

**EXAMINING SCHOOL ANXIETY IN ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL STUDENTS**

Dissertation submitted to

**ST. TERESA'S COLLEGE (Autonomous)
ERNAKULAM**



Affiliated to

MAHATMA GANDHI UNIVERSITY

**In partial fulfilment of requirement for the
AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF SCIENCE IN
HOME SCIENCE (BRANCH A) CHILD DEVELOPMENT**

By

**HANNA ELIZABETH V.T
(Register No: AM22HCD005)**

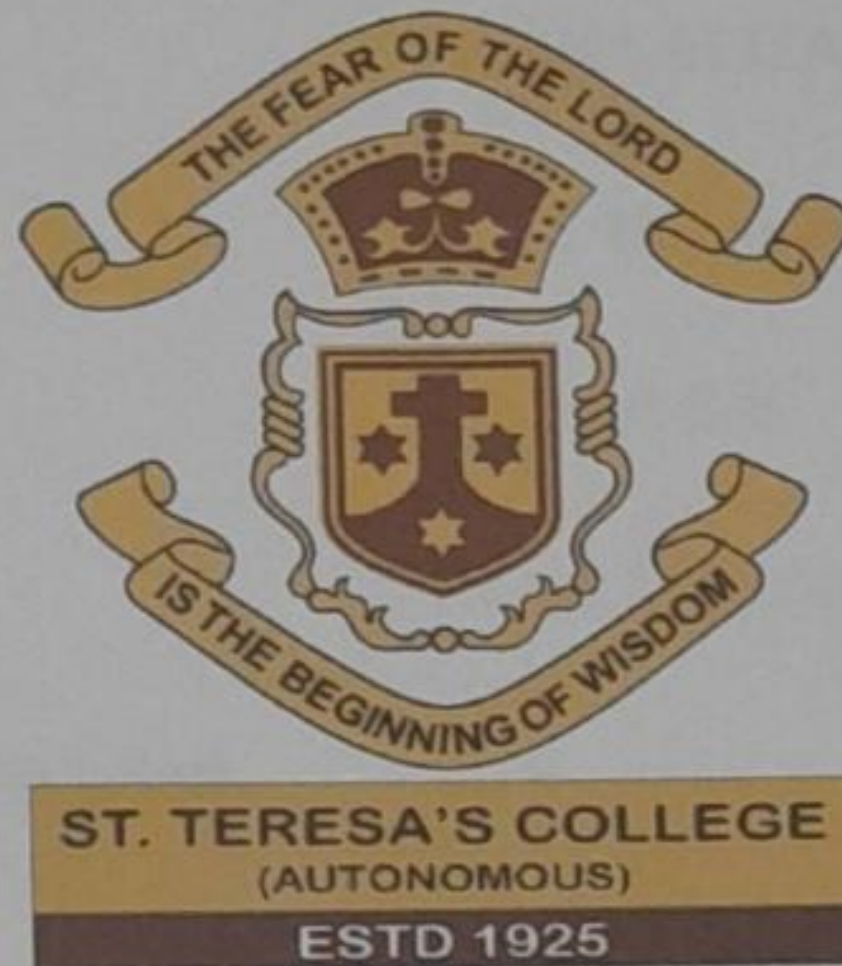
Department of Home Science and Centre for Research

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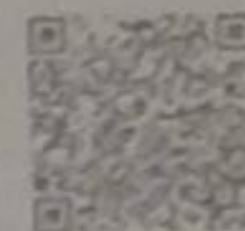
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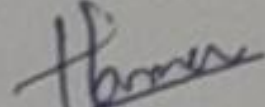
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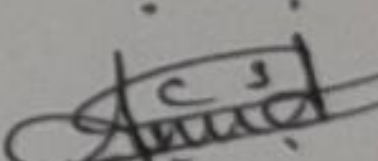


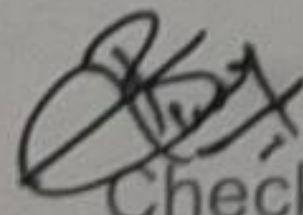
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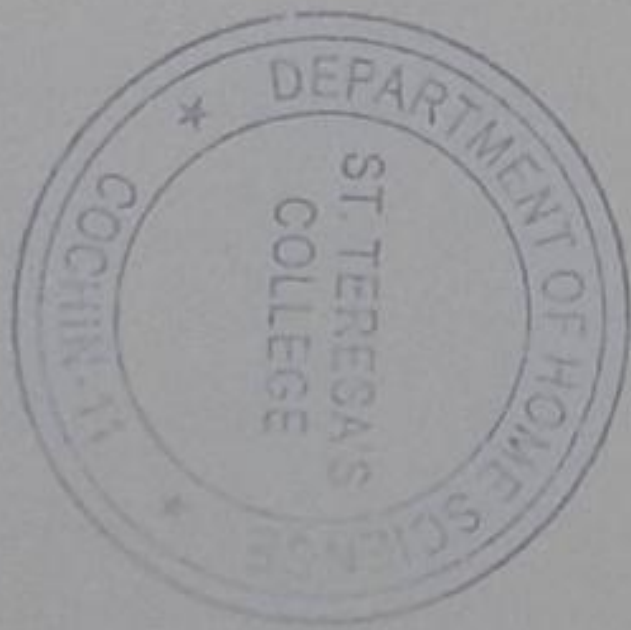
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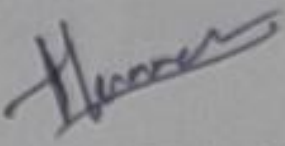


DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled "**Examining school anxiety in elementary students**" is a bonafide record of research work done by me during the course of study, under the supervision and guidance of Anu C S, Guest lecturer, Department of Home Science, St. Teresa's College (Autonomous) Ernakulam.

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INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Anxiety is a typical response to stress. Mild anxiety might be advantageous in certain instances. It may notify us about threats and help us prepare and pay attention. Anxiety disorders are marked by excessive fear or anxiety, as opposed to typical nervousness or anxiousness. It is common for children and young adults to experience worry or anxiety from time to time, such as when they begin school or nursery or relocate to a new place.

However, for some children and adolescents, anxiety impacts their behaviour and thinking on a daily basis, interfering with their school, home, and social lives. Younger children are more likely to have separation anxiety, while older children and teenagers may experience school-related or social anxiety.

Anxiety makes school difficult for children. It could also be difficult to observe. Anxiety might be mistaken for upset stomachs, acting out, ADHD, or even learning disabilities. There are several types of worry that might arise in school. Children may experience anxiety about various aspects of school, including separation from parents at drop-off, speaking up in class, and feeling pressured to complete perfect work.

School anxiety can impact kids of any age. It emerges as an intense fear of school and its associated activities, such as forming friends, performing in public, or facing tests. Anxiety over school is prevalent and can impact any child, irrespective of age, grade level, or achievement in school. Some students get such severe symptoms that they are unable to learn or function at school. (Zia Sherrell, MPH, 2022).

School anxiety is a type of anxiety that students experience during their academic careers, and it can manifest in a variety of ways, including feeling overwhelmed by academic pressures, having difficulty concentrating in class, feeling nervousness or panic about going to school, experiencing physical symptoms such as stomach aches or headaches, and struggling with social interactions with fellow students and instructors.

School anxiety refers to fear and stress about going to school. Doctors may also call it school phobia or school refusal. Although it is fairly uncommon for children to be anxious about starting school or moving to a new school, children with school anxiety experience a high level of fear and worry over their daily attendance. This may interfere with their ability to attend lessons or perform well in school.

Self-concept refers to an individual's impression of themselves. An individual's self-perception plays a significant role in shaping their behavior. Students who believe in their ability to organize and execute tasks are more likely to achieve desired results. Expectations and parental confidence in their children's abilities also have a big impact on how motivated, independent, curious, persistent, and capable they are as problem solvers.

School rejection is not considered a mental health diagnosis. However, the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition (DSM-5) states that this symptom may be associated with a variety of other diagnoses, including depression, social anxiety disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, specific phobia, oppositional defiant disorder, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD).

An earlier Indian study reported that high anxiety was prevalent in 20.1% of boys and 17.9% of girls, and this difference was statistically significant. A few constructs, such as 'parental control' and 'parental warmth' against 'parental rejection', which include parental ignorance, withdrawal, abandonment, hostility, aggression, lack of affection, acceptance, and responsiveness, are connected with children's anxiety levels. These constructions have particular characteristics for each kid and discriminate across the child's gender. (nih.gov, 2013).

Mental health practitioners don't fully comprehend the causes of school anxiety. For other children, the dread and worry associated with school anxiety stem from a specific cause, such as being bullied or having a negative experience at school. Others may experience more generalized anxiety, such as social or performance anxiety.

Children may experience anxiety if they have been at home for an extended amount of time, such as during summer vacation or due to illness. A stressful event, such as the death of a family member or the relocation to a new house, may also cause the illness.

Anxiety makes school hard for kids. It might also be hard to notice. Anxiety can be confused with upset stomachs, acting out, ADHD, or even learning disorders. And there are different kinds of anxiety that might come up at school. Kids may worry about everything from separating from their parents at drop-off to speaking up in class to feeling like their work has to be perfect. Teachers may think a kid has ADHD when they're restless or aren't able to focus on the lesson. But it could be anxiety. Some kids don't want to go to school, especially after a summer or holiday break. This can also be anxiety. Throwing tantrums in the classroom or asking the same questions over and over are other ways anxiety can show up at school. (Rachel Ehmke,2023).

A handful of kids genuinely want to engage, yet when called upon, they simply freeze up. Other students are so concerned with the perfection of what they are doing that they do not submit any assignments. Teachers may believe that students do not care or have a learning disability. To add to the confusion, children with learning difficulties may experience significant worry prior to being identified if they are falling behind in school.

Physical issues can also be a symptom of anxiety. Anxious children frequently have headaches and stomach aches. They sometimes experience breathing difficulties or a racing heart when they become extremely nervous. Nervousness can sometimes be easily recognized, such as when a youngster experiences nervousness prior to a school test. Sometimes worry in the classroom can take the form of something completely different, such as a stomach ailment, irrational or violent behavior, ADHD, or even a learning disability.

Home sets the summarized sketch for the child's behavior and approach towards people and society, assists academic development among children, and supports their ambition and values. Parents encourage children's study at home and talk about study materials with their children that motivate children to take advantage of learning and other activities. Parents nurture, take care of, and provide guidance and discipline to their children, who in turn reproduce into a sound and healthy adulthood. Parents expectations and beliefs in their children's competence also play a very significant role in influencing children's motivation, autonomy, curiosity, perseverance, and problem-solving ability. (P Madivalar,2022).

Young children who are anxious may also act aggressively. Children's fight-or-flight response may activate to protect themselves when they feel angry or threatened and are unable to manage their emotions. As a result, some children may become more likely to fight. Feeling

out of control, pupils may push over a desk, toss belongings, or attack a teacher or another youngster. Children who experience anxiety in the classroom may find it difficult to concentrate on the lesson and to ignore the nervous thoughts that are taking over. Certain children will steer clear of or outright reject activities that cause them anxiety. This covers common causes of anxiety, such as making presentations, but also activities like working in groups, going to the gym, and eating in the cafeteria.

It might seem to teachers and classmates that children who begin skipping classes are unmotivated or underachievers, but this may not be the case. Children will sometimes avoid situations out of fear of making a mistake or facing criticism. Classroom communication anxiety, also referred to as participation anxiety or classroom communication apprehension, is a form of situational anxiety that arises when students worry that they won't perform well enough in front of their classmates or the teacher, like when they must respond to a question in front of the class.

Anxiety disorders cause people to feel frightened, distressed, or uneasy during situations in which most people would not feel that way. Left untreated, anxiety disorders can make it hard for students to get schoolwork done or study. It may affect their relationships with peers and teachers, too. In some cases, students with anxiety disorders miss a lot of school days. Or they may avoid school altogether. (Shirin Hasan,2023).

Fear can cause a number of symptoms, including perspiration, breathlessness, and a beating heart. Children may also act out or refuse to attend school. If a child is consistently missing school or is refusing to attend, it is imperative that you get their help from a professional. Refusing to attend school can have negative effects on a child's education and social development, and it is harder to address with time.

In addition, it's critical to get the assistance of a mental health specialist if the child's anxiety is seriously disrupting their everyday lives or giving them great discomfort. If anxiety is not managed, it can result in other issues like social isolation, depression, and substance abuse disorders. A better parental attitude toward academic success can benefit children who are terrified of failing. School anxiety can sometimes have its roots at home. When it comes to supporting your child in overcoming school anxiety, there are many alternatives available. The majority of these come down to responding compassionately and empathetically, as opposed to enforcing rigid guidelines and penalties.

1.1 RELEVENCE OF THE STUDY

Anxiety is the subjective sensation that accompanies the body's response to a real or perceived threat. Anxiety disorders influence a child's school and home functioning and have implications for development. With lifetime prevalence rates of 15%–20% and with >10% of children having impaired anxiety, anxiety disorder (AD) represents the most common childhood psychopathology. Childhood anxiety increases the risk of anxiety onset later in life and is associated with long-term consequences related to school achievement and development. A study from India reported 36.7% of the children studying in secondary school (class V–X) having anxiety disorder. The mean age of onset for an AD is 11 years, as reported by Kessler et al. in 2005. (Ind Psychiatry J. 2017)

Anxiety is one of the most common psychological disorders in school-aged children and adolescents worldwide (Costello, Mustillo, Erkanli, Keeler, & Angold, 2003). After all, kids today have to deal with the impacts of social media seeping into their real-life social interactions. They're facing ever-increasing academic expectations. They're up against a rise in bullying. And in a world that's slowly reopening, yet still feeling the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, many may also be experiencing a loss of social skills (Trusted Source) and anxiety around a return to school after over a year of online learning. It's no wonder that the estimated prevalence of anxiety among children ages 6 to 17 has increased over time from about 5.5% in 2003 (Trusted Source) to 7.1% in 2016. Plus, evidence suggests, according to Trusted Source, that children and young adults experienced an increase in anxiety symptoms during the COVID-19 pandemic. According to the Centres for Disease Control (CDC) Trusted Source, 7.1% of kids between the ages of 3 and 17 have been diagnosed with anxiety. For 2% to 5% of kids, that translates into anxiety-based school refusal, one potential result of unaddressed school anxiety. (Leah Capbell,2021)

A study conducted by BMC Public Health states that only 2% of elementary school students had an abnormal level of self-reported anxiety, as compared with 7.8% and 13% of middle and high school students, respectively. This result is consistent with the onset of common anxiety disorders, such as social phobia and generalized anxiety disorder, which are more likely to occur during adolescence than in childhood and adulthood (Luigi Mazzone, Francesca Ducci, Maria Cristina Scoto, Eleonora Passaniti, Valentina Genitori D'Arrigo, & Benedetto Vitiello, 2007).

The study on children's school anxiety is extremely pertinent since it discusses students' mental health and wellbeing, which have a direct bearing on their ability to learn and general quality of life. Numerous detrimental effects, such as low academic performance, social isolation, and even physical health problems, can result from school anxiety. Teachers, parents, and mental health professionals can create successful interventions and support techniques to help students cope with and overcome their anxiety by having a thorough understanding of the causes and effects of school anxiety. Taking care of school anxiety can also help foster an environment that is encouraging and helpful for all pupils. Consequently, research on students' school anxiety is essential to advancing both their emotional and academic wellbeing.

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

The study aims to examine “School Anxiety in Elementary School Students.”.

1.3 GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To examine the prevalence, signs, and symptoms of school anxiety among elementary students, exploring the roles of gender, grade, school type, parenting style, and teacher anxiety.

1.3.1 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To examine parenting style and academic performance.
2. To examine gender differences in academic performance.
3. To examine teacher anxiety in different school settings.
4. To compare teacher anxiety and academic performance.
5. To examine gender differences in teacher anxiety.
6. To examine the correlation between test anxiety and academic performance.
7. To compare teacher anxiety in 4th and 5th grade students.
8. To compare test anxiety in 4th and 5th grade students.
9. To compare test anxiety in different school settings.
10. To examine gender differences in test anxiety.
11. To use the school refusal assessment scale to analyse refusal behaviour

- Avoidance of stimuli

- Escape from social situation
- Attention seeking behaviour
- Tangible rewards

1.4 Hypothesis

- There is significant association between Parenting Style and Academic Performance.
- There is significant association between Gender Differences and Academic Performance
- There is significant association between Teacher Anxiety in Different School Setting.
- There is significant association between Teacher Anxiety and Academic Performance.
- There is significant association between Gender Differences in Teacher Anxiety.
- There is positive correlation between Test Anxiety and Academic Performance.
- There is significant association between Teacher Anxiety In 4th And 5th Grade Students.
- There is significant association between Test Anxiety In 4th And 5th Grade Students.
- There are significant differences between Test Anxiety in Different School Setting.
- There are significant differences between Gender Differences in Test Anxiety.
- There is significant difference between Gender Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli.
- There is significant difference between Gender Differences and Escape from Social Situation.
- There is significant difference between Gender Differences and Attention Seeking.
- There is significant difference between Gender Differences and Tangible Rewards.
- There is significant difference between Class Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli.
- There is significant difference between Class Differences and Escape from Social Situation.
- There is significant difference between Class Differences and Attention Seeking.
- There is significant difference between Class Differences and Tangible Rewards.
- There is significant difference between School Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli.
- There is significant difference between School Differences and Escape from Social Situations.
- There is significant difference between School Differences and Attention Seeking.
- There is significant difference between School Differences and Tangible Rewards.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A literature review is an academic paper that shows knowledge and awareness of a given issue within the framework of academic literature. A literature review is a summary of previously published works on a given topic. The phrase can refer to either the entire study paper or a portion of it, such as a book or an article. It is commonly known as literature review rather than literature report because it is a process of reviewing the literature and it also includes critical evaluation on the material.

The review of literature for the project entitled "Examining school anxiety in elementary school students" can be discussed under the following heading:

2.1 Theoretical framework of school anxiety

2.2 Prevalence and epidemiology of school anxiety

2.3 Risk factors for developing school anxiety

2.4 Impact of school anxiety

2.5 Role of school interventions

2.6 Parental involvement and family-based interventions

2.7 Long term consequences of school anxiety

2.1 Theoretical framework of school anxiety

Ingul and Nordahl (2013) investigated anxiety as a risk factor for problematic absenteeism among high school students (N=865). The researchers divided pupils into groups depending on their anxiety levels and absenteeism rates. They next used discriminant analysis to look for differences in risk factor profiles between nervous adolescents who attended school on a

regular basis (attenders) and those who missed a lot of school (non-attenders). The primary conclusion was that worried school attendees were less affected by a variety of negative variables than nervous non-attenders. Attendees demonstrated fewer unfavorable personality traits, social anxiety, panic disorder symptoms, and behavioral issues. They also hailed from more stable households and were more likely to have friends. The researchers concluded that the likelihood of developing problematic school absence increased with the accumulation of risk variables other than worry. They also suggested that interventions be based on a full profile of each individual's unique set of risk and protective factors. Overall, this study sheds light on the unique risk profiles of nervous attendees and non-attenders.

