

DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF
THE INDEX OF PERSONAL GROWTH (IPG)
AND
THE FAMILIAL AND DISPOSITIONAL PREDICTORS OF
PERSONAL GROWTH



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(Supervisor)

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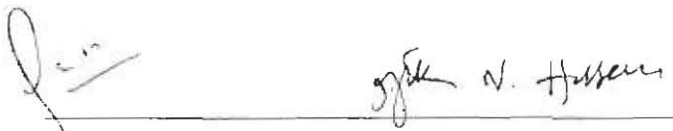
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To

Musa, Maham, Anas, Omar, Amal,

&

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of the present investigation was to develop an indigenous self-report measure of personal growth, named as the Index of Personal Growth (IPG). A four-factor model of self-actualization proposed by Jones and Crandall (1986) essentially guided the development of IPG. The factorial validity and reliability of IPG was determined on a sample of 400 postgraduate students (200 men and 200 women). The data generated on 41-item IPG were subjected to principal components analysis to assess the dimensionality of IPG. The resulting eigenvalues provided support to a four-factor solution, accounting for 34.7% of total variance. A total of 35 items loaded at .30 and above with coefficient alpha of .80.

The construct validity of IPG was established through three separate studies. The first study was designed by finding out the relationship of IPG with an established measure of self-actualization, namely Short Index of Self-actualization (SI; Jones & Crandall, 1986). This study was carried out on a sample of 90 postgraduate students (45 men and 45 women), which yielded a high correlation coefficient of .63, $p < .000$ between the two measures. In the second validity study of IPG, the relationship of IPG with Urdu translated version of Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS; Levenson, 1974) was examined. This study was carried out on a sample of 150 postgraduate students (75 men and 75 women). As anticipated, results indicated that personal growth and internal locus of control were significantly related with each other ($r = .45$, $p < .000$). The third construct validity study took place in two parts. Part I was designed to develop an indigenous self-report measure of self-disclosure, named as Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), which can be used to measure general level of self-disclosure as well as self-disclosure flexibility. Part II of

third study was planned to find out the relationship of personal growth with general self-disclosure and self-disclosure flexibility. The data for this study was collected from 150 postgraduate students (75 men and 75 women). Correlation coefficients showed a significant relationship between general self-disclosure and personal growth ($r = .15, p = .000$) and self-disclosure flexibility and personal growth ($r = .32, p = .000$) in the expected direction. Mean scores of IPG were also compared on low flexibility deviation group and high flexibility deviation group. The results showed that individuals who adhered to social norms when revealing personal information exhibited high levels of personal growth ($M = 123, SD = 15$) than those who deviated from them ($M = 126, SD = 16$). Moreover, mean scores of IPG for high and low disclosure flexibility deviation groups were compared across three levels of dispositional self-disclosure. The results obtained indicated a substantial difference among medium disclosing group depending on whether they adhered to social norms across situations ($M = 137, SD = 14$) or deviated from them ($M = 127, SD = 15$).

The present investigation was also designed to examine the familial (three modes of paternal and maternal parenting style) and dispositional (internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility) predictors of personal growth. For this purpose, data were gathered from a sample of 200 postgraduate students (100 men and 100 women). on the following scales: Index of Personal Growth (IPG), Urdu translated version of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ: two sets of PAQ were used, one for paternal parenting style and the second for maternal parenting style) (Buri, 1991), Urdu translated version of Internal Locus of Control Scale (Levenson, 1974), and Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSSI). Results of correlational and multiple regression analyses indicated that paternal ($R^2 = .22, F = 18.65, p < .000$) and maternal ($R^2 = .11, F = 7.77, p < .000$) parental control

nificantly explained variance in personal growth of their children. Moreover, among three modes of parenting style, authoritative paternal ($\beta = .47, p < .000$) and maternal ($\beta = .31, p < .000$) parenting was found to explain maximum variance than authoritarian and permissive paternal and maternal parenting. The results also showed that authoritative fathers' impact was stronger than authoritative mothers' impact on personal growth of their children. As regards the dispositional variables, correlation coefficients and linear regression analyses indicated that personal growth was significantly predicted from internal locus of control ($R^2 = .23, F = 58.33, p < .000$) and self-disclosure flexibility ($R^2 = .11, F = 23.89, p < .000$).

In the present research work, the role of internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility as mediators between authoritative parenting style (paternal and maternal) and personal growth was also determined. The results of path analyses clearly indicated that authoritative parenting (fathers and mothers, both) and internal locus of control, in combination explained greater variance ($R^2 = .29, F = 40.46, p < .000$, for fathers and $R^2 = .26, F = 34.77, p < .000$ for mothers) in personal growth than either separately. Similarly, the results of path analyses also showed that the combined effect of authoritative parenting (fathers and mothers, both) and self-disclosure flexibility ($R^2 = .25, F = 33.43, p < .000$, for fathers and $R^2 = .19, F = 25.56, p < .000$ for mothers) was greater than the individual effects. The results overall verified the mediational role of internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility.

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CHAPTER I**INTRODUCTION**

Personal growth refers to a fundamental change in the personality structure that furthers the development of functioning in cognitive, emotional, and social areas. It is a dynamic capacity, which allows humans to live in accordance with their nature as reasoning creatures, to identify and understand their feelings, and how to relate with other humans. Personal growth is a continuous process of discovering and enhancing various capacities within a person and learning new ways of thinking and behaving, based on the conviction that one should strive to utilize basic endowments in any manner possible and encouraging others to do like wise. As Arkoff (1987) maintains:

Personal growth is a process of exploring and living from our essence—our authenticity, strength, and presence. It is a process of becoming—a desire to be more than what one is.

Within this context, the concept of personal growth provides a broad framework of mental health and psychological well-being under which competing views about the optimum level of human growth have been presented (for instance, achieving social interest or autonomy). However, most psychologists converge on the notion that the ultimate goal of human life is actualization of self (e.g., Goldstein, 1939; Maslow, 1954). In short, personal growth is to be that self that one truly is. According to O'Connell and

O'Connell (1974):

Personal growth is a continuous and purposeful development of the human person toward the full potential of what he and she can become.

Thus, personal growth is performance at its peak or optimal capacity that enables a person to move towards desired goals. These goals once achieved are replaced by new ones, which are unique in themselves, depending upon one's capabilities and needs.

The concept of personal growth has been the object of much speculation throughout the history of psychology. Psychologists, psychiatrists, and researchers have studied "personal growth" because it led to an inquiry of basic human nature and potentialities; intellectual, emotional, and social competencies; ways of coping with life stress; and the psychological resources available to human kind for promoting growth and change (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1986). According to Rogers (1989),

Whether one calls it a drive toward self-actualization, or a forward moving directional tendency, personal growth is the mainspring of life.

In fact most psychologists consider personal growth as a specie-specific characteristic, i.e., all human beings are inherently motivated towards growing in attitudes, behaviors, and thinking patterns (see for example, Maslow, 1970). Rogers (1989) viewed personal growth as an urge, which is evident in all organic and human life. He pointed out that this tendency may become deeply buried under layer after layer of encrusted psychological defenses; it may be hidden behind elaborate facades, which deny its existence; but it exists in every individual, and awaits only the proper conditions to be

released and expressed. Similarly, Maslow (1970) also considered personal growth as an innate need, which must be satisfied. According to him, the need to *grow* is so strong in human beings that interference with this process results in neurosis, guilt, and despair. Indeed, research has found that individuals suffering from social anxiety (Fenigstein, Scheier, & Buss, 1975), anxiety (Richard & Jex, 1991), hopelessness (Beck & Weisman, 1974), neurosis (Dahl, 1983, Osborne & Steeves, 1981), depression (Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Mosher, 1991), and schizophrenia (Murphy, DeWolfe, & Mozdzierz, 1984) exhibit lags in personal growth.

The study of personal growth has established a vision of humanity that is not bounded by static characteristics but is innately motivated, consciously or unconsciously, to learn new modes of behaving and strivings as reflected by performances across a variety of life domains. Thus, personal growth has been studied as a creative potential and constructive personality variable, which can contribute tremendously to human development, especially in maintaining a sound mental health (Barnes & Srinivas, 1993). A wealth of evidence indicates that personal growth tends to be equated with mental health and increased levels of personal adjustment (see Bower, Anderson, & Holliman, 1987; Campbell, Amerikaner, Swank, & Vincent, 1989; Dietsch, 1973; Flett et al., 1991; Ford & Procidano, 1990; Knapp, Jenson, & Michael, 1979; McClain, 1970). Research on personal growth has also shown that it is positively related with well-being (Compton, Smith, Cornish, & Donalds, 1996), creativity and health (Helson & Crutchfield, 1970; Runco, Ebersole & Mraz, 1991; Schubert & Biondi, 1988), life satisfaction (Hidalgo, 2003), rational thinking (Jones & Crandall, 1986), optimism (Richard & Jex, 1991), and spirituality (Garret-Crumpler, 1989; Hidalgo, 2003; Myers & Diener, 1995). Furthermore,

studies have demonstrated that individuals who show high levels of personal growth have a high self-esteem (Richard & Jex, 1991), tend to develop close relationships (Hidalgo, 2003; Myers & Diener, 1995; Pavot, Diener, & Fujiata, 1990), are more empathic (Ryff, 1989), and self-efficacious (Tripp, 2000) and manifest absence of extraversion (Doyle, 1976; Knapp, 1965) and external locus of control (Hjelle, 1975). Moreover, they exhibit androgynous inclination (Ginn, 1975), high levels of moral judgement (Kelly & Chovan, 1985), and academic achievement (Goldrick, 2000).

The theory of personal growth has also been utilized in organizational settings to increase the productivity of a corporation (Knapp, 1990). It has been found that individuals who attain high scores of personal growth on “motivation,” “competence,” and “psychological health” variables demonstrate high levels of efficiency in work (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1986). Moreover, personal growth groups are used by industrial corporations as a kind of in-service program to train their employees in effective leadership and interpersonal skills in corporation management (O’Connell & O’Connell, 1974). Researches have also shown that high-level executives are more concerned with esteem needs and self-actualization than lower-status managers in an industrial setting (Porter, 1961).

Since personal growth depicts mental health and affects functioning in every role, psychologists have endeavored to identify the factors that facilitate its process.

In our society where the personalities and life histories of our poets, scientists, leaders, teachers, parents represent the hallmark of personal growth children, adolescents,

and adults of today do not lack worthy role-models to follow for their own growth in personality. But the assumption that there will be enough reflective adults to maintain our society is not to be taken for granted. It can be expected that persons who in childhood lacked opportunities to develop higher, more reflective mental qualities will act impulsively, think in rigid and polarized terms, and ignore the rights, needs, and dignity of others. Should the numbers of such people grow, we would expect our society to become more unpredictable and dangerous, with rising violence and antisocial behavior and less self-restraint and negotiation. People would show more extremism and self-absorption. In the long run there would be less generative, creative thought. Rote cognitive skills would supplant true innovation. In deed, human beings who cease to grow become dead weight for the society.

Under such circumstances it follows that if we want to progress as a society, we will have to adopt ways to provide opportunities for our children, adults, and old people to grow emotionally, socially, and cognitively. Psychotherapy, counseling and growth groups are one of the best-established paths to initiate and enhance personal growth among patients, normal population, students, business executives and other occupational groups (O'Connell & O'Connell, 1974). Psychiatrists and counselors (e.g., Jung, 1973; Rogers, 1989; Skinner, 1968) have evolved a variety of therapeutic approaches and techniques to help individuals to alleviate and grow out of pathological symptoms and find new aspects of themselves, to reveal abilities undreamed of or to further their skills in interpersonal relationships. Educational institutions are another source where the goals of teaching and curriculum are to facilitate the natural strivings of each student toward his or her highest potential level of uniqueness, autonomy, and self-fulfillment (Knapp, 1990). Teachers with

their encouragement and support help children to develop an adequate self-concept, to participate creatively in one's environment, and to face and meet life demands without paying too high emotional price (e.g., Fagarty, 1994; Feldman, 1983, 1984). However, *parenting* has long been acknowledged to be one of the most powerful and natural predictors for the optimal development of a child (Center for Research in Education, 1999). Psychologists believe that the way in which most parents raise their children has undeniable formative impact on their children's future personality (see for example, Adler, 1956; Baumrind, 1991; Freud, 1933; Olweus, 1980; Parke & Asher, 1983; Rapee, 1997).

Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to predict various child outcomes (Darling, 1999). Parental nurturance and parental control are considered two basic features of parenting, interactive effect of which are generally recognized as essential for the healthy development of an individual (Lau & Cheung, 1987). As noted by Greenspan and Benderly (1997), limit setting without nurturance breeds fear and amoral desire to beat the system whereas, nurturance without limits breeds self-absorption and irresponsibility. Consistent with these theoretical formulations, research has linked parenting which encompasses coercion, salient pressure, harsh insistence, and negativity and criticism with poor socialization outcomes (Kuczynski & Kochanska, 1990) such as impaired moral conduct (e.g., Kochanska, Aksan, & Nichols, 2003; Thompson, 1998; 2000) and increased aggression and conduct problems including drug abuse and delinquency (e.g., Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1998; Hawkins, Herrenkohl, Farrington, Brewer, Catalano, Harachi, & Cothorn, 2000; Snyder & Sickmund, 2000). In sharp contrast, parents who are highly responsive and accepting of the child's impulses, desires, and actions and are

inconsistent disciplinarians (Moore, 1991) tend to have children who exhibit tarnished social skills (Alarcon, 1997), impulsivity and aggression (Alarcon, 1997; Hawkins et al., 2000; Jacobson & Crockett, 2000), and low school competence (Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Steinberg, 1996).

Research in consonance with theory also shows that parents who monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct, are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive and are attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands (Baumrind, 1991) foster optimal consequences for their children. These consequences include self-regulation (Baumrind, 1991; Roberts & Steinberg, 1999), autonomy and social responsibility (Cole & Cole, 1993; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1990; Steinberg, 1996; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996), psychosocial maturity (Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989), prosocial behavior (Janssens & Dekovic, 1997; Robinson, Zahn-Waxler, & Ernde, 1994), and academic competence (Green, 2001; Sally, 2001; Steinberg, 1996). Most importantly, research has shown that positive parenting techniques, that is, high parental control coupled with high parental nurturance can promote self-actualization in children but negative parenting techniques (either low on parental control or parental nurturance) can actually detract children from the goal of self-actualization (see Nystul, 1984; Dominguez & Carton, 1997). These research conclusions are akin to past theoretical formulations (e.g., Maslow, 1968; Rogers, 1963) suggesting that unconditional positive regard from parents and a sense of independence are central to the personal growth/self-actualization process (Flett et al., 1991).

Most of the research done on the potential predictors of personal growth has focused on the demographic variables that define a person (Hidalgo, 2003). Personal characteristics typically examined include age, gender, socio-economic status, nationality, religiosity, religious group identity, ethnicity, and general culture (Myers & Diener, 1995). Potential personality traits as predictors of personal growth have received only sporadic attention, however. Studies have found that dispositional traits such as self-esteem (Richard & Fex, 1991), self-acceptance (Lindsey, 1978), self-efficacy (Tripp, 2000) influence a person's ability to actualize true potential. Among these variables, locus of control and self-disclosure are two dispositional characteristics of human personality, which have been theorized to play an important role in the development of personal growth tendency.

The construct of locus of control, one's belief in the amount of control that people think they have over the events in their lives, has been used to predict a wide range of behavior (Gale Encyclopedia of Psychology, 2001; Raine, Roger, & Venables, 1982). Studies have illuminated that people who believe that they have a choice in what they make out of their lives and accept the responsibility for the level at which they are functioning appear to have greater success in controlling their lives (Calhoun & Acocella, 1990; Jerabek, 2000), have greater feelings of subjective well being (Cooper, Okamura, & McNeil, 1995), and are more adjusted psychologically (Davis & Palladino, 2000; Haidt & Rodin, 1999). It is obvious then that such people will have a greater ability to create an atmosphere of freedom and various experiences in which they can grow and move in the direction to maximize their potentials. On the other hand, theorists working in the area of self-disclosure consider it as a significant determinant of personal growth (e.g., Rogers,

1989; Jourard, 1974; Johnson, 1972). These psychologists argue that authentic interpersonal communication enables individuals to experience their own self, to become aware of their own views, feelings, and capabilities, and helps them to become more self-accepting. In other words, it allows them to continually examine the self and to change throughout life, especially if the disclosure takes place in a non-judgmental and non-threatening environment (Littlejohn, 1983). Research findings have generally supported this idea, that is, revealing one's thoughts, feelings, and emotions in an appropriate manner is a prerequisite to personal adjustment and self-actualization (Cozby, 1973; Johnson, 1981; Tucker-Ladd, 2000; Weiten & Lloyd, 2003).

Primarily, the present research was designed to construct a self-report measure of personal growth, Index of Personal Growth (IPG) by using the five-dimensional model of self-actualization, proposed by Jones and Crandall (1986). Moreover, the present investigation was also planned to study the familial (perceived parenting styles) and dispositional predictors (internal locus of control and self-disclosure) of personal growth among University students followed by exploring the mediational role of internal locus of control and self-disclosure between parenting and personal growth.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The construct, personal growth, has different meanings for different psychologists. For some psychologists it is an ability to move toward *autonomy* (e.g., Blatz, 1944; Reisman, 1950), for others it implies the attainment of *self-realization* (Jung, 1928), or the process of becoming *creative* (Maddi, 1972; Rank, 1953). Other psychologists regard personal growth as a multidimensional phenomenon. They have used different synonyms such as *fully-functioning person* (Rogers, 1989), *personality integration* (O'Connell & O'Connell, 1974), and have derived almost similar attributes of personal growth from their clinical and non clinical experiences.

Orthodox psychoanalysts considered personal growth as an outcome of harmony among *id, ego, and superego* (Jourard, 1974). Freud (1949) viewed personal growth as the ability to love and to do productive work. Jung (1954) regarded personal growth as a gradual unfolding and expression of the unconscious, and the integration of these unfolding aspects of personality into a coherent, meaningful way of life. He described personal growth as a process of "individuation" or self-realization." While for Adler (1956) personal growth is primarily a matter of moving from a self-centered attitude and the goal of personal superiority to an attitude of constructive mastery of the environment and socially useful development. Adler believed that constructive striving for superiority plus social interest and co-operation are the basic traits of the healthy individual.

Gestalt psychologists believe that personal growth is the capacity to emerge from environmental support and environmental regulation to self-support and self-regulation (Fadiman & Frager, 1976). According to Perls (1973), self-regulating, self-supporting individuals are characterised by freely flowing and clearly delineated figure-ground formations in expression of their needs for contact and withdrawal from environment. Such individuals recognise their own capacity to choose the means of fulfilling needs as the needs emerge. They are aware of the boundaries between themselves and others and are particularly aware of the distinction between their fantasies of others (or the environment) and what they experience through direct contact.

Humanistic psychologists consider personal growth as the main theme in human life (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1986). They assert that human beings have an innate potential to develop as a self-determining, self-actualizing, self-transcending healthy persons. Sutich (1949), a growth-oriented humanistic psychologist, regarded personal growth as the direct achievement of a significantly improved level or quality of integrating action and reaction tendencies in the emotional, attitudinal, and other related aspects of an individual's general interpersonal behavior. He observed that a growth experience is also a significant step forward in the process of attaining emotional liberation. He assumed that there is both a need and a capacity for continuous growth in every individual, though individuals vary in their level of development at any given time. For Rogers (1989), another humanistic psychologist, personal growth is:

a natural and inherent tendency within an organism to expand, extend, become autonomous, develop, mature—the tendency/urge to express

and activate all the capacities of the organism, to the extent that such activation enhances the organism or the self.

Rogers (1989) derived four basic dimensions of personal growth from his clients and patients with whom he worked in therapy, which are listed as following:

1. *open to experience*
2. *trust in one's organism*
3. *an internal locus of evaluation*
4. *willingness to be a process*

Jourard (1964), another humanistic psychologist, defined personal growth as a change in modal behavior so that the individual displays the behavior and reactions which are appropriate to his age-role; his self-structure changes correspondingly, so that the self-concept remains accurate, the self-ideal remains congruent with social mores and with actual behavior, and the various public selves remain accurate and mutually compatible; the growing person becomes increasingly capable, through learning, of broader repertoire of effective instrumental action; his behavior is increasingly directed by his real self.

According to Firman and Vargiu (1977), personal growth is concerned with a person's own individual existence and with everyday life activities. It is a process, which encompasses the practical realities of achieving the tasks appropriate to one's age and stage, relating to others, educating ourselves, finding a career direction, and establishing a family. Arkoff (1988) believe that personal growth refers to personal development in a desired direction. According to him, an individual is said to show growth when he or she

becomes more capable and competent, more productive and creative, more perceptive, insightful, and understanding, or more knowledgeable, prudent, and discerning. O'Connell and O'Connell (1974) defined personal growth as:

a continuous and purposeful development of the human person toward the full potential of what he and she can become (p. 4).

They have used the term “personality integration” to describe the phenomenon of personal growth. They have identified following four basic processes that are common to an integrated person:

1. *The development of intellectual understanding of the world and of ourselves*
2. *The purposeful furthering of emotional awareness*
3. *The striving always of direct one's own destiny*
4. *The quest to relate oneself to one's world*

Operational Definitions of Personal Growth

Many psychologists conceive personal growth in terms of self-actualization because actualization of self is synonymous to growth towards self (e.g., Rogers, 1989; Maslow, 1970). Indeed, reflecting on the above-given various definitions of personal growth, it may be concluded that self-actualization is conceptually at the core of most approaches to personal growth (e.g., self-realization, fully-functioning person). The origin of the principle of self-actualization springs from the work of Greek philosopher Aristotle

(384-322 BC). Aristotle held that each one of us has the potential to develop into a self, that is, to actualize, fulfill, and enhance our maximum human potentialities. Goldstein (1939) believed that the only real motive in a person's behavior is "self-actualization" - the fulfilling of one's capacities or potentialities in the best possible way under a given condition.

Thus, in the present investigation personal growth was taken up to mean self-actualization. According to Maslow (1954), personal growth/self-actualization is defined as:

the full use and exploitation of talents, capacities, potentialities. The desire to become more and more what one is, to become every thing that one is capable of becoming (p.234).

On the basis of empirical evidence, Maslow believed that self-actualized individuals are characterized by the following attributes:

1. *more efficient perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it*
2. *acceptance (self, others, nature)*
3. *spontaneity; simplicity; naturalness*
4. *problem centering, as opposed to being ego-centered*
5. *the quality of detachment; the need for privacy*
6. *autonomy; independence of culture and environment, but not rebelliousness*
7. *continued freshness of appreciation*
8. *the mystic experience; the oceanic feeling*

9. *gemeinschaftsgefühl, (the feeling of kinship with others)*
10. *deeper and more profound interpersonal relations*
11. *the democratic character structure*
12. *discrimination between means and ends, between good and evil*
13. *philosophical, unhostile sense of humour*
14. *self-actualizing creativeness*
15. *resistance to enculturation; the transcendence of any particular culture*

Another definition of self-actualization given by the Encyclopaedic Dictionary of

Psychology is as follows:

Self-actualization is the inherent tendency towards self-fulfillment, self-expression, and the attainment of autonomy from external forces (Harre & Lamb, 1983, p.559).

Whereas, for Jones and Crandall (1986), personal growth/self-actualization means,

the discovery of the real self and its expression and development (p. 63).

Jones and Crandall (1986) advocated following five fundamental dimensions of

personal growth/self-actualization:

1. *Autonomy*
2. *Self-acceptance and self-esteem*
3. *Acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions*

4. *Trust and responsibility in interpersonal relationships*
5. *Inability to deal with undesirable aspects of life*

While, Oxford Canadian Dictionary (1998) has defined self-actualization as,

the realization of one's talents and potentialities, especially considered as a drive or need present in anyone.

Theories of Personal Growth

Theories of personal growth provide detailed accounts of the series of events that lead to the transformation of a helpless, and incoherent newborn into a fully functionally person having emotional, social, and intellectual capacities. Underlying almost all descriptions of the processes involved in the phenomena of personal growth are found three basic theoretical orientations which have been described below. These have also been used in the study and explanation of human beings' personality development.

Psychodynamic Perspective

The Freudian explanation of personal growth centres on the early childhood experiences of an individual. Freud (1960) believed that by the time a child is six to seven years old, personal growth is essentially over. According to Freud, during the first years of their life, children go through a sequence of developmental stages, which leave an indelible imprint on the adult personality. In charting the course of personal growth, Freud named three major stages of development from birth through seven years: the *oral stage* (birth to

eighteen months), the *anal stage* (one and a half to three years), the *phallic stage* (three to seven years). Freud (1960) further stated that certain dimensions of personality are maximally affected by the type of interaction between the child and his parents at each of these stages. During the *oral stage*, for example, the quality of nurturing that children receive, especially as related to feelings, will maximally affect children's future feelings of dependence and trust in the world. During the *anal stage*, independence and control are at the forefront of the development. In the *phallic stage*, sexual identity is the major aspect of personality formation. Freud believed that relationships with parents in these developmental stages may be forgotten but they continue to affect one's behavior even in adult life.

Erikson, one of Freud's students, transformed Freud's theory of personality development into a major developmental scheme as a means of understanding the process of healthy personal growth (Sprinthal & Sprinthal, 1990). Erikson (1963) expanded the ideas of stages of development into a broader framework – a life cycle – and outlined the positive and negative dimensions of each period. He saw personal growth continuing throughout one's entire life but gave special significance to childhood, the juvenile era, and adolescence.

Erikson's theory of personal growth is based on the principle of *epigenetic maturation*, that is, personality itself goes through structural elaboration in accord with a ground plan. According to this theory, development is not random but proceeds according to an outline. Nor is development automatic; the ground plan is really a map of potential. If the child's interaction with the environment is healthy and the basic crisis of each stage of development is resolved, then the child will be ready for the next stage. He believed that

society, in principle, tends to be so constituted as to meet and invite this succession of potentialities for interaction and attempts to safeguard and to encourage the proper rate and the proper sequence of their unfolding. Erikson outlined a sequence of eight separate stages of personal growth. Furthermore, Erikson hypothesized that each stage is accompanied by a crisis, that is, a turning point in the individual's life that arises from physiological maturation and social demand made upon the person at that stage. In other words, each of the eight phases in the human life cycle are characterized by a "phase specific" developmental task, a problem in social development that must be dealt with at that particular time. The emergence of a fully functioning personality is determined by the manner in which each of these tasks or crises are resolved. The description of eight stages is given as follows:

(a) Infancy: Basic Trust versus Mistrust - Hope

For Erikson, a general sense of trust is the corner stone of the healthy personality. A child with the basic sense of "inner certainty" sees the social world as a safe, stable place and people as nurturant and reliable. This sense of certainty is only partially conscious during infancy. Erikson suggests that the degree to which infants are able to acquire a sense of trust in other people and in the world depend upon the quality of the maternal care that they receive. It is the mother who controls both gratification and security. Erikson observed:

Mothers, I think, create sense of trust in their children by that kind of administration which in its quality combines sensitive care of the baby's individual need and a firm sense of personal trustworthiness

within the trusted frame work of their culture's life style. This forms the bases in the child for a sense of being "all right," of being oneself, and of becoming what trusting other people one will become (p.450).

(b) Early childhood: Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt - Will Power

Acquisition of a sense of basic trust sets the stage for the attainment of a sense of autonomy and self-control. Prior to this stage, children are almost totally dependent on the adults who care for them; external forces largely govern their behavior. However, as they rapidly gain neuromuscular maturation, verbalization, and social determination, they begin to explore and interact with their environment more independently. In particular, they feel pride in their newly discovered locomotor skills and want to do everything themselves.

In Erikson's view, satisfactorily meeting the psychosocial crisis of this stage depends primarily on the parents' willingness to gradually allow children freedom to control those activities that affect their lives. At the same time, Erikson stresses that parents must maintain the reasonable but firm limits in those areas of children's life that are either potentially or actually harmful to themselves or destructive to others. Autonomy does not mean giving the child unrestricted freedom; rather, it means that parents must maintain "degrees of freedom" over the child's growing ability to exercise choice.

(c) Play age: Initiative versus Guilt-Purpose

Initiative versus guilt is the final psychosocial conflict experienced by pre-school child during what Erikson calls the "play age". This is when the child's social world

challenges him or her to be active, to master new tasks and skills, and to win approval by being productive. Children also begin to assume additional responsibility for themselves and for that which constitutes their world (bodies, toys, pets, and, occasionally younger siblings). This is the age when children begin to feel that they are counted as persons and that life has a purpose for them.

(d) School age: Industry versus Inferiority-Competency

The fourth psychosocial period occurs from about six to eleven years of age. Here, for the first time, the child is expected to learn the rudimentary skills of the culture via formal education (that is, reading, writing, co-operating with others in structured activities). This period of life is associated with the child's increased powers of deductive reasoning and self-discipline, as well as the ability to relate to peers according to prescribed rules.

(e) Adolescence: Identity versus Identity Diffusion – Fidelity

The physiological revolution that comes with puberty - rapid body growth and sexual maturity- forces the young person to question "all sameness and continuities relied on earlier" and to "refight many of the earlier battles." The developmental task is to integrate childhood identifications with the basic biological drives, native endowment, and the opportunity offered in social roles. The danger is that identity diffusion, temporarily unavoidable in this period of physical and psychological upheaval, may result in a permanent inability to "take hold" in a devoted attempt to become what parents, class, or community do not want him to be.

(f) Young adulthood : Intimacy versus Isolation-Love

Only as a young person begins to feel more secure in his identity is he able to establish intimacy with himself (with his inner life) and with others, both in friendships and eventually in a love based mutually satisfying sexual relationship with a member of the opposite sex .A person who cannot enter wholly into an intimate relationship because of the fear of losing his identity may develop a sense of isolation.

(g) Adulthood : Generativity versus Self-absorption – Care

Stage seven in the Eriksonian scheme corresponds to the middle years of life (25 to 65). Generativity occurs when a person begins to show concern not only for the welfare of the next generation but also for the nature of the society in which that generation will live and work. The lack of this results in self-absorption and frequently in “pervading sense of stagnation and interpersonal impoverishment.”

(h) Maturity: Ego Integrity versus Despair – Wisdom

The person who has achieved a satisfying intimacy with other human beings and who has adapted to the triumphs and disappointments of his generative activities as parent and co-worker reaches the end of life with a certain ego integrity – an acceptance of his own responsibility for what his life was and of its place in the flow of history.

Behavioristic Perspective

Behaviorist psychologists view personal growth as changes in behavior because of rewards and punishments. Personal growth, according to behaviorists, means learning of competence and self-control, that is, the ability to suppress action which no longer yields “positive reinforcers,” and to learn action that is successful in attaining the good things. Such rapid adaptability is mediated by the ability to discern the “contingencies,” or rules implicit in nature or in society, according to which needs are gratified and dangers averted (Jourard, 1974).

Behaviorists believe that “environment” is an important determinant of the process of personal growth. Behavior that is rewarded tends to be repeated and behavior that is not rewarded tends not to be repeated. For instance, when a child says or does something for the first time, and the parents hug and kiss him, then the child has been rewarded and will tend to repeat these behaviors. If, however, the child does something else (such as saying a “dirty word”), then parents may yell and scream or even spank the child. Generally, although not always, a child will not tend to repeat these behaviors. Thus, for behavioral psychologists, the development of personality is based essentially on the *principle of reinforcement*. It is up to parents, teachers, and care takers to decide what kind of behaviors they want to reward and what kind of behaviors they want to punish (Lugo & Hershey, 1974).

According to Skinner (1968), one of the most influential behaviorists, personal growth is minimizing adverse conditions and increasing the beneficial control of our environment. By clarifying our thinking, we can make better use of the available tools to

predict, maintain, and control our own behavior. He held that to understand oneself, an individual must recognize that his behavior is neither random nor arbitrary but is an ongoing, lawful process which can be described by considering the environment in which the behavior is embedded. Skinner (1977) asserts:

Psychological growth is not a naturally occurring process that emerges from the individual. Instead changes in people's behavior over the life span are due to variations in their environments – as the environment varies in terms of its reinforcing properties, so also does the behavior which is, after all, under its direct control (p.27).

In Skinner's system, an infant has an infinite number of possibilities for behavior acquisition. It is parents who principally reinforce and thus shape development in specific directions; in turn, the infant will behave contingent upon their rewards. Behavior consistently followed by non-reinforcement will not be strengthened. Gradually, as his development proceeds, the child's behavior is "shaped" into patterns as a direct function of his ongoing conditioning experiences.

According to Skinner (1953), as the child's social world expands, other reinforcement sources are more central in affecting behavioral development. School, athletic, and peer-group experiences are especially powerful sources of reinforcement. The principle of behavior determination by reinforcement remains the same – it is only the kinds and sources of reinforcement that changes. Sexual and occupational types of reinforcement occur later. By the time adulthood is reached, the person behaves in a

characteristic fashion because of his or her unique conditioning history; the person's behavior can be expected to change only as a consequence of the contemporary reinforcement contingencies to which she or he is exposed. Throughout the entire developmental process, previously reinforced behaviors drop out of the person's response repertoire as a result of either non-reinforcement or punishment from the current social environment. Skinner holds that humans have no freedom to choose their behavior, rather, their behavior is moulded exclusively by external environments.

Humanistic Perspective

Much of the work on the process of personal growth has been done by humanistic psychologists. They assert that given a nourishing environment, humans have a potential to develop as a self-determining, self-actualizing, self-transcending healthy persons.

Rogers (1989) believed that each individual has within him the capacity and the tendency, latent if not evident, to reorganize his personality and his relationship to life in ways that are regarded as more mature. Furthermore, in a suitable psychological climate this tendency is released, and becomes actual rather than potential. He postulated that by providing an unconditional, empathic and genuine relationship, a parent or a teacher can help a child become more self-directing, socialised, self-initiated learner, original, and mature.

Maslow (1970) devoted his life in studying personal growth and development. He believed that people would continue throughout their life span to move steadily in direction of growth as long as their *environment and experiences* permit and support their growth.

Thus, Maslow was interested in studying the conditions under which man develops his capacities to their fullest degree. He advocated that the most important condition for the emergence of the growth motivation or for the development of an individual's capacities to the fullest, is the *prior* satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love, and esteem needs.

Later, Joseph and Braga (1974) traced the arousal of each need (proposed by Maslow) in accordance with the specific age points, in children. Following is the brief description of each need in a hierarchical manner as proposed by Maslow with Joseph and Braga's age identification for the emergence of the needs:

(a) Physiological needs

The most basic, powerful, and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical survival. Included in this group are the needs for food, drink, oxygen, activity and sleep, sex, protection from extreme temperatures, and sensory stimulation. These physiological drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and must be gratified at some minimal level before the individual is motivated by higher-order needs. According to Joseph and Braga (1974), tiny infants are motivated first by *physiological needs*. They need to eat, sleep, breathe, eliminate wastes, and so on. These are a baby's most obvious needs and are ordinarily met without problems.

(b) Safety needs

Once the physiological needs have been satisfied, an individual becomes concerned with a new set, often called the safety or security needs. The primary motivating force here

is to ensure a reasonable degree of certainty, order, structure, and predictability in one's environment. Infants, for instance, respond fearfully if they are suddenly dropped or startled by loud noises or flashing lights. The urgency of safety needs is also evident when a child experiences bodily illnesses of various kinds.

Another indication of the need for safety is the child's distinct preference for some kind of dependable, undisrupted routine. According to Maslow (1970), young children seem to thrive better under a system that has at least a skeletal outline of rigidity, in which there is a schedule of a kind, some sort of routine, something that can be counted upon, not only for the present but also far into the future. Child psychologists, teachers, and psychotherapists have found that permissiveness within limits, rather than unrestricted permissiveness is preferred as well as *needed* by children.

The central role of the parents and the *normal* family set-up are indisputable. Quarrelling, physical assault, separation, divorce, or death within the family may be particularly terrifying. Also parental outbursts of rage or threats of punishment directed to the child, calling him names, speaking to him harshly, handling him roughly, or actual physical punishment sometimes elicit such total panic and terror that one may assume that more is involved than the physical pain alone.

Safety needs also exert an active influence beyond childhood. The preference for a job with tenure and financial protection, the establishment of saving accounts, and the acquisition of insurance may be regarded as motivated in part by safety seeking.

(c) Belongingness and Love needs

The belongingness and love needs constitute the third hierarchical level. An individual motivated on this level longs for affectionate relationships with others, for a place in his or her family and/or reference groups. Group membership becomes a dominant goal for the individual. Accordingly, a person will feel keenly the pangs of loneliness, social ostracism, and rejection, especially when induced by the absence of friends, relatives, a spouse, or children.

Maslow (1970) observes that such needs are increasingly more difficult to meet in a technological, fluid, and mobile society. Such problems account for the rising interest in support groups and new styles of living together. Love, rather than being physiological or simply sexual, involves a healthy, mutual relationship of trust, in which each person is deeply understood and accepted.

Joseph and Braga (1974) note that around six to nine months of an age, love needs begin to emerge. Children in this period need to feel secure and valued; they need assurance that they will always be loved and cared for, so that they can venture forth and meet the world. Growth motivation for such children seems a natural and attractive force.

(d) Self-esteem needs

When one's needs for being loved and for loving others have been reasonably gratified, their motivating force diminishes, paving the way for self-esteem needs. Maslow (1970) divided these two subsidiary sets: self-respect and esteem from others. The former

includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence, and freedom. An individual needs to know that he or she is worthwhile-capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life. Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, fame, reputation, and appreciation. In this case people need to be appreciated for what they can do, i.e., they must experience feelings of worth because their competence is recognized and valued by significant others.

Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world. But thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, of weakness, and of helplessness. These feelings, in turn, give rise to either basic discouragement or else compensatory or neurotic trends. However, for most people, the need for regard from others diminishes with age because it has been fulfilled and the need for self-regard becomes more important.

According to Joseph and Braga (1974), the *esteem needs* arise around two years. Children's needs for self-esteem and the esteem from others (particularly their parents) require that they be treated in such a way as to encourage their independence while providing support and guidance when they need it. At this stage, children seek to develop their own identities by demanding the right to choose for themselves, to do for themselves, and in general, to proclaim themselves as persons. Joseph and Braga further stated that children acquire a stable sense of esteem only through demonstration of *real* instances of competence. Thus, they should be helped to achieve competence in whatever areas possible, and at the same time, they should not be forced to do things that are beyond their capability and that would prove frustrating.

(e) *Self-actualization*

Finally, if all the foregoing needs are sufficiently satisfied, the need for self-actualization comes to the fore. Maslow (1970) characterized *self-actualization* as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. Self-actualization is a person's desire for self-improvement. In short, to self-actualize is to become the kind of person one wants to become; to reach the peak of one's potential. Maslow observes (1970): "a musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature (p. 212)."

Self-actualization, however, needs not take the form of creative and artistic endeavours. A parent, an athlete, a student, a teacher, or an ardent labourer may all be actualizing their potentials in doing well what each does best; specific forms of self-actualization vary greatly from person to person. It is at this level of Maslow's need hierarchy that individual differences are the greatest.

In his research, Maslow (1970) derived the characteristics of self-actualized individuals by studying the most healthy and creative people, and who were relatively free of neurosis or other major personal problems. He argued that it was more accurate to generalize about human nature from studying the best examples he could find, than from cataloguing the problems and faults of neurotic individuals. However, Maslow (1970) stated that "there are no perfect human beings." As *imperfect* humans, self-actualizers are just as susceptible to silly, non-constructive, and wasteful habits as the rest of humanity. They, too, can be obstinate, irritable, boring, selfish, or depressed and sad.

Later, Maslow distinguished between two types of self-actualizing people: transcendents and non-transcendents (Piechowski & Tyska, 1982). He described transcendents as creators and discoverers inspired by the realm of Being, they have “illuminations or insights or cognitions which changed their view of the world themselves”; truth, goodness, beauty, wholeness, unity, perfection, justice are to them a direct experience — the basic facts of existence. Non-transcendents, on the other hand, were described as those who live in the realm of Deficiency — the realm of basic needs of safety, belonging, and esteem. The non-transcendents are “more essentially practical, realistic, mundane, capable, and secular people, living more in the here-and-now world”; they are “doers” rather than mediators or contemplators, “effective and pragmatic rather than emotional and experiencing.” To the non-transcendents, the facts of existence lie in the deficiencies of human life, which they strive to correct-their aim, is the betterment of the human condition; the aim of transcendents is to awaken the human spirit and to lift it.

Joseph and Braga (1974) believe that about age four to five, *self-actualization needs* begin to emerge in children whose lower needs have been relatively well-satisfied. Children who have been growing in healthy, productive directions up to this point have enough of an identity as persons that they begin to need avenues through which they can try out and express that selfhood, thus further defining *who they are or what kind of a person they are!*

Somewhere around this time period, Dabrowski (1964, 1967, 1973) presented a developmental theory of personal growth. The theory defines mental health in terms of *the capacity for development*. The central concept of the theory is that personal growth takes place through the disintegration of a lower level of intra-psychic organization and its

replacement by a higher level. Dabrowski distinguished between two types of growth: unilevel and multilevel. Unilevelness connotes a type of mental organization characterized by pluralism, relativism of values, and the belief that there are no absolutes, and that no hierarchy of values or ideals can be empirically or rationally established. While multilevel mental organization is characterized by an autonomously discovered hierarchy of values, aims, ideals, the conviction that there are ideals worth serving and perhaps worth dying for, that some values and ideals are clearly more compelling than others because they are universal ethical principles. Dabrowski has presented five levels of personal growth arranged in a hierarchical order from the lowest to the highest. The following are brief descriptions of the five levels of development:

Level I (Primary Integration) is characterised by the absence of emotional dynamisms, reflection, self-observation, self-evaluation, and inner conflict (conflict is external only). The individual is oriented toward external standards of success. Self-interest is the primary motivation, i.e., there is little or no feeling for others, or strong possessive feelings, more like ownership than emotional attachment, and lack of insight into others. Level I individuals follow a predictably adaptive path throughout their life; they accommodate to changing circumstances but show no real development in a psychological sense.

Level II (Unilevel Disintegration) manifestations may range from chronic psychosis, alcoholism, or drug addiction to more stable patterns of partial integration and even a degree of maturity and personal growth. Characteristics are inferiority toward others, dependency, a need to conform, to follow fads, the constant seeking of approval and admiration, and relativism of values and beliefs. Tied to this is limited ability to

discern and to follow a higher order in human experience. Without an autonomous inner core, there is a tumbling from one feeling to its opposite and mood swings can be extreme. The individual is often adrift between conflicting motivations and courses of action.

Level III (Spontaneous Multilevel Disintegration) begins to show signs of intrapsychic organisation. The following experiences are typical: a conflict between “what is” (experienced as the lower in oneself) and “what ought to be” (experienced as the higher in oneself); feelings of inferiority toward oneself - this is, frustration with not being all that one can become; dissatisfaction with oneself - frustration and anger with one’s lower impulses and developmental shortcomings; strong appreciation and defence of individual values and of the value of each individual. There is an emerging awareness, dim at first, of a personality ideal; one begins to measure oneself against this standard. There are also positive, integrating elements at work in the advanced level III personality, such as autopsychotherapy, a developing sense of autonomy and responsibility, creative instinct in the service of self-perfection, and the capacity for more encompassing empathy.

Level IV (Organised Multilevel Disintegration) is characterised by greatly reduced inner conflict as the individual approaches more closely the personality ideal. Conscious choice in the development of one’s inner standards and steadfast adherence to one’s ideal of development become consistent. This is accomplished by inner restructuring (transcending age-related changes and earlier undesirable personality traits) and by responsibility, which is the taking on of tasks for the sake of others and for one’s own development, and greater freedom from the influence of the external environment i.e., a greater inner autonomy. This latter also means freedom from lower level motivations and determinants. There is, too, a greater responsiveness to the needs of others, a keener

awareness of their uniqueness, and an orientation toward serving them. Traits of level IV individuals correspond exactly to those of self-actualising persons described by Maslow.

Level V (Secondary Integration) is characterised by unity with the personality ideal, love and compassion for all humanity, and awareness of the transcendent meaning and value of human existence. At this level, the process of developmental synthesis leads to a harmonious unity as a function of the “fullest dynamization of the ideal.”

Dabrowski further stated that growth from unilevel mental organization to multilevel mental organization would only take place if an individual has rich emotional life. He argued that when transformation to a higher level takes place, the process is guided by certain advanced emotional and cognitive factors, the developmental dynamisms. Developmental dynamism represents the capacity for personal growth, which is based on the enhanced reactivity in several areas of functioning, which Dabrowski (1967) called overexcitabilities. Through the action of developmental dynamisms, internal forces which are both cognitive and affective and which are different at each level of development, lower and rigid personality structures are broken to be replaced by higher ones. These are as follows:

(a) *Psychomotor overexcitability* may be viewed as an organic excess of energy, or heightened excitability of the neuromuscular system. It may manifest itself as a love of movement for its sake, rapid speech, pursuit of intense physical activity, impulsiveness, restlessness, pressure for action, or drivenness; the capacity for being active and energetic.

(b) *Sensual overexcitability* is expressed in the heightened experiences of sensual pleasure and in seeking sensual outlets for inner tension. Beyond desires for comforts, luxury, stereotyped or refined beauty, the pleasure in being admired and taking the limelight, sensual overexcitability may be expressed in the simple pleasure in touching the things, such as texture of tree bark, or the pleasure of taste and smell, for instance, the smell of gasoline. In short, it is the capacity for sensual enjoyment.

(c) *Intellectual overexcitability* is to be distinguished from intelligence. It manifests itself as persistence in asking probing questions, avidity of knowledge and analysis, and preoccupation with logic and theoretical problems. Other expressions are a sharp sense of observation, independence of thought (often expressed in criticism), symbolic thinking, development of new concepts, striving for knowledge, capacity to search for knowledge and truth.

(d) *Imaginational overexcitability* is recognized through rich association of images and impressions, inventiveness, vivid and often animated visualisation, use of image and metaphor in verbal expression. Dreams are vivid and can be retold in detail. Intense living in the world of fantasy, predilection for fairy and magic tales, poetic creations, and dramatising to escape boredom are also observed.

(e) *Emotional overexcitability* is recognized in the way emotional relationships are experienced, in strong attachments to persons, living things or places, and in the great intensity of feeling and awareness of its full range. Characteristic expressions are inhibition (timidity and shyness) and excitation (enthusiasm), strong affective recall of past experiences, concern with death, fears, anxieties, and depressions. There may be an intense

loneliness, and an intense desire to offer love, a concern for others; there is high degree of differentiation of interpersonal feeling. Emotional overexcitability is the basis of one's relation to self through self-evaluation and self-judgement, coupled with a sense of responsibility, compassion, and responsiveness to others.

The richer and more complex are the expressions of these overexcitabilities, the stronger is the potential for personal growth. However, for individuals operating at higher levels, the last three overexcitabilities must be developed. Dabrowski (1967) further suggested that there are certain necessary conditions for psychological development: heredity, physical and social environment, and autonomous processes. According to this theory, all the three factors come in to play in an individual functioning at higher levels.

Although, Maslow saw the satisfaction of basic needs as a necessary condition for self-actualization, he was aware that this is not a sufficient explanation for the origin of self-actualization, and that there is nothing automatic about the way in which self-actualization is attained (Piechowski, 1975, p. 230). Piechowski (1978) demonstrated that the whole cluster of characteristics of self-actualization as originally described by Maslow fits into a theoretical structure provided by the Theory of Positive Disintegration. Self-actualization was shown to correspond exactly to the structure of Level IV, which is the level of moral autonomy, self-directed growth, and genuine empathy. Piechowski (1978, 1982) showed that all five forms of overexcitabilities are very strongly manifested in the self-actualized individuals. Psychomotor overexcitability can be discerned in the observation that self-actualized people demonstrate efficiency, self-starting, problem-centering; sensual overexcitability can be discerned in the intensification of experience, enjoyment of life, continued freshness of appreciation; intellectual overexcitability, in a

superior perception of reality, quest for knowledge and truth, intense concentration, problem-centering, and philosophical sense of humour; imaginal overexcitability, in creativeness, resourcefulness, humour; emotional overexcitability, in the *Gemeinschaftsgefühl* (social interest), democratic character structure, compassion, intimate and deep interpersonal relations, enthusiasm, and an unhostile sense of humour. Self-actualization, then, is a necessary attribute of level IV and, under optimal conditions, including some degree of satisfaction of basic needs, is a necessary outcome of a strong developmental potential as defined in the theory of potential development.

In conclusion, one must realize that in order to understand the processes involved in the growth of personality, we need to employ all the three perspectives presented above. Psychoanalytic view gives us information about the different stages of psychological development and the conflicts that they produce in children. Behaviorist approaches give details about how our behavior *is* conditioned by social and parental reinforcement. Humanistists addressed themselves on such distinctively human qualities as choice, creativity, valuation, and self-realization. In its own domain, each perspective presents different but significant processes of personal growth.

Measures of Personal Growth

Measures of personal growth essentially fall in two categories, depending on the research problem that is being explored: (a) Interview and/or autobiographies and (b) Self-report questionnaires.

(a) Interview and/or Autobiographical Technique

Interview and autobiographical method was originally used by Maslow (1954) to identify the characteristics of personal growth. Maslow conceptualized personal growth in terms of self-actualization. He conducted an extensive, although informal, study of a group of persons whom he considered to be self-actualizers. His study was initially private and motivated by his own curiosity rather than by the normal demands of scientific laboratory research. Thus, it lacked the rigor and distinct methodology of strict empirical study. Nevertheless, the study generated such interest among other psychologists that Maslow felt that it was wise to publish his findings (1970). Through his study, Maslow identified fifteen notable characteristics of self-actualization, listed in the beginning of this chapter.

Criteria for the selection of subjects: The technique of selection used was that of *iteration*. This consisted of starting with personal or cultural non technical state of belief, collating the various extant usages and definitions of the syndrome, and then defining it more carefully, still in terms of actual usage, with, however, the elimination of the logical and factual inconsistencies customarily found in folk definitions.

On the basis of the corrected folk definition, two groups of subjects were selected, a group who were high in the quality and a group who were low in it. These people were studied as carefully as possible in the clinical style, and on the basis of this empirical study the original corrected folk definition was further changed and corrected as required by the data in hand. This first clinical definition, on the basis of which subjects were finally chosen or rejected, had a positive as well as a negative side. The negative criterion was an absence of neurosis, psychopathic personality, psychosis, or strong tendencies in these

directions. Wherever possible, Rorschach Ink Blot Test and Thematic Apperception Test were given. The positive criterion for selection was positive evidence of self-actualization i.e., the subjects chosen made the best possible use of their talents, capabilities, and other strengths. The subjects, thus, selected at this level were again clinically and experimentally studied, which in turn caused modification, correction, and enrichment of the first clinical definition.

Subjects Selected: The subjects were selected from among personal acquaintances, friends, public and historical figures, and college students through the process outlined above. A total of forty-five subjects were selected. The subjects were divided into the following categories:

Cases:

- 3 fairly sure and 2 highly probable contemporaries
- 2 fairly historical figures (Lincoln in his last years and Thomas Jefferson)
- 6 highly probable public and historical figures (Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Jane Adams, William James, and Spinoza)

Partial Cases:

- 5 contemporaries who fairly certainly fall short somewhat but who can yet be used for study
- 7 historical figures probably or certainly fall short, but who can yet be used for study (Walt Whitman, Henry Thoreau, Beethoven, F. D. Roosevelt, Freud)

Potential Cases:

- 20 younger people who seem to be developing in the direction of self-actualization, and G.W. Craver,

Eugene V. Debs, Albert Schweitzer, Thomas Eakins,
Fritz Kreisler, Goethe.

Techniques of Inquiry and Research: In his study of self-actualized individuals, Maslow used whatever techniques appeared to be most appropriate to the particular situation. In dealing with historical figures, he analyzed biographical material and written records. With living persons, he also utilized indepth interviews and psychological tests. Wherever possible, he obtained global impressions from friends and acquaintances (Engler, 1985).

(b) Self-report Questionnaires

There are three widely used paper-and-pencil self-report questionnaires of personal growth: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), and Short Index of Self-actualization (SI). These have been briefly described in the following.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is developed by Isabel Briggs Myers (1962) and is based on the theory of personality development presented by Jung (1928). MBTI is a 166-item forced-choice, multiple instrument measuring relative strength of preference for each of the functions by which an individual orients himself in relation to inner and outer reality: *sensation (S)*, *intuition (N)*, *thinking (T)*, *feeling (F)*, *introversion (I)*, and *extraversion (E)*. In addition, the MBTI has a *Judging-Perceiving (J-P)* scale which measures the extent to which an individual prefers to use a judging (thinking or feeling)

function or a perceiving function (sensation or intuition) in conducting his outer life – that is, in the extraverted aspect of his life (Piechowski & Lysy, 1983). In this way, different combinations or indices of preferences are attained. Scoring of the items require two keys. The Indicator is helpful in making vocational decisions, in psychotherapy, and in school counselling

Construction of MBTI: The Indicator has had two periods of construction, one producing an adult form, the other appropriate for college and high school students as well. The first period, 1942 to 1944, began with the writing of original items based on type-preferences theory and observation, and validated on the responses of some 20 friends and relatives whose type preferences seemed (to the authors) clearly evident from long acquaintance. These items, in Form A and a rearranged Form B, were subjected to a series of internal-consistency analyses. Only those items were retained in accord with type classification which were answered at least 60% of the time. Each item was analyzed for every index and those with comparable relationships to more than one index were dropped from the scoring. This became Form C.

In the second period, 1956 to 1958, over 200 new items, including word-pairs, were submitted to a small group of people of known type who were familiar with the Indicator. These items were then submitted to 120 men and women who had taken Form C, and only those items were retained which were answered 63% of the time. This became Form D. A massive internal consistency analysis of Form D was then made, using 2573 high school boys in college preparatory 11th and 12th grades, and a similar sample of girls. The surviving items became the current Forms E and F, which are identical except that Form F takes longer to finish.

Reliability and Internal Consistency Analysis: Split-half reliabilities computed for 727 Ss ranged in general from .71 to .94. For internal-consistency analyses, median biserial correlations for each index were computed (Stricker & Ross, 1962), which ranged from .43 to .51 for boys and .46 to .55 for girls.

Validity Studies: Construct validity of MBTI is established with Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB), Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (AVL), Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS), faculty ratings, turnover in utility jobs, and ratings of creativity.

Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)

Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was developed by Shostrom (1965, 1966) as a reliable and valid measure of self-actualization. The POI, is a self-report questionnaire, which has been devised in accordance with Maslow's thinking and provides an assessment of an individual's degree of self-actualization. It consists of 150 two-choice comparative value and behavior judgments. For each set of items, the subject must choose one of the two as most relevant to her or him. The items are scored to measure two major areas of personal and interpersonal development: one dealing with effective use of time (*time competence*) and the other with the extent to which one depends upon oneself or others in making judgments (*inner direction*). In addition, there are ten complementary subscales designed to measure conceptually important elements of self-actualization: *self-actualizing values, existentiality, feeling reactivity, spontaneity, self-regard, self-acceptance, nature of man, synergy, acceptance of aggression, and capacity for intimate contact.*

Item Selection: Items were empirically chosen from significant observed value judgments of clinically healthy and clinically troubled patients by therapists at the Institute of Therapeutic Psychology over a period of five years. As well as being clinically accumulated, the items in the test were also derived from the writings of Perls (1947, 1951), May, Angel, and Ellenberger (1958), Fromm (1941, 1956), Horney (1937, 1945, 1950), Rogers (1951, 1960, 1961), Riesman (1950), Watts (1951), and Ellis (1964).

Reliability and Validity: Test-retest methods established reliability coefficients of 0.91 and 0.93. For validation studies the test was administered to 650 freshman at Los Angeles State College, 150 patients at various stages of therapy, 75 members of the Sensitivity Training Program at UCLA, and 15 school psychologists in a group training program in Orange County. The latter two groups were re-tested after courses of 11 and 15 weeks duration. The test was also administered to 160 "normal" adults, and two groups of "relatively self-actualized" and "relatively non-self-actualized" adults with *N*'s of 29 and 34, respectively. Members of the Los Angeles Society of Clinical Psychologists and the Orange County Society of Clinical Psychologists nominated persons in these two groups.

Later, Shostrom (1975) developed the Personal Orientation Dimensions (POD) measure of self-actualization. POD is a 260-item scale, which represents a refinement and extension of POI. The content of the POD parallels the content of POI scales, and many POI items were retained in the POD scales.

Short Index of Self-actualization (SI)

Jones and Crandall (1986) developed the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI), which consists of 15 items. The content of the proposed scale was based on modified items from POI and POD. Principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation to simple structure revealed following five fundamental dimensions: *autonomy, self-acceptance and self-esteem, acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions, trust and responsibility in interpersonal relationships, and the ability to deal with undesirable aspects of life* (although the interpretability of the last dimension was not agreed upon). This scale is appropriate for adult, adolescents (Jones & Crandall, 1986), and preadolescents (Schatz & Bucmaster, 1988).

Initially, Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) was a four-point scale, which was later converted in to a six-point scale. Items no. 1, 3, 4, 7, 10, 12 and 15 are positively worded, whereas the remaining items are negatively worded.

Item Selection: Half of each of the two-choice POI items were selected alternately and converted to an agree-disagree format. The 150 newly formed "half items" and the complete POI was administered to 73 university students (Young, 1978). A total of 10 items were then selected that had the highest item-total correlation with a total score for the POI and that also represented each of the 10 subscales of the POI. An additional 9 items were later selected from the POD and POI. Among these 9, 4 POI items that had the highest correlations with the POI in the Young data but this time without taking into consideration their correlation to the subscales were selected. The remaining 5 items were selected from the POD, which generally had the highest factor loadings on several POD

subscales that did not overlap with the POI subscales. These 19 items made up the initial scale that used a four-choice answer format. Final item selection was accomplished using Cronbach's alpha as a criterion. An iterative procedure was utilized; that is, each item that decreased alpha was deleted in succession until there were no meaningful increases in alpha value. In this way, 15 items were selected for the final index.

Reliability and Internal Consistency Analysis: Jones and Crandall (1986) tested the following reliability characteristics of the Short Index: a) internal consistency, and b) test-retest reliability. For internal consistency analysis, Cronbach's alpha was calculated using 332 students. Alpha for the 15-item index was .65, with a four-point format. The index had a mean of 45.60 and the standard deviation was 5.57 ($N = 332$). To increase the reliability index of SI, the 15-item measure was also tested with a six-point rating scale (Crandall & Jones, 1991). The new data on internal reliability were at about the same level as originally presented on the scale with a four-point answer and the newer six-point answer format (Flett et al., 1991; alpha .63; Mcleod & Vodanovich, 1991; alpha .68).

The test-retest reliability for the twelve-day interval was .69 ($p \leq .001$). The mean for the first testing was 46.24 ($SD = 4.06$); for the second testing the mean was 45.97 ($SD = 4.26$). The means did not differ significantly; thus there was no practice effect or regression to the mean.

Validity Studies: The validity studies on SI have shown that it has a significant correlation with a total score on the most widely accepted measures of self-actualization, namely the POI ($r = .67, p \leq .001$; $r = .65$ for the I scale and $.51$ for the Tc scale, both $p \leq .001$). The Short Index also had significant correlations with self-esteem ($r = .41, p \leq$

.001) and the measure of rational behavior and beliefs ($r = .44, p \leq .001$). Furthermore, the index had a significant negative correlation with neuroticism ($r = -.30, p \leq .02$). Past studies have shown no relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and the POI (Braun, 1969; Jones, 1973). This result was replicated with the index ($r = .03, p \leq .793$) (Jones & Crandall, 1986).

With respect to the ability of the index to discriminate between those nominated as actualizing or non-actualizing, for the 18 individuals nominated as self-actualizing the mean was 51.20 ($SD = 4.37$) and for the non-self-actualizing the mean was 44.00 ($SD = 4.89$). The difference between the means was highly significant [$t(17) = 4.74, p \leq .001$]. The actualizing group scored higher on all items of the index. Moreover, the results of the “fake good” procedure and the Lie scale suggest that there are no problems with respect to response sets and dissimulation.

Later, two additional studies were carried out to examine the factor structure and the psychometric properties of the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI). The results of the first study demonstrated that SI primarily consists of three factors, which were labelled as *tolerance of failure and disapproval*, *emotional expressiveness*, and *purpose in life* (Flett et al., 1991), while the second study proposed 6-factor model for the index consisting of *courage*, *autonomy*, *self-acceptance*, *purpose in life*, *democratic character*, and *emotional risk-taking* (Sumerlin, Privette, Bundrick, & Berreta, 1994).

Personal Attitude Survey

Recently, a 40-item brief index of self-actualization has been developed by the name of Personal Attitude Survey (Sumerlin & Bundrick, 1996). The new instrument, consisting of 65 items, was developed wholly from Maslow's composite writings to measure his self-actualization model. The Personal Attitude Survey is composed of items written to capture 11 features that Abraham Maslow used to describe a self-actualized person (e.g. autonomy, comfort with solitude, and courage). Principal components analysis reduced the 11 features to 7 factors: core self-actualization, Jonah Complex, curiosity, comfort with solitude, openness to experience, democratic character, and life meaning and purpose. The brief index had high positive correlations with Jones and Crandall's (1986) Short Index of Self-actualization (SI). Alpha coefficient for the Personal Attitude Survey was found to be .87 and two-week test-retest reliability .89.

Correlates of Personal Growth

An overriding feature of personal growth is that it affects and deals with every possible array of human life – from the private and individualistic aspects of psychological functioning to the practical world of human affairs. Various researches have implicated its role in different areas of psychology. Following is a detailed account of the relation of personal growth with some important correlates.

Personal Growth and Parenting Style

Personal growth is a life time process that begins in early childhood and that does not end (for the psychologically healthy person who is functioning at that level) until the last breath is taken. It is a process that transforms an infant into a flexible, adaptive, and mature adult. Each newborn carries within him a certain genetic potential or “readiness” to be a certain kind of person in terms of basic physical and psychological characteristics. There is an in-built capacity within every child to become more and more what he is capable of. But this genetic lock needs the right kind of key to open its unlimited capacities. And that right key is the attentive, empathic, firm, and loving “parent” (Greenspan & Benderly, 1997). Traditional psychological theorists from Freud (1933) to Rogers (1961) suggest that the interactions of parents with their children are among the major determinants of adult character and personality (McCrae & Costa, 1988).

There is much that parents can do to assist their children in the process of personal growth. While children are growing up, opportunities present themselves thousands of times when parents can either confront them with their tendency to avoid or escape responsibility for their own actions or can reassure them that certain situations are not their fault (Peck, 1978). Peck exerted that to seize these opportunities parents are required to be sensitive to their children’s needs and should show the willingness to take the time and make the often uncomfortable effort to meet these needs. And this, in turn, requires love and the willingness to assume appropriate responsibility for the enhancement of their children’s growth (Peck, 1978).

Parents are vitally important contributors in assisting their children to grow, change, and actualize themselves (Becker, 1982). The way parents choose to raise their children is expressed primarily through their parenting style. Researches on parenting have attempted to build typologies of parenting style which captures the parenting milieu, or gestalt, and to understand the mechanisms through which the different styles influence child development by desegregating parenting style into its component parts. According to Maccoby and Martin (1983):

Parenting style reflect two specific underlying processes: (a) the number and type of demands made by the parents and (b) the contingency of parental reinforcement.

Whereas, Darling and Steinberg (1993) defined parenting style as:

a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviors are expressed (p. 487-496).

Parenting style has been found to predict child well being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behavior (Darling, 1999). Studies on parenting style have produced a remarkably consistent picture of the type of parenting conducive to the successful personality development of children. Developmental understanding has illuminated that *parental firm control*, when coupled

with *parental warmth*, promotes effective development of personality traits such as social responsibility, self-control, independence, high self-esteem.

Initial efforts to assess parenting style focused on three particular components: the emotional relationship between the parent and the child, the parents' practices and behaviors, and the parents' belief systems. Because researchers from different theoretical perspectives emphasized different processes through which parents influence their children, their writings stressed different components of style (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Psychodynamic psychologists concentrated their efforts on the *emotional* relationship between the parent and child and its influence on the child's psychosexual, psychosocial, and personality development. They argued that "nurturance," which a child receives from his parents, plays an important role in creating a healthy personality (see for example, Freud, 1933). Adler (1927) observed:

The human infant is born with all its drives orientated in the direction of growth and development as a co-operative, loving creature. The relationship between a loving mother and her child constitutes the basic pattern and model upon which all-human development proceeds. The potential for social interest begins in this relationship between the mother and child.

These theorists further argue that individual differences in the emotional relationships between parents and children result from differences in parental attributes. Because attitudes help determine both parental practices and the more subtle behaviors that

give those practices meaning, many investigators who worked in this tradition reasoned that assessing *parental attitudes* would capture the emotional tenor of the family milieu that determine the parent-child relationship and influence the child's development (Baldwin, 1948; Orlansky, 1949; Schaefer, 1959; Symonds, 1939).

Rohner (1975, 1986, 1990, 1999) introduced parental acceptance-rejection theory (PART) which explains major consequences of parental acceptance and rejection for behavioral, cognitive, and emotional development of children and for personality functioning of adults. The theory assumes that all human beings have a generalised need for positive response, that is, love, approval, warmth and affection, from people significant to them. Thus, research has shown that children who are rejected by their parents tend to be anxious (Barnett, Marshall, & Pleck, 1992; El-Hady, 1997), depressive (Greenberger, Chen, Tally, & Dong, 2000; Heller, 1996), hostile, aggressive, and emotionally unstable (Chen & Rubin, 1994; Elyan, 1992), and have low self-esteem (Arenson-Kemp, 1995; Kapur & Gill, 1986). Moreover, rejection by parents may also put them at increased risk of drug abuse (Campo & Rohner, 1992; Glavak, Kuterovac-Jagodic, & Saloman, 2003; Schenberg, 1998). On the other hand, parental acceptance has been associated with increased competence (Ohannessian, Lerner, Lerner, & Von Eye, 1998), empathy (Kim, 1998), psychological (Jette, 1991), emotional (Ohannessian, Lerner, Von Eye, & Lerner, 1996), and school adjustment in children (Chen, Rubin, & Li, 1997).

Researchers who approached parenting style from behaviorist and social learning perspectives sought to categorize parenting style according to parental behaviors, but they focused their efforts on parental practices rather than attitudes. Because differences in children's development were thought to reflect differences in the learning environment to

which they had been exposed, measures of parenting style were designed to capture the patterning of behaviors that defined these environments (e.g., Sears, Maccoby, & Levin, 1957; Whiting & Child, 1953). In these approaches, “parental control” is identified as an important variable in shaping the personality of human beings (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Becker (1964) presented a two-dimensional model of parenting: warmth-hostility and restrictiveness- permissiveness. Parents high in warmth and restrictiveness were seen as most likely to produce compliant, well-behaved children, whereas those high in warmth and permissiveness were regarded as most likely to promote socially outgoing, independent, and creative children.

Hoffman (1970a, 1970b) proposed a theory of parenting style that relies on the concept of *reasoning* in combination with a small amount of power assertion. He believed that most successful parents are those who tended toward a greater use of reasoning or induction, particularly which emphasizes the negative effects of the child’s misdeed on others because it develops the child’s empathic capacities and induces negative feelings from which the child cannot escape even when the socializing agent is no longer present.

Baumrind (1966) proposed a theoretical model of parenting style which incorporated the nurturance and control dimensions of child rearing into a conceptualization of parenting style that was anchored in an emphasis on parents’ belief system (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). For Baumrind, socializing child to conform to the necessary demands of others while maintaining a sense of personal integrity was the key element of the parental role. Her early research focused on the influence of normal

variation in the patterning of parental authority on early childhood development. She began by articulating and enlarging the concept of parental control. Previously, control had been variously defined as strictness, use of physical punishment, consistency of punishment, use of explanations, and so on (Baumrind, 1966). In contrast, Baumrind argued that parents' willingness to socialize their child is conceptually distinct from parental restrictiveness. She defined parental control as following:

Parental control refers to parents' attempts to integrate the child into the family and society by demanding behavioral compliance
(p.56).

According to Baumrind (1967, 1970, 1971a, 1991), parental control is part of a parental pattern that is associated with high self-esteem; with competence, self-control, exploration, self-reliance, and vitality in children; with purposive, dominant, well-socialized and achievement-oriented behavior in females and friendly, co-operative, likeable, autonomous, imaginative, confident, and achievement-oriented behavior in males. She distinguished among three qualitatively different types of parental control: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. A brief description of these appears below.

(a) *Authoritative Parenting:* Authoritative parents display confidence in themselves as parents and as people. They are nurturant and loving toward their children. They establish and communicate behavioral standards for their children to follow taking into consideration the needs of children as well as needs of the parents and society. They discipline their children when those standards are broken, explain the rationale for their discipline, and tend not to use physical force as a means of punishment. They encourage

their children's independence and expect them to act maturely and respond appropriately to other people around them and to the societal demands placed upon them. When the children do so, the authoritative parent praises them. Parents of this sort do not regard themselves as infallible but also do not base decisions primarily on their children's desires.

(b) *Authoritarian Parenting*: This style characterizes parents who feel it is important to shape, control, and evaluate the behavior of children against a set standard of conduct, usually an absolute standard, sometimes theologically motivated and formulated by a higher authority. This style is favoured by parents who operate according to rather rigid standards of conduct; who favour punitive, forceful measures of discipline; and who value strict obedience as a high virtue. Parents of this sort work hard to teach their children respect for authority, respect for work, and respect for the preservation of order and tradition. Authoritarian parents do not encourage a great deal of give and take, believing, rather that they know best about what is right.

(c) *Permissive Parenting*: This is a style used by parents who are inclined to behave in a rather easygoing, non-punitive, and accepting manner toward most things their children do. They tend to assert little control over their children and demand little in the way of mature behavior from them. Children are usually given a voice in family decisions and rules, but there are few demands on them for household responsibility and orderly behavior. Permissive parents tend to allow children to regulate their own activities as much as possible but do not particularly encourage them to behave according to externally defined standards. These parents, however, are nurturing, at least more so than authoritarian parents. The child is pretty much the centre of things.

Baumrind's (1967, 1971a) operationalization of parenting styles set her apart from earlier researches in several ways (Darling, 1999; Darling & Steinberg, 1993). First, rather than determining with great exactitude multiple dimensions of parental behavior, Baumrind specified one broad parenting function – control – and added articulation within that single domain. Second, rather than demand that parental control be organized linearly from high to low (as was the implicit or explicit assumption of earlier theorists), she distinguished among three qualitatively different types of parenting control, described above. Third, Baumrind (1971a) used a configurational approach to define parenting style, arguing that the influence of any one aspect of parenting (e.g., ideology, maturity demand, or the use of specific disciplinary techniques) is dependent on the configuration of all other aspects.

Importantly, Baumrind found that parents who differ in the way they use authority also tend to differ along other dimensions. According to Baumrind, although in theory authoritative-authoritarian-permissive typology was based solely on variations and patterns of parental authority, in reality the distinction was associated with other parenting attributes as well. For example, although Baumrind (1971a) believed that parents who use different styles of authority might be equally warm and loving, empirically she found that compared with authoritative parents, both authoritarian and permissive parents were similar in their relative detachment, the ineffectiveness of their communication skills, and their lower maturity demands. Indeed it became apparent that the advantage of a configurational approach grounded in naturally occurring parenting styles rather than on theoretical dimensions, was its ecological validity.

Explanations of the effects of parental control

Considerable effort has gone into trying to explain why authoritative parents are successful (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Lewis, 1981). Higgins (1989) suggested that children of parents who reason or explain acquire relatively strong knowledge about the relationship between their behavior and parental reaction to that behavior, and they consequently have strong self-guides or clear representations of attributes that the self ought to possess. Higgins's explanation is a more sophisticated version of an early social learning view that regarded rationales as enhancing the effects of punishment by making contingencies clearer to the child (e.g., Cheyne & Walters, 1970). Attribution theorists such as Lepper (1983), for example, argued that authoritative parents are successful because they provide just enough pressure to induce conformity, a condition that fosters internalization by making it necessary for a child to attribute his or her compliance to internal motivation or personal desire rather than to external pressure.

The same reduced attention to the kind of reason used by the agents of personality growth is found in constructivist approaches to effects of disciplinary methods. According to Applegate, Burke, Burlison, Delia, and Kline (1985), power assertion discourages the child's reflection on moral issues, whereas extensive explanations and opportunities for dialogue facilitate the child's elaboration of schemes for differentiating the psychological experience of others, a condition presumably likely to encourage respect for their rights. In Mancuso and Handin's (1985) analysis of reprimand, the use of reasoning implies that parents recognize that the child's construction of an event may differ from the one they have and that they must take this into account when attempting to change the child's

construction so it is more in line with their own. In effect, the type of reason matters, but type has to do with the degree of fit with the child's schemas.

Over the years a bulk of data has accumulated which reflects a remarkably consistent pattern of behavioral outcomes associated with authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive child-rearing styles. Following are discussed some of the effects, which have repeatedly emerged linked with each parenting style.

It has been found that children from authoritative homes tend to be as described below:

- (a) Independent and socially responsible (Baumrind, 1991; Cole & Cole, 1993; Coopersmith, 1967; Miller, Cowan, Cowan, Hetherington, 1993; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1990; Sears et al., 1957; Steinberg, 1996; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). Such individuals have had many opportunities for making their own decisions, for standing up and being heard, and for contributing to the family enterprise.
- (b) Making plans, as opposed to aimless wandering; fairly dominant; fearless (Coopersmith, 1967; Sears et al., 1957; Steinberg, 1996); self-regulatory (Baumrind, 1991; Roberts & Steinberg, 1999); and inquisitive and self-reliant (Cole & Cole, 1993). This aspect is probably an outgrowth of learning to do things for themselves rather than simply following someone else's directions; it is an attitude that says "I can" rather than "I can't" (Coopersmith, 1967; Sears et al., 1957).
- (c) High in self-esteem - a feeling that comes from being loved and knowing it, being valued as a person, and living up to expectations that were reasonable and

reachable (Cole & Cole, 1993; Coopersmith, 1967; Jacobsen, 1994; Sears et al., 1957; Smalley, 2001).

- (d) Prosocial and empathic (Baumrind, 1971a; Gresec, 1991a; Janssens & Dekovic, 1997; Robinson et al., 1994).
- (e) Successful in academic settings (Dornbusch, Ritter, Liederman, & Roberts, 1987; Green, 2001; Sally, 2001; Steinberg, 1996).
- (f) Susceptible to antisocial pressure (Collins et al., 2000; Steinberg, 1996).

While, some of the possible effects on children from authoritarian homes are as following:

- (a) High in aggression, drug abuse, delinquency (Campbell, Pierce, Moore, & Marakovitz, 1996; Deater-Deckard et al., 1998; Hawkins et al., 2000; Snyder & Sickmund, 2000; Steinberg, 1996).
- (b) Easily influenced by antisocial pressure (Collins et al., 2000; Steinberg, 1996).
- (c) Impaired moral conduct (Kochanska et al., 2003; Thompson, 1998, 2000).
- (d) Less independent and fearful of new situations (Cole & Cole, 1993; Coopersmith, 1967; Sears et al., 1957; Steinberg, 1996). Such children have learned to be dependent on authority and, as a consequence, typically have fewer opportunities for making the necessary personal choices that lead to social responsibility.
- (d) Low in self-esteem, which is perhaps the result of too few opportunities to test their own wings in their own ways (Baumrind, 1991; Cole & Cole, 1993; Coopersmith, 1967; Miller et al., 1993; Sears et al., 1957; Smalley, 2001, Steinberg, 1996; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996).

(e) Weak in establishing positive relationships with peers; moody, which might be the consequences of being disparaged, given too little freedom, and receiving not enough interpersonal warmth (Baumrind, 1991; Cole & Cole, 1993; Coopersmith, 1967; Miller et al., 1993; Sears et al., 1957; Steinberg, 1996; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996).

On the other hand, permissive parenting style carries following consequences for a child:

- (a) Impulsivity, aggression, and delinquency (Alarcon, 1997; Cole & Cole, 1993; Hawkins et al., 2000; Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Snyder & Sickmund; 2000). Children of such parents are perhaps used to having their own way because permissive parents tend to make few demands on them or to enforce the ones they do make.
- (b) Low in social skills and less mature in social settings. This is very likely the consequences of not having to grow beyond their own egocentric world of self-focused desires and needs, which tends to alienate others (Alarcon, 1997; Coopersmith, 1967; Sears et al., 1957).
- (c) Higher rates of school dropouts (Steinberg, 1996); low school competence, lower persistence to complete school tasks, and have trouble with school-imposed limits (Cole & Cole, 1993; Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Smalley, 2001; Steinberg, 1996).
- (d) Low self-esteem (Alcarcon, 1997; Smalley, 2001) and less likely to explore options for personal growth (Feldman & Elliot, 1990).
- (e) Easily influenced by antisocial pressure (Collins et al., 2000; Steinberg, 1996).

Voluminous amount of studies on parent-child relationship have demonstrated that authoritarian and permissive parenting may also put youths at risk of developing psychiatric disorders, such as narcissism, chemical dependency, depression, (Baumrind, 1991; Bornstedt & Fisher, 1986; Buri, 1989; Buri, Louiselle, Misukanis, & Mueller, 1988; DeMarsh & Kumpfu, 1985; Kernberg, 1989; Miller et al., 1993; Steinberg, 1996; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996), and withdrawal, distrust, and discontent (Baumrind, 1984). Whereas, children from authoritative homes are less likely to use drugs, alcohol, less involved in delinquent behaviors and report less anxiety and depression (Steinberg, 1996).

A most-cited study of parent-child relationships by Baldwin and others (1945) at the Fels institute contains interesting evidence. Of the various clusters of parental attitudes towards children, the "acceptant-democratic" seemed most growth facilitating. Children of these parents with their warm and equalitarian attitudes showed an accelerated intellectual development (an increasing I.Q.), more originality, more emotional security and control, less excitability than children from other types of homes. Though somewhat slow initially in social development, they were, by the time they reached school age, popular, friendly, non-aggressive leaders. Where parents' attitudes were classed as "actively rejectant", the children showed a slightly decelerated intellectual development, relatively poor use of the abilities they possessed, and lack of originality. They were emotionally unstable, rebellious, aggressive, and quarrelsome. The children of parents of other attitude syndromes tend in various respects to fall in between these extremes.

In a research conducted by Hjelle and Smith (1975), the relationship between self-actualization and retrospective perceptions of parental child rearing attitudes and behaviors were studied. They used 20 high and 20 low self-actualizing college aged females pre-

selected on the basis of their scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Shostrom, 1964). Subjects were compared on Schaefer's Children's Reports of Parental Behavior Inventory (1965). As predicted, high self-actualizing subjects scored significantly higher than low self-actualizing subjects did on the majority of the paternal and maternal scales on the inventory, reflecting perceived parental attitudes of acceptance, psychological autonomy, and lax control. Also as predicted, high self-actualizing subjects scored significantly lower than the low self-actualizing subjects on the majority of the paternal and maternal scales of the inventory, reflecting perceived parental attitudes of rejection, psychological control, and firm control.

In another study, Diener (1972) studied maternal child rearing attitudes as antecedents of self-actualization. He administered the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) to 52 under graduates and the parental attitude research instrument to their mothers. Maternal attitude subscales which were correlated with a number of POI subscales generally reflected willingness to talk to and share experiences with the child, and to listen to his problems, which facilitates self-actualization process in children. Similarly, Nystul (1984) demonstrated that *positive parenting leads to self-actualized children*. He concluded that parents who help their children satisfy their more basic needs for health, safety, belonging, love, and self-esteem are more self-actualized. The study also showed that the use of strategies such as logical consequences, the demonstration of unconditional love and human contact, and the parental encouragement play an important role in helping the children to move toward self-growth.

Recently, Dominguez and Carton (1997) investigated relation of perceived parenting style with self-actualization among college-aged children. Based on Maslow's

theory on self-actualization and Baumrind's research on parenting styles, the study predicted that high self-actualization scores would be positively associated with authoritative parenting and negatively associated with authoritarian parenting. No a priori predictions were made involving the permissive parenting style because researchers believed these parents tend not to be actively involved in their children's development. To test the hypotheses, 184 (51 men and 133 women) college students were administered the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) (Jones & Crandall, 1986) and the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Buri, 1991). Correlational analyses suggested that participants who rated their parents as being more authoritative had the highest levels of self-actualization, whereas participants who rated their fathers (and to a lesser extent their mothers) as being more authoritarian had the lowest levels of self-actualization. As regards permissive parenting, non-significant correlation was found between the two variables. On the basis of these findings, Dominguez and Carton (1997) concluded that parents who use positive reinforcement, encourage independence, and who are in contact with their children than those who inhibit the development of autonomy, place emphasis on obedience, and rely on punishment are more likely to create an atmosphere in their homes where self-actualization can occur.

Clearly, authoritative parenting is generally the best to use for healthy personality development. It produces well-rounded individuals with high confidence and self-esteem (Jacobsen, 1994). It is also interesting to note that despite cultural and ethnic variations in parenting style and outcomes for youth, research has found that the benefits of authoritative parents and the negative effects of authoritarian and permissive parents appear constant across all groups (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). Moreover, the benefits of authoritative parenting and the detrimental effects of

authoritarian and permissive parenting are evident as early as the preschool years and continue throughout adolescence and into early adulthood (Darling, 1999).

Personal Growth and Locus of Control

Locus of control orientation, a personality trait that appears to influence human behavior across a wide spectrum of situations, is one of the most studied variables in psychology and the other sciences (Gale Encyclopedia of Psychology, 2001; Rotter, 1990; Strickland, 1989; Thomas & Harvey, 2000). Brim (1974) has described the locus of control issue as,

one of the "fundamental human concern", entailing the mass of humanity living out ordinary lives somewhere between the conditions of slavery and omnipotence.....each person seeking to master his or her part of the world, and in the course of this develops beliefs about how it works and who, or what controls the events of life (p. 1).

Humanistic psychologists hold that control orientation play a decisive role in the development of a self-actualized person (e.g., Maslow, 1954; Rogers, 1961). According to Hamachek (1992), locus of control refers to,

a person's beliefs about control over life's events. Some individuals believe that life's outcomes are predominantly the consequences of their own actions. These individuals are labeled

as "internals". Others feel that their outcomes in life are determined by forces beyond their control, such as fate, luck, chance, and other individuals. These individuals are labeled as "externals" (p.114).

Hamachek (1992) asserted that the volumes of research related to locus of control suggest that human beings' intrapsychic and interpersonal orientation to the world around them, whether it be internal or external, is a fairly good predictor of the ways they are likely to react emotionally and cognitively to life's circumstances. Understanding the idea of locus of control, then, is another way to understand behavioral consistency. Enumerating the characteristics of individuals with external orientation, Hamachek (1992) reported that externals are more easily manipulated, rely more on luck and chance, and seem generally more responsive to what happens outside the self than to what is going on inside. While for internals, the behavioral flow is toward mastering their environment by trying to find out as much as they can about it, by relying on their personal skills, and by paying attention to their own inner feelings.

Lefcourt (1966) has described the concept of locus of control taking into consideration the interaction between person and situation. He believes that locus of control refers to the ways in which causation is attributed. According to Lefcourt (1966),

An internal locus of control refers to a belief that outcomes of interaction between person and the event that befall them are, at least, in part determinable by the acts of those persons. An external locus of control refers to the belief that events occur for

reasons that are irrelevant to person's actions and thus, are beyond attempts at controlling them.

Recently, Thomas and Harvey (2000) defined the construct of locus of control in following words:

Locus of control refers to an individual's belief about what causes certain outcomes. It is generally thought of existing on a continuum with internal at one end and external at the other.

They further elaborated that people with an internal locus of control feel that they have considerable control over the outcomes in their lives; success and failure is a function of one's ability and effort. On the other hand, individuals with an external locus of control feel that outside forces such as luck or fate, exert considerable control over the outcomes in their lives (Weiten & Lloyd, 1994).

The beginning of scientific psychological interest in the variable of locus of control of reinforcement can be traced to B. J. Rotter's monograph in 1966 (Carton & Nowicki, Jr., 1994). Rotter (1966) defined locus of control as,

an individual's subjective perception of a reinforcing event and evaluation as to whether or not that event is contingent upon one's own actions. When the event is interpreted as the result of "luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or as unpredictable" the belief is labeled as external control.

When the event is interpreted as contingent upon one's "own behavior" or "own relatively permanent characteristics" the belief is labeled as internal control (p. 1).

The concept of locus of control and how it develops, resides and gains its richest meaning in the Rotter's social learning theory of *locus of control of reinforcement* (1966) (Peterson & Stunkard, 1992). A basic assumption of Rotter's social learning theory is that an individual's behavior is determined "not only by the nature or importance of goals or reinforcements but also by the person's anticipation or expectancy that these goals will occur" (Rotter, 1954, p. 102). Expectancy is defined as the probability or contingency held by the subject that any specific reinforcement or group of reinforcements would occur in any given situation or situations (Rotter, 1954, p. 165).

According to Rotter's theory, expectancies or beliefs are the result of reinforcements, which act to either increase or decrease the expectancy that a particular behavior will lead to further reinforcements. In addition, to the extent that one situation is perceived as similar to another situation, a generalization of expectancies will occur. Therefore, expectancies for a given situation are a function of the reinforcement history in that situation and a generalization of expectancies from other related behavior-reinforcement sequences (Rotter, 1954). In a novel situation, one would anticipate that generalized expectancies would play a larger role in determining behavior because of the lack of a reinforcement history for that situation. However, as an individual gains experience in that particular environment, specific expectancies based on reinforcement history should contribute more heavily to determining behavior, and generalized

expectancies should have less influence. This relationship can be represented mathematically as:

$$E_{s1} = f(E's1 + GE/Ns1),$$

Which states that: An expectancy (E_{s1}) is a function of the expectancy for a given reinforcement to occur as result of previous experience in the same situation ($E's1$) and expectancies generalized from other situations (GE) divided by some function of the number of experiences in the specific situation ($Ns1$) (Rotter, 1954, p. 166-167).

Rotter (1975) assumed that GE term actually consists of two types of expectancies: GE_r and GE_{ps} . GE_r denotes expectancies generalized from other similar attempts to gain a given reinforcement, whereas GE_{ps} refers to various generalized problem-solving expectancies. It is within the latter set of generalized expectancies that the construct of locus of control resides. Thus, locus of control is a generalized problem-solving expectancy reflecting the degree to which individuals tend to perceive reinforcements as contingent on their own behavior or on some external force.

Social psychologists working on attribution theory (e.g., Lefcourt, 1976; Weiner, 1972) have also taken interest in the concept of locus of control (Biaggio, 1985). They have studied it from the phenomenological viewpoint of attribution of causality, rather than from a learning theory viewpoint as has Rotter. Bernard Weiner (1972) presented a two-dimensional theory to the way people explain their successes and failures. The *locus of control* (internal-external) and *stability* (stable-unstable) dimensions combine to yield four factors: ability (internal, stable), effort (internal, unstable), task difficulty (external, stable),

and luck (external, unstable). The stability dimension means that there are things, which are stable over time, while others are unstable. Internals attribute the outcomes to their ability (or lack of it) or to the effort they did or did not put forth. Externals, in contrast, contribute their successes to an easy task or luck and their failure to difficult task or bad luck. However, this theory has been criticised by many authors, since anyone can be consistently effortful, or consistently lucky, and ability may be unstable (due to health or emotional problems). Many experiments done in the framework of attributional theory seem to emphasize situational cues rather than individual predisposition as determinants of locus of control, losing some of the nature of the generalised expectancy as Rotter conceptualized it (Biaggio, 1985).

The importance of identifying antecedents of individual differences in locus of control has also been recognized. Rotter gave special attention to the precursors of control orientations when he formalized the construct in 1966 (Carton & Nowiciki, Jr., 1994). In his theory of generalised control expectancies, Rotter specifically suggested that *the consistency of discipline and treatment by parents* is worthy of future study as possible antecedents of locus of control orientation (1966). His social learning theory suggested that a generalised internal control expectancy develop when reinforcement is perceived as contingent on individual's behavior. He further predicted that early experiences with parents influence the development of differential generalised control orientations. It follows, therefore, that certain characteristics of parents may facilitate or inhibit this process.

Using primarily self-report methodologies, researchers have found support for the idea that consistent parental discipline and reward are associated with children's

development of stable and generalised internal control expectancies (Biocca, 1985; Davis & Phares, 1969; Haplin, Haplin, & Whiddon, 1980; Krampen, 1989; MacDonald, 1971; Magnum, 1975; Paguio, Robinson, Skeen, & Deal, 1987; Scheck, 1978; Shafer, 1969; Yates, Kennelly, & Cox, 1975). Researchers have also found self-reported inconsistent parental behavior to be associated with an external orientation in African_American and White children (10-17 years old) and college students (Epstein & Kimortia, 1971; Krampen, 1989; Levenson, 1973; Scheck, Emerick, & El-Assal, 1973).

Moreover, not only the degree to which parents consistently reinforce their children's actions might be related to the development of generalized control expectancies, but the amount of control they wield over their children's behavior may also have significant influences (Carton & Nowicki, 1994). Rotter (1966) suggested that powerful external forces or individuals could influence the development of external control expectancies in others. It follows that parents who control or dominate their children's lives to an excessive degree should promote a belief that external forces control reinforcements. Furthermore, by inhibiting their children's autonomy, parents lessen their opportunities to experience contingencies that might otherwise facilitate the learning of generalized internal control expectancies.

Researchers have found evidence to support the association between the exercise of powerful control and the presence of more generalized external control expectancies in others. Studies have shown that relative to parents of children who were externally oriented, parents of internally oriented children reported earlier independence training (Chance, 1972; Wichern & Nowiciki, 1976), receiving more autonomy (Hilaael, 1972; Mustaine, 1986; Paguio et al., 1987; de Man, Leduc, & Labreche-Gauthier, 1992),

expectations of less dependency (Allen, 1971), and use of less psychological control (Shore, 1967) and hostile control (Davis & Phares, 1969). In addition, when parents and children interacted with one another while working on problem-solving tasks, parents of children who were internally controlled were less likely than parents of children who were externally controlled to interfere or to direct their children's behavior and more likely to suggest ideas (Chandler et al. 1980; Gordon et al., 1981; Loeb, 1975; Tennis, 1976).

With respect to parental warmth-rejection dimension, Rotter's theory suggested that parents who are warm and supportive may help children feel safe and secure enough to explore their environments, thus giving them more opportunities to learn contingencies out of which internal control experiences can develop and generalize. In contrast, parents who neglect and reject their children may not provide them with the security necessary to attempt new activities or experiences out of which they might learn contingencies between their behavior and outcomes (Carton & Norwiciki, 1994). This view was summarised by Lefcourt (1976):

For a child to develop into a reality-testing adult, one who is aware of his capabilities and limitations, he needs to be reared in a home in which he is relatively sheltered from aversive stimulation that could intimidate him and thus decrease his sense of freedom to explore his milieu. In becoming less exploratory the child would have too constricted a range of experiences from which to discover his particular talents (p. 101).

Thus, parents who provide warm, accepting, nurturing, and supportive climate for their children not only may encourage them to engage in new activities but also may help them to deal more effectively with failure when it occurs. This, in turn, may reduce the stress associated with exploring new environments, which fosters the learning of contingencies and the development of internal control expectancies. The proposed relationship between parental warmth and children's internality has received substantial empirical support (see for example, Magnum, 1975; Strate, 1987).

On the basis of the review of studies involved with antecedents of locus of control, it can thus, be concluded that children with generalized internal, as compared to external, control expectancies report less stress earlier in their lives and have parents who report treating them more consistently, granting them greater autonomy to pursue their activities earlier, and providing them with a warm, supportive relationship. These associations have been found in data gathered from both males and females, ranging in age from 3 to 40 years (e.g., Davis & Phares, 1969; MacDonald, 1971). Although most of the findings have been obtained through self-report questionnaires, observational data germane to this topic, has provided important collaborative evidence (Davis, 1969; Loeb, 1975; Tennis, 1976; Chandler et al., 1980).

Because of its rich vein of theoretical and research significance in the development of healthy personality, the locus of control construct started a forest fire of studies, since the introduction of this concept by Rotter (1966). Crandall and Crandall (1983) attempted to bring together the findings of the major researches about the impact of having internal as opposed to external control expectancies on the personality formation. Crandall and

Crandall (1983) concluded that perceptions of internal control, compared to perceptions of external control, are generally found to facilitate,

- a) more active search of the environment for information relevant to salient goals, superior cognitive processing and recall of that information, and more incidental as well as intentional learning;
- b) more spontaneous engagement in achievement activities, selection of more challenging tasks, and better ability to delay gratification and to persist under difficulty;
- c) higher levels of academic and vocational performance and more positive achievement-related attitudes;
- d) more attempts to prevent and remediate health problems;
- e) better interpersonal relationships, more assertiveness toward others, and more liking and respect from others, despite greater resistance to their influence; and
- f) better emotional adjustment (higher self-esteem, better sense of humour, less anxiety, less depression, less severe psychiatric diagnoses, etc.) and greater reported life satisfaction and contentment.

Peterson and Stunkard (1992) agreed with Crandall and Crandall's (1983) conclusions with the qualification that "in a responsive environment individuals with an internal locus of control accrue to themselves all manner of benefits" (p. 112).

Internality has also been linked with other variables such as happiness (Jerabek, 2000), self-efficacy (Phillips & Gully, 1997; Haidt & Rodin, 1999), insight, constructive responses to frustration, and efforts to better one's life circumstances (Knapp, 1990),

student responsibility and academic motivation (Thomas & Harvey, 2000), and ability to delay gratification (Gale Encyclopaedia of Psychology, 2001). By comparison, externality has been associated with antisocial personality (Raine et al., 1982), anxiety, neuroticism, death anxiety, suicide, accident proneness, and pathology (Knapp, 1990). It has also been found that people with an internal locus of control are inclined to take responsibility for their actions, are not easily influenced by the opinions of others and tend to do better at tasks when they can work at their own pace as compared to people with an external locus of control (Gale Encyclopaedia of Psychology, 2001).

The concept of locus of control occupies a central position in the process of personal growth. According to Rogers (1961), *an internal locus of evaluation* is one of the most important characteristics of a fully functioning individual. Rogers asserted that the fully functioning person knows that he himself can direct his destiny only, that the locus of evaluation lies within himself, and he does not have to look to others for approval or disapproval; for standards to live by; or for decisions and choices to make. Rogers (1989) maintains:

It appears that the person who is psychologically free moves in the direction of becoming a more fully functioning person. He is more able to permit his total organism to function freely in selecting, from the multitude of possibilities, that behavior ... which is genuinely satisfying. He is able to trust his self more, not because he is infallible but because he can be fully open to the consequences of his actions and correct them if they prove to be less satisfying.

Rogers proposed that since an individual with an internal locus of control is free to choose and move in any direction desirable to him, he has the tendency to become a more fully functioning person. Similar view is found in Maslow's theory of growth. Maslow believed that the process of psychological health is a never-ending series of free-choice situations, confronting each individual at every point throughout his life. Moreover, Rotter (1966) in his theory also hypothesized a positive relationship between perceived locus of control and personal adjustment.

These theoretical assertions have found extensive empirical support. For instance, researches have shown that persons who view positive reinforcements as contingent on their own behavior (internals) are better adjusted than those who see reinforcements as determined by chance, fate, or powerful others (externals) (see for example, Davis & Palladin, 2000; Haidt & Rodin, 1999; Knapp, 1990; Rotter, 1966). According to Davis and Palladino (2000), internally oriented individuals exhibit more effective coping strategies which leads to better psychological adjustment and reduces the negative health affects associated with high stress. Thus, internals depict themselves as active, striving, achieving, powerful, independent, and effective individuals (Knapp, 1990). Some researchers have also claimed that "internals" tend to be more intelligent and more success-oriented (Gale Encyclopedic of Psychology, 2001) and report greater general well being (Cooper et al., 1995; Kunhikrishnan & Stephen, 1992) than "externals."

Similarly, Castellow and Hayes (1983) studied the relationship of self-actualization with three dimensions of locus of control: internal locus of control, powerful others, external locus of control, and chance, external locus of control, using the data of 167 university students. To measure self-actualization, Short Index Of self-actualization (SI)

(Jones & Crandall, 1986) was utilized, while the three dimensions of locus of control were measured through the Multi-Dimensional Scale of Locus of Control (Levenson, 1974). The results showed that the construct, self-actualization is significantly related with the construct, internal locus of control, whereas negative correlation was found between self-actualization and external locus of control. In another study, Hjelle (1975) also found that self-actualization is negatively correlated with external locus of control. In the light of this, it was concluded that, in addition to being guided by their own principles, self-actualizers feel that they determine their own fate, rather than feeling that they are pawns and at the mercy of powerful others and chance (Jones & Crandall, 1986).

Personal Growth and Self-Disclosure

Man is dependent upon his fellows for many vital satisfactions; his survival during infancy is contingent upon the cares of the other. As an adult, he needs the help and responsiveness of others in order to cope with life problems and to produce or maintain his sense of security, self-esteem, and identity. His relationships with other humans provide a rich opportunity to *discover* and *expand* himself. On the other hand, loneliness and alienation stunts personal growth, close avenues for love, and encourages hostility. Indeed, a person who is separated from others is separated from his own *self*.

A person's experience of close and intimate relationships with other people has long been considered to play an important role in achieving personal growth/self-actualization (Myers & Diener, 1995; Pavot, Diener, & Fujiata, 1990). Research findings show a consistent relationship between human interaction and the construction and development of the self (see Blotchy, Carscaddon, & Grandmaison, 1983; Garcia &

Geisler, 1988; Greenberg & Stone, 1992; Davidson, Balswick, & Malverson, 1983; Hansen & Schuldt, 1984; Hendrick, Hendrick, & Adler, 1988; Hidalgo, 2003; Myers & Diener, 1995; Pavot et al., 1990; Pennebaker & Beall, 1986; Prager, 1986; Prisbell & Dallinger, 1991; Stiles, Shuster, & Harrigan, 1992; Waring & Chelune, 1983). Among the many facets of interpersonal relationships, personal messages or *self-disclosure* is considered an important mode through which humans can reach to the various elements of self unknown to them. Besides existential and humanistic psychologists, David Johnson (1972) and Sydney Jourard (1974) are the major proponents of this view. Both these psychologists have built their argument on the premise that authentic and genuine *self-disclosure* between persons is the most direct means of fostering personal growth.

Self-disclosure refers to a process by which persons let themselves be known to others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). It entails revealing one's feelings, attitudes, and values to achieve more self-knowledge and to effect closeness with others. According to Hybels and Weaver (1998),

Self-disclosure is a process in which one person tells another person something he or she would not reveal to just anyone
(p.166).

Previously, Johnson (1972) defined self-disclosure as:

Self-disclosure means to share with another person how one feels about something he/she has done or said, or how one feels about the events, which have just taken place.

Thus, self-disclosure is an act of revealing how one is reacting to the present situation and giving any relevant information about the past that will allow the other person to understand what his or her thoughts and feelings are on the topic under discussion. However, as asserted by Johnson (1972), self-disclosure does not specifically mean revealing the intimate details of past life. Making highly personal confessions about past may lead to a temporary feeling of intimacy, but a relationship is built by disclosing one's reactions to events both persons are experiencing or to what the other person says or does. Thus, a person comes to know and understands one not through knowing his/her past history but through knowing how one reacts. Past history is only helpful if it clarifies why one is reacting in a certain way. In addition, Johnson (1972) also pointed out that the ability to disclose oneself to others depends upon one's self-awareness and self-acceptance. A person must be aware of his/her reactions in order to communicate them to others. Without accepting one's reactions, a person cannot feel free to allow other individuals to hear them. Moreover, individuals must learn to trust each other, if they are to engage in self-disclosure in a meaningful way (Johnson, 1972).

In general, theory and research on self-disclosure has been important in following three areas: (a) personality, (b) personal relationships, and (c) counselling and psychotherapy (Dindia & Allen, 1992). Self-disclosure has been studied as a correlate of various personality variables such as mental health and psychological adjustment (Cozby, 1973; Johnson, 1981; Tucker-Ladd, 2000; Weiten & Lloyd, 2003), locus of control (Cozby, 1973; Chelune, 1976b), self-consciousness (Buss, 1980; Davis & Franzoi, 1986; Reno & Kenny, 1992), alexythimia (Paez, Velasco, & Gonzalez, 1999), aggression (Ohbuchi, Ohno, & Mukai, 1993), and extraversion and sociability (Cozby, 1973). Research has shown that self-disclosers are more self-content, more adaptive and

competent, more perceptive, more extroverted, more trusting and positive towards others than non-disclosing persons (Tucker-Ladd, 2000). Moreover, research has also pointed out that women tend to disclose more than men, although the difference is not as large as it was once believed (Dindia & Allen, 1992; Tucker-Ladd, 2000; Weiten & Lloyd, 2003).

Various psychologists have also pointed out that self-disclosure is a multidimensional concept (e.g., Altman & Taylor, 1973; Berg & Derlega, 1987; Dindia & Fitzpatrick, 1997). That is, the ability or willingness for self-disclosure can be either a trait or a characteristic of an individual (Archer, 1979; Dindia & Fitzpatrick, 1997) or a particular behavior in interpersonal situations (Dindia & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Solano, Batten, & Parish, 1982). Thus, individual variations in self-disclosure can be variously manifested in the amount, intimacy level, and the content of disclosed information and in the target of the self-disclosure (Cozby, 1972, 1973).

On the other hand, the functions of self-disclosure in the development, maintenance, and dissolution of relationships are well-documented (Dindia & Allen, 1992). Research, for instance, has indicated that the ability to reveal one's feelings and thoughts to another is a basic skill for developing close relationships (see for example, Afifi & Guerrero, 1998; Altman & Taylor, 1973; Aron & Melinant, 1997; Berscheid & Wlaster, 1978; Dindia, Fitzpatrick, & Kenny, 1997; Tucker-Ladd, 2000; Weiten & Lloyd, 2003). According to Dindia & Fitzpatrick (1997), self-disclosure is the focus of much research because it is a major part of normal social interaction and is a key to relationship development. Self-disclosure has also been found to facilitate the development of interpersonal attraction (Ellingson & Galassi, 1995), caring and mutual understanding (Berg & Derlega, 1987; Chelune, 1979), and group effectiveness (Corey & Corey, 1992;

Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999), whereas lack of self-disclosure has often been related to dissatisfaction with one's social network and feelings of loneliness (see for example, Stokes, 1987) and social anxiety and shyness (Buss, 1980; Jones, Cheek, & Briggs, 1986; Reno & Kenny, 1992). Moreover, research has also shown that we tend to disclose whom we like (Collins & Miller, 1994; Ellingson & Galassi, 1995; Laurenceau, Barrett, & Pietromonaco, 1998; Scala, 2000) and trust (McAllister, 1980) and that reciprocity plays an important role in deciding whether the person will further engage in self-disclosure (Dindia et al., 1997; Shaffer, Ogden, & Wu, 1987). It is also interesting to note how self-disclosure ties into business relationships. According to Scala (2000), self-disclosure and communication in business is a major factor in the productivity and cohesion of business professions throughout the world. Thus, a variety of training programs are arranged to enhance and facilitate supervisor and employee communication (see for example, Corey & Corey, 1992; Brenner, 1999; Ladnay & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999).

Similarly, the role of self-disclosure in the aetiology and treatment of psychological distress has also been extensively examined in counselling and psychotherapy (Berg & Derlega, 1987). Overwhelming data from therapy, self-help groups, and research labs suggests that sharing our emotions improves our health, helps prevent disease, and lessens our psychological-interpersonal problems (Tucker-Ladd, 2000). Emphasising the importance of self-disclosure in therapeutic sessions, Chaiken and Derlega (1974) noted that virtually all forms of counselling and psychotherapy use the technique of disclosure. Many therapists have noted that client self-disclosure is as necessary for successful counselling to occur (Gladding, 1996; Hendrick, 1988) as is counsellor self-disclosure (Corey, 2000; Egan, 1990; Kottler, Sexton, & Whiston, 1994; Long, 1996; Watkins, 1990).

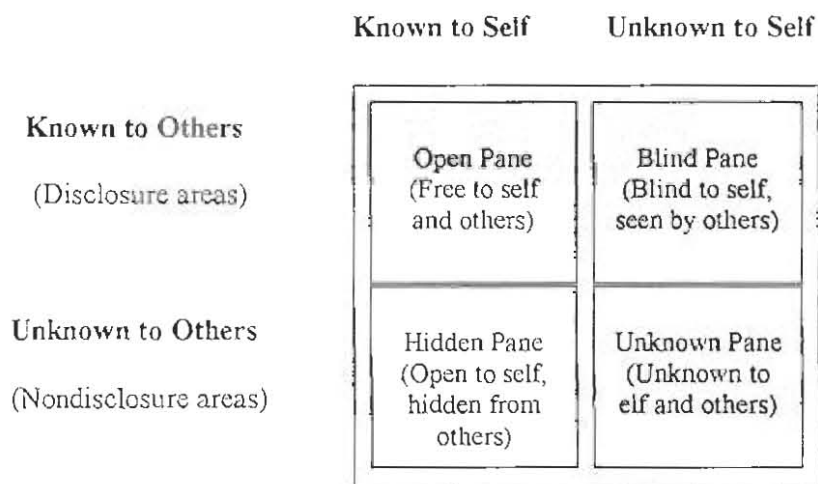
When dealing with personality variables, one question that arises is what sorts of child-rearing practices and family interaction patterns are associated with variations in the personality variable in adulthood. A study by Pederson and Higbee (1969b) found that disclosure to parents was correlated with subjects' ratings of parents on such adjectives as close, warm, friendly, and accepting. In addition, it was found that females who rated the mother as cold, distrustful, and selfish tended to score high on the Social Accessibility Scale, which measures willingness to disclose to strangers, acquaintances, and/or best friends. Such an interpretation was also supported by Doster and Strickland's (1969) finding that, in general, high disclosers perceive their parents as more nurturant than low disclosers. Moreover, it was found that subjects from the low-nurturant homes disclosed more to friends than parents while the reverse is true with subjects from high-nurturant families.

In another study, the influence of infant-parent attachment style on adults' willingness to engage in disclosure was examined (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). Based on Bowlby's Attachment Theory (1969, 1973), Mikulincer and Nachshon (1991) hypothesized that individuals who have experienced emotional availability and responsiveness of their parents and whose parents made them feel worthy of love and care (labelled as 'secure') in early years of life, generalize similar expectancies to other people, and therefore are more likely to engage in appropriate disclosure than individuals who have learned in their relationship with parents that interaction with significant others is painful (labelled as avoidant). In consistent with these predictions, findings indicated that secure people showed more self-disclosure than avoidant people did. Still another study demonstrated that the more satisfied individuals are with their mother, father, stepmother, and stepfamily overall more open they tend to be (Golish, 2000). Interpreting the results of

his study, Golish (2000) observed that unnecessary imposing parents and estrangement from family members does not encourage self-disclosure but actually inhibits openness.

Apparently, there is probably no experience more terrifying than disclosing oneself to *significant others* whose probable reactions are assumed, not known, as the *risk* involved is judgement and/or rejection (Jourard, 1974). People conceal their true selves for fear of moral criticism and condemnation. But, as Sauliner and Simrand (1973) pointed out 'to risk is to grow'.

Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham's (1970) model of human interaction best explains the mechanism through which self-disclosure initiates the process of self-discovery (Nichol, 2002). Combining their first names, Luft and Ingham labeled their model the Johari Window. The model, illustrated in the figure given below, contains four quadrants that represent the person in relation to others. It is an awareness-understanding-disclosure model.



Quadrant 1, the *open pane*, contains information about ourselves that we are willing to communicate, as well as information that we are unable to hide, i.e., all aspects known to self and others (Hybels & Weaver II, 1998). The *hidden quadrant* is a deliberate nondisclosure area. There are certain things about ourselves that we do not want known so we deliberately conceal them from others. Most people hide things that might evoke disapproval from those they love and admire (Hybels & Weaver II, 1998). The *blind pane*, is known to others but not to self. This part of ourselves include both positive and negative characteristics (Nichol, 2002). A fourth quadrant, the *unknown pane*, is a nondisclosure area because it is not known to the self or others. This part embraces our unrecognized potentials, interests, and abilities (Nichol, 2002). The disclosure and nondisclosure areas vary from one relationship to another; they also change all the time in the same relationship.

The central thesis of the Johari model is that the more we can expand the area of self-knowledge, reduce the size of the Blind Self and the Unknown Self, the more we become self-actualized and the greater our psychological adjustment and maturity. The work of pushing back these boundaries enriches the quality of our lives and the quality of our relationships (Nichol, 2002). In simple words, the larger the *open pane*, healthier the person. The larger the other three panes, sicker the person. Thus, as Hybels & Weaver II (1998) noted that in order to enlarge the first quadrant, individuals will have to engage in honest and authentic self-disclosures. Ideally, quadrant 1 should increase in size with genuine self-disclosure, moving feelings and behavior from quadrant 3 to quadrant 1. Since, self-disclosure also involves feedback, it causes feelings and behaviors to go from quadrant 2 to 1. However, the unknown area of quadrant 4 is difficult to discover, but it can be known in retrospect through reflection, the use of certain drugs, projective

techniques, and dreaming (Hybels & Weaver, 1998). This model also finds support in the theory of psychopathology extended by Freud (Nichol, 2002, Saulnier & Simard, 1973). Freud discovered that when people struggled to avoid being themselves or knowing themselves, they got sick. They could become well and stay relatively well when they came to know themselves through self-disclosure to another person. The Johari Window, thus, provides an excellent introduction to the theories that focus on self-disclosure and personal growth.

The Self-theory of Carl Rogers (1951) is perhaps the most comprehensive theoretical statement that explains the process of growth via interpersonal communication. Rogers begins his theory with the proposition that an organism is a system consisting of two parts: True self and Self-concept, in which change in one part affects the whole. True self signifies all organismic experience and one's innate capacities and potentialities, whereas self-concept is the way one perceives oneself and which is developed through interactions with significant others. Rogers believed that self-concept is broad and flexible, it permits one to become aware of all innate experiences and to fully express one's true self, leading to a state of congruence, which is a kind of internal consistency between true self and self-concept. Conversely, if self-concept is rigid and narrow then the individual cannot fully experience the extremely varied and unique aspects of oneself, leading to a state of incongruence. In other words, incongruence is synonymous with maladjustment, while congruence reflects maturity and adjustment. Rogers further proposed that all of us have an innate tendency to actualize our true selves. In other words, human beings seek experiences that will enhance self, leading to autonomy and growth. But if there is incongruence between the self-concept and the true self then this growth tendency is frustrated.

On the basis of these assertions, Rogers further elaborated that both the cause and cure of this consequence lie in interpersonal communication. Rogers proposed that if a person experiences unconditional positive regard (threat-free environment) and acceptance from significant others, he will be tempted to disclose more freely and openly his true self, in turn, allowing the person to examine the internal inconsistencies and restructure his self-concept without fear of judgement. Thus, greater the communication on the part of the individual, the more the ensuing relationship will be used with an increasing ability to openly experience and become aware of one's feelings and attitudes leading to increasing congruence and more improved psychological adjustments and functioning.

The concept of self-disclosure was originally introduced Sydney Jourard (1968). Jourard regarded self-disclosure as a symptom of personality health and a means of ultimately achieving healthy personality. For Jourard (1974), self-disclosure entails,

making oneself "transparent " to others through the process of communicating information about oneself to other person, i.e., when we tell others things about ourselves which help them to see our uniqueness as a human being.

Jourard (1974), like Johnson, pointed out that there are certain conditions under which persons disclose themselves fully and authentically to others. One factor is the perception of the other person as trustworthy and a conviction that the other person will not judge him/her. This places the onus upon the other individual to be trustworthy. Another factor seems to be a considerable measure of security and self-esteem. Individuals who are relatively unafraid of others and who regard themselves as acceptable will be readier to let

themselves be known than will insecure, dependent individuals. Moreover, some individuals feel freest to disclose themselves to strangers. This freedom to disclose the self to strangers probably stems from the conviction that it does not matter what the other person thinks, because one is unlikely to encounter him/her in one's everyday life. Thus, according to Johnson (1972), one of the most powerful factors in self-disclosure is the willingness of the other person to disclose himself/herself. Research has shown that people tend to disclose themselves to another at a mutually regulated pace and depth. If one person volunteers a great deal of intimate disclosure, the other person is likely to reciprocate (Dindia et al., 1997; Shaffer et al., 1987).

Jourard (1974) maintained that an important consequence of spontaneous disclosure of self to another person is that he/she comes to know his/her real self, and becomes able to introspect honestly. The individual who has a trusted relative or friend to whom he/she can express his/her thoughts, feelings, and opinions honestly is in a better position to learn his/her self than the one who has never undergone this experience, because as he/she reveals himself/herself to another, *he/she is also revealing himself/herself to himself/herself*. The act of stating one's experience to another, making oneself known to him, permits one to "get outside oneself" and see oneself. This process of self-discovery through making oneself known to another is facilitated if the other person reflects back what he has heard you say. The capacity to be a transparent self in one's personal relationships is a sign of healthy personality, and is the means of achieving healthy personality growth.

Growth in this fashion then relates closely to interpersonal communication, since the disclosing world is largely social. Jourard believed that the process through which self-

disclosure enhances personal growth is the resolution of conflicts, which arises as a result of disagreements between two persons. According to Jourard (1974), as two persons interact over a period of time, revealing their thoughts, feelings, and needs to one another, they will come to know one another better. But beyond mutual knowledge, honest disclosure of genuine wants, feelings, and values will inevitably come into conflict with wants, feelings, and values of the other, ultimately producing impasses in the relationships. He proposed that it is in the resolution of these impasses and conflicts between the participants that an occasion is provided for growth, for learning new, and more adequate modes of behaving. With no conflicts, with no impasses, there would be no instigation to change—one would, in short, not learn.

Jourard (1974) has distinguished among relationships, which play an important role in fostering personal growth among the partners. He asserted that there are relationships, e.g., within a family or outside it, which may produce *regression*, or may *prevent* growth, and then, there are relationships, which are *neutral* with respect to personal growth. In relationships, which are conducive for personal growth, each partner accepts the autonomy and individuality of the other and values the goal of growth toward self-actualization of the other. Jourard believed that in interpersonal relationships, the behavior, which is most compatible and promotes healthy personality growth includes full honest self-disclosure. The experience of freedom to tell another person of one's hopes and fears, joys and sorrows, plans for the future and memories of the past entails the essence of self-disclosure.

Initially, Jourard argued that authentic self-disclosure to at least one significant other is a prerequisite for healthy personality. Concerned with the concept of self-

actualization, as proposed by Maslow (1954), Jourard proposed that low disclosure is indicative of a repression of self and inability to grow as a person. Thus, Jourard's writings indicated that disclosure should be positively related to "positive" mental health (e.g., self-actualization) and negatively to "clinical" maladjustment (Cozby, 1973). Since then, a vast amount of studies have shown that a close relationship exists between self-disclosure and mental health (e.g., Cozby, 1973; Johnson, 1981; Jourard, 1958, 1959, 1961, 1963, 1964, 1971; Fitzgerald, 1963; Halversion & Shore, 1969; Sinha, 1973; Traux & Carkhuf, 1961). Vargas (1969) carried out a study measuring self-actualization with self-disclosure, using male college students for the sample. The results supported Jourard's initial hypothesis.

However, as pointed out Cozby (1973), despite extensive investigations, studies could not consistently prove this assertion. Soon after, Jourard modified this linear view. He proposed that self-disclosure may be related to personality health in a curvilinear manner, suggesting that an optimal amount of disclosure under specified conditions is synonymous with mental health. That is, too much or too little disclosure under certain circumstances was thought to be characteristic of personality and interpersonal disturbances (Chelune & Figueroa, 1981; Jourard, 1964). Unfortunately, neither the linear nor the subsequent curvilinear models received much empirical support (Cozby, 1973; Chelune, 1975). Altman and Taylor (1973) and Cozby (1973) pointed out that perhaps the major difficulty with this research is the tendency to view self-disclosure as a consistent pattern or trait. This speculation received clear support from research. It was found that most individuals *vary* their disclosures in accordance with a number of interpersonal and situational factors (Archer, 1974). Furthermore, Derlega and Grzelak (1974) noted that these social-situational factors establish important discriminant stimuli for social rules governing appropriate disclosure. Whereas, violation of the social standards for appropriate

disclosure generally results in negative evaluations and attributions of maladjustment (Chaiken & Derlega, 1974a).

Later it was proposed that perhaps self-disclosure per se is not directly related to mental health, but rather may interact with other variables to determine its appropriateness (Chaiken, Derlega, Bayma, & Shaw, 1975). In response to these developments in the theory of self-disclosure, Chelune (1975) proposed the concept of *self-disclosure flexibility*. He suggested that the ability of an individual to adequately differentiate various situational and interpersonal cues and adapt his or her disclosures accordingly, is an indication of positive mental functioning and communicative competence (1975, 1977). This speculation was later proved, i.e., the ability to accurately differentiate social-situation nuances and adapt one's disclosures in a norm-appropriate manner is most likely the element that determines whether or not self-disclosure is related to personality health (Chaikin & Derlega, 1974; Chelune, 1979; Chelune & Figueroa, 1981; Freeman & Giovannoni, 1969; Goodstein & Reinecker, 1974; Johnson, 1981; Tucker-Ladd, 2000). Moreover, researches have found disclosure flexibility to be related to internal-external locus of control (Chelune, 1976b), perceptions of other's violations of social-situational norms governing appropriate disclosure (Chelune, 1977), secure interpersonal relationships with others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991) and counseling-relevant perceptions (Neimeyer, Banikiotes, & Winum, 1979).

Purpose of the Present Study

The concept of personal growth occupies a central position in the discipline of psychology. Its conceptualisation has allowed psychologists and practitioners to explore

the possibility of improving and enhancing behavior, patterns of thinking, and learning and modifying new and satisfying modes of conduct. The term personal growth implies that it is a dynamic capacity, which enables human beings to surpass the present level of existence and move towards higher levels of functioning. It reflects higher mental abilities that encompass intra-psychic as well as interpersonal development. Thus, personal growth has influences that extend beyond the development of individual minds and the small groups that mould our individuality, such as the family and the classroom to the functioning of large groups such as from political parties to ethnic groups to nations and states. It follows, then, that psychologists and educationists need a statistically proven measure of personal growth, encompassing the basic traits of this phenomenon, so that they can rightly judge whether the valuable resources lying within each and every individual are fully released or not.

Heretofore, no measures tapping personal growth have been constructed in Pakistan. Thus, the primary purpose of this research work was to develop a reliable and valid measure of personal growth, which could be used to assess individual differences in personal growth. The second major concern of the present research was to study the factors that facilitate the process of personal growth. Research has shown that a number of intrinsic variables may initiate the development of other variables i.e., they provide a baseline which unlocks doors for other variables. Among other dispositional variables, internal locus of control and self-disclosure are considered to create a framework within the individual for the development of other personality variables. As is obvious from the literature summarised in the preceding sections, there is ample evidence that internal locus of control and self-disclosure are two very important dispositional variables which have been theoretically and empirically linked with personal growth.

Locus of control is hypothesised to be a personality dimension referring to the way an individual characteristically perceives himself in interaction with the environment. Persons with an internal orientation perceive themselves as having personal control over their reinforcements as a consequence of their behavior. Those with an external orientation perceive reinforcements as being independent of their behavior and beyond their personal control. According to Shrink (2000), locus of control has great influences on our motivation, expectations, self-esteem, risk-taking behavior, and even on the actual outcome of our actions. Theorists like Rotter, Lefcourt, and Rogers have highlighted the predictive value of internal locus of control in the success of various areas of life. In consonance, various studies have shown that internal locus of control is associated with psychological adjustment and well being (Davis & Palladino, 2000; Haidt & Rodin, 1999; Kunhikrishnan & Stephen, 1992; Rotter, 1966), happiness (Diener, 1984; Jerabak, 2000), environmental mastery and purpose in life (Cooper et al., 1995), insight, constructive responses to frustration, and efforts to better one's life circumstances (Knapp, 1990), while externality has been associated with anxiety, neuroticism, and pathology (Knapp, 1990).

The reason behind such a superior role of locus of control in determining differential personality outcomes appears to be simple: individuals who believe that the reinforcements and rewards in life are contingent upon their own behaviors and are not controlled by outside forces, are motivated to try new behaviors and abilities, not tested before. Such sequence of thoughts, whether existing at conscious or unconscious level, permit individuals to realise that they are resourceful human beings and they have special abilities and potentials that they are capable of utilising and exposing. This notion, of course, matches to that proposed by Rogers. Rogers believed that internal locus of control allows one to develop trust in one's own organismic experience and the one question that

becomes pertinent is "*Am I living in a way which is deeply satisfying to me, and which truly expresses me?*" Similarly, contemporary control-related theories (e.g., Bandura, 1982; Skinner, Chapman, & Baltes, 1988; Weisz & Stipek, 1982) have also provided a strong basis that internal control is differentially linked to adaptive outcomes (Marshall, 1991). For example, Bandura has argued that psychological well being stems from a belief that the environment will be responsive to potential actions and a belief in one's efficacy to perform those actions. Thus, internal locus of control allows a person to reap the benefits of his uniqueness, it allows him to grow, and to become what he is. In short, it allows him to actualize his true self. Within this line of argument, the present research considered internal locus of control an important dispositional predictor of self-actualization/personal growth. Such theoretical assumptions have found substantial empirical evidence. For instance, a number of researches have found a positive relationship between self-actualization and internal locus of control and negative relationship with external locus of control (Castellw & Hayes, 1983; Hjelle, 1975).

Another dispositional variable that the present research conceptualizes essential for self-actualization/personal growth is self-disclosure. Around 1960's, Sydney Jourard, a pioneer investigator in this area, suggested that the value of self-disclosure was so great that it appeared crucial to psychological health/self-actualization. Jourard believed that personal growth – a person's moving toward new ways of behaving – is a direct result of openness to world. His theory implied that the more open and authentic people are in their communication, healthier they are. That is, self-disclosure enables a person to know his real self because as he reveals himself to another, *he is also revealing himself to himself* (Jourard, 1974). According to Jourard, this process of self-discovery is a sign of healthy personality and is a means of achieving healthy personality growth. This proposition is not

limited to Jourard, however, but also appears in the works of Carl Rogers and David Johnson. Rogers (1961), for example, maintained that greater the communication is on the part of the individual, the more the ensuing relationship can be used with an increasing ability to openly experience and become aware of one's feelings and attitudes leading to increased congruence and more improved psychological adjustments and functioning.

Self-disclosure refers to the process by which persons let themselves be known to others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). Research on self-disclosure has found that the ability to reveal one's feelings and thoughts to another is a basic skill for developing close relationships (Afifi & Guerrero, 1998; Altman & Taylor, 1973; Aron & Melinant, 1997; Dindia, Fitzpatrick, & Kenny, 1997; Tucker-Ladd, 2000; Weiten & Lloyd, 2003). Moreover, it has been found to facilitate group effectiveness (Corey & Corey, 1992; Ladany & Lehrman-Waterman, 1999), and a significant factor in counseling and therapy settings (Berg & Derlega, 1987; Corey, 2000; Watkins, 1990). Conversely, lack of self-disclosure has often been related to dissatisfaction with one's social network and feelings of loneliness (see for example, Stokes, 1987) and social anxiety and shyness (Buss, 1980; Jones, Cheek, & Briggs, 1986; Reno & Kenny, 1992).

One problem that has persisted in the study of self-disclosure is whether it is a trait or a tendency that changes according to the demands of social situations. What Jourard (1964) had hypothesized on the relationship of self-disclosure and personal growth called for treating self-disclosure as a trait, i.e., the more one is willing to reveal personal information more one is psychologically healthy. Soon after, Jourard realized that both these variables are not linearly related with each other, as too much or too little disclosure reflects psychological disturbances. Thereby, he proposed that perhaps an optimum

amount of self-disclosure is related with mental health. When neither the linear nor the subsequent curvilinear model received much empirical support, it was pointed out that one reason for the inconsistent results might lie in assuming self-disclosure as a fixed trait (Chelune, 1977). By that time, research had also shown that most individuals vary their disclosures in accordance with a number of interpersonal and situational factors (Cozby, 1973; Goodstein & Reinecker, 1974). On the other hand, Chaiken et al. (1975) argued that perhaps self-disclosure per se does not guarantee psychological health. Thus, 'self-disclosure flexibility' – the ability to adjust or adapt to situational changes - was proposed as one possible mediating variable that appeared to have important implications for mental health. Consistent with these developments, Chelune (1976b) constructed a 20-item Self-disclosure Situations Survey (SDSS) which was designed to be sensitive to the social-situational determinants of self-disclosing behavior. Thus, it was found that people who have the ability to adequately differentiate among various situational and interpersonal cues (general self-disclosure) and adapt one's disclosure in an appropriate manner (self-disclosure flexibility) are more psychologically healthy, less neurotic (Chelune & Figueroa, 1981; Johnson, 1981; Tucker-Ladd, 2000), are competent in communication (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980), and are more secure in relationships with others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991) as compared to those who deviate in their disclosures in an inappropriate way. In view of the prevailing trends in the theory of self-disclosure, the present research also investigated the predictability of personal growth from self-disclosure flexibility.

Fundamental to the above propositions, however, is the contention that early tailored environmental influences play crucial roles in the development of psychological health and characteristic adaptations in individuals. Among psychologists belonging to

various fields, there is a wide acceptance of the notion that the parent-child relationship significantly predicts adult personality traits (Rapee, 1997). For instance, recognising the importance of parenting, the Five-Factor Theory maintains that:

the influence of parents on their children is surely incalculable: they nourish and protect, teach them to walk and talk, instil habits, aversions, and values, provide some of the earliest models for social interaction and emotional regulation (McCrae & Costa, 1994, p. 107).

On the basis of extensive research, *parental control* (permissiveness-strictness) and *parental warmth* (acceptance-rejection) have been identified as the two major parenting dimensions in different human societies (Lau & Cheung, 1987). Studies have shown that experience of consistent parental love and nurturance throughout childhood inculcates a deep internal sense of security in individuals as well as a deep internal sense of being valuable. On the other hand, the existence of limits give children the feeling that a definition of their social environment is possible, a basis for evaluating how well or poorly they are doing, that the world does impose restrictions and make demands, and that they can learn to handle these in every day living. Thus, almost all influential theories of personality development (e.g., Sears et al., 1957; Baumrind, 1967, 1971a, 1991) emphasize the need to consider the joint and interactive effects of two basic dimensions of parental behavior – parental nurturance and acceptance with parental control or strictness.

Review of the previous literature indicates that children and adolescents who are autonomous, socially competent, high achievers, etc., are apt to have parents who use

inductive discipline, firm rules, and nonpunitive punishment practices and give lots of attention, affection, and nurturance to their offsprings (Baumrind, 1991; Fletcher & Steinberg, 1999; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Mussen, Conger, & Kagan, 1974; Janssens & Dekovic, 1997; Roberts & Steinberg, 1999; Robinson, Zahn-Waxler, & Ernde, 1994). Since the early 1970s, this constellation of parenting style in which the effects of 'control' and 'acceptance' are emphasized collectively has come to be known as "authoritative" parenting (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991). The other two types of parenting style on the basis of which parents can be discriminated in terms of acceptance and control they extend towards their children, are authoritarian and permissive parenting. Where authoritarian parents tend to exhort their children to follow rules without explanation, restrict the child's autonomy, and reserve decision making for themselves only, and are less responsive and accepting towards their children, permissive parents make fewer demands, are relatively non controlling, use minimum of punishment, and allow their children to regulate their own activities as much as possible. Research has shown that children from authoritarian and permissive families are more likely to be aggressive, impulsive, low in self-esteem, lacking in social skills, and usually do not have a specific goal in their life (Baumrind, 1991; Hawkins et al., 2000; Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Steinberg, 1996). Thus, as compared to the individuals who are raised in permissive or authoritarian homes, authoritative homes exactly provide the sort of atmosphere that enables the individuals in such homes to work hard and aspire to do their best.

Furthermore, a number of studies have also illuminated that parents play a contributory role in the degree of self-actualization (to grow in the direction of one's organism) in their children. For instance, Dominguez and Carton (1997) observed that individuals who rated their parents as being more authoritative had highest levels of self-

actualization and the individuals who rated their parents as being more authoritarian had the lowest levels of self-actualization. In interpreting these results, Dominguez and Carton (1997) proposed that perhaps the verbal give and take, the use of positive reinforcement instead of punishment, and the independence training that characterise the authoritative parenting style facilitated self-actualization in their children. In contrast, the emphasis placed on obedience and the reliance on punishment that characterise authoritarian parenting style appear to inhibit self-actualization (Dominguez & Carton, 1997). Similar findings had been noted by previous studies as well (Hjelle & Smith, 1975; Diener, 1972; Nystul, 1984). Moreover, these results are also in agreement with past formulations which have proposed that unconditional positive regard and a sense of independence are key to the process of self-actualization (Maslow, 1968; Rogers, 1963). In other words, perceived criticism from significant others, especially one's parents (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990) and exposure to an environment that deemphasizes independence tends to undermine personal growth/self-actualization (Flett et al., 1991).

In keeping with these theoretical and empirical evidence, the present research work was planned to find out the degree to which the three modes (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) of perceived paternal and maternal parenting style predict personal growth of children.

Extending the investigation of parents' significance in personal growth one step ahead, an important contribution of the present research was to elucidate the processes through which parents facilitate or inhibit their children's tendency for personal growth. Two mechanisms were proposed to mediate the relationship of parents and personal growth. The first model hypothesised that internal locus of control plays an important role

in mediating the relationship of parenting style and personal growth. The assertion that internal locus of control act as a mediator, demands that this dispositional variable is itself predicted from parenting style. Extensive theoretical and research evidence indicates that consistent parental discipline coupled with warm and supporting environment is more likely to produce internally controlled children as compared to inconsistent and rejecting parental behavior that has been associated with external orientation expectancies (Biocca, 1985; Davis & Phares, 1969; Haplin et al., 1980; Krampen, 1989). It has been suggested that parents who inspire independence in their children (Chance, 1972; de Man et al., 1992; Mustaine, 1986; Paguio et al., 1987), who are warm and nurturant, and who not only encourage their children to engage in new activities but also help them to deal more effectively with failure when it occurs, in turn, reduces the stress associated with exploring new environments and new modes of behaving, thus foster the learning of contingencies and the development of internal control expectancies (Magnum, 1975; Strate, 1987). Conversely, parents who control their children's lives to an excessive degree, inhibit their autonomy promote the belief that external forces control reinforcements, leading to the development of externality.

Hence, the first model proposed that fathers and mothers who exert control but also encourage children's striving for autonomy in appropriate areas, are supportive and accepting of their children's innovative abilities, and use less psychological control develops a tendency in their children to internally evaluate the outcomes of their behavior which, in turn, allows the children to discover and expand their true selves.

On the other hand, the second model anticipated self-disclosure as a potential mediator between parenting style and personal growth. Similarly, this model also required

that parenting style and self-disclosure flexibility should be related with each other. From the theoretical grounds and empirical support, it is obvious that the way parents treat their children, i.e., with harsh punishment or empathy, with indifference or warmth, it has long-lasting consequences on their children's emotional lives, successful interpersonal relationships, and competent communication skills. Researches have shown that children rated as high disclosing are from homes where parents are perceived as close, warm, friendly, and accepting, in contrast to cold, distrustful, and selfish parents, especially mothers, who are more likely to have children low in self-disclosure (Pederson & Higbee, 1969b). Interestingly, it has also been found that children from high-nurturant families disclose more to their parents than children from low-nurturant families who disclose more to their friends (Doster & Strickland, 1969). Similarly, Golish (2000) studied the relationship of parenting with moderate self-disclosure. The researcher found that the more satisfied individuals were with their mother, father, stepmother, and stepfamily overall more open they tended to be, that is, imposing parenting and estrangement from family members do not encourage self-disclosure but actually inhibit openness.

Moreover, research has also presented evidence that children whose parents are responsive and develop confidence in their children that they will be available at the time of stress provide a 'secure base' on which to organize expectations about the world (Bowlby, 1973). This in the long run develops ability in their children to differentiate among cues that signal whether disclosure is appropriate or inappropriate. In general, it has been found that compared to avoidant and ambivalent children, secure children are more likely to exhibit self-disclosure flexibility (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). Therefore, the second model proposed that fathers and mothers who encourage give and take, share their views and feelings, involve their children in discussing the matters important to family and

respect and allow their children to extend their opinions in taking decisions but are willing to set firm limits when needed cultivate in their children an ability to appropriately modulate their patterns of revealing information about themselves, their feelings, and opinions in accordance with interpersonal and situational demands, which in turn, lets them discover and expand their true self.

Precisely, in order to achieve all aforementioned objectives, following studies were planned:

Study 1: Since the primary objective of the present research work was to develop a self-report measure of personal growth, namely Index of Personal Growth (IPG) in Urdu language, Study 1 was devised. As the construct personal growth was taken up to mean self-actualization, the development of IPG basically followed the definition and sub-dimensions of self-actualization proposed by Jones and Crandall (1986), which could be used to scale individual differences in personal growth/self-actualization.

Study 2: This study, which included three studies, was designed to establish the construct validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG), which are as follows:

- (a) *Study I* explored the convergent validity of IPG by relating it with an already established measure of personal growth/self-actualization, Short Index of Self-actualization (SI).
- (b) *Study II* investigated the construct validity of IPG by relating it with a theoretically related construct, internal locus of control.
- (c) *Study III* was carried out to further establish the construct validity of IPG by relating it with a theoretically related construct, self-disclosure. As a culturally relevant scale was essential to this study, therefore, Study III further composed of two parts. In the first part, the development of an indigenous measure of self-disclosure, namely Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) was undertaken, followed by the assessment of its psychometric properties. In the second part, the relationship of personal growth was explored with self-disclosure.

Study 3: A major consideration of the present investigation was to examine the predictability of personal growth from familial and dispositional variables and to find out the mechanisms through which familial variables become successful. Study 3 was, therefore, designed to determine the effects of three modes of paternal and maternal parenting style, internal locus of control, and self-disclosure on personal growth. It also proposed that internal locus of control and self-disclosure act as significant mediators linking parenting with personal growth.

CHAPTER III**STUDY 1**

Development of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Objectives of the Study

The present study was undertaken to develop an indigenous self-report measure of personal growth, named as Index of Personal Growth (IPG). The study was also designed to assess the psychometric properties of IPG that would fulfill the criteria of reliability and factorial validity.

The above mentioned objectives were achieved in two phases. The Phase I of the study was designed to systematically generate and refine items for the construction of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). In Phase II, field study was carried out to collect data on Index of Personal Growth (IPG) in order to determine its factorial validity and internal consistency.

Phase I: Item Generation for the Development of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Personal growth is a multifaceted construct which is generally understood in terms of gains in flexibility, creativity, openness to experience, expansion of emotions, deepening of self-understanding and understanding of others (Lysy & Piechowski, 1983).

For the construction of Index of Personal Growth (IPG), the present research relied on a conceptual model of self-actualization proposed by Jones and Crandall (1986). This model was derived from the principal components analysis followed by varimax rotation of Short Index of Self-actualization (SI). Essentially, Jones and Crandall (1986) obtained five factors, of which first four were labeled by them as (a) autonomy, (b) self-acceptance & self-esteem, (c) acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions, and (d) trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships. The fifth factor, however, was not easily interpretable but appeared to be related to the ability to deal with undesirable aspects of life rather than avoiding. Because of its low interpretability this factor was not selected for the development of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). According to Rule (1991), the term 'actualization' denotes growth, process, change, unfolding, evolving, transcending, movement from a here to a there or a there to a here – anything but a single measure at a frozen point in time of a changing, global phenomenon. In this reference, then, having a goal or purpose in life becomes essence of self-actualization. Thus a dimension, 'purpose in life' was added in the list with the first four factors proposed by Jones and Crandall (1986). This decision was supported by the review of literature on self-actualization (Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1961) and psychological health (Adler, 1930; Allport, 1961; Capuzzi & Gross, 1997; Erikson, 1968; Frankl, 1959; Fromm, 1955) and two subsequent factor analyses conducted on Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) by Flett et al. (1991) and by Sumerlin et al. (1994).

Hence, the operational definition of personal growth/self-actualization employed by Jones and Crandall (1986) in the development of Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) was used to construct Index of Personal Growth (IPG) in the present research, which is produced below:

Personal growth/self-actualization is defined as the discovery of real self and its expression and development.

While, a brief description of the dimensions of personal growth/self-actualization selected for the development of IPG is as follows:

1. *Autonomy*: Autonomy entails the ability to be independent of one's physical and social environment; to rely on one's own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development, to have a high degree of self-direction and "free will," to be self-governed, active, responsible, and self-disciplined.
2. *Self-acceptance and self-esteem*: Self-acceptance refers to acceptance of oneself and one's own nature without chagrin or complaint, with all its shortcomings and with all its discrepancies from the ideal image. It also entails seeing reality more clearly and viewing human nature as it *is*, not as one would prefer it to be. Closely related to self-acceptance is the concept of self-esteem, which means to have a high respect for oneself, one's thoughts, and work and have feelings of being useful and necessary in the world.
3. *Acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions*: This dimension entails the tendency to be relatively spontaneous in one's behavior, thoughts, and expression of feelings; to be what one is at any given moment; to be aware of one's feelings, thoughts, and impulses and not to hide them unless their expression would hurt others; behavior is often conventional but

conventionality does not hamper or prevent from doing things that are important.

4. *Trust and responsibility in interpersonal relationships:* This dimension emphasizes the degree of confidence in the trustworthiness, honesty, goodness, generosity, and brotherliness of people in general, despite the occasional anger or impatience. It also entails being responsible of one's own self in interpersonal relationships, and the ability to develop responsible and loving interpersonal relationships.
5. *Purpose in life:* Having a purpose in life means to have some mission in life, some task to fulfill, some problem outside oneself, which enlists much of one's energy. In general these problems and tasks are non-personal, or unselfish, concerned rather with the good of mankind in general, or of a nation in general or of a few individuals in a person's family. Moreover, pursuing a purpose in life entails working within a framework of values.

Method

Procedure

The generation of items for the development of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) materialized in the steps as described below.

Step I

The first step in the development of the scale involved generation of indicators for the dimensions of the construct “personal growth” from (a) psychologists, (b) students, and (c) literature.

(a) *Psychologists*: In order to collect indicators from psychologists (National Institute of Psychology), an open-ended questionnaire containing the five selected dimensions of personal growth, each with its definition and example was prepared to generate indices of personal growth (Annexure A). The respondents were instructed to “*list at least five indicators/descriptors for each dimension, in Urdu language.*” Eleven psychologists completed the questionnaire.

(b) *Students*: The second group of participants consisted of eleven students, including five men and six women, age ranging from 20 to 22 years. For invoking indicators of personal growth from students, in-depth interviews were conducted. Each participant was given verbatim explanation of what a particular dimension entailed, with relevant examples. Following this, the subjects were asked to “*give at least five statements for each dimension.*” The responses were recorded by the interviewer.

(c) *Literature*: The available literature was reviewed and some additional descriptors of each dimension of *personal growth* were selected from following available instruments: Short Index Scale of Self-actualization (Jones &

Crandall, 1986), Autonomy Scale (Hamachek, 1988), Self-acceptance Scale (Berger, 1952; Philips, 1951), Trust and Responsibility in Interpersonal Relationship Scale (Hamachek, 1988), and Purpose in Life Scale (Crumbaugh, 1968). Two psychologists were given a list containing items from each of the scales mentioned above. They were instructed to choose the most pertinent statements among these. The items, thus selected, were translated by the researcher into Urdu language. Later, they were given to five psychologists, who were familiar with the translation procedure, to carefully evaluate and examine the translation of the items.

Step II

Items for each dimension generated through empirical method as well as from literature (Step I) were then pooled accordingly on the five dimensions of personal growth (Annexure B). A close inspection of all dimensions, in terms of the content, showed that some of the items overlapped conceptually with each other and others were peculiar. Therefore, on the basis of preliminary perusal such items were removed from the list, resulting in a new list with reduced number of items for each dimension (Annexure C).

Step III

The next step involved the verification of the conceptual classification of items for a particular dimension. A Performa (Annexure D) was prepared which contained definitions of personal growth and its dimensions with the items listed below. However, this time the items were pooled together and presented in a random fashion. This Performa

was given to five psychologists who were instructed to “*categorize the items to their relevant dimensions, keeping in view the definitions of the five dimensions*”.

Step IV

The fourth step focused on the selection of representative items for each dimension (Annexure E). Three psychologists served as a panel of judges for this exercise. The participants were provided with the definitions of personal growth and its five dimensions and the list containing items for each dimension. They were instructed to choose a representative sample of items for each dimension keeping in view the respective definitions. A tentative set of items, which appeared to have face validity between the specific dimensions and their component items, was generated at the end of this process (Annexure F).

Step V

After the above exercise, the selected items were converted into self-descriptive statements. The researchers finally evaluated this list of items in order to assess the comprehensibility and clarity of selected descriptors. This process resulted in the selection of 41 items for the development of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Following this, a questionnaire (Annexure G) was prepared containing 41 self-descriptive statements with five-response categories, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ (5) to ‘strongly disagree’ (1). Seventeen items out of forty-one were negatively worded to reduce the vulnerability of the scale items to response bias.

Step VI

As a last step, a pilot study was conducted to determine the content validity and the level of comprehensibility of scale items for university students. The participants for this step consisted of 10 M.Sc. students (mean age = 22.5). The sample was instructed to read each item carefully and indicate if they clearly understood what is being asked in the statements.

Results

The process of development of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) yielded following results.

Step I

The initial step in the development of the scale focused on the generation of indicators for the dimensions of the construct of “personal growth”. A total of 22 participants (11 psychologists and 11 students) and various reliable and valid measures of self-actualization and its dimensions (literature review) comprised the major sample for this step. From this sample, a comprehensive list of 187 indicators on the five dimensions of personal growth was obtained (Annexure B). A preliminary analysis of these items for each dimension revealed that many of the items were similar in content and quite a few of them represented peculiar themes. Such items were eliminated, leaving behind a total of 89 statements (Annexure C).

Step II

In the next step, the resultant list of items for each dimension was mixed together and randomly ordered to form another list of items. This list was then given to five psychologists who were required to place items to their corresponding categories exhibiting the five dimensions, keeping in consideration their respective definitions (Annexure D). The result was that almost all items were sorted to pre-decided categories. Only one item was found to be classified in a new category (90% agreement). The item was:

اگر ہیں کسی کا لٹے کوئی طاق نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر لیتا ہوں۔

This item was previously included in the “autonomy” dimension. Now it was placed in the dimension “trust and responsibility in interpersonal relationships.” On the basis of participants’ feedback it was concluded that all items reflect substantial face and content validity as measures of each dimension.

Step III

In the third step, three psychologists then, closely scrutinized the list containing items presented separately for each dimension (Annexure E). The judges were asked to select a representative sample of items for each dimension, keeping in view the respective definitions of the five dimensions. Following this, percentages for each item were calculated to determine the frequency of endorsement. Items that received 80% and above agreement from the judges were retained while the rest were discarded. As a result of this stringent criteria, a total of 48 items were chosen as representative indicators of each

dimension of personal growth (Annexure F). On judges direction few items (e.g., 18 of “Trust & Responsibility in Interpersonal Relationships” dimension, 9 of “Purpose in Life” dimension) were rephrased to increase their comprehensibility. Moreover, few items were merged to make a single item instead of using two items (3 with 10 and 4 with 7 of “Autonomy” dimension were merged). These items had somewhat similar contents.

Step IV

At this stage, the selected items were converted into self-descriptive statements. Later the researchers again reviewed these items in terms of comprehensibility and clarity. Through this procedure, five more items that appeared to lack conceptual comprehensibility were discarded (11 from “Autonomy”, 4 and 7 from “Self-acceptance & Self-esteem”, 5 from “Acceptance of Emotions & Freedom of Expression of Emotions”, and 8 from “Trust & Responsibility in Interpersonal Relationships”). Following this, a final form of questionnaire (Annexure G) was prepared which consisted of 41 self-descriptive statements with five-response categories as presented below:

Strongly disagree	= 1 score,	Disagree	=2 score,
Undecided	= 3 score,	Agree	= 4 score,
Strongly agree	= 5 score.		

Twenty-four items were positively keyed and seventeen were negatively keyed to reduce the vulnerability of the scale items to response bias. Later, a pilot study was conducted to assess the comprehensibility of IPG items for university students. The

response of 10 M.Sc. students revealed that all items of IPG were clear and comprehensible.

Phase II: Factorial Validity and Internal Consistency of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Phase II of the study was carried out to find out the psychometric properties of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG). The main objective of this phase was to derive items for the final questionnaire and secondly to identify the underlying dimensions of personal growth in Pakistani population. In order to achieve these objectives, data was collected on the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) through fieldwork. For the assessment of dimensionality and the selection of items for IPG, the obtained data was subjected to principal components analysis. Information concerning the internal consistency of the scale was obtained by computing item-total correlations, coefficient alpha, and split-half reliability. Furthermore, a normative profile for the IPG was also developed.

Method

Sample

The sample for this phase of the study consisted of 400 M.Sc. students. Among them, 200 were men and 200 were women with age range from 20 to 24 years ($M = 22$, $SD = 2.5$). The size of the sample was selected according to Nunnally's (1978) notion that for a clear factor structure, a subject-to-item ratio of 10: 1 is essential. The participants were taken from following educational institutes: Arid Agricultural University, Rawalpindi,

Hamdard University, Islamabad, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, and Post-Graduate College for Women, Rawalpindi. Of the total sample, 75% belonged to the urban area and 25% belonged to the rural area. Demographic information also showed that participants from Natural Sciences and Social Sciences were 68% and 32%, respectively.

Procedure

Index of Personal Growth (IPG), developed in the first phase of the study was given to 400 men and women, students of Masters studying in various educational institutes of Rawalpindi and Islamabad. IPG, containing 41 items arranged on Likert type 5-point rating scale, was given to the participants individually or in the form of small groups. Each individual was instructed to read all items carefully and to choose from given options the one which best describes his or her personality. They were also told not to omit any items.

After the completion of data collection, the responses of the participants were addressed to the following statistical analyses: (1) principal components analysis, (2) two sets of item-total correlations, one for the original number of items of IPG and the second for the remaining items selected on the basis of factor analysis, (3) alpha coefficients and split-half reliability of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) with original number of items and reduced number of items, (4) alpha coefficients for the subscales, (5) intercorrelations between the scores of subscales and the total score of IPG, and (6) means and standard deviations of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) with original number of items and reduced number of items and its' subscales. Furthermore, normative profile for the IPG was also developed

Results

Results obtained after subjecting the data to the above-mentioned statistical analyses are presented below.

Factorial Validity

For testing the dimensionality of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and to derive items for inclusion in the final questionnaire, responses to 41 items from the participants were submitted to principal components analysis. Initial analysis revealed a factor solution that converged after 25 iterations. Fourteen factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than unity. However, since the 'eigenvalue greater than 1.0 rule' is not recommended for deciding on the number of factors to retain (Reise, Waller, & Comrey, 2000), Scree Test (Cattell, 1978) was used to investigate matrix dimensionality. Following the logic of Scree Test, a plot was created with the number of dimensions on the x-axis and the corresponding eigenvalues on the y-axis. Examination of the resulting scree curve showed that after the fourth eigenvalue there is a strong linear (descending) trend in the remaining eigenvalues [2.34 (4th) and 1.69 (5th), 1.61 (6th)]. This trend provided mathematical support for a four statistically significant factor solution, which accounted for 34.7% of the total variance. These four factors were rotated using an orthogonal rotation. Items that loaded .30 and greater were used to describe the four factors. Six items (item no. 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 32) had loadings less than .30. These items were eliminated, resulting in a 35-item scale. Table 1 presents the factor loadings of 41 items, communality of each item, eigenvalue, percentage, and cumulative variance for each factor.

Table 1
Factor Loadings, Communality, Eigenvalue, Percentage of Variance, and Cumulative Variance of 41 Items of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) on Rotated Orthogonal Factors (N = 400)

No. of Items	Factors				<i>h</i>
	I	II	III	IV	
1	.01	-.16	.01	.49	.28
2	-.01	.16	-.00	.26	.11
3	-.35	.01	.24	-.31	.22
4	.14	.19	-.01	.01	.00
5	-.00	.63	.01	.01	.41
6	.16	-.00	.24	.40	.24
7	.22	.01	.01	.14	.01
8	.35	.00	.19	.00	.16
9	-.20	-.13	.11	-.14	.17
10	.27	.48	-.11	.11	.33
11	.39	.00	.22	-.00	.20
12	.00	.49	.01	-.00	.24
13	.00	.11	.64	-.01	.42
14	.20	.17	.22	.35	.24
15	.42	.16	.24	-.20	.30
16	.01	.37	.00	.13	.25
17	.00	.30	.15	.32	.28

18	.40	.00	.23	.23	.27
19	.01	.22	.18	.45	.28
20	.11	.30	.27	.30	.23
21	.10	.00	.64	.01	.43
22	.43	.28	-.00	-.00	.26
23	.23	.34	.15	.26	.29
24	.25	.36	.00	.27	.33
25	.54	-.00	.29	.24	.44
26	-.18	.32	.42	.25	.38
27	.46	.00	-.00	.12	.23
28	.29	.39	.00	-.01	.31
29	.53	.24	-.00	.01	.40
30	.59	.01	.23	-.00	.40
31	.35	.13	-.12	.01	.25
32	.01	-.00	-.00	-.14	.02
33	.01	.00	-.01	.49	.25
34	-.00	.00	.50	-.01	.27
35	-.00	.00	-.13	.56	.33
36	.29	.29	-.13	.45	.39
37	.18	-.12	.39	.01	.20
38	.37	.29	-.01	.20	.26
39	.17	.33	-.13	.35	.29
40	.19	-.01	.52	.27	.39
41	.19	.35	-.00	-.13	.24

Eigenvalue	5.98	3.35	2.55	2.34
Percentage of				
Variance	14.58	8.17	6.22	5.71
Cumulative				
Variance	14.58	22.75	28.97	34.7

Examination of the content of the items loaded on each factor revealed that three of the dimensions of personal growth, namely 'purpose in life', 'acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions', and 'autonomy' emerged almost thematically similar to what was postulated a priori. Whereas the other two dimensions, namely 'self-acceptance & self-esteem' and 'trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships' merged to form a single first factor, contrary to the predictions. However, when the items of this factor were closely analyzed in the light of Maslow's theory of personal growth, it was observed that the new emerging dimension could be interpreted with reference to the attributes of personal growth given in the theory. Thus in accordance with Maslow's proposition, this factor was labeled as "acceptance of self & others." Eleven items loaded significantly ($\geq .30$) on this dimension, explaining 14.58% of the total variance. On the second factor, 8 items had loaded which corresponded exactly to the dimension initially proposed, i.e., 'purpose in life'. Keeping the same label, it was found that this factor accounted for 8.17% of the total variance. The third factor, concerned with the acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions, included 6 items, which explained 6.22% of the variance. In-depth analysis of the content of the items of this factor showed that a number of items related with openly expressing one's thoughts and opinions also loaded on this dimension. Therefore in consultation with Maslow's work, this dimension was renamed as 'spontaneity'. Basically 7 items loaded significantly ($\geq .41$) on the last

factor and was labeled as "autonomy," as proposed initially. This factor accounted for 5.71% of the total variance. Three items (item no. 17, 20, 39) loaded on second as well as fourth factor. Conceptual analysis of these items showed that item no. 20 was thematically related to the second factor, whereas items no. 17 and 39 were related with the last factor. Thus, these items were included in their respective dimensions. Table 2 shows the factor loadings of four subscales on each factor.

Table 2
Factor Loadings of Four Subscales of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) (35 items, N = 400)

S. No.	Item No. in Scale	Factors			
		I Acceptance of Self & Others	II Purpose in Life	III Spontaneity	IV Autonomy
1	30	.60			
2	25	.54			
3	29	.53			
4	27	.46			
5	22	.43			
6	15	.42			
7	18	.40			
8	11	.39			
9	38	.37			
10	8	.35			
11	31	.35			

12	5	.63	
13	12	.49	
14	10	.48	
15	28	.39	
16	16	.37	
17	24	.35	
18	41	.35	
19	23	.34	
20	20	.30	
21	21		.64
22	13		.64
23	40		.52
24	34		.50
25	26		.42
26	37		.39
27	35		.56
28	1		.49
29	33		.49
30	36		.45
31	19		.45
32	6		.40
33	14		.35
34	39		.35
35	17		.32

Item-Total Correlations of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

The results of exploratory factor analysis were further verified by computing item-total correlations for the original number of items of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Table 3 presents correlations computed between 41 items of IPG and its total score.

Table 3

Item-Total Correlations of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) of 41 Items (N = 400)

Item No.	Correlation with Total Score	Item No.	Correlation with Total Score
1	.31***	22	.36***
2	.16 (ns)	23	.50***
3	-.03 (ns)	24	.47***
4	.13 (ns)	25	.50***
5	.34***	26	.37***
6	.37***	27	.31***
7	.18 (ns)	28	.41***
8	.32***	29	.47***
9	.11(ns)	30	.42***
10	.38***	31	.34***
11	.33***	32	.19 (ns)
12	.30***	33	.30***
13	.38***	34	.27***
14	.42***	35	.29***

15	.32***	36	.41***
16	.31***	37	.30***
17	.33***	38	.29***
18	.43***	39	.30***
19	.36***	40	.43***
20	.41***	41	.26***
21	.40***		

*** $p < .000$. *ns* = not significant

Using a cut-off point of .30 and above correlation for inclusion of reliable items, it was found that 31 items met this criterion. Comparison of these items with the one's obtained through factor analysis showed that same 31 items attained significant factor loadings. Further examination of Table 1 and 3 revealed that 4 items (34, 35, 38, 41), which had significant factor loadings, obtained correlation values with the total score above .25 but below .30. These items were included in the final version of IPG on the basis of their factor loadings. Since the rest of items (2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 32) did not fulfill the criterion for significant factor loading ($\geq .30$), neither for pre-decided item-total correlation criterion ($\geq .30$), these items were discarded, leaving behind 35 items for the final version of Index of Personal Growth (IPG).

Following this process, the 35 items were again subjected to item-total correlation analysis to determine the proportion of correlation of each item with the total score of the 35-item scale. Results showed that each personal growth item correlated positively and significantly with the sum of total items. Thus, each item may be regarded as a valid indicator of the quality being assessed by the Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Table 4 shows the item-total correlations of 35 items.

Table 4

Item-Total Correlations of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) of 35 Items (N = 400)

S. No.	Item No.	Correlation with Total Score	S. No.	Item No.	Correlation with Total Score
1	1	.32***	19	24	.50***
2	5	.35***	20	25	.52***
3	6	.38***	21	26	.36***
4	8	.32***	22	27	.31***
5	10	.39***	23	28	.42***
6	11	.35***	24	29	.47***
7	12	.31***	25	30	.43***
8	13	.36***	26	31	.34***
9	14	.44***	27	33	.31***
10	15	.34***	28	34	.28***
11	16	.32***	29	35	.30***
12	17	.33***	30	36	.45***
13	18	.45***	31	37	.31***
14	19	.36***	32	38	.30***
15	20	.42***	33	39	.31***
16	21	.40***	34	40	.44***
17	22	.38***	35	41	.27***
18	23	.52***			

*** $p < .000$.

Reliability Estimates of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

In order to establish the overall internal consistency of IPG, coefficient alpha was calculated with the original and with the reduced number of items. Despite the diversity of item content, the scale showed alpha coefficient of .78 for 41 items of the original scale, which increased to .80 for 35 items of the final version of the scale, thus providing evidence for overall coherence of the scale. Table 5 presents the findings of these analyses.

Table 5
Alpha Reliability of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) With 41 Items and With Reduced 35 Items (N = 400)

No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
41	.78
35	.80

A Split-half estimate of reliability of IPG yielded positive correlation between the two halves: .60 for 41 items, corrected to .73 and .63 for 35 items corrected to .78 by the Spearman-Brown formula. This is shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients for Split-half Reliability of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) With 41 Items and With Reduced 35 Items (N = 400)

Index of Personal Growth	Split-half Correlation	Spearman Brown Correction
41	.60	.73
35	.63	.78

Reliability Estimates of Subscales of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

The internal consistency of the dimensions of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) was established by calculating coefficient alpha for each subscale, which ranged from .60 to .63. The obtained indices are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Alpha Coefficient of Four Subscales of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) (N = 400)

Subscales	No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Acceptance of self & others	11	.63
Purpose in life	9	.62
Spontaneity	6	.60
Autonomy	9	.60

Intercorrelations Among the Subscales and With the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

The four dimensions of personal growth, identified through varimax rotation, were further rendered support by computing intercorrelations among the subscales and with Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Table 8 presents the correlation matrix of the four subscales of IPG with each other and with the total score of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). The correlation coefficients between the four subscales and personal growth were highly positive and significant ($p < .000$), clearly showing that the four factors are integral dimensions of personal growth.

Table 8
Intercorrelations of the Scores on the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and its Four Subscales (35 Items, N = 400)

S. No.	Subscales	I	II	III	IV	Total Score on IPG
I	Acceptance of Self & Others	-				.82, $p < .000$
II	Purpose in Life	.56 $p < .000$	-			.79, $p < .000$
III	Spontaneity	.32 $p < .000$.23 $p < .027$	-		.61, $p < .000$
IV	Autonomy	.37 $p < .000$.50 $p < .151$.22 $p < .025$	-	.68, $p < .000$

The results also showed that the intercorrelations obtained among subscales were quite moderate, ranging from .22 to .56, providing evidence that they tap different and distinctive dimensions of the construct, personal growth, but collectively provide a general measure of this phenomena (Table 8).

Normative Profile

Table 9 indicates the mean and standard deviations of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG).

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) With 41 Items and With Reduced 35 Items (N= 400)

No. of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
41	153	15.84
35	132	15.03

Moreover, means and standard deviations were also computed for the subscales of IPG, which are displayed in Table 10.

Table 10*Means and Standard Deviations for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) (N= 400)*

S. No.	Subscales	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I	Acceptance of Self & Others	42.1	6.21
II	Purpose in Life	41.6	5.42
III	Spontaneity	16.8	4.89
IV	Autonomy	35.73	4.67

In order to develop a normative profile for the 35 items of IPG, percentile scores were calculated. This is shown in Table 11.

Table 11*The Percentile Scores for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) (N=400)*

Percentiles	Scores on IPG
10	112
20	119
30	125
40	130
50	133
60	137
70	140
80	145
90	151

Discussion

The primary purpose of the present research was to develop a reliable and valid measure of personal growth, Index of Personal Growth (IPG), in Urdu language.

A five-factor model of self-actualization given by Jones and Crandall (1986), Flett et al. (1991) and Sumerlin et al. (1994) guided the development of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). This five-factor model was, in turn, based on Maslow's concept of self-actualization (1970). In the present research, 41-item, five-dimensional Index of Personal Growth (IPG) was subjected to principal components analysis to extract a factor structure underlying the construct of personal growth. The initial unrotated factor solution yielded 14 factors with eigenvalues over 1. A Scree plot analysis was then utilized to determine the number of factors to be rotated, which provided a strong evidence of the existence of four-factor multidimensional model of personal growth, contrary to a priori expectations of five factors. Following this, varimax rotation was applied to the data to obtain a simple factor solution. Using the criteria of .30 and above factor loading, 35 items were found to be significant indicators of personal growth with a Cronbach's alpha of .80 (Annexure H).

Each factor was defined by a substantial number of items. On the first factor, items corresponding to the hypothesized dimensions of "acceptance of oneself and others" clustered together to explain 14.58% of total variance, while the second factor, which accounted for 8.17% of variance was found to be related with the dimension "purpose in life". Factor three, interpreted as "spontaneity" accounted for 6.22 % of variance, whereas the items loaded on the last factor, which explained 5.71% of total variance, were found to

be consistent with the dimension of “autonomy”. Combined together, these four factors explained 34.7% of total variance.

The introspection of the content of items loaded on four-factor orthogonal solution showed a factor pattern slightly different from the one proposed a priori and by Jones and Crandall (1986). Unlike Short Index of Self-actualization (SI, Jones & Crandall, 1986) and as initially proposed in the Phase I of this study, items measuring Self-acceptance & Self-esteem and Trust & Responsibility in Interpersonal Relationships loaded *together* and *foremost* among the four factors to formulate the first dimension. Total 11 items defined this dimension, of which 6 belonged to Self-acceptance & Self-esteem while 5 tapped the dimension of Trust & Responsibility in Interpersonal Relationships, and were collectively found to be internally consistent (coefficient alpha $r = .63$). This cluster when interpreted in the light of theoretical literature revealed interesting facts. IPG has been basically developed on the definition of self-actualization, which emphasizes discovery, expression, and development of real self (Cofer & Appley, 1966). Deliberating upon this definition, Jones and Crandall maintain that a sense of self-acceptance is crucial to the process of actualization and growth. They argue that individuals who do not accept themselves must deny or distort their true selves. That is, the discovery and development of true self depends upon holding positive attitude toward the self and considering oneself worthwhile. In deed, countless personality theorists have reiterated over the past decades that basic self-acceptance & self-esteem is central to self-actualization, optimal functioning, and psychological health (see for example, Allport, 1961; Baumeister, 1988; Capuzzi & Gross, 1997; Erikson, 1968; Jahoda, 1958; Jung, 1954; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1961; Sullivan, 1953).

Moreover, many theorists also believe that basic self-acceptance & self-esteem is a prerequisite for forming true and loving relationships, that is, individuals must love and respect themselves before they can truly accept and respect others (see for example Capuzzi & Gross, 1997; Erikson, 1968; Rogers, 1961; Sullivan, 1953). Thus, there seems to be a conceptual relatedness behind the aggregation of items measuring “self-acceptance & self-esteem” and “trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships.” Since Maslow (1970) also supports this view in his theory of self-actualization, this dimension was labeled as “Acceptance of Self & Others.”

Examination of the factor loadings on factor II suggested that the content of these items represented a sense of commitment to some task or mission in life and having definite moral and ethical standards in achieving those tasks. Originally 8 items loaded on this dimension. However, item no. 20, which was conceptually associated with this dimension also loaded significantly on the fourth factor. Since, this item represented thematic affiliation with the dimension of ‘purpose in life’ and was a priori placed in this dimension, it was retained in the second factor. Thus, a total of 9 items described factor II, with a coefficient alpha of .62. As the items clearly corresponded to the dimension of Purpose in Life, the same label was used to define this factor. Although the factor structure obtained by Jones and Crandall (1986) on SI incorporated the items measuring purpose in life within the dimension of Autonomy, the present study considered it as a separate attribute of IPG. The emergence of Purpose in Life dimension clearly indicated that the concepts of autonomy and having some purpose to pursue in life, though parallel but represent distinct and separate aspects of personal growth.

Many psychologists (see for example, Allport, 1961; Erikson, 1968; Fromm, 1955; Klünger, 1977) especially humanists and existentialists (Frankl, 1959; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1961) view humans' quest for meaning/purpose in life as a universal need and the crowning prerequisite for self-actualization (Capuzzi & Gross, 1997). Adler also observed that human beings are unable to think, feel, or act without the perception of some goal and that this goal directedness or purposiveness of mankind is related to the powerful determination to maintain and enhance the self (Rule, 1982). Rule (1991) himself later noted that associated with the belief that individuals are capable of a growth-orientation is usually the assumption that people are also goal-oriented. According to Maslow, such individuals customarily have some mission in life, some problem outside themselves, which enlists much of their energies (1954). Maslow further elaborated that such individuals are propelled by nonpersonal or unselfish goals; they are more concerned with the good of mankind in general, or of a few individuals in the subject's family.

The items that loaded on the last two factors were similar in content to two dimensions, 'Emotional Expressiveness' and 'Autonomy', proposed a priori (also put forward by Jones & Crandall, 1986). The items on the third factor were related with emotional expressiveness marked by spontaneity, simplicity and by an absence of artificiality or straining for effect. This subscale contained 6 items and had an alpha of .60. Thematic analysis of this dimension showed that this factor also received those items which reflected a person's tendency to openly express his *wishes* and *opinions* e.g., item no. 34:

I hesitate in asking other people's help for my work

مجھے اپنے کام کے لئے لوگوں سے مدد لینے میں ہچکچاہٹ محسوس ہوتی ہے۔

میں سمجھتا سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھے ویسی کرنا چاہیے جسکی «سرسے جو سے توقع کرتے ہیں» -

become the person he wants to be. In this manner, as his sense of himself grows, his appreciation of others becomes richer, more positive, more enduring, and more compassionate.

The existence of these factors was further ascertained by computing intercorrelation between the four subscales and with the total score of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). The results showed that all the dimensions strongly and significantly (r ranging from .82 to .60, $p = .000$) relate with the total score of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). In addition, correlations between the subscales were also determined. These correlations are important because the extent to which the scales are highly correlated argues against inter-scale discriminant validity (Reeve & Sickenius, 1994). The matrix of inter-scale correlations for four scales of IPG showed that the correlation indices between the four subscales were quite moderate, especially considering the high correlation coefficients between the subscales and the total scale IPG. These data supported the conceptual prediction that Index of Personal Growth (IPG) gives a global measure of personal growth and the four dimensions are distinctive and different aspects of this construct.

Various reliability estimates provided strong support for the overall internal consistency of the 35-item Index of Personal Growth (IPG), given the fact that the multifaceted nature of the construct is being measured. Item-total correlations indicated that each item of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) correlated positively, though moderately, with the total score of 35-item scale (.27 to .52, $p < .000$). More importantly, coefficient alpha .80 of 35-item scale (as mentioned above) showed that IPG is a highly reliable and homogenous measure of personal growth. Similarly, split-half reliability coefficient (.78) lent additional support to the overall consistency of the scale. Moreover,

results in Table 9 showed that IPG has a mean score of 132 and standard deviation of 15.03. Whereas, percentile scores for the IPG were also computed, which could be used to compare individual scores with the normative group.

The results, in general, demonstrate that Index of Personal Growth (IPG) is a multidimensional and internally consistent measure of personal growth/self-actualization and sensitive to the most fundamental dimensions of this construct as proposed by Maslow (1970).

STUDY 2

Validity Studies of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Objectives of the Study

Of utmost importance to the psychometry of a scale is its construct validity. Construct validity is broadly defined as the extent to which an operationalization measures the concept it is proposed to measure (Bagozzi, 1993). In recent years there has been an explosion in procedures advocated for the investigation of construct validity of an instrument. Campbell and Fiske (1959) have recommended two procedures of determining construct validity: convergent validity and discriminant validity, which are among the most common methods used to validate a measure. According to Bagozzi (1993), convergent validity refers to the degree to which multiple attempts to measure the same concept are in agreement, whereas discriminant validity is defined as the degree to which measures of different concepts are distinct.

This part of the research work was designed to establish the construct validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Accordingly, following three studies were planned to achieve the objectives of the present study:

1. Study I was carried out to establish the convergent validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) by finding its correlation with Short Index of Self-actualization (SI).

2. Study II was devised to determine the construct validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) by exploring the relationship of personal growth with internal locus of control.

3. Study III was also designed to provide construct validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) by exploring the relationship of personal growth with self-disclosure.

Study I: Convergent Validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

A newly developed scale is considered to be valid if it correlates significantly with other existing scales measuring the same construct. Since IPG was developed on the model proposed by the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI; Jones & Crandall, 1986), it was assumed that a positive correlation would be obtained between the scores of IPG and SI. A study was conducted to assess the extent to which IPG and SI were related to each other, there by establishing the convergent validity of IPG.

Hypotheses

This study was planned to investigate the following hypotheses:

1. There will be a positive correlation between the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) and the Index of Personal Growth (IPG).
2. The subscales of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) will be positively related with the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI).

Method

Sample

A total of 90 students, 43 men and 47 women participated in this study. The data were collected from M.Sc. students of Quaid-i-Azam University. Their ages ranged from 20 to 24 years with a mean age of 21.25 (S.D. = 1.5). Among the respondents, 60%

students belonged to natural sciences group while 40 % belonged to social sciences fields. In addition, 80 % were from urban area and 20 % were from rural area.

Instruments

A detail of the instruments used in the present study appears below.

Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Index of Personal Growth (IPG), developed in the Study 1 was used in this investigation to find out the correlation between IPG and SI. IPG is a 35-item self-report multidimensional instrument, which propounds to measure individual differences on personal growth (Annexure H). It is a 5-point Likert type rating scale with response options ranging from 'strongly agree' (5), 'agree' (4), 'undecided' (3) to 'disagree' (2) and 'strongly disagree' (1). Of the total, 18 items are positively scored while 17 are negatively worded. IPG is appropriate for young adult population. The mean score on the total scale of IPG = 132 with $SD = 15$.

Reliability Estimates

Reliability estimates (Study 1) demonstrated IPG as an internally consistent measure of personal growth. Cronbach's alpha for the total 35-item scale was found to be .80, while split-half reliability coefficient being .78. Corrected item-total correlation indices (range = .27 to .52) provided further support to the conclusion that IPG is a reliable instrument.

Factorial Validity

Principal components analysis followed by varimax rotation demonstrated IPG to consist of four conceptually distinct factors, collectively explaining 34.7% of total variance. Consistent with Maslow's theory of Self-actualization (1970) and Jones and Crandall's propositions (1986), these factors were labeled as *Acceptance of Self & Others*, *Purpose in Life*, *Spontaneity*, and *Autonomy*. Cronbach's alpha for the subscales were found to be as following: Acceptance of self & Others = .63; Purpose in Life = .62; Spontaneity = .60; Autonomy = .60.

Short Index of Self-actualization (SI)

SI is a 15-item measure of self-actualization developed by Jones and Crandall (1986). This scale is appropriate for adults, adolescents (Jones & Crandall, 1986), and preadolescents (Schatz & Bucmaster, 1988). Items no. 1, 3, 4, 7, 10, 12 and 15 are positively worded, whereas the remaining items are negatively worded.

Reliability and Internal Consistency Analysis

Jones and Crandall (1986) tested the following reliability characteristics of the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI): a) internal consistency and b) test-retest reliability. For internal consistency analysis, Cronbach's alpha was calculated using 332 students. Alpha for the 15-item index was .65, with a four-point format. Later, Crandall and Jones (1991) expanded the answer format from 4 to 6 points to try to achieve more internal consistency with the same items. The new data on internal reliability were at about the

same level as originally presented on the scale with both a four-point answer format (Richard & Jex, 1991; alpha .67) and the newer six-point answer format (Flett, Blankstein, & Hewitt, 1991; alpha .63; Mcleod & Vodanovich, 1991; alpha .68). The test-retest reliability for the twelve-day interval was .69 ($p \leq .001$). The mean for the first testing was 46.24 ($SD = 4.06$), while for the second testing the mean was 45.97 ($SD = 4.26$). Since the means did not differ significantly it was concluded that there was no practice effect or regression to the mean.

Factor Structure

Principal components analysis followed by orthogonal factor analysis showed that SI is a five-dimensional measure of self-actualization. These dimensions were labeled as: *Autonomy, Self-acceptance & self-esteem, Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions, Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships, and Ability to deal with undesirable aspects of life.*

Validity Studies

The validity studies on SI have shown that it has a significant correlation with a total score on the most widely accepted measure of self-actualization, namely the POI ($r = .67, p \leq .001$). The Short Index also had significant correlations with self-esteem ($r = .41, p \leq .001$) and with the measure of rational behavior and beliefs ($r = .44, p \leq .001$). Furthermore, the index had a significant negative correlation with neuroticism ($r = -.30, p \leq .02$). Moreover, the results of the “fake good” procedure and the Lie scale suggest that there are no problems with respect to response sets and dissimulation.

Procedure

Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) were collectively given to the students, who volunteered to participate in the study. The respondents, consisting only of those students who were doing masters in any field, were contacted in the central library of Quaid-i-Azam University. They were instructed to read each item carefully and to answer keeping in view his or her personality. They were also asked not to leave any statement blank.

Results

Table 1 presents means and standard deviations for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI).

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and the Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) (N= 90)

Scales	No. of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	35	135.86	14.73
Short Index of Self-actualization (SI)	15	60	7.58

In order to explore the extent to which SI is related with IPG, correlations were computed between both scales and SI and subscales of IPG. Table 2 lists the correlation matrix which shows that SI is significantly related with IPG and its subscales.

Table 2
Correlation Coefficients Between Short Index of Self-actualization (SI) and Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and its Subscales (N= 90)

Scale/Subscales	Short Index of Self-actualization (SI)
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	.63***
Acceptance of Self & Others	.44***
Purpose in Life	.44***
Spontaneity	.48***
Autonomy	.49***

*** $p < .000$

Discussion

The construct validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) was explored through the analysis of convergent validity. The basic notion behind the theory of convergent validity is that two or more measures of the same variable should covary highly if they are valid measures of the concept (Bagozzi, 1993). In order to establish the convergent validity of IPG, a positive correlation was assumed between the newly developed measure of self-actualization and a reliable and valid measure of self-actualization, namely Short Index of Self-actualization (SI). Table 2 shows that SI is significantly correlated with IPG ($r = .63$, $p < .000$). That is, both measures of self-actualization share 40% of variance, which is quite high considering the fact that IPG consists of dimensions, which are different from those extended by SI.

Correlation indices were also obtained for SI and the subscales of IPG. Table 2 indicates that SI is significantly related with all the dimensions of self-actualization as proposed by IPG. Among the subscales of IPG, 'autonomy', closely followed by 'spontaneity', was found to be strongly related with SI as compared to the other two dimensions, 'acceptance of self and others' and 'purpose in life'. This was not contrary to expectations as both of these dimensions were proposed by the *present* investigation. Therefore, the strength of correlations of 'acceptance of self and others' and 'purpose in life' with SI indicated that both these dimensions are significant aspects of personal growth/self-actualization.

In general, the results of the present study exhibited convergent validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and its subscales.

Study II: Construct Validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

The primary purpose of the present investigation was to determine the construct validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG). In order to achieve this objective, a study was carried out to investigate the relationship between the construct- personal growth with a theoretically related construct- internal locus of control.

hypotheses

Specifically, this study hypothesized that:

1. There will be a positive correlation between internal locus of control and personal growth.
2. There will be a positive correlation between internal locus of control and the subscales of IPG.
3. Internal locus of control will be higher among individuals who score high on Index of Personal Growth (IPG) as compared to those individuals who score low on the scale.

Method

Sample

The participants employed for the present investigation were 150 students of various Masters programs. The 75 men and 75 women ranged in age from 20 to 24 years with a

mean of 22.1 (SD = 1.7). Students were contacted at different educational institutes, e.g., Arid Agricultural University, Rawalpindi, Hamdard University, Islamabad, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, and Post-Graduate College for Women, Rawalpindi. Students who volunteered to participate were included in the sample. Among the respondents, 78% students belonged to natural sciences group while 22 % belonged to social sciences fields. In addition, 65 % were from urban area and 35 % were from rural area.

Definitions of the Variables

Definitions of the variables of interest for the present study are presented below.

Personal Growth

Personal growth refers to a continuous and purposeful development of the human person toward the full potential of what he or she can become (O'Connell & O'Connell, 1974). According to Jones and Crandall (1986), personal growth/self-actualization is defined as,

the discovery of real self and its expression and development.

On the basis of the above-given definition, Index of Personal Growth (IPG) has been developed (Study 1). According to IPG, the construct of personal growth consists of following dimensions: *Acceptance of self & others, Purpose in life, Spontaneity, and Autonomy.*

Internal Locus of Control

Internal locus of control, a dimension of locus of control, is deeply embedded in Rotter's social learning theory, which states that behavior is a function of expectancy and reinforcement value in a specific situation. Internal locus of control refers to a generalized belief that reinforcement is contingent upon one's own behavior (Duttweiler, 1994). According to Stietz (1982),

when an event is interpreted as contingent upon one's own behavior or one's own relatively permanent characteristics the belief is labeled as internal locus of control.

In other words, individuals who perceive reinforcements as direct consequence of their actions are said to have an internal locus of control (Raine et al., 1982). This aspect of locus of control is considered as an important covariate of self-actualization.

Instruments

Information on the instruments used in the present study is presented below.

Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

The Index of Personal Growth (IPG) used in the Study I was also employed in Study II to measure the construct of personal growth (Annexure H).

Levenson' Locus of Control Scale (LEVELOC)

Levenson's scale of locus of control (LEVELOC, 1974) consists of 24 items, anchored on five response levels ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. LEVELOC is a multidimensional scale containing three factors, namely 'internality', 'powerful others', and 'chance'. There are 8 items to assess each dimension, all of which are positively worded and measures the extent to which subjects believe that they are influenced by powerful others, chance, or internal factors. Studies have shown that it is a highly reliable and consistent measure of locus of control (Ward, 1994).

Since, the present study only required those items of LEVELOC, which assess the degree to which individuals believe that their reinforcements are under their own control, the subscale of 'internality' was chosen to formulate a separate measure of internal locus of control. As mentioned above, this scale only contains 8 items, each with a five-point rating scale arranged on following response levels:

Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Undecided (3)
Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)	

For this study, the Internal Locus of Control Scale was translated into Urdu language. The procedure followed for translating the Internal Locus of Control Scale is as follows:

- a. A Performa, containing the 8 statements measuring internal locus of control, were given to 5 psychologists. The participants were required to translate each statement into Urdu language.
- b. After collecting the Performa, translation for each item was scrutinized by the researchers. Among the various responses, the most appropriate Urdu-translated statement was selected for each item.
- c. Later, another Performa containing the translated version of Internal Locus of Control Scale was given to 10 individuals (5 teachers and 5 students of Psychology). They were instructed to assess each item in terms of cultural relevance.
- d. Lastly, all items were examined for frequency of endorsement. However, it was found that all items received 100% endorsement, so none of them was eliminated.

The translated version of self-report scale of Internal Locus of Control (ILCS), consisting of 8 items anchored on 5-point rating scale was used in the present study to measure the construct of internal locus of control (Annexure I). Maximum score that can be obtained on this scale is 40 whereas minimum score that can be obtained is 8.

Procedure

Participants who agreed to take part in the study were handed over two questionnaires, i.e., Internal Locus of Control Scale and Index of Personal Growth. Each

individual was instructed to read all the items carefully and answer to each statement keeping in view their own personality. They were also instructed not to skip any item.

After the respondents completed the questionnaire, the researcher carefully examined it for omitted items. Later, the obtained data on both questionnaires were subjected to following statistical analyses: (a) means and standard deviations of the scales; (b) Cronbach alphas of the scales; (d) correlation between the scales to examine the first hypothesis of the present research work; (e) correlation between the internal locus of control and IPG subscales to examine the second hypothesis of the present study; and (f) *t*-test to explore the third hypothesis of the present investigation.

Results

Table 1 displays means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and the Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS).

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Reliability of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and the Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS) (N = 150)

Scales	No. of			Alpha
	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Coefficient
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	35	133.66	15.45	.81
Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS)	8	31.57	4.63	.65

Correlation coefficients computed between the constructs, internal locus of control and personal growth including its sub-dimensions are given in Table 2. Results showed that Internal Locus of Control Scale is significantly related with Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and its subscales, providing empirical support to theoretical assertion that internal locus of control is an important correlate of personal growth.

Table 2

Correlation Coefficients Between the Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS) and the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and its Subscales (N= 150)

Scales/Subscales	Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS)
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	.45***
Acceptance of Self & Others	.24***
Purpose in Life	.34***
Spontaneity	.35***
Autonomy	.46***

*** $p < .000$

In order to test the difference between the means of high scorers and low scorers of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) on Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS), *t*-test was applied. Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference between the individuals with high personal growth and low personal growth with respect to internal locus of control. Thus further establishing that individuals who show more personal growth are more internally controlled than those who depict less growth in their personalities.

Table 3
Differences Between High and Low Scorers of Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS) on the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) (N= 150)

Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS)	N	Mean Scores on			
		Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	SD	<i>t</i>	df
High Scorers	74	33.31	3.26	5.34	148
Low Scorers	76	29.78	4.70	$p < .000$	

Discussion

This study reports the investigation planned to determine the construct validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) with theoretically linked construct, internal locus of control.

The assumption that the constructs, personal growth and internal locus of control, are theoretically related basically stemmed from Rotter's seminal work on perceived locus of control as an important personality dimension to describe individual differences. Rotter maintained that beliefs about locus of control are quite stable and general; they have a major effect on what people do and feel, and thus represent something analogous to personality trait (Gleitman, 1991). In his theory, Rotter suggested a positive association between internal locus of control and psychological adjustment. He proposed that people who view reinforcing events as the outcome of their own behavior (internals) will be

psychologically more healthier than those who view reinforcing events as beyond their own control (externals) (Knapp, 1990). Similar views run in the personality theories of Rogers and Bandura. Rogers, for instance, believed that a person whose locus of evaluation lies within himself and who looks less and less to others for approval and disapproval and lives in an open, friendly, close relationship to his own experience is more likely to realize his true self (1989). On the other hand, Bandura (1982) maintains that psychological health is an instrument of the belief that the environment is responsive to potential actions and that one is capable of performing those actions.

Consistent with these notions, studies have found that compared to externals, internals report greater psychological adjustment (Davis & Palladino, 2000; Haidt & Rodin, 1999), subjective well being (Cooper et al., 1995; Kunhikrishnan & Stephen, 1992), and success in their lives (Calhoun & Acocella, 1990; Jerabek, 2000). Moreover, individuals who believe that their actions have a direct bearing on the consequences are more hardy and self-actualized than those individuals who most often blame fate, destiny, society, or some other force beyond their control (Castellow & Hayes, 1983; Doyle, 1976; Hjelle, 1976; Lambert, DeJulio, & Cole, 1976; Warehime & Foulds, 1971). Davis and Palladino (2000) argue that internals are more psychologically healthy because they have more effective coping strategies, which leads to better psychological adjustment. Other studies suggest that internals are insightful, show constructive responses to frustration, and exert more efforts to better their life circumstances (Knapp, 1990); they are better at developing new goals and are more able to concentrate on the situation (Lefcourt, Martin, & Saleh, 1981), and cope more effectively with stress than externals (Anderson, 1977; Davis & Palladino, 2000; Lefcourt, 1982).

In line with these findings, the present study hypothesized a positive relationship between internal locus of control and personal growth. Significant correlation coefficient between control orientation and the measure of personal growth ($r [150] = .45, p < .000$) support the proposition that personal growth is reflective of individual control expectancies (Table 2). That is, individuals who believe that their achievements and failures in life are dependent upon their own actions, behaviors, and capabilities learn to rely more and more on their own selves, and in the process are better able to discover, express, and develop their real selves. Thus, the results conform to theoretical and empirical link extended on the relationship between internal locus of control and psychological health.

In addition, bivariate correlation indices were also determined between the subscales of personal growth and internal locus of control. Results showed that participants' belief in internality proves to be significantly related to almost all subscales of IPG (Table 2), i.e., participants who reported more internal locus of control reported greater autonomy, $r(150) = .46, p < .000$, purpose in life, $r(150) = .34, p < .000$, acceptance of self & others, $r(150) = .24, p < .000$, and spontaneity, $r(150) = .35, p < .000$. Especially noteworthy is the high correlation between internal locus of control and autonomy, higher than with the total scale of personal growth. One reason for this might be that the dimension of autonomy conceptually overlaps with the concept of internal locus of control. As noted by Cooper et al., (1995), "*a belief in personal autonomy, involving self-determinism and independence, goes hand in hand with internal beliefs about control*".

The results discussed above thus rendered support to the first hypothesis of this study that internal locus of control and personal growth are positively related with each other. Further evidence on this notion was obtained through *t*-test analysis (Table 3). The

results discussed above thus rendered support to the first hypothesis of this study that internal locus of control and personal growth are positively related with each other. Further evidence on this notion was obtained through *t*-test analysis (Table 3). Significant differences between mean scores ($t [148] = 5.34, p < .000$) indicated that individuals who are more internally controlled obtained high scores on IPG ($M = 33.31$) as compared to those individuals who are less internally controlled ($M = 29.78$). This lent support to the second hypothesis of the present study, which stated that the high scorers on internal locus of control scale would also score high on IPG as compared to the low scorers.

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, and Cronbach alphas calculated for the Urdu-translated version of Internal Locus of Control Scale as well as Index of Personal Growth (IPG) for this sample of the study. The alpha coefficient of IPG showed that Index of Personal Growth is an internally consistent measure of personal growth. Whereas, the alpha value for Internal Locus of Control Scale was found to be quite moderate. This was, however, not unexpected considering the small number of items in the scale.

Overall, the results provided evidence to the construct validity of IPG, that is, personal growth and internal locus of control, though theoretically related are distinct concepts and that Index of Personal Growth (IPG) measures what it purports to measure.

Study III: Construct Validity of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Objectives of the Study

The major concern of the present investigation was to further examine the construct validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). In order to achieve this objective, the variable of self-disclosure was chosen as substantial theoretical and empirical evidence indicates that the two constructs, personal growth and self-disclosure are theoretically linked with each other.

Close inspection of the instruments for the measurement of self-disclosure revealed that none of the scales available were culturally relevant. Since research has shown that individualistic and collectivistic societies show differences in self-disclosure (Weiten & Lloyd, 2003), an indigenously developed measure of self-disclosure was considered necessary. Therefore, Study III was planned to achieve two objectives, which are as follows:

1. to develop an indigenous self-report measure of self-disclosure.
2. to establish the construct validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG).

To accomplish the objectives mentioned above, the present study was conducted in two parts. Part I explains the development of a reliable and valid measure of self-disclosure. While, the second objective of the study was achieved in Part II.

Part I: Development of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

In order to develop an internally consistent and factorially valid measure of self-disclosure named as Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), Part I further comprised of two phases. Phase I describes the steps followed to generate an initial item pool for the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), while Phase II focuses on the construction of a final version of the scale and determining its psychometric properties.

Phase I: Item Generation for the Development of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

In the present study, the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) followed the major advancements in the theory of self-disclosure. Basically, self-disclosure refers to the process by which persons let themselves be known to others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). According to Derlega and Grzelak (1979),

Self-disclosure is defined as including any information exchange that refers to the self, including personal states, dispositions, events in the past, and plans for the future.

In accordance with these definitions, most self-disclosure measures assume a consistent pattern or trait of self-disclosure for the subjects (Chelune, 1977). Research, however, indicates that most individuals *vary* their disclosures in accordance with a wide variety of interpersonal and situational factors (Archer, 1974; Chelune, 1975; Dindia & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Solano et al., 1982). Furthermore, these social-situational factors serve

as important discriminant stimuli for social rules governing appropriate disclosure (Derlega & Grzelak, 1974). Thus, the tendency to reveal personal information about oneself does not remain consistent across situations and over time; in fact one tends to modulate one's tendency to disclose according to the demands of the various situations for effective self-disclosure. This led Chelune (1977) to coin the term *self-disclosure flexibility*. Within the context of self-disclosure, Chelune (1977) then defined disclosure flexibility as,

the ability of an individual to adequately differentiate various situational and interpersonal cues and adapt his or her disclosures accordingly.

Keeping in line with these modifications in the theory of self-disclosure, Chelune developed a 20-item self-report disclosure measure, the Self-disclosure Situations Survey (SDSS). SDSS consists of a number of social situations that systematically vary in terms of both interpersonal and situational variables. The 20 situations are equally divided into four groups of five items according to one of four target persons (friend alone, group of friends, stranger alone, group of strangers) and one of five levels of physical-setting conditions scaled for intimacy. Since this inventory is designed to be sensitive to the social-situational determinants of self-disclosing behavior, initially a gross index of a person's flexibility or the amount of variation in self-disclosure was obtained by measuring standard deviation among the twenty situations.

Later, Chelune (1981) and others argued that effective self-disclosure depends not only on the person's ability to adapt to changing situations, but his or her ability to adapt in an appropriate manner. Thus, Chelune and Figueroa (1981) obtained a self-disclosure

flexibility deviation score for each participant by converting the absolute difference between the participants' responses to a given situation and the corresponding population mean (established for each twenty items of SDSS) into standard scores and adding them across the 20 situations. The resulting deviation score was taken to represent the degree to which the subjects are willing to vary their disclosure in an appropriate or normative fashion in response to varying social-situational cues. That is, a person with *low flexibility deviation score* indicates that his or her pattern of disclosure closely approximates that of the normative profile whereas *high flexibility deviation score* means that the pattern of disclosure deviates in an inappropriate manner given the demands of the situation. Thus, SDSS not only measures a general tendency of self-disclosure, but also provides an index of self-disclosure flexibility that reflects norm-appropriate modulation of disclosure patterns.

Following this theoretical pattern, an indigenous self-report measure of self-disclosure was developed in the first phase of the present study, which could be used to scale total self-disclosure and self-disclosure flexibility. The steps followed in the generation of items for the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) are given below.

Method

Procedure

Following steps were carried out to develop the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI).

Step I

In the first step, in-depth interviews were conducted with the participants to empirically generate items for the development of the scale. The sample for this purpose included 20 M.Sc. students. Among them, 14 were women and 9 were men. Their ages ranged from 20 to 24 (mean age = 22). The interviewees were contacted at the central library of QAU. They were first explained in detail what the construct of self-disclosure entails. Following this, they were asked to relate the situations in which they feel they *are* comfortable and then the situations in which they feel they *are not* comfortable to reveal information about their true feelings and thoughts regarding any topic. This resulted in a list of empirically generated indicators (Annexure J).

Step II

Self-disclosure Situations Survey (SDSS, Chelune, 1976), which consists of 20 social situations sampling the willingness to disclose in social interactions, was used as another source to generate reliable indicators of self-disclosure. Three psychologists (National Institute of Psychology), who were familiar with the translation procedure, were given the statements of SDSS to translate them into Urdu language. The Urdu translation of each item was assessed and the most appropriate among these was selected for a given item.

Step III

The statements indicating various social situations obtained in the Step 1 and Step 2 were pooled together and were analyzed in terms of similar and peculiar content (Annexure K). Thus, after eliminating redundant items, the resultant list of social situations was then given to five psychologists. These judges were instructed to indicate those items, which they considered as most relevant to our culture (Annexure L).

Step IV

The next step involved analysis of items in terms of frequency of endorsement. Items which received endorsement of 80% and above in terms of cultural relevance were chosen to formulate a tentative set of items for SSI.

Step V

Following Chelune's methodology in the development of SSI, this step focused on selecting five items each for following four target groups: friend alone, group of friends, stranger alone, group of strangers. Moreover, each item of each target group was assessed in terms of degree of five levels of intimacy. For example, walking in a park with your friend (highly intimate)—to—in a coffee shop with a friend (least intimate). Through this procedure, 20 items were chosen to formulate the scale of self-disclosure, each statement arranged on a 5-point rating scale (Annexure M).

Results

The procedure adopted in the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) yielded following results.

Step I

The first step in the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) involved soliciting a variety of social situations from a number of university students through in-depth interviews. Since they were asked to describe situations in which they feel comfortable and conversely uncomfortable in relating personal information about their current feelings and thoughts, the descriptors thereby obtained included 20 situations for the former condition (feel comfortable) and 15 situations for the later condition (feel uncomfortable) (Annexure J).

Step II

In a separate step, the 20 social situations of Self-Disclosure Situations Survey (SDSS), sensitive to the social-situational determinants of self-disclosing behavior, were given to 3 psychologists to translate them into Urdu language. The purpose of this exercise was to select the most appropriately translated statements, which could be added to the list of situations empirically generated in the first step.

Step III

Later, all the social situations were pooled together to form a single list (Annexure K). This step yielded 53 social situations, a close inspection of which showed that many of these situations were similar in content. Thus, eliminating redundant and peculiar situations, the resultant list of 30 situations was given to 5 psychologists. They were instructed to select those social situations, which they considered as most relevant to our culture (Annexure L). Using the criteria of 80% and above endorsement for selecting the situations relevant according to our socio-cultural milieu, out of 30 situations 5 following items were discarded: 9, 10, 19, 26, 30.

Step IV

Since, the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) followed Chelune's method in the construction of Self-Disclosure Situations Survey (SDSS), in the next step the researchers analyzed 25 social situations in order to choose (a) five items for each four target groups, i.e., friend alone, group of friends, stranger alone, group of strangers and (b) five levels of intimacy for the five items of each target group for example, walking in a park with your friend (highly intimate) –to- in a coffee shop with a friend (least intimate). In this manner, 20 situations were chosen to formulate the final Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), each accompanied by a 5-point rating scale where numbers from 1 to 5 are to be understood as indicating gradually increasing degrees of willingness to disclose at personal level in that situation (Annexure M).

Phase II: Factorial Validity and Internal Consistency of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

The purpose of this part of the study was to create the final version of SSI, which would meet the standards of reliability and validity. To accomplish this goal, factor analysis was conducted to select items for SSI as well as to examine the dimensionality of the scale. This process of the construction of the final version of SSI was supplemented by computing various reliability indices such as item-total correlations, Cronbach's alpha, split-half reliability, and inter-scale correlations.

Method

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 180 students belonging to various educational institutions (e.g., Arid Agricultural University, Rawalpindi; Hamdard University, Islamabad; Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad; and Post-Graduate College for Women, Rawalpindi). The respondents included 90 men and 90 women, students of Masters programs, and with age ranging from 20 to 24 years ($M = 22$, $S.D. = 1.2$). Analyses of demographic variables showed that 62% students belonged to natural sciences group while 38% belonged to social sciences fields. In addition, 73% were from urban area and 27% were from rural area.

Procedure

Participants were included in the study on voluntary basis. Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), developed in the first phase of this study, was given to the participants contacted individually or in the form of groups. The students were instructed to read each situation carefully, imagine oneself in each situation and then rate on a 5-point scale the general level of disclosure that he/she would be comfortable with in that situation.

For the assessment of psychometric properties of SSI and selection of final items, factor analysis was employed followed by item-total correlation, Cronbach alpha, and split-half reliability. In addition, normative profile for the SSI situations was constructed, which can be used to derive self-disclosure flexibility deviation scores for individuals of ages 20 to 24.

Results

Data processed with various statistical analyses yielded following results.

Factorial Validity

Principal components analysis (PCA) was carried out to examine the factor structure underlying SSI and to select the final set of items for the scale. Preliminary analysis of results of PCA revealed a factor solution of 6 factors with eigenvalues over 1, collectively explaining 59% of total variance. Since Cattell's Scree Test is considered a more accurate method to determine the number of factors to be extracted for further

examination (Reise, 2000), a scree plot was drawn to visually locate an elbow where eigenvalues form a descending linear trend. The obtained curve clearly demonstrated a two-factor solution, as there is an obvious break between the eigenvalues of second and third factor (3.48 and 1.35, respectively) as compared to the difference between the rest of eigenvalues. Following this logic, varimax rotation was employed to identify a simple factor solution. The two-factor varimax rotation procedure explained 36% of total variance. Using a criterion of .40 and above factor loadings, it was found that 8 items significantly loaded on each dimension, resulting in a 16-item two-dimensional measure of self-disclosure. Four items (item no. 1, 2, 17, & 19) did not reach statistical significance, therefore, they were discarded from the scale. The eigenvalue for factor 1 was 3.78 and 3.48 for the second factor. Table 1 shows factor loadings, communality, eigenvalue, percentage of variance, and cumulative variance of 20-items of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) obtained through orthogonal rotation.

Table 1

Factor Loadings, Communality, Eigenvalue, Percentage of Variance, and Cumulative Variance of the 20-item Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) on Rotated Orthogonal Factors (N = 180)

No. of Items	Factors		<i>h</i>
	I	II	
1	.17	-.01	.03
2	.20	-.25	.106
3	-.01	.63	.40

4	.03	.74	.54
5	.62	-.21	.43
6	.55	-.06	.30
7	-.13	.57	.35
8	.43	-.04	.19
9	.68	.06	.47
10	.70	-.17	.52
11	.03	.58	.34
12	.34	.41	.28
13	.70	-.06	.50
14	.66	.17	.46
15	.18	.73	.56
16	-.23	.69	.52
17	.33	-.36	.24
18	.64	.04	.41
19	.33	.20	.14
20	.11	.69	.48
Eigenvalue	3.78	3.48	
Percentage of	18.89	17.38	
Variance			
Cumulative	18.89	36.27	
Variance			

Table 2 shows the factor loadings of two subscales on each factor. The composition of two factors was in contrast to four a priori expected dimensions. Examination of the content of the first factor showed that items designated to two types of target persons, i.e., friend alone and group of friends clustered together to form a single factor. Whereas all items that provide a person with a situation in which he/she is accompanied by a 'stranger alone' or 'group of strangers', merged together to form the second dimension of SSI. In accordance with these results, the first factor was labeled as 'Disclosure to Friend(s)' whereas the second factor was labeled as 'Disclosure to Stranger(s)'.

Table 2

Factor Loadings of Two Subscales of the 16-item Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) (N = 180)

S. No.	No. of Items	Factors	
		I Disclosure to Friend(s)	II Disclosure to Stranger(s)
1	10	.70	
2	13	.70	
3	9	.68	
4	14	.66	
5	18	.64	
6	5	.62	
7	6	.55	
8	8	.43	

9	4	.74
10	15	.73
11	16	.69
12	20	.69
13	3	.63
14	11	.58
15	7	.57
16	12	.41

Item-Total Correlations of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

In order to verify the results of factor analysis, two sets of item-total correlations were computed for the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI): one for the original number of items and the other of reduced number of items selected on the basis of factor analysis. Table 3 presents correlation coefficients between each item with the total score of 20-item SSI. The correlation values displayed in Table 3 showed that all items, except four, correlated positively and significantly with the total SSI items.

Table 3

Item-Total Correlations of 20-item Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) (N = 180)

Item No.	Correlation	Item No.	Correlation
	with Total Score		with Total Score
1	.22 ($p = .003$)	11	.32***
2	.19 ($p = .011$)	12	.49***

3	.33***	13	.51***
4	.42***	14	.60***
5	.42***	15	.51***
6	.45***	16	.30***
7	.30***	17	.19 ($p = .01$)
8	.40***	18	.54***
9	.55***	19	.20 ($p = .001$)
10	.48***	20	.45***

*** $p < .000$.

By comparing the results of item-total correlation with those obtained through factor analysis, it was found that exactly the same four items, which did not qualify for statistical significance on any factor, also did not attain significant item-total correlation values. Thus, the results of item-total correlation provided additional support to the decision of eliminating these four items.

Furthermore, the item-total correlation analysis was also performed on the 16-item SSI, selected through factor analysis. The results in Table 4 showed that each SSI item correlated positively (r ranging from .31 to .60) and significantly ($p < .000$) with the sum of the total items. Hence, all items may be considered reliable and valid indicators of self-disclosure as measured by SSI.

Table 4

Item-Total Correlations of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) of 16 Items (N = 180)

S. No.	Item No.	Correlation with Total Score	S. No.	Item No.	Correlation with Total Score
1	3	.39***	9	11	.37***
2	4	.49***	10	12	.52***
3	5	.37***	11	13	.51***
4	6	.43***	12	14	.60***
5	7	.34***	13	15	.58***
6	8	.38***	14	16	.31***
7	9	.55***	15	18	.53***
8	10	.44***	16	20	.49***

*** $p < .000$.

Reliability Estimates of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

Table 5 presents Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) with 20 items (original number of items) and with 16 items after selecting items on the basis of factor analysis.

Table 5

Alpha Reliability of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) With 20 Items and With Reduced Items (N = 180)

No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
20	.72
16	.76

Cronbach alpha indices of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) with original ($r = .72$) and with reduced number of items ($r = .76$) show that SSI is an internally consistent measure of self-disclosure. This finding was further supported by computing split-half reliability. A Split-half estimate of reliability of SSI yielded positive correlation between the two halves: .62 for 20 items and .61 for 16 items corrected to .76 by the Spearman-Brown formula. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients for Split-half Reliability of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) With 20 Items and With Reduced Items (N = 180)

Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)	Split-half Correlation	Spearman Brown Correction
20	.62	.76
16	.61	.76

Internal Consistency of Subscales of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

The internal consistency of the subscales of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) was established by calculating coefficient alpha for each subscale, which was found to be .79 for the first and .79 for the second subscale. The obtained indices are shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Alpha Coefficient of Two Subscales of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) (N = 180)

Subscales	No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Disclosure to Friend(s)	8	.79
Disclosure to Stranger(s)	8	.79

Intercorrelations Among the Subscales and With the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

The two dimensions of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), identified through varimax rotation, were further rendered support by computing intercorrelations between SSI and its subscales. Table 8 presents the correlation matrix of the two subscales of SSI with each other and with the total score of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI). The correlation coefficients between the two subscales and Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) were positive and significant ($p < .000$), clearly showing that the two factors are an integral dimensions of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI). The results also showed that the intercorrelation between the subscales of SSI is very small.

Thus, magnitude of the correlation coefficient between the first factor and second factor indicated that both dimensions are relatively independent aspects of SSI.

Table 8

Intercorrelations of the Scores on the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) and its Two Subscales (N = 180)

S. No.	Subscales	I	II	Total Score on Self-
				disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)
I	Disclosure to Friend(s)	-		.75
II	Disclosure to Stranger(s)	.02, $p < .000$	-	.68

Normative Profile

Table 9 indicates the mean and standard deviations of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI).

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) With 20 Items and With Reduced Items (N= 180)

No. of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
20	59.17	9.95
16	45.43	9.01

Table 10 presents means and standard deviations for the two subscales of SSI.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for the Two Subscales of the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) (N= 180)

Subscales	No. of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Disclosure to Friend(s)	8	29.28	6.59
Disclosure to Stranger(s)	8	16.15	5.99

To construct normative profile for the SSI items, population means and standard deviations for each item for the total group were computed. Means and standard deviations for each sex were also calculated to find out gender differences regarding the willingness to disclose information. However, as the value of *t*-test did not reach statistical significance ($t [180] = .92$), it was concluded that males and females do not differ in terms of their total willingness to disclose on SSI. Thus, a single normative profile consisting of population means and standard deviations was used to represent norms for males as well as females.

Table 11

Norms for the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) Items (N=180)

SSI	Total (N=180)		SSI	Total (N=180)	
Situations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Situations	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1	1.86	1.18	9	1.97	1.13
2	1.97	1.07	10	2.73	1.31
3	3.94	1.22	11	3.69	1.20

4	3.49	1.49	12	3.38	1.37
5	2.02	1.28	13	1.90	1.19
6	3.42	1.43	14	1.87	1.12
7	3.90	1.19	15	3.75	1.23
8	3.71	1.26	16	1.83	1.15

Discussion

The central concern of the first part of Study III was to construct an indigenous self-report measure of self-disclosure, namely Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) that could be used to discriminate among individuals who vary their tendency to disclose according to the demands of situational and interpersonal cues in an appropriate manner. In the first phase of this study, items were generated and refined to make an original form of SSI, while the second phase of the study was carried out to formulize the final version of SSI that meets the psychometric standards of reliability and validity.

The original form of SSI was administered to a sample of 150 postgraduate students. On the responses, thus obtained, principal components analysis (PCA) was performed to determine the number of factors to extract and to select a final item set for SSI. Initial results showed 6 factors with eigenvalues exceeding unity. However, research shows that retaining factors, which have eigenvalues greater than 1 consistently leads to the retention of too many factors (Zwick & Velicer, 1986). Therefore, Scree Test was employed to determine the number of factors underlying the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI). An examination of the plot of eigenvalues revealed that the scree appears to begin at the third factor, suggesting a two-factor solution. Consistent with these results,

the data was then subjected to varimax rotation. A value of .40 factor loading was adopted as a cut-off point for each item to be categorized in a particular factor. Using this criterion, it was found that 16 items fell above the cut-off point, collectively loading on two factors and explaining 36% of total variance. The 4 items, which did not meet the criteria of .40 factor loading, were discarded. Among the two factors, the first consisted of 8 items, explaining 18.89% of variance. While, the second factor, which also included 8 items, accounted for 17.38% of variance.

Upon examination of the content of these factors, it was found that the factor structure of SSI was not exactly in accordance to what was postulated initially. The development of SSI, based on Chelune's theory on self-disclosure, originally assumed four types of target persons (friend alone, group of friends, stranger alone, and group of strangers) which would provoke different levels of self-disclosure. Results of factor analysis revealed that items related to situations in which one finds oneself with a 'single friend' or a 'group of friends' loaded together on the first factor. Similarly, items representing situations in which the respondent finds oneself with 'one stranger' only or among a 'group of strangers' formed the second factor. Consistent with these results, first factor was labeled as 'Disclosure to Friend(s)' while the second factor was labeled as 'Disclosure to Stranger(s)'.

Correlations between the sub-dimensions and the whole SSI as well as among the subscales were computed to provide further evidence of their construct validity. The correlation between the first factor and the whole test was $r(180) = .75, p < .000$, while the correlation between the second factor and the whole scale was $r(180) = .68, p < .000$. Thus, indicating that both the dimensions represent an integral aspect of the whole scale.

On the other hand, correlation coefficient among the subscales although statistically significant, was quite small in magnitude ($r = .02, p < .000$). Thereby, leading to the conclusion that both subscales are relatively independent.

Since, the primary intent of the present study was to develop a measure of self-disclosure sensitive to norm-appropriate modulation of disclosure patterns, the results of PCA followed by varimax rotation was mainly used to select a final set of items for SSI and its dimensionality in Pakistani culture. This decision received further support when reliability indices were computed. The alpha coefficient for SSI with original number of items (20) was found to be .72, which increased to .76 after dropping the four items that failed to load significantly on any factor. Corrected split-half reliability, presented in Table 6 was also found to be .76. Similarly, item-total correlations (Table 5) computed on the original set of items of SSI indicated that exactly same four items fell short of the pre-decided criterion ($r = .40, p < .01$) for the selection of reliable indicators for the scale. Successive correlations of remaining items (chosen on the basis of factor analysis) with the total number of items of final form of SSI showed that each item highly and saliently correlated with the total. In addition Cronbach's alpha for the two subscales of SSI were also calculated. Table 7 indicates that both subscales have an alpha coefficient of .79.

In general, the results of factor analysis, subsequent interscale correlations, and various reliability estimates can be taken up to mean that 16-item, SSI is an internally consistent and valid measure of self-disclosure (Annexure N). In the present study, norms for each situation of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) were also calculated, so that the degree to which an individual adheres to the social norms for appropriate disclosure in a given set of social situations may be evaluated.

Part II: Relationship of Personal Growth with Self-disclosure

After the development of a reliable and valid measure of self-disclosure, Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) in Urdu language, the study proceeded to establish the discriminant validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG), for which it was originally intended. This was achieved by finding out the relationship of personal growth with theoretically linked construct, self-disclosure.

As explained in previous sections, empirical findings suggest that the disposition to disclose personal information is not directly related with psychological health but interacts with self-disclosure flexibility to produce such positive outcomes. Therefore, the present study investigated whether general self-disclosure (to reveal personal information) or self-disclosure flexibility (one's ability to discriminate among socio-interpersonal cues and adapt disclosure patterns in approximation to norms) is linearly associated with personal growth. The present study also intended to examine whether an optimal amount of disclosure disposition is a sufficient condition for affecting personal growth or whether it also interacts with self-disclosure flexibility- one's ability to modulate disclosure patterns in a norm appropriate fashion- to influence one's capacity to discover and expand true self, that is, personal growth.

Hypotheses

In view of above-mentioned theoretical and empirical considerations, the present study tested following hypotheses:

1. There will be a positive correlation between a general level of self-disclosure and personal growth.
2. There will be a positive correlation between self-disclosure flexibility and personal growth.
3. Individuals who are willing to vary their disclosures in accordance to the social-situational norms for a given set of situations will show high levels of personal growth than those who deviate from the normative pattern for the situations.
4. Individuals whose pattern of willingness to reveal personal information is optimal and in accordance with social norms across various situations will show high levels of personal growth than low and high disclosing individuals and whose pattern of disclosure deviates from the normative profile.

Method

Sample

A total of 150 students participated in this study. The sample consisting of 75 men and 75 women students enrolled in various programs of Masters belonged to following educational institutes: Arid Agricultural University, Rawalpindi; Hamdard University, Islamabad; Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad; and Post-Graduate College for Women, Rawalpindi. Of those participants who completed demographic information, the average age was 21.70 years (range 20 to 24), 65% belonged to urban area, 35% belonged to rural area, 22% were from social sciences group and 78% were from natural sciences group.

Definitions of the Variables

In the present study, personal growth, self-disclosure, and self-disclosure flexibility were taken up to meaning as following:

Personal Growth

Personal growth refers to a continuous and purposeful development of the human person toward the full potential of what he or she can become (O'Connell & O'Connell, 1974). According to Jones and Crandall (1986), personal growth/self-actualization is defined as,

the discovery of real self and its expression and development.

On the basis of the above-given definition, Index of Personal Growth (IPG) has been developed (Study 1). According to IPG, the construct of personal growth consists of the following dimensions: *Acceptance of self & others, Purpose in life, Spontaneity, and Autonomy.*

Self-disclosure and Self-disclosure Flexibility

Self-disclosure refers to the process by which persons let themselves be known to others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). According to Derlega and Grzelak (1979),

Self-disclosure is defined as including any information exchange that refers to the self, including personal states, dispositions, events in the past, and plans for the future.

Whereas, Self-disclosure Flexibility is defined as:

the ability of an individual to adequately differentiate various situational and interpersonal cues and adapt his or her disclosures accordingly (Chelune, 1977).

Instruments

In the present study, following instruments were used to measure the constructs of interest.

Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

The Index of Personal Growth (IPG) used in the Study I was also employed in Study III to measure the construct of personal growth (Annexure H).

Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

SSI consists of 16 different social situations, which is aimed at sampling various social interactions in which young adults may be involved (Annexure N). Reaction to each social situation is recorded on a five-numbered response scale, where numbers from 1 to 5

are to be understood as indicating gradually increasing degrees of willingness to disclose at personal level in that situation. The mean score for the total scale is 45.43, whereas standard deviation is 9.01.

Reliability Estimates: Cronbach's alpha for the whole SSI is .76, while the split-half reliability coefficient also being .76. Item to total correlations of 16 social situations range from .31 to .60. The various reliability estimates collectively reflect the overall internal consistency of the scale.

Factorial Validity: Principal components analysis followed by varimax rotation was employed to determine the factorial validity of SSI. Results indicated that 16 situations equally divided into two groups of 8 items according to one of two target persons (friend alone/group of friends and stranger alone/group of strangers) and various levels of physical-setting conditions scaled for intimacy. Altogether SSI explains 36% of total variance, whereas the first factor accounted for 18.89% and the second factor 17.38% of total variance. Cronbach's alpha has also been computed for the two factors. Alpha of both of the subscales is .79.

Procedure

The participants were approached individually or in form of groups. After gaining their consent for participation in the study, Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) was given to them with the instructions to imagine oneself in each situation and then to rate on a 5-point scale, ranging from disclose superficial information (1) to disclose in complete detail personal information (5), the amount of information one would be willing to disclose

in each situation. Index of Personal Growth (IPG) was also administered simultaneously. This time the participants were instructed to answer each item by keeping one's personality in mind on a 5-point rating scale ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The respondents were asked not to omit any item. On completion of the scales, the questionnaires were carefully checked for missing data.

In order to investigate the first two hypotheses of the study, correlation indices were computed. While for the last two hypotheses, the statistical design of the study was a 3 X 2 Total self-disclosure X Flexibility Level with personal growth as the dependent variable. High, medium, and low Total self-disclosure groups were composed by rank ordering subjects on the basis of their total SSI score and dividing them into approximately three equal groups. A person with a *high total self-disclosure* would be characterized as willing to disclose detailed personal information regarding his or her feelings and thoughts on almost any topic, whereas the *low discloser* may be seen as willing to discuss only certain topics and only on a superficial level; *medium discloser* – disclosing an optimum amount of personal information - would fall in between these two extreme dispositional levels.

As suggested by Chelune (1977), a disclosure flexibility deviation score for all participants was computed in the following manner:

- I. First, each participant's response to the 16 SSI situations was subtracted from the corresponding items in the normative profile (developed in Part I of Study III).

2. Second, the absolute difference between the participants' responses to a given situation and the corresponding norm were converted to standard scores and summed across the 16 situations for each participant.

The resulting deviation score represented the degree to which the subjects were willing to vary their disclosures in an appropriate or normative fashion in response to varying social-situational cues. High and low Flexibility Level groups were composed by rank ordering subjects on their disclosure deviation scores and taking a median split. A person with *low flexibility deviation score* may be characterized as willing to vary his or her disclosures in an appropriate or normative fashion in response to varying social-situational cues, while a person with a *high flexibility deviation score* may be thought of as disclosing in a deviant or nonappropriate manner given the demands of the situation.

Results

Table 1 shows means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI).

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Reliability of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) and the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI) (N = 150)

Scales	No. of			Alpha
	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Coefficient
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	35	133.66	15.45	.81
Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)	16	46.15	9.15	.76

In order to find out the relationship between general self-disclosure, self-disclosure flexibility and personal growth correlation coefficients were computed among these variables.

Table 2

Correlation Coefficients Between General Self-disclosure, Self-disclosure Flexibility and Personal Growth (N= 150)

Variables	I	II	III
Personal Growth	-		
General Self-disclosure	.15, $p < .06$	-	
Self-disclosure Flexibility	.32, $p < .000$.11, $p < .08$	-

As shown in Table 2 a correlation of .15 ($p < .06$) was found between personal growth and general level of self-disclosure, whereas personal growth was associated with self-disclosure flexibility with a correlation of .32 ($p < .000$). To test the third hypothesis of the study means scores of IPG were compared on low flexibility deviation group and high flexibility deviation group. Mean scores and standard deviations for this analysis are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for 2 X Flexibility Level on IPG (150)

2 X Flexibility Level	N	M	SD
Low Flexibility Deviation Group	74	133	16
High Flexibility Deviation Group	76	126	13
Total	150	129	16

The results of means have also been presented in the form of a graph, as shown in Figure 1.

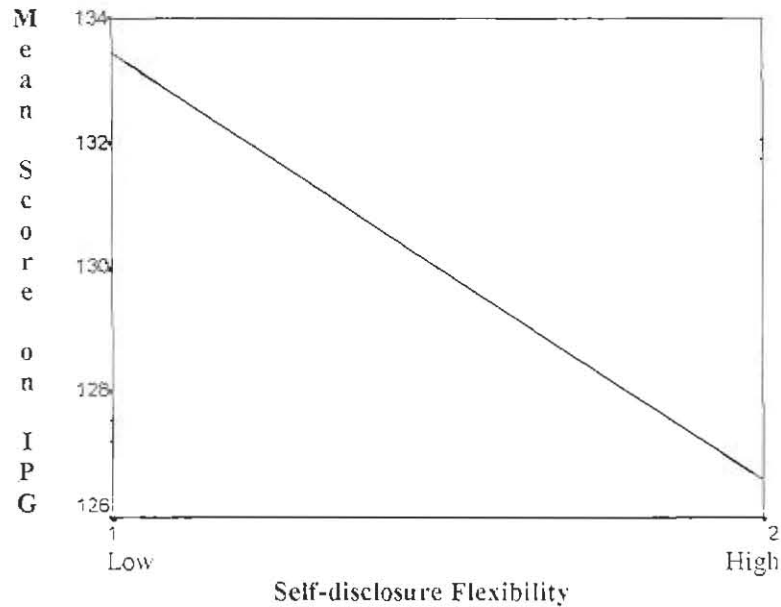


Figure 1. Mean levels of IPG for high and low disclosure flexibility deviation groups.

As can be seen in Table 3 and Figure 1, individuals scoring high on IPG showed more approximation to the normative group in disclosing personal information than high flexibility deviation group. In order to test the fourth hypothesis of the present study, low flexibility deviation group and high flexibility deviation group were compared across three levels of dispositional disclosure on personal growth. Mean scores and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of IPG 3 X 2 Total Self-disclosure and Flexibility Level (N=150)

3 X Total Self-disclosure	2 X Flexibility Level	N	M	SD
1 (low discloser group)	1 (low deviation)	21	130	14
	2 (high deviation)	29	123	17
	Total	50	126	16
2 (medium discloser group)	1 (low deviation)	35	137	14
	2 (high deviation)	14	127	15
	Total	49	134	14
3 (high discloser group)	1 (low deviation)	18	129	16
	2 (high deviation)	33	129	15
	Total	51	129	16

The mean scores have also been presented in the form of a graph (Figure 2).

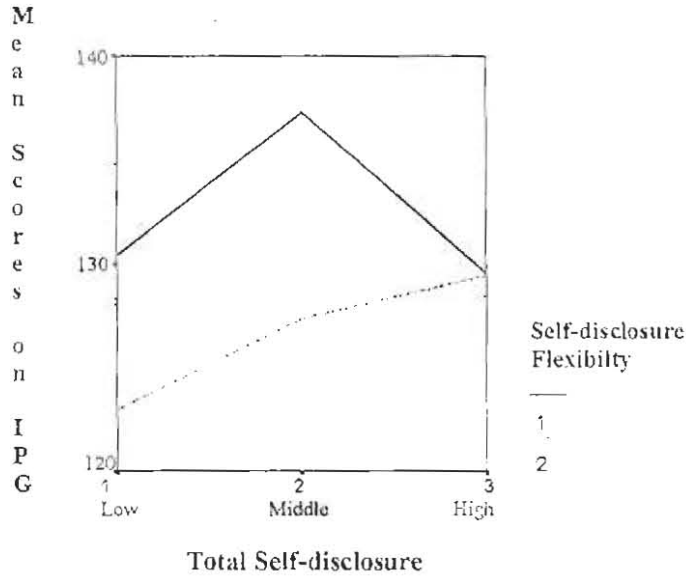


Figure 2. Mean levels of IPG for high and low disclosure flexibility deviation groups across three levels of dispositional self-disclosure.

As obvious from Table 4 and Figure 2, individuals belonging to medium discloser and low flexibility deviation group showed more personal growth than those belonging to low and high discloser and high flexibility deviation group.

Discussion

A correlation coefficient of .15 ($p < .06$) between total self-disclosure and personal growth verified the first hypothesis of the study that self-disclosure would be positively

associated with personal growth. Data also yielded a positive correlation coefficient of .32 ($p < .06$) between disclosure flexibility and personal growth. As anticipated, it was observed that the magnitude of correlation coefficient was quite weak between general self-disclosure and personal growth as compared to that of between self-disclosure flexibility and personal growth. The results, thus, confirmed the previous formulations and empirical findings that norm-appropriate modulation of disclosure patterns is more related to psychological health than self-disclosure per se.

This conclusion was further ascertained by comparing means of low flexibility group and high flexibility group on Index of Personal Growth (IPG). As shown in Table 3, individuals belonging to low flexibility deviation group ($M = 133$, $SD = 15$) were found to have higher mean scores on personal growth than the mean scores of individuals belonging to high flexibility deviation group ($M = 126$, $SD = 16$). Other researchers claim similar findings as well. For instance, Chelune and Figuero (1981) found that people who adapted their disclosures according to social-situational norms showed less psychological disturbance as compared to those who disclosed in a deviant manner. Researches have also shown that self-disclosure flexibility- the ability to modulate disclosure according to situational changes- is significantly related with mental health and social adjustment (Chaiken & Derlega, 1974; Chelune, 1979; Freeman & Giovannoni, 1969; Goodstein & Reinecker, 1974; Johnson, 1981; Tucker-Ladd, 2000), internal locus of control (Chelune, 1976b), and social competence (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991; Weimann & Backlund, 1980).

Results displayed in Table 4 vouches special attention. Across three levels of dispositional disclosure, individuals who exhibited optimum disclosure pattern scored

higher on IPG ($M = 134$, $SD = 14$) as compared to those who are predisposed to engage in minimum self-disclosure ($M = 126$, $SD = 16$) or who most frequently disclose detailed personal information in an uninhibited manner ($M = 129$, $SD = 16$). These results support the curvilinear model of self-disclosure as proposed by Jourard (1964). However, a significant difference in personal growth level was found among the medium disclosers depending on whether they adhere to social norms across situations (low deviation group) or deviate from them (high deviation group). That is, individuals whose disclosure pattern is optimum and generally in consonance with the demands of the social-situational norms are more accepting towards oneself and others, are more goal-oriented, spontaneous, and autonomous ($M = 137$, $SD = 14$), that is, have achieved high levels of personal growth as compared to those individuals who have not learned the discriminant cues that signal whether disclosure is appropriate or inappropriate ($M = 127$, $SD = 15$). This finding is also in agreement with earlier studies, which have shown that disclosure flexibility is an important correlate of personality health among medium disclosers (Chelune & Figueroa, 1981) and that it reflects perceptual awareness of social-situational norms governing the appropriateness of self-disclosing behavior (Chelune, 1977). Thus, as observed by Goffman and others, adherence to the rules governing social encounters is an important mediator in the relationship between self-disclosure and psychological adjustment (1950, 1963, 1967).

Moreover, the results displayed in Table 4 also show that among the low discloser group, individuals who vary their disclosure in a norm-appropriate manner obtained high scores on IPG ($M = 130$, $SD = 14$) than those individuals who disclose in a deviant fashion given the demands of a situation ($M = 123$, $SD = 17$). However, contrary to the expectations, no difference was found among high disclosers as regards their level of

personal growth. Both low flexibility level individuals as well as high flexibility level individuals belonging to high discloser group obtained a mean score of 129 ($SD = 16$ and 15 , respectively) on IPG. One reason behind this discrepancy might lie in the manner of high disclosing group with which they reveal information about their opinions and feelings. Since individuals of this group are already characterized by an unregulated disposition to disclose detailed personal information on almost any topic, it might be therefore meaningless to expect from them to show variations in their disclosure pattern lest in a norm-appropriate fashion.

Overall, the results of the present study provided interesting evidence to the theory linking self-disclosure with personal growth/self-actualization. The concept of self-disclosure originally grew out of Jourard's interest in healthy personality. Initially, it was proposed that individuals who reveal themselves to others are also in the process of discovering and learning about their own selves. Soon it was realized that too much or too little disclosure under certain circumstances might be a characteristic of personality and interpersonal disturbances. Thus, it was extended that self-disclosure is related with psychological health in a curvilinear manner. That is, as compared to low and high disclosures, medium disclosures were thought to be high in mental health. However, neither the linear nor the curvilinear model received much empirical support. As pointed out by Chelune and Figueroa (1981), that if Jourard was correct in assuming that there is an optimal amount of disclosure for a given situation, then healthy individuals would be expected to appropriately vary the amount of their disclosures from situation to situation in response to social-situational norms, whereas maladjusted individuals would probably chronically over- or under-disclose with respect to social situational demands. The results

of the present study thus provided ample evidence that self-disclosure flexibility was indeed the missing link, which affected the curvilinear model proposed by Jourard.

In general, the results of the present study also provided substantial evidence to the suggestion that the ability or willingness for self-disclosure should be examined in terms of a 'particular appropriate behavior' in interpersonal situations rather than a consistent trait (see for example, Altman & Taylor, 1973; Cozby, 1973; Solano, Batten, & Parish, 1982). That is, it appears that people generally tend to vary their disclosures in accordance to the demands of different social-situations cues (Cozby, 1973; Goodstein & Reinecker, 1974).

The primary intent of the Study III was to determine the construct validity of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) with the theoretically linked construct, self-disclosure. The results of the study, thus, provide further evidence of the construct validity of the scale.

STUDY 3

Familial and Dispositional Predictors of Personal Growth

and the Role of Internal Locus of Control and Self-disclosure Flexibility as Mediators

Objectives of the Study

Study 3 was designed to explore the extent to which familial variable namely, perceived parenting style and dispositional variables including internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility predict personal growth among University students.

Another major consideration of the present study was to identify the mechanisms in parent-child system that determines individuals' degree of personal growth. Two possible pathways were tested. The first model implicated internal locus of control as a significant mediator between perceived parenting style and personal growth, while the second model assumed self-disclosure flexibility as a potential mediator enhancing the effect of parenting on personal growth.

Hypotheses

In order to fulfill the objectives of the Study 3, various propositions were extended in accordance with each objective. Details appear below.

Objective 1

The first objective of the study was to examine the predictability of personal growth from three modes of paternal and maternal parenting style (authoritarian, authoritative & permissiveness). In order to accomplish this goal, following hypotheses were formulated:

1. Perceived parental authoritative control (paternal and maternal) will be positively related with personal growth, while perceived parental authoritarian and permissive control will be negatively related with personal growth.
2. Perceived parental control (paternal and maternal) will predict personal growth.

Objective 2

In order to find out the predictability of personal growth from dispositional variables, internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility, following hypotheses were tested:

1. There will be a positive correlation between internal locus of control and personal growth.
2. Internal locus of control will predict personal growth.
3. There will be a positive correlation between self-disclosure flexibility and personal growth.

4. Self-disclosure flexibility will predict personal growth.

Objective 3

Central to third objective, was the goal of examining the mediational role of internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility between parenting style and personal growth. For this purpose, the hypotheses proposed are given below:

1. Perceived parental authoritative control (paternal and maternal) will be positively related with internal locus of control, while perceived parental authoritarian and permissive control will be negatively related with internal locus of control.
2. Perceived parental authoritative control (paternal and maternal) will be positively related with self-disclosure flexibility, while perceived parental authoritarian and permissive control will be negatively related with self-disclosure flexibility.
3. Internal locus of control will mediate between the three modes of perceived paternal and maternal control (authoritarian, authoritative & permissiveness) and personal growth.
4. Self-disclosure flexibility will mediate between the three modes of perceived paternal and maternal control (authoritarian, authoritative & permissiveness) and personal growth.

Method

Sample

For the present study, the sample consisted of 200 students of various M.Sc. programs. Hundred men and hundred women participants, age ranging from 20 to 24 years ($M = 22.5$, $SD = 1.9$), were included in the study on voluntary basis. The participants belonged to following educational institutes: Arid Agricultural University, Rawalpindi; Hamdard University, Islamabad; Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad; and Post-Graduate College for Women, Rawalpindi. From the total number of participants, 30% were from the different departments of social sciences and 70% were from natural sciences. While, 80% belonged to urban area and 20% belonged to rural area.

Definitions of the Study Variables

Definitions of the study variables are given below.

Personal Growth

Personal growth refers to a continuous and purposeful development of the human person toward the full potential of what he or she can become (O'Connell & O'Connell, 1974). According to Jones and Crandall (1986), personal growth/self-actualization is defined as,

the discovery of real self and its expression and development.

On the basis of the above-given definition, Index of Personal Growth (IPG) has been developed (Study 1). According to IPG, the construct of personal growth consists of following dimensions: *Acceptance of self & others, Purpose in life, Spontaneity, and Autonomy.*

Internal Locus of Control

Internal locus of control refers to a generalized belief that reinforcement is contingent upon one's own behavior (Duttweiler, 1994). According to Stietz (1982),

when an event is interpreted as contingent upon one's own behavior or one's own relatively permanent characteristics the belief is labeled as internal locus of control.

In other words, individuals who perceive reinforcements as direct consequence of their actions are said to have an internal locus of control (Raine et al., 1982).

Self-disclosure Flexibility

Self-disclosure refers to the process by which persons let themselves be known to others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991). According Chelune (1977), self-disclosure flexibility is defined as:

the ability of an individual to adequately differentiate various situational and interpersonal cues and adapt his or her disclosures accordingly.

Parental Control

Parental control or parental authority refers to in what manner, how often and to what extent do parents exercise authority and control over their children (Buri, 1991). It refers to parents' attempts to integrate the child into the family and society by demanding behavioral compliance (Baumrind, 1966). In other words, it is the parents' orientation in terms of the management of parent-child disciplinary conflicts (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). It is the amount and type of autonomy that parents allow their children. In the present study, three modes of parental authority i.e., authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive control, leading to three forms of parenting behavior are studied. The operational definitions of the three forms of parental authority are given below:

1. *Authoritative Parents:* Authoritative parents provide clear and firm directions to children, but disciplinary clarity is moderated by warmth, reason, flexibility, and verbal give-and-take.
2. *Authoritarian Parents:* Authoritarian parents are highly directive with their children and value unquestioning obedience in their exercise of authority over their children. Being detached and less warm than other parents, the authoritarian parents discourage verbal give-and take and favor punitive measures to control their children's behavior.

3. *Permissive Parents*: Permissive parents make fewer demands on their children than other parents, allowing them to regulate their own activities as much as possible; are relatively non controlling and use minimum of punishment.

Instruments

Following instruments have been used in the study of present investigation.

Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

Index of Personal Growth (IPG) is a 35-item self-report multidimensional instrument, which propounds to measure individual differences on personal growth/self-actualization (Annexure H). It is a 5-point Likert type rating scale with response options ranging from 'strongly agree' (5), 'agree' (4), 'undecided' (3) to 'disagree' (2) and 'strongly disagree' (1). Of the total, 18 items are positively scored while 17 are negatively worded. IPG is appropriate for young adult population. The mean score on the total scale of IPG = 132 with $SD = 15$.

Reliability Estimates

Reliability estimates (Study 1) demonstrated IPG as an internally consistent measure of personal growth. Cronbach's alpha for the total 35-item scale was found to be .80, while split-half reliability coefficient being .78. Corrected item-total correlation indices (range = .27 to .52) provided further support to the conclusion that IPG is a reliable instrument.

Factorial Validity

Principal components analysis followed by varimax rotation demonstrated IPG to consist of four conceptually distinct factors, collectively explaining 34.7% of total variance. Consistent with Maslow's theory of Self-actualization (1970) and Jones and Crandall's propositions (1986), these factors were labeled as *Acceptance of Self & Others*, *Purpose in Life*, *Spontaneity*, and *Autonomy*. Cronbach's alpha for the subscales were found to be as following: Acceptance of self & Others = .63; Purpose in Life = .62; Spontaneity = .60; Autonomy = .60.

Validity Studies

Convergent validity study has shown that Index of Personal Growth (IPG) is significantly related ($r = .63, p < .000$) with an established measure of self-actualization, namely Short Index of Self-actualization (SI). The discriminant validity studies have demonstrated that IPG is also related with internal locus of control ($r = .45, p < .000$) and self-disclosure ($r = .15, p < .06$) and self-disclosure flexibility ($r = .32, p < .000$).

Levenson's Locus of Control Scale (LEVELOC)

Internal locus of control was measured through a subscale of Levenson's Locus of Control Scale (LEVELOC, 1974), namely 'Internality'. This scale consists of 8 items, each with a five-point rating scale arranged on following response levels:

Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Undecided (3)
Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)	

For the present study, the Urdu-translated version of Internal Locus of Control Scale was used (Annexure I). Maximum score that can be obtained on this scale is 40 whereas minimum score that can be obtained is 8.

Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

SSI consists of 16 different social situations, which is aimed at sampling various social interactions in which young adults may be involved (Annexure N). Reaction to each social situation is recorded on a five-numbered response scale, where numbers from 1 to 5 are to be understood as indicating gradually increasing degrees of willingness to disclose at personal level in that situation. The mean score for the total scale is 45, whereas standard deviation is 9.01.

Reliability Estimates

Cronbach's alpha for the whole SSI is .76, while the split-half reliability coefficient also being .76. Item to total correlations of 16 social situations range from .31 to .60. The various reliability estimates collectively reflect the overall internal consistency of the scale.

Factorial Validity

Principal components analysis followed by varimax rotation was employed to determine the factorial validity of SSI. Results indicated that 16 situations equally divided into two groups of 8 items according to one of two target persons (friend alone/group of friends and stranger alone/group of strangers) and various levels of physical-setting

conditions scaled for intimacy. Altogether SSI explains 36% of total variance, whereas the first factor accounted for 18.89% and the second factor 17.38% of total variance. Cronbach's alpha has also been computed for the two factors. Alpha for both subscales is .79.

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)

In the present study, an Urdu language version of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Babree & Tariq, 1998) (Annexure O & P) was used to measure the variable of parental authority. This scale was originally developed by Buri (1991), based on Baumrind's three dimensional model of parental authority: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive style. It can be used with both women and men who are older adolescents or young adults (Buri, 1991).

PAQ is a 30-item, Likert type of questionnaire, with 10 items per style. PAQ assess the magnitude and manner in which authority is exercised. Each item of the questionnaire is stated from the point of view of an individual evaluating the patterns of parental authority as perceived by the respondent. Responses to each of these items were made on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The questionnaire consists of two parts. Each part is comprised of 30 items and yields permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative score. The part I measure attitude of father towards child (Annexure O) and Part II measures attitude of mother towards child (Annexure P). Hence, the PAQ yields six separate scores for each participant: mother's permissiveness, mother's authoritarianism, mother's authoritativeness, father's permissiveness, father's authoritarianism, and father's authoritativeness. Scores on each of these variables can

range from 10 to 50. The higher the score, the greater the appraised level of the parental authority prototype measured.

Reliability Estimates

Both the test-retest reliability coefficient and the Cronbach alpha values are highly respectable, given the fact that there are only 10 items per scale. The testing sessions over the two weeks period yielded the following reliabilities ($N = 61$, Mean age = 19.2 years): .81 for mother's permissiveness; .78 for mother's authoritativeness, .86 for mother's authoritarianism, .81 for mother's permissiveness, .92 for father's authoritativeness, .85 for father's authoritarianism and .77 for father's permissiveness. Cronbach coefficient alpha values for each of the six PAQ scales are: .75 for mother's permissiveness, .85 for mother's authoritarianism, .82 for mother's authoritativeness, .74 for father's permissiveness, .82 for father's authoritarianism, .87 for father's authoritativeness.

The Urdu-translated version of PAQ has also been subjected to correlation alpha and item-total correlation to determine its reliability and internal consistency. Cronbach coefficient alpha values for each of the six PAQ scales were found to be as follows: authoritative father .79 and mother .79, authoritarian father .79 and mother .85, and permissive father .85 and mother .85 (Babree & Tariq, 1998). These indices provide sufficient evidence that translated version of PAQ can be used to measure parental control in Pakistani sample.

Validity Studies

Studies have shown significant associations between PAQ with self-esteem (Buri, 1989, 1991; Buri, Louiselle, Misukanis, & Mueller, 1988), procrastination (Fereari & Olivette, 1994), and aggression (Babree & Tariq, 1998).

Discriminant-related validity showed that mother's authoritarianism was inversely related to mother's permissiveness ($r = -.38, p < .000$) and to mother's authoritativeness ($r = -.48, p < .000$). Similarly, father's authoritarianism was inversely related to father's permissiveness ($r = -.50, p < .000$) and to father's authoritativeness ($r = -.52, p < .000$). Also, mother's permissiveness was not significantly related to mother's authoritativeness ($r = .07, p > .10$), and father's permissiveness was not significantly correlated with father's authoritativeness ($r = .12, p > .10$) (Buri, 1991). In another study, criterion-related validity was established by finding the correlation between PAQ scores and Parental Nurture Scale (Buri, Misukanis, & Mueller, 1988) scores. The following bivariate correlation between the scores of two scales were obtained: the authoritative parents were found to be highest in parental nurturance for both mothers ($r = .56, p < .000$) and fathers ($r = .68, p < .000$); authoritarian parenting was inversely related to nurturance for both mothers ($r = -.36, p < .000$) and fathers ($r = -.53, p < .000$); and parental permissiveness was related to nurturance for both mothers ($r = .04, p > .10$) and fathers ($r = .13, p > .10$). These results confirmed that parental warmth is a dimension of parental authority that is inherent in the PAQ measurement (Buri, 1991).

Procedure

In the final stage of fieldwork, Index of Personal Growth (IPG), Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS), Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI), and two forms of Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (one for each parent) were given to each participant. As before, for IPG and ILCS the participants were required to answer each item keeping in view their own personality. In order to respond to SSI, the students were instructed to read each situation carefully and then imagine oneself in each situation and then rate on a 5-point scale the general level of disclosure that he/she would be comfortable with in that situation. As for Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), the participants were required to complete the two forms separately, one for father and the other for mother, as they perceived of each statement applied to them and their father and mother during the first fifteen years of growing up at home. The participants were also instructed not to leave any statement blank. After the forms were completed, they were thoroughly checked whether all the items were marked or not

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients of Study Measures

Table 1 displays means, standards deviations, and alpha coefficients for the measures under study in the present investigation ($N=200$).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients of the Study Measures (N=200)

Scales	No. of			Alpha
	Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Coefficient
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)	35	132.69	18.59	.82
Paternal Control Parenting Style	30	103.33	11.05	.69
Maternal Control Parenting Style	30	101.45	12.06	.69
Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS)	8	31.55	4.60	.67
Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)	16	30.55	3.84	.74

Zero-Order Correlations Among the Study Measures

As a preliminary step in analyses, zero order correlations were computed between personal growth and three modes of parenting style (paternal and maternal), internal locus of control, and self-disclosure flexibility. Table 2 presents correlation matrix on the relationship between these variables.

Table 2

Zero-Order Correlations Among Study Variables (N=200)

Constructs	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
I Personal Growth	-	.17	.43	-.13	-.06	.48	.33
		<i>p</i> <.05	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.08	<i>p</i> <.38	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.00
II Parental Control	.15	-	.66	.35	.49	.35	.18
	<i>p</i> <.06		<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.03
III Authoritative Control	.32	.56	-	-.24	.25	.43	.17
	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000		<i>p</i> <.001	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.04
IV Authoritarian Control	-.13	.42	-.20	-	-.28	.07	-.06
	<i>p</i> <.07	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.005		<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.32	<i>p</i> <.43
V Permissive Control	.05	.52	.23	-.28	-	.05	-.13
	<i>p</i> <.51	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.001	<i>p</i> <.000		<i>p</i> <.53	<i>p</i> <.07
VI Internal Locus of Control	.48	.25	.30	.05	.18	-	.10
	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.48	<i>p</i> <.01		<i>p</i> <.09
VII Self-Disclosure Flexibility	.33	.15	.19	-.11	-.05	.10	-
	<i>p</i> <.000	<i>p</i> <.04	<i>p</i> <.03	<i>p</i> <.11	<i>p</i> <.51	<i>p</i> <.09	

Note. Results for mothers are below the diagonal, results for fathers are above the diagonal.

As expected, both fathers' ($r = .17$) and mothers' ($r = .15$) parenting style and internal locus of control ($r = .48$) and self-disclosure flexibility ($r = .33$) were found to be positively associated with personal growth (Table 5). Analyses of correlations obtained between fathers' and mothers' three modes of parental control with personal growth indicated that authoritative fathers and mothers seem to have children with high levels of personal growth as compared to authoritarian and permissive fathers and mothers.

Interestingly, comparison among authoritative fathers and mothers indicated that association of paternal authoritative-ness was stronger with personal growth than of maternal authoritative-ness with personal growth.

The present study also assumed a positive correlation between authoritative paternal and maternal parenting style with internal locus of control and with self-disclosure flexibility, as compared to authoritarian and permissive parenting style. With regards to the relationship of paternal and maternal parenting style with internal locus of control, a significant positive correlation was found between the variables. In depth analysis of the results showed that among the three modes of paternal and maternal parenting style, fathers' and mothers' authoritative parenting was significantly related with internal locus of control as compared to paternal and maternal authoritarian and permissive parenting style. As is the case with personal growth, comparison among paternal and maternal authoritative-ness, results demonstrated that the correlation between fathers' authoritative-ness was stronger with internal locus of control than the correlation of mothers' authoritative-ness with internal locus of control.

With regards to the relationship of parental control (paternal and maternal) and its three modes of control with self-disclosure flexibility, a weak but significant correlation was found. The present investigation proposed that authoritative parenting would be positively whereas authoritarian and permissive parenting will be negatively related with self-disclosure flexibility. Analyses of the results obtained showed that there were in expected direction, however, correlation indices were quite weak.

In line with theoretical propositions, the present study also hypothesized a positive relationship between internal locus of control, self-disclosure flexibility, and personal growth. Table 6 shows that internal locus of control is significantly related with personal growth. Moreover, a significant positive correlation was also found between personal growth and self-disclosure flexibility. On the other hand, correlation between self-disclosure flexibility and internal locus of control was in the positive direction but not significant.

Regression Analyses

In the next set of analyses, multiple correlations were computed to examine the predictability of individuals' level of personal growth from each set of predictors.

Effects of Familial Predictors

First multiple regression analyses were conducted on participants' level of personal growth to determine the extent to which authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting style of fathers as well as mothers predict their child's personal growth. Table 3 shows the results of multiple correlations computed between personal growth and three modes of paternal control, whereas, multiple correlations between personal growth and three modes of maternal control are presented in Table 4.

Table 3

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from the Three Modes of Paternal Control (N=200)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Estm.
Regression	3	15284.05	5094.68	18.65	.22	.47	16.53
Error	196	53550.73	273.22	$p < .000$			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig
Intercept	113.14	10.71		10.57	.000
Authoritative Parenting	1.10	.16	.47	7.03	.000
Authoritarian Parenting	-.17	.16	-.07	-1.05	.295
Permissive Parenting	-.58	.20	-.20	-2.96	.004

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from the Three Modes of Maternal Control (N=200)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Estim.
Regression	3	7309.85	2436.62	7.77	.11	.33	17.72
Error	196	61524.93	313.90	$p < .000$			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig.
Intercept	103.01	13.58		7.59	.000
Authoritative Parenting	.99	.22	.31	4.44	.000
Authoritarian Parenting	-.20	.18	-.08	-1.10	.27
Permissive Parenting	-.14	.22	-.05	-.66	.51

Results displayed in Table 3 and 4 show that for the dependent variable, personal growth, the proportion of variance explained by the three modes of paternal parenting in the model is .22, $F = 18.65$, $p < .000$, while the proportion of variance accounted by the three modes of maternal parenting in the second model is .11, $F = 7.77$, $p < .000$. Examination of the magnitudes of the beta coefficients suggested that both fathers' ($\beta = .47$, $p < .000$) and mothers' ($\beta = .31$, $p < .000$) authoritative-ness contributed significantly to the total effect of parental control on personal growth. As regards to the authoritarian parenting, beta coefficients for fathers ($\beta = -.07$, $p < .30$) as well as for mothers ($\beta = -.08$,

$p < .27$) did not reach statistical significance. Moreover, the beta coefficients for fathers' ($\beta = -.20, p < .04$) attained marginal significance, whereas mother's permissiveness ($\beta = -.047, p < .51$) was found to be non-significant.

Effects of Dispositional Predictors

Following this, linear regression analysis was carried out to explore the amount of variance explained by internal locus of control in personal growth. Table 5 shows that personal growth is significantly predicted from internal locus of control.

Table 5

Linear Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from Internal Locus of Control (N=200)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Estm.
Regression	1	15664.61	15664.61	58.33	.23	.48	16.39
Error	198	53170.17	268.54	$p < .000$			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig.
Intercept	71.97	8.03		8.96	.000
Internal Locus of Control	1.93	.25	.48	7.64	.000

This model accounted for 23% of total variance ($F = 58.33, p < .000$) in personal growth. The magnitude of beta was also found to be significantly strong ($\beta = .48, t = 7.64, p < .000$).

Similarly, multiple correlations was computed to determine the predictability of personal growth from self-disclosure flexibility. According to the results displayed in Table 6, self-disclosure flexibility accounted for a significant but a small proportion of variance in personal growth (.11, $F = 23.89, p < .000$), though the magnitude of beta was found to be significant ($\beta = .33, t = 4.89, p < .000$).

Table 6

Linear Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from Self-disclosure Flexibility

($N=200$)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Estm.
Regression	1	7411.91	7411.91	23.89	.11	.33	17.61
Error	198	61422.87	310.23	$p < .000$			
Total	199	68834.78					
Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig.		
Intercept	84.08	10.02		8.39	.000		
Self-disclosure							
Flexibility	1.59	.33	.33	4.89	.000		

In general, the results of multiple regression analyses showed that authoritative fathers and mothers tend to have children, who have positive attitudes towards themselves,

are tolerant of others, goal directed, believes in freedom of expression, and are relatively independent of physical and social constraints. Moreover, individuals who are more internally controlled and adjust their willingness to reveal personal information in a normative manner are more likely to exhibit high degree of personal growth.

Path Analysis

The second major objective of the present study was to determine the mechanisms through which parents influence the personal growth of their children. Two possible pathways were tested in the present research work, which are depicted in Figure 2.

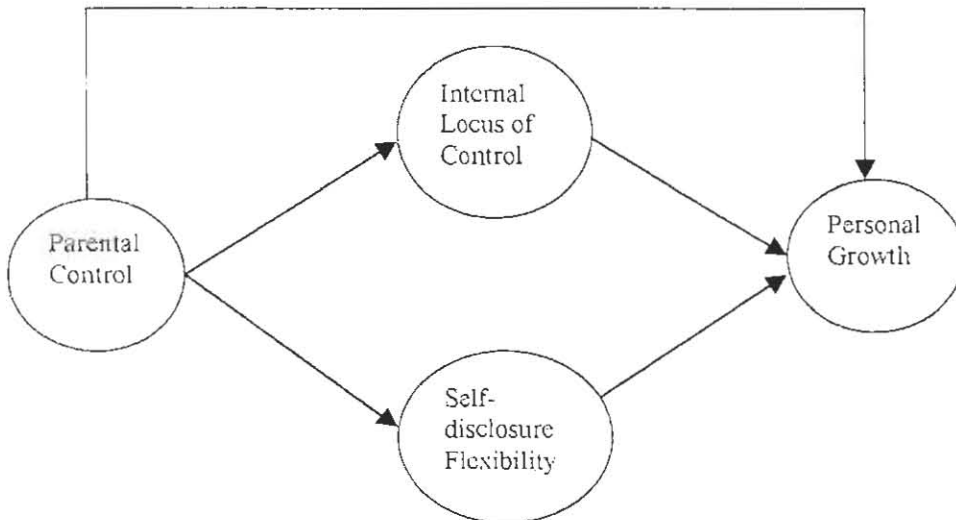


Figure 2. Proposed pathways linking parental control with personal growth.

The first pathway proposes internal locus of control as the potential mediator whereas the second pathway hypothesizes that the ability to modulate one's willingness to

reveal information about oneself appropriately another potential variable to mediate the influence of parenting style on personal growth.

Baron and Kenny (1986) have provided extensive guidelines for detecting mediation, which specifically includes three requirements. First, the independent variable (e.g., paternal authoritativeness) and the mediator variable (e.g., internal locus of control) must be related with each other. Second, the mediator variable and the dependent variable must be related when analyses adjust for the independent variable. Third, the direct relation between the independent variable and the dependent variable must be reduced once analyses adjust for the mediator variable. Table 2 shows that as the correlations computed between the variables under study were all inter-correlated in the expected directions, therefore, the first requirement of the Baron and Kenny's criteria for detecting mediation that the independent and dependent variables should be related with each other, was fulfilled. In order to achieve the second two criterions, the technique of path analysis was employed.

Path analysis stands out as an analytic method of great potential value used to test the goodness of fit of the model (Olweus, 1980). Path analysis implies that the researcher, on the basis of previous findings and theoretical considerations, formulates a causal model that is intended to represent an approximation of the hypothetical causal relations among the variables included in the model. The model is usually portrayed in the form of path diagram, with unidirectional arrows indicating the relationship of independent, intermediary, and dependent variables, thereby displaying the causal influence of one variable on another. Exogenous variables in a path model include independent variables, with no explicit causes, whereas endogenous variables include causal variables and

dependents. Causal paths to a given variable, thus, include (1) the direct paths from arrows of exogenous variables leading to it and (2) the indirect paths from intervening endogenous variables leading to it. Using multiple regression techniques, the parameters of the equations are estimated and the adequacy of the model is assessed.

Path analysis is particularly sensitive to model specification because failure to include relevant causal variables or inclusion of extraneous variables often substantially affects the path coefficients, which are used to assess the relative importance of various direct and indirect causal paths to dependent variable. Since among the three modes of parenting style, only authoritative parenting was found to significantly predict (as obvious from the magnitude of the beta of authoritative parenting) the variables under study, therefore further analyses were restricted to fathers' and mothers' authoritative parenting. That is, the causal linkages with estimated path coefficients of negligible magnitude (authoritarian and permissive parenting) were eliminated from the final model.

Prediction of Personal Growth from Paternal and Maternal Authoritative Parenting via Internal Locus of Control

In the present study, the first proposal that internal locus of control mediated the link between personal growth and paternal and maternal authoritative parenting was tested by conducting a series of separate regression for fathers and mothers in which internal locus of control and paternal authoritative parenting were entered together followed by internal locus of control and maternal authoritative parenting entered together. These results are presented in Table 7 and 8.

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from Authoritative Paternal Control and Internal Locus of Control (N=200)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Estm.
Regression	2	20042.56	10021.27	40.46	.29	.54	15.73
Error	197	48792.23	247.68	<i>p</i> <.000			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig.
Intercept	61.22	8.12		7.53	.000
Internal Locus of Control	1.44	.27	.36	5.38	.000
Authoritative Parenting	.66	.16	.28	4.20	.000

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from Authoritative Maternal Control and Internal Locus of Control (N=200)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Estm.
Regression	2	17961.92	8980.96	34.77	.26	.51	16.06
Error	197	50872.85	258.24	<i>p</i> <.000			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig.
Intercept	54.07	9.90		5.46	.000
Internal Locus of Control	1.70	.26	.42	6.55	.000
Authoritative Parenting	.61	.20	.19	2.98	.003

Analyzing the correlation matrix and multiple correlations displayed in Table 2, 7, and 8, it was found that all the criteria for mediation were met. The first criterion for mediation demanded that independent variable must be related with the mediator. The correlation coefficient of .43 ($p < .000$) for the link between authoritative fathers and .30 for authoritative mothers with personal growth indicated that paternal and maternal authoritative-ness (independent variable) is significantly related with internal locus of control, i.e., authoritative fathers and mothers are more likely to have children whose locus of control lie within themselves. Second requirement necessitated a significant relationship between the mediator variable and the dependent variable when analyses are adjusted for

the independent variable. The strength of the path coefficient remained significant between internal locus of control and personal growth when first fathers' authoritativeness [β (200) = .36, $p < .000$] and later maternal authoritativeness [β (200) = .42, $p < .000$] were also entered into the equations.

The last requirement expounded that the direct relation between the independent variable and the dependent variable must be reduced once analyses adjust for the mediator variable. In order to ascertain this criterion, the path coefficients in the model were decomposed into direct and indirect effects, which could be used to assess the total causal effects of independent variables on the dependent variable. If the total causal effect is greater than the direct effect or the indirect path coefficient of the exogenous variable is reduced in magnitude when analyses adjust for the mediator variable, then it will be deduced that exogenous as well intervening endogenous variable both interact to predict variance in the dependent variable.

Following tables show direct effect, indirect, and total causal effect of independent variables computed for personal growth. Table 9 presents analyses carried out for paternal authoritative parenting as the independent variable while Table 10 indicates results of path decomposition in which maternal authoritative parenting is considered as an exogenous variable.

Table 9

*Direct, Indirect, and Total Causal Effects on Personal Growth (Paternal Parenting)**(N=200)*

Variable	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Paternal Authoritative Parenting	.43	.08	.50
Internal Locus of Control	.48		

Table 10

*Direct, Indirect, and Total Causal Effects on Personal Growth (Maternal Parenting)**(N=200)*

Variable	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Maternal Authoritative Parenting	.32	.07	.39
Internal Locus of Control	.48		

According to the Tables 9 and 10, fathers (.43, $p < .000$) and mothers (.32, $p < .000$) who encourage children's independence and provide emotional support contribute directly to the development of personal growth in their children. Also there is a substantial indirect effect of fathers' (.28 X .36 = .08) and mothers' (.19 X .42 = .07) authoritativeness via internal locus of control. Fathers and mothers who exert control but also encourage children's striving for autonomy in appropriate areas are more likely to raise internally controlled children which in turn produces individuals with high levels of personal growth. Since the magnitude of total causal effect of independent variables (.50, for fathers and .39 for mothers) is greater than the exogenous variables (paternal and maternal), the findings suggest that parents' authoritativeness alone does not predict personal growth in individuals but interacts with dispositional variable, internal locus of control to produce maximum

effect. This was also evident in the goodness of fit of model. For the combined effects of paternal authoritative parenting and internal locus of control the model accounted for 29% of variance in personal growth ($F = 40.46, p < .000$), whereas maternal authoritative parenting and internal locus of control jointly explained 26 % of variance in personal growth ($F = 34.77, p < .000$).

As shown in Table 7 and 8, the direct causal effects between personal growth and fathers' [$\beta (200) = .28, p < .000$] and mothers' [$\beta (200) = .19, p < .000$] authoritativeness were also reduced once analyses were adjusted for internal locus of control. Thus, correlation indices and path coefficients (beta weights) provided substantial evidence to the proposition that internal locus of control mediates between the relationship of authoritative parenting and personal growth.

Prediction of Personal Growth from Paternal and Maternal Authoritative Parenting via Self-disclosure Flexibility

In the final stage of analyses, the proposal that the link between personal growth and paternal and maternal authoritative parenting is mediated through self-disclosure flexibility was investigated. Two separate sets of multiple regression analyses were carried out in which first the combined effect of paternal authoritative parenting and self-disclosure flexibility on personal growth was determined and then the joint effect of maternal authoritative parenting with self-disclosure flexibility on personal growth was assessed.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from Authoritative Paternal Control and Self-disclosure Flexibility (N=200)

Source	<i>DF</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F-Value</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i>	<i>SE Estm.</i>
Regression	2	17440.71	8720.36	33.43	.25	.50	16.15
Error	197	51394.07	260.88	<i>p</i> <.000			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD <i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	Sig.
Intercept	57.89	10.12		5.72	.000
Authoritative Parenting	.91	.15	.39	6.20	.000
Self-disclosure Flexibility	1.27	.30	.26	4.19	.000

Table 12

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Growth from Authoritative Maternal Control and Self-disclosure Flexibility (N=200)

Source	DF	SS	MS	F-Value	R ²	R	SE Eştm.
Regression	2	13287.86	6643.93	23.56	.19	.44	16.79
Error	197	55546.92	281.96	$p < .000$			
Total	199	68834.78					

Parameter	Estimate	STD ERR	STD B	T	Sig.
Intercept	48.87	12.28		3.98	.000
Self-disclosure					
Flexibility	1.48	.31	.31	4.77	.000
Authoritative					
Parenting	.93	.20	.29	4.57	.000

As recommended by the guidelines provided by Baron and Kenny (1986) for the detection of mediation, the perusal of results depicted in Table 2, 11, and 12 indicated that all the three criteria for mediation were fulfilled. First, self-disclosure flexibility was significantly found to be related with fathers' authoritative parenting ($r = .17, p < .04$) as well as mother's authoritative parenting ($r = .19, p < .03$). As required by the second criteria, the association between self-disclosure flexibility and personal growth remained significant, even when analyses adjusted for individuals' perception of paternal [$\beta (200) = .26, p < .000$] and maternal [$\beta (200) = .31, p < .000$] authoritative parenting.

The third requirement, that is, the direct relation between the independent variable and dependent variable must be reduced once analyses adjust for the mediator variable was met by decomposing the path coefficients in the model into direct and indirect effects and finding out the total causal effect of independent variables on the dependent variable, namely personal growth. Table 13 presents analyses carried out for paternal authoritative parenting as the exogenous variable while Table 14 indicates results of path decomposition in which maternal authoritative parenting is considered as an exogenous variable.

Table 13

Direct, Indirect, and Total Causal Effects on Personal Growth (Paternal Parenting)
(*N=200*)

Variable	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Paternal Authoritative Parenting	.43	.10	.50
Self-disclosure Flexibility	.33		

Table 14

Direct, Indirect, and Total Causal Effects on Personal Growth (Maternal Parenting)
(*N=200*)

Variable	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Maternal Authoritative Parenting	.32	.09	.41
Self-disclosure Flexibility	.33		

Table 13 and 14 indicated that paternal and maternal authoritative parenting had a significant direct impact on personal growth. Moreover, there is also a marked indirect

effect of fathers' ($.39 \times .26 = .10$) and mothers' ($.29 \times .31 = .09$) authoritativeness on personal growth via self-disclosure flexibility. Table 11 and 2 shows that the path coefficient of paternal [$\beta (200) = .39, p < .000$] and maternal authoritativeness [$\beta (200) = .29, p < .000$] were reduced, once the analyses were adjusted for the mediating variable. Thus, the total causal effect of fathers (.50, for fathers and .41 for mothers) and mothers authoritativeness and self-disclosure flexibility is greater than the direct effect of paternal and maternal authoritative parenting in predicting personal growth, thereby suggesting that self-disclosure flexibility is an important mediation variable. The proportion of variance explained by the two variables, paternal authoritative parenting and self-disclosure flexibility in personal growth was found to be 25%, $F = 33.43, p < .000$. While maternal authoritative parenting and self-disclosure flexibility jointly explained 19%, $F = 23.57, p < .000$ variance in personal growth.

Discussion

Study 3 was planned to determine the extent to which perceived parental control (paternal and maternal), internal locus of control, and self-disclosure flexibility predict personal growth among individuals and to investigate the role of internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility in mediating the relationship between perceived parenting style and personal growth.

Personal growth is essentially a process of discovering and expanding one's real self. It is an ongoing process of becoming more accepting towards one's true self, developing tolerance for individual differences, to rely more and more on one's

potentialities and latent resources for growth and development, to be free of pretences, and having some task to fulfill in life. The factors involved in facilitating personal growth among individuals have been a subject of major interest in psychology. Society and scholars equally recognize the significance of parenting as the most powerful environmental influence in the cognitive, social, and emotional development of human personality. Numerous investigations have implicated the role of parenting in facilitating positive outcomes in children such as cognitive and social competence, self-actualization, altruism or promoting negative outcomes such as aggression, delinquency, antisocial behavior and other severe forms of psychopathologies (Fletcher & Steinberg, 1999; Roberts & Steinberg, 1999). Thus, the first consideration of the present research work was to study the influence of perceived parenting style in facilitating or retarding the capacity of personal growth.

In order to study the influence of perceived parenting style, the present study utilized Diana Baumrind's model of parental control. After extensive research with parents and children, Baumrind (1966, 1971a, 1978, 1989, 1991) developed a most comprehensive and empirically validated models of parenting, in which nurturance and control dimensions were incorporated into a single conceptualization of parenting style. In her model, Baumrind distinguished among three general parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Authoritative parents tend to direct their children's behavior in a rational, issue-oriented manner by using reasoning and love and are more likely to have children and adolescents with higher levels of independence, personal responsibility, maturity, social skills and academic achievement (see Baumrind, 1989, 1991; Janssens & Dekovic, 1997; Roberts & Steinberg, 1999; Steinberg, 1996; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Sally, 2001). In contrast, authoritarian parents tend to be very directive and value obedience in their

children. Research has shown that such parents tend to have children and adolescents who are aggressive, lack social skills, and have low self-esteem (Kochanska et al., 2003; Snyder & Sickmund, 2000; Thompson, 1998; 2000). While permissive parents, who do not take an active role in determining and shaping their children's behavior, are more likely to have impulsive, overly aggressive, lacking in social skills and leadership potential and children and adolescents who do not have specific purposes in their life (Hawkins et al., 2000; Jacobson & Crockett, 2000; Steinberg, 1996).

Within the framework of parenting style extended by Baumrind, the present investigation hypothesized that personal growth will be positively predicted from authoritative parenting, whereas authoritarian and permissive parenting style will negatively impact personal growth of children. Correlations computed indicated that total paternal and maternal control although significantly but was not strongly related to personal growth. This was expected as total paternal and maternal control included three conceptually different dimensions. As anticipated positive association was found between authoritative paternal and maternal parenting style and personal growth. In contrast, a negative correlation was found for authoritarian and permissive fathers and mothers with personal growth. Subsequent multiple regression analyses revealed that the three modes of paternal parenting collectively explained 22% ($F = 18.67, p < .000$) of variance in personal growth while the three modes of maternal parenting together accounted for 11% ($F = 7.76, p < .000$) of variance in personal growth. Further examination of the relative path coefficients of authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting revealed that for fathers as well as mothers, this effect was mainly attributable to authoritative parenting style ($\beta = .47, p < .000$, for father and $\beta = .31, p < .000$). Whereas, fathers' and mothers' authoritarianism in predicting personal growth was non-significant, while fathers'

permissive parenting was found to marginally contribute to the variance in personal growth but mothers' permissive parenting style was again found to be non-significant.

Overall, the results are in consonance with previous studies. For instance, Nystul (1984) had earlier suggested that parents who help their children feel understood and appreciated, and who work with their children to establish consistent guidelines for appropriate behavior, create an environment in which self-actualization can occur. Similarly Dominguez and Carton (1997), on the basis of empirical investigation, have proposed that the verbal give and take, the use of positive reinforcement instead of punishment, and the independence training that characterize the authoritative parenting style facilitate self-actualization in college-aged children. In contrast the emphasis placed on total self-reliance, lack of guidance, and little emotional support that characterize the permissive parenting style appear to inhibit self-actualization.

Precisely, the results of this segment of the present study showed that as compared to authoritarian and permissive fathers and mothers, fathers and mothers who recognize their children's individuality, encourage verbal give-and-take, are accepting, nurturant, and engage their children in joint decision-making tend to have children who exhibit high levels of personal growth.

The present study was also intended to determine the predictability of personal growth from two dispositional personality variables, internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility. With regards to internal locus of control, various theoretical views and substantial empirical evidence has accumulated which proposes that individuals who believe that outcomes, whether good or bad, are the result of something they *themselves*

did are psychologically healthy (Cooper et al., 1995; Davis & Palladino, 2000; Haidt & Rodin, 1999), are hardy, self-actualized (Castellow & Hayes, 1983; Doyle, 1976; Hjelle, 1976; Lambert et al., 1976; Warehime & Foulds, 1971) and have more tendency to cope with the stresses of life and improve their life circumstances (Anderson, 1977; Lefcourt, 1982; Knapp, 1990). In line with this evidence, the present study hypothesized that personal growth will be significantly predicted from internal locus of control. In order to test this assertion, correlation coefficient and multiple correlations were computed. Correlation of .48 ($p < .000$) and multiple correlations of .23 ($F = 58.33, p < .000$) confirmed the notion that internal locus of control is an important predictor of personal growth. These results can be taken up to mean that individuals who believe that reinforcements and rewards in life are contingent upon their *own* behaviors and are not controlled by external forces, are motivated to explore their potentials and capabilities and discover and expand their real self, thus showing the ability of growth towards one's organism.

Similar analyses were conducted to examine the predictability of personal growth from self-disclosure flexibility. It is interesting to note that the very concept of self-disclosure emerged to explain how the tendency within individuals to reveal information about themselves to others allow humans to discover their true selves and expand and learn new modes of thinking and behaving. On the basis of clinical and empirical research work, Jourard (1968, 1974) observed that individuals who become alienated from their inner selves and who are not willing to experience the world openly become stagnant and eventually stop growing. Thus, he proposed that the ability to allow one's real self to be known to at least one significant other is a prerequisite to self-actualization, whereas low disclosure is indicative of a repression of self and inability to grow as a person. In other

words, Jourard looked at the notion of real self as a potentiality that emerges through communication. Since this assertion had an important implication for normal as well clinical population and for the counseling process, it initiated a vast number of studies. However, none of the studies could conclusively prove that self-disclosure always lead to the development of healthy personality. Subsequently it was proposed that persons who modulate their pattern of disclosure in a norm-appropriate manner in response to varying social-situational cues are more psychologically healthy as compared to those who deviate in their disclosure from the norms (Chelune, 1977; Chelune & Figueroa, 1981; Johnson, 1981; Tucker-Ladd, 2000). In the present investigation it was proposed that personal growth would be significantly predicted from self-disclosure flexibility. The correlation of .33 and R^2 of .11 ($F = 23.89, p < .000$) confirmed the proposition that individuals who reveal information about their feelings, opinions, and past events in a norm-relevant fashion are, in the process, likely to realize their own dispositions and tendencies. Thus, the results provide support to Jourard's and others argument that psychological health is a function of authentic interpersonal communication.

An important contribution of the present study was to investigate the potential mediators through which parenting becomes successful in predicting the level of personal growth in their children. As mentioned above, the multiple regression analyses conducted to determine the extent to which the three modes of parenting affect personal growth indicated that in contrast to authoritative parenting, authoritarian, and permissive parenting does not significantly predict personal growth. Therefore, further analyses were restricted to paternal and maternal authoritative parenting.

Thus, the present study hypothesized two models. According to the first model, internal locus of control act as a mediator between authoritative parents (fathers and mothers) and personal growth whereas the second model proposed that self-disclosure flexibility plays a contributory role in mediating the link of paternal and maternal authoritative parenting with personal growth. As a preliminary step in testing these models, a positive relationship was proposed between authoritative parenting (paternal and maternal, separately) and internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility, in keeping with prior studies. The correlation indices showed that authoritative parents tend to have children who are internally controlled ($r = .48, p < .000$) and vary their disclosures in norm-appropriate manner in response to different social-situational cues ($r = .33, p < .000$).

As regards the first model, the results indicated that the total variance explained by the combined effect of paternal authoritative parenting and internal locus of control (R^2 of .29, $F = 40.46, p < .000$) on personal growth was greater than the direct effects of either these two variables separately. Similarly, maternal authoritative parenting and internal locus of control together accounted for a larger proportion of variance than the separate direct effects of either these two variables (R^2 of .26, $F = 34.77, p < .000$). Thus, leading to the conclusion that internal locus of control is an important mediator between parenting and personal growth. However, in comparison, fathers were found to influence personal growth more in children than mothers. In brief, the present study provided substantial evidence that fathers and mothers who exert control but also encourage children's striving for autonomy in appropriate areas develops a tendency in their children to internally evaluate the outcomes of their behavior which, in turn, allows the children to discover and expand their true selves.

Turning to the second model, results also confirmed the notion that self-disclosure flexibility is a significant mediator between authoritative parenting as the proportion of variance explained by the two variables, authoritative fathers and self-disclosure together (R^2 of .25, $F = 33.45$, $p < .000$) in personal growth was greater than the direct effects of either of these variables separately. Although, the predictability of personal growth from the combined effect of mothers' authoritative parenting and self-disclosure flexibility was lesser than fathers' authoritative parenting and self-disclosure flexibility coupled together (R^2 of .19, $F = 23.56$, $p < .000$), on the whole it was substantial compared to the direct effects of maternal authoritative parenting and self-disclosure flexibility. Thus, the results showed that fathers and mothers who encourage verbal give and take, encourage their children to participate in discussing and formulating the rules and decisions taken at home cultivate in their children the ability to modulate their disclosures appropriately to meet the needs of changing situations. Such children may find themselves revealing personal information to their own benefits, that is, come into contact with their real selves.

In conclusion, the overall results of Study 3 suggest that the style of parenting hold important implications for the development of healthy personality, at least in Pakistan. The investigation of the relationship between personal growth and parental control has presented valuable information about the effective parental treatment necessary for producing psychologically sound human beings. It is safe to say that authoritative parenting works better than most other parenting styles in facilitating the development of self-accepting, goal-directed, spontaneous, and autonomous children. High levels of nurturance combined with moderate levels of parental control help adults be responsible child-rearing agents for their children and help children become mature, competent members of society. In addition, the present research has shown that authoritative

parenting also affects their children's generalized beliefs about their capacity to exert control over behavioral outcomes and significantly contributes to a tendency towards communicating effectively with other people. These capacities, in turn, allow children to guide their own continuing growth and development throughout their lives, so that they may become as fully human, as self-actualized, as they are capable of becoming.

CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

The concept of personal growth/self-actualization serves as a guiding role in our continuing effort to understand human existence (Coan, 1991). It is thought of as a highly desirable individual variable that has immense personal and social value. Personal growth is a concept which demands that we not only become harmonious to our potentials, capabilities, feelings, and emotions, that is our true nature, but also expand it to the benefits of our own and others existence. A prime goal, then, is to increase its presence to the maximum extent possible in any particular individual (Weiss, 1991). Within this reference, two issues are pertinent to the study of personal growth: a uniform measure of personal growth so that an individual's progress can be judged against a unified standard and an increased understanding of the paths and conditions (environmental influences or individual personalities) that favor realization of true self. The present study, thus, attempted to tackle both these issues.

The major significance of the present study was the development of a scale to measure personal growth for Pakistani population. Up till now, no attempt has been made to construct such a scale for our culture. Since a culturally relevant appraisal that also meets the requirements of reliability and validity is essential to assess individual differences on personal growth/self-actualization, the present research work was undertaken. For this purpose, the theoretical model of self-actualization proposed by Jones and Crandall (1986) was followed. The indigenously developed scale was named as Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Various statistical analyses

contingent on their own behavior. Similarly, the later study also demonstrated a positive correlation between those individuals who are in the process of self-discovery and expansion and who show a norm-appropriate variation in their disclosure patterns.

Thus on the basis of the results obtained from these studies, it would suffice to say that Index of Personal Growth (IPG) measures what it purports to measure. Index of Personal Growth (IPG) has a potential for evaluating individual differences i.e., distinguishing among those individuals who have psychologically grown up to an optimum level and those who have not. The scale is appropriate for use with adults. The instrument can be utilized in a number of settings like educational institutes to identify individuals who need attention in specific areas of life and may also serve as a useful tool for pre- and post-testing in clinical, counseling, and self-growth programs. It can also be utilized in organizations to assess the level of psychological development of employees, in order to increase the job satisfaction of the workers and thereby boost the productivity of the organizations. However, the generalizability of Index of Personal Growth (IPG) can further be extended for different age groups by collecting data on preadolescents, adolescents, and old-aged people.

The second major concern of the present study was its focus on the potential precursors of personal growth/self-actualization. Parenting style, internal locus of control, and self-disclosure flexibility are theoretically and empirically emphasized as important predictors of personal growth. The results of the present study also supported the past formulations and researches. It was found that parents who are responsive to the needs of their children, foster individuality and demand responsible behavior from them tend to produce children who are more

self-actualized than parents who are highly directive or show undue responsiveness towards their children. It was also found that individuals who believe that they have considerable control over the successes and failures in their lives and regulate their disclosure tendency according to the norms of the situations exhibit high levels of self-acceptance, tolerance for individual differences, goal-orientedness, spontaneity, and autonomy (personal growth/self-actualization).

Although substantial data exists appreciating the effects of positive parenting on the personal growth of their children, none of the studies have highlighted the intervening variables which make parental practices successful for such constructive outcomes. The present study proposed two theoretical models on the effects of parenting on their children's level of personal growth in which internality and self-disclosure flexibility were included as two important mediating variables. The first model suggested that optimal parenting affect children's generalized control expectancies which in turn influence these individuals' capacity for personal growth. Whereas, the second model proposed that parents who communicate with their children in a well regulated manner tend to have children who can adapt their disclosure patterns according to the demands of interpersonal and situational factors. This ability of disclosure flexibility would enable the children to know and discover their true selves as well. The results of the study clearly showed that just as parents who are able to balance their conformity demands with their respect for their children's individuality and who are comfortable in expressing their concerns or talking to their children about personal issues, so children from such homes tend to feel that their own actions have a direct bearing on the outcomes in the life and are willing to express their opinions and feelings in a well regulated manner. Laden with such dispositional characteristics, these individuals then naturally direct their own progression of self-discovery and

become self-accepting, accepting towards others, goal-directed, spontaneous, and autonomous in the process.

The above discussion suggests several implications for parents, educationists, and counselors. Without a doubt, parents are the major force in shaping the personality of a child. They are the guardians of another life from conception to adulthood. The way they behave toward their children and the kind of attitude they have for themselves, can either make or break a child. They must understand that and be wary of harmful parental techniques. If they want their off springs to be a functional and valuable part of the society, it is extremely important that parents give appropriate attention to the day-to-day business of parenting, develop a strong family environment, and build a healthy relationship with their children. They must be vigilant in protecting their children from adverse environmental influences (such as negative control of friends, drug abuse, etc) that mars the natural process of healthy personality development. The results of present and other related studies provide very clear guidelines for parents how to raise cognitively and socially competent children and fulfill the responsibility they are bequeathed with.

The present studies also hold important inferences for counselors. Obviously, being a parent is not as simple a job as it is considered. It carries awesome responsibilities with it. Most often parents themselves need guidance and help in learning best ways to raise their children. At this instant, counselors may assist such parents to learn optimal techniques for producing self-accepting, goal-directed, spontaneous, and autonomous children. Moreover, the present study also established internal locus of control and self-disclosure flexibility as important dispositional

predictors of personal growth/self-actualization. Thus, counselors may themselves use both these variables (and even other variables) as techniques for facilitating in the process of personal growth in their clients.

Educationists are by definition in a strategic position to help guide personal growth in students. According to Sprinthal and Sprinthal (1990), teachers can assist in the process of growth by providing students with increasing amounts of independence experiences and genuine responsibility. They may also include various approaches in the curriculum to aid in the process of self-actualization.

In the end it would be suffice to say that the Index of Personal Growth (IPG) has produced data which indicates that it could serve as a valuable tool for assessing personal growth/self-actualization. It holds promise as the basis for future research. The measure can be correlated to different variables such as self-esteem, self-concept, anxiety, and depression. Moreover, Index of Personal Growth (IPG) may also be used to identify the various factors involved in enhancing personal growth among individuals, in order to gain in-depth knowledge about the processes required to further the psychological development of human race.

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ANNEXURES

**Performa for Indicators on Five Dimensions of
Index of Personal Growth (IPG)**

Instructions

As a part of Ph.D. research, a scale named as Index of Personal Growth (IPG) is being constructed for Pakistani population. For this purpose, the present exercise has been planned to generate indicators on the following five attributes of personal growth: autonomy, self-acceptance & self-esteem, acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions, trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships, and purpose in life.

You are requested to list at least 5 indicators/descriptors for each dimension given below, in Urdu language.

I. Autonomy refers to relative independence of physical and social environment; to rely on one's own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development.

- 1- نظری اور معاشرتی آزادی حاصل کرنے اور اپنی صلاحیتوں کو استعمال کرتے ہوئے ترقی کی طرف بڑھنے کو "Autonomy" کہتے ہیں۔
مثال نمبر 1:- میں اپنے فیصلے خود کر سکتی/سکتا ہوں۔
مثال نمبر 2:- میں اپنے خیالات ارائے کا دفاع نہیں کر سکتی/سکتا۔

II. Self-acceptance & self-esteem means to accept oneself as a one is, with all its shortcomings, and consider oneself worthwhile.

2- اپنی ذات کو اپنی تمام خوبیوں اور خامیوں کے ساتھ قبول کرنے اور اپنی ذات کی اہمیت کا احساس ہونے کو "Self-acceptance & Self-esteem" کہتے ہیں۔

مثال نمبر 1:- میں اپنی خامیوں کو قبول کرتی ا کرتا ہوں۔

مثال نمبر 2:- میں اپنے آپ کو اہم نہیں سمجھتی ا سمجھتا۔

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions means to be relatively spontaneous in one's behavior, thoughts, and expression of feelings; and not to hide them unless their expression would hurt others.

3- اپنے نے جذبات کو قبول کرنا اور اپنے جذبات اور احساسات کے اظہار میں مناسب آزاد ہونے کو "Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions" کہتے ہیں۔

مثال نمبر 1:- مجھے کسی عزیز پر بھانصے کا اظہار کرنے پر شرمندگی نہیں ہوتی۔

مثال نمبر 2:- میں اپنی خوشی کا اظہار کرنے پر جھجک محسوس کرتی ہوں۔

IV. Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships refers to the degree of confidence in the trustworthiness and goodness in people, and being responsible of one's own self in interpersonal relationships.

4- یہی تعلقات میں اعتماد اور اپنی ذمہ داری کا احساس ہونے اور لوگوں پر زیادہ اعتماد کرنے اور ان کی اچھائی پر نظر رکھنے کو "Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships" کہتے ہیں۔

مثال نمبر 1:- مجھے یقین ہے کہ لوگ بنیادی طور پر اچھے ہوتے ہیں۔

مثال نمبر 2:- مجھے دوسرے لوگوں پر اعتبار نہیں ہے۔

V. Purpose in life means to have some goals in life, which are of non-personal and unselfish nature: and to pursue these goals within framework of values.

5- زندگی میں کچھ مقاصد ہونا جو خود غرضی اور ذاتی منافع پر مبنی نہ ہوں اور انہیں اپنے اصولوں کے مطابق حاصل کرنے کو "Purpose in life" کہتے ہیں۔

مثال نمبر 1:- مجھے معلوم ہے کہ میں اپنی زندگی میں کیا کرنا چاہتی/چاہتا ہوں۔

مثال نمبر 2:- مجھے اپنی زندگی بے مقصد محسوس ہوتی ہے۔

List of Indicators for Each Dimension of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

I. Autonomy

- (10) -1 میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتی ہوں۔
- (2) -2 میں دوسروں کی پسند اور ناپسند کی تابع نہیں ہوں۔
- (4) -3 میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ، ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتی ہوں۔
- (5) -4 معاشرتی حدود کے اندر رہتے ہوئے آزادی حاصل کرنا۔
- (2) -5 میں مخالفت کے باوجود اپنی رائے کا اظہار کر سکتا ہوں۔
- (2) -6 اپنے لئے مضامین / پیشہ کا انتخاب میں خود کرتی ہوں۔
- (2) -7 میں اپنے فیصلوں کے نتائج کا سامنا کرنے کی ذمہ داری لیتی ہوں۔
- 8 میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور کچھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا لائحہ عمل بناتی ہوں۔
- 9 تمام لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود کرنا چاہوں کر سکتی ہوں بشرطیکہ میں اطمینان ضرور کر لوں کہ میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں۔
- 10 اچھے اور برے کا میرا اپنا بہت مضبوط تصور ہے۔
- (3) -11 مجھے اپنے فیصلوں اور آراء پر بھروسہ ہے۔
- 12 میرا اپنا تجربہ زندگی میں میرا بہترین رہنما ہے۔
- 13 اپنے کپڑے، جوتے (ضرورت کی اشیاء) اپنی پسند سے لیتی ہوں۔
- 14 میں بچپن سے ہی محسوس کئے بغیر دوسروں کی درخواست رد کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 15 مجھے اکیلے کام کرتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے، خاص طور پر جب مجھے معلوم ہو کہ کام کو رکھا جانا چاہئے گا۔
- 16 مجھے کوئی بھی کام شروع کرنے میں مشکل نہیں ہوتی اور میں اس کام کو مکمل کئے بغیر نہیں چھوڑتی۔
- 17 میں اپنی سوچ اور جذبات کے مطابق صحیح یا غلط، مناسب یا نامناسب کا فیصلہ کرتی ہوں۔
- 18 مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔
- 19 میں اپنے فیصلے دوسروں کو کرنے دیتی ہوں، کیونکہ میں ڈرتی ہوں کہ کوئی غلط قدم نہ اٹھا دوں۔
- 20 میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہیے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔
- 21 میں ایسے کاموں کو ترجیح دیتی ہوں جنہیں گلے بندھے طریقے اور خاص ہدایات کے مطابق حل کرنا ہو، لیکن مجھے ایسے کام کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے، جن میں مجھے زیادہ سوچنا پڑے۔
- (2) -22 اگر میں کسی کیلئے کوئی کام نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر دیتا ہوں۔

II. Self-acceptance & self-esteem

- (11) 1 مجھے اپنی خوبیوں اور خامیوں کا علم ہے۔
- (4) -2 میں اپنی غلطیوں سے سیکھنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 3 مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- (6) -4 اپنی اصلاح کیلئے ہر قسم کی تنقید کو مثبت انداز میں لینا۔
- 5 مجھے اگر کسی چیز کے بارے میں علم نہ ہو تو میں اس کے بارے میں دوسروں سے پوچھنا برا نہیں سمجھتی۔
- (2) -6 میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر نہیں سمجھتی۔
- 7 اگرو لوگوں کے درمیان بیٹھے ہوئے میں کوئی غلط بات کہہ دوں تو مجھے اس پر شرمندگی ہوتی ہے۔
- (3) -8 میں اپنی زندگی سے مطمئن ہوں۔
- (2) -9 میری موجودگی سے محفل میں جان آجاتی ہے۔
- 10 میرے خیال میں بیشتر امور میں لوگ میری رائے کو اہمیت دیتے ہیں۔
- 11 میں چند کام دوسروں سے بہتر کر سکتا ہوں۔
- 12 میں عموماً نامی پر حوصلہ برقرار رکھتا ہوں۔
- 13 میں لوگوں کے معیار پر پورا اترنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 14 میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند قابل تعریف خوبیاں موجود ہیں۔
- (3) -15 بعض اوقات مجھے یہ احساس ہوتا ہے کہ لوگ مجھے نظر انداز کر رہے ہیں۔
- 16 میں اپنے آپ کو ناکام انسان تصور کرتی ہوں۔
- 17 میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی کوئی خامی نہیں ہے جیسے نچھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔
- 18 میں ناکامی سے ڈرتی ہوں۔
- 19 میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے مختلف محسوس کرتی ہوں لیکن میرا دل چاہتا ہے کہ مجھے اس تحفظ کا احساس ہو جو دوسروں سے مختلف نہ محسوس کرنے پر ملتا ہے۔
- 20 میں ڈرتی ہوں کہ جو لوگ مجھے اچھے لگتے ہیں اگر انہیں میری اصلیت معلوم ہوگی تو انہیں بہت مایوسی ہوگی۔
- 21 میں نے اچھی لوگوں سے ملنے سے نہیں ڈرتی۔ میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ میں ایک قابل انسان ہوں اور کوئی وجہ نہیں ہے کہ وہ مجھے ناپسند کریں۔
- 22 مجھے اپنے آپ پر پورا بھروسہ ہے کہ میں مستقبل میں پیش آنے والی مشکلات کا سامنا کر لوں گی۔
- 23 میں اپنی پریشانیوں کا سامنا کرنے سے گھبراتی ہوں۔

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions

- 1- اپنے جذبات کو لوگوں پر ظاہر کرنا پسند نہیں۔
- 2- میں اظہار پسندیدگی سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 3- مجھے اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 4- مجھے بہت جلد رونا آجاتا ہے۔
- 5- میں بہت جلد خوش ہو جاتی ہوں۔
- 6- اگر کوئی بات بری لگے تو میں اس کا ضرور اظہار کرتی ہوں۔
- 7- میں محفل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار کرنے سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 8- میں اپنے جذبات کے ساتھ ساتھ دوسرے میرے بارے میں کیا جذبات رکھتے ہیں، کا بھی خیال رکھنے کی پوری کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 9- مزاح اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 10- میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ دونوں کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 11- میں اپنے خیالات کا اظہار سنجائی کر لیتی ہوں لیکن منفی جذبات کا اظہار مشکل سے کرتی ہوں۔
- 12- مقرر کردہ حد میں رہتے ہوئے جذبات کے اظہار کی آزادی۔
- 13- میں اپنے ہر جز پے کا اظہار بلا تھجک کرتی ہوں۔
- 14- میں جذبات کو چھپانے کی قائل نہیں ہوں۔
- 15- میں اپنی ذاتی پریشانی کسی کو بتانے سے تھجکتی ہوں۔
- 16- مجھے کسی پر بجا غصہ کرنے میں کوئی مضائقہ نہیں۔
- 17- مجھے اپنی کسی قسم کے جذبات کو چھپانے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں کہ میری اپنی دوستوں سے لڑائی نہ ہو جائے اور میں انہیں کھونہ دوں۔

IV. Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships

- 1- میرے خیال میں زیادہ تر لوگ دوسروں کو نقصان پہنچاتے ہیں۔
- 2- میں لوگوں کی نیت پر بہت ہی کم شک کرتی ہوں۔
- 3- میں لوگوں سے کئے گئے وعدے پورے کرنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 4- میں اپنے حقوق دوسروں کی حق تلفی کئے بغیر ہی حاصل کرتا ہوں۔
- 5- اگر کوئی مجھے اپنا راز بتائے تو میں اسے افشاء نہیں کرتی۔
- 6- لوگ میری نیت کے بارے میں مثبت رائے رکھتے ہیں۔
- 7- میں کسی کبھارا پنے کسی کام کے سلسلے میں لوگوں کی مدد لے لیتا ہوں۔
- 8- مجھے لوگوں پر اعتماد کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے خواہ اس کا جواب مثبت نہ ہو۔
- 9- میں اپنے تعلقات کی بنیاد باہمی اعتماد پر رکھتی ہوں۔

- 10- مجھے دوسروں سے ان کے کام میں لگن اور محنت سے اطمینان نہیں ہوتا۔
- 11- میں ہر ایک پر بھروسہ کرتی ہوں تاہم نیکہ مجھے خود کوئی تجربہ نہ ہو۔
- 12- میں ہمیشہ دوسروں کی شخصیت کے مثبت پہلوؤں پر نظر رکھتی ہوں۔
- 13- میں سمجھتی ہوں میرے ارد گرد بہت سے شخص لوگ موجود ہیں۔
- 14- مجھے کبھی کبھی اپنے قریب ترین دوستوں پر بھی شک ہو جاتا ہے۔
- 15- لوگ بنیادی طور پر اچھے ہوتے ہیں۔
- 16- مجھے یقین ہے کہ لوگ کسی کام صرف اپنی غرض کی بنیاد پر کرتے ہیں۔
- 17- مجھے دوسروں سے مدد یا جزباتی سہارا لیتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- 18- میں دوسروں کے سامنے اپنے آپ کو جتنی کراہتی منفی خصوصیات کو بھی ظاہر کرنے میں خوف محسوس نہیں کرتی۔
- 19- میرا خیال ہے کہ لوگوں کو معلوم ہے کہ ان کے لیے کیا بہتر ہے بے شک کہ میں کبھی کبھی ان کے انتخاب سے اتفاق نہیں کرتی۔
- 20- مجھے یقین ہے کہ ضرورت پڑنے پر دوسرے لوگ میری مدد کیلئے آئیں گے۔
- 21- میں اعمال کی ذمہ داری خود اٹھاتی ہوں اور اگر کچھ غلط بھی ہو جائے تو میں حالات کو درست کرنے میں پہل کرتی ہوں یا میں دوسرے انسانوں کی بات سننے کے لئے تیار ہوتی ہوں۔
- 22- عموماً دنیا کے بارے میں میرا رویہ یہ منفی ہے اور خاص طور پر جب سب کچھ صحیح ہو رہا ہو۔
- 23- مجھ میں اپنی ضرورت پوری کرنے کی صلاحیت موجود ہے اور اپنی ضرورت پوری کرتے ہوئے میں دوسروں کا حق نہیں مارتی۔

V. Purpose in life

- 1- میں ایک بھر پور زندگی گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 2- میں اپنی اور قریبی افراد کی بہتری کو مد نظر رکھتے ہوئے کبھی کبھار ایسے طریقے سے بھی اپنا مقصد پورا کر لیتا ہوں جو طریقہ قابل اعتراض ہوتا ہے۔
- 3- میری زندگی کا مقصد یہ ہے کہ میں اپنے آپ کو ہر نئے گزراے ہوئے لمحے سے بہتر بنا سکوں۔
- 4- اپنی صلاحیتوں کا اظہار کرنے اور بہتر طریقوں سے کر سکوں۔
- 5- اپنے ارد گرد کے لوگوں کی زندگی میں بہتر طریقے سے اثر انداز ہو سکوں۔
- 6- میں اپنے مقاصد کے لئے سچائی، نیکی اور ایماندارگی کو اولیت دیتی ہوں۔
- 7- اپنے مقاصد کے حصول کے لئے میں کسی کی مخالفت کو اہمیت نہیں دیتی۔
- 8- میں اپنی زندگی کا قاعدہ منضوبے کے تحت گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 9- میرے سامنے زندگی گزارنے کے واضح مقاصد ہیں۔
- 10- میں اکثر یہ محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ شاید میں وہ حاصل نہ کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔

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- 11- میری زندگی کا کوئی مقصد نہیں ہے۔
- 12- میں اکثر بہت زیادہ بوریٹ محسوس کرتی ہوں۔
- 13- مجھے زندگی ہمیشہ دلچسپ لگتی ہے۔
- 14- میرا وجود بالکل بے کار اور بے مقصد ہے۔
- 15- مجھے ہردن نیا اور مختلف محسوس ہوتا ہے۔
- 16- اگر میرے بس میں ہوتا تو میں کبھی بھی نہ پیدا ہونے کو ترجیح دیتا۔
- 17- ریٹائرمنٹ کے بعد میں کچھ ایسے دلچسپ کام کروں گی جو میں ہمیشہ سے کرنا چاہتی تھی۔
- 18- زندگی کے مقاصد حاصل کرنے میں میں نے کسی قسم کی کامیابی حاصل نہیں کی۔
- 19- میری زندگی دلچسپ اور اچھی چیزوں سے بھرپور ہے۔
- 20- اگر میں آج ہی مر جاؤں تو مجھے یہ محسوس ہوگا کہ میری زندگی بہت اچھی رہی ہے۔
- 21- میں ایک بہت ذمہ دار انسان ہوں۔
- 22- میرا زندگی پر مکمل اختیار ہے۔
- 23- روزمرہ کاموں کا سامنا میرے لیے خوشی اور اطمینان کا باعث ہے۔
- 24- مجھے اپنی زندگی میں کسی حد تک نظم و ضبط پسند ہے تاکہ میں اپنے با اختیار ہونے کو مزید مضبوط کر سکوں۔

**List of Indicators for Each Dimension of the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)
after Excluding Redundant Items**

I. Autonomy

- 1- میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتی ہوں۔
- 2- میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ، ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتی ہوں۔
- 3- معاشرتی حدود کے اندر رہتے ہوئے آزادی حاصل کرنا۔
- 4- میں مخالفت کے باوجود اپنی رائے کا اظہار کر سکتا ہوں۔
- 5- اپنے لئے مضامین / پیشہ کا انتخاب میں خود کرتی ہوں۔
- 6- میں اپنے فیصلوں کے نتائج کا سامنا کرنے کی ذمہ داری لیتی ہوں۔
- 7- میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور سمجھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا انتخاب بناتی ہوں۔
- 8- تمام لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود میں جو کرنا چاہوں کر سکتی ہوں بشکر طریقہ میں اطمینان ضرور کر لوں کہ میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں۔
- 9- اچھے اور برے کا میرا اپنا بہت مضبوط تصور ہے۔
- 10- میں پیچھے تاؤ اٹھوس کے بغیر دوسروں کی درخواست رد کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 11- مجھے اکیلے کام کرتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے خاص طور پر جب مجھے معلوم ہو کہ کام کو پرکھا اور جانچا جائے گا۔
- 12- مجھے کوئی بھی کام شروع کرنے میں مشکل نہیں ہوتی اور میں اس کام کو مکمل کئے بغیر نہیں چھوڑتی۔
- 13- میں اپنی سوچ اور جذبات کے مطابق صحیح یا غلط، مناسب یا نامناسب کا فیصلہ کرتی ہوں۔
- 14- مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔
- 15- میں اپنے فیصلے دوسروں کو کرنے دیتی ہوں، کیونکہ میں ڈرتی ہوں کوئی غلط قدم نہ اٹھا دوں۔
- 16- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہیے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔
- 17- میں ایسے کاموں کو ترجیح دیتی ہوں جنہیں گئے بندھے طریقے اور خاص ہدایات کے مطابق حل کرنا ہو، لیکن مجھے ایسے کام کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے جن میں مجھے زیادہ سوچنا پڑے۔
- 18- اگر میں کسی کیلئے کوئی کام نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر دیتا ہوں۔

II. Self-acceptance & self-esteem

- 1- مجھے اپنی خوبیوں اور خامیوں کا علم ہے۔
- 2- میں اپنی غلطیوں سے سیکھنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 3- مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- 4- مجھے اگر کسی چیز کے بارے میں علم نہ ہو تو میں اس کے بارے میں دوسروں سے پوچھنا برا نہیں سمجھتی۔
- 5- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر نہیں سمجھتی۔
- 6- اگر لوگوں کے درمیان بیٹھے ہوئے میں کوئی غلط بات کہ دوں تو مجھے اس پر شرمندگی ہوتی ہے۔
- 7- میں اپنی زندگی سے مطمئن ہوں۔
- 8- میری موجودگی سے مظل میں جان آتی ہے۔
- 9- میرے خیال میں بیشتر امور میں لوگ میرے رائے کو اہمیت دیتے ہیں۔
- 10- میں عموماً ناکامی پر حوصلہ برقرار رکھتا ہوں۔
- 11- میں لوگوں کے معیار پر پورا اترنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 12- میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند قابل تعریف خوبیاں موجود ہیں۔
- 13- بعض اوقات مجھے یہ احساس ہوتا ہے کہ لوگ مجھے نظر انداز کر رہے ہیں۔
- 14- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی کوئی خاص بات نہیں ہے جسے ٹھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔
- 15- میں ناکامی سے ڈرتی ہوں۔
- 16- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے مختلف محسوس کرتی ہوں لیکن میرا دل چاہتا ہے کہ مجھے اس تعلق کا احساس ہو جو دوسروں سے مختلف نہ محسوس کرنے پر ملتا ہے۔
- 17- میں ڈرتی ہوں کہ جو لوگ مجھے اچھے لگتے ہیں اگر انہیں میری اصلیت معلوم ہوگئی تو انہیں بہت مایوسی ہوگئی۔
- 18- میں نئے اجنبی لوگوں سے ملنے سے نہیں ڈرتی۔ میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ میں ایک قابل انسان ہوں اور کوئی وجہ نہیں ہے کہ وہ مجھے ناپسند کریں۔
- 19- مجھے اپنے آپ پر پورا بھروسہ ہے کہ میں مستقبل میں پیش آنے والی مشکلات کا سامنا کر لوں گی۔
- 20- میں اپنی پریشانیوں کا سامنا کرنے سے گھبراتی ہوں۔

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions

- 1- اپنے جذبات کو لوگوں پر ظاہر کرنا پسند نہیں۔
- 2- میں اظہار پسندیدگی سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 3- مجھے اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 4- اگر کوئی بات بری لگے تو میں اس کا ضرور اظہار کرتی ہوں۔
- 5- میں مظل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار کرنے سے نہیں گھبراتی۔

- 6- میں اپنے جذبات کے ساتھ ساتھ دوسرے میرے بارے میں کیا
جذبات رکھتے ہیں، کبھی خیال رکھنے کی پوری کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 7- مزاح اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 8- میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ دونوں کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 9- میں اپنے ہر جذبہ کا اظہار بلا تھجک کرتی ہوں۔
- 10- میں اپنی ذاتی پریشانی کسی کو بتانے سے تھجکتی ہوں۔
- 11- مجھے کسی پر بجا غصہ کرنے میں کوئی مضائقہ نہیں۔
- 12- مجھے اپنی کسی قسم کے جذبات سے شرمندگی محسوس نہیں ہوتی۔
- 13- باہمی تعلقات میں اپنے غصے کے جذبات کو چھپانے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
کہ میری اپنی دوستوں سے لڑائی نہ ہو جائے اور میں انہیں کھوندوں۔

IV. Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships

- 1- میرے خیال میں زیادہ تر لوگ دوسروں کو نقصان پہنچاتے ہیں۔
- 2- میں لوگوں کی نیت پر بہت ہی کم شک کرتی ہوں۔
- 3- میں لوگوں سے کئے گئے وعدے پورے کرنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 4- میں اپنے حقوق دوسروں کی حق تلفی کئے بغیر ہی حاصل کرتا ہوں۔
- 5- اگر کوئی مجھے اپنا راز بتائے تو میں اسے افشا نہیں کرتی۔
- 6- لوگ میری نیت کے بارے میں مثبت رائے رکھتے ہیں۔
- 7- میں کبھی کبھار اپنے کسی کام کے سلسلے میں لوگوں کی مدد لے لیتا ہوں۔
- 8- مجھے لوگوں پر اعتماد کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے خواہ اس کا جواب مثبت نہ ہو۔
- 9- میں اپنے تعلقات کی بنیاد باہمی اعتماد پر رکھتی ہوں۔
- 10- مجھے دوسروں سے ان کے کام میں لگن اور محنت سے اطمینان نہیں ہوتا۔
- 11- میں ہر ایک پر بھروسہ کرتی ہوں تا وقتیکہ مجھے خود کوئی تجربہ نہ ہو۔
- 12- میں سمجھتی ہوں میرے ارد گرد بہت سے مخلص لوگ موجود ہیں۔
- 13- مجھے کبھی کبھی اپنے قریب ترین دوستوں پر بھی شک ہو جاتا ہے۔
- 14- مجھے یقین ہے کہ لوگ کسی کام کا محض اپنی غرض کی بنیاد پر کرتے ہیں۔
- 15- مجھے دوسروں سے مدد یا جذباتی سہارا لیتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- 16- میرا خیال ہے کہ لوگوں کو معلوم ہے کہ ان کے لئے کیا بہتر ہے بے شک کہ
میں کبھی کبھی ان کے انتخاب سے اتفاق نہیں کرتی۔
- 17- مجھے یقین ہے کہ ضرورت پڑنے پر دوسرے لوگ میری مدد کیلئے آئیں گے۔

- 18- میں اعمال کی ذمہ داری خود اٹھاتی ہوں اور اگر کچھ غلط بھی ہو جائے تو میں حالات کو درست کرنے میں جہل کرتی ہوں یا میں دوسرے انسانوں کی بات سننے کے لیے تیار ہوتی ہوں۔
- 19- عموماً دنیا کے بارے میں میرا رویہ منفی ہے اور خاص طور پر جب سب کچھ صحیح ہو رہا ہو۔
- 20- مجھ میں اپنی ضرورت پوری کرنے کی صلاحیت موجود ہے اور اپنی ضرورت پوری کرتے ہوئے میں دوسروں کا حق نہیں مارتی۔

V. Purpose in life

- 1- میں ایک بھر پور زندگی گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 2- میں اپنی اور قریبی افراد کی بہتری کو مد نظر رکھتے ہوئے کبھی کبھار ایسے طریقے سے بھی اپنا مقصد پورا کر لیتا ہوں جو طریقہ قابل اعتراض ہوتا ہے۔
- 3- میری زندگی کا مقصد یہ ہے کہ میں اپنے آپ کو برسنے گزارے ہوئے لمحے سے بہتر بنا سکوں۔
- 4- اپنی صلاحیتوں کا اظہار کرنے اور بہتر طریقوں سے کر سکوں۔
- 5- اپنے ارد گرد کے لوگوں کی زندگی میں بہتر طریقے سے اثر انداز ہو سکوں۔
- 6- میں اپنی زندگی یا قاعدہ منسوبے کے تحت گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 7- میں اکثر یہ محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ شاید میں وہ حاصل نہ کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 8- میری زندگی کا کوئی مقصد نہیں ہے۔
- 9- مجھے زندگی ہمیشہ دلچسپ لگتی ہے۔
- 10- میرا وجود بالکل بے کار اور بے مقصد ہے۔
- 11- مجھے ہر دن نیا اور مختلف محسوس ہوتا ہے۔
- 12- اگر میرے بس میں ہوتا تو میں کبھی بھی نہ پیدا ہونے کو ترجیح دیتا۔
- 13- ریٹائرمنٹ کے بعد میں کچھ ایسے دلچسپ کام کروں گی جو میں ہمیشہ سے کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 14- اگر میں آج ہی مر جاؤں تو مجھے یہ محسوس ہوگا کہ میری زندگی بہت اچھی رہی ہے۔
- 15- میں ایک بہت دار انسان ہوں۔
- 16- میری اپنی زندگی پر مکمل اختیار ہے۔
- 17- روزمرہ کاموں کا سامنا میرے لیے خوشی اور اطمینان کا باعث ہے۔
- 18- مجھے اپنی زندگی میں کسی حد تک نظم و ضبط پسند ہے تاکہ میں اپنے با اختیار ہونے کے احساس کو مزید مضبوط کر سکوں۔

**Performa for the Categorization of Indicators for Each Dimension of
Index of Personal Growth (IPG) to their Respective Dimensions**

Instructions

The purpose of the present exercise is to verify the conceptual classification of indicators of personal growth to the relevant dimensions of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Personal growth is defined as the discovery of real self and its expression and development. It consists of following five dimensions: autonomy, self-acceptance & self-esteem, acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions, trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships, and purpose in life.

Below is a list of randomly presented indicators of the five dimensions of IPG generated through literature as well as empirical investigations. Moreover, definition of each has also been provided below. Keeping in view the respective definition of each dimension you are required to categorize each indicator to a particular dimension by indicating the label of that specific dimension in the space provided adjacent to the statements.

i. Autonomy refers to relative independence of physical and social environment; to rely on one's own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development.

1- نظری اور معاشرتی آزادی حاصل کرنے اور اپنی صلاحیتوں کو استعمال کرتے ہوئے ترقی کی طرف بڑھنے کو "Autonomy" کہتے ہیں۔

ii. Self-acceptance & self-esteem means to accept oneself as one is, with all its shortcomings, and consider oneself worthwhile.

2- اپنی ذات کو اپنی تمام خوبیوں اور خامیوں کے ساتھ قبول کرنے اور اپنی ذات کی اہمیت کا احساس ہونے "self-acceptance & self-esteem" کہتے ہیں۔

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions mean to be relatively spontaneous in one's behavior, thoughts, and expression of feelings; and not to hide them unless their expression would hurt others.

-3 اپنے جذبات کو قبول کرنا اور احساسات کے اظہار میں مناسب حد تک آزاد ہونے کو "Acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions" کہتے ہیں۔

IV. Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships refers to the degree of confidence in the trustworthiness and goodness in people, and being responsible of one's own self in interpersonal relationships.

-4 باہمی تعلقات میں اعتماد اور اپنی ذمہ داری کا احساس ہونے اور لوگوں پر زیادہ تر اعتماد کرنے اور ان کی اچھائی پر نظر رکھنے کو "Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships" کہتے ہیں۔

V. Purpose in life means to have some goals in life, which are of non personal and unselfish nature; and to pursue these goals with in a framework of values.

-5 زندگی میں کچھ مقاصد ہونا جو خود غرضی اور ذاتی مفاد پر مبنی نہ ہوں اور انہیں اپنے اصولوں کے مطابق حاصل کرنے کو "Purpose in life" کہتے ہیں۔

- 1- میں مخالفت کے باوجود اپنی رائے کا اظہار کر سکتا ہوں۔
- 2- اپنے لئے مضامین/پیشہ کا انتخاب میں خود کرتی ہوں۔
- 3- میں اپنے فیصلوں کے نتائج کا سامنا کرنے کی ذمہ داری لیتی ہوں۔
- 4- میں پچھتاوا محسوس کئے بغیر دوسروں کی درخواست رد کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 5- مجھے اکیلے کام کرتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے خاص طور پر جب مجھے معلوم ہو کہ کام کو پرکھا جانا چاہئے گا۔
- 6- مجھ میں اپنی ضرورت پوری کرنے کی صلاحیت موجود ہے اور اپنی ضرورت پوری کرتے ہوئے میں دوسروں کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتی ہوں۔
- 7- میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتی ہوں۔
- 8- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی کوئی خامی نہیں ہے جسے ٹھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔
- 9- معاشرتی حدود کے اندر رہتے ہوئے آزادی حاصل کرنا۔
- 10- میں اپنے فیصلے دوسروں کو کرنے دیتی ہوں، کیونکہ میں ڈرتی ہوں کوئی غلط قدم نہ اٹھا دوں۔
- 11- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہیے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔
- 12- میں ایسے کاموں کو ترجیح دیتی ہوں جنہیں لگے بندھے طریقے اور خاص ہدایات کے مطابق حل کرنا ہو، لیکن مجھے ایسے کام کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے جن میں مجھے زیادہ سوچنا پڑے۔
- 13- میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور سمجھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا لائحہ عمل بناتی ہوں۔
- 14- تمام لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود جو کرنا چاہوں کر سکتی ہوں بشرطیکہ میں اطمینان ضرور کر لوں کہ میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں۔
- 15- اچھے اور برے کامیرا اپنا بہت مضبوط تقویر ہے۔
- 16- مجھے اپنی خوبیوں اور خامیوں کا علم ہے۔
- 17- میں اپنی غلطیوں سے سیکھنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 18- مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- 19- مجھے اگر کسی چیز کے بارے میں ظن نہ ہو تو اس کے بارے میں دوسروں سے پوچھنا برا نہیں سمجھتی۔
- 20- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر نہیں سمجھتی۔
- 21- اگر لوگوں کے درمیان بحثے ہوئے میں کوئی غلط بات کہہ دوں تو مجھے اس پر شرمندگی ہوتی ہے۔
- 22- میں اپنی زندگی سے مطمئن ہوں۔
- 23- میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتی ہوں۔
- 24- میں ناکامی سے ڈرتی ہوں۔
- 25- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے مختلف محسوس کرتی ہوں لیکن میرا دل چاہتا ہے کہ مجھے اس تحفظ کا احساس ہو جو دوسروں سے مختلف محسوس کرنے پر ملتا ہے۔
- 26- میری موجودگی سے محفل میں جان آ جاتی ہے۔
- 27- میرے خیال میں بیشتر امور میں لوگ میری رائے کو اہمیت دیتے ہیں۔
- 28- مجھے کوئی بھی کام شروع کرنے میں مشکل نہیں ہوتی اور میں اس کام کو مکمل کئے بغیر نہیں چھوڑتی۔

- 29- میں اپنی سوچ اور جذبات کے مطابق صحیح یا غلط، مناسب یا نامناسب کا فیصلہ کرتی ہوں۔
- 30- مجھے اپنی زندگی میں کسی حد تک ترتیب اور نظم و ضبط پسند ہے تاکہ میں اپنے باختیار ہونے کے احساس کو مزید مضبوط کر سکوں۔
- 31- بعض اوقات مجھے یہ احساس ہوتا ہے کہ لوگ مجھے نظر انداز کر رہے ہیں۔
- 32- میں ڈرتی ہوں کہ جو لوگ مجھے اچھے لگتے ہیں اگر انہیں میری اصلیت معلوم ہوگئی تو انہیں بہت مایوس ہوگی۔
- 33- میں نئے اجنبی لوگوں سے ملنے سے نہیں ڈرتی۔ میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ میں ایک قابل انسان ہوں اور کوئی وجہ نہیں ہے کہ وہ مجھے ناپسند کریں۔
- 34- میں عموماً نامی پر حوصلہ برقرار رکھتا ہوں۔
- 35- میں لوگوں کے معیار پر پورا اترنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 36- میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند قابل تعریف خوبیاں موجود ہیں۔
- 37- مجھے اپنے آپ پر پورا انجور دہے ہے کہ میں مستقبل میں پیش آنے والی مشکلات کا سامنا کر لوں گی۔
- 38- میں اپنی پریشانیوں کا سامنا کرنے سے گھبراتی ہوں۔
- 39- اپنے جذبات کو لوگوں پر ظاہر کرنا پسند نہیں۔
- 40- میں اظہار پسندیدگی سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 41- مجھے اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 42- اگر کوئی بات بری لگے تو میں اس کا ضرور اظہار کرتی ہوں۔
- 43- میں محفل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار کرنے سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 44- میں اپنے جذبات کے ساتھ ساتھ دوسرے میرے بارے میں کیا جذبات رکھتے ہیں، کا بھی خیال رکھنے کی پوری کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 45- مزاح اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 46- میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ و نون کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 47- میں اپنے ہر جذبے کا اظہار بلا جھجک کرتی ہوں۔
- 48- میرے خیال میں زیادہ تر لوگ دوسروں کو نقصان پہنچاتے ہیں۔
- 49- میں لوگوں کی نیت پر بہت ہی کم شک کرتی ہوں۔
- 50- میں لوگوں سے کہنے کہنے وعدے پورے کرنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 51- اگر میں کسی کیلئے کوئی کام نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر دیتی ہوں۔
- 52- اگر کوئی مجھے اپنا راز بتائے تو میں اسے افشاء نہیں کرتی۔
- 53- لوگ میری نیت کے بارے میں مثبت رائے رکھتے ہیں۔
- 54- میں اپنی ذاتی پریشانی کسی کو بتانے سے بچھکتی ہوں۔
- 55- مجھے کسی پر بھانسنہ کرنے میں کوئی منہ نہ نہیں۔
- 56- مجھے اپنی کسی قسم کے جذبات سے شرمندگی محسوس نہیں ہوتی۔

- 57- باہمی تعلقات میں اپنے غصے کے جذبات کو چھپانے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں کہ میری اپنی دوستوں سے لڑائی نہ ہو جائے اور میں انہیں کھوندوں۔
- 58- میں ہر ایک پر بھروسہ کرتی ہوں تاہم کبھی مجھے خود کوئی تجربہ نہ ہو۔
- 59- میں سمجھتی ہوں میرے ارد گرد بہت سے مخلص لوگ موجود ہیں۔
- 60- مجھے کبھی کبھی اپنے قریب ترین دوستوں پر بھی شک ہو جاتا ہے۔
- 61- مجھے یقین ہے کہ لوگ کسی کا کام صرف اپنی غرض کی بنیاد پر کرتے ہیں۔
- 62- مجھے دوسروں سے مدد یا جذباتی سہارا لیتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- 63- میرا خیال ہے کہ لوگوں کو معلوم ہے کہ ان کے لئے کیا بہتر ہے بے شک کہ میں کبھی کبھی ان کے انتخاب سے اتفاق نہیں کرتی۔
- 64- میں کبھی کبھار اپنے کسی کام کے سلسلے میں لوگوں کی مدد لے لیتا ہوں۔
- 65- مجھے زندگی ہمیشہ دلچسپ لگتی ہے۔
- 66- میرا وجود بالکل بے کار اور بے مقصد ہے۔
- 67- مجھے ہر دن نیا اور مختلف محسوس ہوتا ہے۔
- 68- اگر میرے بس میں ہوتا تو میں کبھی کبھی نہ پیدا ہونے کو ترجیح دیتا۔
- 69- ریٹائرمنٹ کے بعد میں کچھ ایسے دلچسپ کام کروں گی جو میں ہمیشہ سے کرنا چاہتی تھی۔
- 70- اگر میں آج ہی مر جاؤں تو مجھے یہ محسوس ہوگا کہ میری زندگی بہت اچھی رہی ہے۔
- 71- میں ایک بہت ذمہ دار انسان ہوں۔
- 72- مجھے لوگوں پر اعتماد کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے خواہ اس کا جواب مثبت نہ ہو۔
- 73- میں اپنے تعلقات کی بنیاد باہمی اعتماد پر رکھتی ہوں۔
- 74- مجھے دوسروں سے ان کے کام میں لگن اور محنت سے اطمینان نہیں ہوتا۔
- 75- مجھے یقین ہے کہ ضرورت پڑنے پر دوسرے لوگ میری مدد کیلئے آئیں گے۔
- 76- میں ایک بھرپور زندگی گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 77- میں اپنی اور قریبی افراد کی بہتری کو مد نظر رکھتے ہوئے کبھی کبھار ایسے طریقے سے بھی اپنا مقصد پورا کر لیتا ہوں جو طریقہ قابل اعتراض ہوتا ہے۔
- 78- میں اکثر یہ محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ شاید میں وہ حاصل نہ کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 79- میری زندگی کا کوئی مقصد نہیں ہے۔
- 80- میرا زندگی پر مکمل اختیار ہے۔
- 81- روزمرہ کاموں کا سامنا میرے لیے خوشی اور اطمینان کا باعث ہے۔
- 82- مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔
- 83- میں اعمال کی ذمہ داری خود اٹھاتی ہوں اور اگر کچھ غلط بھی ہو جائے تو میں حالات کو درست کرنے میں پہل کرتی ہوں یا میں دوسرے انسانوں کی بات سننے کے لئے تیار ہوتی ہوں۔
- 84- عموماً دنیا کے ہارے میں میرا وہ یہ منہی ہے اور خاص طور پر جب سب کچھ صحیح ہو رہا ہو۔

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- 85 میری زندگی کا مقصد یہ ہے کہ میں اپنے آپ کو ہر نئے گزراے ہوئے لمحے سے بہتر بنا سکوں۔
- 86 اپنی صلاحیتوں کا اظہار کرنے اور بہتر طریقوں سے کر سکیں۔
- 87 اپنے ارد گرد کے لوگوں کی زندگی بہتر طریقے سے اثر انداز ہو سکوں۔
- 88 میں اپنی زندگی باقاعدہ منسوبے کے تحت گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 89 میں اپنے حقوق دوسروں کی حق تلفی کرنے بغیر ہی حاصل کرتا ہوں۔

**Performa for Selecting the Most Representative Items for
Each Dimension of Index of Personal Growth (IPG)**

Instructions

The present exercise is being carried out to select the most representative items for the five dimensions of Index of Personal Growth (IPG). Personal growth is defined as the discovery of real self and its expression and development. It consists of following five dimensions: autonomy, self-acceptance & self-esteem, acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions, trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships, and purpose in life.

Keeping in consideration the definitions of each dimension given below, please indicate for each item if it is relevant to that particular dimension. Write 'R' for relevant statements and 'NR' for not relevant statements in the parentheses given against each item.

I. Autonomy refers to relative independence from physical and social environment; to rely on one's own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development.

1- فطری اور معاشرتی آزادی حاصل کرنے اور اپنی صلاحیتوں کو استعمال کرتے ہوئے ترقی کی طرف بڑھنے کو "Autonomy" کہتے ہیں۔

II. Self-acceptance & self-esteem to accept oneself as one is, with all its shortcomings, and consider oneself worthwhile.

2- اپنی ذات کو اپنی تمام خوبیوں اور خامیوں کے ساتھ قبول کرنے اور اپنی ذات کی اہمیت کا احساس ہونے کو "Self-acceptance & self-esteem" کہتے ہیں۔

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions means to be relatively spontaneous in one's behavior, thoughts, and expression of feelings; and not to hide them unless their expression would hurt others.

3- اپنے جذبات کو قبول کرنا اور احساس کے اظہار میں مناسب حد تک آزاد ہونے کو "Acceptance of emotions and freedom of expression of emotions" کہتے ہیں۔

IV. Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships refers to the degree of confidence in the trustworthiness and goodness in people, and being responsible of one's own self in interpersonal relationships.

4- باہمی تعلقات میں اعتماد اور اپنی ذمہ داری کا احساس ہونے اور لوگوں پر زیادہ تر اعتماد کرنے اور ان کی اچھائی پر نظر رکھنے کو "Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships" کہتے ہیں۔

V. Purpose in life means to have some goals in life, which are of non-personal and unselfish nature; and to pursue these goals with in a framework of values.

5- زندگی میں کچھ مقاصد ہونا جو خود غرضی اور ذاتی مفاد پر مبنی نہ ہوں اور انہیں اپنے اصولوں کے مطابق حاصل کرنے کو "Purpose in life" کہتے ہیں۔

I. Autonomy

- () 1- میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتی ہوں۔
- () 2- میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتی ہوں۔
- () 3- معاشرتی حدود کے اندر رہتے ہوئے آزادی حاصل کرنا۔
- () 4- میں مخالفت کے باوجود اپنی رائے کا اظہار کر سکتا ہوں۔
- () 5- اپنے لئے مضامین / پیشہ کا انتخاب میں خود کرتی ہوں۔
- () 6- میں اپنے فیصلوں کے نتائج کا سامنا کرنے کی ذمہ داری لیتی ہوں۔
- () 7- میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور سمجھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا لائحہ عمل بناتی ہوں۔
- () 8- تمام لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود جو کرنا چاہوں کر سکتی ہوں بشرطیکہ میں اطمینان ضرور کر لوں کہ میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں۔
- () 9- اچھے اور برے کا میرا اپنا بہت مضبوط تصور ہے۔
- () 10- میں بچھڑتاوا محسوس کئے بغیر دوسروں کی درخواست رد کر سکتی ہوں۔
- () 11- مجھے اکیلے کام کرتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے خاص طور پر جب معلوم ہو کہ کام کو پرکھا اچانچا چائے گا۔
- () 12- مجھے کوئی بھی کام شروع کرنے میں مشکل نہیں ہوتی اور میں اس کام کو مکمل کئے بغیر نہیں چھوڑتی۔
- () 13- میں اپنی سوچ اور جذبات کے مطابق صحیح یا غلط، مناسب یا نامناسب کا فیصلہ کرتی ہوں۔
- () 14- مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔
- () 15- میں اپنے فیصلے دوسروں کو کرنے دیتی ہوں، کیونکہ ذرا تو ہوں کوئی غلط قدم نہ اٹھا دوں۔
- () 16- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہیے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔
- () 17- میں ایسے کاموں کو ترجیح دیتی ہوں جنہیں لگے بندھے طریقے اور خاص ہدایات کے مطابق حل کرنا ہو، لیکن مجھے ایسے کام کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے جن میں مجھے زیادہ سوچنا پڑے۔

II. Self-acceptance & self-esteem

- () 1- مجھے اپنی خوبیوں اور خامیوں کا علم ہے۔
- () 2- میں اپنی غلطیوں سے سیکھنے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- () 3- مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- () 4- مجھے اگر کسی چیز کے بارے میں علم نہ ہو تو میں اس کے بارے میں دوسروں سے پوچھنا ہر نہیں سمجھتی۔
- () 5- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر نہیں سمجھتی۔
- () 6- اگر لوگوں کے درمیان بیٹھے ہوئے میں کوئی غلط بات کہ دوں تو مجھے اس پر شرمندگی ہوتی ہے۔
- () 7- میں اپنی زندگی سے مطمئن ہوں۔
- () 8- میری موجودگی سے محفل میں جان آجاتی ہے۔

- 9- میرے خیال میں بیشتر امور میں لوگ میری رائے کو اہمیت دیتے ہیں۔ ()
- 10- میں عموماً ناکامی پر حوصلہ برقرار رکھتا ہوں۔ ()
- 11- میں لوگوں کے معیار پر پورا اترنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا ہوں۔ ()
- 12- میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند قابل تعریف خوبیاں موجود ہیں۔ ()
- 13- بعض اوقات مجھے یہ احساس ہوتا ہے کہ لوگ مجھے نظر انداز کر رہے ہیں۔ ()
- 14- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی کوئی خامی نہیں ہے جسے ٹھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔ ()
- 15- میں ناکامی سے ڈرتی ہوں۔ ()
- 16- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے مختلف محسوس کرتی ہوں لیکن میرا دل چاہتا ہے کہ مجھے اس تحفظ کا احساس ہو جو دوسروں سے مختلف نہ محسوس کرنے پر ملتا ہے۔ ()
- 17- میں ڈرتی ہوں کہ جو لوگ مجھے اچھے لگتے ہیں اگر انہیں میری اصلیت معلوم ہوگی تو انہیں بہت ایوی ہوگی۔ ()
- 18- میں نئے انہی لوگوں سے نئے سے نہیں ڈرتی۔ میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ میں ایک قابل انسان ہوں اور کوئی وجہ نہیں ہے کہ وہ مجھے ناپسند کریں۔ ()
- 19- مجھے اپنے آپ پر پورا بھروسہ ہے کہ میں مستقبل میں پیش آنے والی مشکلات کا سامنا کر لوں گی۔ ()
- 20- میں اپنی پریشانیوں کا سامنا کرنے سے گھبراتی ہوں۔ ()

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions

- 1- اپنے جذبات کو لوگوں پر ظاہر کرنا پسند نہیں۔ ()
- 2- میں اظہار پسندی کی سے نہیں گھبراتی۔ ()
- 3- مجھے اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔ ()
- 4- اگر کوئی بات بری لگے تو میں اس کا ضرور اظہار کرتی ہوں۔ ()
- 5- میں محفل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار کرنے سے نہیں گھبراتی۔ ()
- 6- میں اپنے جذبات کے ساتھ ساتھ دوسرے میرے بارے میں کیا جذبات رکھتے ہیں، کا بھی خیال رکھنے کی پوری کوشش کرتی ہوں۔ ()
- 7- مزاح اچھا لگتا ہے۔ ()
- 8- میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ دونوں کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتی ہوں۔ ()
- 9- میں اپنے ہر جذبے کا اظہار بلا ہجک کرتی ہوں۔ ()
- 10- میں اپنی ذاتی پریشانی کسی کو بتانے سے ہجکتی ہوں۔ ()
- 11- مجھے کسی پر بھروسہ کرنے میں کوئی مضائقہ نہیں۔ ()
- 12- مجھے اپنی کسی قسم کے جذبات سے شرمندگی محسوس نہیں ہوتی۔ ()
- 13- باہمی تعلقات میں اپنے غصے کے جذبات کو چھپانے کی کوشش کرتی ہوں کہ میری اپنی دوستوں سے لڑائی نہ ہو جائے اور میں انہیں کھونہ دوں۔ ()

- 1- میں اقلیت کے ذریعے اکثریت کو برا بھلا کہتا ہوں۔
- 2- میں اکثریت کو برا بھلا کہتا ہوں۔
- 3- میری رائے اکثریت کے لیے درست ہے۔
- 4- اکثریت کے لیے میری رائے درست ہے۔
- 5- اکثریت کے لیے میری رائے درست ہے۔
- 6- میں اکثریت کو برا بھلا کہتا ہوں۔

V. Purpose in life

- 1- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کر لیا ہے۔
- 2- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش کی ہے۔
- 3- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 4- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 5- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 6- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 7- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 8- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 9- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 10- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 11- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 12- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 13- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 14- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 15- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 16- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 17- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 18- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 19- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔
- 20- () میں نے اپنی زندگی میں مقصد تلاش کرنے کی کوشش نہیں کی ہے۔

- 7 میں اکثر یہ محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ شاید میں وہ حاصل نہ کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 8 میری زندگی کا کوئی مقصد نہیں ہے۔
- 9 مجھے زندگی ہمیشہ دلچسپ لگتی ہے۔
- 10 میرا وجود بالکل بے کار اور بے مقصد ہے۔
- 11 مجھے ہر دن نیا اور مختلف محسوس ہوتا ہے۔
- 12 اگر میرے بس میں ہوتا تو میں کبھی بھی نہ پیدا ہونے کو ترجیح دیتا۔
- 13 ریٹائرمنٹ کے بعد میں کچھ ایسے دلچسپ کام کروں گی جو میں ہمیشہ کرنا چاہتی تھی۔
- 14 اگر میں آج ہی مر جاؤں تو مجھے یہ محسوس ہوگا کہ میری زندگی بہت اچھی رہی ہے۔
- 15 میں ایک بہت ذمہ دار انسان ہوں۔
- 16 مجھے اپنی زندگی پر مکمل اختیار ہے۔
- 17 روزمرہ کاموں کا سامنا میرے لیے خوشی اور اطمینان کا باعث ہے۔
- 18 مجھے اپنی زندگی میں کسی حد تک اللہ مضبوط پسند ہے تاکہ میں اپنے با اختیار ہونے کے احساس کو مزید مضبوط کر سکوں۔

List of Most Representative Items for the Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

I. Autonomy

- 1- میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتی ہوں۔
- 2- میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ، ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتی ہوں۔
- 3- معاشرتی حدود کے اندر رہتے ہوئے آزادی حاصل کرنا۔
- 4- میں مخالفت کے باوجود اپنی رائے کا اظہار کر سکتا ہوں۔
- 5- میں اپنے فیصلوں کے نتائج کا سامنا کرنے کی ذمہ داری لیتی ہوں۔
- 6- میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور سمجھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا لائحہ عمل بناتی ہوں۔
- 7- تمام لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود جو کرنا چاہوں کر سکتی ہوں بشرطیکہ میں اطمینان ضرور کر لوں میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں۔
- 8- اچھے اور برے کا میرا اپنا بہت مضبوط تصور ہے۔
- 9- مجھے اکیلے کام کرتے ہوئے مشکل پیش آتی ہے خاص طور پر جب مجھے معلوم ہو کہ کام کو رکھا جانا چاہئے گا۔
- 10- میں اپنی سوچ اور جذبات کے مطابقت صحیح یا غلط، مناسب یا نامناسب کا فیصلہ کرتی ہوں۔
- 11- میں اپنے فیصلے دوسروں کو کرنے دیتی ہوں کیونکہ میں ڈرتی ہوں کوئی غلط قدم نہ اٹھا دوں۔
- 12- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہیے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔
- 13- مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔

II. Self-acceptance & self-esteem

- 1- مجھے اپنی خوبیوں اور خامیوں کا علم ہے۔
- 2- مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔
- 3- میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر نہیں سمجھتی۔
- 4- اگر لوگوں کے درمیان بیٹھے ہوئے میں کوئی غلط بات کہہ دوں تو مجھے اس پر شرمندگی ہوتی ہے۔
- 5- میں اپنی زندگی سے مطمئن ہوں۔
- 6- میری موجودگی سے محفل میں جان آ جاتی ہے۔
- 7- میرے خیال میں بیشتر امور میں لوگ میری رائے کو اہمیت دیتے ہیں۔
- 8- میں محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند قابل تعریف خوبیاں موجود ہیں۔
- 9- میں سمجھتا ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی خامی نہیں ہے جسے ٹھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔

III. Acceptance of emotions & freedom of expression of emotions

- 1 اپنے جذبات کو لوگوں پر ظاہر کرنا پسند نہیں۔
- 2 میں اظہار پسندیدگی سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 3 مجھے اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 4 میں محفل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار کرنے سے نہیں گھبراتی۔
- 5 میں اپنے جذبات کے ساتھ ساتھ دوسرے میرے بارے میں کیا جذبات رکھتے ہیں، کا بھی خیال رکھنے کی پوری کوشش کرتی ہوں۔
- 6 مزاح اچھا لگتا ہے۔
- 7 میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ دونوں کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتی ہوں۔
- 8 میں اپنی ذاتی پریشانی کسی کو بتانے سے گھبراتی ہوں۔
- 9 مجھے کسی پر بجا غصہ کرنے میں کوئی مضائقہ نہیں۔

IV. Trust & responsibility in interpersonal relationships

- 1 میرے خیال میں زیادہ تر لوگ دوسروں کو نقصان پہنچاتے ہیں۔
- 2 اگر میں کسی کیلئے کوئی کام نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر دیتی ہوں۔
- 3 میں لوگوں سے کئے گئے وعدے پورے کرنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا ہوں۔
- 4 میں اپنے حقوق دوسروں کی حق تلفی کئے بغیر ہی حاصل کرتا ہوں۔
- 5 اگر کوئی مجھے اپنا راز بتائے تو میں اسے افشاء نہیں کرتی۔
- 6 لوگ میری نیت کے بارے میں شبہ رائے رکھتے ہیں۔
- 7 میں کبھی کبھار اپنے کسی کام کے سلسلے میں لوگوں کی مدد لے لیتا ہوں۔
- 8 میں ہر ایک پر بھروسہ کرتی ہوں تا وقتیکہ مجھے خود کوئی تجربہ نہ ہو۔
- 9 میں اپنے اعمال کی ذمہ داری خود اٹھاتی ہوں اور اگر کچھ غلط بھی ہو جائے تو میں حالات کو درست کرنے میں بہل کرتی ہوں یا میں دوسرے انسانوں کی بات سننے کے لیے تیار ہوتی ہوں۔

V. Purpose in life

- 1 میں اپنی اور قریبی افراد کی بہتری کو مد نظر رکھتے ہوئے کبھی کبھار ایسے طریقے سے بھی اپنا مقصد پورا کر لیتا ہوں جو طریقہ قابل اعتراض ہوتا ہے۔
- 2 اپنی صلاحیتوں کا اظہار کرنے اور بہتر طریقوں سے کر سکوں۔
- 3 اپنے ارد گرد کے لوگوں کی زندگی میں بہتر طریقے سے اثر انداز ہو سکوں۔

- 4- میں اپنی زندگی باقاعدہ منسوبے کے تحت گزارنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 5- میں اکثر یہ محسوس کرتی ہوں کہ شاید میں وہ حاصل نہ کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 6- میری زندگی کا کوئی مقصد نہیں ہے۔
- 7- مجھے زندگی ہمیشہ دلچسپ لگتی ہے۔
- 8- مجھے اپنی زندگی میں کسی حد تک نظم و ضبط پسند ہے تاکہ میں اپنے بااختیار ہونے کے احساس کو مزید مضبوط کر سکوں۔

Original Form of Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

سوالنامہ

ہدایات:

میرا تعلق قومی ادارہ نفسیات قائد اعظم یونیورسٹی اسلام آباد سے ہے میں مختلف افراد کی اپنی ذات کے متعلق خیالات اور احساسات کے بارے میں تحقیق کر رہی ہوں۔ اسی سلسلے میں یہ سوالنامہ آپ کو دیا جا رہا ہے۔ اس سوالنامہ میں کچھ بیانات درج ہیں۔ ہر بیان کے سامنے پانچ جوابات دیئے گئے ہیں۔ ہر بیان کو غور سے پڑھ کر بتائیے کہ آپ کے خیال میں ہر بیان آپ کی اپنی شخصیت کے بارے میں کس حد تک صحیح ہے۔ آپ جس جواب سے متفق ہیں اس کے سامنے (س) کا نشان لگائیں۔ سوالات کا کوئی بھی جواب غلط یا صحیح نہیں ہے لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اسی طرح دیں جیسا آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ ہر بیان کیلئے صرف ایک کالم میں نشان لگائیں کوئی بیان خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
1-	میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصیحے خود کرتا کرتی ہوں۔					
2-	مجھے اپنی خوبیوں اور خامیوں کا علم ہے۔					
3-	میں اپنے جذبات لوگوں پر ظاہر نہیں کرتا کرتی۔					
4-	میں اپنی پریشانی کسی کو بتانے سے مجھے الجھتی ہوں۔					
5-	میں اپنی زندگی ایک مقصد کے تحت باقاعدہ منصوبے کے ساتھ گزارنا چاہتا چاہتی ہوں۔					
6-	مجھے ایسا کام اکیلے کرنے مشکل ہوتی ہے جسے پرکھا جانا چاہئے۔					
7-	میں مذہب اور معاشرے کی اہمیت کا اقرار کرتے ہوئے سوچ اور عمل میں انفرادی آزادی کا اہمیت کی قائل ہوں۔					
8-	مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔					
9-	مجھے بجا فیسے کا اظہار کرنے پر شرمندگی نہیں ہوتی۔					
10-	میں لوگوں سے مجھے وعدے پورے کرنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا کرتی ہوں۔					
11-	میرے خیال میں زیادہ تر لوگ دوسروں کو نقصان پہنچاتے ہیں۔					
12-	میں چاہتا چاہتی ہوں کہ اپنی صلاحیتوں کا اظہار نئے اور بہتر طریقوں سے کر سکوں۔					
13-	میں اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی۔					

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معاوضہ نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
14-	اگر مجھے اطمینان ہو کہ میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں تو لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود جو کرنا چاہوں کرتا کرتی ہوں۔					
15-	میں مجھتا سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی کوئی خامی نہیں ہے جسے ٹھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔					
16-	مجھے شائستہ مذاق کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔					
17-	اگر میں کسی کیلئے کوئی کام نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر دیتا دیتی ہوں۔					
18-	میں اپنی ذات سے مطمئن نہیں ہوں۔					
19-	میں اپنے کئے ہوئے فیصلے کے نتیجے کی ذمہ داری لیتا لیتی ہوں۔					
20-	میں زندگی میں ہمیشہ دلچسپی سے حصہ لیتا لیتی ہوں۔					
21-	میں پسندیدگی کا اظہار آسانی سے نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی۔					
23-	مجھے اپنی زندگی کے مقاصد کا علم نہیں ہے۔					
24-	میں اپنی زندگی میں نظم و ضبط قائم رکھتا/رکھتی ہوں تاکہ میں اپنے بااختیار ہونے کو محسوس کر سکوں۔					
25-	میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں۔					
26-	میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ دلوں کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتا/سکتی ہوں۔					
27-	لوگ میری نیت کے بارے میں مثبت رائے رکھتے ہیں۔					
28-	میں اپنے کام کیلئے ایسے طریقے سے بھی اپنا مقصد پورا کر لیتا لیتی ہوں جو طریقہ قابل اعتراض ہوتا ہے۔					
29-	میں اپنے حقوق دوسروں کی حق منہی کئے بغیر ہی حاصل کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔					
30-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ لوگ میری کمبختی کو پسند نہیں کرتے۔					
31-	اگر میرا وہ کسی کے ساتھ انجانے میں بھی غلط یا نامناسب ہوتو دوسرے شخص کے احساس دلانے بغیر میں اپنے رویے کو درست کرنے میں پہل کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔					
32-	میں اکثر یہ محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں کہ شاید میں وہ حاصل نہ کر سکوں جو میں کرنا چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں۔					
33-	مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔					
34-	مجھے اپنے کام کے لئے لوگوں سے مدد لینے میں ہچکچاہٹ ہوتی ہے۔					
35-	میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں۔					

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
36-	میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور کچھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا اچھا عمل بناتا/بناتی ہوں۔					
37-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہئے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔					
38-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند توہم تعریف خوبیاں ہیں۔					
39-	میں اپنے اچھا عمل اور برائی کے تصور کے مطابق کام کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔					
40-	میں محفل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار آسانی سے نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی۔					
41-	میں چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ میں اپنے ارد گرد کے لوگوں کی زندگی میں بہتر طریقے سے اثر انداز ہو سکوں۔					

کوائف:

- 1- عمر -----
- 2- جنس -----
- 3- ڈیپارٹمنٹ -----
- 4- ماہانہ آمدنی -----
- 5- والد کی تعلیم -----
- 6- والدہ کی تعلیم -----

Index of Personal Growth (IPG)

سوال نمبر

ہدایات:

میرا تعلق قومی ادارہ نفسیات کا کما عظیم یونیورسٹی اسلام آباد سے ہے میں مختلف افراد کی اپنی ذات کے متعلق خیالات اور احساسات کے بارے میں تحقیق کر رہی ہوں۔ اسی سلسلے میں یہ سوالنامہ آپ کو دیا جا رہا ہے۔ اس سوالنامہ میں کچھ بیانات درج ہیں۔ ہر بیان کے سامنے پانچ جوابات دیئے گئے ہیں۔ برائے مہربانی ہر بیان کو غور سے پڑھ کر بتائیے کہ آپ کے خیال میں ہر بیان آپ کی اپنی شخصیت کے بارے میں کس حد تک صحیح ہے۔ آپ جس جواب سے متفق ہیں اس کے سامنے (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔ سوالات کا کوئی بھی جواب غلط یا صحیح نہیں ہے لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اسی طرح دیں جیسا آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ ہر بیان کیلئے صرف ایک کالم میں نشان لگائیں کوئی بیان خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
1-	میں اپنے معاملات کے بارے میں فیصلے خود کرتا کرتی ہوں۔					
2-	میں اپنی زندگی ایک مقصد کے تحت باقاعدہ منسوبے کے ساتھ گزارنا چاہتا چاہتی ہوں۔					
3-	مجھے ایسا کام اکیلے کرنے میں مشکل ہوتی ہے جسے پرکھا جانا چاہئے۔					
4-	مجھے اپنی خامیوں کو تسلیم کرنے میں مشکل پیش آتی ہے۔					
5-	میں لوگوں سے کیے گئے وعدے پورے کرنے کی پوری کوشش کرتا کرتی ہوں۔					
6-	میرے خیال میں زیادہ تر لوگ دوسروں کو نقصان پہنچاتے ہیں۔					
7-	میں چاہتا چاہتی ہوں کہ اپنی صلاحیتوں کا اظہار نئے اور بہتر طریقوں سے کر سکوں۔					
8-	میں اپنی خوشی کا بے ساختہ اظہار نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی۔					
9-	اگر مجھے اطمینان ہو کہ میں صحیح راستے پر ہوں تو لوگوں کی مخالفت کے باوجود جو کرنا چاہوں کرتا کرتی ہوں۔					
10-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں ایسی کوئی خامی نہیں ہے جسے ٹھیک کرنے کی ضرورت ہو۔					
11-	مجھے شاکستہ مذاق کرنا اچھا لگتا ہے۔					
12-	اگر میں کسی کیلئے کوئی کام نہ کر سکوں تو واضح طور پر معذرت کر دیتا/دیتی ہوں۔					
13-	میں اپنی ذات سے مطمئن نہیں ہوں۔					

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
14-	میں اپنے کئے ہوئے فیصلے کے نتیجے کی ذمہ داری لیتا لیتی ہوں۔					
15-	میں زندگی میں ہمیشہ دلچسپی سے حصہ لیتا لیتی ہوں۔					
16-	میں پسندیدگی کا اظہار آسانی سے نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی۔					
17-	اگر کوئی مجھے اپنا راز بتائے تو میں اسے دوسروں کو نہیں بتاتا/بتاتی۔					
18-	مجھے اپنی زندگی کے مقاصد کا علم نہیں ہے۔					
19-	میں اپنی زندگی میں نظم و ضبط قائم رکھتا/رکھتی ہوں تاکہ میں اپنے بااختیار ہونے کو محسوس کر سکوں۔					
20-	میں اپنے آپ کو دوسروں سے کمتر سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں۔					
21-	میں اپنی خوشی اور دکھ دونوں کا واضح طور پر اظہار کر سکتا/سکتی ہوں۔					
22-	لوگ میری نیت کے بارے میں مثبت رائے رکھتے ہیں۔					
23-	میں اپنے کام کیلئے ایسے طریقے سے بھی اپنا مقصد پورا کر لیتا/لیتی ہوں جو طریقہ قابل اعتراض ہوتا ہے۔					
24-	میں اپنے حقوق دوسروں کی حق تلفی کے بغیر ہی حاصل کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔					
25-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ لوگ میری کمپنی کو پسند نہیں کرتے۔					
26-	اگر میرا رویہ کسی کے ساتھ انجانے میں بھی نلکا یا نامناسب ہو تو دوسرے شخص کے احساس دلانے بغیر میں اپنے رویے کو درست کرنے میں پہل کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔					
27-	مجھے یقین ہے کہ انسان اپنی زندگی کی ترجیحات کا انتخاب کرنے میں کافی حد تک آزاد ہے۔					
28-	مجھے اپنے کام کے لئے لوگوں سے مدد لینے میں ہچکچاہٹ ہوتی ہے۔					
29-	میں اپنی کامیابی کی وجہ، ذاتی کوشش اور اعتماد کو سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں۔					
30-	میں ہمیشہ اپنی سوچ اور سمجھ کو سامنے رکھ کر اپنا اٹھکھٹل بناتا/بناتی ہوں۔					
31-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھے وہی کرنا چاہئے جس کی دوسرے مجھ سے توقع کرتے ہیں۔					
32-	میں سمجھتا/سمجھتی ہوں کہ مجھ میں چند قابل تعریف خوبیاں ہیں۔					
33-	میں اپنے اچھائی اور برائی کے تصور کے مطابق کام کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔					
34-	میں محفل میں اپنی رائے کا اظہار آسانی سے نہیں کر سکتا/سکتی۔					
35-	میں چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں کہ میں اپنے ارد گرد کے لوگوں کی زندگی میں بہتر طریقے سے اثر انداز ہو سکوں۔					

کوائف:

- | | |
|-------|-------------------|
| ----- | 1- عمر |
| ----- | 2- جنس |
| ----- | 3- ڈیپارٹمنٹ |
| ----- | 4- ماہانہ آمدنی |
| ----- | 5- والد کی تعلیم |
| ----- | 6- والدہ کی تعلیم |

Internal Locus of Control Scale (ILCS)

سوالنامہ

ہدایات:

نیچے دیئے گئے ہر بیان کو غور سے پڑھ کر یہ بتائیے کہ آپ کے خیال میں ہر بیان آپ کی اپنی شخصیت کے بارے میں کس حد تک صحیح ہے۔ آپ جس جواب سے متفق ہیں اس کے سامنے (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔ سوالات کا کوئی بھی جواب غلط یا صحیح نہیں ہے۔ لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اس طرح دیں جیسا آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ ہر بیان کے لئے صرف ایک کالم میں نشان لگائیں اور کوئی بیان خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
1-	میری کامیابی عموماً میری محنت کا نتیجہ ہوتی ہے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
2-	میری زندگی میرے اپنے اعمال سے بنی ہے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
3-	میں عموماً اپنے مفاد کا تحفظ کر سکتا/سکتی ہوں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
4-	جب میں کوئی منصوبہ بناتا/بناتی ہوں تو اسے عملی جامہ ضرور پہناتا/پہناتی ہوں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
5-	میں کافی حد تک اندازہ لگا سکتا/سکتی ہوں کہ میری زندگی میں کیا ہوگا۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
6-	میرا اچھا لیدر بننا میری صلاحیتوں پر منحصر ہے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
7-	دوسروں کے ساتھ میری دوستی کا انحصار اس بات پر ہے کہ میرا رویہ ان کے ساتھ کیسا ہے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
8-	میری گاڑی کو حادثہ پیش آتا ہے یا نہیں اس کا انحصار میرا گاڑی کی چلانے کی صلاحیت پر منحصر ہے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

**List of Empirically Generated Items
for the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)**

- | | | |
|-----|-----|--|
| | -1 | اپنے دوستوں کے ساتھ پارک میں۔ |
| (3) | -2 | امی کے ساتھ گھر پر۔ |
| (3) | -3 | خاص دوستوں / گرل فرینڈ / بوائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ فون پر۔ |
| | -4 | ایلو کے ساتھ گھر پر۔ |
| (2) | -5 | یونیورسٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ |
| (2) | -6 | اپنی فیملی کے ساتھ کھانے کی میز پر۔ |
| | -7 | لاہمیری میں اپنی سب سے اچھی / اچھے دوست کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -8 | کسی اجنبی کے ساتھ پارٹی میں۔ |
| | -9 | ٹی وی والے کمرے میں والدین کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -10 | ہوسٹل میں۔ |
| | -11 | دوستوں کے ساتھ بیرونی سیاحت کے دوران۔ |
| | -12 | اپنی کزن کے ساتھ چھل قدمی کرتے ہوئے۔ |
| | -13 | اپنی بڑی بہن کے ساتھ گھر پر۔ |
| | -14 | کلاس روم میں استاد کے ساتھ یا آن کے کمرے میں۔ |
| | -15 | اپنے بھائی کے ساتھ اُس کے کمرے میں۔ |
| | -16 | ہس میں خاص دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -17 | ہس پر دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -18 | خاص دوستوں کے ساتھ کار میں۔ |
| | -19 | اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ ہس میں۔ |
| | -20 | ریسٹورانٹ میں اجنبی کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -21 | دوستوں کے ساتھ پکنک پر۔ |
| | -22 | دوستوں کے ساتھ کلاس میں۔ |
| | -23 | اپنے گھر میں فیملی کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -24 | شادی ہال میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ |
| | -25 | اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ یونیورسٹی میں۔ |

- 26 ہمسایوں کے ساتھ گھر پر۔
- 27 سینما ہال میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔
- 28 ریستورنٹ میں فیملی کے ساتھ۔
- 29 بس سٹاپ پر دوستوں کے ساتھ۔

List of Initial Pool Items
for the Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

- (3) اپنی فیملی کے ساتھ کھانے کی میز پر۔ -1
- آپ پارٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ ہیں۔ -2
- (2) آپ اپنے دوست کے ساتھ لائبریری میں ہیں۔ -3
- رسٹورنٹ میں گرل/برائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ ہیں۔ -4
- (2) آپ اپنے دوستوں کے ساتھ بینک پر ہیں / بینک کے دوران۔ -5
- آپ جہاز میں ایک اجنبی شخص کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے ہیں۔ -6
- آپ اپنے / اپنی دوستوں کی فیملی کے ساتھ ہیں۔ -7
- آپ اپنے / اپنی دوستوں کے ساتھ کافی شاپ میں ہیں / کھو کھے پر۔ -8
- آپ کو چند اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ ملا یا جا رہا ہے۔ -9
- گھیں جاتے ہوئے آپ نے کسی شخص کو لفٹ دی ہے اپنی گاڑی میں۔ -10
- آپ اپنی / اپنے گرل / بوائے فرینڈ کے والدین سے پہلی دفعہ مل رہے ہیں۔ -11
- آپ اکیلے کھانا کھا رہے ہیں اور ایک شخص آپ کے ساتھ کھانے پر شریک ہو جاتا ہے۔ -12
- آپ اپنے / اپنی گرل / بوائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ چہل قدمی کر رہے ہیں۔ -13
- آپ اور آپ کا دوست ڈرائیونگ کرتے ہوئے اٹلا نا جا رہے ہیں۔ -14
- (3) آپ اپنی امی کے ساتھ گھر پر ہیں۔ -15
- آپ اپنے دوستوں کے ساتھ کار میں ہیں۔ -16
- آپ خاص دوستوں گرل / فرینڈ / بوائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ فون پر بات کرتے ہوئے۔ -17
- اپنے ابو کے ساتھ گھر پر۔ -18
- (3) یونیورسٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ -19
- کسی اجنبی کے ساتھ پارٹی میں۔ -20
- ٹی وی والے کمرے میں والدین کے ساتھ۔ -21
- ہوسٹل میں۔ -22
- کلاس روم میں استاد کے ساتھ ان کے کمرے میں۔ -23
- اپنی بڑی بہن کے ساتھ گھر پر۔ -24
- اپنے بھائی کے ساتھ اُس کے کمرے میں۔ -25
- بس میں خاص دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ -26
- آپ پارٹی میں بہت سے لوگوں کے درمیان ہیں۔ -27

- 28 اپنے گھر میں فیملی کے ساتھ۔
- 29 بہت سے لوگوں کے درمیان۔
- 30 اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ یونیورسٹی میں۔
- 31 ہمسایوں کے ساتھ گھر پر۔
- 32 بٹس اریسٹورنٹ میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔
- 33 دوستوں کے ساتھ پارک میں۔
- 34 دوستوں کے ساتھ سیر و سیاحت کے دوران۔
- 35 شادی ہال میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔
- 36 ریسٹورنٹ میں فیملی کے ساتھ۔
- 37 اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ بس میں۔
- 38 بس سٹاپ پر دوستوں کے ساتھ۔
- 39 سینما ہال میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔
- 40 ریسٹورنٹ میں اجنبی کے ساتھ۔
- 41 دوستوں کے ساتھ کھانا میں۔
- 42 آپ اپنے ڈیپارٹمنٹ کی طرف سے کسی مباحثے میں شامل ہوئے ہیں۔
- 43 آپ مختلف ڈیپارٹمنٹس کے ساتھ سیر و سیاحت پر گئے ہوئے ہیں۔
- 44 آپ کسی نوکری کے سلسلے میں انٹرویو کیے ہوئے ہیں۔

**Performa for Selecting Culturally Relevant Items for the
Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)**

Instructions

The purpose of the present exercise is to select culturally relevant items for the development of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI). Self-disclosure refers to the process by which persons let themselves be known to others (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991).

Keeping in consideration the above given definition of self-disclosure, you are requested to choose culturally relevant items from the list attached with this performa. Write 'R' for relevant statements and 'NR' for not relevant statements in the parentheses given against each item.

- 1- اپنی فیملی کے ساتھ کھانے کی میز پر۔ ()
- 2- آپ پارٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ ہیں۔ ()
- 3- آپ اپنے دوست کے ساتھ لائبریری میں ہیں۔ ()
- 4- رسٹورنٹ میں گرل / بوائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 5- آپ اپنے دوستوں کے ساتھ بینک پر ہیں یا بینک کے دوران۔ ()
- 6- آپ جہاز میں ایک اجنبی شخص کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے ہیں۔ ()
- 7- آپ اپنے / اپنی دوستوں کی فیملی کے ساتھ ہیں۔ ()
- 8- آپ اپنے / اپنی دوستوں کے ساتھ کافی شاپ میں اکٹو کھے پر ہیں۔ ()
- 9- کہیں جاتے ہوئے آپ نے کسی شخص کو لٹ دی ہے اپنی گاڑی میں۔ ()
- 10- آپ اپنی / اپنے گرل / بوائے فرینڈ کے والدین سے پہلی دفعہ مل رہے ہیں۔ ()
- 11- آپ اکیلے کھانا کھا رہے ہیں اور ایک شخص آپ کے ساتھ کھانے پر شریک ہو جاتا ہے۔ ()
- 12- آپ اپنے / اپنی گرل / بوائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ چہل قدمی کر رہے ہیں۔ ()
- 13- آپ اپنی امی یا اپنے ابو یا بہن بھائی کے ساتھ گھر پر ہیں۔ ()
- 14- آپ اپنے دوستوں کے ساتھ کار میں ہیں۔ ()
- 15- اپنے خاص دوستوں یا گرل / بوائے فرینڈ کے ساتھ فون پر بات کرتے ہوئے۔ ()
- 16- یونیورسٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 17- کسی اجنبی کے ساتھ پارٹی میں۔ ()
- 18- نئی وی والے کمرے میں والدین کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 19- کلاس روم میں استاد کے ساتھ یا ان کے کمرے میں۔ ()
- 20- بس میں خاص دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 21- اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ یونیورسٹی میں۔ ()
- 22- ہنس / رسٹورنٹ میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 23- شادی ہال میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 24- اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ بس میں۔ ()
- 25- بس سٹاپ پر دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 26- سینما ہال میں دوستوں کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 27- رسٹورنٹ میں اجنبی کے ساتھ۔ ()
- 28- آپ اپنے ذمہ پارٹمنٹ کی طرف سے کسی مہانے میں شامل ہوئے ہیں۔ ()
- 29- آپ مختلف ذمہ پارٹمنٹس کے ساتھ سیروسیاحت پر گئے ہوئے ہیں۔ ()
- 30- آپ کسی نوکری کے سلسلے میں انٹرویو کیلئے گئے ہوئے ہیں۔ ()

Original Form of Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

سوالات

ہدایات :-

ذیل میں چند صورتِ احوال دی گئی ہیں جن میں لوگ اپنی ذات کے بارے میں یا اپنے جذبات اور خیالات کا مختلف حد تک اظہار کرتے ہیں۔ یعنی کچھ صورتِ احوال میں عموماً لوگ کھل کر اپنے بارے میں یا اپنے جذبات اور خیالات کا اظہار کریں گے۔ جبکہ کچھ صورتِ احوال میں وہ سطحی طور پر زیر بحث موضوع میں حصہ لیں گے یا اپنی ذات کے بارے میں بات کریں گے۔

برائے مہربانی اپنے آپ کو ہر صورتِ احوال میں تصور کرتے ہوئے یہ بتائیے کہ اگر آپ کا سامنے کسی ایسی صورتِ حال سے ہو تو آپ کس حد تک اپنے بارے میں یا کسی موضوع کے بارے میں کھل کر اپنے جذبات اور خیالات کا اظہار کریں گے۔ نیچے 5-point سکیل دیا گیا ہے جس میں نمبر '1' اور نمبر '5' کی وضاحت کی گئی ہے۔ جبکہ درمیان کے نمبر بتدریج 5 کی طرف بڑھتے ہوئے مختلف ردعمل کو ظاہر کرتے ہیں۔ اس سکیل کی مدد سے ہر صورتِ حال کے سامنے دیئے گئے نمبروں میں سے اُس نمبر پر دائرہ لگائیں جو آپ کے خیال میں آپ کے ردعمل کو مناسب طریقے سے بیان کرے۔ کسی بھی صورتِ حال کا کوئی بھی جواب غلط یا صحیح نہیں ہے۔ لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اسی طرح دیں جیسا آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ کوئی سوال خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔ آپ کے تعاون کا شکریہ۔

سکیل

5	4	3	2	1
اس صورتِ حال میں کھل کر اور تفصیل سے کسی بھی موضوع پر بات کروں گا/گی	کافی حد تک	کبھی کبھار	کسی حد تک	اس صورتِ حال میں میں شامد ہی کچھ موضوعات کے بارے میں بات کروں گا/گی اور اگر کروں گا/گی تو وہ بھی سطحی طور پر

صورتِ احوال

نمبر شمار

5	4	3	2	1	-1	آپ اپنے گھروالوں کے ساتھ گھر کھانا کھا رہے ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-2	آپ اپنے/اپنی خاص دوست کے ساتھ لائبریری میں بیٹھے ہوئے/ بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-3	آپ بس میں ایک اجنبی شخص کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے/ بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-4	آپ شادی ہال میں کچھ اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے/ بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-5	آپ اپنے/اپنی دوست کے ساتھ چائے پی رہے/ رہی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-6	آپ اپنے بوائے فرینڈ/ اپنی گرل فرینڈ کے ساتھ چہل قدمی کر رہے/ رہی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-7	کہیں جاتے ہوئے آپ نے کسی شخص کو ٹفٹ دی ہے۔
5	4	3	2	1	-8	آپ اپنے ڈیپارٹمنٹ کی طرف سے کسی مہانے میں شامل ہوئے/ ہوئی ہیں۔

5	4	3	2	1
اس صورت حال میں میں کھل کر اور تفریح سے کسی بھی موضوع پر بات کروں گا اگلی	کافی حد تک	کبھی کبھار	کسی حد تک	اس صورت حال میں میں شامد ہی کچھ موضوعات کے بارے میں بات کروں گا اگلی اور اگر کروں گا اگلی تو وہ بھی سلی طور پر

نمبر شمار	صورت احوال	5	4	3	2	1
9-	آپ اپنے اپنی دوستوں کے ساتھ پینک پر گئے ہوئے اگلی ہوئی ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
10-	آپ اور آپ کا اکی دوست کار میں کہیں جا رہے اری ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
11-	آپ اکیلے کھانا کھا رہے اری ہیں اور ایک شخص آپ کے ساتھ کھانے میں شریک ہو جاتا ہے۔	5	4	3	2	1
12-	آپ مختلف ڈیپارٹمنٹس کے ساتھ سیروسااحت پر گئے ہوئے اگلی ہوئی ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
13-	آپ یونیورسٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے ا بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
14-	آپ اپنے ہوائے فرینڈ اپنی گرل فرینڈ کے ساتھ فون پر بات کر رہے اری ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
15-	آپ کسی اجنبی شخص کے ساتھ پارٹی میں بیٹھے ہوئے ا بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
16-	آپ بس سٹاپ پر کچھ اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ بس کا انتظار کر رہے اری ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
17-	آپ اپنے والدین یا بہن بھائیوں کے ساتھ ٹی وی لائونج میں بیٹھے ہوئے ا بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
18-	آپ اپنے اپنی دوست کے ساتھ کیفے میں کھانا کھا رہے اری ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
19-	آپ کسی نوکری کے سلسلے میں انٹرویو کے لیے گئے ہوئے اگلی ہوئی ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1
20-	آپ کیفے میں کچھ اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ ایک میز پر بیٹھے ا بیٹھی چائے پی رہے اری ہیں۔	5	4	3	2	1

Self-disclosure Situations Inventory (SSI)

سوالات نامہ

ہدایات :-

ذیل میں چند صورتِ احوال دی گئی ہیں جن میں لوگ اپنی ذات کے بارے میں یا اپنے جذبات اور خیالات کا مختلف حد تک اظہار کرتے ہیں۔ یعنی کچھ صورتِ احوال میں عموماً لوگ کھل کر اپنے بارے میں یا اپنے جذبات اور خیالات کا اظہار کریں گے۔ جبکہ کچھ صورتِ احوال میں وہ سستھی طور پر زیر بحث موضوع میں حصہ لیں گے یا اپنی ذات کے بارے میں بات کریں گے۔

برائے مہربانی اپنے آپ کو ہر صورتِ احوال میں تصور کرتے ہوئے یہ بتائیے کہ اگر آپ کا سامنے کسی ایسی صورتِ حال سے ہوا تو آپ کس حد تک اپنے بارے میں یا کسی موضوع کے بارے میں کھل کر اپنے جذبات اور خیالات کا اظہار کریں گے۔ نیچے 5-point سکیل دیا گیا ہے جس میں نمبر '1' اور نمبر '5' کی وضاحت کی گئی ہے۔ جبکہ درمیان کے نمبر بتدریج 5 کی طرف بڑھتے ہوئے مختلف رد عمل کو ظاہر کرتے ہیں۔ اس سکیل کی مدد سے ہر صورتِ حال کے سامنے دیئے گئے فیروں میں سے 'س' نمبر پر دائرہ لگائیں جو آپ کے خیال میں آپ کے رد عمل کو مناسب طریقے سے بیان کرے۔ کسی بھی صورتِ حال کا کوئی بھی جواب لفظ یا صحیح نہیں ہے۔ لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اسی طرح دیں جیسا آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ کوئی سوال خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔ آپ کے تعاون کا شکریہ۔

سکیل

5	4	3	2	1
اس صورتِ حال میں میں کھل کر اور تفصیل سے کسی بھی موضوع پر بات کروں گا/گی	کافی حد تک	کبھی کبھار	کسی حد تک	اس صورتِ حال میں میں شامدی کچھ موضوعات کے بارے میں بات کروں گا/گی اور اگر کروں گا/گی تو وہ بھی سستھی طور پر

صورتِ احوال

نمبر شمار

5	4	3	2	1	-1	آپ بس میں ایک اجنبی شخص کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے/ بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-2	آپ شادی ہال میں کچھ اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے/ بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-3	آپ اپنے/اپنی دوست کے ساتھ چائے پی رہے/ رہی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-4	آپ اپنے ہوائے فرینڈ اپنی گریڈ فرینڈ کے ساتھ چہل قدمی کر رہے/ رہی ہیں۔
5	4	3	2	1	-5	کہیں جاتے ہوئے آپ نے کسی شخص کو لٹ دی ہے۔
5	4	3	2	1	-6	آپ اپنے ڈیپارٹمنٹ کی طرف سے کسی مہانے میں شامل ہوئے/ ہوئی ہیں۔

5	4	3	2	1
اس صورت حال میں میں کھل کر اور تفصیل سے کسی بھی موضوع پر بات کروں گا/گی	کافی حد تک	کبھی کبھار	کسی حد تک	اس صورت حال میں میں شائد ہی کچھ موضوعات کے بارے میں بات کروں گا/گی اور اگر کروں گا/گی تو وہ بھی سطحی طور پر

صورت احوال

نمبر شمار

- 5 4 3 2 1 -7 آپ اپنے/اپنی دوستوں کے ساتھ کینک پر گئے ہوئے اگلی ہوئی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -8 آپ اور آپ کا/کی دوست کار میں کہیں جا رہے ارہی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -9 آپ اکیلے کھانا کھا رہے ارہی ہیں اور ایک شخص آپ کے ساتھ کھانے میں شریک ہو جاتا ہے۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -10 آپ مختلف ڈیپارٹمنٹس کے ساتھ میریسیاحت پر گئے ہوئے اگلی ہوئی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -11 آپ یونیورسٹی میں دوستوں کے ساتھ بیٹھے ہوئے/بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -12 آپ اپنے بوائے فرینڈ/اپنی گرل فرینڈ کے ساتھ فون پر بات کر رہے ارہی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -13 آپ کسی اجنبی شخص کے ساتھ پارٹی میں بیٹھے ہوئے/بیٹھی ہوئی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -14 آپ بس سٹاپ پر کچھ اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ بس کا انتظار کر رہے ارہی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -15 آپ اپنے/اپنی دوست کے ساتھ کیفے میں کھانا کھا رہے ارہی ہیں۔
- 5 4 3 2 1 -16 آپ کیفے میں کچھ اجنبی لوگوں کے ساتھ ایک میز پر بیٹھے/بیٹھی چائے پی رہے ارہی ہیں۔

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Paternal)

سوالنامہ

ہدایات:

اس سوالنامہ میں کچھ بیانات درج ہیں جن کا تعلق آپ کے اور آپ کے والد کے تعلقات کے ساتھ ہے۔ ہر بیان کو غور سے پڑھیں اور سوچ کر بتائیں کہ عمر کے ابتدائی 15 سوالوں میں آپ کے والد کا گھر میں بچوں اور آپ کے ساتھ کیسا برتاؤ تھا۔ ہر بیان کے سامنے دیئے گئے جوابات میں جو آپ کے خیال میں سب سے مناسب ہے اس پر (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔ ہر بیان کیلئے 5 جوابات موجود ہیں۔ سوالات کا کوئی بھی جواب صحیح یا غلط نہیں ہے۔ لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اسی طرح دیں جیسا کہ آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں کہ آپ کے گھر ہوتا تھا۔ ہر بیان کیلئے ایک نشان لگائیں اور کوئی بھی جملہ خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
1-	میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ گھر میں بچوں کو بھی اپنی مرضی کرنے کا اتنا ہی اختیار ہونا چاہیے جتنا کہ والدین کو۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
2-	میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ بچوں سے ان کی بہتری کیلئے کچھ کام زبردستی بھی کروانے چاہئیں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
3-	میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ میں بغیر کوئی سوال پوچھتے ان کے کہنے پر فوری عمل کروں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
4-	میرے ابو گھر کے کسی معاملہ سے متعلق فیصلہ کرنے کے بعد اس کی وجوہات بھی بتایا کرتے تھے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
5-	جب بھی گھر میں کوئی پابندی اور اصول مجھے نامناسب لگتے تھے تو میرے ابو بات اور مشوروں کو سن لیتے تھے۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
6-	میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ بچوں کو اس بات کی آزادی ہونی چاہئے کہ وہ اپنے لیے جو چاہیں سوچیں اور اس پر عمل کریں چاہے والدین ان سے اتفاق کریں یا نہ کریں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

7- میرے ابو اس کی اجازت نہیں دیتے تھے کہ میں ان کے کیے ہوئے فیصلے کے خلاف بولوں۔

8- میرے ابو گھر میں بچوں سے متعلق معاملات کے فیصلے سوچ کر اور اچھے طریقے سے کرتے تھے۔

9- میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ والدین کو بچوں کی تربیت سختی سے کام لیتے ہوئے کرنی چاہیے۔

10- میرے ابو یہ نہیں سمجھتے تھے کہ مجھے اصول صرف اس لیے مان لینے چاہیں کہ وہ بڑوں نے بنائے ہیں۔

11- یہ جانتے ہوئے بھی کہ میرے ابو مجھ سے کیا چاہتے ہیں پھر بھی اگر مجھے کوئی بات ٹھیک نہیں لگتی تھی تو میں آزادی سے اُن سے اس کے متعلق بات کر لیتا تھا اور لیتا تھی۔

12- میرے ابو سمجھتے تھے کہ عقل مند والدین کو بہت شروع ہی میں بچوں کو یہ بتا دینا چاہیے کہ گھر میں کس کا حکم چلے گا۔

13- میرے ابو بہت کم بتایا کرتے تھے کہ مجھے مختلف کام کیسے کرنے ہیں۔

14- میرے ابو اکثر وہی فیصلے کرتے تھے جو کہ گھر میں ہم بچوں کی مرضی ہوتی تھی۔

15- جب ہم بہن بھائی بڑے ہو رہے تھے تو میرے ابو ہمیشہ ہمیں مختلف کام کرنے کے طریقے بہت اچھی طرح سے بتاتے اور سمجھاتے تھے۔

16- جب میں ابو کی بات نہیں مانتا تھا، مانتا تھا یا نہی تھی تو وہ بہت ناراض ہو جاتے تھے۔

- 17- میرے ابو سمجھتے ہیں کہ اگر والدین بچوں کے خیالات، فیصلوں اور معاملات پر پابندی نہ لگائیں تو معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل ختم ہو سکتے ہیں۔
- 18- میرے ابو مجھے بتاتے تھے کہ مجھے کیا کرنا چاہیے۔ لیکن اگر میں ویسا نہیں کرتا تھا کرتی تھی تو وہ مجھے سزا دیتے تھے۔
- 19- میرے ابو مجھے زیادہ تر معاملات میں خود فیصلے کرنے دیتے تھے۔
- 20- میرے ابو فیصلے کرتے وقت ہماری رائے کو اہمیت دیتے تھے لیکن صرف ہماری مرضی پر فیصلہ نہیں کرتے تھے۔
- 21- میرے ابو یہ ذمہ داری نہیں لیتے تھے کہ وہ مجھے بتائیں کہ مجھے مختلف کام کیسے کرنے ہیں۔
- 22- میرے ابو بچوں کے معاملات کے بارے میں ایک خاص رویہ رکھتے تھے مگر اس کو کبھی کبھی بچوں کی ضرورت کے مطابق تبدیل بھی کر دیتے تھے۔
- 23- میرے ابو بتاتے تھے کہ مجھے کیا کرنا چاہیے اور وہ چاہتے تھے کہ میں ان کی باتوں پر عمل کروں لیکن وہ ہماری بات بھی سن لیتے تھے کہ میں ان کاموں کو کیسے کرنا چاہتی/چاہتا ہوں۔
- 24- میرے ابو مجھے اجازت دیتے تھے کہ میں گھر کے معاملات میں اپنی رائے دوں اور اپنے بارے میں خود فیصلے بھی کروں۔
- 25- میرے ابو کا ہمیشہ سے خیال ہے کہ معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل حل ہو جائیں اگر والدین بچوں کی غلطیوں پر ان کے ساتھ سختی سے پیش آئیں۔
- 26- میرے ابو اکثر مجھے بتاتے تھے کہ وہ مجھ سے کیا چاہتے ہیں اور میں کس طرح ان کی خواہش کو پورا کر سکتا/سکتی ہوں۔

27- میرے ابو مجھے مشورے دیتے لیکن اگر مجھے اُن کا مشورہ ٹھیک نہیں لگتا تھا تو وہ میری بات بھی سمجھ جاتے تھے۔

28- میرے ابو گھر میں بچوں کے معاملات کے بارے میں ہدایات نہیں دیتے تھے۔

29- مجھے پیدہ ہوتا تھا کہ میرے ابو چاہتے ہیں کہ میں اُن کی ہر بات مانوں کیونکہ وہ مجھ سے بڑے ہیں۔

30- اگر مجھے ابو کے کسی فیصلے پر ڈکھ پہنچتا تھا تو وہ میری بات سن لیتے تھے اور اگر وہ غلطی پر ہوتے تھے تو اس غلطی کو مان بھی نہیںتے تھے۔

Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) (Maternal)

سوالنامہ

ہدایات

اس سوالنامہ میں کچھ بیانات درج ہیں جن کا تعلق آپ کے اور آپ کے والدین کے تعلقات کے ساتھ ہے۔ ہر بیان کو ٹور سے پڑھیں اور سوچ کر بتائیں کہ عمر کے ابتدائی 15 سالوں میں آپ کی امی کا گھر میں بچوں اور آپ کے ساتھ کیسا برتاؤ تھا۔ ہر بیان کے سامنے دیئے گئے جوابات میں جو آپ کے خیال میں سب سے مناسب ہے اس پر (✓) کا نشان لگائیں۔ ہر بیان کیلئے 5 جوابات موجود ہیں۔ سوالات کا کوئی بھی جواب صحیح یا غلط نہیں ہے۔ لہذا ہر سوال کا جواب اسی طرح جیسا کہ آپ محسوس کرتے ہیں کہ آپ کے گھر میں ہوتا تھا۔ ہر بیان کیلئے ایک نشان لگائیں اور کوئی بھی ہملہ خالی نہ چھوڑیں۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل صحیح	کسی حد تک صحیح	معلوم نہیں	کسی حد تک غلط	بالکل غلط
1-	میری امی سمجھتی تھیں کہ گھر میں بچوں کو بھی اپنی مرضی کرنے کا اتنا ہی اختیار ہونا چاہیے جتنا کہ والدین کو۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
2-	میری امی سمجھتی تھیں کہ بچوں سے ان کی بہتری کیلئے کچھ کام زبردستی بھی کروانے چاہیں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
3-	میری امی چاہتی تھیں کہ میں بغیر کوئی سوال پوچھے ان کے کہنے پر فوری عمل کروں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
4-	میری امی گھر کے کسی معاملہ سے متعلق فیصلہ کرنے کے بعد اس کی وجوہات بھی بتایا کرتی تھیں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
5-	جب بھی گھر میں کوئی پابندی اور اصول مجھے نامناسب لگتے تھے تو میری امی بات اور مشوروں کو سن لیتی تھیں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
6-	میری امی سمجھتی تھیں کہ بچوں کو اس بات کی آزادی ہونی چاہئے کہ وہ اپنے لیے جو چاہیں سوچیں اور اس پر عمل کریں چاہئے والدین ان سے اتفاق کریں یا نہ کریں۔	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

7- میری امی اس کی اجازت نہیں دیتی تھیں
کہ میں اُن کے کئے ہوئے فیصلے کے
مخلاف بولوں۔

8- میری امی لکھنؤ میں بچوں سے متعلق
محادثات کے فیصلے سوچ کر اور اچھے
طریقے سے کرتی تھیں۔

9- میری امی سمجھتی تھیں کہ والدین کو
بچوں کی تربیت سختی سے کام لیتے ہوئے
کرنی چاہیے۔

10- میری امی یہ نہیں سمجھتی تھیں کہ مجھے
اُسول صرف اس لیے مان لینے چاہیں
کہ وہ بڑوں نے بنائے ہیں۔

11- یہ جانتے ہوئے بھی کہ میری امی مجھ سے کیا
چاہتی ہیں پھر بھی اگر مجھے کوئی بات ٹھیک نہیں
لگتی تھی تو میں آزادی سے اُسے اس کے متعلق
بات کر لیتا تھا/ لیتی تھی۔

12- میری امی سمجھتی تھیں کہ نفل مند والدین کو
بہت شروع ہی میں بچوں کو یہ بتادینا چاہیے
کہ گھر میں کس کا حکم چلے گا۔

13- میری امی بہت کم بتایا کرتی تھیں کہ مجھے
مختلف کام کیسے کرنے ہیں۔

14- میری امی اکثر وہی فیصلے کرتی تھیں جو کہ
لکھنؤ میں ہم بچوں کی مرضی ہوتی تھیں۔

15- جب ہم بہن بھائی بڑے ہو رہے تھے تو
میرا امی ہمیشہ ہمیں مختلف کام کرنے کے
طریقے بہت اچھی طرح سے بتاتیں اور
سمجھاتی تھیں۔

16- جب میں امی کی بات نہیں مانتا تھا/ مانتی
تھی تو وہ بہت ناراض ہوتی تھیں۔

- 17- میری امی سمجھتی ہیں اگر والدین بچوں کے خیالات، فیصلوں اور معاملات پر پابندی نہ لگائیں تو معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل ختم ہو سکتے ہیں۔
- 18- میری امی مجھے بتاتی تھیں کہ مجھے کیا کرنا چاہیے۔ لیکن اگر میں ویسا نہیں کرتا تھا، کرتی تھی تو وہ مجھے سزا دیتی تھیں۔
- 19- میری امی مجھے زیادہ تر معاملات میں خود فیصلے کرنے دیتی تھیں۔
- 20- میری امی فیصلے کرتے وقت ہماری رائے کو اہمیت دیتی تھیں لیکن صرف ہماری مرضی پر فیصلہ نہیں کرتی تھیں۔
- 21- میری امی یہ ذمہ داری نہیں لیتی تھیں کہ وہ مجھے بتائیں کہ مجھے کام کیسے کرنے ہیں۔
- 22- میری امی بچوں کے معاملات کے بارے میں ایک خاص رویہ رکھتی تھیں مگر اس کو کبھی کبھی بچوں کی ضرورت کے مطابق تبدیل بھی کر دیتی تھیں۔
- 23- میری امی بتاتی تھیں کہ مجھے کیا کرنا چاہیے اور وہ چاہتی تھیں کہ میں ان کی باتوں پر عمل کروں لیکن وہ میری بھی بات بھی سن لیتی تھیں کہ میں ان کاموں کو کیسے کرنا چاہتی ہوں۔
- 24- میری امی مجھے اجازت دیتی تھیں کہ میں گھر کے معاملات میں اپنی رائے دوں اور اپنے بارے میں خود فیصلے بھی کروں۔
- 25- میری امی کا ہمیشہ سے خیال ہے کہ معاشرے کے بہت سے مسائل حل ہو جائیں اگر والدین بچوں کی غلطیوں پر ان کے ساتھ سختی سے پیش آئیں۔

- 26- میری امی اکثر مجھے بتاتی تھیں کہ وہ
مجھ سے کیا چاہتی ہیں اور میں کس طرح ان
کی خواہش کو پورا کر سکتا/سکتی ہوں۔

- 27- میری امی مجھے مشورے دیتی تھیں لیکن
اگر مجھے ان کا مشورہ ٹھیک نہیں لگتا تھا تو
وہ میری بات بھی سمجھ جاتی تھیں۔

- 28- میری امی گھر میں بچوں کے معاملات
کے بارے میں ہدایات نہیں دیتی تھیں۔

- 29- مجھے پتہ ہوتا تھا کہ میری امی چاہتی
ہیں کہ میں ان کی ہر بات مانوں کیونکہ
وہ مجھ سے بڑی ہیں۔

- 30- اگر مجھے امی کے کسی فیصلے پر دکھ پہنچتا
تھا تو وہ میری بات سن لیتی تھیں اور آکر وہ
غلطی پر ہوتی تھیں تو اس غلطی کو مان بھی
لیتی تھیں۔
