**Chapter 2**

**Review of Literature and Studies**

**Related Literature**

**Local Literature**

Although an increasing number of children and adolescents are becoming obese, the psychological morbidities associated with obesity are not well established. Existing reviews report modest associations between obesity and global self-esteem. However, none have examined how this affects multi-component assessments of self-esteem and quality of life in young people with defined obesity. A literature search identified 17 self-esteem and 25 quality of life studies of cross-sectional, longitudinal or intervention design published since 1994. Child-completed and parent-proxy assessments were consistent in showing significant reductions in global self-esteem and quality of life in obese youth. Competences particularly affected were physical competence, appearance and social functioning. There were no clear differences in effects between children and adolescents, and evidence on gender and ethnicity was lacking. Competency improvements occurred in the presence and absence of weight loss, suggesting their value as intervention outcomes and the need for further investigation.

Extensive research has focused on the nurturing and protective role of families, in general, and connections to family have been shown to be protective against major health risk behaviors (e.g., Resnick et al., 1997). Although family relationships are understood to be a primary context for adolescent development, only a small number of studies have focused on the role of parent–adolescent relationships for lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) youth and young adults. Literature addressing the family relationships for transgender adolescents and young people is miniscule. Given the crucial role of parents in promoting adolescent well-being, it is surprising that so little attention has focused on the parenting of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) adolescents. Most existing research has focused on negativity in the relationships between LGB youth and their parents; no known research has considered the possible developmental benefits of family acceptance and supportive behaviors for LGBT youth. One study has assessed the relationship between LGB young adults' perceived family support (e.g., general closeness, warmth, and enjoying time together) and depression, substance use, and suicidality (Needham & Austin, 2010).

The lack of literature on family support is particularly surprising because LGB youth and adults (Cochran, Sullivan, & Mays, 2003; D'Augelli, 2002; Meyer, 2003) and youth with same-gender attractions (Russell & Joyner, 2001) are known to be at risk for compromised physical and emotional health. Research over the past decade has begun to trace the origins of health disparities associated with sexual identity; these studies have focused largely on the role of victimization and negative peer relationships during adolescence and associated health risks in adolescence and young adulthood (Diamond & Lucas, 2004; Lasser & Tharinger, 2003; Russell, 2005; Russell, Seif, & Truong, 2001; Ryan & Rivers, 2003; van Wormer & McKinney, 2003).

Studies show that LGB adolescents' relationships with their parents are often challenged, particularly around the time of disclosure of sexual identity or “coming out” (D'Augelli, Grossman, & Starks, 2005; Patterson, 2000; Savin-Williams, 1998a, 1998b; Savin-Williams & Dubé, 1998; Tharinger & Wells, 2000) or when parents learn that their children are LGBT. Researchers in one study (Rosario, Schrimshaw, & Hunter, 2009) examined substance use among LGB youth and asked youth whether they perceived reactions to their LGB identity from a range of people (including family members, coaches, teachers, therapists, neighbors, and friends) to be accepting, neutral, or rejecting. The number of perceived rejecting reactions were reported to predict substance use; although accepting reactions did not directly reduce substance use, such reactions buffered the link between rejections and substance use.

Raevuori et al. (2007) conducted a longitudinal study to analyse the genetic and environmental influences on self-esteem among Finnish twins. The 4132 twin individuals were assessed at age 14 years and 3841 twin individuals were assessed at age 17 years. The Rosenberg Global Self-Esteem Scale was used to measure self-esteem and the results indicated that stability in self-esteem was differently regulated in adolescent boys compared to girls. Genetic factors contributed to a large degree in boys, whereas significant shared environmental influences suggest that interventions intended to strengthen girl's self-esteem could be more feasible than among boys.

Sud and Sethi (2008) examined the interrelationship between state anxiety, trait anxiety, test anxiety, stress, negative mood regulation, achievement motivation and self-esteem of adolescent female students. The result reveals that there was a significant interrelationship between the state anxiety, trait anxiety, test anxiety, stress, negative mood regulation and self-esteem. However no interrelationship was seen between the achievement motivation and the other variables.

**Foreign Literature**

In this study, we examined longitudinal, person-centered trajectories of acculturation, internalizing symptoms, and self-esteem in 349 Latino adolescents. We compared acculturation measures (time in the US, culture-of-origin involvement, US cultural involvement, for both parents and adolescents); acculturation stressors (perceived discrimination, acculturation conflicts); and family dynamics (parent–adolescent conflict, familism). Results indicated that, over time, Latino adolescents’ internalizing problems decreased and their self-esteem increased. However, we showed that increased length of time living in the US was significantly related to lower self-esteem among adolescents. Parent–adolescent conflict was a strong risk factor, which not only directly heightened internalizing symptoms and lowered self-esteem, but also mediated the effects of acculturation conflicts and perceived discrimination on these outcomes. Our findings revealed familism as a cultural asset associated with fewer internalizing symptoms and higher self-esteem. Internalizing symptoms were also minimized by the adolescent’s involvement in the US culture whereas bicultural adolescents with high culture-of-origin involvement reported higher self-esteem. We discussed the limitations and implications of this study for future research and practice.

“Hyojeong (2008) investigated the relationship between self-esteem scores measured by the culture-free self-esteem inventories and the scores of the selected predictor variables as measured by the children version of the family environment scale (CVFES) in fourth, fifth and sixth grade children attending Korean Baptist churches. The variables were cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, control and moral religious emphasis. The combined scales of CFSEI and CVFES were administered to 133 fourth, fifth and sixth grade children attending Korean

Baptist churches in the Dallas Fort Worth area. The multiple regression analyses indicated that cohesion and conflict was statistical significant predictor of children self-esteem. Cohesion was positive predictor and conflict was negative predictor. Expressiveness, control and moral religious emphasis were not statistically significant predictor”.

“Tawnyea (2008) examined relationship with parent gender and self esteem associated with internalizing problem. Archival method was used for collecting scores. The result indicated that the degree of internalizing problem was related to quality of parent relationship and self esteem. Children who reported better relationship with their parents and high self esteem reported less internalizing problem but children having low self-esteem reported higher

internalizing problem”.

“Arslan, Hamarta and Uslu (2010) studied relationship between life satisfaction, self-esteem and conflict communication. The sample consists of 306 university students. The results of the study show that self-esteem was positively correlated with confrontation, emotional expression, self-disclosure and life satisfaction. The results also show that life satisfaction was positively correlated with confrontation, emotional expression and self-disclosure”.

“Bhattacharjee (2010) investigated the self-esteem of tribal and non-tribal college students. It also attempted to find out the self-esteem of male and female college students. The sample of study consisted of 100 college students. Among them 50 were tribal students and the rests were non- tribal college students. Again among them 50 were male students and the rests were female students. Result showed that self-esteem of college students differed significantly in relation to their community and gender. This further indicated that tribal college students possessed low self-esteem in comparison to non-tribal college students. Again, male college students possessed high self-esteem in comparison to female college students”.

“Hasnain, Ansari and Sethi (2011) studied the difference between married and unmarried, working and non-working women on life satisfaction and selfesteem. For this purpose a total 80 were taken on incidental basis. Among them 40 were working and 40 non working. Among each group there were 20 married and 20 unmarried women making a 2x2 factorial design. ANOVA showed significantly greater life satisfaction and lower self-esteem for working women than for non-working women. However, non-significant difference was found between married and unmarried women on both life satisfaction and self-esteem. The interactional effects of working status and marital status were found non-significant for both life satisfaction and self-esteem”.

**Related Studies**

**Local Studies**

Implicit self-esteem has remained an active research topic in both the areas of implicit social cognition and self-esteem in recent decades. The purpose of this study is to explore the development of implicit self-esteem in adolescents. A total of 599 adolescents from junior and senior high schools in East China participated in the study. They ranged in age from 11 to 18 years with a mean age of 14.10 (SD = 2.16). The degree of implicit self-esteem was assessed using the Implicit Association Test (IAT) with the improved D score as the index. Participants also completed the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (alpha = 0.77). For all surveyed ages, implicit self-esteem was positively biased, all ts > 8.59, all ps < 0.001. The simple correlation between implicit self-esteem and age was significant, r = -.25, p = 1.0 x 10(-10). A regression with implicit self-esteem as the criterion variable, and age, gender, and age 6 gender interaction as predictors further revealed the significant negative linear relationship between age and implicit self-esteem, beta = -0.19, t = -3.20, p = 0.001. However, explicit self-esteem manifested a reverse "U'' shape throughout adolescence. Implicit self-esteem in adolescence manifests a declining trend with increasing age, suggesting that it is sensitive to developmental or age-related changes. This finding enriches our understanding of the development of implicit social cognition.

Lccs Almogela. L et al (2013) showed that there is no significant difference between the relationship of self-esteem and health-related behavior when grouped according to males and females. t implied that when it comes to the variable gender! The relationship of self-esteem and health related behavior of males and females are not significantly different from one another. There searchers used the Rosenbergs & self-steem & calein Saint Louis University School of Nursing Baguio. There is no significant difference between self-esteem and health related behaviors of males and females! Because gender doesn’t moderate the relationship between the self-esteem and health-related behaviors. (Stress and, gender in relation to & self-esteem of University Business Students! 2011). This study in contradictor to some researches in which the relationship of self-esteem and health-related behaviors of males and females shown that there was a statistically significant difference with one another! which shows that males scored significantly higher level of self-esteem than females (Self-esteem and optimism in rural, gender differences! 2010)

Olea et al. [8] investigated self-esteem of 33 freshmen Bsc. Biology major in Biotechnology students of the college of Arts and Science Technological University, Mandaluyong City, Philippians, concluded that both the male and female showed positive perception of their self-esteem. However, the perceived self-esteem of both male and female respondents showed a lower correlation with their academic performance. Similarly, Aryana [9] studied the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement amongst pre-university students. The study used 50 male and 50 female pre-university students. The study revealed that there was significant positive relationship between self-esteem and academic development. Also, there was significant difference in academic achievement between boys and girls.