In a community sample of 478 Italian students, including 131 from elementary school (years 8–10), 267 from middle school (ages 11–13), and 80 from high school (ages 14–16), Mazzone et al. (2007) examined the prevalence of anxiety and its relationship to academic performance. Students assessed their symptoms of anxiety by completing the Multidimensional Anxiety Scale for Children (MASC), with T-scores of ≥ 65 indicating anxiety. Academic grades were acquired from the school records. Overall, 7.3% (35 pupils) received MASC scores in the anxious range. The percentage of nervous kids grew with age/grade level: 2.3% in elementary, 7.9% in middle, and 15.9% in high school. Anxiety was also negatively associated with school performance, with 14.1% of kids with insufficient grades, 9.4% with sufficient marks, and 3.9% with good/very good grades falling into the anxious category. The study discovered that in this community sample spanning elementary through high school, the prevalence of self-reported excessively high anxiety symptoms rose with age and was associated with lower academic performance.

The literature on school refusal behaviour—which is characterized by a child who avoids or consistently finds it difficult to attend school—was reviewed by Inglés et al. (2015). They distinguished between findings from Spanish research and those from worldwide literature as they talked about the importance of this issue, risk factors, assessment techniques, and suggested remedies. Academic performance, social growth, and future prospects are all adversely affected by school rejection, which affects 1–5% of young people. Several elements related to children, families, and schools have been identified as possible risk factors. On risk pathways, early intervention, and developing treatment methods, further study is required.

Battaglia et al. (2016) examined the developmental paths of symptoms related to separation anxiety (SA) in 1,933 children from 1.5 years of infancy to 6 years of school enrollment. Trajectory analysis allowed them to separate into four groups: 1) Low-Persistent (60.2% of sample): SA levels are consistently low; 2) High-Increasing (6.9%): SA levels are rising; 3) High-Decreasing (10.8%): SA levels are dropping; and 4) Low-Increasing (22.1%): SA levels are increasing but moderate. Presence of separation anxiety disorder may have been indicated by the High-Increasing group, which demonstrated continuous increased SA throughout the preschool years and was the only trajectory predictive of teacher-rated SA at kindergarten age. By the ages of four to five, the majority of kids, with the exception of this group, had lessened SA symptoms. The results show variation in early SA's developmental trajectory and pinpoint risk factors for persistent, debilitating SA that need medical treatment.

2.2 Prevalence and epidemiology of school anxiety

The prevalence of DSM-III-R or DSM-IV anxiety disorders, specifically among pre-adolescent children under the age of twelve, was examined by Cartwright-Hatton et al. (2006) in an analysis of epidemiological studies. Eleven studies that met the basic epidemiological standards and could be applied to broader populations were found through their extensive literature search. The reported prevalence rates for any anxiety disorder in this pre-adolescent age group varied greatly among different studies, from 2.6% to 41.2%. The individual anxiety disorder with the highest diagnosis rate is separation anxiety disorder. The results indicate that among pre-adolescent children, anxiety disorders are probably more common than behavioral problems and depressive disorders combined. The authors express concern, nevertheless, regarding the dearth of effective treatment options now offered for these prevalent mental health conditions in younger children. The review emphasises the necessity of additional extensive epidemiological research and increased treatment services aimed at addressing anxiety issues in the pre-adolescent demographic.

Malak and Khalifeh (2017) examined 800 Jordanian schoolchildren between the ages of 12 and 18 to determine the prevalence of anxiety and depression as well as related risk variables and predictors. Young's Internet Addiction Tool, the Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale for Children, and the Symptom Checklist-Anxiety were all used in the study. The results showed that in this student population, anxiety (42.1%) and depression (73.8%) were quite prevalent. Grade level and class at school were significant risk factors for anxiety and depression in students, with Internet addiction standing out as the primary

predictor of both conditions. To address the mental health requirements of Jordanian students, the authors stressed the importance of building counseling centers within schools and raising awareness of mental health issues among stakeholders and students. Given the high prevalence of anxiety and depression in adolescent school populations, it is critical to focus preventative and intervention efforts on these prevalent mental health issues.

In a community sample of children and adolescents ages 9 to 16, Egger et al. (2003) investigated the relationships between psychiatric diseases and school refusal behavior, including anxious school refusal and truancy. They discovered that pure worried school refusal was highly correlated with depression and separation anxiety disorder using data from structured interviews. Conduct disorders, depression, and oppositional defiant disorder have all been associated with pure truancy. A significant proportion (88.2%) of young people exhibiting a mixed pattern of worried school refusal and truancy were diagnosed with a mental illness. Distinct psychological and psychosocial elements were linked to the three categories of behavior related to school rejection. The results emphasize the importance of thorough evaluation and customized therapies depending on the particular causes of a child's school rejection.

An investigation on the incidence of anxiety disorders among elementary school children in Bandung, Indonesia was conducted by Susanti Niman et al. in their study *Anxiety Disorders In Elementary School children* (2021). 135 pupils from private elementary schools (grades 4 and 5) had their anxiety levels measured by researchers using the Screen for Child Anxiety Related Disorders (SCARED) tool. The results showed that among the pupils that took part, anxiousness was highly prevalent (79.3%). Notably, generalized anxiety (40%) separated anxiety (40%), panic disorder (48.1%), and separation anxiety (40%) were the most prevalent types of anxiety, with social anxiety coming in front (65.9%). Moreover, school avoidance was indicated by 28.9% of pupils, which may be related to their worry. These findings demonstrate the alarmingly high incidence of anxiety disorders in this age range. The authors stress that in order to effectively manage students' anxiety, healthcare providers, educators, and parents must work together. It is determined that in order to provide preventive and supportive interventions, school-based mental health services—especially those that involve nurses and counseling staff—are essential.

Heyne et al. (2001) study school refusal and distinguishes it from truancy and withdrawal. It detects critical traits such as a child's mental anguish about school, parental awareness and worry, and the absence of significant behavioral issues. The study connects school refusal to anxiety disorders, particularly social anxiety disorder (SAD), and highlights its prevalence among schoolchildren (about 1%). The essay underlines the negative implications of severe and protracted school rejection, such as impaired social, emotional, and academic development. It emphasizes the significance of early intervention in preventing long-term mental health concerns. It discovers that, unlike other anxiety illnesses in children, SAD is more prevalent in low-income families. Children's symptoms of SAD might vary in intensity, but they typically seek professional help only when their problems manifest as physical symptoms or refusal to attend school. The review reveals a substantial overlap between school refusal and SAD, with school refusal occurring in a major fraction of children with SAD and SAD prevalent in a high percentage of children with school refusal.

Separation anxiety disorder (SAD) in children and adolescents is reviewed in the article by Masi et al. (2001) along with its prevention, diagnosis, and treatment. First-line treatments for SAD, according to the authors, are nonpharmacological approaches such family, cognitive-behavioral, behavioral, psychoeducational, and psychodynamic therapy. The most promising approach for treating SAD and SAD-related school fear is cognitive-behavioral therapy. It is only advised to use medication when nonpharmacological treatments are ineffective and the child's symptoms are seriously limiting. The first-choice medicine for treating SAD is thought to be selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) because of their favorable side effect profile. Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) provide an alternative if SSRIs are inadequate; nonetheless, they need close monitoring of heart function. Because they can be abused and cause dependence, benzodiazepines should only be used for quick, temporary symptom relief. If alternative treatments are not working for a youngster, buspirone can be a possibility. In order to address childhood anxiety problems, the article's conclusion calls for more research on the effectiveness of more recent antidepressants.

2.3 Risk factors for developing school anxiety

According to Pikulski et al. (2020), school connectedness and child anxiety investigates the relationship between anxiety in children with pre-existing anxiety disorders and a student's sense of connection at school (belonging, safety, and fairness). 114 children, ages 10.82 on average, who were clinically worried participated in the study. According to the study, higher

levels of general and particular worries are associated with lower levels of connectivity. Remarkably, in this population, age may cause a tiny decline in sense of closeness. The results show that treatments that provide a supportive school climate may be helpful in lowering anxiety levels in kids and teenagers.

The Martin et al. (2014) study explored the possibility that exposure to childhood trauma is a predictor of anxiety sensitivity in young people who attend school. 1149 teenage participants' resilience levels, coping orientation, and exposure to childhood trauma did not differ significantly based on gender. On the other hand, anxiety sensitivity, trait anxiety, depression, and drug and alcohol usage were all higher in girls. The degree of childhood trauma and anxiety sensitivity were mediated by depression, trait anxiety, and alcohol use. Additionally, certain forms of childhood trauma were linked to anxiety sensitivity; this association was mediated by alcohol consumption, trait anxiety, and depression. The association between anxiety sensitivity and childhood trauma was not mediated by resilience or coping style. The results imply that, despite having comparable rates of childhood trauma as boys, girls may be more susceptible to early-onset anxiety disorders because of higher levels of trait anxiety, anxiety sensitivity, and depression. The research highlights the impact of depression, trait anxiety, and alcohol consumption as potential contributors to the development of anxiety sensitivity in young people who have experienced childhood trauma.

"Adolescents with a childhood experience of parental divorce: a longitudinal study of mental health and adjustment" by Størksen et al. on 2005.

The consequences of parental divorce or separation on adolescents' adjustment and mental health were investigated in this prospective Norwegian study. In order to provide a comparison group, the study comprised 1,758 adolescents from non-divorced homes and 413 adolescents who had gone through parental divorce. According to the study, between the ages of 14 and 18, adolescents who experienced parental divorce had a more adverse developmental trajectory in terms of adjustment and mental health than did adolescents from non-divorced families. Girls exhibited worse results in a variety of domains, and this effect was more noticeable for them. There was only a noticeable increase in academic issues for boys. This study adds to the body of research showing that early parental divorce might negatively impact adolescent mental health and psychosocial adjustment, particularly in girls.

A 2010 study by Kurtz and Derevensky titled "The Effects of Divorce on Perceived Self-Efficacy and Behavioural Control in Elementary School Children" looked into how parental divorce affected elementary school children's reports of their own self-efficacy and parental reports of their behavioral control. 76 middle-class kids from divorced (referred to as "disrupted") and intact homes were included in the sample. Reduced family cohesiveness was found to be a strong predictor of divorced/disrupted family status, and divorced families reported being much less supportive of one another. The study used a multivariate technique to construct behavioral profiles, analyzing parent and child reports using multiple regression modeling to measure cognitive, physical, and social elements of perceived self-efficacy, overt interparental animosity, and family environment features. Studies indicate that children's ideas about their own cognitive and physical self-efficacy may be adversely affected by parental divorce. Additionally, divorced families tend to have a lower level of family cohesiveness and support. Yet, no impacts on child behavior as reported by parents were discovered.

In a study conducted by Kaloeti et al. (2021), 456 Indonesian primary school students, ages 11 to 13, from nine different schools, were asked about their social media use, gender, and experiences of bullying by peers. They employed the Personal Experience Checklist (PECK) for bullying, the Screen for Child Anxiety Related Emotional Disorders (SCARED), and a sociodemographic questionnaire on social media use. Every participant utilized social media, although the most often used platforms were YouTube and Instagram. Gender and bullying victimization were found to be significant predictors of anxiety start in the structural equation model, accounting for 32.1% of the variation. The usage of Instagram and generalized anxiety disorder showed a favourable correlation. Boys preferred YouTube, but girls utilized Instagram more frequently. All anxiety measures were higher for girls, with the exception of school avoidance. Boys were more likely to be physically bullied, while girls were more likely to develop panic attacks, generalized anxiety disorder, separation anxiety, and social anxiety. With gender disparities in bullying experiences and anxiety symptoms, the study emphasizes how peer bullying and social media use, especially Instagram, may contribute to the development of anxiety in pre-adolescents.

The experiences and perspectives of 1,588 primary school kids about bullying were surveyed, and the results were published by Kevorkian et al. (2016). The main findings demonstrated that bullying was quite common, with 40% of these young pupils reporting having

experienced bullying behaviors. When compared to boys, girls reported experiencing bullying at greater rates. Just 19% of victims claimed that bullying ended entirely after reporting instances to parents/guardians or school administration. period 11% said the bullying never ceased and occasionally got worse after being reported, 16% said the bullying halted for a period before starting again. Unbelievably, 32% of children said that their school had taken no action at all to address or lessen bullying issues. Given the high rates of bullying victimization among this young student group, the authors emphasize the necessity of early intervention and successful anti-bullying initiatives beginning in the elementary school years.

The academic stress levels that elementary school kids encountered during the COVID-19 epidemic and the introduction of home-based online learning were examined by Erfantini and Hayyu (2023). 236 kids (103 males and 133 females) from 22 schools (12 urban and 10 rural) participated in the study, which was carried out in the Greater Malang area of Indonesia. The main conclusions were that 41.53% of students had low academic stress, 53.39% had moderate academic stress, and 5.09% had high academic stress. further demonstrated that children in urban areas experienced higher levels of stress than those in rural areas when comparing schools in those two areas. The study draws attention to the different degrees of academic stress that primary children who were taking classes online or remotely during the epidemic experienced. It draws attention to possible differences in stress levels depending on one's geographic location (urban vs. rural).

2.4 Impact of school anxiety

Lundy et al. (2010) examined the association between academic success and cognitive functioning in 335 Caucasian and Hispanic primary school students, ages 6 to 11, as well as symptoms of anxiety, depression, and withdrawal. In the Tucson Children's Assessment of Sleep Apnea (TuCASA) research, parents used the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) to grade their children's emotional/behavioural symptoms, and participants performed a thorough neuropsychological battery that assessed cognitive ability and academic capabilities. Age, gender, ethnicity, and parental education did not differ between children with and without increased anxious/depressed or withdrawn symptoms on the CBCL, according to the research. These internalizing symptoms did, however, show significant negative correlations with performance in a number of cognitive domains, such as language, intellectual functioning, attention, processing speed, executive functions, learning/memory, psychomotor abilities, and basic academic skills in writing, math, and reading. These results

corroborate the negative effects, irrespective of ethnicity, of depressive symptomatology on neuropsychological functioning in school-age children.

Li and colleagues (2022) investigated the connections among 1,479 elementary school pupils from four schools in Zhejiang, China, in terms of class rivalry, learning anxiety, learning engagement, and academic accomplishment. It was evident from the data that academic success was not correlated with class rivalry. Yet, via the mediating functions of learning anxiety and learning engagement, class rivalry had an indirect impact on academic attainment. Particularly, more learning anxiety was linked to higher class competitiveness, which in turn had a detrimental effect on academic performance. However, more learning engagement was associated with increased class rivalry, and academic success was favorably predicted by this relationship. The study emphasizes the many interactions that affect elementary school kids' academic performance, including class rivalry, emotional variables like anxiety, and motivating elements like engagement. The results highlight how crucial it is to take into account both the possible drawbacks (higher anxiety) and advantages (increased engagement) of class competitiveness in educational settings.

The influence of school well-being/ill-being features in variations in school anxiety in junior adolescents (aged 11–13 years) was examined by Shamionov et al. (2021). 120 children in grades 5-7 (M age = 11.5 years) made up the sample, with 49.2% of them being girls and 50.8% being males. The authors' original measures were used to measure school anxiety and school well-being indicators. The scales were based on the Philips' School Anxiety Scale. According to the study, the school-related cognitive, psychological, emotional, social, and psychophysiological traits of junior adolescents comprised a complex structure that constituted their school-related well-being. Emotional states, self-regulation skills, cognitive ability, and desire in learning were found to account for 16–53% of the variance in school anxiety. Emotional control, uncomfortable bodily experiences at school, organizing the school day, and reflecting on educational activities were shown to be high on the tension scale. Physical pain, poor social and self-regulation skills, a lack of learning freedom, and immaturity were the strongest predictors of school anxiety. The results emphasize the complex relationship between school well-being and anxiety levels at school throughout the crucial junior adolescent transition phase.

Martinsen et al. (2016) studied 915 pupils, ages 9 to 13, who felt more nervous or depressed than their peers about their self-reported quality of life and self-esteem in connection to

anxiety and depression symptoms. Children filled out self-report questionnaires for depression (SMFQ), anxiety (MASC-C), quality of life (KINDL), and self-esteem (BSCI-Y). 52.1% of the children who underwent screening had scores higher than the at-risk threshold; the highest percentages were seen in the groups that had anxiety and depression (26.6%), anxiety alone (15.4%), and depression alone (10.2%). The mean quality of life and self-esteem ratings varied considerably between the symptom groups. Higher symptom levels were linked to decreased self-reported quality of life and self-esteem in the Depression alone and Combined groups. In the Combined group, younger children reported higher levels of self-esteem and higher quality of life than older children. More variation in quality of life was described by internalizing symptoms than by self-esteem, and more variation was explained by depressive symptoms than by anxious symptoms. Higher internalizing symptoms were associated with female gender, but not with variations in life quality or self-esteem. The results imply that internalizing symptoms, especially depressive symptoms, has a detrimental effect on critical functioning areas such as self-esteem and quality of life in children who are at risk. For early intervention, a transdiagnostic strategy that targets internalizing symptoms may be helpful. Strategies should be customized to the child's unique symptom pattern in order to boost self-esteem.

2.5 Role of school interventions

The goal of understanding school refusal (SR) was stated by Havik and Ingul (2021) through a study of global research, the application of the school alienation theories and the systemic integrated cognitive method. According to their research, there are many different kinds, definitions, and causes of school attendance difficulties (SAPs). The words "school refusal behavior," "truancy," "school refusal," and "school withdrawal" are most commonly used to describe these issues. The authors proposed a restricted definition of SR to improve agreement and clarity, and they called for stakeholders to have a consistent understanding of these notions. They suggested that two pertinent frameworks for comprehending the genesis and progression of SR are the school alienation theory and the systemic integrated cognitive method.

Briesch et al. (2010) assessed the program FRIENDS for Life's evidence basis. The program is an intervention aimed at reducing symptoms of anxiety in children and adolescents. Effective school-based therapies are obviously needed, given estimates from the present literature indicate that 8–22% of young people may have an anxiety problem. In order to

evaluate the efficacy of FRIENDS for Life, the writers went over the study and used coding techniques. When integrated into the school environment, the FRIENDS for Life program was successful in lowering symptoms of anxiety in both universal populations (all students) and targeted groups (children who are at-risk or have been diagnosed). The program's application for the prevention and treatment of childhood anxiety, its organized implementation instructions, and its theoretical underpinnings in cognitive-behavioral therapy are its strongest points. The available data suggests that FRIENDS for Life is a workable and advantageous school-based intervention that lowers the incidence of anxiety symptoms and the damage they cause in young people.

In order to provide a standard vocabulary for defining caseness across different forms of absenteeism, educational formats, jurisdictions, developmental stages, and grades, Kearney (2022) presented recommended functional impairment recommendations for adolescents with school attendance issues. The three key domains covered by the standards are familial, social, and school functioning. In the context of education, signs of impairment include absences that interfere with learning at the wrong time, hinder academic competency, and result in future school attendance being restricted by administrative or legal measures. Impaired social interactions, interpersonal connections, and increased risk of injury to others are some of the ways that impairment in the social domain might appear. In the family domain, impairment is signaled by significant costs to family members, maladaptive changes in family relations, and interruptions to everyday functioning. The article suggests using these parameters to assess if a child's issues with school attendance have gotten to the point where school staff, psychologists, and medical specialists need to become involved. Evaluating impairment in each of the three areas helps direct suitable interventions aimed at addressing the particular issues found in a given case of absence from school. All things considered, Kearney offers these functional impairment parameters as a uniform foundation for determining when problems with school attendance qualify as a clinical case requiring expert assistance. The recommendations seek to offer a shared understanding of caseness that takes into consideration the various ways that juvenile absenteeism affects them in contemporary educational settings.

Caldwell et al. (2022) carried out a systematic review and network meta-analysis to compare the effectiveness of school-based treatments for reducing anxiety and depression in children and adolescents aged 4 to 18. The study included 137 trials with 56,620 individuals from

school settings that used universal or tailored preventative strategies. There was limited evidence that cognitive behavioural therapies could help with anxiety prevention in elementary and secondary schools. Mindfulness and relaxation-based therapies were found to reduce anxiety symptoms in universal secondary settings when compared to standard curriculum. However, the data did not support any one form of intervention as beneficial in avoiding depression in universal or targeted primary or secondary settings. The authors identified many limitations, including an uncertain risk of bias in several studies and possible small-study effects impacting the anxiety findings.

A meta-analysis by Johnstone et al. (2018) investigated the effectiveness of preventative programs aimed at preventing anxiety and depression in schools for all students who are 13 years of age or younger. A total of 5,970 children participated in 14 randomized controlled trials that were included in the analysis. We also looked at the moderating effects of program type, number of sessions, and primary program objective (anxiety or depression). Preventive programs were shown to significantly reduce depression symptoms at post-program and long-term follow-up evaluations, but not at short-term follow-up, according to the meta-analysis. On the other hand, the programs did not work to avoid anxiety symptoms at any point in time. There was a great deal of variation in the effect sizes. Although the results point to the potential benefit of universal school-based programs in reducing depressive symptoms in children, the authors also highlighted the dearth of programs that concurrently address anxiety and depression in this early age range.

Martinsen et al. (2019) investigated the efficacy of the transdiagnostic EMOTION program (Coping Kids Managing Anxiety and Depression) in preventing depressive symptoms and anxiety in schoolchildren. The study employed a clustered randomized design with 36 schools, comprising 1,686 children (8–12 years old), who completed screening measures for depression (Mood and Feelings Questionnaire Short version) and anxiety (Multidimensional Anxiety Scale). The children in the intervention condition (EC) reported significantly lower levels of anxiety and depression than in the control condition (CC), with children in the EC having nearly twice the symptom reduction. When parents reported their child's depression symptoms, the EC was much lower than the CC. In contrast to CC, parents did not see a statistically significant reduction in their child's anxiety symptoms. All things considered, the transdiagnostic, school-based EMOTION prevention program was effective in lowering the

anxiety and depression symptoms that young people reported having, as well as the depressive symptoms that parents reported their kids having.

2.6 Parental involvement and family-based interventions

Bakhla et al. (2013) researched at how gender and parenting affected anxiety in Indian schoolchildren. In class VIII, 146 pupils (55% male, 45% female) with a mean age of 12.71 years participated in the cross-sectional survey. Students evaluated their degree of anxiety by completing the Spence Anxiety Scale. 16 pupils (11%) received scores over the threshold for high anxiety overall. Compared to male students, female students reported considerably greater levels of anxiety overall and across all anxiety subtypes. The majority of students thought their parents were democratic parents, with lower percentages supporting authoritarian or permissive parenting. Students with considerably greater anxiety levels were those who thought that their parents had an authoritarian parenting style. The results show that among this sample of Indian eighth graders, 11% of them had extreme anxiety. Children's perceptions of an authoritarian parenting style and female gender were linked to high anxiety. The study emphasizes how, in this sociocultural setting, parenting styles and gender may affect the emergence and presentation of anxiety in school-aged kids.

In 2010, Milgram and Toubiana conducted a study on 354 Israeli teenagers (ages 13, 14, and 16) and their parents to examine the connections between academic anxiety, academic procrastination, and parental participation. Pupils disclosed their anxiety and procrastination levels, while parents disclosed their own early experiences with anxiety and procrastination (indirect influence) and their present engagement in their children's schooling (direct influence). Overall, there were not many direct or indirect parental affects on students' procrastination, but mothers' effects seemed to be greater. The results corroborated the appraisal-anxiety avoidance model, which postulated a distinction between task-centered and consequence-centered anxiety based on the inverse relationship between procrastination on exams and papers and higher anxiety about those tasks.

Raju and Asfaw (2009) investigated the connection between accomplishment and test anxiety in sixth-grade pupils, taking into account variables including socioeconomic status, study habits, parental engagement, and academic self-concept. 497 participants were chosen at

random from among 2482 kids from seven government elementary schools in Addis Ababa. The findings indicated that while overall academic self-concept and study habits were highly connected to accomplishment, test anxiety had a minor association with it. Achievement was also found to be significantly influenced by parental participation. Taking into account other research characteristics, test anxiety was revealed to be an unreliable predictor of success overall.

McLoone and Rapee (2021) compared a waitlist-control condition to the viability of an anxiety treatment program for kids in a school or home environment. Out of the 325 Australian youngsters who were extremely worried, 152 consented to the program. According to parents, children in the active conditions (home- and school-based treatments) had higher decreases in anxiety and disruptions in their everyday lives. Teachers' and kids' reports, however, did not indicate any appreciable group disparities. The research emphasizes the necessity of replication and talks about the difficulties in implementing evidence-based programs in home and school settings, as well as practical considerations.

An essay titled "Parental pressure in facilitating the academic anxiety among children: a futuristic perspective" was published by Yadav in 2021. The influence of parental pressure on children's academic anxiety is discussed in the article. It highlights how crucial parental engagement in a child's education is to the formation of a well-rounded personality. However, parental pressure—the overbearing and mistaken participation of parents—can cause children to experience higher levels of academic anxiety. This study investigates how parental pressure affects academic anxiety in children enrolled in school in the Indian educational system. The results imply that parental pressure has a major role in children's development of academic anxiety. The study emphasizes how important it is for parents to comprehend child psychology in order to prevent placing unwarranted demands on their kids.

The Teacher Anxiety Program for Elementary Students (TAPES), a school-home intervention program, was tested in a pilot randomized controlled trial by Ginsburg et al. in 2024 to see how well it reduced student anxiety. In this study, 78 New England primary school teachers were randomized to receive the TAPES intervention or Teacher Anxiety Training (TAT) as a control condition. Findings demonstrated the viability of the TAPES intervention, as 72% of certified instructors successfully enrolled a student and completed the five necessary school-home meetings. Independent assessors found that after the intervention, students in the TAPES group improved more than those in the TAT group in terms of their anxiety levels.

According to the study, educating educators to recognize anxious adolescents and provide them with a quick solution can be effective in reducing anxiety and related impairment.

2.7 Long term consequences of school anxiety

The long-term effects of universal school-based anxiety prevention programs were assessed in the 2018 systematic review conducted by Waldron et al. Randomized controlled studies with a 12-month follow-up or longer were the main focus of the review. Three of the eight trials that made up the review demonstrated noteworthy drops in anxiety symptoms between the preventive group and the control group at the post-intervention and 12-month follow-up. A 12-month follow-up revealed a delayed impact in two further investigations. Three research testing other programs revealed no immediate or long-term impacts, whereas the five studies showing preventative effects assessed the FRIENDS program. According to the analysis, certain school-based anxiety prevention programs may have long-lasting impacts up to a year. However, more excellent randomized controlled trials with longer follow-up times are required before any strong conclusions can be made.

A 3-year follow-up of a cluster-randomized universal preventive study aimed at preventing anxiety and depression in school-age children was carried out by Ahlen et al. (2020). 695 students, ages 8 to 11, from 17 Swedish schools participated in the study. The schools were randomly allocated to either the intervention or control conditions. The preventative program had no long-term impacts, with the exception of a little influence on child anxiety as reported by parents. It was discovered that attrition had an impact on the results; children with missing data had greater baseline mental symptoms, which got worse with time. Furthermore, compared to the intervention group, children in the control group with incomplete follow-up data showed a greater decline in their depressed symptoms. The study emphasizes how attrition affects the validity of the research and raises the possibility that earlier school-based preventive studies had comparable problems. Using the same sample of 695 youngsters, Ahlen et al. (2018)'s initial analysis revealed no overall effectiveness of the preventive program. After completing training, teachers in the intervention condition ran the program for ten weeks.

METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is a systematic approach to solving a research challenge. It might be defined as the study of how scientific research is conducted. (C.R. Kothari,2004). The methodology adopted for the experimental study entitled “Examining school anxiety in elementary school students” is given under the following headings:

3.1 Nature of the study

The present study is experimental research. According to Abdul Ghafoor Chhachhar (2023), a scientific study method for determining the cause-and-effect relationship between variables is experimental research. The aim of experimental research is to determine whether changes in the independent variable(s) result in changes in the dependent variable(s). A noteworthy cause and effect relationship should be established by the research.

3.2 Selection of Area

The area selected for the survey was Kochi, Ernakulam. Children in elementary schools in Ernakulam are part of a diverse and vibrant community. The sample was selected from 3 schools, of which two (unaided and government) are from rural areas and one (aided is from an urban area in Kochi, Ernakulam.

3.3 Sampling Procedure

The method selected for the study was the survey method. This method was used for systematically collecting data. The sampling technique used for the study was stratified random sampling. Selected a purposive sample of 3 schools, including a mix of rural and urban settings.

3.4 Selection of sample

The sample chosen for the present study consists of 120 children. Three schools were selected, and the focus group was the 4th and 5th standards from each school. Ten boys and

ten girls from each class were chosen within the age group of 9 to 12 years. A total of about 60 boys and 60 girls from six classes were taken manually. From these 3 schools, an aided school was from an urban area, an unaided school, and a government school from a rural area were selected.

3.5 Selection of tools

The tools selected for the study were questionnaires and a socio-demographic data sheet. The questionnaire is comprised of two standardized scales that assess test anxiety and school refusal among children, which contribute to school anxiety.

A copy of the questionnaires is given in the appendix.

The socio-demographic data sheet is a self-designed socio-demographic profile that also assesses parenting style, teacher anxiety, achievements, and academic performance.

The standardized scales used in the study are as follows:

1. Westside test anxiety scale
2. School refusal assessment scale revised (C)

Westside test anxiety scale

The Westside Test Anxiety Scale is used for the study. It was by Richard Driscoll (2004). It is an extremely brief screening instrument meant to identify students with anxiety impairments. The scale is comprised of ten items and takes about five to eight minutes to administer. The scale items cover self-assessed anxiety impairment and cognitions, which can impair performance. The children were made to consider how they felt during the period of the exam. A score mean of 4.0 to 5.0 is said to be extremely high anxiety.

School refusal assessment scale revised (C)

A school refusal assessment scale was used to assess school refusal due to anxiety or other reasons. It was developed by Christopher A. Kearney and Anne Marie Albano (2007). This self-report inventory, which is also available in parent response form, consists of 24 questions that measure the frequency with which a child experiences emotions and behaviours related

to school attendance. Respondents are asked to answer each of the 24 items on a scale of 0 ("never") to 6 ("always").

Scoring

The tools used, namely the Westside Test Anxiety Scale and the SRAS-Revised (C), had about the same mode of scoring.

In the Westside test anxiety scale, the analysis of the scores was done for each of the criteria.

Scoring was done based on the 5-criteria rating scale as follows:

Always true	5
Usually true	4
Sometimes true	3
Seldom true	2
Never true	1

In SRAS-Revised (C), scoring was done based on the 7-criteria rating scale as follows:

Always	6
Almost always	5
Usually	4
Half of the time	3
Sometimes	2
Seldom	1
Never	0

3.6 Collection of data

The participants were accessed manually by using the survey method. The motive and significance of the study were explained to the head of the institution. Once consent was obtained, the questionnaires were given to the students and made to be filled out. The participants filled out the questionnaire as per the instructions of the investigator.

3.7 Analysis of Data

The data collected from the survey were compiled and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). And is presented in the chapter 'Result and Discussion' with appropriate tables and figures.

- To examine parenting style and academic performance, a chi-square test was used.
- To examine gender differences
- To examine parenting style and academic performance, a chi-square test was used.
- To examine gender differences in academic performance, a chi-square test was used.
- To examine teacher anxiety in different school settings, a chi-square test was used.
- To compare teacher anxiety and academic performance, a chi-square test was used.
- To examine gender differences in teacher anxiety, a chi-square test was used.
- To examine the correlation between test anxiety and academic performance, Pearson's correlation was used.
- To compare teacher anxiety among 4th and 5th grade students, a chi-square test was used.
- To compare test anxiety in 4th and 5th grade students, a chi-square test was used.
- To compare test anxiety in different school settings One-way ANOVA was used.
- To examine gender differences in test anxiety, an independent sample t-test was used.
- To use the school refusal assessment scale to analyse refusal behaviour, an independent sample A t-test was used to analyse gender and class, and a one-way ANOVA was used to analyse different school settings with avoidance of stimuli, escape from social situations, attention-seeking behaviour, and tangible rewards.

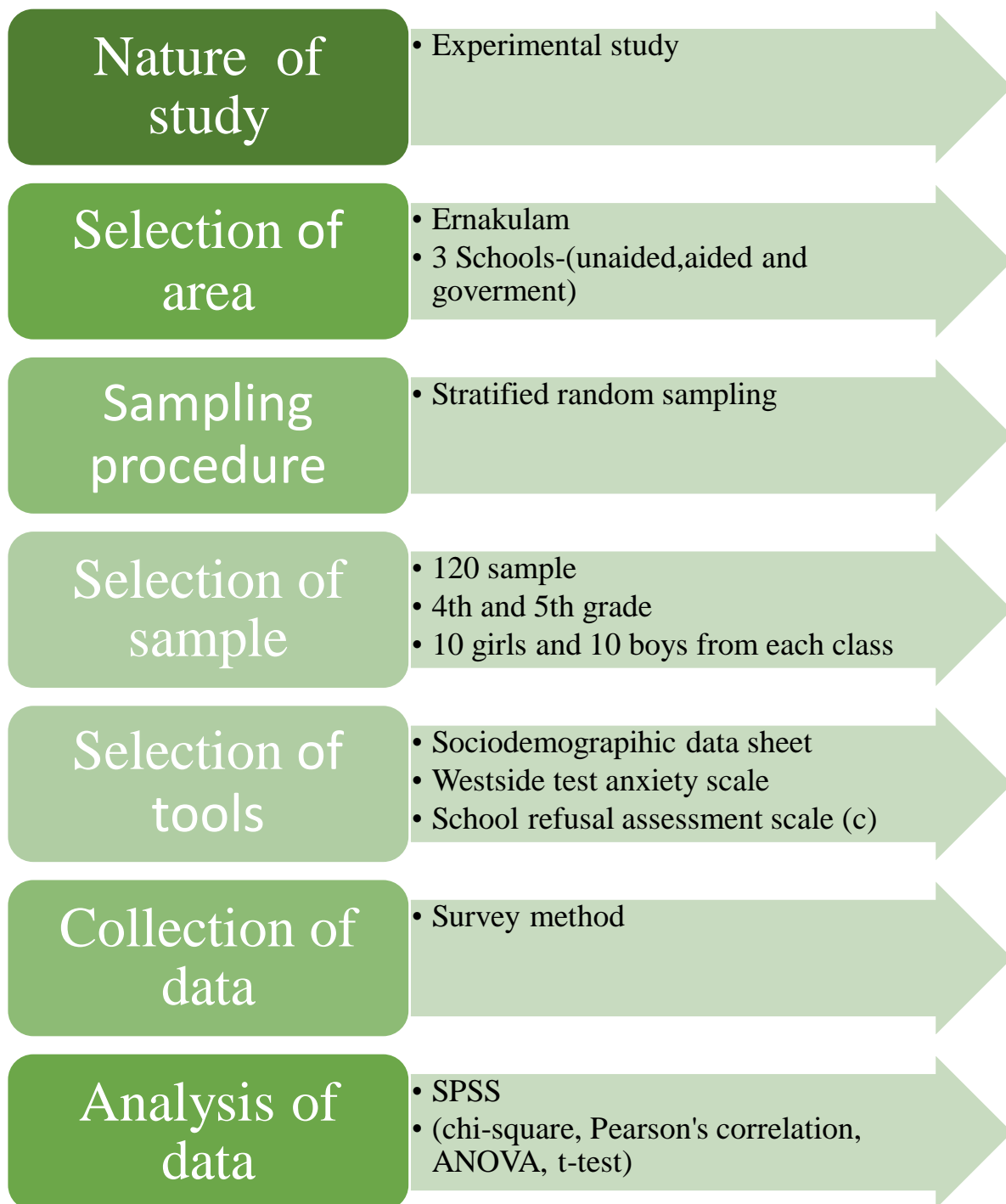


Figure 1
Research Design

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter outlines the findings and discussions resulting from the analysis of data. To enhance clarity and convenience, the results are organized into the following sections:

4.1 Sociodemographic profile of the respondents.

4.2 Test Anxiety Score of Respondents

4.3 Examining Parenting Style and Academic Performance.

4.4 Examining Gender Differences and Academic Performance

4.5 Examining Teacher Anxiety in Different School Setting.

4.6 Comparing Teacher Anxiety and Academic Performance.

4.7 Examining Gender Differences in Teacher Anxiety.

4.8 Examining Correlation Between Test Anxiety and Academic Performance.

4.9 Comparing Teacher Anxiety In 4th And 5th Grade Students.

4.10 Comparing Test Anxiety In 4th And 5th Grade Students.

4.11 Comparing Test Anxiety in Different School Setting.

4.12 Examining Gender Differences in Test Anxiety.

4.13 Analyzing School Refusal Behaviors with School Refusal Assessment Scale

13.1 Gender Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli.

13.2 Gender Differences and Escape from Social Situation.

13.3 Gender Differences and Attention Seeking.

13.4 Gender Differences and Tangible Rewards.

13.5 Class Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli.

13.6 Class Differences and Escape from Social Situation.

13.7 Class Differences and Attention Seeking.

13.8 Class Differences and Tangible Rewards.

13.9 School Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli.

13.10 School Differences and Escape from Social Situations.

13.11 School Differences and Attention Seeking.

13.12 School Differences and Tangible Rewards.

4.1 Sociodemographic profile of the respondents.

The table presents comprehensive data spanning various aspects of family dynamics and their potential influence on academic performance, participation levels, and teacher anxiety. Examining the number of siblings, it is evident that the families with no siblings (0) constitute 22.5% in government schools compared to aided (2.5%) and unaided schools (10%). Unaided schools have families with one sibling account for 77.5% when compared with government schools with 65% and aided schools with 22.5%. While those with two siblings make up 55% in aided, 12.5% in government, and 10% in unaided school, Notably, families with three or more siblings represent a smaller proportion, i.e., 20% in aided, 2.5% in unaided, and 0% in government school. Overall, most of the children had only one sibling (55%). And the 5th standard has more siblings than the 4th standard.

Delving into parenting styles, the data reveals that 5% of families adopt a very strict approach across both groups. Strict-friendly parenting is more prevalent, constituting 85%, respectively, while very friendly parenting styles account for 10%.

Regarding family structure, nuclear families constitute the majority at 63.3%, and the unaided school had a greater number of nuclear families compared to the others, respectively, while single-parent families represent only 9.2%. Joint families account for 27.5% of the sample.

In terms of achievements, the data indicates that 54.2% of students achieved some kind of reward for their curricula and extracurricular performance, while 45.8% had no achievements. And aided schools reported more achievers than other schools.

Participation levels were generally high, with 86.7% showing active classroom participation. And unaided (92.5%) and aided (92.5%) schools showed more participation than government schools (75%).

Examining academic performance, the data reveals that only 10% of students achieved excellent grades, while 35% showed good performance and 46.7% maintained an average performance. Notably, 8.3% exhibited below-average academic performance. However, unaided and aided schools showed better academic performance than government schools.

Finally, teacher anxiety levels were relatively high; 73.3% revealed teacher anxiety. Unaided schools showed 95% teacher anxiety, which is comparatively high compared to aided (57.5%) and government schools (67.5%).

Overall, this comprehensive data set provides valuable insights into the intricate interplay between family dynamics, academic achievements, participation levels, and teacher anxiety, highlighting the potential impact of factors such as parenting styles, family structure, and sibling relationships on various aspects of a child's development and educational experience.

Table 1
Sociodemographic profile of respondents

	Unaided				Total		Aided				Total		Gov				Total		
	4th		5th		no	%	4th		5th		no	%	4th		5th		no	%	
	G	B	G	B			G	B	G	B			G	B	G	B			
No of siblings																			
0	1	1	0	2	4	10	0	0	0	1	1	2.5	1	6	1	1	9	22.5	
1	8	5	10	8	31	77.5	4	1	2	2	9	22.5	7	2	8	9	26	65	
2	1	3	0	0	4	10	3	9	4	6	22	55	2	2	1	0	5	12.5	
3	0	1	0	0	1	2.5	3	0	4	1	8	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	
Parenting style																			
Very strict	0	0	0	2	2	5	2	0	1	0	3	7.5	1	0	0	0	1	2.5	
Strict+ friendly	9	8	9	7	33	82.5	5	9	9	9	32	80	9	9	9	10	37	92.5	
Very friendly	1	2	1	1	5	12.5	3	1	0	1	5	12.5	0	1	1	0	2	5	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	
Family structure																			
Nuclear family	9	6	9	7	31	77.5	6	3	7	8	24	60	10	4	2	5	21	52.5	
Single parent	0	1	0	1	2	5	0	3	1	1	5	12.5	0	3	1	0	4	10	
Joint family	1	3	1	2	7	17.5	4	4	2	1	11	27.5	0	3	7	5	15	37.5	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	
Achievement																			
Yes	6	7	7	3	23	57.5	10	3	8	5	26	65	8	5	2	1	16	40	
No	4	3	3	7	17	42.5	0	7	2	5	14	35	2	5	8	9	24	60	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	
Participation																			
Yes	10	10	9	8	37	92.5	10	8	9	10	37	92.5	8	5	9	8	30	75	
No	0	0	1	2	3	7.5	0	2	1	0	3	7.5	2	5	1	2	10	25	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	
Academic pfm																			
Excellent	0	1	3	1	5	12.5	2	1	2	0	5	12.5	0	1	1	0	2	5	
Good	4	2	4	4	14	35	5	3	4	3	15	37.5	4	4	3	2	13	32.5	
Average	6	5	3	5	19	47.5	3	3	4	5	15	37.5	6	4	5	7	22	55	
Below average	0	2	0	0	2	5	0	3	0	2	5	12.5	0	1	1	1	3	7.5	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	
Teacher anxiety																			
Yes	10	10	10	8	38	95	3	7	5	8	23	57.5	10	8	3	6	27	67.5	
No	0	0	0	2	2	5	7	3	5	2	17	42.5	0	2	7	4	13	32.5	
total	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	10	10	10	10	40	100	

Table 2

Grand total of sociodemographic profile

N=120

	Total (unaided)		Total (Aided)		Total (gov)		Grand total	
	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
No of siblings								
0	4	10	1	2.5	9	22.5	14	11.7
1	31	77.5	9	22.5	26	65	66	55
2	4	10	22	55	5	12.5	31	25.8
3	1	2.5	8	20	0	0	9	7.5
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100
Parenting style								
Very strict	2	5	3	7.5	1	2.5	6	5
Strict+ friendly	33	82.5	32	80	37	92.5	102	85
Very friendly	5	12.5	5	12.5	2	5	12	10
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100
Family structure								
Nuclear family	31	77.5	24	60	21	52.5	76	63.3
Single parent	2	5	5	12.5	4	10	11	9.2
Joint family	7	17.5	11	27.5	15	37.5	33	27.5
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100
Achievement								
Yes	23	57.5	26	65	16	40	65	54.2
No	17	42.5	14	35	24	60	55	45.8
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100
Participation								
Yes	37	92.5	37	92.5	30	75	104	86.7
No	3	7.5	3	7.5	10	25	16	13.3
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100
Academic ofm								
Excellent	5	12.5	5	12.5	2	5	12	10
Good	14	35	15	37.5	13	32.5	42	35
Average	19	47.5	15	37.5	22	55	56	46.7
Below average	2	5	5	12.5	3	7.5	10	8.3
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100
Teacher anxiety								
Yes	38	95	23	57.5	27	67.5	88	73.3
No	2	5	17	42.5	13	32.5	32	26.7
total	40	100	40	100	40	100	120	100

4.2 Test Anxiety Score of Respondents

Distribution of test anxiety levels: The majority of students fall into the "Normal test anxiety" (27 observations) 22.5% and "High normal test anxiety" (28 observations) 23.3% categories. The least number of students are in the "Extremely high anxiety" category (7 observations) 5.8%.

School-wise analysis: Aided schools have the highest number of students with "Moderately high" test anxiety (15 observations). Unaided schools have the highest number of students with "Low test anxiety" (14 observations) and "Normal test anxiety" (18 observations). Government schools have the highest number of students with "High Normal test anxiety" (14 observations).

Gender analysis: In the "Low test anxiety" category, there are more boys (16 observations) than girls (7 observations). In the "High normal test anxiety" category, the distribution is relatively equal between girls (13 observations) and boys (15 observations). In the higher anxiety categories ("Moderately high," "High test anxiety," and "Extremely high anxiety"), the distribution is equal between girls (21 observations) and boys (21 observations).

Class-wise analysis: In the 5th standard, there are more students with "Moderately high" (13 observations) and "High normal test anxiety" (16 observations) compared to the 4th grade. In the 5th grade, there are a very few students with "Low test anxiety" (2 observations) and a very high number of students with "Normal test anxiety" (18 observations) 25% compared to the 4th standard. And 4th standard has a greater number of "Low test anxiety" (21 observations) compared to 5th standard.

Table 3
Test anxiety score of respondents

	AIDED				tot	UNAIDED				tot	GOVERNMENT				tot	GT	%
	4 th		5 th			4 th		5 th			4 th		5 th				
	girls	boys	girls	boys		girls	boys	girls	boys		girls	boys	girls	boys			
Low test anxiety	0	1	0	0	1	6	6	1	1	14	0	8	0	0	8	23	19.2
Normal test anxiety	1	1	4	0	6	4	2	9	3	18	0	1	1	1	3	27	22.5
High normal test anxiety	2	2	2	2	8	0	2	0	4	6	5	1	4	4	14	28	23.3
Moderately high	7	2	1	5	15	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	3	3	8	24	20
High test anxiety	0	2	3	3	8	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	3	11	9.2
Extremely high anxiety	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	1	1	4	7	5.8
	10	10	10	10	40	10	10	10	10	40	10	10	10	10	40	120	100

4.3 Examining Parenting Style and Academic Performance.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between Parenting style and Academic Performances. The crosstabulation table shows the counts of observations for each combination of the two categorical variables. The chi-square tests assess the significant association or relationship between the two categorical variables, Parenting Style and Academic Performance.

Pearson Chi-Square:

The Pearson Chi-Square value is 4.710 with 6 degrees of freedom and a p-value (Asymp. Sig.) of 0.581. Since the p-value is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is no significant association between parenting style and academic performance in the given data.

Table 4

Crosstabulation of parenting style and academic performance

Pstyle * AccPerf Crosstabulation						
		AccPerf				Total
		Excellent	Good	Average	Below Average	
Pstyle	Very Strict	1	2	2	0	5
	Strict & Supportive	11	34	50	8	103
	Very Friendly	0	6	4	2	12
Total		12	42	56	10	120

Table 5

Chi-Square test of parenting style and academic performance

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.710 ^a	6	.581
Likelihood Ratio	5.947	6	.429
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.036	1	.309
N of Valid Cases	120		

a. 7 cells (58.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .42.

4.4 Examining Gender Differences and Academic Performance.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis, Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between Gender and Academic Performances.

Pearson Chi-Square:

There was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. $\chi^2 (3, 120) = 8.66$, $p=.034$. Since the p-value is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we reject

the null hypothesis. Most kids who were academically excellent and good were girls and most kids who were average performers were boys.

Table 6

Crosstabulation of gender and academic performance

Gender * AccPerf Crosstabulation						
Count						
		AccPerf				Total
		Excell ent	Good	Avera ge	Below Average	
Gend er	Girl	8	24	27	1	60
	Bo y	4	18	29	9	60
Total		12	42	56	10	120

Table 7

Chi-Square test of gender and academic performance

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.662 ^a	3	.034
Likelihood Ratio	9.652	3	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.498	1	.011
N of Valid Cases	120		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.00.

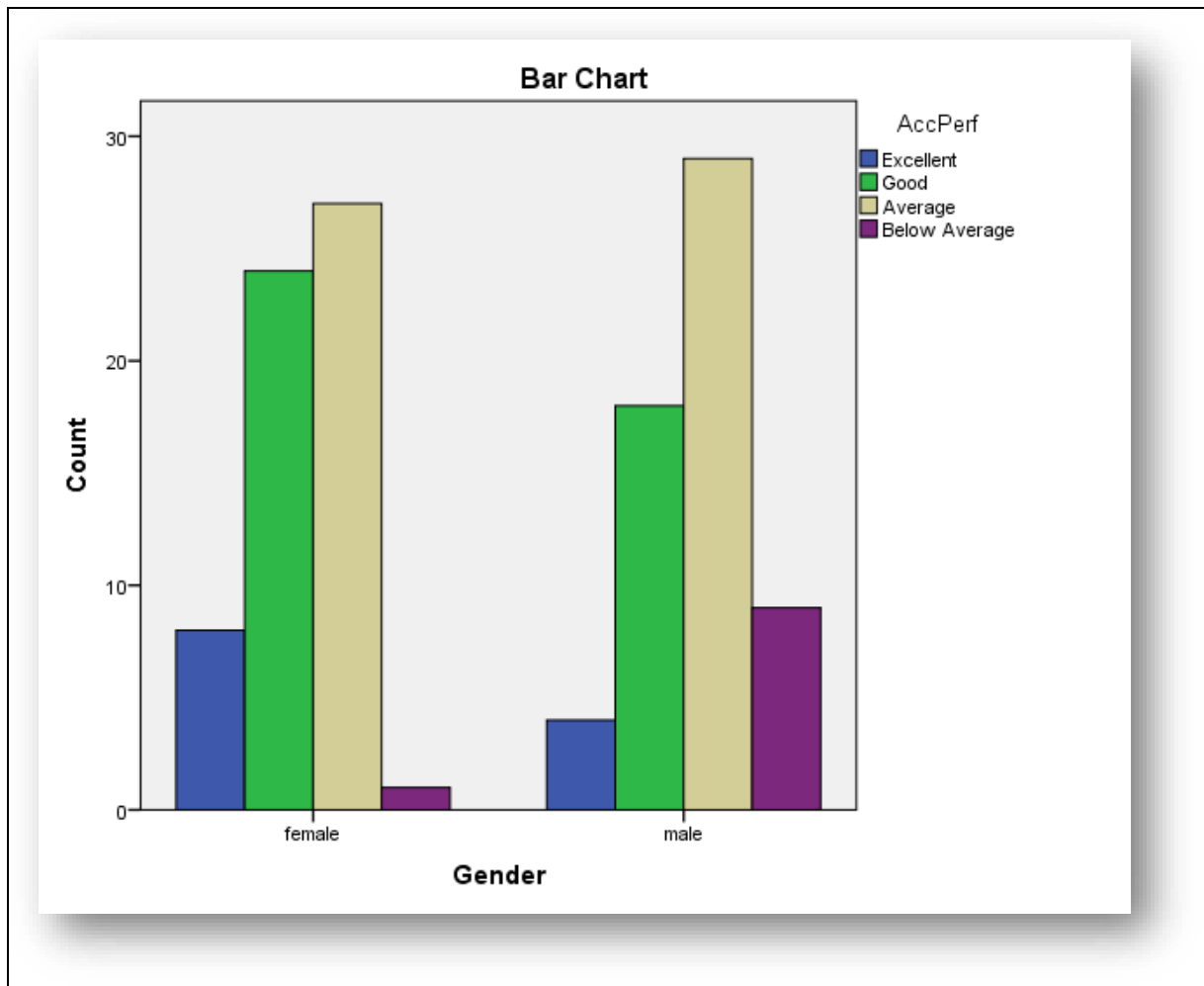


Figure 2
Gender and academic performance

4.5 Examining Teacher Anxiety in Different School Settings.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between teacher anxiety in different school settings. The crosstabulation table shows the counts of observations for each combination of the two categorical variables "Tchr_Anxiety" (Teacher Anxiety) and "School" (type of school).

Pearson Chi-Square:

There was a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. χ^2 (2, 120)=15.426,p=.00. Since the p-value is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. Most kids in unaided school showed teacher anxiety compared to government and aided school

Table 8

Crosstabulation of teacher anxiety and different school setting

Tchr_Anxiety * School Crosstabulation					
Count					
		School			Total
		unaide d	governm ent	aided	
Tchr_An xiety	no	2	13	17	32
	yes	38	27	23	88
Total		40	40	40	120

Table 9

Chi-Square test of teacher anxiety and school setting

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.426	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	18.304	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.262	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	120		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.67.

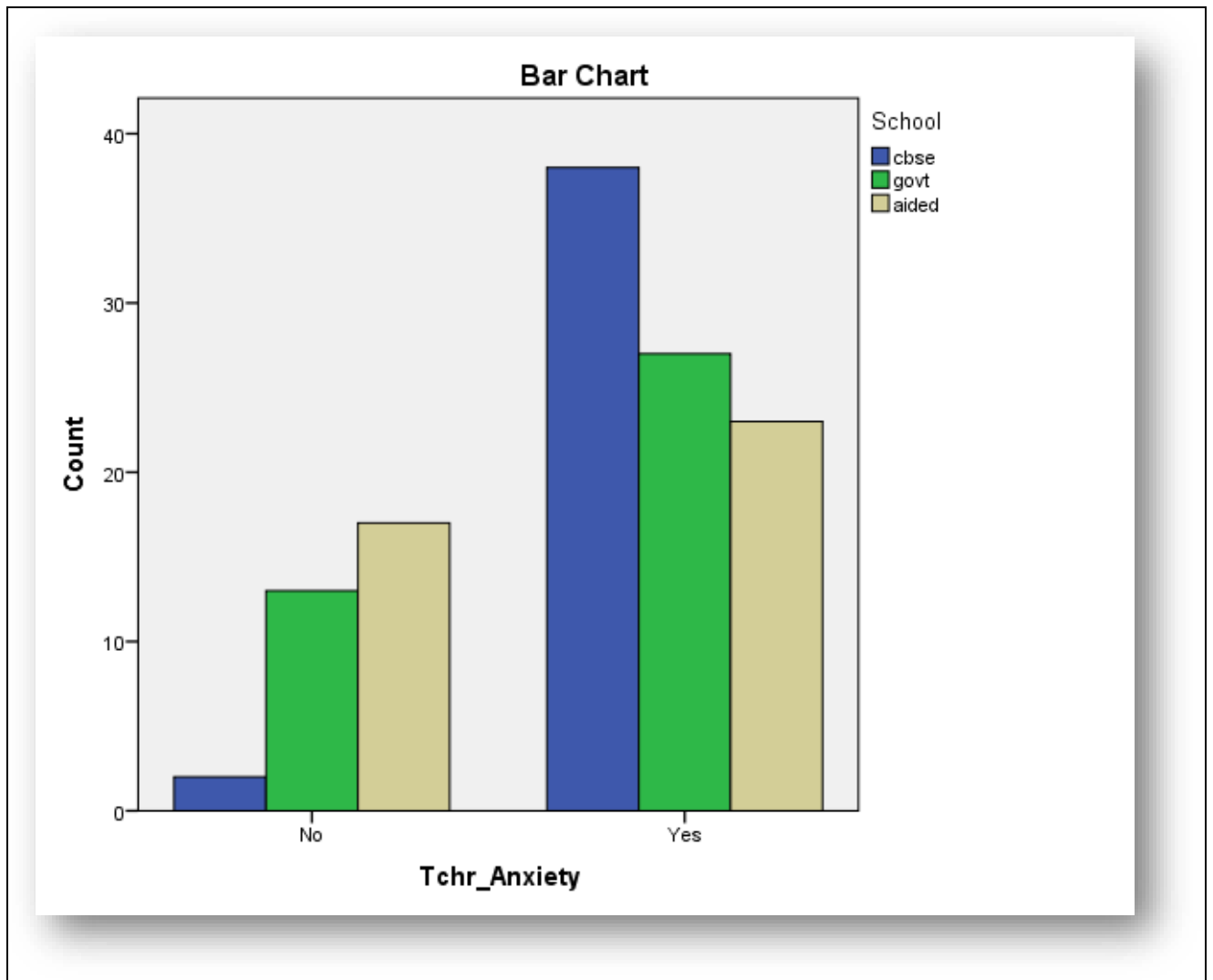


Figure 3
Teacher anxiety and different school setting

4.6 Comparing Teacher Anxiety and Academic Performance.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between teacher anxiety and Academic performance. The crosstabulation table shows the counts of observations for each combination of the two categorical variables "Tchr_Anxiety" (Teacher Anxiety) and "AccPerf" (Academic Performance). The chi-square tests assess whether there is a significant association or relationship between the two categorical variables, Tchr_Anxiety and AccPerf.).

Pearson Chi-Square:

The Pearson Chi-Square value is 1.510 with 3 degrees of freedom and a p-value (Asymp. Sig.) of 0.680. Since the p-value is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is no significant association between teacher anxiety and academic performance.

Table 10

Crosstabulation of teacher anxiety and academic performance

Tchr_Anxiety * AccPerf Crosstabulation						
Count						
		AccPerf				Total
		Excellent	Good	Average	Below Average	
Tchr_Anxiety	no	4	13	12	3	32
	yes	8	29	44	7	88
Total		12	42	56	10	120

Table 11

Chi-square tests of teacher anxiety and academic performance

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.510 ^a	3	.680
Likelihood Ratio	1.521	3	.678
Linear-by-Linear Association	.646	1	.422
N of Valid Cases	120		

- a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.67.

4.7 Examining Gender Differences in Teacher Anxiety.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis, Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between Teacher anxiety and gender differences. The crosstabulation table shows the counts of observations for each combination of the two categorical variables "Tchr_Anxiety" (Teacher Anxiety) and "Gender." The chi-square tests assess whether there is a significant association or relationship between the two categorical variables, Teacher Anxiety and Gender.

Pearson Chi-Square:

The Pearson Chi-Square value is 1.534 with 1 degree of freedom and a p-value (Asymp. