



**PREDICTORS OF SELF-ESTEEM AMONG UNDERGRADUATE
COLLEGE GOING STUDENTS**

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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation entitled “***PREDICTORS OF SELF-ESTEEM AMONG UNDERGRADUATE GOING STUDENTS***” has been prepared by me under the guidance of Ms. Simran Kaur Batra, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, D.A.V College, Sector 10. No part of the thesis has formed the basis for the award of any degree or fellowship previously.

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ABSTRACT

During the transition phase from school to college, especially when getting relocated to a new place, college students fight with a lot of difficulties and challenges that can affect their self-esteem. This in turn can lead to an increase in the possibilities of mental and physical health issues in the future. The aim of the study was to examine the potential predictors of self-esteem as body image, fear of negative evaluation and perfectionism and to investigate gender differences in the same among undergraduates' males and females. There was a total of 100 undergraduates from different colleges in the Tricity, out of which 50 were males and 50 were females. Self-administered questionnaires were used for the study. Fear of negative appearance evaluation, subscales of perfectionism (discrepancy and standard) came out to be significant predictors of self-esteem. No significant gender differences were found for males and females on self-esteem, body image, perfectionism and fear of negative evaluation. There was a significant and positive relationship between self-esteem and body surveillance and control beliefs and a significant negative relationship between self-esteem and fear of negative appearance evaluation and discrepancy among females. While in males' self-esteem had a significant and positive relationship with body surveillance and negative and significant relationship between self-esteem and discrepancy and fear of negative appearance evaluation.

KEYWORDS: *Self-esteem, Body Image, Perfectionism, Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation, College Students*

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

College phase is thought of as the best and the most memorable time in a person's life, and the nostalgia can still be felt years later. It exposes one to a world full of opportunities, and things one has never encountered in their life. It is entirely different from school and is a place for people to socialize on a larger scale and to explore new interests, however simultaneously it can also be a place for others to concentrate on their careers and work for a better future. Even if one makes a lot of blunders during this time, these highs and lows a person experience makes them wise enough to deal with challenges in the future. An individual's life goes through a lot of changes when transitioning from school to college.

Even though both school and college are both memorable places, there are huge differences between both these institutions. One spends half of their lives in a school and thus gets used to the environment. They feel secure in school due to the familiarity, on the other hand college is for a short span and so one is introduced to new challenges and lessons. In school, our teachers and friends act as guardians and well-wishers and are always there for us when we need them, but in college the mentors are busy and so bonding with the professor is up to the student. Also, college deals with older sections of individuals who are pursuing higher education and even though both institutes' main motive is to impart skill and knowledge to their students, college is involved in critical thinking, analyses and research.

A college is an institution for higher learning that offers a wide variety of academic programmes and courses. Compared to school, it is larger, more independent and has a diverse student body. On the other hand, college students have more autonomy and flexibility at the institution in terms of their social and academic lives. This allows them to have more freedom in terms of choosing their classes, teachers and schedules than they have in high school, where there is a structured set of curriculums.

Another difference between them is that school is a more supportive environment and has a lower student- teacher ratio, while a college has more complex academic requirements and a self-directed atmosphere. It is expected of a college student to take charge of their social

and academic lives, manage their time well, and seek out support when necessary. Therefore, colleges have more resources and support services as compared to school.

Transition from School to College

An individual might go through enormous change as they make the transition from school to college. This transition opens new possibilities for the students which makes them more independent as well as responsible for themselves. The usual environment at school might help the students feel relaxed and secure. So, shifting to a completely different environment can take a toll on the students' physical and mental health. This transition is quite difficult and challenging for some students. But with little patience and hard work, students can overcome these difficulties and get adjusted to the new life.

In college one focus is on higher studies, because of which there is an increase in academic pressure and expectations, which can be overwhelming for some students. This can affect a person's perception and self-esteem as well as lead to anxiety. Another change in a student's life is in his social group, where in school one only talks to peers around their age, but in college one interacts with people from all around the world and with different experiences. One gets exposed to a lot of new information as they form new connections. Also, the students can engage in various community and social activities and make new friends.

When a person is studying in college his time is often considered as a transition period between their scholastic years and future job prospects. It basically offers one the building base to realize one's goals. It acts as a bridge of transition to make one independent in life. While in school, one is totally dependent on their parents and teachers but in college the person becomes independent and makes life, travel and financial decisions himself. One gains more respect in terms of their ability to live independently, and one is usually unaware of when and how this transition took place.

SELF-ESTEEM IN COLLEGE STUDENTS

Self-esteem contributes to a student's physical and psychological well-being. Rosenberg (1979) considered self-esteem is the negative and positive attitudes that individuals frame for themselves. It is very vital for a student to have high self-esteem, as this can help them to increase their confidence, have faith in themselves and have a positive outlook towards life.

Students with high self-esteem tend to be more focused towards their goals, are quite motivated and will be able to maintain a balance in their lives. Moreover, they will have good relations with his/her peers, will do well academically and have an active participation in cocurricular activities. While a student with low self-esteem will be overly critical about themselves, lack self-confidence and will suffer from feeling of inadequacy. They might have a negative outlook towards life and will be pessimistic about their situation.

Stress from college workload, peer pressure, responsibility and academic stress can lead to decrease in self-esteem. Students should practice healthy habits such as exercise, eating healthy food and mindfulness to increase their self-esteem. Also, they should keep small realistic objectives which can help them to regain their confidence.

ADJUSTMENT IN COLLEGE STUDENT LIFE

Students leave their protected shell when shifting from school to college, which can cause some uneasiness about the future and the environment. Shifting to a new place can be exciting as well as overbearing, one must face a lot of challenges while adjusting and sometimes have to make no. of sacrifices.

While transitioning from school to college some students can adjust easily to the new environment, as well as thrive socially and academically. These students have goals, are self-reliant, self-motivated and can adapt to any situation with ease. When in college one is overloaded with work, social activities, assignments and one must even prioritize their own time. These students know how to manage their time effectively and balance their workloads. They also prioritize their own time and try to participate in extracurricular activities.

Another problem faced by college students is an increase in academics and workload pressure. Schools don't have an extensive syllabus and have a structured curriculum, where teachers help the student in need. While in college academics require critical and logical thinking, it makes the student deal with the problem creatively, so it is important that students seek out support services, help and resources when in need and take responsibility for it.

Not everyone has friends with them when they shift from school to college. Students might have to say goodbye to their friends and family when leaving for college. Students interact with new people and can make new friends but making friends in a new environment

can be a difficult task for some students and as a result they might get anxious. Also not having a friend in an unfamiliar environment can make them feel lonely and scared. Students should take initiative and reach out to people and should keep an open mind to new experiences.

When a student starts attending college he is expected to learn to survive on his own and become independent. This could be overwhelming for some as they have to be cautious about the decisions they make but this can also lead to an increase in confidence in themselves. Students will learn new skills to make right and efficient decisions. Therefore, they must have a positive outlook towards growth and learning.

No matter how easily a student can adjust well to college life, it doesn't mean everyone else will. Every student is different and has a different set of qualities, attitudes and personality traits. Some students may face problems with academics and might fail to meet the social demands of the college. These students may face difficulty in managing their time and creating a balance and fail to gain new friends in the process. As a result, they may experience anxious feelings, a great deal of stress and low self-esteem which can greatly impact their overall wellbeing. They may find it hard to make decisions for themselves which lowers their confidence in their abilities. All this can also affect their social adjustment and may struggle to make meaningful connections. Students can overcome this by balancing their workload, forming good habits, seeking out help when in need and interacting with other students.

BODY IMAGE IN COLLEGE STUDENTS

Body image is an important topic among college going students. During this period students go through social, psychological and physiological changes which are difficult for a student to cope with, which further influences their perception towards their body image. Every student wants to look their best when they start attending college, and for this they follow the beauty standards of society. The beauty standards of the society keep on changing in this ever-changing world and every individual tries to keep up at par with it. The students, therefore, may try to control their weight and any change in it can cause stress. This maintenance of specific body type and weight can make a student develop a negative body image which can lead to an increase in eating disorders. The student may start feeling anxious and develop low self-esteem as a result.

The college environment, society norms, social media and peer groups can contribute to an increase in negative body image. The college environment can put enormous pressure on a student to excel in all phases of his life be it academics, social groups, extra co-curricular activities which can impact their body image. Also, media and social platforms highlight unrealistic beauty norms that can lead a person to be insecure about their own body and thus makes one go through harmful medical procedures to attain the perfect look according to beauty standards. So, when a student is not able to look a certain way, they start judging themselves through negative perception. Peer pressure can also contribute to an increase in negative body image as a student may try to change how they look to fit in the social circle. They also must constantly be conscious about their body and appearance so they can stay in the inner group of the social group which can increase their negative body image.

Students should surround themselves with optimistic and positive people and should develop healthy habits such as eating healthy food, exercising and practicing self-love. These habits can help a student develop a positive body image which can further increase their self-esteem and confidence. Also, they can seek help from professional and support services provided by colleges.

PERFECTIONISM IN COLLEGE STUDENTS

An individual attends a college with a goal in their mind and therefore tries to make no mistakes and strive for excellence in all aspects of his life. This can help students achieve high standards and meet all the internal and external expectations. These high standards not only help an individual to achieve their goals, but also help them to stay motivated. Perfectionism can make a person pay attention to details which can help them to be accurate and can ignite the zeal to keep growing and learning. It can also lead to an increase in one's self-esteem which helps to have a better future with more opportunities.

But one must be able to find differences between positive perfectionism and negative perfectionism. Students with positive perfectionism will set realistic goals for themselves, they will accept their mistakes, won't be overly critical about themselves and will try to stay calm in uncertain situations.

While a student with negative perfectionism will set high unrealistic goals for himself or may feel constant pressure to be perfect. As a result they may experience stress and anxiety

when things don't go their way. They will also be over critical about everything they do and as a result may indulge in procrastination. The student will face difficulty in concentration and there will be a decrease in their self-esteem as a result.

FEAR OF NEGATIVE APPEARANCE EVALUATION IN COLLEGE STUDENTS

The fear of negative appearance evaluation is a common concern among college students, particularly those in their late or early adulthood or adolescence. This unease comes from the worry of being evaluated unfavourably based on physical appearance, such as shape of one's body, weight, height, facial features, or clothing style. The reason for this fear includes pressure enforced by the society to meet beauty standards set according to it, one's personal insecurities, or past experiences of being bullied. Negative consequences of it may include low self-esteem, anxiety, depression, social withdrawal, and disordered eating behaviours.

To address this problem in college students, creating a safe and accepting environment that promotes diversity, inclusion, and body positivity can be extremely helpful. Providing resources and support for students who are struggling with body image issues can also be beneficial. Additionally, encouraging healthy lifestyle habits like regular exercise and balanced nutrition can also improve physical and mental well-being and reduce the emphasis on appearance as the sole determinant of self-worth.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

SELF-ESTEEM

The foremost explanation of self-esteem was done by William James who explained that self-esteem is nothing, but success divided by pretences and considered it to be proportionate to one's potential to what they are (James, 1890). Self-esteem could be explained as an individual's self-image and their tendency to enjoy or worry about things is greatly influenced by their self-esteem.

According to Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) self-esteem is “an individual sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves, appreciates, prizes, or likes himself or herself.” One’s self-image and the tendency to enjoy or worry about things is greatly influenced by one’s self-esteem. According to Rosenberg (1979), “self-esteem is the negative and positive attitudes that individuals have of themselves.” Rogers (1961) also gave his viewpoint about self-esteem and asserted that “Self-esteem in terms of the disparity that exists between the ideal self and the real self and viewed the social world as the source of ideas and knowledge (ideal self) against which the individual evaluates his/her actual performance and thus his/her level of self-esteem is determined”.

