental health, leading to issues such as anxiety, depression, and stress. Studies indicate that diabetes patients are at a higher risk for developing mental health disorders compared to the general population (Nouwen et al., 2011). This heightened risk is attributed to various factors, including the daily demands of self-management, dietary restrictions, and the potential for serious health complications.

Mental Health: A Comprehensive Perspective

Mental health is a broad term encompassing an individual's emotional, psychological, and social well-being. It influences how we think, feel, and act, affecting our ability to cope with stress, relate to others, and make choices. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), health is defined as –a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity (WHO, 2006). This definition highlights three essential dimensions of health:

1. **Physical Health:** Refers to the body's ability to function optimally. It involves balanced nutrition, regular exercise, adequate sleep, and the management of substances such as alcohol and drugs.
2. **Social Health:** Involves interactions with family, friends, and the community. Social connections and support systems are vital; changes in these relationships can significantly impact an individual's overall health.
3. **Psychological Health:** Concerns how we think, feel, and respond to daily challenges. Effective stress management and continuous learning are crucial for developing skills and enhancing emotional well-being.

A deficiency in any of these areas can compromise an individual's overall health, underscoring the interconnectedness of physical, social, and psychological well-being (World Health Organization, 2006).

Moreover, mental health conditions can adversely affect diabetes management, creating a bidirectional relationship where poor psychological well-being exacerbates glycemic control, leading to further health complications (Fisher et al., 2010). This underscores the necessity for healthcare providers to address both physical and mental health aspects in diabetes care.

A holistic approach that includes psychological support can improve treatment outcomes and enhance the quality of life for diabetes patients (American Diabetes Association, 2016).

Recognizing the complex interplay between diabetes and mental health is crucial for developing effective interventions that promote overall well-being. As the prevalence of diabetes continues to rise globally, particularly in regions such as India, understanding and addressing mental health issues within this population becomes increasingly urgent (International Diabetes Federation, 2021).

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Bernstein and Stockwell (2013) advocate for mental health screening in adolescents and young adults with Type I diabetes due to prevalent mental health issues. **Li and Ford (2010)** found that factors like nonwhite ethnicity, older age, lack of insurance, and employment status increase the risk of under-treatment for mental health issues in adults with diabetes and serious psychological distress. **Dickerson and Brown (2011)** highlighted that adults with diabetes and serious mental illness experience greater impairments in both physical and mental health quality of life compared to those without diabetes. **Feng and Burt (2016)** noted that a Type II diabetes diagnosis can lead to psychological distress, reduced quality of life, and diminished social interactions, adversely affecting long-term management. **Harkness and Macdonald (2010)** emphasized the need for integrated care that addresses both diabetes and mental health issues, as their interplay affects patient outcomes. **Hillemeier et al. (2007)** found that farm residence can be linked to better mental health, while isolated rural living may correlate with lower rates of diagnosed depression or anxiety. **Hoban and Sareen (2015)** reported that foot problems in diabetic patients and caregivers are associated with increased mental health symptoms, affecting treatment and quality of life. **Lee Ducat and Philipson (2014)** summarized the prevalence of mental health issues in diabetic patients and suggested strategies for managing these co-morbidities. **Weaver and Hadley (2011)** found that diabetes-related physical symptoms and challenges in fulfilling social roles negatively impact mental health among women in Delhi, India.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To Study the Mental Health among diabetes patients.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To examine the Mental Health in Male and Female diabetes patients.
- To examine the Mental Health in Urban and Rural diabetes patients

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There will be Female diabetes patient's high levels of Mental Health than Male diabetes patients.
- There will be rural diabetes patient's high levels of Mental Health than Urban diabetes patients.

METHODOLOGY:

SAMPLE:

For the present study, a total of 120 diabetes patients from Beed District, Maharashtra, were included. The effective sample comprised 60 male patients (30 from urban areas and 30 from rural areas) and 60 female patients (30 from urban areas and 30 from rural areas). All participants were aged between 35 and 50 years. Quota sampling was employed to ensure a balanced representation across gender and locality.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

The present study employed a 2x2 balanced factorial design to investigate the effects of gender and living area on diabetes patients.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent Variables –

- 1) Gender 1) Male diabetes patients 2) Female diabetes patients
- 2) Living of Area 1) urban diabetes patients 2) Rural diabetes patients

Dependent Variables - Mental Health

RESEARCH TOOLS

MENTAL HEALTH INVENTORY (MHI, 1983)

The Mental Health Inventory (MHI), created by Jagdish and Srivastav in 1983, assesses positive aspects of mental health for individuals aged 15 and above. Participants rate 56 items on a 4-point scale, with higher scores reflecting better mental health. The inventory provides norms that classify scores into categories such as Very Good, Good, Average, Poor, and Very Poor, aiding in identifying individuals needing support. Reliability coefficients for the inventory range from 0.71 to 0.75, and Construct validity has been 0.57.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

For the present study, a sample of 120 participants was used, and two instruments were administered both individually and in small groups. Participants were gathered in groups of 5-10, with appropriate seating arrangements made in a designated room. Following the instructions and procedures suggested by the test authors, the tests were administered, and a field copy of each test was collected. This process was repeated to gather the complete dataset. Primary information was obtained through personal information forms provided to each participant with diabetes. Participants received general instructions relevant to each scale before filling out the inventories.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation. At the second stage data were subjected to Analysis of Variance. Finally, the analysis was done by using SPSS Software.

GENDER ON MENTAL HEALTH.

Hypothesis:-01

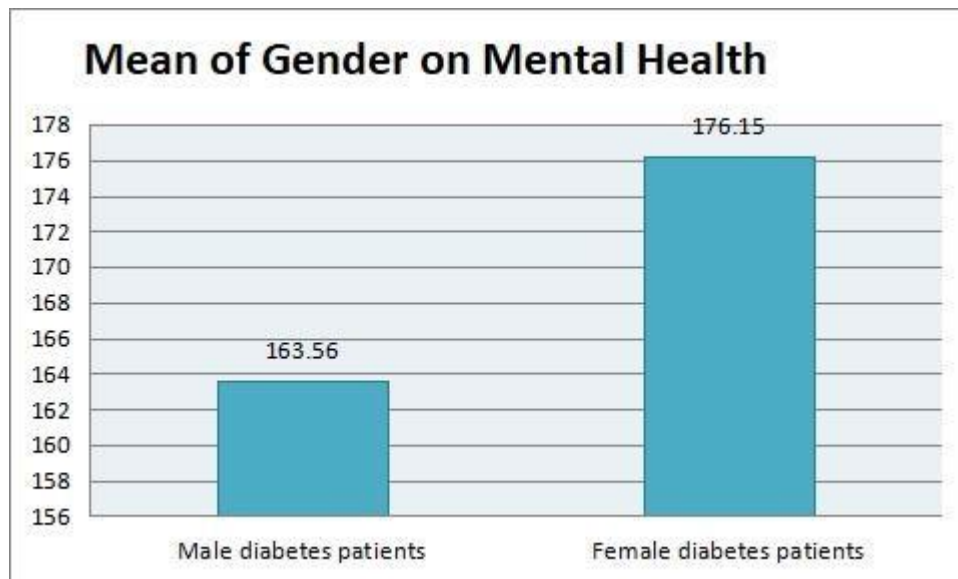
- There will be Female diabetes patient's high levels of Mental Health than Male diabetes patients.

Table No. 01 Mean SD and F Value of Gender on Mental Health

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Mental Health	Male diabetes patients	163.56	8.08	60	118	96.31	0.01
	Female diabetes patients	176.15	9.27	60			

(Critical value of $-f_{ll}$ with df 119 at 0.01 = 6.76 and at 0.05 = 3.89)

Figure No. 01 Mean of Gender on Mental Health



Observation of the Table No.01 and Figure No. 01 in the mental health status of diabetes patients indicated a significant difference between genders. The mean score for male diabetes patients was 163.56 with a standard deviation of 8.08, while female diabetes patients had a mean score of 176.15 with a standard deviation of 9.27. An F-test was conducted to compare the means between the two groups, yielding an F-value of 96.31. This F-value is significant at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, suggesting strong evidence against the null hypothesis.

Given that the F-value exceeded critical values at both significance levels, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference in mental health scores between male and female diabetes patients. The acceptance of the hypothesis indicates that female diabetes patients demonstrate better mental health compared to their male counterparts. The findings from this study align with previous research suggesting that gender differences significantly affect mental health outcomes in chronic illness populations (Bair et al., 2003; Kuehner, 2017). Women generally report higher levels of social support and are more likely to engage in health-seeking behaviors, which could contribute to better mental health outcomes (Möller-Leimkühler, 2003).

The emotional challenges associated with diabetes management can be particularly pronounced. Fluctuating blood glucose levels often lead to increased stress and anxiety, which can exacerbate mental health issues (Fisher et al., 2014). For male diabetes patients,

societal norms around masculinity may also discourage the expression of vulnerability or seeking help, potentially leading to poorer mental health outcomes (Mahalik et al., 2003). Moreover, the higher mental health scores in females may also reflect greater resilience or coping strategies in the face of chronic illness, as women often demonstrate more adaptive coping mechanisms (Tamres et al., 2002).

the analysis indicates that female diabetes patients exhibit significantly better mental health compared to male patients. This finding underscores the importance of considering gender differences in mental health interventions and support systems for diabetes management. Further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms contributing to these differences and to develop tailored strategies that promote mental well-being in both male and female diabetes patients.

LIVING OF AREA ON MENTAL HEALTH

Hypothesis;_02

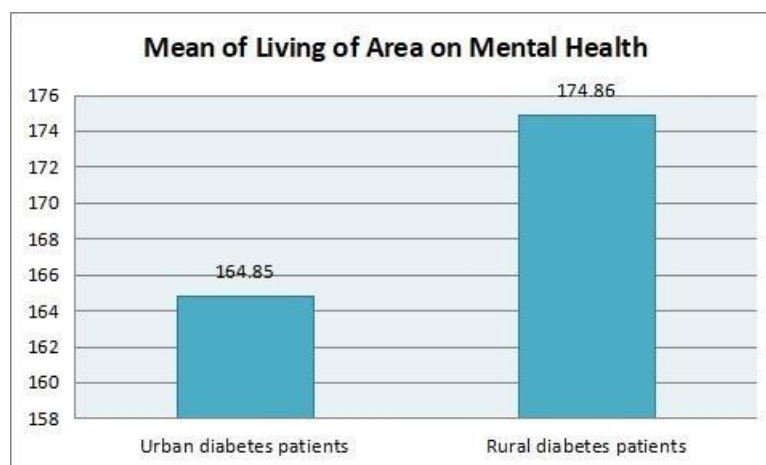
- There will be rural diabetes patients high levels of Mental Health than Urban diabetes patients.

Table No. 02. Mean, SD and F Value of Living of Area on Mental Health

Factor	Living of Area	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Mental Health	Urban diabetes patients	164.85	8.96	60	118	61.03	0.01
	Rural diabetes patients	174.86	10.03	60			

(Critical value of -fll with df 119 at 0.01 = 6.76 and at 0.05 = 3.89)

Figure No. 02. Mean of Living of Area on Mental Health



Observation of the Table No. 02 and Figure No. 02 The analysis of mental health outcomes among diabetes patients based on living area revealed significant differences between urban and rural populations. The mean score for urban diabetes patients was 164.85 with a standard deviation of 8.96, while rural diabetes patients had a higher mean score of 174.86 with a standard deviation of 10.03. An F-test was conducted, resulting in an F-value of 61.03, which is significant at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels. This indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected, and we accept the alternative hypothesis that rural diabetes patients exhibit better mental health than their urban counterparts.

The findings of this study suggest that living in a rural area may be associated with better mental health outcomes for diabetes patients. This aligns with existing literature that highlights the importance of environmental factors on mental well-being (Baker et al., 2006; Zass et al., 2018). Rural areas often provide a stronger sense of community and social support, which are critical components for managing chronic illnesses and promoting mental health (Campbell & Tinsley, 2006). Conversely, urban environments can present unique challenges for diabetes patients. The hustle and bustle of city life, along with higher levels of stress and potentially less access to nature, may contribute to poorer mental health outcomes (Korpela et al., 2011). Urban patients may also face barriers such as limited access to healthcare resources and social isolation, which can exacerbate feelings of distress related to diabetes management (Gonzalez et al., 2008).

Moreover, the emotional challenges of managing diabetes can be intensified by the complexities of urban living, where individuals might experience greater fluctuations in blood glucose levels due to lifestyle factors, leading to increased anxiety and stress (Mazzuca et al., 2018). Rural patients may benefit from a slower pace of life and a closer connection to their environment, which can enhance their coping mechanisms (Ulrich, 1993). The results indicate that rural diabetes patients have significantly better mental health compared to their urban counterparts. These findings underscore the need for targeted mental health interventions that consider the living environment of diabetes patients. Future research should focus on exploring the specific environmental and social factors that contribute to these differences to inform tailored strategies that promote mental well-being across different settings.

CONCLUSIONS

- Female diabetes patients have better mental male than male diabetes patients.
- Rural diabetes patients have better mental health than urban diabetes patients.

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International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 15(7), 1478.

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A Comparative Study of Youth Problems in Male and Female Adolescents

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the youth problems faced by male and female adolescents, focusing on a sample of 100 12th-grade students in Jalna City, comprising 50 males and 50 females aged 17 to 19. Employing a stratified random sampling method, the study utilized the Youth Problems Scale (YPS) developed by M. Verma. Data collection involved individual and small group administration of the YPS. Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS, employing descriptive statistics and ANOVA to assess gender differences in youth problems. The results suggest that male adolescents are more likely to encounter various youth problems, aligning with existing literature highlighting gender differences in behavioral and emotional issues during adolescence.

Keywords: - Youths Problem, male adolescents, female adolescents.

INTRODUCTION:

Adolescence is a transformative period in human development, marked by profound physical, emotional, and social changes. This stage is crucial not only for individual identity formation but also for establishing interpersonal relationships and societal roles. As adolescents navigate these changes, they encounter a unique set of challenges that can differ significantly between genders. Understanding these issues is essential for educators, mental health professionals, and policymakers to provide appropriate support and interventions. This study aims to explore the comparative youth problems faced by male and female adolescents, focusing on psychological, social, and behavioral challenges. Adolescence typically spans the ages of 10 to 19, a time when individuals begin to form a more complex sense of self. According to Erikson's psychosocial development theory, this period is characterized by the conflict between identity and role confusion (Erikson, 1968). During this time, adolescents

seek to establish their identities while grappling with societal expectations and peer influences. The intensity of this developmental stage can lead to various problems, including mental health issues, academic challenges, and social conflicts. Research indicates that boys and girls experience adolescence differently, influenced by a range of biological, psychological, and sociocultural factors. The role of gender socialization is pivotal; from an early age, boys and girls are often socialized into distinct roles that shape their behaviors, expectations, and self-perceptions (Kimmel, 2008). This socialization leads to different coping strategies and responses to stress, which can manifest in various problems during adolescence. Mental health concerns are prevalent among adolescents, but the expression of these issues often differs between genders. Studies show that boys are more likely to exhibit externalizing behaviors such as aggression and delinquency, while girls are more prone to internalizing problems, including anxiety and depression (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2001). For example, research by Klein and colleagues (2015) found that boys often engage in disruptive behaviors as a means of coping with stressors, while girls are more likely to withdraw or ruminate, leading to feelings of sadness and worthlessness. This divergence not only affects their mental health but also influences how they seek help. Girls are generally more likely to express their feelings and seek support, whereas boys may resort to unhealthy coping mechanisms, including substance abuse (Mahalik et al., 2003). Social dynamics during adolescence are complex and can be a source of significant stress. Peer relationships become increasingly important, and adolescents often navigate issues such as bullying, peer pressure, and social acceptance. Gender differences play a crucial role in how these social challenges are experienced. Boys often engage in competitive behaviors and may use aggression to establish dominance within peer groups (Pellegrini & Long, 2002). This can lead to bullying, which is often more overt and physically aggressive among males. In contrast, girls may experience relational aggression, which includes social exclusion and manipulation (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). These social issues can have lasting effects on self-esteem and emotional well-being, highlighting the need for gender-sensitive interventions. Academic performance is another area where gender differences emerge. Research indicates that girls generally outperform boys in school, achieving higher grades and exhibiting better study habits (Buchmann & DiPrete, 2006). However, this academic success does not necessarily translate to higher self-esteem or lower levels of stress. Girls often face pressures to conform to academic and social standards, leading to stress and anxiety (Friedman, 2006). On the other hand, boys may underperform academically due to a lack of engagement or motivation, which can be attributed to societal expectations that prioritize athleticism and toughness over

academic achievement (Watkins & Lee, 2015). This divergence in academic challenges necessitates a tailored approach to support each gender effectively.

The challenges faced by male and female adolescents are complex and multifaceted. Understanding these issues through a gendered lens is crucial for addressing the unique needs of each group. As we move forward, it is essential to foster environments that promote healthy development, resilience, and well-being among all adolescents. Future research and interventions should consider the intersectionality of gender with other social factors to create comprehensive support systems that address the diverse experiences of youth.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Agarwal et al. (2020) found that only 30% of adolescents had access to accurate information about sexual health. The lack of education leads to misinformation, early pregnancies, and sexually transmitted infections (STIs), particularly among females. Choudhury (2019) argues that financial instability leads to stress, which affects academic performance and mental health, particularly among female adolescents who may face additional familial responsibilities. Chung et al., (2016) this study found that gender differences evident in patterns of use. Boys are generally more likely to engage in substance use and risky behaviors and girls often report higher levels of substance use in response to stress and relational issues. Gupta (2015) highlighted that mental health issues often go unrecognized and untreated. This lack of awareness is particularly pronounced in rural areas, where stigma around mental illness persists. Gupta and Verma (2018) found that while boys often engage in more casual relationships, girls tend to experience emotional turmoil due to societal expectations and relationship dynamics. Gupta, R., & Sharma, N. (2017) this study found that Male adolescents often feel pressure to excel in exams, driven by competitive societal norms, while female adolescents may face added pressure to balance academics with household responsibilities. Hankin et al. (2015) suggests that the onset of depressive symptoms is earlier in females, often correlating with body image issues and relational stressors. Jadhav and Waghmare (2013) indicates that around 20% of male adolescents and 10% of females engage in substance use, with alcohol and tobacco being the most common. Johnston et al. (2020) highlights that while boys are more likely to use alcohol and illicit drugs, girls have shown increasing trends in substance use, often linked to mental health challenges. Kessler et al. (2012), females are more likely to experience depression and anxiety, while males often exhibit externalizing behaviors like aggression. Kumar (2018) highlights that while boys may

be more prone to externalizing behaviors, such as aggression, girls often experience internalizing issues like depression and anxiety. Kumar et al. (2011) conducted a study in Delhi and found that 40% of adolescents exhibited symptoms of depression, with females more likely to report these symptoms than males. Mehta (2017) found that both male and female adolescents are susceptible to peer pressure, leading to risky behaviors such as substance abuse and unsafe sexual practices. Rao (2021) indicates that female adolescents often grapple with societal expectations regarding beauty and behavior, impacting their self-esteem. In contrast, male adolescents may face pressure to conform to ideals of masculinity, influencing their emotional health. Sharma (2018) reveal that while enrollment rates for girls have improved, drop-out rates remain high due to early marriages and socio-cultural expectations. Conversely, male adolescents often face pressure to succeed academically and financially, leading to increased stress and mental health issues. Sharma and Reddy (2019) explored how excessive screen time and social media usage affect adolescent mental health, contributing to issues like cyberbullying and social isolation. Sharma and Singh (2019) indicates that boys are more likely to engage in substance use, while girls often face stigmatization that inhibits open discussions about their experiences. Singh (2016) reported that 40% of girls experienced some form of violence, including harassment and physical abuse. This violence not only affects their physical health but also has long-term psychological implications. Verma et al. (2020), the normalization of violence against women in various cultural contexts contributes to the perpetuation of this issue, often leading to mental health struggles among affected girls.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

To Study Youth Problem of Male and Female Adolescence.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To examine the Youths problems among Male and Female Adolescents

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is no significant difference between Male and Female Adolescents among Youths problems.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

In this study, the population consists of all 12th class students in Jalna city, stratified random sample of 100 students was drawn from this population, ensuring equal representation by gender (50 Male and 50 Female). The students in the sample were aged between 17 and 19 years. The gender ratio in the sample was 1:1."

RESEARCH DESIGN:

Simple Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Table No.01 variable

Variable	Type of variable	Sub. Variable	Name of variable
Gender	Independent	02	1) Male Adolescents 2) Female Adolescents
	Dependent		Youths Problems

RESEARCH TOOLS:-

Table N0.02 Youth Problems Scale (YPS)

Aspect	Name of the Test	Author	
Youth Problems	Youth Problems Scale (YPS)	M. Verma	Item- 80
			Reliability - 0.80.
			Validity -0.75.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION:-

For the present study 100 samples were used and this instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group ware adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and their seating arrangements, was made in a Place. Tests were

administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data were collected.

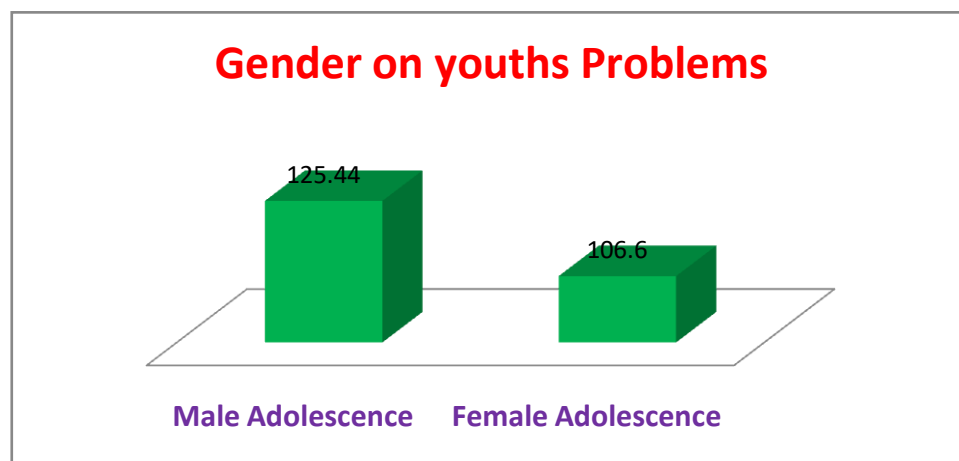
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation and ANOVA was done by using SPSS Software.

Table No.03 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Genderon youths Problems

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
youths Problems	Male Adolescence	125.44	8.38	50	98	28.771	0.01
	Female Adolescence	106.60	15.42	50			

Graph No. 01 Mean of Genderon parenting style



The results presented in Table No. 03 and Figure No. 01 reveal a significant gender difference in youth problems. The analysis shows that male adolescents reported a higher mean score ($M = 125.44$, $SD = 8.38$) compared to female adolescents ($M = 106.60$, $SD = 15.42$). The F-value of 28.771, with degrees of freedom (1, 99), and a significance level of $p < 0.01$, indicates that this difference is statistically significant.

The substantial difference in mean scores suggests that male adolescents are more likely to experience various youth problems compared to their female counterparts. This aligns with previous research that highlights gender differences in behavioral and emotional issues among adolescents. For example, studies have shown that males often exhibit higher levels of externalizing behaviors, such as aggression and risk-taking, while females may demonstrate higher levels of internalizing problems, like anxiety and depression (Lloyd et al., 2020; Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012). Several factors may contribute to the observed differences in youth

problems between genders. Socialization processes may play a significant role; boys are often encouraged to adopt more aggressive and competitive behaviors, while girls may be socialized to be more nurturing and relational (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Additionally, biological

CONCLUSION and expression of these problems (Moffitt et al., 2001).

Male adolescents are more prone to experiencing a range of youth problems compared to their female adolescents.

The behavioral and emotional challenges faced by adolescents often differ by gender. Male adolescents tend to exhibit higher levels of externalizing behaviors, such as aggression, impulsivity, and risk-taking. In contrast, female adolescents more frequently demonstrate internalizing problems, such as anxiety and depression. This divergence in behavioral expression may stem from various social, cultural, and biological factors that influence how boys and girls respond to stressors during adolescence. Male adolescents is essential for developing effective support systems. By addressing the specific needs of this group, stakeholders can promote healthier outcomes and enhance overall well-being during this critical developmental period.

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E-Governance in Local Self-Government: Adapting to the Digital Era and Addressing Contemporary Challenges

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ABSTRACT:

This paper explores how e-governance is transforming local self-government, particularly its adaptation to the digital age and the current challenges it encounters. E-governance has the potential to improve the efficiency, transparency, and responsiveness of local governments, but it also presents various challenges, such as digital divide, data security, and resistance to change. The study examines the advantages and obstacles of implementing e-governance in local self-government and proposes strategies to overcome these challenges for successful digital.

Keywords- E-Governance in Local Self-Government.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, e-governance has emerged as a powerful tool for transforming the functioning of governments around the world. E-governance, or electronic governance, refers to the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) to improve the delivery of government services, enhance citizen participation, and promote transparency and accountability in governance. While much attention has been given to e-governance at the national and regional levels, its impact on local self-government has been equally significant. Local self-government refers to the administration of local affairs by elected representatives and officials who have the authority to make decisions and implement policies at the local level. It plays a crucial role in addressing the needs and aspirations of citizens by providing essential services such as water supply, sanitation, education, and health care. The integration of e-governance in local self-government has the potential to revolutionize the way these services are delivered and improve the quality of life for citizens.

This paper looks at how e-governance is evolving in local self-government, particularly in relation to the digital age and the obstacles it encounters. It starts by discussing the advantages of e-governance in local self-government and its ability to enhance service

delivery, citizen participation, and openness. Next, it highlights the difficulties and obstacles in implementing e-governance at the local level, such as problems with technology, infrastructure, and human resources. Lastly, the paper proposes solutions for overcoming these challenges and ensuring effective implementation of e-governance in local self- government.

Benefits of E-Governance in Local Self-Government

❖ Improved Service Delivery

One of the primary benefits of e-governance in local self-government is the improvement in service delivery. E-governance enables local governments to provide services more efficiently and effectively by streamlining processes, reducing paperwork, and automating routine tasks. For example, citizens can access services such as birth and death certificates, property tax payments, and utility bill payments online, saving them time and effort.

E-governance also allows local governments to offer services 24/7, increasing accessibility and convenience for citizens. With online portals and mobile applications, citizens can access services and information from anywhere, at any time. This is particularly beneficial for individuals with disabilities, elderly citizens, and those living in remote areas who may find it difficult to visit government offices in person.

❖ Enhanced Citizen Engagement

E-governance provides opportunities for enhanced citizen engagement by facilitating communication and interaction between citizens and local government officials. Online platforms and social media channels allow citizens to voice their opinions, provide feedback, and participate in decision-making processes. This helps build trust and strengthens the relationship between citizens and local governments.

Local governments can also use e-governance tools to conduct surveys and gather data on citizen preferences and needs. This information can be used to design policies and programs that are more responsive to the needs of the community. Furthermore, e-governance platforms can facilitate participatory budgeting, allowing citizens to have a say in how local government resources are allocated.

❖ Increased Transparency and Accountability

E-governance promotes transparency and accountability in local self-government by providing citizens with access to information and enabling them to monitor government activities. Online portals and websites can be used to publish information on government

budgets, expenditures, and project progress, allowing citizens to hold local government officials accountable for their actions.

Transparency is further enhanced through the use of open data platforms, which allow citizens to access and analyze government data in various formats. This promotes a culture of openness and accountability and helps prevent corruption and misuse of public resources.

Challenges of Implementing E-Governance in Local Self-Government

❖ Digital Divide

One of the most significant challenges in implementing e-governance in local self-government is the digital divide. The digital divide refers to the gap between individuals and communities that have access to information and communication technologies and those that do not. This divide can be attributed to various factors, including socioeconomic status, geographic location, and age.

In many regions, particularly in rural and underserved areas, access to the internet and digital devices is limited. This makes it difficult for citizens to access e-governance services and participate in digital initiatives. Addressing the digital divide requires investments in infrastructure, such as expanding broadband coverage and providing affordable internet access to underserved communities.

❖ Data Security and Privacy Concerns

Data security and privacy concerns are critical issues in the implementation of e-governance in local self-government. The use of digital platforms involves the collection, storage, and processing of large amounts of personal and sensitive data. Ensuring the security and privacy of this data is essential to maintain public trust and confidence in e-governance systems.

Local governments must implement robust cybersecurity measures to protect data from unauthorized access, breaches, and cyberattacks. This includes using encryption technologies, implementing access controls, and conducting regular security audits. Additionally, local governments must establish clear data privacy policies and ensure that citizens are informed about how their data is collected, used, and protected.

❖ Resistance to Change

Resistance to change is another challenge that local self-governments face in implementing e-governance. Resistance can come from various sources, including government officials, employees, and citizens who may be reluctant to adopt new technologies and processes. This resistance can be due to a lack of understanding of the benefits of e-governance, fear of job loss, or concerns about the complexity of new systems.

To address resistance to change, local governments must invest in capacity building and training programs for government officials and employees. These programs should focus on building digital skills, fostering a culture of innovation, and demonstrating the benefits of e-governance. Additionally, local governments must engage with citizens through awareness campaigns and educational initiatives to highlight the advantages of e-governance and encourage participation.

Strategies for Successful Implementation of E-Governance in Local Self-Government

❖ Infrastructure Development

Developing the necessary infrastructure is a critical step in the successful implementation of e-governance in local self-government. This includes investing in broadband networks, data centers, and digital platforms that can support e-governance initiatives. Local governments should collaborate with national governments, private sector partners, and international organizations to secure funding and resources for infrastructure development.

In addition to physical infrastructure, local governments must also focus on developing the technological infrastructure required to support e-governance systems. This includes implementing interoperable systems and standards that enable seamless data sharing and integration across different government departments and agencies.

❖ Capacity Building and Training

Capacity building and training are essential for ensuring that local government officials and employees have the skills and knowledge needed to implement and manage e-governance systems effectively. Training programs should focus on building digital literacy, developing technical skills, and fostering a culture of innovation and collaboration.

Local governments should also provide training and support to citizens to help them access and use e-governance services. This can be achieved through community workshops, online tutorials, and help centers that offer guidance and assistance to citizens.

❖ Stakeholder Engagement

Engaging stakeholders, including government officials, employees, citizens, and private sector partners, is crucial for the successful implementation of e-governance in local self-government. Local governments should establish mechanisms for stakeholder consultation and collaboration, such as advisory boards, working groups, and public forums.

Stakeholder engagement helps build consensus and support for e-governance initiatives and ensures that the needs and concerns of different groups are considered in the decision-making process. It also fosters a sense of ownership and accountability among

stakeholders, encouraging them to actively participate in and contribute to e-governance efforts.

❖ **Policy and Regulatory Framework**

Establishing a clear policy and regulatory framework is essential for guiding the implementation of e-governance in local self-government. This framework should outline the roles and responsibilities of different stakeholders, set standards for data security and privacy, and provide guidelines for the use of digital platforms and technologies.

Local governments should work closely with national governments and regulatory bodies to develop policies and regulations that support e-governance initiatives and address issues such as cybersecurity, data protection, and digital inclusion.

CONCLUSION

E-governance has the potential to transform local self-government by improving service delivery, enhancing citizen engagement, and promoting transparency and accountability. However, the successful implementation of e-governance in local self-government requires addressing various challenges, including the digital divide, data security and privacy concerns, and resistance to change.

By investing in infrastructure development, capacity building, stakeholder engagement, and policy and regulatory frameworks, local governments can overcome these challenges and harness the benefits of e-governance to improve the quality of life for citizens. As local self-governments continue to adapt to the digital era, e-governance will play an increasingly important role in shaping the future of governance and service delivery at the local level.

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A STUDY OF MENTAL HEALTH ISSUES ON SUICIDAL IDEATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AMONG STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The study aimed to investigate the relationship between mental health issues—specifically anxiety, depression, and stress and suicidal ideation among school-going students in Chhatrapati Sambhajanagar District, Maharashtra. A total of 50 students (25 boys and 25 girls), aged 16 to 18, were assessed using the Anxiety, Depression, and Stress Scale (Bhatnagar, 2011) and the Suicidal Ideation Scale (Sisodia & Bhatnagar, 2005). The data were analyzed using Pearson's correlation to determine the strength and significance of the relationship between the psychological factors and suicidal ideation. The findings suggest that stress is a significant predictor of suicidal ideation in school-going students, while anxiety and depression are not significant factors.

Keywords: Suicidal ideation, Anxiety, Depression, Stress, School students.

INTRODUCTION

Suicide, which is one of the leading causes of death among adolescents worldwide, often begins with suicidal thoughts, reflecting the deep psychological distress many children face (World Health Organization, 2014). Mental health issues such as depression, anxiety, and emotional dysregulation are consistently identified as primary risk factors for suicidal ideation in this vulnerable age group (Thompson et al., 2012). Early identification and intervention for children experiencing these issues are crucial in preventing the progression from suicidal thoughts to suicide attempts. Suicidal ideation among school-aged children is a growing concern, reflecting a complex interplay of psychological, social, and environmental factors. Suicide is a significant public health issue, and suicidal thoughts or ideation often serve as a critical indicator of underlying mental health problems. Among schoolchildren, early identification of such ideation is crucial, as it can be a precursor to more severe outcomes, including attempts at suicide (Bertolote et al., 2004). The pressures of academic

performance, social integration, family expectations, and sometimes bullying, further exacerbate the psychological burden on students, leading to increased vulnerability (Gini & Espelage, 2014).

Mental health issues like depression, anxiety, and stress have been repeatedly linked to suicidal thoughts among students. Children and adolescents who experience chronic stress or adverse childhood experiences, such as abuse, neglect, or exposure to violence, are more likely to develop suicidal ideation (De Man & Leduc, 1995). Peer relationships and family dynamics play a crucial role in either exacerbating or mitigating these tendencies. The presence of supportive relationships can often serve as a buffer against these mental health struggles, while the absence or dysfunctionality of these relationships may increase the risk (Borowsky, Ireland, & Resnick, 2001). Preventative measures, including psychological counseling, mental health education, and suicide prevention programs in schools, are essential to reducing the risk of suicidal ideation in children. Early interventions focusing on improving resilience, fostering open communication, and creating a supportive school environment can be key in mitigating these risks (Wasserman et al., 2012). One of the primary psychological conditions linked to suicidal ideation is depression. Children and adolescents who experience depressive symptoms such as persistent sadness, feelings of hopelessness, and a loss of interest in previously enjoyed activities—are at an increased risk of developing suicidal thoughts (Lewinsohn et al., 1994). Anxiety disorders, which include social anxiety and generalized anxiety disorder, are also associated with heightened risks. These mental health challenges create overwhelming feelings of helplessness, contributing to suicidal ideation when children feel incapable of coping with their emotional pain (Kessler et al., 2005).

The interplay between mental health disorders and environmental stressors further intensifies this issue. Factors such as academic pressure, bullying, and strained family relationships have been found to exacerbate mental health problems, increasing the likelihood of suicidal ideation (King & Merchant, 2008). For instance, bullying, whether physical, emotional, or cyber, has been shown to significantly elevate the risk of mental health problems and suicidal behavior in school-aged children (Kim et al., 2005). Similarly, children from dysfunctional or neglectful family environments often face additional mental health challenges, which can manifest in suicidal thoughts (Borowsky, Ireland, & Resnick, 2001).

Moreover, many children with mental health issues may not seek help due to stigma, lack of awareness, or limited access to mental health services (Barker, 2007). This can result in a silent crisis where students suffer from untreated mental health conditions that place them at greater risk for suicide. School-based mental health programs, suicide prevention initiatives, and efforts to reduce the stigma associated with mental illness are essential strategies for addressing this growing concern (Wasserman et al., 2012).

Mental health issues

Mental health issues such as anxiety, depression, and stress play a critical role in the development of suicidal ideation, particularly among adolescents and school-aged children. These psychological conditions are often interconnected, exacerbating one another and contributing to feelings of hopelessness, helplessness, and emotional distress—all of which are key risk factors for suicidal thoughts (Nock et al., 2013). Early identification and intervention for these mental health challenges are crucial in preventing the progression from ideation to suicidal attempts and, ultimately, tragic outcomes.

Anxiety is one of the most prevalent mental health disorders among children and adolescents and has been closely linked to suicidal ideation. Young individuals experiencing anxiety often feel intense fear or worry, leading to impaired daily functioning and social withdrawal. Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), social anxiety, and panic disorders can significantly contribute to a sense of overwhelming stress and desperation, pushing vulnerable students towards suicidal thoughts (Kendall et al., 2007). Studies have shown that children with high levels of anxiety are at an increased risk for suicidal ideation, particularly when compounded by other stressors such as academic pressure and interpersonal conflicts (Spirito & Esposito-Smythers, 2006).

Depression is another major mental health issue that strongly correlates with suicidal ideation. Symptoms such as persistent sadness, feelings of worthlessness, and loss of interest in activities can lead to the development of suicidal thoughts, particularly in young individuals who struggle to regulate their emotions. Depressed children and adolescents often feel trapped in their emotional pain, and the inability to envision a positive future increases the risk of suicidal ideation (Lewinsohn et al., 1994). Depressive episodes are particularly dangerous when combined with other stressors, creating a cumulative effect that can exacerbate suicidal thinking (Bridge et al., 2006).

Stress, whether related to academics, family issues, or peer relationships, further amplifies the risk of suicidal ideation. Chronic stress has been shown to impair mental health by triggering anxiety and depression, creating a cycle of psychological distress that is difficult for young people to escape (Drapeau et al., 2012). Adolescents often face significant pressure to perform academically, fit into social groups, and meet family expectations, all of which can create a sense of being overwhelmed. When students perceive no escape from these stressors, they may develop suicidal thoughts as a means of coping or seeking relief (Esposito-Smythers et al., 2006).

This study aims to examine the relationship between mental health issues and suicidal ideation among schoolchildren, focusing on how psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety contribute to the development of suicidal thoughts. Understanding these relationships will inform the development of effective intervention programs designed to promote mental well-being and reduce the risk of suicide among students.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Mental health issues on Suicidal Ideation

Barker, (2007) this study found that efforts to reduce the stigma associated with mental illness and to promote open communication about mental health can empower students to seek help when they are struggling. **Grover et al., (2009)** this study found that children who experience both high levels of stress and symptoms of depression or anxiety are at a particularly elevated risk of suicidal thoughts. **Marttunen et al. (1991)** found that comorbid depression and anxiety disorders were associated with a marked increase in suicidal ideation in adolescents. **Nock et al., (2013)** this study found that Adolescents who experience more than one mental health disorder are at a significantly higher risk of developing suicidal ideation and engaging in suicidal behavior.

Anxiety and Suicidal Ideation

Bansal et al. (2011). They found that adolescents who experienced high levels of academic stress were more likely to suffer from anxiety and subsequently develop suicidal thoughts. **Carter et al., (2006)** these studies have found that children with comorbid anxiety and depression exhibit significantly higher levels of suicidal ideation than those with anxiety alone. **Deb et al. (2015)** conducted a large-scale study on Indian school students and found that 20% of the adolescents exhibited symptoms of anxiety, with a significant proportion also

reporting suicidal ideation. These figures are consistent with international trends but are compounded by India-specific stressors such as high academic expectations, societal pressure, and a lack of mental health awareness in schools. **Esposito & Clum, (2002)** this study found that young individuals with anxiety disorders, such as generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) and social anxiety, are more likely to experience suicidal thoughts, particularly when anxiety is compounded by other factors like stress or social isolation. **Kendall et al., (2007)** this study indicted that Anxiety symptoms, including excessive worry, fear of failure, and social withdrawal, can create feelings of hopelessness, which are directly related to suicidal ideation. **Padhy et al. (2015)** on schoolchildren in Odisha revealed that anxiety was a significant predictor of suicidal ideation, with 25% of the participants reporting both anxiety and suicidal thoughts. The authors emphasized the role of cultural stigma and the absence of adequate mental health support in schools as contributing factors to the high rates of anxiety-related suicidal ideation among Indian adolescents.

Depression and Suicidal Ideation

Bansal et al. (2009), which revealed that 27% of school-going adolescents in Chandigarh showed symptoms of depression, and many of them reported suicidal ideation as a direct consequence of their depressive symptoms. **Bridge et al., (2006)** This study found that Depressed individuals often feel trapped in their emotional pain, unable to envision a positive future, which makes suicide appear as a potential escape from their distress. **Deb et al. (2016)**, approximately 30% of adolescents in India experience symptoms of depression, and about 20% report having suicidal thoughts. **Lewinsohn et al., (1994)** these Studies have shown that depressive symptoms, such as persistent sadness, hopelessness, and emotional withdrawal, significantly contribute to the development of suicidal thoughts. **Sahoo and Khess (2010)** on school-going adolescents in Ranchi, it was found that depression was significantly associated with suicidal ideation. **Verma et al. (2012)** conducted in Delhi found that adolescents who reported higher levels of academic pressure also experienced more severe depressive symptoms and were more likely to have suicidal thoughts. **Weissman et al. (1999)** found that individuals who experienced depressive episodes in their adolescence were more likely to engage in suicidal behaviors later in life. These findings underscore the need for early intervention and treatment of depression in schoolchildren to prevent the development of chronic mental health problems that may lead to suicidal ideation.

Stress and Suicidal Ideation

Ang & Huan, (2006) this study found that Academic stress is particularly relevant in the context of schoolchildren, as they frequently face high expectations for academic achievement, which can lead to feelings of inadequacy and hopelessness if they perceive themselves as failing to meet these expectations. **Choudhry et al. (2017)** this study found that girls were more likely to internalize stress, leading to feelings of hopelessness and suicidal ideation. **Compas et al., (2017)** this study found that Stress, particularly chronic or prolonged stress, has been identified as a significant factor in the onset of suicidal ideation in students. Adolescents often face a variety of stressors, including academic pressure, family conflict, and social challenges, all of which can negatively impact their mental health. **Drapeau et al., (2012)** this study found that stress becomes overwhelming and unmanageable, it can trigger or exacerbate mental health conditions like anxiety and depression, which in turn increase the likelihood of suicidal thoughts. **Kim et al., (2005)** this study found that stress related to peer relationships, such as bullying or social exclusion, has been found to significantly increase the risk of suicidal ideation, especially when combined with other mental health issues. **Mishra et al. (2018)** this study indicated that students who were victims of bullying reported significantly higher levels of stress, with many of them expressing suicidal thoughts. **Nair et al. (2016)** on adolescents in Kerala found that girls reported significantly higher levels of stress compared to boys, with many of them expressing suicidal thoughts. **Sahoo and Khess (2010)** further explored this issue in a study conducted in Ranchi, finding that students who struggled with academic pressure often reported experiencing higher levels of stress, which significantly contributed to suicidal ideation.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To Study Mental Health issues on Suicidal Ideation of School Children among Students

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To investigate the correlation such Anxiety, Depression and Stress with suicidal ideation among school Going Students.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is no significant correlation between anxiety on suicidal ideation among school Going Students.
- There is no significant correlation between depression on suicidal ideation among school Going Students.
- There is no significant correlation between Stress on suicidal ideation among school Going Students.

METHODOLOGY:

SAMPLE:

In the present study, a total of 50 school-going students from Chhatrapati Sambhajnagar District, Maharashtra, were included. The sample consisted of 25 boys and 25 girls, all aged between 16 and 18 years. Quota sampling was employed to ensure balanced representation across genders.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

The present study Simple research design was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent Variables –

- 1) Gender 1) Boys school Going Students 2) 25 Girls school Going Students

Dependent Variables –

- 1) **Psychological factors** - 1) Anxiety, 2) Depression 3) Stress 2) **suicidal ideation**

RESEARCH TOOLS

Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale (2011)

The Anxiety, Depression, and Stress Scale (2011) was developed by Pallavi Bhatnagar and is an appropriate tool for assessing an individual's anxiety, depression, and stress levels. The scale consists of 48 items, divided into three categories: anxiety, depression, and stress. Each item is scored 1 for a "YES" response and 0 for a "NO" response. The score ranges are 0-19 for the anxiety subscale, 0-15 for the depression subscale, and 0-14 for the stress subscale.

Higher scores indicate greater levels of anxiety, depression, and stress, while lower scores indicate lesser levels. The reliability of the scale is reported to be between 0.81 and 0.89, with validity also between 0.81 and 0.89.

Suicidal Ideation Scale (2005)

The Suicidal Ideation Scale, developed by Devendra Singh Sisodia and Vibhuti Bhatnagar (2011), was used to assess suicidal ideation among patients. The scale consists of 25 statements, of which 21 are positive and 4 are negative. Each statement has five possible responses: Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. The reliability of the scale is reported to be 0.75 and 0.71, with a validity of 0.74.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

In the present study, a sample of 50 participants was used, and two instruments were administered both individually and in small groups. Participants were gathered in groups of 5-10, with appropriate seating arrangements in a designated room. Following the instructions and procedures recommended by the test authors, the tests were administered, and fieldcopies of each test were collected. This process was repeated to gather the complete dataset. Primary information was collected through personal information forms provided to each participant with diabetes. General instructions for each scale were given to participants before they completed the inventories.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation. At the second stage data were subjected to correlation. Finally, the analysis was done by using SPSS Software.

correlation between Suicidal Ideation and anxiety

Hypothesis; 01

- There is no significant correlation between anxiety on suicidal ideation among school Going Students.

Table No.01. Mean, SD, N and Correlation between Suicidal Ideation and anxiety

Factors	Mean	SD	N	Pearson - r
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Suicidal Ideation	99.10	6.06	50	0.044
Anxiety	16.10	1.24	50	

Mean of Suicidal Ideation is 99.10, S.D. is 6.06 and another mean of Anxiety is 16.10, S.D. is 1.24 and no significant at both (0.01 and 0.05) levels. ($r = 0.044$). The Pearson correlation coefficient ($r = 0.044$) measures the strength and direction of the linear relationship between anxiety and suicidal ideation. The value of 0.044 indicates a very weak positive correlation between the two variables, meaning that as anxiety levels increase slightly, suicidal ideation also increases slightly, but this relationship is negligible. Given that the correlation coefficient is very close to zero and does not reach statistical significance at the 0.01 or 0.05 levels, we accept the null hypothesis (H_0), which states that there is no significant correlation between anxiety and suicidal ideation. The alternative hypothesis (H_1), which suggests there is a significant correlation, is rejected.

The findings from this study suggest that anxiety is not a significant predictor of suicidal ideation among school-going students. The weak correlation ($r = 0.044$) and lack of significance indicate that anxiety does not have a meaningful direct influence on the likelihood of suicidal thoughts in this population. This could imply that while anxiety is a common mental health concern, other factors might be more critical in influencing suicidal ideation among adolescents. This finding contrasts with some previous research, where anxiety has been identified as a potential risk factor for suicidal ideation. However, many studies highlight that anxiety alone is not the strongest predictor; instead, it is often other comorbid conditions like depression or feelings of hopelessness that play a more direct role in triggering suicidal ideation. For instance, Thompson et al. (2005) found that while anxiety can exacerbate suicidal behaviors, it often interacts with other psychological issues, such as depression and hopelessness, to increase the risk. Similarly, Gili et al. (2013) noted that anxiety disorders are linked to suicidal ideation primarily when coupled with other mental health problems. The very weak correlation found in this study could be due to the developmental stage of the participants. Adolescents, especially school-going students, are subject to rapid emotional and psychological changes, and their anxiety might not translate directly into suicidal ideation. Other contextual factors like academic stress, peer relationships, family environment, and coping mechanisms could buffer or exacerbate the effects of anxiety on suicidal ideation. For instance, adolescents with strong social support may experience anxiety without progressing to

suicidal thoughts, as suggested by Spirito et al. (2003). It's important to recognize that while anxiety may not show a direct correlation with suicidal ideation in this sample, other risk factors could still be influencing the results. Research shows that factors such as depressive symptoms, substance abuse, and negative life events may be stronger predictors of suicidal ideation. Joiner's (2005) Interpersonal Theory of Suicide posits that suicidal ideation often arises from a combination of factors, including thwarted belongingness and perceived burdensomeness, which may not be directly related to anxiety.

The low correlation observed in this study suggests that anxiety may not be the most prominent factor in predicting suicidal ideation among school-going students, but it does not rule out the potential indirect effects of anxiety when combined with other psychological and environmental factors.

correlation between Suicidal Ideation and Depression

Hypothesis; 02

- There is no significant correlation between Depression on suicidal ideation among school Going Students.

Table No.02 Mean, SD, N and Correlation between Suicidal Ideation and Depression

Factors	Mean	SD	N	Pearson - r
Suicidal Ideation	99.10	6.06	50	0.022
Depression	11.08	1.14	50	

Mean of Suicidal Ideation is 99.10, S.D. is 6.06 and another mean of Depression is 11.06, S.D. is 1.14 and no significant at both (0.01 and 0.05) levels. ($r = 0.022$). The Pearson correlation coefficient ($r = 0.022$) measures the strength and direction of the linear relationship between depression and suicidal ideation. A correlation value of 0.022 suggests a very weak positive relationship between depression and suicidal ideation, which is negligible.

Given that the correlation coefficient does not reach statistical significance at either the 0.01 or 0.05 levels, we accept the null hypothesis (H_0), which posits that there is no significant correlation between depression and suicidal ideation. The alternative hypothesis (H_1), suggesting a significant correlation, is rejected.

The statistical analysis reveals that there is no significant correlation between depression and suicidal ideation in the sample of school-going students. Despite the fact that depression is often considered a key risk factor for suicidal ideation, the weak correlation

coefficient ($r = 0.022$) indicates that depression levels in this group are not meaningfully related to their suicidal ideation.

The findings suggest that depression, while potentially present in some students, does not have a significant direct effect on suicidal ideation in this population. This result may be influenced by the developmental stage of adolescents, who often experience fluctuating emotions that are not always linked to clinical depression or suicidal tendencies. Adolescents may also possess coping mechanisms or social supports that mitigate the impact of depressive symptoms on suicidal thoughts. Previous research has extensively linked depression to suicidal ideation and behaviors, particularly in adolescents. Depression is considered one of the most important predictors of suicidal thoughts and attempts. Studies such as Thompson et al. (2005) and Nock et al. (2013) have demonstrated that depressive symptoms, including feelings of hopelessness and worthlessness, are strong risk factors for suicidal ideation.

correlation between Stress on suicidal ideation

Hypothesis; 03

- There is no significant correlation between Stress on suicidal ideation among school Going Students.

Table No.03 Mean, SD, N and Correlation between Suicidal Ideation and Stress

Factors	Mean	SD	N	Pearson - r
Suicidal Ideation	99.10	6.06	50	0.334**
Stress	10.48	1.92	50	

Mean of Suicidal Ideation is 99.10, S.D. is 6.06 and another mean of Stress is 10.48, S.D. is 1.92 and significant at both (0.01 and 0.05) levels. ($r = 0.334$). The Pearson correlation coefficient ($r = 0.334$) suggests a moderate positive correlation between stress and suicidal ideation among school-going students. This indicates that as stress increases, suicidal ideation also tends to increase in the sample. Additionally, this correlation is significant at both 0.01 and 0.05 levels, suggesting that the relationship between stress and suicidal ideation is statistically significant. Since the correlation is significant, the null hypothesis (H_0), which posits that there is no significant correlation between stress

and suicidal ideation, is rejected. The alternative hypothesis (H_1), which asserts a significant correlation between these variables, is accepted. The statistical analysis shows a significant moderate positive correlation between stress and suicidal ideation ($r = 0.334$) in this group of school-going students. This indicates that students who experience higher levels of stress are more likely to have suicidal thoughts. This result is important, as it highlights the role of stress as a predictor of suicidal ideation in adolescents.

Stress, especially among adolescents, can arise from a variety of sources, including academic pressure, family conflicts, social relationships, and future uncertainties. Adolescence is a particularly vulnerable period where individuals experience heightened emotional responses to stress, which may lead to suicidal ideation as a coping mechanism for overwhelming feelings of distress. This finding is consistent with prior research that links stress to increased mental health challenges in adolescents. Studies have shown that chronic stress can lead to feelings of hopelessness, emotional exhaustion, and withdrawal, all of which are risk factors for suicidal ideation. According to Liu & Miller (2014), adolescents who experience persistent stress are more likely to exhibit suicidal behaviors because their ability to cope with stress is often underdeveloped. The significant correlation between stress and suicidal ideation found in this study aligns with research from Zhang et al. (2019), who identified stress as one of the key factors that contributes to the onset of suicidal thoughts in adolescents. The pressures of academic performance, social comparison, and family expectations can accumulate over time, leading to psychological distress and suicidal ideation, particularly in those who lack adequate social support or coping mechanisms. The results indicate a significant moderate positive correlation between stress and suicidal ideation among school-going students, suggesting that stress is a key predictor of suicidal thoughts in this population. This finding underscores the importance of stress management programs and mental health

interventions in schools to address the growing concern of adolescent suicide. Preventive efforts should focus on teaching students how to cope with stress, providing mental health support, and fostering environments that reduce stressors such as academic pressure and social isolation.

CONCLUSIONS

- 1) anxiety is not a significant predictor of suicidal ideation among school-going students.
- 2) there is no significant correlation between depression and suicidal ideation among school-going students.
- 3) significant moderate positive correlation between stress and suicidal ideation among school-going students.

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Fear of Missing Out, Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope Among Emerging Adults

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ABSTRACT

The study aimed to investigate the relationships between Fear of Missing Out (FoMO), Fear of Negative Evaluation (FNE), and Hope among 200 emerging adults aged 18 to 30, using convenient sampling. The study also examined gender differences in these variables. The Fear of Missing Out Scale, the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale, and the Adult Hope Scale were used for data collection. Results indicated a significant positive correlation between FoMO and FNE but no significant relationships between FoMO and Hope or between FNE and Hope. Gender differences were also observed: females scored higher on FoMO, FNE, and Hope, though these differences were not statistically significant. The findings contribute to understanding how FoMO and FNE are interrelated and highlight the need for further exploration of these dynamics and gender influences in the context of emerging adulthood.

Keywords- Fear of Missing Out, Fear of Negative Evaluation, Hope.

INTRODUCTION

Emerging adulthood, the transitional phase from 18 to 30 years, is characterized by optimism and a sense of endless possibilities, where individuals explore their identities, face instability, and delay major life events like marriage and stable work. However, this stage also introduces psychological challenges, notably the fear of missing out (FoMO) and fear of

negative evaluation (FNE), alongside the critical role of hope. FoMO, a relatively new phenomenon, refers to the anxiety that others are having better experiences, especially amplified by social media. This fear can persist even when individuals believe they've made the right choices, leading to dissatisfaction and social comparison. In contrast, FNE centers around the anxiety of being judged or criticized by others, often causing individuals to avoid social evaluative situations. High levels of FNE are linked to negative self-perceptions and behaviors to avoid criticism, reinforcing the cycle of anxiety. Both FoMO and FNE can erode self-esteem, contributing to feelings of social inferiority or loneliness. On the positive side, hope, defined as a motivational state involving goal-directed energy and planning, acts as a buffer, fostering resilience and optimism. In a world dominated by social media and constant connectivity, understanding how FoMO, FNE, and hope interact is vital for helping emerging adults cope with these psychological pressures. Researchers are focusing on these dynamics to develop interventions aimed at promoting resilience, authentic goal-setting, and a healthier mindset, empowering young adults to navigate life with confidence and adaptability.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Rodebaugh et al., (2011) conducted a study on The longitudinal relationship between fear of positive evaluation and fear of negative evaluation in a sample of undergraduate students using Fear of Positive Evaluation Scale, Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale- Straightforward Items, Social Interaction Anxiety Scale, Social Phobia Scale and Social anxiety index and found out that Fear of Positive Evaluation and Fear of Negative Evaluation appear to be moderately correlated, but clearly separable constructs that have trait-like components that explain much of their inter-correlation.

Kocovski& Endler (2000) conducted a study on -Social Anxiety, Self-Regulation, and Fear of Negative Evaluation in a sample of 174 undergraduates using Endler Multidimensional Anxiety Scales, Spielberger State Depression Inventory, Generalized Expectancy for Success Scale, Self-Consciousness Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale and Frequency of Self-Reinforcement Questionnaire and found out that fear of negative evaluation acts as a mediator between Self Esteem and Social Anxiety and Self-Reinforcement and Social Anxiety.

OBJECTIVES

1. To assess the significant relationship between Fear of Missing Out and Fear of Negative Evaluation among Emerging Adults .

2. To assess the significant relationship between Fear of Missing Out and Hope among Emerging Adults.
3. To assess the significant relationship between Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope among Emerging Adults.
4. To assess the significant difference in Fear of Missing Out among male and Female young adults.
5. To assess the significant difference in Fear of Negative Evaluation among male and Female young adults.
6. To assess the significant difference in Hope among male and Female young adults.

HYPOTHESES

1. There is a significant relationship between fear of missing out and fear of negative evaluation among emerging adults.
2. There is a significant relationship between fear of missing out and hope among emerging adults.
3. There is a significant relationship between fear of negative evaluation and hope among emerging adults.
4. There is a significant difference in fear of missing out among male and female young adults.
5. There is a significant difference in fear of negative evaluation among male and female young adults.
6. There is a significant difference in hope among male and female young adults.

METHOD

The study was conducted in a sample of 200 emerging adults who are currently enrolled in college level Undergraduate/Postgraduate programmes who belong to an age span from 18 to 30. Emerging Adulthood is a lifespan period between the age range of 18 to 30. The participants were residents of Changanacherry and Kottayam, Kerala. The sampling technique used was convenient sampling.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research study was quantitative and used correlation to determine the fear of missing out, fear of negative evaluation and hope among emerging adults. The study was also

designed to assess the significance difference of the fear of missing out, fear of negative evaluation and hope among young males and females.

RESEARCH TOOLS

Fear of missing out Scale

The Fear of Missing out Scale, developed Przybylski and colleagues in 2013 is a 10-item unidimensional scale set on 5-point Likert type responses, and measures the degree to which one fears missing out on social events, in particular involving their friends to stay (hyper) connected. The scale has been shown to demonstrate high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.82$; Przybylski et al., 2013). Subsequent studies have continued to verify the scales' reliability, ($\alpha = 0.87, 0.90$; Lai, et al., 2016). The authors also report that these items produced a good model fit, $\chi^2(275) = 1778.1, p < .01$. The scale has been shown to demonstrate high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.82$; Przybylski et al., 2013).

Fear of Negative evaluation Scale

The Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (FNE: Watson and Friend, 1969) is the measure most commonly used to determine the degree to which people experience apprehension at the prospect of being negatively evaluated. The Brief Fear Of Negative Evaluation (Leary, 1983) is a short version of the Fear of Negative Evaluation (Watson and Friend, 1969). It comprises 12 items, 8 straightforwardly worded and 4 reverse worded. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (Not at all characteristic of me) to 4 (Extremely characteristic of me). Leary (1983) indicated that the psychometric properties of the Brief Fear Of Negative Evaluation were almost identical to those of the Fear of Negative Evaluation, with the total scores correlating at $r = 0.96$. The Brief Fear Of Negative Evaluation has demonstrated high internal consistency (α between .90 and .91) and 4-week test-retest reliability ($r = 0.75$) in undergraduate samples (Leary, 1983; Miller, 1995). The scale obtained excellent inter-item reliability ($\alpha = 0.97$) and 2-week test-retest reliability ($r = 0.94$).

Adult Hope Scale

Charles Richard Snyder developed the Adult Hope Scale in 1991. It is 12-item questionnaire that measures a respondent's level of hope. Each item is answered using an 8-point likert-type scale ranging from definitely false to definitely true. It should be noted that the authors recommend that when administering the scale, it is called -The Future Scale. Structural validity was assessed in 30 of the papers and received a fair score in 17 (57%) cases.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Fear of Missing Out. Fear of missing out is described as negative affect resulting from thoughts that one is left out of the rewarding experiences of others. The development of a popular fear of missing out scale (Przybylski et al., 2013) has generated a wealth of research studies on fear of missing out.

Fear of Negative Evaluation. Fear of negative evaluation as the apprehension or distress that arises from the anticipation of negative evaluations or judgments from others. This fear can manifest in various social contexts, such as interactions with peers, authority figures, or strangers (Leary, 1983). The Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation (BFNE) scale was developed by Dr Mark .R. Leary in 1983.

Hope. Snyder et al., (1991) theory defines hope as a dynamic motivational experience that is interactively derived from two distinct types of cognitive tools in the context of goal achievement—namely, pathways and agency thinking. Snyder's hope Scale (1991, 1996) defines hope as a cognitive set that is based on a reciprocally derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed determination) and (b) pathways (planning of ways to meet goals).

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The data sample for the present study consisted of emerging adults (18-30 years old). The participants received the questionnaires and the consent form after building rapport and guaranteeing confidentiality. After requesting the participants to fill the consent forms, the three questionnaires of Fear of Missing Out, Fear of Negative Evaluation, and Hope were distributed to them. The participants filled the questionnaires after receiving clear guidelines on how to take the test. The results were then calculated with respect to the scoring methods for each questionnaire.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUE

The statistical tool used for the study was the IBM SPSS Statistics 27. Descriptive tests such as Normality tests (Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test) and Non parametric test (Mann-Whitney U Test) were also carried out. Descriptive statistics are a statistical method to summarizing data in a valid and meaningful way.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 Analysis Of Correlation Between Fear Of Missing Out And Fear Of Negative Evaluation Among Emerging Adults

Variables	Fear of Negative Evaluation	
Fear of Missing Out	r value	0. .305**
	p value	0.000

**Correlation significant at 0.01level (2-tailed)

Table 1 shows the correlation of the variables Fear Of Missing Out and Fear of Negative Evaluation among emerging adults. The Spearman correlation method was used for the analysis . The r- value and p- value of fear of missing out and fear of negative evaluation is 0.305** and 0.000 respectively. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). There is positive correlation among the variables, which is statistically significant.

Table 2 - Analysis Of Correlation Between Fear Of Missing Out And Hope Among Emerging Adults

Variables	Hope	
Fear of Missing Out	r value	0. .095
	p value	0.183

**Correlation significant at 0.01level (2-tailed)

Table 2 shows the Spearman Correlation and sig (2 tailed) p- value of Fear of Missing Out and Hope among emerging adults. The r- value and p-value of fear of missing out and hope is 0.095 and 0.183 respectively. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Based on the provided r-value and p-value , there is no statistically significant correlation between fear of missing out and hope.

Table 3 *Analysis of correlation between Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope among*

Variables	Hope	
Fear of Negative Evaluation	r value	0.085
	p value	0.231

**Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 3 shows the Spearman Correlation and sig (2 tailed) p- value of Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope among emerging adults. The r- value and p-value of fear of negative evaluation and hope is -0.085 and 0.231 respectively. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). According to the findings, there seems to be a negative correlation between Hope and Fear of Negative Evaluation (FNE). Based on the provided r-value and p-value, there is no statistically significant correlation between fear of negative evaluation and hope.

Table 4 Mean Rank, u value and p value of Fear of Missing Out in Male and Female

Variable	Gender	N	Mean Rank	u value	p value
Fear of Missing Out	Male	100	93.99	4348.5	0.111
	Female	100	107.02		

Table 4 shows the significant difference for Fear of Missing Out in male and female emerging adults. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for the analysis. The total sample for both male and female were 100 each. The mean rank for male and female are 93.99 and 107.02 respectively. The u value and p value are 4348.5 and 0.111 for the sample.

Table 5 Mean Rank, u value and p value of Fear of Negative Evaluation in Male and Female

Variable	Gender	N	Mean Rank	u value	p Value
Fear of	Male	100	97.53	4702.5	0.467

Negative Evaluation	Female	100	103.48		
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Table 5 shows the significant difference for Fear of Negative Evaluation in male and female emerging adults. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for the analysis. The total sample for both male and female were 100 each. The mean rank for male and female are 97.53 and 103.48 respectively. The u value and p value are 4702.5 and 0.467 for the sample.

Variable	Gender	N	Mean Rank	u value	p value
Hope	Male	100	94.66	4415.5	0.153
	Female	100	106.35		

Table 6 shows the significant difference for Hope in male and female emerging adults. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for the analysis. The total sample for both male and female were 100 each. The mean rank for male and female are 94.66 and 106.35 respectively. The u value and p value are 4415.5 and 0.153 for the sample.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to find out the significant relationship and significant difference between Fear Of Missing Out, Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope among young adults.

Table 1 shows the correlation of the variables Fear of Missing Out And Fear of Negative Evaluation among emerging adults. From the table, it can be inferred that there is positive correlation among the variables, which is statistically significant. It can be interpreted that fear of missing out tends to increase with fear of negative evaluation or vice versa. This can be due to the assumption that fear of being negatively evaluated can lead to missing out of opportunities in different aspects of life. Similarly, people with less fear of negative evaluation can have an increased chance capturing opportunities and chances in life. Previous research has found a positive correlation between fear of missing out and fear of negative evaluation. Individuals who experience fear of missing out may also be more likely to fear negative evaluation from others, as they may feel pressure to conform or abide to social norms and expectations to avoid

missing out on social opportunities. Similarly, individuals who fear negative evaluation may be more sensitive to social cues and may experience anxiety about not being accepted by others, which could contribute to feelings of missing out on social activities. The correlation coefficient between fear of missing out and fear of negative evaluation is statistically significant, indicating a significant relationship between these variables. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 2 shows the correlation of Fear of Missing Out and Hope among emerging adults. From the table, it can be inferred that there is no statistically significant relationship between of fear of missing out and hope. Previous studies have also explored the relationship between these variables. It can be interpreted that in young adults fear of missing out is not much related to hope, that is having high hope or low hope does not affect their chances of missing out opportunities. Overall, while there may be indirect relationships or contextual variations between fear of missing out and hope, the available evidence, including the statistical analysis and previous research findings, suggests that there is no significant correlation between the two variables. The correlation coefficient between Fear of Missing Out and Hope is not statistically significant, indicating that there is not a significant relationship between these variables and that further researches are needed on this topic. Therefore, the hypothesis is partially accepted.

Table 3 shows correlation of Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope among emerging adults. From the result, there appears to be no statistically significant correlation between fear of negative evaluation and hope. the correlation between the two variables, fear of negative evaluation and hope is a weak negative relationship but this relationship is not statistically significant at the conventional significance level of 0.01. So it can be interpreted that the fear of being negatively evaluated tends to decrease as hope increases, that is young adults who have less fear of being negatively evaluated by others tends to have higher hope. They do not consider others negative opinions seriously in their life. This aligns with findings from prior research by Weeks et al. (2005), Carleton et al. (2007), and Howell et al. (2014), which also reported similar associations between hope and social anxiety, including concerns about negative evaluation from others. And the correlation between hope and fear of negative evaluation did not reach statistical significance. This implies that while there may be a tendency for hope and fear of negative evaluation to be related, this relationship might not be strong enough to be considered statistically significant within this specific

sample. So, further studies are needed to research on this relationship. Therefore, the hypothesis is partially accepted.

Table 4 shows the Mean Rank, u value and p value of Fear of Missing out in male and female emerging adults. The finding that females tend to have higher ranks, indicating higher levels of fear of missing out compared to males. This indicates that males have less fear of missing out in comparison to females. It can be interpreted that females have a higher fear in missing out, this can be due to many reasons like anxiety, comparison, social status and so on..

However, the obtained p-value points out that there is no statistically significant difference in Fear of Missing Out between males and females in the sample at the conventional significance level of 0.05. This result may seem contradictory to the observed mean ranks; however, it underscores the importance of considering statistical significance alongside mean differences. Previous research by Wegmann and Brand (2016) also found similar nonsignificant differences between genders in Fear of Missing Out, despite observing mean differences. This could indicate that while there are apparent differences in mean Fear of Missing Out scores between males and females, these differences may not be statistically significant in the context of the sample size or other factors. Therefore, while gender may influence Fear of Missing Out tendencies, other variables or interactions may also play a role, highlighting the complexity of Fear of Missing Out and the need for further exploration beyond gender differences alone. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5 shows the Mean Rank, u value and p value of Fear of Negative Evaluation in male and female emerging adults. From the result it can be observed that the Fear of Negative Evaluation scores for males are relatively lower when compared to females. This indicates that males have less fear towards negative evaluation when compared to females. It can be interpreted that young females tend to have higher fear of being negatively evaluated by others in any environment or setting (like in career, relationships, family etc). For example, in a study by Petersen and Eisenlohr-Moul (2013), researchers investigated gender differences in social anxiety across various developmental stages. Their findings consistently indicated that females reported higher levels of social anxiety compared to males. This study underscored the enduring nature of gender disparities in fear of negative evaluation across the lifespan, further

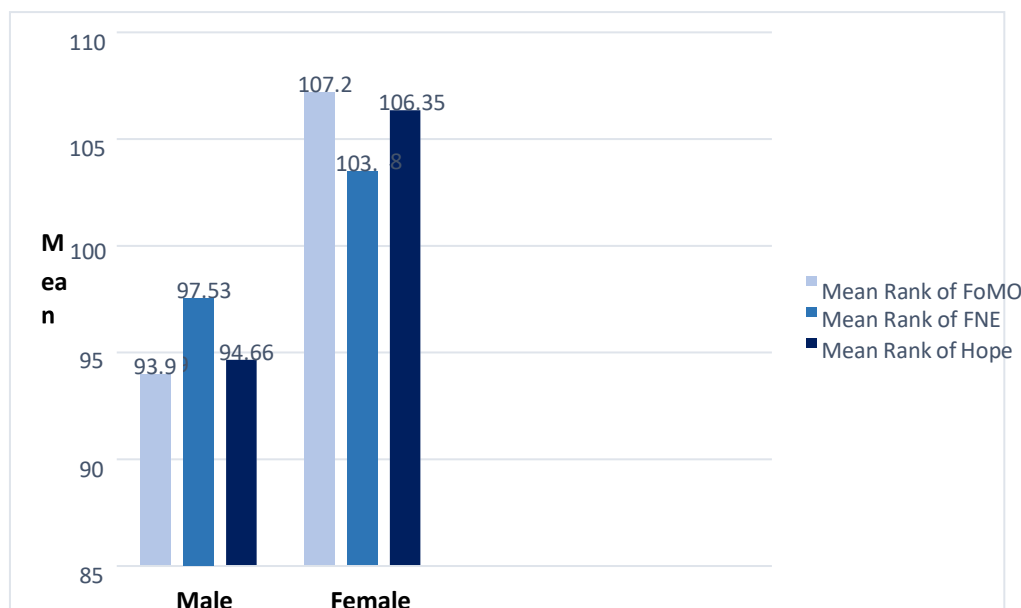
reinforcing the notion that females may indeed exhibit higher levels of fear of negative evaluation than males. Also, a meta-analysis by Terlecki and Buckner (2015) examined gender differences in social anxiety across 117 studies and found that females consistently reported higher levels of social anxiety symptoms compared to males. This suggests that females may indeed have higher fear of negative evaluation compared to males, aligning with the interpretation of the mean ranks in the provided data. Socialization processes and gender roles may contribute to differences in fear of negative evaluation between genders. Research has shown that societal expectations and gender norms often pressure individuals to conform to specific behavioral expectations. These findings support the notion that females may indeed exhibit higher fear of negative evaluation compared to males, as indicated by the higher mean rank observed in the female group.

However, the non-significant p-value suggests that the observed differences in fear of negative evaluation between males and females may not be statistically significant within the sample. This finding contrasts with some earlier studies that reported significant gender differences in social anxiety. For instance, a metaanalysis by McLean and Anderson (2009) found that although females generally report higher levels of social anxiety than males, the effect size of this gender difference was relatively small. Moreover, more recent research by Essau et al. (2019) suggested that the gender gap in social anxiety may be narrowing over time, with males increasingly reporting levels comparable to females. This cannot be generalized to a large population as the study was conducted on a small sample. Hence, although the comparison of mean ranks suggests a possible inclination towards higher fear of negative evaluation among females, the absence of statistical significance emphasizes the necessity for deeper exploration of the intricate factors that contribute to gender variations in social anxiety and related constructs. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 6 shows the Mean Rank, u value and p value of Hope in male and female emerging adults. The findings of this study reveal a notable distinction in hope scores between genders. That is, males exhibit lower hope scores, while females tend to display higher hope scores. The study's findings agree with what other research has shown in the past. It can be interpreted that females are considered to have more hope in achievement and winning in comparison to men. Other studies have also found that males and females tend to think and feel differently.

Even though there are differences in hope scores between genders, the pvalue obtained indicates that these differences are not statistically significant at the usual level of significance. This contradicts some earlier research indicating significant gender differences in hope. Gallagher and Lopez (2007), for instance, found consistent gender differences in hope across various populations, with females consistently scoring higher than males. Nevertheless, recent studies have highlighted the complex nature of gender differences in hope, suggesting that cultural norms and individual experiences may moderate these effects. For example, Chang et al. (2018) found that while females generally reported higher hope levels, these differences were diminished in cultures with less rigid gender roles, emphasizing the importance of considering sociocultural contexts. Thus, while our findings suggest that there are gender differences in hope scores, the lack of statistical significance underscores the need for further studies into the other factors influencing these differences. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted.

Figure -The Mean Rank of Fear of Missing Out, Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope in Male and Female Emerging Adults



The bar graph illustrates the mean rank of Fear of Missing Out is higher for females (107.02) compared to males (93.99). This indicates that, on average, females tend to have higher fear of missing out when compared to males. The bar graph shows the mean rank of fear of negative evaluation is higher for females (103.48) compared to males (97.53). This indicates that, on average, females tend to have higher fear of

negative evaluation when compared to males. The bar graph depicts the mean rank of hope is higher for females (106.35) compared to males (94.66). This indicates that, on average, females tend to have higher fear of missing out when compared to males.

CONCLUSIONS

1. There is significant relationship between Fear of Missing Out and Fear of Negative Evaluation .
2. There is no significant relationship between Fear of Missing Out and Hope.
3. There is no significant relationship between Fear of Negative Evaluation and Hope.
4. There is significant difference in Fear of Missing Out among male and female young adults.
5. There is significant difference in Fear of Negative Evaluation among male and Female young adults.
6. There is significant difference in Hope among male and Female young adults.

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A Study of Depression among Male and Female Adolescence

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the prevalence of depression among male and female adolescents, focusing on a sample of 100 students (50 males and 50 females) from various schools in Beed District, Maharashtra. Utilizing the Depression Scale developed by Dr. Karim and Dr. Tiwari (1986), which comprises 96 items assessing various aspects of depression, we aimed to determine if significant gender differences exist in depression levels among adolescents. Statistical analysis was performed using descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, followed by ANOVA to test the hypothesis. The results indicated that the male adolescents exhibit higher levels of depression compared to their female counterparts.

Keywords- Depression, male adolescents, female adolescents

INTRODUCTION

Depression is a prevalent and debilitating mental health condition that affects individuals across all age groups. However, adolescence, a critical developmental stage marked by significant biological, psychological, and social changes, is particularly vulnerable to the onset of depressive symptoms. Research indicates that this period presents an increased risk for mental health disorders, including depression, which can significantly impact academic performance, social relationships, and overall quality of life (Hankin, 2015).

During adolescence, individuals undergo substantial physical, emotional, and psychological transformations, heightening their vulnerability to mental health issues. Depression in adolescents is characterized by persistent feelings of sadness, loss of interest in activities, and various cognitive and physical symptoms, all of which can profoundly affect social, academic, and emotional functioning (Lewinsohn, Clarke, Seeley, & Rohde, 1994).

In recent years, the incidence of depression among adolescents has steadily increased, raising concerns about its long-term consequences. Adolescents experiencing depression face an elevated risk of engaging in risky behaviors, such as substance abuse and self-harm, alongside potential academic underachievement and social withdrawal (Thapar, Collishaw,

Pine, & Thapar, 2012). If left untreated, adolescent depression can persist into adulthood, leading to chronic mental health issues and diminished life outcomes (Kessler et al., 2001).

Several factors contribute to the onset of depression during adolescence. Biological changes, particularly hormonal fluctuations, significantly influence mood and emotional regulation. Additionally, psychosocial stressors—such as family conflict, peer pressure, and academic demands—can trigger depressive symptoms. The increasing use of social media has also been linked to heightened feelings of loneliness, social comparison, and experiences of cyberbullying, which further contribute to the rise in depressive symptoms among adolescents (Twenge, 2019).

Understanding adolescent depression is crucial for early identification and intervention, as effective treatment can mitigate its negative impact and improve long-term outcomes. This study aims to examine the prevalence, causes, and implications of depression among adolescents and to explore strategies for prevention and intervention. The growing incidence of depression in adolescents has garnered significant attention due to its potential long-term effects if left untreated. Research shows that depression during this stage can persist into adulthood, resulting in chronic mental health issues, increased risk of substance abuse, suicidal behavior, and other adverse outcomes (Thapar, Collishaw, Pine, & Thapar, 2012).

Gender differences in depression during adolescence have been extensively documented. Epidemiological studies consistently demonstrate that adolescent females are more likely to experience depression than their male counterparts (Salk, Hyde, & Abramson, 2017). Factors such as the onset of puberty, body image concerns, and gender-specific social pressures contribute to the increased susceptibility of females to depressive disorders during this period (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012). Conversely, while males may exhibit lower rates of depression, they are often underdiagnosed due to the tendency to express depressive symptoms through externalizing behaviors, such as anger or aggression (Rohde, Lewinsohn, & Seeley, 1997).

This study seeks to explore the prevalence and gender differences in depression among male and female adolescents. By examining the various factors contributing to depression in both genders, the study aims to illuminate the unique challenges each group faces and provide insights for more targeted and effective interventions.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Costello, Erkanli, and Angold (2006) found that depressive symptoms increased steadily from childhood to adolescence, with girls experiencing a sharp rise in depression rates around the age of 13. The study noted that while boys exhibited higher rates of behavioral problems, girls showed significantly higher rates of internalizing disorders such as depression and anxiety. **Cyranowski et al., (2000); Hankin et al., (2008)** These studies have shown that girls are more likely to experience depression than boys, and this gender gap becomes apparent in early adolescence. **Gupta et al. (2018)** found that the prevalence of depression among Indian adolescents is significant, with a higher rate in females compared to males. **Hyde et al., (2008)** this study found that Girls may be more vulnerable to depression because of societal pressures to conform to traditional gender roles, body image concerns, and the experience of interpersonal stress. **Keenan and Hipwell (2005)** found that adolescent girls are more likely to ruminate on negative emotions and experiences, which contributes to the onset and persistence of depression. **Kessler et al. (2001), this study** major depressive disorder (MDD) affects approximately 8-10% of adolescents in the United States, with higher rates observed in females than males. **Leadbeater et al., (1999)** this study found that Boys, on the other hand, may be more likely to express depressive symptoms through externalizing behaviors, such as aggression and substance abuse, which can mask underlying depression. **Leadbeater et al., (1999)** this study found that while both male and female adolescents experience depression, there are notable gender differences in the expression of depressive symptoms. Female adolescents are more likely to exhibit internalizing symptoms, such as sadness, guilt, and worthlessness, which are consistent with traditional diagnostic criteria for depression. **Nolen-Hoeksema, (2012)** this study found that Boys, on the other hand, may engage in avoidant coping strategies, such as distraction or substance use, to manage their depressive symptoms. These gender differences in coping mechanisms may explain why depression is often underdiagnosed in males. **Nolen-Hoeksema, (2012)** this study found that psychological theories emphasize the role of cognitive and emotional factors, such as rumination, which is more common in females and has been linked to the onset and maintenance of depression. **Rani and Kaur (2021)** found that female adolescents often use emotion-focused coping strategies, which may lead to rumination and increased depressive symptoms. In contrast, male adolescents tend to engage in problem-focused coping, which can be more effective in managing stress but may also lead to avoidance of emotional issues. **Rudolph, (2002)** this study found that Female adolescents, in particular, may be more sensitive to interpersonal stress, which contributes to their higher rates of depression compared to males. **Salk, Hyde, & Abramson, (2017)** this study found that male adolescents

are more likely to exhibit externalizing symptoms, such as irritability, anger, and risk-taking behaviors, which may not always be recognized as indicative of depression.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

-A Study of Depression among Male and Female Adolescents

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To Study the Depression of Male and Female adolescents.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

- There is a significant difference between Male and Female adolescents in their Depression.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE:

A representative sample of 100 school students studying in the tenth grade (50 males and 50 females) was selected by the investigator for this research from various schools across Beed Dist. In Maharashtra.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

- Independent **Variables- Gender- 1) Male Adolescents 2) Female Adolescents**
- Dependent **Variables- Depression**

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Depression scale

The Depression Scale developed by Dr. Karim and Dr. Tiwari (1986) assesses depression levels in adolescents through 96 items covering 12 aspects such as apathy, sleep disturbance, pessimism, irritability, and self-harm. It uses a five-point scale, where responses range from "Not at all" (0) to "Extremely" (4), with total scores indicating the severity of depression. High scores reflect severe depression, while low scores indicate minimal depression. The test has shown high reliability, with split-half reliability coefficients of +0.862 and +0.916, and a test-retest reliability of +0.891.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

For the present study 100 sample was used and two instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group will be adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and their seating arrangements, was made in a classroom. Following the instructions and procedure suggested by the author of the test. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT:

At the first stage data were treated by descriptive statistical techniques i.e. mean and standard Deviation. At the second stage data were subjected to ANOVA. And finally, the analysis was done by using SPSS Software.

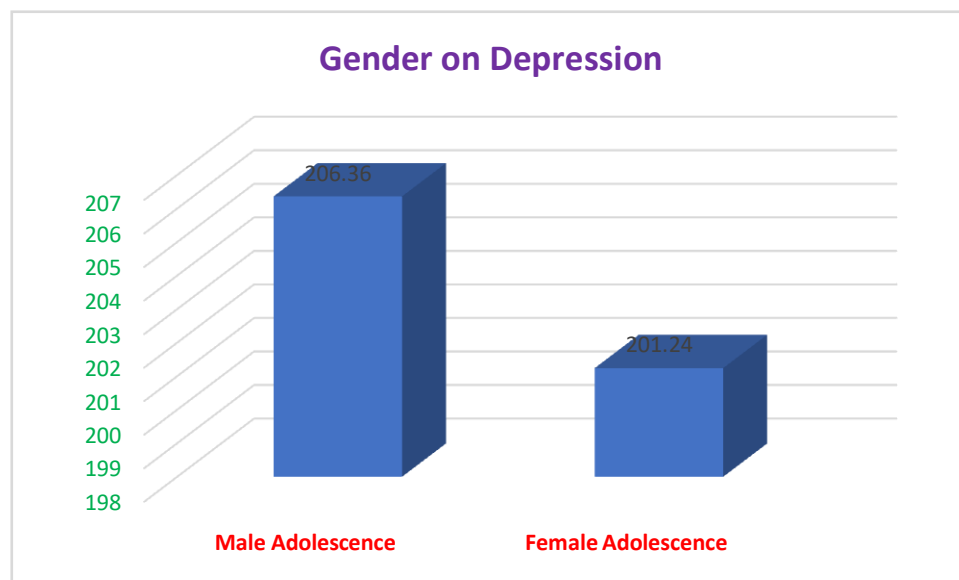
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Table No. 01

Mean SD and F Value of Types of Adolescents parent family on Depression

Factor	Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F	Sign.
Depression	Male Adolescence	206.36	4.69	50	98	11.52	0.01
	Female Adolescence	201.24	9.57	50			

Figure No.01 Mean of Gender on Depression



According to Table No. 01 and Figure No. 01, the data indicate the types of gender differences in depression levels among adolescents. The mean depression score for male adolescents was 206.36 ± 4.69 , while the mean for female adolescents was 201.24 ± 9.57 . The F-value was 11.52, indicating that the effect of gender on depression was significant ($F =$

11.52, $df = 1$ and 98, $p = 0.01$). This significance level is noteworthy at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, as the obtained F-value exceeds the critical values in the statistical tables at these levels.

The findings support the hypothesis that there are significant differences in depression levels between male and female adolescents, with male adolescents exhibiting higher depression levels than female adolescents. Thus, the hypothesis is confirmed, indicating that gender plays a crucial role in adolescent depression. While females generally report higher rates of depression and anxiety, males often exhibit more externalizing symptoms, such as aggression or risk-taking behaviors, which can mask underlying depressive feelings (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2001). This discrepancy in symptom expression might contribute to the higher reported levels of depression among male adolescents in this study.

The significant difference in depression levels between male and female adolescents highlights the necessity for gender-sensitive approaches in mental health interventions. Programs that address the unique needs of male adolescents and encourage emotional expression could be beneficial. Additionally, increasing awareness among parents, educators, and mental health professionals about the signs of depression in boys is crucial for early identification and intervention (Kuehner, 2017).

CONCLUSIONS

"Male adolescents exhibit higher levels of depression than female adolescents."

male adolescents experience higher levels of depression than female adolescents underscore the need for a deeper understanding of the complexities surrounding male mental health. Addressing the unique challenges faced by boys, including societal pressures and differences in emotional expression, can lead to more effective support and improved mental health outcomes.

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A Study of occupational stress among government and non-government teacher

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ABSTRACT

The study explores occupational stress among government and non-government teachers in Mirzapur, Uttar Pradesh. A sample of 50 teachers (25 government, 25 non-government) was analyzed using a 2x2x2 factorial design based on teacher type, gender, and age group. The Occupational Stress Index (OSI) was employed to measure stress levels. Results revealed that government teachers experience significantly higher stress than non-government teachers, while no significant gender differences were found. Older teachers (40-55 years) exhibited greater stress compared to middle-aged teachers.

Keywords: - occupational stress, government teacher, non-government teacher.

INTRODUCTION

In today's rapidly evolving world, the teaching profession is undergoing significant transformations due to the combined impact of modernity, technological advancements, and scientific economic globalization. these changes have fundamentally altered the way teachers work, creating new challenges and pressures that contribute to rising levels of occupational stress among educators. with the increased reliance on information technology in education, teachers are expected to manage a variety of tasks, including administrative duties, classroom management, lesson planning, and the implementation of digital tools—all while addressing the unique learning needs iof their students. as a result, teachers are experiencing heightened stress levels that are detrimental to their mental and physical well-being.

occupational stress, defined as the emotional and psychological strain that arises from the demands of the workplace, is increasingly affecting teachers' ability to perform their duties effectively. prolonged exposure to high levels of stress has been linked to various physical and mental health conditions, including burnout, anxiety, depression, and cardiovascular diseases (kyriacou, 2001). as educators are entrusted with the critical task of shaping the intellectual, emotional, and social development of their students, their well-being directly impacts the quality of education they provide. a stressed and unhealthy teacher may struggle to impart the knowledge, skills, and values that are essential for students' success. dr.a.p.j. abdul kalam, the former president of india, emphasized the significance of the teaching profession by stating, "teaching is a very great profession which shapes the character, ability, and future of a person." teachers, therefore, play a pivotal role in society, and their occupational stress poses a serious concern for the future of education (kalam, 2004).

occupational stress

stress, in general, is a complex psychological and physiological response to external pressures, challenges, or demands that an individual perceives as threatening or overwhelming. according to hansselye (1956), a pioneer in stress research, stress is –the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it. this definition highlights that stress is not always negative; rather, it is the body's way of preparing to face challenges. however, when stress becomes chronic or unmanageable, it can have detrimental effects on an individual's health and functioning. roeber and roeber (1992) define stress as "a state of psychological tension caused by physical, psychological, and social forces and pressures." this definition identifies three key components of stress: (1) it is a mental state, (2) it is characterized by tension, and (3) it is triggered by various external factors, such as physical, social, or emotional challenges. stress can manifest in both acute and chronic forms. acute stress is typically short-term and occurs in response to a specific event, while chronic stress persists over an extended period, leading to long-term health consequences. in the context of occupational stress, teachers experience a combination of acute and chronic stressors that affect their professional and personal lives. in the teaching profession, stress is often exacerbated by the inherent complexity of the role. teachers must balance multiple responsibilities, including instructional duties, classroom management, administrative tasks, and communication with parents. additionally, teachers often face the pressure of meeting performance standards, adhering to curriculum guidelines, and ensuring that their students

achieve academic success. the psychological toll of managing these competing demands can lead to feelings of burnout, frustration, and exhaustion (kyriacou, 2001).

occupational stress in teachers

occupational stress among teachers is a global phenomenon that has been widely studied in various educational contexts. research shows that teaching is one of the most stressful professions, and the increasing demands on educators have led to high rates of teacher turnover and burnout. according to russell (2000), approximately 30% of beginning teachers leave the profession within the first few years due to stress-related factors. this high attrition rate is concerning, as it not only affects the individual teachers but also the quality of education provided to students. in a study conducted by ingersoll (2002) on teacher turnover rates in the United States, it was found that the annual turnover rate for teachers was 15.7%, compared to 11% for other professions. the report highlights the alarming rate at which teachers are leaving the profession due to stress, citing factors such as excessive workload, lack of administrative support, and inadequate compensation as major contributors. this trend is not unique to the United States; similar findings have been reported in countries such as the united kingdom, australia, and canada, where teachers face similar challenges and stressors (day & qing, 2009). the relationship between stress and performance has been well- documented in the literature. the yerkes-dodson law (1908) posits that performance increases with arousal (stress) up to an optimal point, after which performance declines as stress levels become too high. in the case of teachers, moderate levels of stress can serve as a motivator, enhancing focus and productivity. however, when stress becomes overwhelming, it leads to decreased job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and impaired teaching effectiveness (kyriacou, 2001).

upadhyaya and singh (1999) conducted a comparative study on stress levels among various professions and found that while executives tend to experience higher levels of stress than teachers, the impact of stress on teachers is nonetheless significant. teachers are tasked with the responsibility of educating and nurturing the next generation, and the pressure to meet these expectations can be overwhelming. in addition to the day-to-day challenges of teaching, educators must also contend with organizational and systemic factors that contribute to occupational stress.

the impact of occupational stress on teachers' health

the effects of occupational stress on teachers' health are profound and multifaceted. chronic stress has been linked to a wide range of physical and mental health problems, including cardiovascular disease, hypertension, gastrointestinal disorders, and weakened immune function (kyriacou, 2001). teachers who are under constant stress may also experience sleep disturbances, headaches, and chronic fatigue, all of which can further impair their ability to perform their duties effectively. mentally, stress can lead to conditions such as anxiety, depression, and burnout. burnout, a state of emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion caused by prolonged exposure to stress, is particularly common among teachers. burnout is characterized by feelings of cynicism, detachment, and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment (maslach, schaufeli, & leiter, 2001). teachers who experience burnout may become disengaged from their work, leading to decreased job satisfaction and a higher likelihood of leaving the profession. the impact of occupational stress extends beyond individual teachers to the broader educational system. high levels of stress contribute to teacher absenteeism, turnover, and early retirement, all of which place additional strain on schools and districts. when experienced teachers leave the profession, they take with them valuable knowledge and expertise, leaving schools struggling to find qualified replacements (ingersoll, 2002).

occupational stress among teachers is a critical issue that has far-reaching implications for both educators and the education system as a whole. the pressures of modern-day teaching, compounded by the demands of information technology, economic globalization, and societal expectations, have made teaching a highly stressful profession. as dr.a.p.j. abdul kalam and dr.sarvepalliradhakrishnan emphasized, teachers play a crucial role in shaping the future of society, and their well-being is essential to maintaining a strong and effective education system. by addressing the organizational, personal, and environmental factors that contribute to occupational stress, we can help teachers thrive in their profession and continue to make a positive impact on the lives of their students.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Bodiwala and Chaudhani (2020) this study found that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers of the school. Significant difference was found between private and government school teachers. Private school teachers were found to have higher occupational stress than government school teachers.

Kumar and Vishnu (2017) – this study found that they remain stressed due to school facilities, pressure from higher officials, lack of staff and new education acts of curriculum. Principals of government schools feel more stressed than the principals of non-government secondary schools. More stress has been found in non-government principals than in the principals of government secondary schools.

Martin, Louis (2013)- this study indited that Same level of stress and adjustment was found in male and female teachers.

Rajesh Kumar Singh (2015)- this study found that Teachers of government primary schools are more satisfied than teachers of private primary schools.

Saxena and Manjrekar (2020) this study that the level of occupational stress among teachers is not the same and their stress factors (job insecurity, non-payment of salary on time and lack of promotion opportunity) are also different. Some teachers said that due to occupational stress they are facing diseases like diabetes, obesity, heart disease, depression etc.

Shkempi, Melonashi and Fanaz (2015) this study found that 37.2 percent of teachers felt high level of stress, 38 percent felt medium level of stress and 10.3 percent felt low level of stress. There was a complex relationship between different types of stress and past characteristics such as age, work experience, educational level.

Singh and Katoch (2017) this found that the level of occupational stress was higher in men than women.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

To study occupational stress among government and non-government teachers.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To study the level of occupational stress among government and non-government teachers.
- To study the level of occupational stress among different types of male and female teachers.

- To study the level of occupational stress among different types of teachers of higher age group (40-55) and middle age group (25-40).

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

1. There will be no significant difference in the level of occupational stress of government and non-government teachers.
2. There will be no significant difference in the level of occupational stress of male and female teachers.
3. There will be no significant difference in the level of occupational stress of teachers of higher age group (40-55) and middle age group (25-40).

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

For the presented research study, a total of 50 teachers were selected from government and non-government schools of Mirzapur district of Uttar Pradesh, out of which 25 were government teachers and 25 were non-government teachers whose age was between 25 to 55 years and they had at least 2 to 3 years of experience in their profession. Their sample was taken.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

2x2x2 Factorial Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

- **Independent variables-Types of Teachers-**1) Government School Teachers
2) non- government School teachers
- **Independent variables- Gender-** 1) Male Teachers
2) Female teachers
- **Independent variables- Age of Teachers-** 1) higher age group Teacher (40-55)
2) middle age group Teacher (25-40).
- **Dependent variables** – occupational stress

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Occupational stress index (OSI).

The Occupational Stress Index (OSI), developed and standardized by Shrivastava and Singh (1981), measures 12 dimensions: role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, inappropriate group and political pressure, responsibility for individuals, low involvement, powerlessness, poor co-worker relations,

internal poverty, low status, difficult working conditions, and unprofitability. According to this test, the reliability index as determined by the split-half (odd-even) method and Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale as a whole were found to be 0.935 and 0.90, respectively, while validity was reported at 0.743.

I met teachers of government and non-government schools of Mirzapur district of Uttar Pradesh

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

personally and told them that I am doing research on the study of occupational stress of government and non-government teachers. My main objective of this study is to find out the level of occupational stress in both government and non-government teachers. And when the teachers agreed to fill the questionnaire, then after taking permission from the teachers of government and non-government schools, I gave the questionnaire (Occupational Stress Index) to each teacher. And I asked them to fill this questionnaire according to their own and asked for their honest responses. While distributing the questionnaire, I also assured them that the responses given by them will be kept completely confidential. After some time, all the teachers completed the questionnaires and returned them to me.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT

The following statistical methods were used in statistical analysis.

1. Mean
2. Standard deviation
3. T-test

RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Types of Teachers on Occupational Stress

Hypothesis – 01

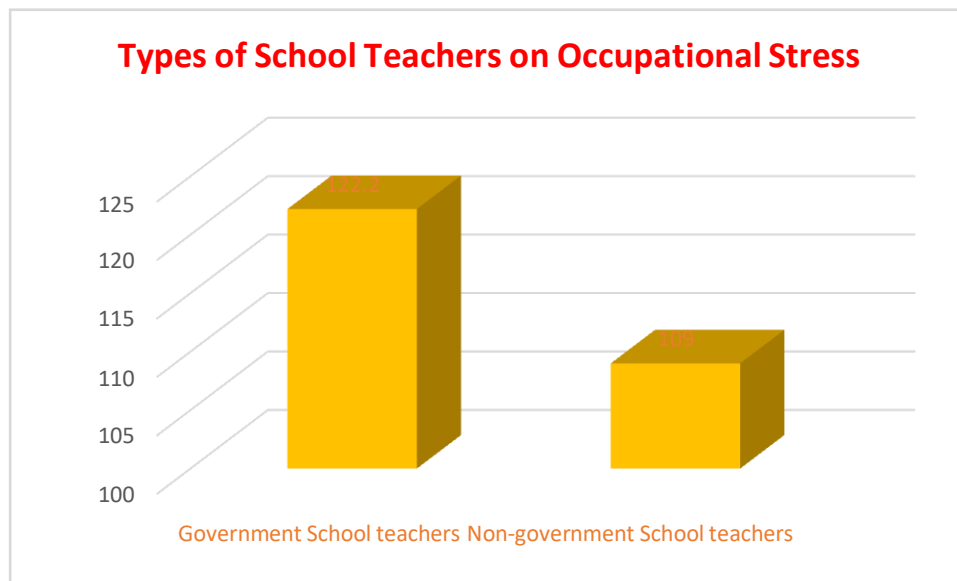
- There will be no significant difference in the level of Occupational Stress of government and non-government teachers.

Table No.01.

Show the Mean, SD and „t“ test of Types of School Teachers on Occupational Stress

Types of School Teachers	Mean	SD	N	DF	„t“ Value	Sign.
Government School teachers	122.2	16.03	25	48	4.00	0.01
Non-government School teachers	109.00	3.98	25			

Graph No. 01 Mean of Types of School Teachers on Occupational Stress



the study show that government teachers experience higher levels of occupational stress ($M = 122.2$, $SD = 16.03$) compared to non-government teachers ($M = 109$, $SD = 3.98$). This significant difference is reinforced by the t-test result of 4, which exceeds the critical values at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels of significance. Since the calculated t-value is greater than the t-table values at both the 99% and 95% confidence levels, the null hypothesis ("There is no significant difference in the level of occupational stress between government and non-government teachers") is rejected. Thus, government teachers appear to experience more occupational stress than their non-government counterparts.

This finding aligns with existing literature on occupational stress in the teaching profession. Research has shown that government teachers often face challenges such as bureaucratic constraints, limited autonomy, and increased workloads, which can contribute to higher stress levels. In contrast, non-government teachers may operate in more flexible environments, with potentially fewer administrative burdens and more supportive management structures. However, it is also worth considering that while non-government teachers may have lower levels of stress overall, other factors such as job security and pay disparities could affect their long-term well-being.

The significant difference in occupational stress levels observed between the two groups highlights the need for targeted interventions to support government teachers. Policies should be developed to reduce stressors such as administrative workload, increase teacher autonomy, and offer mental health support programs. Further research could also explore other variables contributing to occupational stress, such as class size, student behavior, and institutional resources, to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the issue.

Gender on Occupational Stress

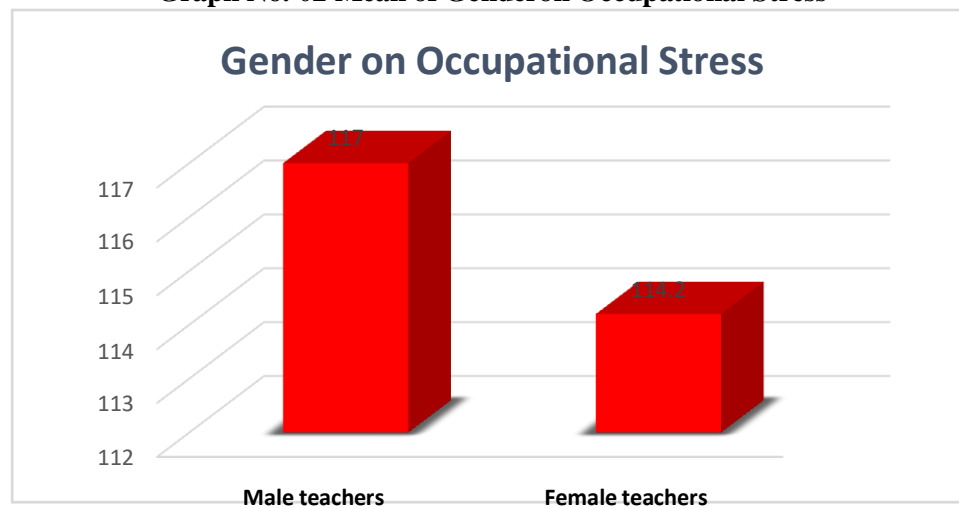
Hypothesis – 02

- There will be no significant difference in the level of occupational stress of female teachers and male teachers.

Table No.02. Show the Mean, SD and „t“ test of Genderon Occupational Stress

Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	„t“ Value	Sign.
Male teachers	117.00	13.62	25	48	0.74	NS
Female teachers	114.2	13.05	25			

Graph No. 02 Mean of Genderon Occupational Stress



The statistical analysis of the data shows that the mean occupational stress level for female teachers ($M = 117$, $SD = 13.62$) is slightly higher than that of male teachers ($M = 114.2$, $SD = 13.05$). However, the t-test value of 0.74 is less than the critical values for both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels of significance. Since the calculated t-value does not exceed these critical thresholds, the null hypothesis, which posits that "There is no significant difference in the level of occupational stress between male and female teachers," is accepted. This finding suggests that the occupational stress levels between the two groups are similar, with no statistically significant differences.

This result is consistent with some prior research in the field of occupational stress inteaching, which has found that both male and female teachers face similar stressors in their professional environments. Studies indicate that workload, student behavior, and administrative pressures are common stressors that affect teachers regardless of gender. Although some research suggests that female teachers may face additional stress due to gender-specific societal expectations or work-life balance issues, the overall levels of occupational stress between male and female teachers tend to be comparable in many studies.

It is important to recognize that while no significant difference in stress levels was found between male and female teachers in this study, both groups experience occupational stress that can impact their well-being and job performance. This underscores the need for interventions that address the general causes of stress in the teaching profession, such as excessive workloads, lack of resources, and the pressures of meeting educational targets. Moreover, schools should consider implementing support programs, such as stressmanagement workshops, counseling services, and mental health resources, to help mitigatethe effects of occupational stress for all teachers.

Age of Teachers on Occupational Stress

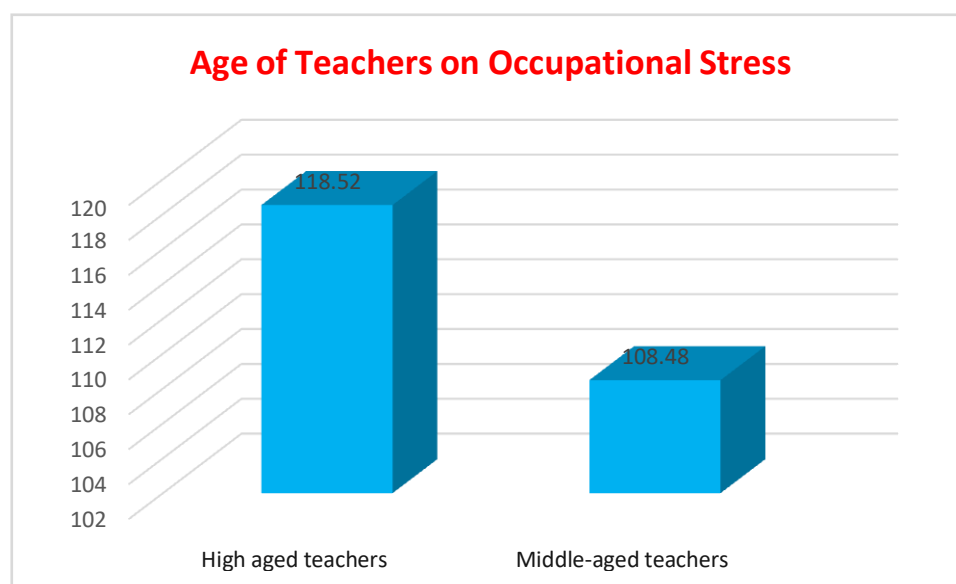
Hypothesis – 03

- There will be no significant difference in the level of occupational stress of high aged teachers and middle-aged teachers.

Table No.03. Show the Mean, SD and „t“ test of Age of Teacherson Occupational Stress

Age of Teachers	Mean	SD	N	DF	„t“ Value	Sign.
High aged teachers	118.52	15.54	25	48	2.70	NS
Middle-aged teachers	108.48	10.17	25			

Graph No. 03 Mean of Age of Teacherson Occupational Stress



The analysis shows that the mean occupational stress level for high age group teachers is 118.52 (SD = 15.54), while for middle age group teachers, it is 108.48 (SD = 10.17). The t-test result of 2.70 exceeds the critical values at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels of significance, leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis, which stated that "There is no significant

difference in the level of occupational stress between high age group and middle age group teachers." Therefore, the data supports the conclusion that older teachers experience significantly higher levels of occupational stress than their younger counterparts.

The findings align with previous research suggesting that occupational stress tends to increase with age due to greater responsibilities, professional expectations, and health concerns. As teachers advance in their careers, they often take on more administrative duties, mentor younger colleagues, and face increasing pressure to meet educational outcomes. These added responsibilities can lead to higher levels of stress. In contrast, middle-aged teachers may be in a more balanced phase of their careers, with less intense pressure and greater energy to manage their roles.

Additionally, older teachers may experience stress due to factors such as nearing retirement, declining physical health, and concerns over technological advancements, which may require continuous learning and adaptation. Studies have also shown that older workers, including teachers, may feel less equipped to deal with rapid changes in the education system, such as new teaching methods or digital tools.

This significant difference in stress levels highlights the need for targeted interventions to support older teachers. Schools should offer resources such as stress management programs, mentoring systems to help share responsibilities, and flexible work arrangements for senior staff. These measures could help alleviate the heightened stress experienced by older teachers and enable them to continue contributing effectively to their institutions.

CONCLUSION: -

- Government teachers were found to experience higher levels of occupational stress compared to non-government teachers.
- There was no significant difference in the occupational stress levels between female and male teachers, with both groups exhibiting similar stress levels.
- Older teachers were found to have higher levels of occupational stress compared to middle-aged teachers.

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A Comparative Study Anxiety, depression and Stress among parents of Mentally Retarded children

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate and compare psychological problems specifically anxiety, depression, and stress among mothers and fathers of children with mental retardation. A total of 50 parents (25 mothers and 25 fathers) aged 30-45 years from a Sambhajinagar district in Maharashtra, India, participated in the research. The Anxiety, Depression, and Stress Scale (2011) developed by Pallavi Bhatnagar was utilized to measure these psychological dimensions. The results, analyzed using one-way ANOVA, revealed significant differences between mothers and fathers across all dimensions. These findings challenge existing literature that often suggests mothers bear a greater psychological burden in caregiving contexts. The results highlight the unique challenges faced by fathers, including societal pressures and limited support networks. The study underscores the need for targeted interventions to address the specific mental health needs of both mothers and fathers of children with intellectual disabilities.

Key words: - Anxiety, Depression, and Stress

INTRODUCTION

Mental retardation, now more commonly referred to as intellectual disability, is a condition characterized by significantly impaired cognitive functioning and limitations in adaptive behavior, manifesting during the developmental period (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Individuals with intellectual disabilities may face challenges in various domains, including cognitive, language, motor, and social skills. The coexistence of other mental or physical disorders is prevalent in this population, with research indicating that individuals with intellectual disabilities are at least three to four times more likely to experience additional mental health issues compared to the general population (Hassall et al., 2005; Kauffman et al., 2013).

The psychological challenges faced by parents of children with intellectual disabilities can be profound, particularly concerning anxiety, stress, and depression. Anxiety is a common psychological issue characterized by feelings of fear, worry, and unease, often arising from perceived threats or stressors (American Psychological Association, 2013). In the context of raising a child with an intellectual disability, parents may experience chronic anxiety due to ongoing concerns about their child's development, social integration, and future (Davis & Gavidia-Payne, 2009). Stress, defined as the body's response to challenging situations, plays a crucial role in the lives of these parents. Stressors may range from everyday caregiving challenges to broader societal pressures (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The impact of stress on parental functioning can diminish their overall well-being and efficacy in managing their child's needs (Davis et al., 2010). Depression is another significant psychological issue that can arise in this context. It is characterized by a pervasive low mood and aversion to activities, potentially leading to feelings of hopelessness, worthlessness, and even suicidal ideation (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The stressors associated with parenting a child with an intellectual disability can contribute to depressive symptoms, making it vital to address these mental health concerns to improve overall family well-being (Raina et al., 2004).

The interplay between anxiety, depression, and stress is complex. Anxiety can often manifest as a response to the uncertainty and unpredictability associated with raising a child with special needs (Morris et al., 2007). Depression may arise from chronic stress, leading to feelings of hopelessness and overwhelm (Raina et al., 2004). Studies show that both parents experience these mental health issues, but the intensity and prevalence can vary significantly between mothers and fathers. Understanding these emotional challenges is crucial for developing effective support systems for families. Interventions that provide emotional support, education, and resources can help mitigate the impact of stress, anxiety, and depression on both parents. By fostering a supportive environment, families can improve their overall well-being and enhance their ability to care for their child with mental retardation (Singer et al., 1999).

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

~~Hastings et al. (2005) found that the severity of a child's intellectual disability correlates with parents of mentally retarded children on anxiety.~~
higher anxiety levels in both parents, but fathers reported greater levels of anxiety compared to mothers when the child's behavior was more challenging. Lloyd et al. (2015) suggests that

fathers of children with disabilities may struggle with their identity as parents, contributing to increased anxiety. The study indicates that societal expectations and personal beliefs about fatherhood can create a sense of inadequacy and fear, leading to higher anxiety levels. McPherson et al. (2017) explored coping strategies employed by fathers of children with disabilities. It was found that fathers often resort to problem-focused coping but may neglect emotional expression, leading to unresolved anxiety. McStay et al. (2014), fathers report feeling overwhelmed due to the challenges of caregiving, navigating educational systems, and managing social stigma. The study emphasizes the importance of social support in mitigating anxiety levels, highlighting that fathers who engage in support groups report lower stress and anxiety. Weiss et al. (2012) this study indicated that while both parents experience heightened anxiety, fathers reported feeling more isolated and less equipped to cope with the emotional demands.

parents of mentally retarded children on depression:

Baker et al. (2003) this study indicated that the challenging behaviors of children with intellectual disabilities were correlated with higher levels of depression in fathers. Griffith et al. (2014), this study found that the fathers of children with disabilities often engage in avoidance coping strategies, which can exacerbate feelings of depression. The study highlighted that while mothers tend to seek social support, fathers may withdraw, leading to increased feelings of isolation and depression. Hastings et al. (2005) this study investigated the mental health of parents of children with intellectual disabilities and found that fathers reported significantly higher levels of depression than mothers. Lloyd et al. (2015) this study findings revealed that fathers often struggle with their roles, which can lead to feelings of inadequacy and depression. Weiss et al. (2012) this study conducted a comparative analysis of psychological distress among parents and found that while both mothers and fathers experience significant depression, fathers reported greater levels. The study pointed out that fathers may be less likely to seek help or disclose their feelings, leading to a higher prevalence of unaddressed depression.

parents of mentally retarded children on stress:

Baker et al. (2003) this study revealed that higher levels of parental stress were associated with poorer family dynamics, affecting both fathers' and mothers' well-being. Dempsey et al. (2016) this study found that fathers face unique stressors that differ from those experienced by mothers. Fathers reported feeling overwhelmed by the societal expectations of being the primary breadwinner while also managing caregiving duties. This dual pressure significantly

contributes to their overall stress levels. Hastings et al. (2005) this study examined stress levels in parents of children with intellectual disabilities and found that fathers reported higher levels of stress than mothers. Lloyd et al. (2015) this study indicated that the emotional labor associated with caregiving leads to heightened stress levels in fathers, often exacerbated by feelings of inadequacy and isolation. McStay et al. (2014) this study found that fathers who lacked social support systems reported higher stress levels, emphasizing the need for targeted support groups to address their specific challenges.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

- › To Comparative Study Anxiety, Depression and Stress among on Mother and Father Parents of mentally retarded children.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- › To Study the Anxiety, Depression and Stress on Mother and Father Parents of mentally retarded children.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- › There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children with dimension on Anxiety.
- › There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children with dimension on Depression.
- › There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children with dimension on Stress.

METHODOLOGY:

SAMPLE:

For the present study 50 parents of Mentally Retarded children was comprised from Sambhajinagar Dist. Maharashtra State. The effective sample consisted of 100 parents of Mentally Retarded children among them 25 Mother and 25 Father. The age of parents of Mentally Retarded children will be 30-45 years. Quota Sampling was used.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

In the present study Simple Research design was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent Variables- Parents of children with mental retardation 1) Mother 2) Father

Dependent Variables- 1) Anxiety 2) Depression 3) Stress

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Anxiety, Depression and Stress Scale (2011)

The Anxiety, Depression, and Stress Scale (2011), developed by Pallavi Bhatnagar, is a comprehensive tool designed to measure individual levels of anxiety, depression, and stress through 48 items divided into three subscales. The scale employs a straightforward scoring system where each item is rated as 1 for "YES" and 0 for "NO." The scoring ranges for each subscale are as follows: anxiety (0-19), depression (0-15), and stress (0-14). Higher scores indicate increased levels of anxiety, depression, or stress. Additionally, the scale includes interpretive norms that categorize scores into normal, mild, moderate, and severe ranges. It demonstrates strong reliability, with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.81, underscoring its effectiveness in assessing mental health.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

For the present study 50 sample was used and two instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group will be adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and their seating arrangements, was made in a room. Following the instructions and procedure suggested by the author of the test. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data was collected. The primary information was gathered by giving personal information from to each to each Parents of Mental Retardation Children. To fill the inventories subjects were given general instructions belongs to each scale.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT:

Mean, Standard Deviation and one Way ANOVA was used.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

parents of mentally retarded children on anxiety:

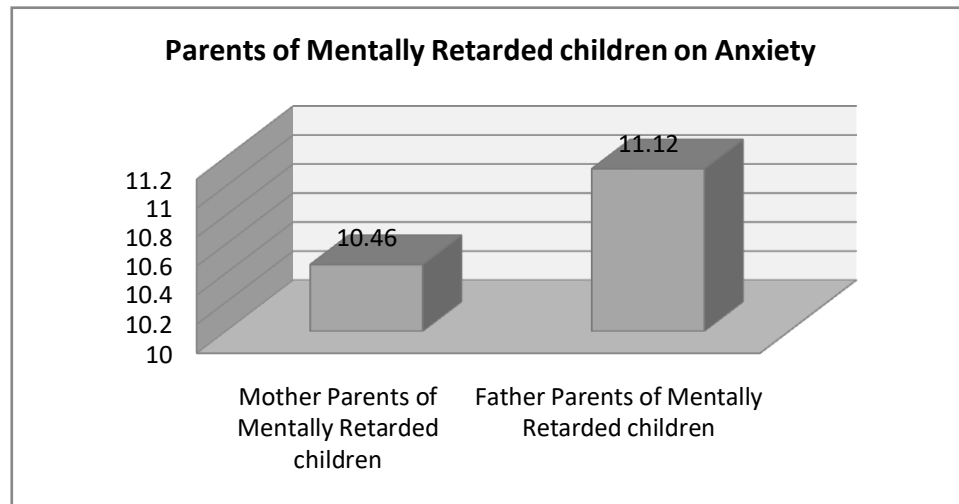
Hypothesis: -01

- There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children with dimension on Anxiety.

Table No. 01. Mean SD and F Value of Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Anxiety

Factor	Parents of Mentally Retarded children	Mean	SD	N	DF	F	Sign.
Anxiety	Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children	10.46	1.03	50	98	10.49	0.01
	Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children	11.12	1.00	50			

Figure No.01 Mean of Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Anxiety



According to the Table No.01 and Figure No.01, it is indicated that Parents of Mentally Retarded children. First, the Mean of Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children was 10.46 ± 1.03 and the Second Mean of Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children was 11.12 ± 1.00 on Anxiety and F value is 10.49. Parents of Mentally Retarded children effect represent the Anxiety was significant ((F- 10.49, 1 and 98, P-0.01). This is significant at 0.01 and 0.05 levels because they obtained 'F' value are high than table values at 0.01 and 0.05. The findings of the study supported the hypothesis, they are hypothesis Accepted the present study. It means that there is no significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Anxiety. In the present study, it was found that Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children have High Anxiety than Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children.

The findings suggest that fathers of mentally retarded children experience higher levels of anxiety compared to mothers. This counters some existing literature which indicates that mothers often bear a heavier psychological burden in caregiving situations (Kumar & Akhtar, 2001). Fathers may feel a strong pressure to provide financially and emotionally for their families. In cultures where traditional gender roles are emphasized, the stress of caregiving can conflict with these expectations, leading to increased anxiety. Fathers may have fewer support networks than mothers, who often engage with other mothers or support groups. This lack of social support can exacerbate feelings of isolation and anxiety (Ghosh, 2012). The

shift from joint families to nuclear families in India has limited the support systems traditionally available to parents of children with mental retardation (Kumar, 2008). This change can lead to increased stress and anxiety as parents navigate these challenges alone.

parents of mentally retarded children on depression:

Hypothesis: -02

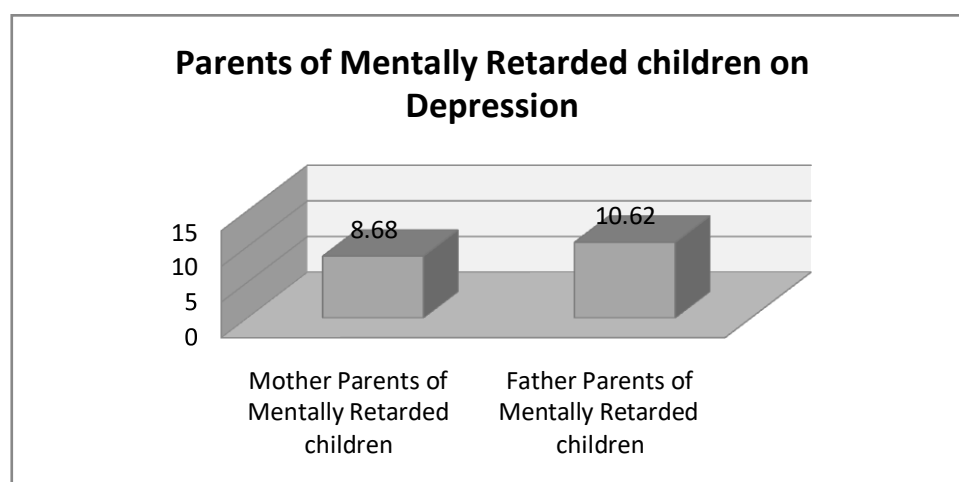
- There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children with dimension on Depression.

Table No. 02.

Mean SD and F Value of Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Depression

Factor	Parents of Mentally Retarded children	Mean	SD	N	DF	F	Sign.
Depression	Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children	8.68	0.99	50	98	79.04	0.01
	Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children	10.62	1.17	50			

Figure No.02 Mean of Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Depression



According to the Table No.02 and Figure No.02 indicated that Parents of Mentally Retarded children, first Mean of Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children was 8.68 ± 0.99 and Second Mean of Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children was 10.62 ± 1.17 on Depression and F value is 79.04. Parents of Mentally Retarded children effect represent the Depression was significant ((F- 79.04, 1 and 98, P-0.01). This is significant 0.01 and 0.05 levels because they obtained F' value are high than table values at 0.01 and 0.05. The findings of the supported the hypothesis, they are hypothesis Accepted the present study. Its means that there is significant differences between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Depression. In the present study was found that Father Parents of

Mentally Retarded children High Depression than Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children.

The results indicate that fathers of mentally retarded children experience higher levels of depression compared to mothers. This finding aligns with existing literature that suggests parents of children with disabilities are at a greater risk for psychological distress (Codman, Rasenbaum, & Boye, 1991). Although depression in fathers was not significantly associated with the child's gender, the study noted that mothers exhibited significantly higher anxiety levels when the child was female. This may reflect societal attitudes towards female children in the Indian subcontinent, where gender bias and concerns about safety can exacerbate parental anxiety (Gupta et al., 2016).

Fathers may face heightened expectations to fulfill traditional roles as providers, which can compound their feelings of inadequacy and depression when faced with the challenges of raising a child with mental retardation (Kumar, 2008). The fear of societal stigma associated with having a disabled child may further contribute to their psychological distress. The dynamics of modern family structures, particularly the decline of joint family systems in India, can lead to reduced emotional and practical support for fathers. This lack of a robust support network can increase feelings of isolation and depression (Ghosh, 2012). The presence of medical comorbidities in children, particularly in conditions like Down's syndrome and cerebral palsy, was significantly associated with increased levels of depression in parents. This highlights the added stress that these health issues impose on families (Bhandari et al., 2015).

The study confirms significant differences in depression levels between mothers and fathers of mentally retarded children, with fathers exhibiting higher levels of distress. Given the multifaceted nature of depression in this context, interventions aimed at enhancing support systems for fathers and addressing gender-based anxieties are essential.

parents of mentally retarded children on stress:

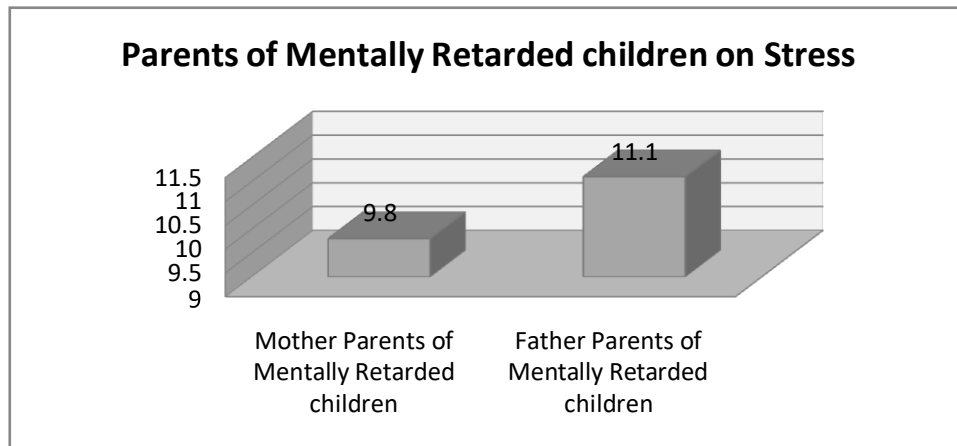
Hypothesis: -03

- There is significant difference between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children with dimension on Stress.

Table No. 03. Mean SD and F Value of Parents of Mentally Retarded childrenon Stress.

Factor	Parents of Mentally Retarded children	Mean	SD	N	DF	F	Sign.
Stress	Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children	9.80	1.08	50	98	38.16	0.01
	Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children	11.10	1.01	50			

Figure No.03 Mean of Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Stress



According to the Table No.03 And Figure No.03. Indicated that Parents of Mentally Retarded children, first Mean of Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children was 9.80 ± 1.08 and Second Mean of Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children was 11.10 ± 1.01 on Stress and F value is 38.16. Parents of Mentally Retarded children effect represent the Stress was significant ((F- 38.16, 1 and 98, P-0.01). This is significant 0.01 and 0.05 levels because they obtained 'F' value are high than table values at 0.01 and 0.05. The findings of the supported the hypothesis, they are hypothesis Accepted the present study. Its means that there is significant differences between Mother and Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children on Stress. In the present study was found that Father Parents of Mentally Retarded children High Stress than Mother Parents of Mentally Retarded children.

The findings of this study indicate that fathers of mentally retarded children experience higher levels of stress compared to mothers, which contrasts with some previous literature suggesting that mothers typically bear a greater burden of stress. For instance, Backman (1980), Burden (1980), and Bradshaw & Lawton (1978) reported that mothers often experience elevated stress levels when raising children with disabilities. One potential explanation for the higher stress reported by fathers in this study could be linked to societal expectations and roles. Traditionally, fathers may feel pressured to provide financially and emotionally for their families, which could exacerbate stress when facing the challenges of raising a child with mental retardation. Conversely, mothers may have developed more coping strategies or support networks over time, leading to potentially lower reported stress

levels. The multifaceted nature of stress, as described by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), also plays a significant role. Stress is not solely an outcome of the caregiving situation but also influenced by individual perceptions and coping mechanisms. Each parent may interpret their experiences differently, resulting in varied stress levels even in similar situations. Moreover, the presence of multiple stressors, as highlighted by Cubbin et al. (1980), is crucial in understanding the overall stress experience of parents. Factors such as financial instability, lack of social support, and personal health can compound the stress associated with raising a child with mental retardation. This suggests that interventions aimed at alleviating stress should consider these multiple dimensions, focusing on providing comprehensive support to both mothers and fathers.

this study contributes to the understanding of parental stress in the context of raising mentally retarded children. The significant difference in stress levels between fathers and mothers suggests that both genders experience unique challenges that require tailored support strategies. Further research is warranted to explore the underlying factors contributing to these stress differences and to develop effective interventions that address the specific needs of both mothers and fathers.

CONCLUSIONS

- Fathers of children with intellectual disabilities experience higher levels of anxiety compared to mothers.
- Fathers of children with intellectual disabilities exhibit greater levels of depression than mothers.
- Fathers of children with intellectual disabilities report experiencing more stress than mothers.

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A Comparative study of emotional Intelligence among First, Second and Third Siblings

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ABSTRACT

The study explores the emotional intelligence (EI) differences among firstborn, second-born, and third-born siblings, focusing on birth order as an influencing factor. A sample of 90 siblings, consisting of 30 firstborns, 30 second-borns, and 30 third-borns from Beed District, Maharashtra, was analyzed. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EII-MM), developed by Dr. S.K. Mangal and Mrs. Shubhra Mangal. Statistical tools such as mean, standard deviation, and ANOVA were used for data analysis. The results revealed significant differences in emotional intelligence based on birth order, with firstborns demonstrating higher levels of emotional intelligence compared to their second and third-born siblings.

Keywords-emotional Intelligence among First, Second and Third Siblings.

INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence (EI) is widely recognized as a critical determinant of social functioning and psychological well-being. Defined by Mayer and Salovey (1990) as the ability to perceive, understand, manage, and regulate emotions in oneself and others, EI has become a key area of interest for researchers seeking to understand the factors influencing individual success in both personal and professional domains. One of the more intriguing but relatively underexplored aspects of emotional intelligence research is its relationship with family dynamics—specifically, the role that birth order plays in shaping emotional intelligence among siblings.

Birth order theory, first introduced by Alfred Adler (1927), posits that the order in which a child is born within a family significantly affects their personality development and social roles. Adler suggested that first-born children, being the eldest, often carry the responsibilities of leadership and tend to develop traits associated with dominance and

authority. Middle children, according to Adler, are likely to develop strong negotiation and social skills, often acting as peacemakers within the family. Last-born children may enjoy more freedom and less responsibility, potentially leading to traits such as creativity and rebelliousness. These roles and personality traits can be thought of as factors that shape emotional intelligence.

Though birth order has been widely studied in the context of personality, its relationship with emotional intelligence remains less clear. However, since EI encompasses not just personal emotional awareness but also social competencies like empathy and conflict resolution (Goleman, 1995), it seems plausible that the unique social environments experienced by siblings in different birth order positions could influence their development of emotional intelligence. The purpose of this study is to examine and compare the levels of emotional intelligence among first, second, and third siblings in order to better understand how birth order may influence the development of these essential social and emotional skills.

Emotional intelligence is a multi-faceted construct that encompasses several key competencies, including self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman (1995) expanded this definition by categorizing EI into personal competencies, such as self-awareness and self-management, and social competencies, such as social awareness and relationship management. Research has consistently shown that individuals with higher emotional intelligence are better equipped to handle stress, navigate complex social situations, and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

These abilities are not solely innate but are shaped by various environmental factors, including family dynamics, parenting styles, and early social interactions (Bar-On, 2006). The family unit, being the primary social environment for children, plays a particularly significant role in the development of emotional intelligence. Within this context, sibling relationships are unique in that they provide a continuous source of social interaction, competition, and cooperation, all of which are likely to impact emotional development. The role of birth order in this dynamic may be crucial in understanding differences in emotional intelligence among siblings.

Birth Order

The theory of birth order is most often associated with Alfred Adler (1927), who argued that birth order creates different psychological environments for each sibling, thus leading to differences in personality development. First-born children, according to Adler, are often –dethroned by the arrival of a second child, which may lead to feelings of jealousy and competition. As a result, they may become more conscientious, reliable, and achievement-oriented in an attempt to maintain their position of power within the family (Sulloway, 1996). First-borns are also more likely to take on leadership roles, which could enhance their emotional regulation skills and their ability to manage social interactions.

Second-born or middle children, by contrast, grow up in an environment where they are neither the oldest nor the youngest, which may lead them to develop strong social negotiation skills. Research has suggested that middle children often act as mediators between siblings, which may foster the development of empathy, conflict resolution, and social adaptability—key components of emotional intelligence (Sulloway, 1996; Paulhus, Trapnell, & Chen, 1999).

Finally, last-born children typically enjoy the least responsibility and may experience less pressure to conform to family expectations. This relatively relaxed environment may foster creativity and social charm, though some researchers argue that last-borns may struggle with emotional regulation due to a lack of early responsibility (Herrera, Zajonc, Wiecekowska, & Cichomski, 2003). As a result, they may develop a different emotional intelligence profile, one that emphasizes social engagement over self-regulation.

Birth Order and Emotional Intelligence

Research on birth order and its effects on personality traits is extensive, but studies specifically linking birth order to emotional intelligence are relatively sparse. Nevertheless, several key studies provide insight into how sibling order might influence emotional development. For example, a study by Toman (1993) found that first-born children tend to score higher in leadership and self-discipline, traits closely associated with emotional self-regulation, a core component of emotional intelligence. Middle-born children, on the other hand, demonstrated higher levels of empathy and social sensitivity, traits that align with the social competencies of emotional intelligence.

Later-born children, particularly third-borns, were often found to be more socially charming and adaptable, though they sometimes exhibited lower levels of emotional regulation compared to their older siblings (Paulhus et al., 1999). These findings suggest that birth

order can influence the development of different facets of emotional intelligence, depending on the social roles and expectations placed on each sibling within the family.

Further research by Herrera et al. (2003) examined the influence of birth order on emotional development in a sample of 2,000 families. The study found that first-born children were more likely to exhibit strong emotional control and leadership skills, while middle children demonstrated greater social adaptability and emotional resilience. The youngest siblings, meanwhile, were more likely to rely on social charm and humor as a means of navigating social situations, indicating a different kind of emotional intelligence.

These findings support the notion that birth order can shape different aspects of emotional intelligence, though the degree of influence may vary depending on factors such as family size, parenting styles, and cultural context. For example, in larger families, middle children may have more opportunities to develop social and emotional skills due to the presence of multiple siblings. In smaller families, the differences between first-borns and later-borns may be less pronounced, as siblings are likely to share similar responsibilities and social roles.

emotional intelligence is a crucial determinant of individual success and well-being, and its development is shaped by various environmental factors, including family dynamics. Birth order, as proposed by Adler (1927), creates distinct psychological environments for each sibling, potentially influencing their emotional development in unique ways. While first-borns may develop stronger emotional regulation and leadership skills, middle-borns may excel in empathy and conflict resolution, and last-borns may rely more on social charm and adaptability. This comparative study of emotional intelligence among first, second, and third siblings aims to further explore these relationships and contribute to the understanding of how sibling order influences emotional intelligence.

Significance of the Study

The relationship between birth order and emotional intelligence is an important area of inquiry for several reasons. First, understanding how sibling order affects emotional intelligence can provide valuable insights into family dynamics and the development of social and emotional skills. Given the importance of emotional intelligence in areas such as academic achievement, career success, and interpersonal relationships (Goleman, 1998), identifying factors that influence its development is crucial for both parents and educators.

Second, this research has practical implications for parenting strategies and educational interventions. If certain birth order positions are associated with strengths or weaknesses in emotional intelligence, parents and teachers may be able to tailor their approaches to support the emotional development of each child more effectively. For example, parents of first-born children may encourage social adaptability, while parents of later-born children may focus on fostering emotional regulation and leadership skills.

Finally, this study contributes to the broader understanding of how family dynamics shape individual development. By exploring the relationship between birth order and emotional intelligence, this research extends the scope of both birth order theory and emotional intelligence theory, offering new perspectives on how these constructs interact within the family context.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Alfred Adler (1927) proposed that birth order plays a pivotal role in shaping an individual's personality traits. Firstborns, second-borns, and third-borns often face different familial environments, which may influence the development of their emotional intelligence differently.

Alfred Adler's (1927) theory of birth order, which suggests that firstborns, middle children, and later-borns develop distinct personality traits based on their familial roles. The hierarchical structure of Indian families, often with more traditional gender roles and authority dynamics, plays a role in how emotional intelligence is cultivated among siblings.

Eckstein et al., (2010) this study found that The youngest siblings often adopt a more creative and less conventional approach to problem-solving, which may correlate with emotional intelligence in terms of adaptability and interpersonal relations.

Pandey, (2017) this study found that Youngest siblings, on the other hand, may be more emotionally expressive and adaptable but may lack the emotional resilience developed by firstborns and middle-borns.

Paulhus et al. (1999) suggests that firstborns often develop leadership qualities, which are closely tied to emotional intelligence, particularly in managing and regulating emotions.

Sethi & Kumar, (2016) this study indicated that the India regarding birth order and emotional intelligence have found that while firstborns tend to excel in emotional regulation due to early leadership responsibilities, middle-borns often show stronger empathy and conflict-resolution skills.

Stewart et al. (2001) found that firstborns tend to excel in emotional regulation due to their leadership roles, while secondborns and thirdborns may show stronger social awareness and empathy.

Sulloway, (1996) this study found that Middle children tend to be more adaptable, diplomatic, and conflict-averse, potentially leading to higher levels of social and emotional intelligence.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To study of emotional Intelligence among First, Second and Third Siblings.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- The differences in emotional intelligence among siblings based on their birth order (first, second, and third siblings).

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is a significant difference in emotional intelligence between first-born, second-born, and third-born siblings.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE:

For the present study 90 sibling was comprised from in Beed Dist. Maharashtra State. The effective sample consisted of 150 Child among them 30 First child (15 Male Child and 15 Female Child), 30 Second child (15 Male Child and 15 Female Child)and 30 Third child (15 Male Child and 15 Female Child). The age of Mentally Retarded children was 16-18 years. Quota Sampling was used.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

In the present study Research design was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Independent **Variables** - Birth Order- first siblings, second siblings, and third siblings.

Dependent **Variables** - Emotional Intelligence

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

The Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EII-MM), developed by Dr. S.K. Mangal and Mrs. Shubhra Mangal, is a standardized tool designed to assess emotional intelligence (EI) in individuals aged 16 and above. It consists of 100 items, with responses marked as "Yes" or "No," and scores are based on the presence of emotional intelligence. Standardized on 2,200 students, the inventory demonstrates high reliability, with split-half (0.89), Kuder-Richardson (0.90), and test-retest (0.92) methods. It also shows strong validity, with inter-correlations among areas of EI ranging from 0.437 to 0.716 and a criterion-related validity of -0.613.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION

For the present study 90 sample was used and one instruments were administered individuals as well as a small group was adopted. The subjects were called in a small group of 05-10 subjects and there seating arrangements, was made in a room. Following the instructions and procedure suggested by the author of the test. Tests were administered and a field copy of each test was collected. Following the same procedure the whole data was collected. The primary information was gathered by giving personal information from to each to sibling families Children. To fill the inventories subjects were given general instructions belongs to each scale.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT:

Mean, Standard Deviation and ANOVA was used. The Result was discussed in the light of relevant review literature for this point the relevant research taken place was considered and based on that the expected results will be discussed.

Analysis and Interpretation

Hypothesis: -01

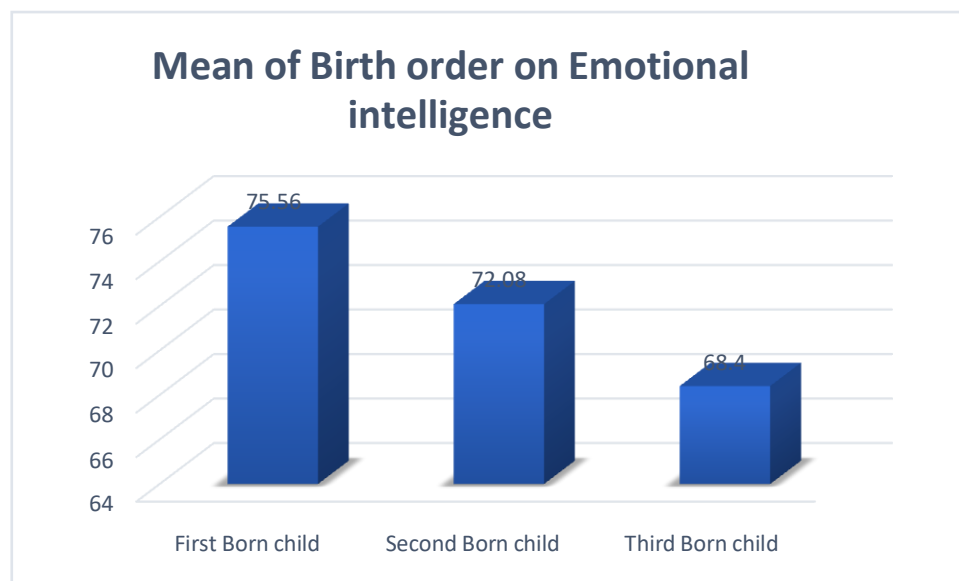
- There will be no significant difference between first, second and third Born child with reference to emotional intelligence.

Table No. 01. Mean SD and F Value of Birth Oder on Emotional intelligence

Birth Oder	Mean	SD	N	DF	F	Sign.
First Born child	75.56	2.90	30	87	79.44	0.01
Second Born child	72.08	2.39	30			
Third Born child	68.40	3.16	30			

(Critical value of -fll with df 87 at 0.01 = 3.84 and at 0.05 = 6.63 and NS- Not significant)

Figure No.01. Mean of Birth Oder on Emotional intelligence



The findings from the table and figure indicate significant differences in emotional intelligence (EI) between firstborn, second-born, and third-born children. According to the data, the mean EI score of the firstborn child is significantly higher than that of the second- born and third-born children. The firstborn child demonstrated an EI mean score of 75 ± 56 , while the second-born had a mean score of 72.08 ± 2.39 , and the third-born displayed a substantially higher mean score of 194.23 ± 13.63 . The F-value of 15.367, which is significant at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis,

suggesting that there is indeed a significant difference in emotional intelligence between siblings based on their birth order.

The results of this study align with Goleman's (1995) concept of emotional intelligence, specifically self-regulation or self-control, which seems to be more developed in firstborns. Firstborns often shoulder greater responsibility within the family structure and are expected to exhibit leadership and maturity, leading to stronger emotional regulation. The ability of firstborns to manage and control emotions effectively in stressful or critical situations enables them to maintain their figure of responsibility and trust, enhancing their emotional intelligence compared to their siblings.

The differences in emotional intelligence observed between firstborn, second-born, and third-born children can be attributed to the different family roles and responsibilities they take on as they grow. Firstborns are typically exposed to higher expectations from parents and experience leadership and authority roles over their younger siblings. This early exposure to managing responsibilities can help them develop better control over their emotions. On the other hand, second-born and third-born children might not face the same level of responsibility, and thus their emotional regulation capabilities may not develop in the same way or to the same extent.

The results also support the notion of fraternal differences that can evolve based on birth order. However, these differences are not absolute and may vary depending on family dynamics, culture, and individual personality traits. Guo et al. (2016) suggest that while birth order can influence the development of emotional intelligence, it is not the sole determining factor. Sibling relationships and family expectations can shape these dynamics, but the development of EI is a multifaceted process influenced by various environmental and personal factors.

the study demonstrates that there are significant differences in emotional intelligence based on birth order, with firstborn children showing higher levels of emotional intelligence than second-born and third-born children. This can be explained by the higher levels of responsibility and expectations placed on firstborns, which may lead to enhanced emotional regulation and self-control. However, while birth order plays a role in the development of emotional intelligence, other factors such as family dynamics, culture, and individual personality must also be considered.

CONCLUSIONS

The firstborn child exhibits a higher level of emotional intelligence compared to the second and third-born children.

firstborn children tend to exhibit higher levels of emotional intelligence (EI) compared to their second and third-born siblings. This can be explained by the unique familial roles and responsibilities that are often placed on firstborns. Firstborns are typically entrusted with more responsibilities and leadership roles within the family, which may foster the development of stronger emotional regulation and self-control. These responsibilities often demand that firstborns manage not only their own emotions but also navigate the emotions of others, particularly younger siblings..

In contrast, second and third-born children might not experience the same level of responsibility or expectations. While they may develop emotional intelligence in other ways, such as through social interactions with siblings, the emphasis on emotional regulation and leadership is often less pronounced. As a result, their emotional intelligence may not develop as robustly as that of firstborns. However, it's important to note that these differences are not absolute. Factors such as family dynamics, parenting style, and individual personality traits can influence the emotional development of each sibling.

The results support the hypothesis that birth order plays a significant role in emotional intelligence development, but it is essential to recognize that birth order is only one of many factors contributing to EI. Family environment, cultural context, and life experiences also play critical roles in shaping an individual's emotional intelligence. Additionally, while firstborns generally display higher emotional regulation and leadership qualities, second and third-borns may excel in other dimensions of emotional intelligence, such as adaptability, empathy, and conflict resolution, as they often navigate relationships between siblings.

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“Indian Knowledge System in Political Science: A Comprehensive Analysis”

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper undertakes a meticulous examination of the Indian knowledge system in Political Science, traversing through the rich tapestry of ancient, medieval, and contemporary perspectives. Beginning with an exploration of classical texts such as the Arthashastra and the insights of revered thinkers like Chanakya, it elucidates the nuanced political philosophies that shaped governance in early Indian societies. The study then delves into the evolution of political thought through the medieval period, considering influences from diverse philosophical traditions.

The research extends its focus to the contemporary relevance of the Indian knowledge system in Political Science, evaluating how ancient principles continue to impact modern governance structures. Concepts such as dharma, ethical leadership, and social justice are analysed for their enduring significance and potential application in the present political landscape.

Incorporating interdisciplinary perspectives, the paper also examines the intersections between Political Science and other branches of the Indian knowledge system, such as philosophy, ethics, and sociology. Through a holistic approach, it seeks to provide a comprehensive understanding of the foundations, adaptations, and enduring legacies of the Indian knowledge system in Political Science. This research aims to contribute valuable insights to academic discourse and practical governance by bridging historical wisdom with contemporary political challenges.

Keywords:-Indian knowledge system,

INTRODUCTION: -

The Indian knowledge system is diverse and ancient, encompassing fields like philosophy, science, mathematics, medicine, and more. Vedas, Upanishads, and ancient texts like Arthashastra contribute to its rich heritage. Ayurveda, Yoga, and Vedic

mathematics are examples of traditional knowledge still relevant today. In political science, the Indian knowledge system draws insights from ancient texts like the Arthashastra, authored by Chanakya. Dharmashastra, Kautilya, Aggannasutta, Barani, Kabir. This treatise covers political strategy, governance, and diplomacy, providing historical perspectives on statecraft and administration in ancient India. Additionally, concepts from various Indian philosophical traditions contribute to political thought.

Dharmashastra:-

Dharmashastra is an ancient Indian knowledge system that provides guidelines for ethical and moral conduct, social justice, and legal principles. The term "Dharmashastra" is derived from "dharma," which refers to righteous duty or moral order. These texts cover various aspects of life, including governance, social norms, legal systems, and individual conduct.

Key features of Dharmashastra as an Indian knowledge system include:

Ethical Principles: Dharmashastra emphasizes the importance of ethical conduct and moral values. It provides guidelines for individuals to lead a virtuous life in accordance with dharma.

Social Order: These texts elaborate on the societal structure and the roles and responsibilities of different classes (varnas) and stages of life (ashramas). They aim to establish a harmonious social order based on mutual respect and cooperation.

Legal Framework: Dharmashastra provides a foundation for legal principles and governance. It outlines rules and regulations that rulers should follow for just and fair administration. The concept of danda, or punishment, is also discussed concerning maintaining law and order.

Family and Personal Conduct: Dharmashastra addresses guidelines for family life, including marriage, inheritance, and rituals. It also prescribes codes of conduct for individuals in various aspects of life.

Justice and Punishment: The texts discuss the concept of justice and the principles behind punishment. They explore the idea of corrective measures and the ethical considerations in administering justice.

Prominent Dharmashastra texts include Manusmriti, Yajnavalkya Smriti, and Narada Smriti. While these texts are ancient and reflect the societal norms of their times, their influence has endured, and they continue to shape discussions on ethics, morality, and social order in contemporary Indian thought.

It's important to note that interpretations of Dharmashastra can vary, and not all aspects of these texts may align with modern perspectives or be universally accepted.

The Arthashastra:-

Chanakya, also known as Kautilya or Vishnugupta, was an ancient Indian teacher, philosopher, economist, jurist, and royal advisor who played a crucial role in the establishment of the Maurya Empire in ancient India. His treatise, the "Arthashastra," is a foundational work in the Indian knowledge system, particularly in the field of political science and governance.

Here are some key aspects of Kautilya's contributions to the Indian knowledge system:

Arthashastra: Kautilya's magnum opus, the Arthashastra, is an ancient Indian treatise on statecraft, economics, military strategy, and political science. It provides detailed insights into governance, diplomacy, and the art of ruling. The text covers a wide range of topics, including the duties of a ruler, the administration of justice, and the principles of war.

Political Philosophy: Kautilya's political philosophy in the Arthashastra emphasizes the importance of a strong and efficient state. He discusses the role of the ruler in maintaining law and order, protecting the kingdom, and ensuring the welfare of the people. The text also addresses the concept of dharma (righteous duty) and the ethical considerations in governance.

Realism and Diplomacy: Kautilya's approach to politics is often characterized by realism. He acknowledges the harsh realities of political life and advocates for practical measures to achieve and maintain power. The Arthashastra includes discussions on diplomacy, espionage, and strategies for dealing with internal and external threats.

Economic Policies: The Arthashastra delves into economic principles, outlining strategies for resource management, taxation, and trade. Kautilya emphasizes the economic well-being of the state as crucial for its stability and prosperity.

Statecraft and Administration: Kautilya provides detailed prescriptions for statecraft and administration, covering aspects such as the organization of government, the role of ministers, and the importance of a well-functioning bureaucracy.

Kautilya's teachings have left a lasting impact on the Indian intellectual tradition, influencing subsequent political thinkers and policymakers. His pragmatic and comprehensive approach to governance continues to be studied and analyzed for its relevance in contemporary political discourse.

The AggaññaSutta:-

The Aggañña Sutta is a discourse found in the Pali Canon, the primary scriptural collection of Theravada Buddhism. It is part of the Digha Nikaya (Long Discourses of the Buddha) and is often referred to as the "Origins Sutta" or "Discourse on What is Primary." While it is not specifically categorized as a text within the Indian knowledge system, it contains cosmological and socio-religious narratives that provide insights into ancient Indian thought, especially within the context of Buddhist cosmology.

Key points from the Aggañña Sutta include:

Cosmological Account: The sutta presents a unique cosmological narrative describing the evolution and devolution of societies and worlds. It introduces the concept of cyclical time, with periods of enlightenment followed by periods of decline.

Social Order and Inequality: The text addresses the emergence of social classes and the origins of social inequality. It suggests that the concept of caste or class divisions is not inherent but arises due to people's behavior and actions.

Critique of Brahmanical Views: The Aggañña Sutta challenges prevailing Brahmanical views of caste, class, and social hierarchy. It offers an alternative perspective that questions the divine origin of certain social orders and emphasizes the role of human conduct.

Teachings on Contentment: The sutta highlights the importance of contentment and simplicity, suggesting that the pursuit of material wealth and power can lead to societal deterioration.

While the Aggañña Sutta is primarily a Buddhist text, it engages with themes that were prevalent in the broader cultural and philosophical context of ancient India. The

narrative style and the exploration of social and cosmological concepts contribute to a broader understanding of the intellectual milieu of the time. It is not just a religious scripture but also a source that provides insights into early Indian thought regarding cosmogony, sociology, and critiques of prevailing social orders.

Sant Kabir:-

Sant Kabir, a 15th-century poet-saint in India, expressed profound philosophical and spiritual thoughts through his poetry. While not part of a formal knowledge system, Kabir's teachings have had a significant impact on Indian philosophical and religious traditions, contributing to a broader understanding of spirituality, morality, and social harmony.

Key aspects of Kabir's thoughts include:

Spiritual Unity: Kabir emphasized the oneness of God and the unity of all religious paths. His poetry often transcends sectarian boundaries, advocating for a direct and personal connection with the divine that goes beyond religious rituals.

Critique of Rituals: Kabir was critical of superficial religious rituals and dogmas. His poems reflect a call for genuine devotion, inner purity, and a focus on the essence of spirituality rather than external practices.

Social Equality: Kabir's teachings promote the idea of social equality and reject caste-based discrimination. He spoke against social injustices and advocated for the inherent equality of all individuals, emphasizing that devotion to God should be free from societal prejudices.

Simplicity and Detachment: Kabir encouraged a simple and humble way of life. He emphasized the importance of detachment from material pursuits and the transient nature of worldly possessions.

Ethical Conduct: Kabir's poetry often includes moral and ethical teachings. He spoke about virtues such as truthfulness, compassion, and humility as integral aspects of a spiritual life.

While Kabir's thoughts may not be structured within a formal knowledge system, they have become an integral part of the cultural and spiritual fabric of India. His verses continue to inspire people across religious and cultural boundaries, reflecting universal

themes of love, compassion, and the pursuit of inner truth. Kabir's impact extends beyond his historical context, influencing the broader landscape of Indian philosophy and spirituality.

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"Understanding Stress Management in Firefighters: Insights from the National Fire Service College, Nagpur"

Hemlata Dubey

Dr. Rubeena Ansari

ABSTRACT

This study investigates stress management among firefighters from the National Fire Service College in Nagpur, addressing the unique challenges they encounter in their profession. A sample of 60 male firefighters was recruited to evaluate their stress levels and coping strategies using the Stress Management Scale developed by Dr. Vandana Kaushik and Dr. Namrata Arora Charpe. The reliability of the scale was assessed using the split-half method. Results revealed varying levels of stress among participants and highlighted effective coping mechanisms employed by firefighters. These findings enhance understanding of stress management in this critical profession and suggest important implications for training and support programs. Ultimately, this study contributes to the broader discourse on mental health within high-stress occupations, emphasizing the need for tailored interventions to support firefighters' well-being.

Keywords:-National Fire Service, Stress Management.

INTRODUCTION

Firefighting is a profession characterized by intense physical demands and exposure to high-stress situations, which can significantly impact the mental health and well-being of those in the field. Firefighters routinely face emergencies that test their physical endurance and emotional resilience, making it essential to understand how they cope with the unique challenges inherent in their roles. As awareness of mental health issues within high-stress occupations grows, there is a pressing need for research that specifically focuses on the experiences of firefighters.

This study investigates stress management among firefighters at the National Fire Service College in Nagpur, with a particular emphasis on the coping strategies they employ and the

factors influencing their stress levels. By analyzing a sample of 60 male firefighters, the research aims to evaluate the various mechanisms used to manage stress and identify the specific demographic and occupational factors that may affect these coping strategies.

To achieve this, the study categorizes variables into independent, dependent, and control groups. Independent variables include coping strategies, such as peer support, physical fitness activities, mindfulness practices, and relaxation techniques, as well as demographic factors like age, years of service, marital status, and prior exposure to trauma. The dependent variable is the stress levels of the participants, assessed using the Stress Management Scale developed by Dr. Vandana Kaushik and Dr. Namrata Arora Charpe. Control variables consist of occupation type and work environment factors that may influence stress experiences and management strategies.

Through this structured analysis, the study aims to enhance our understanding of stress management within the firefighting profession. The findings will have important implications for training and support programs designed to promote mental well-being among firefighters. By contributing to the broader discourse on mental health in high-stress occupations, this research underscores the necessity for tailored interventions that can effectively support the resilience and overall well-being of firefighters in their critical roles.

AIM

The primary aim of this study is to investigate the stress levels and coping strategies employed by firefighters at the National Fire Service College in Nagpur. By understanding the specific stressors associated with their profession and identifying effective coping mechanisms, the study seeks to provide insights that can inform training and support programs tailored to enhance the mental well-being of firefighters.

HYPOTHESIS

1. **H1:** Firefighters at the National Fire Service College experience varying levels of stress due to the unique challenges of their profession.
2. **H2:** Effective coping strategies, such as peer support and physical fitness activities, are significantly associated with lower reported stress levels among firefighters.

3. **H3:** Tailored interventions based on identified stressors and coping mechanisms will enhance the mental health and resilience of firefighters, leading to improved overall well-being in high-stress situations.

METHODOLOGY

This study employed a quantitative research design to investigate stress management among firefighters at the National Fire Service College in Nagpur. The following steps outline the methodology used to achieve the study's objectives:

Sample Selection

A purposive sampling method was utilized to recruit 60 male firefighters from the National Fire Service College. Participants were selected based on their active involvement in firefighting duties, ensuring that the sample reflected individuals with relevant firsthand experience of the stressors associated with the profession.

Variables

In this study, several key variables were identified to explore stress management among firefighters. These variables can be categorized into independent and dependent variables, as well as control variables.

1. Independent Variables

- **Coping Strategies:** Various mechanisms employed by firefighters to manage stress, such as peer support, physical fitness activities, mindfulness practices, and relaxation techniques.
- **Demographic Factors:** Characteristics such as age, years of service, marital status, and previous exposure to traumatic incidents that may influence stress levels and coping strategies.

2. Dependent Variables

- **Stress Levels:** The primary outcome measure, assessed using the Stress Management Scale. This encompasses the overall stress experienced by firefighters as well as specific stressors related to their professional duties.

3. Control Variables

- **Occupation Type:** While all participants are firefighters, variations in roles (e.g., firefighting vs. administrative duties) may affect stress levels and coping strategies.
- **Work Environment:** Factors such as station location, available resources, and team dynamics that could influence stress experiences and management.

By examining these variables, the study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of how firefighters manage stress and identify effective strategies that can be supported through training and interventions.

Data Collection Tool

The Stress Management Scale developed by Dr. Vandana Kaushik and Dr. Namrata Arora Charpe was employed to assess the participants' stress levels and coping strategies. This scale consists of multiple items designed to evaluate various dimensions of stress management, including stress perception, coping mechanisms, and support systems. To ensure the reliability of the Stress Management Scale, the split-half method was applied. This technique involves dividing the scale into two halves, calculating the correlation between scores from both halves, and using this correlation to assess internal consistency. A high correlation indicates that the scale reliably measures the intended constructs.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Participants were approached individually and provided with an informed consent form explaining the purpose of the study, confidentiality assurances, and their right to withdraw at any time. Following consent, participants completed the Stress Management Scale in a controlled environment, allowing for focused responses without external distractions.

DATA ANALYSIS

The collected data were analyzed using statistical software. Descriptive statistics were computed to summarize the demographic characteristics of the participants, as well as their stress levels and coping strategies. Inferential statistics, such as correlation analysis, were conducted to identify relationships between stress levels and coping mechanisms employed by the firefighters.

DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

This study provides valuable insights into the stress management practices of firefighters, a group that faces significant occupational hazards and psychological stressors. The findings indicate that stress levels among the sampled firefighters varied considerably, suggesting that individual differences and specific job-related experiences contribute to these disparities.

Stress Levels and Contributing Factors

The varying stress levels observed in the participants highlight the complexity of the firefighting profession. Factors such as exposure to traumatic incidents, long hours, and the physical demands of the job can exacerbate stress. Additionally, personal circumstances, including family responsibilities and previous experiences, may also influence individual stress responses. Understanding these factors is crucial for developing effective support systems that cater to the unique needs of firefighters.

Coping Mechanisms

The study identifies several effective coping mechanisms employed by firefighters, including peer support, physical fitness, and stress-relief techniques such as mindfulness and relaxation exercises. Peer support stands out as a particularly vital resource, as it fosters a sense of community and shared understanding among firefighters. This collective resilience can be instrumental in mitigating stress, suggesting that training programs should incorporate team-building and camaraderie-building activities.

Implications for Training and Support Programs

The findings have important implications for training and support programs within fire services. Given the unique stressors identified, training should not only focus on physical preparedness but also emphasize mental health strategies. Integrating stress management training into regular professional development can empower firefighters to utilize effective coping strategies in high-pressure situations.

Moreover, implementing structured support systems, such as access to mental health professionals and peer support groups, can further enhance the overall well-being of firefighters. Creating a culture that prioritizes mental health will help destigmatize seeking help and encourage more firefighters to utilize available resources.

Contribution to Broader Discourse

This study contributes to the broader discourse on mental health in high-stress occupations by highlighting the need for tailored interventions. It underscores that mental health support is not a one-size-fits-all solution; rather, it should be customized to address the specific challenges faced by different occupational groups. By focusing on the unique experiences of

firefighters, the findings can inform policies and practices aimed at improving mental health outcomes in similar high-stress environments.

In conclusion, this study emphasizes the critical importance of understanding stress management in firefighters. By recognizing the specific stressors they face and the coping mechanisms they employ, we can better support their mental health and resilience, ultimately enhancing their effectiveness and well-being in this vital profession.

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“INTERPERSONAL STRESS MANGEMENT, AND PROBLEMS IN CORRELATION WITH ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT”

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ABSTRACT

The study explores the relationship between stress and academic achievement in Mathematics and English among high school students, focusing on boys and girls separately and as a whole. A sample of 200 students from the Pune district was selected using a stratified sampling technique. Stress factors such as interpersonal, environmental, academic, and varied problems were analyzed using a Stress Inventory. Academic achievement was measured through mid-term scores in Mathematics and English. Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation was employed for data analysis.

The results show a significant negative relationship between stress and academic achievement in both subjects for boys and girls. Stress due to academic and interpersonal problems particularly impacted performance. The hypotheses proposing a significant correlation between stress and academic achievement for both genders and the combined group of students were accepted.

The study highlights the critical role stress plays in affecting students' academic outcomes and underscores the need for effective stress management strategies. Techniques such as self-management, meditation, and positive self-talk can help mitigate stress and improve academic performance. By understanding stress's impact, students can better manage their well-being, enhancing both mental health and academic success.

Keywords: - stress, academic achievement

INTRODUCTION

Lazarus & Folkman (1984) found that individual coping is conceptualized as an individual's behavioral and intrapsychic efforts to deal with internal and external demands that challenge or exceed his or her resources. According to Edworthy (2000) Stress can result both physical and mental ill health and loss of sense of achievement. These changes by their

very nature will impair the quality of that individual life. One may wonder that stress can adversely affect the students' achievement as it is proved in researches. Students feel difficult in school subjects. This study requires special ability and intelligence. Some students will select mathematics and English forcibly, to meet the demands on them. As a result, they develop phobia towards mathematics and English as it decides one's career. Unlike the past, comparatively a greater number of students are completing higher secondary stage and selecting mathematics and English at higher levels. They concentrate totally on their studies by giving less importance to other activities for better results. All these factors are responsible for stress among students.

Among various factors that influence student's academic performance, academic stress is a major factor. Students aged between 12-18 years account for more than one fifth of the world's population almost 230 million. India this age group forms 23 percentage of the total population. Even though they are facing more problems it is important to take care of them. Quality education requires qualitative teachers, pedagogy transaction, evaluation techniques, curriculum etc., for the better achievement of students. In spite of all care taken by administrators, teachers, and Parents and so on, if the students cannot perform in an expected manner, it will be waste of time as psychological well-being as resources.

Stress can influence both on physical and psychological problems. It is a major problem in maintaining good health and achievement. Secondary stage is almost crucial period in one's own education. The students particularly at this stage feel stress for a longer period. This stress influences the health of the child both physically and mentally. So the researcher considered this area for study in an exhaustive manner. Since studies regarding relationship between stress and mathematics and English achievement are less. The researcher has selected the problem for investigation. Several studies have emphasized that the stress of students and its effect on academic subjects such as Bell (1995) Dubois and Felner (1992) and Ganesan (1995) have found that stress made a significant contribution in poor school performance of adolescents. Selvam (2001) found that 'Effect of various problems of IX standard students on their academic achievement' and observed that boys are more mental distress than girls due to the worries about their career in future. Bodenmann (2005) found that stress was directly related to the deterioration of marital interaction. Couples were videotaped for 10 minutes, once before and once after an experimental stress induction. Observation data revealed that the quality of marital communication decreased by 40% after stress induction. Specifically, under stress, couples' positive interactions (e.g. active listening, interest, and empathy) were reduced, and their negative behaviours (e.g. criticism, contempt,

and belligerence) increased significantly. In a longitudinal study of 82 newlywed couples, Caroli (1992) have reported that students, parents and teachers were more conscious towards their academic achievements. So interference of elders makes stressful situation for adolescents. Mathematics is one of the important subjects to be studied by the student which is a pre requisite to enter into various fields. Cooper (1996) found that, a stress is any force that pushes a psychological or physical factor beyond its range of stability, producing a strain within the individual. Amazigo (2000) found that –Mathematics phobia: diagnosis and prescription identified teaching problems and lack of instructional materials as major factors responsible for poor performance in mathematics. In fact, they may be in mental frustration. Pandey (2008) found that study significance of –Difference between male and female adolescents on academic performance, achievement motivation, intelligence and socio-economic status. Students face additional stress in their family, school and social environment.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The investigator has selected the topic of stress of boys and girls at secondary level and its relation to their academic achievement in the subject mathematics and English. Stress affects both physically and Psychological health of the students.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study was undertaken with the following objectives in view:

- To study the relationship between stress and academic achievement in the subject Mathematics and English among boys.
- To study the relationship between stress and academic achievement in mathematics and English among girls.
- To study the relationship between stress and academic achievement in Mathematics and English among students as a whole.

HYPOTHESES

On the basis of theoretical background and logical supposition, in the present study the following hypotheses are framed.

- There is a significant relationship between stress and academic achievement in Mathematics and English among boys.

- There is a significant relationship between stress and academic achievement in Mathematics and English among girls.
- There is a significant relationship between stress and academic achievement in Mathematics and English among students as a whole.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE:

The study undertaken was descriptive research in education which attempts to describe and analyze the present conditions, with a view to have an accurate picture of the present which in turn forms the basis for future. The population for the present study was high school students of Pune district. The sample for the present investigation consists of 200 high school students selected using stratified sampling technique.

VARIABLES

In the present study the independent variables and dependent variables are as follows: -

Independent variables: - Stress (Interpersonal Problem, Environmental Problem, Academic Problem, Varied Problems).

Dependent variables: - Academic Achievement in Mathematics and English.

Intervening Variables: (i) Gender (Boys / Girls) (ii) Locality-Rural.

RESEARCH TOOLS

Stress Inventory (SI)

Stress Inventory (SI) consists of totally 84 items, grouped into four content areas with three alternative levels, Not at all Stressful 1), UN Decided 2) Highly stressful 3). Only the items with significant mean difference and t -value is considered for final tool. The coefficient of reliability was estimated using Split Half Method. The reliability of SI was 0.654. It shows that the inventory is reliable. Content validity, face validity and intrinsic validity were established using suitable techniques.

COLLECTION OF DATA:

The investigator visited the selected senior college students personally. The researcher gave clear instruction to the students. Sufficient time was given for proper responses. The students took nearly 1 hour to complete the tool. For academic achievement in mathematics and English, the investigator collected mid-Term marks of each student.

PROCEDURE:

After seeking the permission from the participants, data was collected by administering one scales namely, Stress Inventory individually as well as in groups. Uniform instructions were given to the sample. Before giving the booklet of the scale and that of the answer sheets to the respondents, it will be ensured that they will be fulfilling the criteria set for the sample selection. A preliminary introduction of the topic for research will be given to each group to solicit their interest and cooperation. This was also ensured the return of the booklets. Each of the scale has a bio-data form in which the respondents had to fill up their personal information.

The Pearson's Product-moment Correlation technique was used to find out the relationship

STATISTICAL ANYLISIS:

between stressand academic achievement of students and tested for its significance using 't' test.

LIMITIONS:

This study is only focused on 11 to 16 years old students from 7th to 10th standard of education. It does not include the students below the 6th standard and above the 10th standard.

RESULTS

Table-1 :

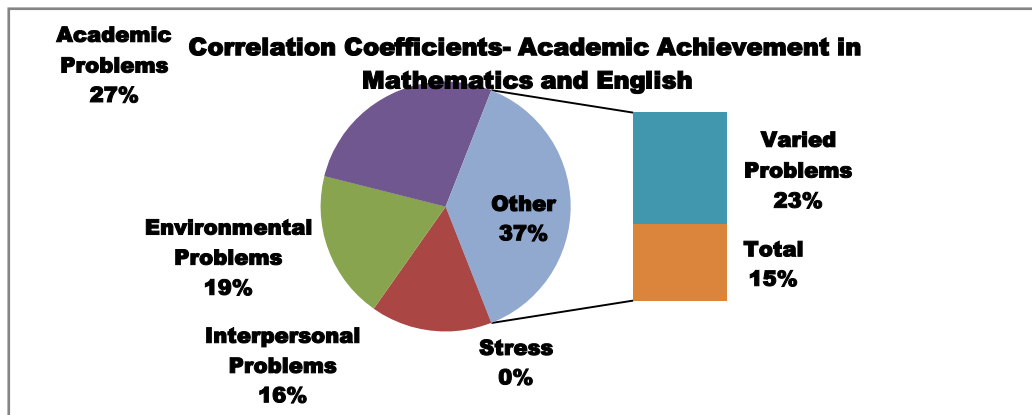
Correlations of factor of stress with academic achievement of boys in Mathematics and English

	Correlation Coefficients- Academic Achievement in Mathematics and English			
<i>Stress</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Interpersonal Problems	200	0.2985	3.3685	<0.01
Environmental Problems	200	0.3635	4.2026	<0.01
Academic Problems	200	-0.5131	6.4392	<0.01
Varied Problems	200	0.4277	5.0959	<0.01
Total	200	-0.2946	3.3199	<0.01

** P<0.01 *P<0.05 NS = Not Significant

Graph No. 01

Correlations of factor of stress with academic achievement of boys in Mathematics and English



DISCUSSION:

The hypotheses-1, There is a significant relationship between stress and academic achievement in mathematics and English among boys. The hypothesis is accepted. The obtained t' value 3.3685 is greater than the tabled t' value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There by there is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *interpersonal problems* and academic achievement of boys in Mathematics and English. Since the obtained t' value 4.2026 is greater than the tabled t' value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *environmental problems* and academic achievement of boys in Mathematics. Since the obtained t' value 6.4392 is greater than the tabled t' value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *academic problems* and academic achievement of boys in Mathematics. Since the obtained t' value 5.0959 is greater than the tabled t' value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *varied problems* and academic achievement of boys in Mathematics. 5. Since the obtained t' value 3.3199 is greater than the tabled t' value 2.76 at 0.01 level.

Table-2 :

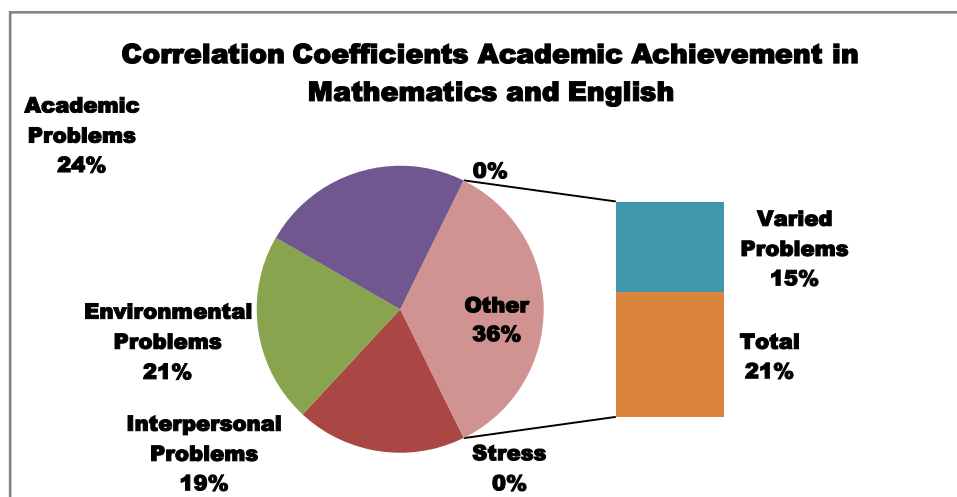
Correlations of factor of stress with Academic Achievement of girls in Mathematics and English

Correlation Coefficients Academic Achievement in Mathematics and English				
<i>Stress</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
Interpersonal Problems	200	-0.4026	-3.9333	<0.01
Environmental Problems	200	0.4489	4.4930	<0.01
Academic Problems	200	-0.5029	5.2034	<0.01
Varied Problems	200	0.3134	2.9520	<0.01
Total	200	-0.4289	4.2467	<0.01

** P<0.01 *P<0.05 NS = Not Significant

Graph No. 02

Correlations of factor of stress with Academic Achievement of girls in Mathematics and English



DISCUSSION:

The hypotheses-2 States that, There is a significant relationship between stress and academic achievement in mathematics and English among girls. The hypothesis is accepted. The obtained t' value -3.9333 is greater than the tabled t' value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *interpersonal problems* and academic achievement of girls in Mathematics and English. Since the obtained t' value 4.4930 is greater than the tabled 't' value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress in Mathematics and English *environmental problems* and academic achievement of girls in Mathematics and English.

English. Since the obtained t value 5.2034 is greater than the tabled t value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *academic problems* and academic achievement of girls in Mathematics and English. Since the obtained t value 2.9520 is greater than the tabled t value 2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *varied problems* and academic achievement of girls in Mathematics and English. Since the obtained t value 4.2467 is greater than the tabled t value 2.76 at 0.01 level.

Table-3:

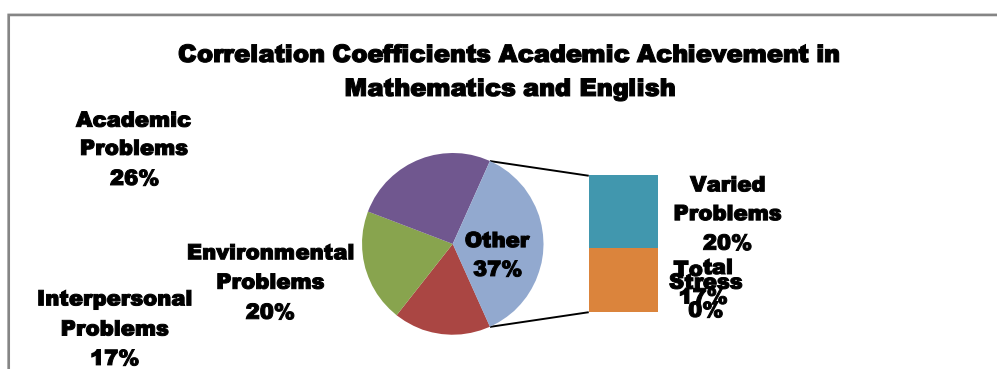
Correlations of factor of stress with academic achievement in Mathematics and English of students taken as a whole unit.

<i>Stress</i>	Correlation Coefficients Academic Achievement in Mathematics and English			
	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Interpersonal Problems	200	-0.3403	5.0922	<0.01
Environmental Problems	200	-0.3973	6.0922	<0.01
Academic Problems	200	-0.5000	8.3206	<0.01
Varied Problems	200	0.3852	5.8733	0<0.01
Total	200	-0.3343	4.9919	<0.01

** P<0.01 *P<0.05 NS = Not Significant

Graph No. 03

Correlations of factor of stress with academic achievement in Mathematics and English of students taken as a whole unit.



DISCUSSION: The hypotheses-3 States that, There is a significant relationship between stress and academic achievement in mathematics and English among students as a whole. The hypothesis is accepted. The obtained t value -0.5000 is greater than the tabled t value

2.76 at 0.01 level, therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. There is a significant negative relationship between the dimension of Stress *interpersonal problems* and academic achievement of students as a whole in Mathematics and English. Since the obtained t value 6.0922 is greater than the tabled t value 2.76 at 0.01 level.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSION:

Problems, and other Varied Problems show significant negative relationship with the academic achievement of boys and girls from the selected sample of the student at secondary level.

STRESS MANAGEMENT:

Stress management encompasses techniques intended to equip a person with effective coping mechanisms for dealing with psychological stress. Definition of stress: Stress management defines stress precisely as a person's physiological response to an external stimulus that triggers the 'fight-or-flight' Reaction. Causes of stress: Many things can trigger the stress reaction, including danger, threat, fear, phobia, anxiety, news, illness, as well as significant changes in one's life such as the death of a loved one. Techniques of stress management include:

- ✓ Self-understanding, Self-management.
- ✓ Positive attitude.
- ✓ Self-talk .
- ✓ Breathing exercises
- ✓ Meditation.
- ✓ Exercise
- ✓ Altering your diet
- ✓ Taking more regular and effective rest.

STRESS BENEFITS: You will acquire skills that will assist you to learn from stressful experiences so that you are not stressed out by the same thing time and time again. You will be able to self-identify and reframe irrational thoughts. You will be able to apply self-hypnosis and self-meditation to personal problems and future goals most importantly; you will increase your stress toughness. One of the immediate benefits is that you will enjoy a significant reduction in the negative impacts of daily hassles. Stress research has shown that it is often the cumulative wear and tear of daily hassles rather than the major life events that cause us damage. You will also make important decisions in relation to work-life balance and

we are self-confident that you will resolve to correct any imbalance. You will be motivated to commence or continue a personal fitness programme. You will understand the important intra-relationship between stress and the immune system. You will be able to download and experience the full benefits of self-relaxation.

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**IMPACT OF GENDER AND RESIDENTIAL AREA ON SUICIDAL IDEATION
AMONG STUDENTS.**

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the impact of gender and residential area on suicidal ideation among 12th-grade students in Jalna city. Utilizing a 2x2 factorial design, a stratified random sample of 100 students between the ages of 17 and 19 was assessed using the Suicidal Ideation Scale by Sisodia and Bhatnagar (2011). Data analysis involved descriptive statistics and ANOVA. Results indicated that female students exhibited significantly higher suicidal ideation levels than male students, and urban students demonstrated higher levels of suicidal ideation than rural students.

Keywords: - suicidal ideation, Gender and residential area.

INTRODUCTION:

Suicidal ideation among students is a critical public health issue, with statistics showing an alarming increase in suicide rates among adolescents worldwide. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2021), suicide is the fourth leading cause of death among 15–19-year-olds. In India, the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB, 2020) reported a concerning rise in youth suicides, with academic pressure, mental health issues, and socio-economic factors being significant contributors. Understanding the demographic factors influencing suicidal thoughts, particularly gender and residential area, is essential in addressing this issue.

Suicidal ideation refers to thoughts about or an obsession with committing suicide, often resulting from various psychological, social, and economic stressors. Many adolescents experience these thoughts transiently, yet a percentage transition to attempts, making it critical to study risk factors that may escalate ideation to action (Klonsky et al., 2014). Studies indicate that suicidal ideation often develops within a complex interplay of individual, relational, and environmental factors, including gender and residential location (Turecki & Brent, 2016).

Influence of Gender on Suicidal Ideation

Gender has been identified as a key variable in suicidal ideation, with notable differences in prevalence and risk factors between males and females. Research consistently demonstrates that adolescent girls report higher rates of suicidal ideation than boys, though boys are more likely to complete suicide attempts (Nock et al., 2008). Girls often experience higher levels of anxiety, depressive symptoms, and stress from interpersonal relationships, which can contribute to increased suicidal thoughts (Beautrais, 2002). Conversely, boys are more susceptible to externalizing behaviors and substance abuse, often contributing to more lethal forms of suicide attempts (Bridge et al., 2006).

Psychological and social differences may explain these gender variations. Theories suggest that females may internalize stress and exhibit self-directed aggression, while males externalize it, which might explain the disparity in ideation and attempts. This distinction highlights the need for gender-sensitive interventions tailored to the unique experiences of male and female adolescents.

Influence of Residential Area on Suicidal Ideation

In addition to gender, residential area—typically categorized as rural or urban—plays a significant role in adolescent mental health and suicidal ideation. Adolescents living in rural areas are often more vulnerable to suicidal ideation due to limited access to mental health services, higher stigma around mental health issues, and socioeconomic challenges (Hirsch & Cukrowicz, 2014). Urban areas, though offering better access to mental health resources, can expose students to intense academic pressures, social isolation, and economic inequalities, which can also contribute to suicidal thoughts (WHO, 2021).

In India, where significant disparities exist between rural and urban mental health resources, the residential area can be particularly influential. A study by Vijayakumar (2007) found that rural adolescents in India were less likely to receive timely interventions, often resulting in elevated suicidal ideation and behaviors. Similarly, a study conducted by Verma et al. (2018) noted that urban students experienced higher academic and peer pressure, which contributed to their psychological stress and ideation. While gender and residential area individually influence suicidal ideation, the intersection of these factors can provide further insight into risk and resilience patterns. For example, rural female adolescents may face compounded challenges due to societal expectations, lack of resources, and stigma, all of which contribute to their vulnerability. Urban male adolescents, on the other hand, may be influenced by

competitive academic environments and peer influences, leading to a different psychological profile concerning ideation (Canetto & Sakinofsky, 1998). A study by Joiner et al. (2009) highlights that these intersecting factors often yield unique stressors and coping strategies among adolescents. For example, rural males may have higher resilience due to cultural attitudes that discourage seeking help, which paradoxically can contribute to heightened ideation. Understanding these combined influences allows for a more nuanced approach to addressing suicidal ideation. Although substantial research addresses the individual effects of gender and residential area, few studies investigate their combined impact on suicidal ideation among students, particularly in the Indian context. Additionally, much of the current literature focuses on Western populations, with limited research exploring these factors in low- and middle-income countries. Addressing these gaps could enhance the cultural relevance and effectiveness of interventions aimed at reducing adolescent suicidal ideation in diverse settings (Patel et al., 2007).

This study aims to explore the impact of gender and residential area on suicidal ideation among students, with a specific focus on adolescent populations. By analyzing these factors and their intersections, this research seeks to contribute to the understanding of contextual influences on mental health, offering insights into tailored prevention and intervention strategies. Additionally, this study aims to inform policies on mental health that take into account the unique experiences of adolescents from different genders and residential backgrounds, ultimately fostering an inclusive approach to mental health support.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Beautrais, (2002) this study highlighted that Females may experience and express emotional distress differently from males, often internalizing issues that contribute to suicidal ideation, while males may externalize these feelings, increasing their risk of completing suicide. **Bridge et al., (2006)** this study indicated that Female adolescents are more likely to experience mental health challenges such as depression and anxiety, which can exacerbate suicidal thoughts. Conversely, male adolescents tend to exhibit riskier behaviors and have a higher rate of substance abuse, which may contribute to fatal outcomes. **Canetto & Sakinofsky, (1998)** this study found that The interaction between gender and residential area further shapes the experience of suicidal ideation in adolescents. Rural female adolescents, for instance, may face a combination of gender-based social expectations and limited access to support resources, compounding their vulnerability. **Canetto and**

Sakinofsky (1998), females tend to express suicidal thoughts more frequently, although males exhibit a higher rate of completed suicides. **Eskin et al., (2019)** this study found that Urban adolescents, on the other hand, face unique stressors, including academic pressures, social media influences, and heightened economic inequality. Although urban areas generally offer more mental health resources, increased competition and social comparison can contribute to mental health challenges and suicidal ideation among students. **Hawton et al., (2012)** this study show that suicidal thoughts are often associated with a range of psychological, social, and environmental factors, with some adolescents at higher risk due to demographic and contextual variables such as gender and residential area. **Hirsch & Cukrowicz, (2014)** this study found that Adolescents in rural areas are often exposed to social isolation, economic hardship, and limited access to mental health resources, which may increase their risk of suicidal thoughts. **Hirsch et al., (2019)** this study indicates that stigma around mental health issues is often higher in rural areas, leading to delays in seeking help. **King and Merchant (2008)** highlighted that while survey data reveal higher ideation rates in females, qualitative data indicate that males often underreport these experiences, creating challenges in interpreting gender differences accurately. **Nock et al., (2008)** this study found that Gender differences are one of the most widely studied variables in suicide research. Adolescent females generally report higher levels of suicidal ideation than their male counterparts. **Stack and Scourfield (2015)**, this study found that females were found to benefit significantly from social support in reducing suicidal thoughts, whereas males were less likely to seek help, often relying on personal resilience or suppressing their feelings, which may exacerbate SI when support is lacking. **Vijayakumar, (2007)** this study found that rural female students are particularly affected by socio-cultural stigma around mental health, making them less likely to seek help. **Zimmerman et al. (2013)** this study found that while depressive symptoms are linked to SI in both males and females, the intensity and expression differ. Females with low self-esteem and depressive symptoms may develop prolonged suicidal ideation, while males are more prone to act impulsively on such thoughts.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

To Study impact of gender and residential area on suicidal ideation among students.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

- To assess the impact of gender and residential area on suicidal ideation among students.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

- There is no significant difference in suicidal ideation between male and female students.
- There is no significant difference in suicidal ideation between students from urban and rural areas.

METHODOLOGY

SAMPLE

In this study, the population comprises all 12th-grade students in Jalna city. A stratified random sample of 100 students was selected from this population, ensuring equal representation of male students (25 urban and 25 rural) and female students (25 urban and 25 rural). The students in the sample were between 17 and 19 years of age.

RESEARCH DESIGN:

2x2 Factorial Designs was used.

VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

- **Independent Variables-** Gender – 1) Male Students 2) Female Students
- **Independent Variables-** Residential area – 1) Urban Students 2) Rural Students
- **Dependent Variables-** Suicidal Ideation

RESEARCH TOOLS: -

Suicidal Ideation Scale

The Suicidal Ideation Scale by Sisodia and Bhatnagar (2011) assesses suicidal thoughts through 25 items, with 21 positive and 4 negative statements rated from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree." Positive items score from 1 to 5, while negative items are scored inversely, resulting in total scores ranging from 25 to 125. Interpretation norms classify ideation levels from "Very Low" (25-30) to "Very High" (121-125). The scale's reliability was verified through test-retest (0.78) and internal consistency (0.81), with a content validity coefficient of 0.74.

PROCEDURES OF DATA COLLECTION: -

In this study, data were collected from 100 participants using the specified instruments, administered individually and in small groups. Students were gathered in groups of 5-10, seated in a designated location, and given the tests. Completed test forms were collected from each participant, and this procedure was repeated until all data were obtained.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

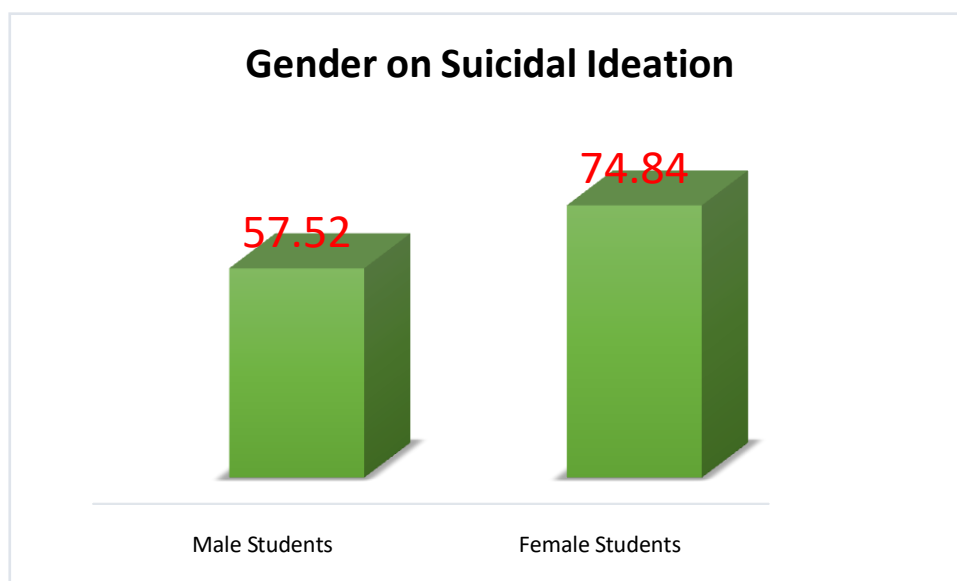
Descriptive statistics, including mean and standard deviation, were calculated in the initial stage. An ANOVA was then conducted using SPSS software for further analysis.

Gender on Suicidal Ideation

Table No.01 Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Gender on Suicidal Ideation

Gender	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Male Students	57.52	10.34	50	98	69.34	0.01
Female Students	74.84	11.95	50			

Graph No. 01 Mean of Gender on Suicidal Ideation



The findings presented in Table 1 and Figure 1 indicate a significant difference in suicidal ideation between male and female students. The mean suicidal ideation score for female students ($M = 74.84$, $SD = 11.95$) is substantially higher than that for male students ($M = 57.52$, $SD = 10.34$). The F-value of 69.34, significant at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis, confirming a statistically significant difference in suicidal ideation between genders. This suggests that female students exhibit higher levels of suicidal ideation compared to male students.

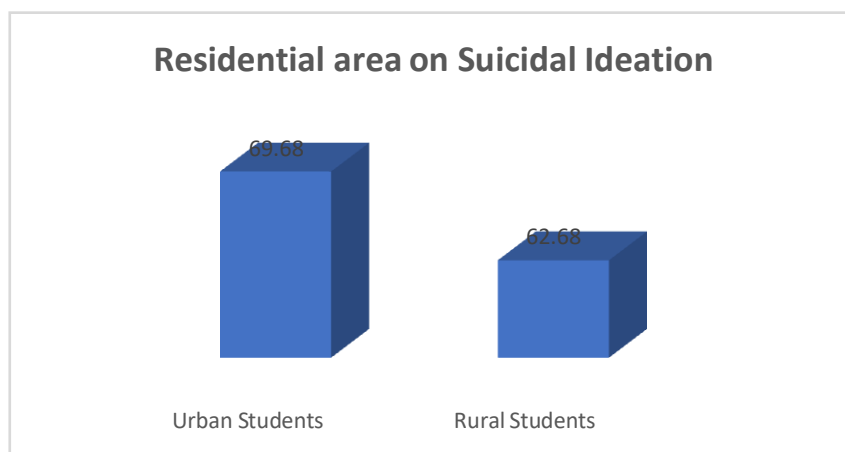
The findings indicate that female students exhibit significantly higher levels of suicidal ideation than male students, aligning with research suggesting gender differences in mental health outcomes, particularly concerning self-harm and suicide risk. Numerous studies have found that female adolescents are often more vulnerable to suicidal ideation due to higher rates of psychological distress and the unique social and emotional challenges they face (Canetto & Sakinofsky, 1998; Liu et al., 2020). Several factors may contribute to these differences. For instance, females are more likely to experience internalizing symptoms, such as depression and anxiety, which are strongly linked to suicidal ideation (Nock et al., 2008). In addition, societal pressures regarding body image, academic performance, and social relationships are often greater for females, which can increase stress and lead to feelings of hopelessness (Evans et al., 2017). Furthermore, gender socialization may also play a role; females are generally encouraged to express emotions openly, which could lead to greater awareness of emotional distress and, consequently, higher reporting of suicidal thoughts (Silva et al., 2018). This gender disparity underscores the need for mental health interventions that are sensitive to gender-specific risk factors and experiences. Targeted programs addressing the unique pressures faced by adolescent females may prove effective in reducing rates of suicidal ideation within this demographic.

Residential area on Suicidal Ideation

Table No.02. Show the Mean, SD and F Value of Gender on Suicidal Ideation

Residential area	Mean	SD	N	DF	F Value	Sign.
Urban Students	69.68	11.14	50	98	11.32	0.01
Rural Students	62.68	11.95	50			

Graph No. 02. Mean of Residential area on Suicidal Ideation



The findings from Table 2 and Figure 2 reveal a significant difference in suicidal ideation between urban and rural students. The mean suicidal ideation score for urban students ($M = 69.68$, $SD = 11.14$) is notably higher than that for rural students ($M = 62.68$, $SD = 15.93$). The F-value of 11.32, which is significant at both the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, supports the rejection of the null hypothesis, indicating a statistically significant difference in suicidal ideation between these groups. This suggests that urban students exhibit higher levels of suicidal ideation than rural students.

The results demonstrate that urban students show significantly higher levels of suicidal ideation compared to rural students. This finding is consistent with prior studies indicating that adolescents in urban areas may be more susceptible to mental health challenges, including suicidal ideation, due to factors such as greater academic pressure, social isolation, and a faster-paced lifestyle (Qi et al., 2020; Lu, 2017). Urban environments often involve higher levels of stress and competition, which can lead to feelings of inadequacy and hopelessness among students (Zhao & Zhang, 2019). Furthermore, urban adolescents may have less access to supportive family and community networks, as urban lifestyles can be more individualistic, reducing the sense of social connectedness that rural communities typically provide (Han et al., 2018). The availability and influence of digital media are often higher in urban settings, exposing students to unrealistic expectations and potentially harmful content, which can exacerbate feelings of distress (Wang & Xie, 2016). This digital exposure, coupled with the pressures of academic and social performance, may contribute to the elevated suicidal ideation observed among urban students. These findings highlight the importance of implementing mental health support systems in urban schools, tailored to address the unique stressors faced by students in urban environments.

CONCLUSION

- 1) female students exhibit higher levels of suicidal ideation compared to male students.
- 2) urban students exhibit higher levels of suicidal ideation than rural students

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