Self-esteem comes from a Greek word meaning ‘self-reverence’ and the self-part stands for one’s own belief, attitudes and behaviour. It is a widely used notion in modern life and many people believe that having high esteem is essential for success in a variety of aspects of life. In fact, it is commonly believed that promoting high self-esteem and minimizing low self-esteem are significant societal objectives that call for intake of extensive interventions to raise the degree of self-esteem in the community. People are strongly motivated to reach this goal which explains a significant amount of human behaviour and has been a key subject in psychological thinking (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001; Horney, 1937; Fein & Spencer, 1997; James, 1890; Kernis & Waschull, 1995; Tesser, 1988; Sullivan, 1953).

Much research on self-esteem have been conducted, providing insights into its origins and historical development. Particularly in social psychology and personality and related areas “ it has been linked to models of conformity (Brockner, 1984), attraction (Hatfield, 1965),

persuasion (Rhodes & Wood, 1992), cognitive dissonance (Steele, Spencer, & Lynch, 1933), subjective wellbeing (Diener & Diener, 1995), and social comparison processes.”

Self-esteem Models

Cognitive Model of Self-Esteem

The bottom-up postulates that evaluation responses that include success and failure, interpersonal acceptance and elimination influence perceptions of oneself which is responsible for establishing a feeling of self-worth and self-esteem. So is also called the bottom-up model because according to it, a person's basic attitude towards their own characteristics can lead to an increase in their self-esteem and self-worth. So, if a person has a positive attitude towards themselves and they believe they are smart and well-liked by others they will have high self-esteem.

According to a study conducted by Josephs et al. (1992) some people (often men) base their self-worth according to their ability to do something efficiently while others (often women) base their self-worth according to their ability to interact in a social environment effectively.

Affective Model of Self-esteem

This model provides an explanation of self-esteem through a different perspective. According to this model, self-esteem develops early in childhood because of one's relationship orientation at childhood and their temperament. This model is also called top-down approach (Bown et al., 2001). After self-esteem has been established it impacts one feeling of self-worth and self-evaluation. Self-evaluation and sense of self-worth are influenced by a combination of global self-esteem and evaluation feedback. So, when a person with high self-esteem comes across negative comments or feedback, they can overcome it and in the process are able to keep their self-evaluation and self-worth high. Alternatively, if a person who had low self-esteem comes across negative comments and feedback, they fall in a negative thought pattern circle and in the process lose their self-worth (Brown & Marshall, 2001).

Sociological Model of Self-esteem

This model provides new insight into the characteristics and establishment of self-esteem. “Looking glass” model of Cooley (1902) and Mead's (1934) views of perspective taking are other sociological models which assumed that self-esteem is affected by societal factors. An individual will have strong self-esteem if they believe that they are highly regarded

and valued by the society. This model suggests that sociological factors such as wealth, education, and social positions (race, gender and religion) have an impact on one's sense of self-worth and ultimately influence self-esteem.

Although in a study conducted by Crocker and Major (1989) and Wylie (1979) it was found that the self-esteem of people who were wealthy, educated, successful in different fields or were socially privileged did not have any higher self-esteem than people who were less privileged in these areas. On the other hand, people with less privileges or minority groups were found to have more self-esteem than people who were socially privileged (Rosenberg, 1979). According to the social identity theory, people who had a positive outlook for their social groups were more confident and had higher self-esteem as compared to those who had a negative outlook (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

BODY IMAGE

Body image refers to one's perception about their own body and is responsible for their change in emotions, behaviour and relationship. It is a multidimensional concept and can also affect one's thought patterns (Muth & Cash, 1997). According to a study conducted by Birraux (1990), body image is the key component in adolescence. There are numerous studies given by different researchers that focus on two important concepts of body image.

- The first concentrates on evaluating one's body image or a person's opinions and thoughts about his or her own physical appearance.
- Secondly the focus is on the actions people do to change or enhance their physical appearance and their perception about their own body (Cash & Szymanski, 1995).

Muth and Cash (1997) define body image "as a multidimensional concept which is attributed to a thought pattern of a person, as well as behaviour and feeling according to their physical appearance". Budsiz (2016) noted that dissatisfaction related to one's body is contributed because of negative body image in adolescents as there are individualistic differences in adolescents.

Consequence of Body Image

According to Striegel-Moore and Franko (1994) body image is commonly associated with maladaptiveness. Self-image issues can lead to unfavourable, body dissatisfaction as well as deception of one's perceptions towards its physical appearance or body misjudgement. As a result, this can affect physical and psychological well-being negatively.

Earlier research about body image dissatisfaction were only limited to women, however new studies have verified that there is an increase in disorders related to eating and dissatisfaction related to body in men and boys (Ricciardelli & McCabe, 2004; Furnham et al., 2002). According to Pokrajac- Bulian and Zivcic- Becirevic (2005) disturbance in body image was contributed because of three components i.e body dissatisfaction, body image disorder and body size distortion.

Body Image Models

Personal Control-Belief and Body Dissatisfaction

According to Strickland (1978), a person's self-concept has been described "as one's ability to govern themselves or events outside of their control". According to research, those who have higher expectations for themselves are more likely to control their behaviour externally. For instance, those who have high internal scores desire to lose weight to feel more confident and in their capacity to do so, they might contribute to blooming of self-esteem.

Whereas, other studies by Pokrajac-Bulian and Zivic-Becirevic (2005) and Furnham and Greaves (1994) revealed that people who had high externality score believed that achieving their ideal body is complicated, which can lead to disappointment, dissatisfaction related to one's body, depression, lower levels of self-esteem and feeling of powerlessness.

Theory of Self Schema

According to theory of self-schema, an individual's body shape is a model constructed for personal self that distinguishes them from other people. This model was developed from the perspective of an individuals to recognize their own body, reaction they provide their body with, feedback they receive from others and the impact of sociocultural factors and mass media which has a receptive tendency towards the societal cues (Myers & Bymiocca, 1992; Jung & Lennon, 2003).

According to this theory there are four main categories: the real body of an individual, the ideal body as represented by the society, the ideal body as influenced by society and objectively and lastly the body self-perceived by an individual. In research conducted by Myers and Biocca (1992) they discovered the disparities between a person's actual physical body and the ideal body which is ultimately affected by society or objectively linked to self-loathing and diminished self-respect.

It is based on the assumption that media plays an important role in bringing the individual internalizing ideal body (one that is influenced by the society or is considered

objectively ideal) closer to the communally symbolized ideal body (one that is characterized by society) which means that the ideal body of an individual takes a form of a idealistic skinny body shape that is frequently portrayed in media. The most critical component of self-schema is appearance. Jung and Lennon (2003) found that there is a positive relationship between appearance self-schema and body image dissatisfaction, pessimistic thoughts and low self-esteem levels.

Theory of Self Discrepancy

The self-discrepancy theory, according to Moretti and Wiebe (1999), describes the differences between one's ideal and true nature as well as their social cognitive process that might occur during adolescence. The aim of this theory is to clarify how the self of an individual is created by differentiating the real self from the ideal self and the self that is expected of them from others.

According to Veale (2004) the distinction between ideal and real self is what makes self-assessment standards norms and self-guides that are useful in prevention of undesirable emotional states and maladaptive behaviours like depression, discontentment with one's appearance and eating disorder. Even though self-discrepancy is a cognitive process it has been noticed that external factors do influence it to some extent. According to a study conducted by Cohen (2006) it was noticed that body image perception changes on a regular basis due to the impact of media.

Feminist Theory of Body Image

Females are conditioned from the start to perceive themselves as an object, according to a study conducted by Frost (2001), women go through numerous challenges in life when they are trying to climb the ladder of success be it professionally, politically or intellectually due to gender stereotypes. Additionally, Grogan (1999) argues that women are seen as a victim of a culture that emphasizes for women's body to remain slim, judge them as someone having a lower status in the society and associating them with weak femininity. To see the effect of culture on women, Mckinley (1996) developed a scale called Objectified Body Consciousness (OBC), an assessment based on feminist theory. Mckinley based this theory on three components: internalization of cultural body ideals, appearance control beliefs, and body observation.

Cognitive-Behavioral Model of Body Image

According to cognitive-behavioural model (Cash, 1994; Rumsey & Harcourt, 2005) one's attitudes related to their body, evaluation of body image, body image schema and investment in body image are all influenced by an individual's past experiences, such as being teased by their friends and parents, their own characteristics and cultural factors. With the aid of the proximal process, people will either favourably or negatively evaluate their physical appearance. In addition to it, a lot of different factors such as one's thoughts, perception and conclusion as well as their appearance schema and emotions influence it. According to a study conducted by Harcourt (2005) revealed that body shame, low psychological well-being and social avoidance anxiety are all linked to the expectations society has for one to fail.

Body Image in Youth

In a study by McCabe and Ricciardelli (2000) found that teenage girls showed greater dissatisfaction related to their body as compared to teenage boys. Contrarily, a study by Furnham (2002) noted that males who expressed greater unhappiness with their appearance were split between one's who wanted to have weight loss and those who wished to build muscles. According to Davies and Furnham (1986), girls usually attempted to lose weight because they believed they were on a heavier side as compared to boys in weight, which as a result caused considerable discrepancy between their real and ideal body image. Young adults in college were constantly working to establish daily routines, such as exercise and their daily eating habits which have a huge impact on their weight control behaviours later in life

George and Johnson (2001) found that students' both weight control tactics and self-perception are greatly influenced by the college environment. According to Lowery et al. (2005), male and female college students are most likely to struggle with issues related to their body image and body mass concerns. On the other hand, Rozin, Trachtenberg, and Cohen (2001) found that there are no discernible differences in ideal and actual body shapes for males and females college going students.

PERFECTIONISM

Perfectionism in a simple sense means to achieve flawlessness in almost everything and establish incredibly high standards for oneself, but also being cautious and critical of one's performance and sometimes having constant fear of rejection by others because of failures. According to Grzegorek et al. (2004) characteristics such as need for organization, having high

expectations for oneself and being self-critical are associated with perfectionism. Parker and Mills (1996) holds the idea that perfectionism refers to having an ambition to succeed in different aspects, being meticulous about one's actions and accepting responsibility. While Slaney et al. (2001) were of the view that perfectionism has developed and changed from being one-dimensional to a multifaceted concept as result of extensive study on it.

According to current studies, perfectionism has both positive and negative effects i.e some of its characteristics are beneficial and positive for a person but some can lead to distress and psychopathological problems (Frost et al., 1997; Hewitt, Mittelstaedt and Flett, 1990). Hewitt and Flett (1991) suggested that perfectionists tend to attach a greater importance to achieving a goal and therefore are very feeble and sensitive to the reaction of others towards their actions and performance. Since perfectionists are extremely organized and want everything in order, Jerpi (2017) showed that perfectionism can help an individual to pay specific attention to things others fail to notice.

According to Ellis (1958) perfectionists are those who strive for great success and believe failure in person life makes him unworthy of value. According to Pacht (1984), perfectionism is a frame of mind where the fear of doing something wrong is constant. He claimed that perfectionism as a concept does not exist in the real world and pursuit of it causes a lot of emotional problems. According to Hewitt, Mittdstaedt, and Wollert (1989) perfectionism is “the tendency to hold and pursue unrealistically high standards.”

Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM; fourth edition, American Psychiatric Association, 1994) characterizes perfectionism as a severe condition that has a significance on the onset and prognosis of emotional disorder, depression and obsessive-compulsive disorder. According to Shafran, Cooper, and Fairburn (2002) perfectionism is setting high standards for oneself in at least one important domain -notwithstanding unfavourable outcomes. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (2004) perfectionism is “the rejection of any standards short of excellence.” According to Flett and Hewitt (2007) perfectionism involves interaction between cognitive, affective, motivational and behavioral elements.

Characteristics of Perfectionism

Positive Characteristics

As noted by Roedell (1984), perfectionism occasionally serves as a source of inspiration for some individuals, pushing and motivating them to pursue their goal. It is constructive up till the point the individual realizes that the standards set by them for their goal are high and unrealistic, also failing to fulfil it won't make them worthless.

Another benefit of perfectionism is that it reduces the time one needed to correct the mistake he made because of the habit of checking everything twice. Due to this habit, they frequently perform tasks better than others, despite not being completely happy with their performance. So as result this habit of checking everything twice aids them in making fewer mistakes and therefore requires less time to correct them (Jerpi, 2017).

As the perfectionists have considerably set higher standards than any average person would, and to meet those standards and maintain the caliber of their work, they always correct their errors before being asked to do so by others (Elizabeth Scott, 2018).

Negative Characteristics

Perfectionism doesn't just contain positive traits, but some negative traits are also associated with perfectionism. There are some negative effects because of perfectionism such as a variety of pathological disorders like OCD, depression and eating disorders etc (Singh, 2007). According to Aldea and Rice (2006) and Blankstein, Dunkley and Wilson (2008) perfectionism can affect a person's levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy, further diminishing one's confidence, ability to take risky decisions and decision-making ability.

It was noted by Slaney and Ashby (1996), perfectionism can lead to procrastination if not controlled which leads to person wasting their time on every tiny task that produces a very low output. The negative characteristics of perfectionism that lead to failure is procrastination as well as fear of failure, the all - or-nothing mentality and workaholism (Adderholt-Elliot, 1989).

According to Mehr and Adams (2016) there are a variety of elements that mediate the connections between perfectionism and depression. In addition to it emotional dysregulation (Aldea & Rice, 2006), social connectedness, perceived stress (Rice et al., 2006), the need for external validation and approval (Wu & Wei, 2008), and unhelpful problem-solving techniques (Chang, 2002) are also present. Negative perfectionism is frequently characterized as "dysfunctional perfectionism," which disturbs an individual's regular functioning and so is prone to attach unjustified value to one's efforts and successes (Ellis, 2002).

Gasco et al. (2014) noted that perfectionism can occasionally lead to self-defeating thoughts and behaviors because of one setting unrealistic goals, excessive self-criticism and overgeneralizing one's failure to their self-worth. Perfectionists constantly worry about making a mistake and in the process measure their self-worth by their output and accomplishments, which can have a pathological effect on one's mental health.

Nature of Perfectionism

Different researchers have come up with different definitions for perfectionism and in the process came up with different dimensions for the same. While some believed perfectionism to be a one-dimensional concept others believe it to be a multi-faceted concept (Hewitt and Flett, 2002).

One Dimensional Perfectionism

Ellis (1962) approached perfectionism from a cognitive standpoint and listed perfectionism as one of the 11 illogical beliefs or thoughts that might cause one emotional distress. While perfectionism, according to Blatt (1995), was connected to several disturbed effects such as shame, guilt etc.

Hollender (1965) conducted a study where he offered a different aspect of perfectionism, suggesting that it makes the person display a greater quality of performance than what is necessary for the circumstance. He also claimed that perfectionism is a negative personality trait that leads to setting up of unreasonable expectations for oneself and for other people, and that as a negative feature it is maintained through cognitive structures and processes. Moreover, he suggested that cognitive processes like "selective attention" act as a reinforcer for negative perfectionism tendencies since they cause people to selectively focus on negative information such as that of failure while ignoring information about one's success.

This was supported by a study done by Campbell and Di Paula (2002), where they defined perfectionist as someone who holds himself to rigid stands which are unreasonably inflexible and unrealistic and uses an all-or-nothing mentality to assess their work.

On the other hand, Burns (1980) described perfectionists as people who measure their personal values on the basics of their productivity and accomplishment, they also have standards that are extremely inflexible and sometimes beyond reach. They also try to strive for high standards.

Based on his interaction with perfectionists, Pacht (1984) further explained perfectionism as a type of "psychopathology." In addition, Singh (2007), supported this

position, and views perfectionism as connection to psychopathologies such as personality disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, etc. also by constantly setting inflexible and unattainable standards, perfectionists repeatedly condemn themselves to failure and distress.

Since many researchers concentrated on the one-dimensional component of perfectionism, many scales were developed to measure the same. The Burns perfectionism Scale, developed by Burns (1980), is a scale frequently used to assess one dimensional construct of perfectionism. It reflects the idea of perfectionism as a maladaptive trait (Crăciun & Dudău, 2014). Another scale used was, the Perfectionism Cognition Inventory, developed by Flett, Hewitt, Gray and Blankstein (1998), measured the frequency of one's automatic thoughts which involved perfectionism and beliefs associated with perfectionism. A further scale was developed by Mitzman, Slade and Dewey (1994), to identify the events and attitudes related to emergence and maintenance of neurotic perfectionism.

Multidimensional Perfectionism

According to previous studies and the context in which those criteria have been studied, perfectionism is characterized as having unrealistic, high expectations (Flett & Hewitt, 2002). A lot of researchers have concentrated on the multidimensional component of perfectionism such as self, interpersonal element and social (Frost et al., 1990; Hewitt and Flett, 1991). According to Riley and Shafran (2005), perfectionism has been recognized as a multidimensional construct since the early 1990s. Since then, various researchers such as Johnson and Slaney (1996), Hewitt and Flett (1991), Frost et al. (1990) and Rheume et al. (1995) have come up with different multidimensional conceptualization of perfectionism.

Normal v/s Neurotic Perfectionism

Normal perfectionism

Hamachek (1978) called normal perfectionism an adaptive form of perfectionism and neurotic perfectionism a maladaptive form of perfectionism. According to a study conducted by him, normal perfectionists are those who set a high standard for themselves and realize that it is higher than most people set for themselves. These people are generally high on satisfaction and are competitive and are driven with the desire to maximize their competency levels (Preusser, Rice & Ashby, 1994). Normal perfectionists are content to be less exact in achieving their goals because they get genuine satisfaction from just making sincere efforts for their objectives. As a result, this type of perfectionism is regarded as positive because it promotes setting high standards with constructive strive for excellence.

Neurotic perfectionism

People who set high standards for themselves and find it difficult to accept them as unattainable and beyond their capacity are the people who have traits of neurotic perfectionism (Hill, Zrull & Turlington, 1997; Nugent, 2000; Slade & Owens, 1998). As a result, they suffer with low self-esteem when they are not able to attain their goals which were unrealistic in the first place which can further lead to development of pathological disorder such as anxiety, depression, eating disorder and obsessive compulsive disorder (Hamachek, 1978).

Burns (1980) coined a phrase “saint-or-sinner” syndrome to describe neurotic perfectionist thought processes and their exaggerated evaluation of self. According to this neurotic’s perfectionist is someone who thinks that by achieving balance between their own standards and work performance, he will become a saint. But if they are not able to attain these standards they fall into “sinner-hood”.

Therefore, it can be concluded that perfectionism is not always negative but can also be good if one does not set unrealistic standards for themselves. But if one is not able to do so he falls under the facets of neurotic perfectionism (Hamachek, 1978).

Self-Critical and Personal Standard Perfectionism

Personal Standards and Self-Critical Perfectionism are two subtypes of multidimensional facets of perfectionism. Setting high standards for oneself is an aspect of “personal standards perfectionism,” on the other hand “self-critical perfectionism” includes relentless self-criticism, excessive evaluation, and constant worry about how others perceive their performance (Blatt, D’Afflitti, & Quinlan, 1976; Blatt, 1974)

Maladaptive and Adaptive Perfectionism

Another multidimensional approach distinguishes between “adaptive” and “maladaptive” forms of perfectionism. According to Terry-Short et al. (1995) adaptive or positive perfectionism assists the individual in achieving their desirable aims, while maladaptive and negative perfectionism results in getting away from undesirable consequences. Like normal perfectionism, adaptive perfectionism involves meeting high standards for oneself while also accepting failures if those standards and goals are not attained. Contrary to maladaptive perfectionist, adaptive perfectionist does not get affected if are not able to accomplish their goals.

According to a study done by Accordino, Accordino and Slaney (2000) perfectionism theory of adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism claims that adaptive perfectionists have high levels of self-esteem and have realistic and attainable goals unlike maladaptive perfectionists.

High Standards, Order and Discrepancy

Three perfection dimensions were offered by Slaney et al. (2001)

High Standards

According to the researchers, “High standards” stands for one’s standards or degree of excellence that one wants to accomplish. According to Gilman and Ashby (2003), “high standards” is considered the primary factor that can be used to distinguish between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionist and non-perfectionist. High standards are explained as reflection of high expectations for one’s accomplishment and performance (Park, 2009).

Order

Order in the words of Slaney et al. (2001) refers to one’s desires for neatness and organization. It conveys a person's preference for cleanliness and order (Park, 2009).

Discrepancy

The term “discrepancy” refers to the distinguishing characteristics that separates maladaptive perfectionism from adaptive perfectionism (Slaney & Ashby, 1996) and also denotes the discrepancy (whether genuine or imagined) between one’s performance and actual achievement related results (Higgins, 1987). This variable measures how much one is aware about the gap between their actual performance and their expectation about a work (Park, 2009)

FEAR OF NEGATIVE APPEARANCE EVALUATION

Fear of negative evaluation (FNE; Watson & Friend, 1969) is a generic term that is used to refer to social anxiety and worry caused by the thought of being judged by others, and avoiding events where such judgements can take place. FNE is currently found to be linked to dietary intake constraint (Chang et al., 2014; Gilbert & Meyer, 2005), bulimic attitudes (Gilbert & Meyer, 2005) and shape and weight concerns (Levinson & Rodebaugh, 2012). Moreover, Fear of negative appearance evaluation (FNAE; Lundgren et al., 2004) has been linked to eating disorder and is defined as distress and social anxiety caused as a result of having one’s appearance negatively assessed (Lundgren et al., 2004).

Both fear of negative evaluation and fear of negative appearance evaluation are thought to be related to sociocultural factors, according to Thomas et al. (1998) and Leary (1983). The field of body image disturbances and eating disorders has explored various factors, such as

negative appearance related feedback, modelling of body image concerns by parents and peers, tendencies to compare one's appearance with that of others, sexual harassment and abuse and internalization of images and messages from media (Stice, 2001; Stefanile, 2019). Investigating FNAE specially could help to identify elements that are connected to one's eating and body image issues (Olivardia, 1995).

As a result, individuals who are anxious about receiving unfavourable feedback tend to avoid events where they could be judged or evaluated, a phenomenon referred to as "fear of negative evaluation." Recent research has examined fear of receiving a negative evaluation as a factor in negative behaviour and emotions. Individuals who exhibit high levels of fear of negative evaluation are more likely to experience psychological problems, such as social anxiety.

Scale Development

The Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation Scale (FNAES; Thomas et al., 1998; Lundgren, Anderson & Thompson, 2004) is used to measure individual anxiety for being negatively appraised for their appearance. It measures the anxiety levels of people on the thought of being judged based on their appearance. It was developed by adapting the questions from the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale developed by Watson & Friend (1969), and new items were added that were a good indicator for measuring anxiety as a result of one's evaluation (Shisslak & Cargo, 2001).

A study was conducted by Lundgren, Anderson and Thompson (2004) to create and evaluate a new concept: "fear of negative appearance evaluation" (FNAE; Thomas et al., 1998) to study the factors included in the field of eating disorder. As people who fear receiving unfavourable judgment from others because of their looks may be more prone to indulge in maladaptive eating habits, the researchers predicted that FNAE may be a significant risk factor for the development of an eating disorder.

The researchers performed several interviews with people who displayed eating disorder symptoms to establish the FNAE scale. They developed a set of items to evaluate FNAE based on the input they received.

The psychometric properties qualities of the FNAE scale were then assessed in two separate investigations by the researchers. In the study 1, the measure's factor structure and internal consistency were evaluated after it was given to a sample of female undergraduates. While in study 2, they investigated the measure's link to existing measures of eating disorder

symptoms and body dissatisfaction, as well as its capacity to determine changes in eating disorder symptoms over time, to evaluate its convergent and predictive validity.

The validity and reliability of the FNAE measure were validated by the finding of the two studies. It was discovered that FNAE was a strong predictor of any changes in symptoms of eating disorder over time and was associated with eating disorder symptoms and body dissatisfaction.

Overall, the research suggests that FNAE is a potential conceptual framework that explains the emergence and persistence of eating disorders and as a potential target for therapeutic intervention. Clinicians and researchers involved in the study and treatment of eating disorders may find the FNAE scale to be a useful resource.

Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation Model

An innovative cognitive-behavioural model of social anxiety that tackles the emergence and constant anxiety in social events was created by Rapee and Heimberg (1997). The model claims that people who are socially anxious experience fear because they think people's judgment and opinions about them matters.

Perceived Audience

The individual's perspective of the audience is considered the first step in both the original model (Rapee & Heimberg, 1997) and the recently modified version (Heimberg, Brozovich & Rapee, 2010). Any social setting where observation and judgment are feasible is referred to as an audience. Therefore, a theatre full of people or a person sitting across from one on a train are both regarded as social audiences. The characteristics of the audience in the situation have an effect on the level of the anxiety experienced by one; for instance, more formal settings are associated with higher anxiety (Rapee & Heimberg, 1997).

Mental Representation of the self as seen by the audience

People who are socially anxious when they encounter the audience, they observe themselves through the eyes of the audience. This is not how they usually see themselves, usually it's twisted negatively. People with social anxiety disorder (SAD) are more likely to have negative thoughts about themselves before social contacts (Stopa & Clark, 1993). Socially anxious people become their own harshest critics when they must meet someone.

Heimberg, Brozovich and Rapee (2010) have expanded their updated model to incorporate the effects of negative imagery on the socially anxious individuals. It is found that socially anxious people experience more negative images.

Comparison of Image of self with expected standards of the audience.

People with social anxiety have a preconceived notion that other people have high expectations from them (Alden, Bieling, & Wallace, 1994). They don't really consider their social and performance skills.

Those with social anxiety usually believe that others have very high standards for their performance (Alden, Bieling, & Wallace, 1994). They also underestimate their social performance and social skills (Stopa & Clark, 1993). The greater the difference between others' standards and one's perceived skills, the greater the anxiety experienced. As the image of oneself changes with internal and external feedback, so does the estimation of one's failure to meet expectations—and hence anxiety fluctuates during social situations.

Estimation of the Likelihood and Consequences of negative evaluation.

When there is a great difference between one's imagined performance and one's perception of others' standards, critical evaluation of oneself is expected from other people with SAD overestimates the probability that they will be evaluated negatively (Stopa & Clark, 1993). Fear of being judged is a primary component of social anxiety.

When there is a great difference between one's imagined performance and one's and so these individuals experience greater fear of negative evaluation and social avoidance (Oei, Kenna & Evans, 1991; Stopa & Clark, 1993).

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

SELF-ESTEEM AND BODY IMAGE

Diengdoh and Ali (2022) carried out a cross-sectional study to examine the association of body image with anxiety, self-esteem and depression. The study also attempted to determine what factors led to body image dissatisfaction. The study was carried out in Christian Brothers Congregation Educational facility in Shillong, Meghalaya. Through random sampling 358 first-year college students were chosen in the age range of 18 to 24 years. It was discovered through correlational analysis that self-esteem had a significant and positive relationship with overall body image. Also, self-esteem had a significantly positive relationship with appearance orientation, appearance evaluation and body area satisfaction. While there was significant inverse association between self-esteem and self-classified weight and overweight. In addition to that, regression analysis showed that 15.1% of variance in body image was explained by self-esteem and anxiety. The results were consistent with the study which showed that lower self-esteem is highly correlated with one's dissatisfaction towards their body (Abamara et al., 2014) and in another one self-esteem emerged as a significant predictor of body image dissatisfaction (Shahyad et al., 2015). It was recommended that factors such as family, gender, media and social culture must be considered.

Lowery et al. (2005) conducted a comparative study to determine the correlation between health-related behaviours, body image and self-esteem in male and female undergraduates. They also investigated connection between regular physical activities and positive perceptions towards one's body and higher levels of self-esteem. 433 college students of first year participated in the study out of which 267 were females and 156 were males. The sample also represented different ethnicities and races: 40 students were Latinos, 16 were Asian Americans, 18 were Africans Americans, 8 were International Students, 4 were under 'others' category and most students, i.e. 327, were from Euro-Americans. The students were between the ages of 17 to 32 years. On comparison it was found that females were higher on body shame and body surveillance than males. Also, they had more discrepancy between their actual and idealized body type and had greater dissatisfaction with their physical appearance and body weight. Moreover, correlational analysis, revealed that body shame had a significant and negative relationship with self-esteem in men. While for female's higher body image

dissatisfaction in relation to body shame, body surveillance, discrepancy in ideal-self and physical appearance were significantly and negatively related with lower self-esteem. When females and males who exercised daily were compared on self-esteem and body image, significant differences were found. In males body control and self-esteem were significantly and positively correlated with health-related behaviours, while significant and negative relations were found with body surveillance, physical dissatisfaction and body shame. Health-related behaviour in females had a significant and positive relationship with self-esteem and body controls while significant and negative relationship with body shame, body surveillance, physical dissatisfaction and self-ideal discrepancy.

Halder and Saha (2013) explored the connection between self-esteem, body image and depression among students from various colleges. Descriptive survey was used to collect data from 100 college going males for the study from West Bengal's North twenty-four Pargana District. The students' ages ranged from 18 to 20 years. The correlational analysis revealed that there is a significant and a positive correlation between body image and self-esteem. The current findings were supporting the previous research done by Henriques and Calhoun (1999) who showed that correlations exist between self-esteem, self-concept and body image.

Virk and Singh (2020) attempted to discover the association between body image and self-esteem and factors affecting them among undergraduates from North India. A cross-sectional study was done where 150 first-year medical undergraduates participated, out of which 125 students were selected. Data was collected with the help of a semi-structured questionnaire from a private medical institute in Haryana. Results of correlational analysis found out that body image had a significant and positive relation with self-esteem which asserts that self-esteem can have a huge impact due to negative body image. The results of the study back up the idea that self-esteem can play a significant role in minimizing the effect of Body Mass Index on one's body image also that self-esteem can be defined by factors other than body image.

Keshk et al. (2018) studied body satisfaction and body image among students and tried to find the connection between self-esteem, satisfaction, and body image along with factors influencing them. For this purpose, a cross-sectional study was done on 400 college students from Greater Cairo. It was discovered that there is a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and body image concerns.

Prabhu and D'Cunha (2018) looked at the occurrence of dissatisfaction about body image among adolescents as well its effects on mental health and self-esteem through a community based descriptive and cross-sectional study. 309 adolescents from the Dakshina Kannada District, ranging from 13 to 19 years of age were included in the total sample. Correlational analysis discovered that there was a significant and negative relationship between self-esteem and body image dissatisfaction, suggesting that students with low self-esteem may struggle with their body image. The results were supported by a previous study by Duchesne et al. (2017) where the impact of dissatisfaction regarding one's body was seen on self-esteem, and it was confirmed that negative perception about one's own body lead to decline in one's level of self-esteem. These studies confirmed that one's negative perception towards one's own body can lead to fall in self-esteem and increase in stress in adolescents.

Vasudeva (2021) carried out a comparative study to investigate how young adult's self-esteem is impacted by body image dissatisfaction between males and females. The study involved 220 people, out of which 110 were males and 110 were females, with ages ranging from 20 to 35 years. Targeted population of India was surveyed for their opinions. In comparison, it was discovered that self-esteem scores were low when body image dissatisfaction scores were high. While correlational analysis showed that self-esteem had a strong inverse relationship with body image dissatisfaction. ANOVA analysis revealed that there were significant differences across gender for dissatisfaction regarding body image i.e males have low body dissatisfaction as compared to females.

Yahaya, Apaak and Hormenu (2021) sought to examine the relationship of self-esteem, body image and health behaviour among senior high school students. The study attempted to explore gender differences on these variables. The sample was taken from the students of three different schools - Dwamena Akenten SHS, Namong Secondary Technical SHS and ST Jerome SHS in Offinso Municipality of the Ashanti Region. Out of the total population of 555 students, 300 males and 255 females were selected for the study. Correlational analysis revealed that there existed a significant and positive relationship between self-esteem and body image. Also scores on self-esteem showed significant gender differences, where female scores were higher as compared to males scores. Regression analysis unveiled that 75% of variance in body image was explained by family influence, media influence, role model influence and friend's influence. The results- of this study matched with the results of an investigation conducted by Dohnt and Tiggemann (2006) where body image relationship was shown with self-esteem. This

suggests that an increase in negative perceptions towards one's body can have an adverse effect on one's self-esteem.

George et al. (2020) investigated the degree of dissatisfaction due to body size and determined its effect on self-esteem of adolescents. The sample was collected from a government school and a private medical college. Correlational analyses revealed a significant and a positive relationship between age and degree of dissatisfaction with their body size. Self-esteem was found to be significantly and negatively correlated with body mass index (BMI). According to this study, along with body dissatisfaction, there were other factors like age which were responsible for low self-esteem in adolescents. It was recommended that social media, positive body image perception, self-confidence etc are important factors affecting body image and should be considered. School teachers, parents served as supporters for the children.

SELF-ESTEEM AND PERFECTIONISM

Athulya, Sudhir and Philip (2016) investigated the relationship between perfectionism, procrastination, self-esteem and distress in college students. The sample was collected from urban areas of Bengaluru where 192 students doing their graduation, Postgraduate or any professional courses were selected for the study. Correlational analysis showed that self-esteem has a significant and negative relationship with distress and procrastination. Moreover, maladaptive perfectionism has a significant and negative relationship with self-esteem, indicating that increase in maladaptive perfectionism can lead to decline in levels of self-esteem. Also, maladaptive perfectionism was significantly and negatively associated with distress. In addition to that, self-esteem had significant and negative relation with stress, anxiety and depression. Regression analysis evaluated that 34% of variance in low self-esteem was explained by increased maladaptive perfectionism.

Ashby and Rice (2002) carried out a study to find out the relationship between self-esteem and both concepts of perfectionism i.e maladaptive perfectionism and adaptive perfectionism among undergraduates. For the study a total of 262 students pursued their graduation, where 82 were males and 180 were females. The sample contained mostly White and European American ethnicities and were in the age range of 17 to 56 years. The structural model analysis revealed that 44% variance in constructs of perfectionism: self-esteem accounted for high standards, discrepancy and self-criticism. High standards were significant

and positive predictors of self-esteem. In contrast, discrepancy and self-criticism were significant and inverse predictors of self-esteem.

Rice and Ashby (1998) sought to examine the correlation between depression, maladaptive perfectionism, adaptive perfectionism and self-esteem college going students. Three groups of students were formed out of which students were randomly divided into 2 groups. There were 233 undergraduates in the first group, out of which 171 were females and 62 were men. While the second group had 231 undergraduates out of which 171 were females and 60 were males. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 62 years. Correlational analysis showed that a significant and negative association exists between self-esteem and maladaptive perfectionism. Also, depression had a significant and positive relationship with maladaptive perfectionism. In addition to that, regression analysis revealed that 31% of variance in depression was predicted by maladaptive perfectionism and self-esteem. So, it could be implied that unless people contain the traits of a maladaptive perfectionist, they are less likely to experience depression even if they have low self-esteem. On the other hand, even if people define themselves as maladaptive perfectionists but have high self-esteem, they are less likely to experience depression.

Rice and Lopez (2004) investigated the relationship between self-esteem, maladaptive perfectionism and depression among college going students. The sample was taken from public universities situated in the north central parts of the United States. For the study 211 students participated out of which there were 51 males and 152 women, who belonged to different ethnicities and races. Results from correlational analysis revealed a significant and negative relation between self-esteem and doubt about action and concern over mistakes. The results of regression analysis revealed that 40% variance in self-esteem was explained by adult attachment security and maladaptive perfectionism (concern over mistakes and doubts about action). Which implied that lower self-esteem accounted for increase in the levels of maladaptive perfectionism and attachment security.

Dunkley, Berg and Zuroff (2012) tried to understand the function of perfectionism constructs: personal standards and self-critical, with attachment, negative affect and daily self-esteem. The study was conducted on 163 university students studying at McGill University. Out of the total sample 99 were females and 64 were males. The sample was collected from people of different races and ethnicities such as Asian, East Indians, South Americans, African,

Caribbean and majority were from European. Correlational analysis revealed that self-critical perfectionism had a significant and negative relationship with self-esteem (aggregated daily measure), while significant and positive relationship with self-esteem (instability indexes). Moreover, personal standards had a significant and negative relationship with self-esteem (aggregated daily measure).

Fekih-Romdhane et al. (2023) conducted a study to comprehend the relationship between self-esteem, perfectionism and life satisfaction among university students. The study was done on 363 university students from Lebanon through a cross-sectional study. Participants who were older than 18 years were allowed to participate. The results of bivariate analysis depicted that a significant and positive relationship exists between life satisfaction and self-esteem. While there was a negative and significant relationship between life satisfaction and self-critical perfectionism and rigid perfectionism. Moreover, mediation analysis showed that self-esteem was significantly and negatively related with self-critical perfectionism.

Chufar and PettijohnII (2013) attempted to understand the role of positive and negative perfectionism in self-esteem, task performance and self-efficacy among college going students. There were 65 students who participated in the study, out of which 53 were females, 9 were males and 3 were unspecified and belonged to a public university in Southern parts of the United States. The sample belonged to different ethnicities: African American, Caucasian, Hispanic, Asian and others. The participants were divided into adaptive perfectionist, maladaptive perfectionist and non-perfectionist according to the scores. Post hoc analysis revealed that there exists a significant difference between the adaptive perfectionist and maladaptive perfectionist and self-esteem. Also, significant differences were found between non perfectionists and adaptive perfectionists. Adaptive perfectionists have a tendency of setting realistic goals which helps them to attain higher levels of self-esteem than maladaptive perfectionists. Maladaptive perfectionists do not appreciate common accomplishment and instead focus on little errors and as a result they set high unrealistic goals (Aldea & Rice, 2006).

SELF-ESTEEM AND FEAR OF NEGATIVE APPEARANCE EVALUATION

Herbozo and Thompson (2006) sought to examine the frequency of distress caused by positive and negative comments regarding one's appearance on undergraduates. The study was done on 246 female students studying at the University of South Florida. The age ranged from 18 to 25 years. The sample had a wide range of different ethnicities and races: Asian American,

Hispanic, African American and the majority were from Caucasian. Correlational analysis revealed that a significant and positive relationship exists between shape frequency, negative weight, effect subscale which implied that a higher frequency of negative body related comments was associated with adverse effect of these remarks on an individual. Moreover, significant and negative associations were found between positive general appearance, positive frequency subscale and effect scales. In addition to that, fear of negative appearance evaluation and self-esteem was significantly and negatively correlated with shape frequency and negative weight. Self-esteem had a significant and inverse relationship with appearance satisfaction and positive appearance affect subscale. Also Fear of negative appearance evaluation had a significant and negative association with self-esteem.

Junghans-Rutelonis et al. (2015) attempted to understand the relationship between fear of negative evaluation, self-esteem and self-focused attention among students suffering from asthma. Two comparison groups were formed: group one contained 530 students without asthma and group two contained 148 participants with asthma. The students were pursuing their graduation and were around 18 years old. Regression analysis revealed that 2% of variance in self-esteem was explained by fear of negative evaluation in students with asthma.

Shahid et al. (2022) conducted a study to examine the relationship between the fear of negative social appearance and body image consciousness with confidence and self-esteem and to determine the factors affecting self-esteem and fear of negative appearance. The study was conducted through online survey mode via google forms on a total of 561 university students belonging to the age group of 17 to 28 years. The students belonged to medical and non-medical fields and were studying in various medical colleges and universities in Pakistan: GIKL, Quetta, AIMC, KE, NUST, AIR University, AMC Rawalpindi, NUML and other universities. The correlational analyses revealed that fear of negative appearance evaluation had a significant and positive relationship with objectified body consciousness and fear regarding social appearance. A significant and negative relationship exists between self-esteem and body image consciousness in both males and females. Males had a significant inverse relationship between self-esteem and body shame, while females had a significant inverse relationship between body image dissatisfaction and self-esteem. It was also found that a significant and a positive relationship exists between income and self-esteem, while self-esteem is negatively correlated with fear of negative appearance and body consciousness.

Almenara et al. (2015) conducted a study to investigate if the fear of negative appearance and self-esteem acted as facilitators for the relationship between disordered eating and weight related self-devaluation. For the study 111 obese women i.e. whose Body Mass Index was greater than 30 kg/m^2 . The participants had contacted a doctor for their weight and eating problems and were recommended to visit a health center in Quebec between 19th August 2013 and February 16, 2015. Correlational analysis showed that weight related self-devaluation had a significant and negative relationship with self-esteem and fear of negative appearance evaluation. While it had a significant and positive relationship with disordered eating. Also, self-esteem significant and positive relationship with fear of negative appearance evaluation and a negative relationship with disordered eating.

Khanan and Moghal (2012) analysed the relationship between social anxiety, self-esteem and fear of negative evaluation. A sample of 76 individuals was collected from the University of Karachi, Pakistan. Out of which, 22 were males and 54 were females and all of them belonged to the age range of 18 to 29 years. Regression analysis revealed that 14.3% variance in self-esteem was explained by fear of negative evaluation and 28.8% variance was explained by social anxiety. People with social anxiety often worry about how they come across after social interaction and as a result they overly obsess about their mistakes which might make them perceived as foolish (Wilson, 1996). So, people with low self-esteem might have high fear of negative evaluation as well as greater levels of social anxiety.

CHAPTER 4

RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to discover the salient predictors of self-esteem in body image, perfectionism and fear of negative appearance among undergraduates' males and females. The need of the study can be seen from a variety of viewpoints: firstly, during the transition phase of college students they are at a critical stage of development where they are exploring their identity and trying to find their place in the society. As a result, body image concerns are common due to biological changes in their body composition and adapting to new environments and social circles. By understanding the relationship between these factors and self-esteem, researchers can create effective strategies to promote positive body image. Secondly, fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism are also prevalent among college students which can negatively impact their mental health and well-being. Students who experience a high level of perfectionism may be at a greater risk for depression, anxiety and other mental health issues.

Similarly, those who fear negative appearance evaluation may experience social anxiety and low self-esteem. By studying the link between these factors, researchers can identify the root causes and develop specific intervention to address them. Finally, promoting positive self-esteem among college students is crucial for academic success and one's overall well-being. High levels of self-esteem have been shown to improve academic performances, enhance one's mental health and increase one's resilience in stressful situations. By gaining a deeper understanding of the factors that influence self-esteem, researchers and practitioners can develop effective interventions to promote self-esteem and improve the well-being of college students.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study investigates the predictors of self-esteem among undergraduate college going students.

OBJECTIVES

- To examine the relationship between self-esteem, body image, fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism among undergraduates' males and females.

- To trace body image, fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism as potential predictors among undergraduates.
- To examine the gender difference between undergraduate males and females in self-esteem, body image, fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism.

HYPOTHESIS

H1: (a): It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among undergraduate males and females.

(b): It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among undergraduate females.

(c): It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among undergraduate males.

H2: It was expected that there would be gender differences among undergraduate males and females in self-esteem, body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief), perfectionism (high standard, order, and discrepancy) and fear of negative appearance evaluation.

H3 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Surveillance in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Surveillance in undergraduate males.

H4 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Body Shame in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Body Shame in undergraduate males.

H5 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Control Beliefs in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Control Beliefs in undergraduate males.

H6 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with fear of negative appearance evaluation in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with fear of negative appearance evaluation in undergraduate males.

H7 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Standards in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Standards in undergraduate males.

H8 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Order in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Order in undergraduate males.

H9 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have a negative relationship with Discrepancy in undergraduate females.

(b): It is expected that self-esteem will have a negative relationship with Discrepancy in undergraduate males.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

PARTICIPANTS

For this research, a sample of 100 undergraduates were chosen between the age group of 18 to 23 years. Out of the total sample, 50 males and 50 females were selected. The participants were chosen from various colleges of Tricity which includes Mohali, Chandigarh and Panchkula.

INCLUSION CRITERIA

- The age of the participants was 18 to 23 years.
- Participants are currently pursuing their graduation degree.
- The participants were studying in colleges of the Tri-city area.
- The respondents were well versed in the English language.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

- Subjects who were not eager to participate in the study.
- Subjects who were doing their post graduate degree.

VARIABLES

There are 2 types of variables included i.e. independent variables and dependent variables

Dependent Variable: Self-esteem

Independent Variables: Body Image, Perfectionism and Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation.

DESIGN

The present study was done to find the predictors of self-esteem among undergraduate college going males and females (N=100) aged between 18 to 23 years. The predictors which were included in this study were body image (body surveillance, body shame and control belief), perfectionism (high standard, order and discrepancy) and fear of negative appearance evaluation. The study also aimed to find the relationship between self-esteem and body surveillance, control belief, body shame, fear of negative appearance evaluation, order, high standard and discrepancy among undergraduate males and females. It also studied the gender

differences among undergraduates' males and females on body image, perfectionism and fear of negative evaluation. The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale developed by Mckinley and Hyde (1996) was used to evaluate body image. The scale used to assess perfectionism was the Almost Perfect Scale Slaney et al. (2001). For assessing fear of negative appearance evaluation, Lundgren, Anderson and Thompson (2004) scale: Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation scale was used. The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenber, 1965) was administered to measure levels of self-esteem. The participants were told the aim of the study and informed consents were taken from them.

SAMPLING DESIGN PROCESS

For the study, a sample of 100 students consisting of 50 female undergraduates and 50 males' undergraduates were collected. The age range of the target population was 18 to 23 years, and the data was collected from different colleges in Tri city which include: Chandigarh, Panchkula and Mohali. The students must be doing their graduation or any undergraduate course and for this simple random sampling was used to select the target population. If the initial inclusive criteria were fulfilled, then the questionnaire was given to the respondent.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

- Respondents were asked to give informed consent if they were willing to participate in the study.
- The respondents were informed about the study and their role in it.
- They were informed that they are free to leave the study anytime they want.
- Confidentiality was kept between the researcher and the respondents.

TEST AND TOOLS

The following scales were used in the study:

- The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBC; Mckinley & Hyde, 1996).
- Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation Scale (FNAES; Lundgren, Anderson, & Thompson, 2004)
- Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965).
- The Almost Perfect Scale-Revised (APS-R; Slaney et al., 2001)

The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBC; Mckinley & Hyde, 1996)

The objectified body consciousness scale (OBC) is used to measure the tendency of the body to objectify and to evaluate oneself from others' perspectives. The scale uses a 7-point likert scale and consist of 3 subscales measuring:

Body Surveillance i.e. evaluation of one's body through the perspective of others. Getting a low score means the individual has more body shame and they are more focused on how they appear and the sensation of their body from the perspective of others.

Body Shame i.e. judging one's appearance with that of another individual, getting a low score means the individual has more body shame and thus indulge in comparison of oneself with others.

Control Belief i.e. the notion that people have control over their own bodies. Getting a low score means the individual believes that with enough effort they can alter their physical appearance. While getting a high score means that the individual thinks that heredity is responsible for their physical appearance, and nothing can be changed.

Obc is a self-report measure and contains a total of 24 items with 8 items in each subscale (Mckinley & Hyde, 1996).

Instruction

The instructions given to the subjects for The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBC) were: "Answer the following items as accurately and honestly as you can. For the given items you have you select one option which describes you the most, out of the seven options i.e., Strongly Disagree, Disagree, disagree somewhat, Neutral, Agree somewhat, Agree, Strongly Agree.

Scoring

The participants provided their responses using a 7-point Likert scale with 1 being Strongly Disagree and 7 being Strongly agree. The item from 8 items (1-8) belonged to Body Shame subscale, the next 8 items (9-16) belonged to Body Surveillance subscale and the last 8 items (17-24) belonged to Control Belief subscale.

The scoring of items was,

Strongly Disagree=1, disagree=2, Disagree somewhat=3, Neutral=4, Agree Somewhat=5, Agree=6, Strongly Agree=7.

The scoring of reversed items was,

Strongly Disagree=7, Disagree=6, Disagree Somewhat=5, Neutral=4, Agree Somewhat=3, Agree=2, Strongly Agree =1.

The scores of body surveillance, body shame and control belief were calculated separately.

Reliability and Validity

Mckinley and Hyde (1996) observed the internal consistencies of body control ranging from 0.68 to 0.76, 0.70 to 0.84 of Body Shame and 0.76 to 0.89 of Body Surveillance. The 2-week retest reliabilities were

0.73 for Body Control

0.79 for Body Shame

0.79 for Body Surveillance.

As per the Validity of subscale Body Shame, there was a negative correlation with Body Esteem ($r = -0.51$). Construct validity for Body Surveillance is shown by positive correlation ($r = 0.73$) with public self-consciousness. Finally, validity for Control belief is shown by a positive relationship with restrained eaters (Mckinley & Hyde, 1996).

Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation Scale (FNAES; Lundgren, Anderson & Thompson, 2004)

Fear of negative appearance evaluation (FNAES) assesses an individual's anxiety in respect to the negative opinions formed by others based on their physical appearance. It contains 6 items which are measured using a 5-point Likert scale (Lundgren, Anderson & Thompson, 2004)

Instructions

The instructions given to the participants for Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation Scale were: "Respond to each item given with your first impression using the five options given below to describe your degree of agreement with each item.

The options are: Not at All, Slightly, Moderately, very, Extremely.

Please thoroughly read the questions and answer honestly."

Scoring

The responses by the participants to the items ranged from “not at all” to “extremely” on a 5-point Likert scale. The higher score suggested a greater fear of receiving a negative assessment from others about one’s appearance. The scores ranged from 0 to 30

The scoring of items were, Not at all = 1, Slightly =2, Moderately =3, Very =4, Extremely =5

Reliability and validity

The scale had a good reliability and validity. Reliability coefficient was $r = 0.83$ and test-retest reliability correlation coefficient of 0.77

Almost Perfect Scale Revised (APS; Slaney et al., 1992)

Almost Perfect Scale Revised (APS) measures perfectionism’s two aspects: adaptive perfectionism and maladaptive perfectionism. It contains 23 items divided into 3 subscales:

Standards: it is used to measure how high people put their own standards.

Order: it is used to assess the degree of organization and demand for order.

Discrepancy: it is used to measure the discomfort caused by the performance gap between standards and order.

It uses a 7-point Likert scale which ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Instructions

The following instructions were given for Almost Perfect Scale-Revised:

“Please fill the given items with accuracy and honesty. Use the scale given below to indicate how much you agree or disagree out of the seven options given, as your initial response to the item. Strongly disagree, Disagree, disagree somewhat, Neutral, Agree somewhat, Agree Strongly agree.

Scoring

The respondents used a 7-point type Likert Scale to answer where 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree. The subscale Standard contained 8 items, while Order contained 4 items. The Discrepancy subscale contained 12 items.

The score of each question was given as:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree

Reliability

Overall APS-R internal consistency ranged from 0.85 to 0.92. For subscale Standards it was 0.86, for order it was 0.88 and 0.99 for Discrepancy.

Rosenberg Self - Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965)

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) is a self-tool used to assess individuals' overall self-esteem. It has 10 items, each of which are answered using a 5-point Likert scale. The items are divided equally into negative and positive wording. There is a reverse scoring.

Instructions:

The following instructions were given to the “the statements that relate to how you generally feel about yourself are listed below. Indicate your level of agreement and disagreement with the statement. Please read the questions properly and answer honestly. The options given are: Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly disagree

Scoring

The participants used a 4-point type likert scale to answer the following where 1 being strongly agree and 4 being strongly disagree.

The scoring for 1, 3, 4, 7,10 are

Strongly agree = 4

Agree= 3

Disagree= 2

Strongly disagree =1

The scoring for 2, 5, 6, 8, 9 (reversed) are

Strongly agree= 1

Agree= 2

Disagree=3

Strongly agree=4

The score was calculated by adding the raw score of each item taking reverse scoring in consideration.

Reliability

The overall internal consistency came out to be 0.77 of the tests (Rosenberg, 1965, and Personal communication, 1987). While the Test-Retest reliability came out to be 0.85 for a 2-week period which suggests the overall reliability of the test was quite high (Silber & Tippet, 1965, Shorkey & Whitman, 1978).

PROCEDURE

In the initial stages of the study, rapport formation was done with the participants so as to make them feel comfortable. An informed consent was taken from the respondents to ensure the willingness of them to participate in the study. Only after this consent they were included in the study and were given the questionnaire forms. The subjects were told the purpose of the study, and the confidentiality were maintained. Also, they were free to go and leave the study anytime they wanted to.

STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Various Statistical tests were used on raw scores such as mean, standard deviation to assess the total sample of 50 undergraduate males and 50 undergraduate females. To discover the gender differences in males and females, t-test was used. The predictors of dependent variable i.e. self-esteem was examined using stepwise multiple regression, while bivariate correlation was used to figure out self-esteem relationship with other variable i.e. fear of negative appearance evaluation, body image (body surveillance, body shame & control belief), perfectionism (high standards & order) and discrepancy in undergraduate males and females.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

The current study's goal was to determine if body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief), perfectionism (high standards, order, discrepancy) and fear of negative appearance evaluation as potential predictor of self-esteem, as well as whether there were any significant gender differences.

The sample included college going students currently pursuing their graduation (N=100) from various colleges in the Tricity area, including Mohali, Panchkula and Chandigarh. The total sample comprises 50 females ($n_1=50$) and 50 males ($n_2=50$), falling under the age range of 18 to 23 years.

Males and females were separately assessed on self-esteem, fear of negative appearance evaluation, body image which include 3 sub dimensions: body surveillance, body shame, control beliefs, and perfectionism which include 3 sub dimensions: high standards, order, discrepancy.

- The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale was employed to measure body image. The scale consisted of 3 subscales i.e. Body Surveillance, Body Shame, and Control Belief.
- The Rosenberg self-esteem scale was used to measure self-esteem
- The fear of negative appearance evaluation scale was used to assess fear of negative evaluation scale
- The Almost Perfect Scale was used to measure perfectionism. The scale consisted of 3 subscales i.e. High Standard, Order, and Discrepancy.

Participants assured their willingness for participation in the study by providing their informed consent. The respondents gave their answer via google forms and printed forms which ever was feasible and comfortable for them. Different questionnaires were used to measure different aspects and clear instructions regarding the questions in the questionnaire were given to the participants. All the scores of the variables, and its sub variables used in the study: self-esteem, body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standards, order,

discrepancy, fear of negative appearance evaluation, and perfectionism for the females and females were considered raw scores.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The statistics used on self-esteem, body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief), fear of negative evaluation and perfectionism (high standards, order, and discrepancy) were mean and standard deviation. It is used on the total sample of 100 undergraduate students, out of which 50 were females and 50 were males. In table 1 , mean and standard deviation for females are depicted and mean and standard deviation of males are shown in **table 2**.

In addition to it graphical depiction is carried out where self-esteem results are shown graphically in **Graph 4**. In the **Graph 2**, the results for body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief) are shown. In the **Graph 3**, fear of negative appearance evaluation results is shown. In Graph 1, the results of perfectionism (high standard, order, and discrepancy) are shown.

GENDER DIFFERENCES

The gender disparities between males and females were calculated using t-test on self-esteem, body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (high standards, order, and discrepancy).

Table 3 shows the differences between males and females in respect to self-esteem, body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standard, order, discrepancy and fear of negative evaluation. No significant differences were found between males and females.

BIVARIATE CORRELATIONAL ANALYSES

Correlation analyses were carried out to examine the relation between self-esteem and body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standard, order, discrepancy and fear of negative appearance evaluation for undergraduate males and females.

Table 4 shows the correlation for females, while the table 5 shows correlation for males.

Self-esteem and its correlates for undergraduate females ($n_1 = 50$)

Table 4 depicted the correlation for undergraduate females which showed that self-esteem had a significant and positive relationship with body surveillance ($r = .284$, $p \leq 0.05$) and control belief ($r = .3252$, $p \leq 0.05$).

Moreover, self-esteem had a significant and negative relationship with discrepancy ($r = -.391$, $p \leq 0.01$) and fear of negative appearance evaluation ($r = -.539$, $p \leq 0.01$). Self-esteem and its correlates for undergraduates' males ($n_2=50$)

Table 5 depicted the correlation for undergraduate males which showed that self-esteem had a significant and positive relationship with body surveillance ($r = .314$, $p \leq 0.05$).

In addition to it, self-esteem had a significant and negative relationship with discrepancy ($r = -.303$, $p \leq 0.05$) and fear of negative appearance evaluation ($r = -.542$, $p \leq 0.01$).

STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES

Regression analyses were carried out to examine the predictors of the dependent variable i.e. self-esteem with body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standards, order, discrepancy and fear of negative evaluation.

Table 6 depicts the regression equation for females and males for dependent variable i.e self-esteem.

Table 7 revealed the regression equation for females for self-esteem as a dependent variable.

Table 8 revealed the regression equation for males for self-esteem as a dependent variable.

It was revealed that fear of negative appearance evaluation, discrepancy and high standards emerged as salient predictors of self-esteem.

A total of 29% of the variance ($R^2 \text{ change} = 0.299$) in self-esteem was explained by fear of negative appearance evaluation in undergraduates' males and females. While in females it accounted for 29.1% and in males it was 29.4%.

A total of 3.9% of the variance ($R^2 \text{ change} = .039$) in self-esteem was explained by discrepancy in both undergraduate males and females.

A total 5% of the variance ($R^2 \text{ change} = .050$) in self-esteem was explained by high standards in males and female undergraduates.

In total 33.8% ($R^2 = .338$) of variance in self-esteem was accounted for discrepancy and fear of negative appearance evaluation.

In total 38.8% ($R^2 = .388$) of the variance in self-esteem was accounted for by fear of negative appearance evaluation, discrepancy and high standards.

Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation of Undergraduate Females.

FEMALES		
VARIABLE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Body Surveillance	35.46	7.918
Body-shame	38.16	8.867
Control Belief	35.72	6.575
High Standards	31.84	7.341
Order	16.50	5.445
Discrepancy	43.34	13.445
FNAE	14.82	6.694
Self-esteem	28.04	5.047

Table 2

Mean and Standard Deviation of Undergraduate Males.

MALES		
VARIABLE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Body Surveillance	35.42	6.676
Body-shame	38.48	8.321
Control Belief	38.08	7.701
Standard	31.20	9.359
Order	16.02	5.355
Discrepancy	41.90	14.533
FNAE	13.58	5.522
Self-esteem	29.48	4.082

Table 3*t-ratio of the Total Sample of Undergraduate Males and Females*

VARIABLE	FEMALES		MALES		t- value	p-value
	MEANS	SD	MEANS	SD		
Body Surveillance	35.46	7.918	35.42	6.676	.027	.978
Body Shame	38.16	8.867	38.48	8.321	-.186	.853
Control Belief	35.72	6.575	38.08	7.701	-1.648	.103
High Standards	31.84	7.341	31.20	9.359	.380	.704
Order	16.50	5.445	16.02	5.355	.444	.658
Discrepancy	43.34	13.445	41.90	14.533	.514	.608
FNAE	14.82	6.694	13.58	5.522	1.010	.315
Self-esteem	28.04	5.047	29.48	4.082	-1.569	.120

Table 4*Bivariate Correlation of Undergraduate Females*

FEMALES	
VARIABLE	SELF-ESTEEM
Body Surveillance	.284*
Body Shame	.149
Control Belief	.325*
High Standards	.042
Order	-.003.
Discrepancy	-.391**
FNAE	-.539**

Table 5*Bivariate Correlation of Undergraduate Males.*

MALES	
VARIABLE	SELF-ESTEEM
Body Surveillance	.314*
Body Shame	.096
Control Belief	.257
High Standards	.088
Order	.236
Discrepancy	-.303*
FNAE	-.542**

* Correlation significant at 0.05 level (2- tailed)

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

Table 6

Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation for Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation, Discrepancy and High Standards as Predictors for Self-esteem Undergraduate Males and Females

Independent variable	Regression Coefficient	β	t	p	Multiple R Square	F	df	R square change	F change	Sig. F-change
FNAE	.547	-.547	-6.467	<0.001	.299	41.825	1,98	.299	41.825	<.001
Discrepancy	.581	-.206	-2.375	<0.001	.338	24.724	2,97	.039	5.642	.020
High Standards	.623	.278	2.802	<0.001	.388	20.264	3,96	.388	7.850	.006

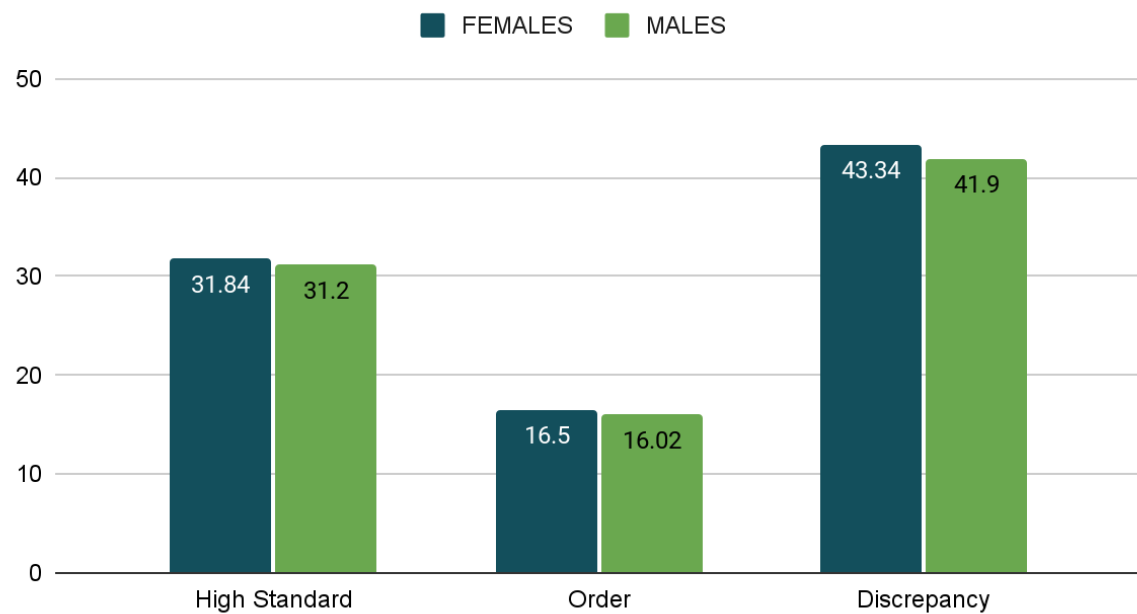
Table 7*Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation for Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation as Predictors for Self-esteem Undergraduate Females*

Independent variable	Regression Coefficient	β	t	p	Multiple R Square	F	df	R square change	F change	Sig. F-change
FNAE	.539	-.407	-4.437	<0.001	.291	19.685	48	.291	19.686	<.001

Table 8*Stepwise Multiple Regression Equation for Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation as Predictors for Self-esteem Undergraduate Males*

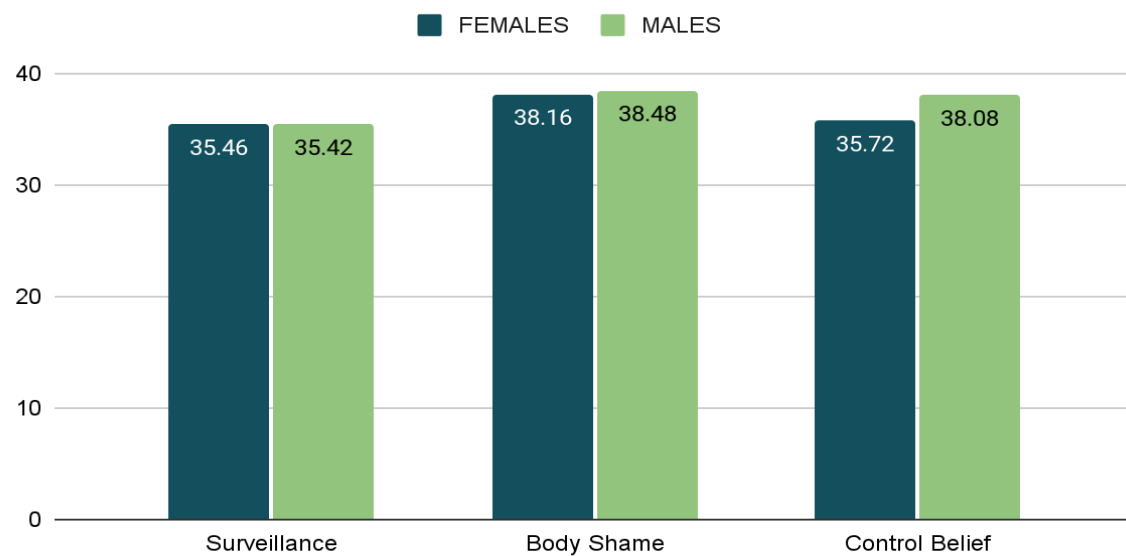
Independent variable	Regression Coefficient	β	t	p	Multiple R Square	F	df	R square change	F change	Sig. F-change
FNAE	.542	-.401	-4.471	<0.001	.294	19.991	48	.294	19.991	<.001

Perfectionism



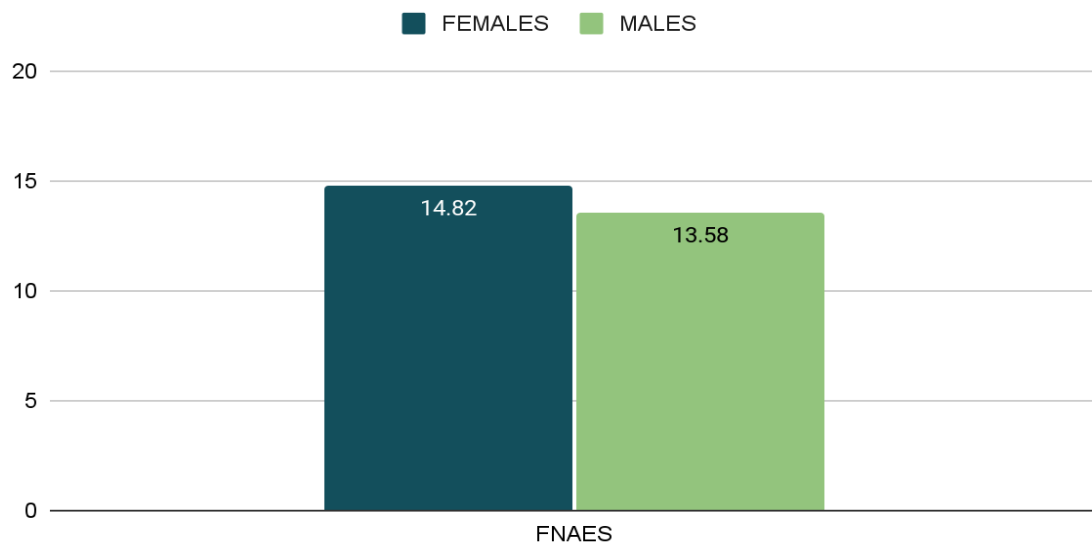
Graph 1: Mean Scores of the Total Sample of Undergraduate Males and Females for Perfectionism.

Body Image



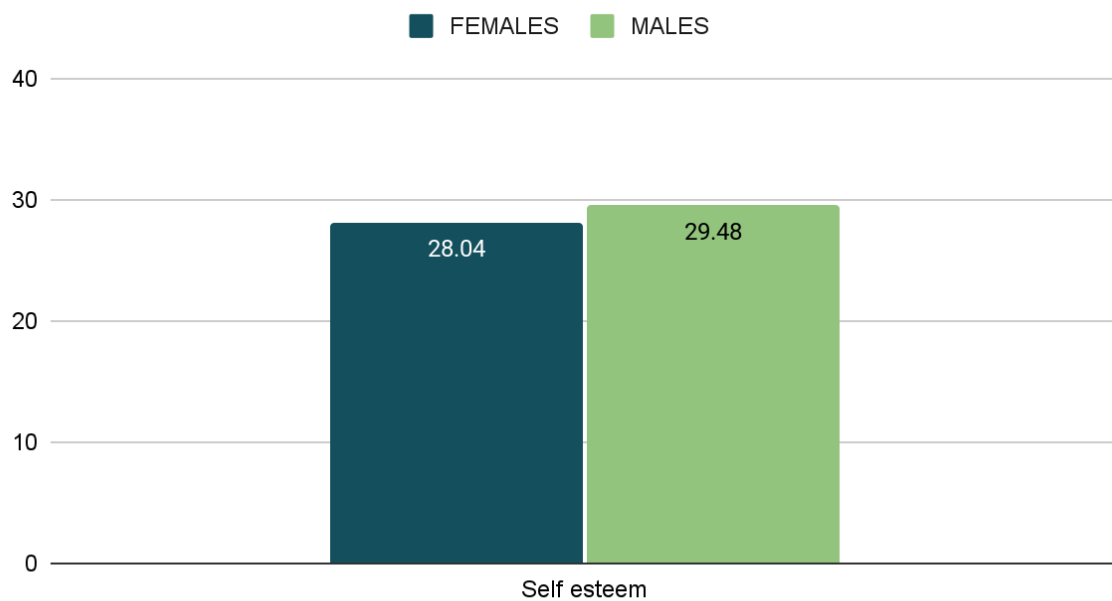
Graph 2: Mean Scores of the Total Sample of Undergraduate Males and Females for Body Image

Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation



Graph 3: Mean Scores of the Total Sample of Undergraduate Males and Females for Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation.

Self Esteem



Graph 4: Mean Scores of the Total Sample of Undergraduate Males and Females for Self-esteem.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

Previous studies have shown that students face several stressor when they transit from school to college. Major stressors college students face is working while attending classes, adjusting to college life, poverty, academic pressures, and identity changes (Acharya et al., 2016; Holliday et al., 2015; Hurst et al., 2012). If the student is not able to overcome them it results in low self-esteem, adjustment problems, and a great deal of stress.

The primary aim of the current study was to examine body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standards, order, discrepancy and fear of negative appearance evaluation as potential predictors of self-esteem for undergraduate males and females, as well as to investigate any gender disparities.

The sample consists of 100 undergraduate (N=100) males and females from various colleges of the Tricity area that included: Panchkula, Mohali and Chandigarh. Out of the total there were 50 females and 50 males, falling in the age range of 18 to 23 years.

Statistical tests were used such as mean and standard deviation for sample of undergraduate males and females. On the other hand, t-test was used to examine gender differences between undergraduate males and females. Bivariate correlational analyses were carried out to determine the relationship between self-esteem and body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standard, order, discrepancy and fear of negative evaluation. Stepwise multiple regression was used to determine the salient predictors of self-esteem.

For measuring body image, the Objectified Body Consciousness scale was used. It contains 3 dimensions: body surveillance, body shame and control belief.

For measuring perfectionism, the Almost Perfect Scale was used. It contains 3 dimensions: high standards, order and discrepancy.

For measuring self-esteem, The Rosenberg self-esteem scale was used. It doesn't have any sub dimensions and has a total global score.

For measuring fear of negative evaluation, the Fear of Negative Appearance Evaluation scale was used.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Statistics such as mean and standard deviation were used on raw scores of self-esteems, body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief), perfectionism (high standard, order, and discrepancy) and fear of negative appearance evaluation for a total sample of undergraduates males and females (N=100). **Table 1** shows the mean and standard deviation for undergraduate females while **Table 2** shows the mean and standard deviation for undergraduate males.

Graphical representations were carried out where results for self-esteem in undergraduate males and females are shown in **Graph 4**. Results of body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief) are shown in **Graph 2**. In **Graph 1** the results of perfectionism (high standards, order, and discrepancy) were depicted. In **Graph 3** the results of fear of negative appearance evaluation are shown.

GENDER DIFFERENCES

Table 3 showed the gender differences between undergraduate males and females on self-esteem, body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standard, order, discrepancy and fear of negative appearance evaluation.

There were no significant differences between undergraduate males and females. This implies that both males and females are equally affected by body image, fear of negative appearance evaluation, perfectionism and self-esteem.

Thus, H2 regarding the gender difference among undergraduate males and females on self-esteem, body surveillance, body shame, control belief, high standard, order, discrepancy and fear of negative appearance evaluation was rejected.

This could be due to multiple reasons, one of them could be that both genders experience a kind of similar societal pressure to conform to specific standards of attractiveness. This has been increased due to media and popular culture, which emphasizes unrealistic beauty standards such as thin and tall body structure for women while big muscles for men. This often leads to negative self-image and body dissatisfaction, resulting in an increase in dissatisfaction regarding one's body.

However, in recent years, there has been a surge in the body positivity movements that promotes self-love and accepting one's body. This might have contributed to both men and females having no significant differences regarding body image as now both the gender feels confident enough to embrace their flaws and love themselves. Also, another reason could be that males have started being vocal about their feelings which earlier were suppressed due to society. Moreover, these societal and cultural pressures can make both the gender strive for high success and achievement. As a result, the both of them will like to do everything perfectly and will face anxiety when the expectations are not met.

This was supported by Shahid et al. (2022) who examined the relationship between body image consciousness, self-esteem, fear of negative appearance evaluation and confidence among males and females. No major significant gender differences were found in the study. Though noticeable differences were found on female's body surveillance and control belief score. Females were higher on body surveillance and control belief than males. While males were higher on body shame than females.

CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS

Self-esteem and its correlates for undergraduate female

Self-esteem was studied in relation to body image (body surveillance, body shame, and control belief), perfectionism (high standards, order, and discrepancy) and fear of negative appearance evaluation

Table 4 shows self-esteem and its correlates for undergraduate females.

A significant and positive relationship was found between self-esteem and body surveillance.

A low score on body surveillance scale means the individual will have a negative body image while a high score on it implies good body image.

The scores of body surveillance were consistent with high self-esteem which implied that people who had high self-esteem had good body image and didn't view themselves from others perspective.

So H3 (a): it is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Surveillance in undergraduate females was accepted.

Similar results were shown in the study conducted by Grossbard et al (2009), where they sought to examine the relationship between issues related to body image and contingent self-esteem. It was revealed that contingent self-esteem was positively and significantly associated with body image concerns in females i.e. women with higher contingent self-esteem had greater body shape and weight concerns.

Also, in a study conducted by Nnaemeka and Solomon (2014), a significant and negative relationship between self-esteem and body image issues. This implies that a person with distorted body image will have low levels of self-esteem.

There was a significant and positive relationship between self-esteem and control beliefs. Which implies that a person with high self-esteem will believe that they have power over their weight and appearance and with effort they can change it.

So H5 (a) i.e. it is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Control Beliefs in undergraduate females was accepted

It was confirmed by a study conducted by McKinley and Hyde (1996), which found that control belief was positively correlated with body esteem in females. This implies that people who believe they can change their body might increase their body esteem by decreasing anxiety and fear-provoking thoughts about their body.

On the other hand, there was a significant and negative relationship between self-esteem and discrepancy.

So H9 (a) regarding expectation that self-esteem will have a negative relationship with Discrepancy in undergraduate females was accepted
Which implies that people with high self-esteem will have low need to be perfect all the time and thus will have low distress when things don't go their way.

These results were verified by the study conducted by Wang (2012) where he examined the relationship between personal discrepancy and family discrepancy with self-esteem at three

levels: relationship, family and individual. He found that all three subscales of self-esteem were significantly and negatively correlated with family discrepancy. While individual discrepancies were significantly and negatively correlated with relationship self-esteem and family self-esteem in males and females. This implied that one's self-esteem is highly influenced as a result of perceived family discrepancy.

There was a significant and inverse relationship between self-esteem and fear of negative appearance evaluation. This implies that people with high self-esteem will have low anxiety or fear in respect to the negative opinions formed by others based on their physical appearance.

So H6 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with fear of negative appearance evaluation in undergraduate females was accepted.

The results were backed up by a study done by Herbozo and Thompson (2006) on undergraduates, in which self-esteem was significantly and negatively correlated with fear of negative appearance evaluation. Which establishes that people who are in contrast fear of getting judged negatively based on their appearance, have low self-esteem.

There was no significant relationship between self-esteem and body shame, high standards and order. So therefore, the following hypotheses were rejected.

- H4 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Body Shame in undergraduate females.
- H7 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Standards in undergraduate females.
- H8 (a): It is expected that self-esteem will have a positive relationship with Order in undergraduate females.

Self-esteem and its correlates for undergraduates' males

A low score on body surveillance scale means body image dissatisfaction, while a high score on it implies good body image.

The scores were consistent with high self-esteem which implied that people who had high self-esteem had good body image and didn't view themselves from others perspective. Table 5 shows significant and positive relation between self-esteem and body surveillance.

So the hypothesis H3 (b): it is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with Surveillance in undergraduate males was accepted.

The results coincided with another study by Mellor et al. (2010). In the study, body dissatisfaction and self-esteem were negatively correlated with one another. Higher dissatisfaction was reported by people with lower self-esteem. In addition, results of this study revealed that men paid more attention to their appearance than women.

On the other hand, there was a significant and negative relationship between self-esteem and discrepancy. Which implies that people with high self-esteem will have low need to be perfect all the time and thus will have low distress when things don't go their way.

So H9 (b) :it is expected that self-esteem will have a negative relationship with Discrepancy in undergraduate males was accepted.

The above results were supported by another study given by Athulya, Sudhir and Philip (2016). In this study, lower self-esteem was associated with higher maladaptive perfectionism which shows that self-esteem and maladaptive perfectionism were negatively correlated.

There was a significant and inverse relationship between self-esteem and fear of negative appearance evaluation. This implies that people with high self-esteem will have low anxiety or fear in respect to the negative opinions formed by others based on their physical appearance.

So H6 (b): It is expected that self-esteem will have an inverse relationship with fear of negative appearance evaluation in undergraduate males was accepted.

The results coincided with a study conducted by Shahid et al. where the results showed a significant and inverse relationship between self-esteem and fear of negative appearance evaluation in males and females. Which suggests that students who fear being judged negatively have lower levels of self-esteem.

Stepwise multiple regression

Based on previous research and studies following hypothesis was formed:

H1 (a) It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among undergraduates.

H1 (b) It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among female undergraduates.

H1 (c) It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among male undergraduates.

It was found that only Fear of negative appearance evaluation, Discrepancy and High standards emerged as salient predictors of self-esteem.

Results revealed that fear of negative appearance evaluation was a significant predictor of self-esteem explaining 29% of variance in undergraduate males and females.

Results revealed that discrepancy was a significant predictor of self-esteem explaining 3.9% of variance in undergraduate males and females.

Results revealed that fear of high standards was a significant predictor of self-esteem explaining 5% of variance in undergraduate males and females.

Results revealed that fear of negative appearance evaluation and discrepancy were significant predictors of self-esteem explaining 33% of variance together in undergraduate males and females.

Results revealed that fear of negative appearance evaluation, discrepancy and high standards was a significant predictor of self-esteem explaining 38.8% of variance together in undergraduate males and females.

Therefore, the H1 (a): It is expected that body image (Body Surveillance, Body Shame, Control belief), fear of negative appearance evaluation and perfectionism (Standards, Order, Discrepancy) would emerge as salient predictors of self-esteem among undergraduates was partially accepted.

As high standards have a positive effect on one's self-esteem, so they are considered in adaptive perfectionism while discrepancy is considered maladaptive perfectionism because it has a negative effect on self-esteem.

The results were supported by Chai et al. (2019) study where maladaptive perfectionism and adaptive perfectionism were salient predictors of self-esteem.

SUMMARY

The primary goal of the present investigation was to find the predictors among perfectionism (order, high standard and discrepancy, body image (body shame, control belief and body surveillance) and fear of negative evaluation for self-esteem in undergraduate males and females.

Individuals who are pursuing their graduations ($N=100$, $n_1=50$, $n_2=50$) ages 18 to 23 years were the target population for the study. The simple random sampling was used to select students from different colleges in the Tri city area, including Chandigarh, Mohali and Panchkula. Standardized tools were used for the study. It was found that fear of negative evaluation, discrepancy and standards (subscale of perfectionism) came out to be significant predictors of self-esteem. While no gender differences emerged in relation to body image, perfectionism, fear of negative evaluation and self-esteem in males and females. On the other hand, body image subscale (body surveillance and control belief), fear of negative evaluation and subscale of perfectionism (discrepancy) were significant correlates of self-esteem in females, while body image subscale (body surveillance), fear of negative evaluation and subscale of perfectionism (discrepancy) were significant correlates of self-esteem.

CONCLUSION

The present study helped in understanding the relationship between self-esteem, body image, perfectionism and fear of negative evaluation among undergraduates. As college is a significant time of transition and development, many students struggle with body image concerns, low levels of self-esteem and fear of negative appearance evaluation. Also, students can set unrealistic high standards for themselves that can lead to critically evaluating oneself. All these factors can cause serious mental health problems such as eating disorders, depression and anxiety.

Other socio-environmental factors such as bullying, teasing, economic status can also cause a drop in one's self-esteem.

It is essential to conduct more further research on the topic to develop effective interventions to address distorted body image, low self-esteem, maladaptive perfectionism and fear of negative appearance evaluation among students. Post graduation students can also be included in future studies, also on-campus programmes should be promoted that include positive body image and self-love and encourage healthy choice and build confidence and well-being,

LIMITATIONS

The present study yielded significant results, yet it had some limitations. Firstly, the age and experiences of the participants differed, with some students being in their final year of graduation and some being in their first year. Generally, last year students are more well-adjusted as compared to those in their first and second year. Also, the individual differences in their experiences and perception may have impacted the findings. Additionally, seasonal and temperature changes also influence one's clothing choice, placing pressure on both females and males to maintain a certain body shape and weight.

Moreover, the desire to appear socially appropriate is prevalent among college going students. As a result, students who have high perfectionism or fear of negative appearance evaluation may have provided answers that showed them as highly socially desirable. Lastly, there may be other factors affecting self-esteem that were not accounted for in the study.

FUTURE SUGGESTIONS

For future research, the study can be done on a larger sample.

More relevant variables can be included in the future studies.

The study can be conducted since time, rather than going for combined undergraduates.

Differences can be found between first years, second years and third years.

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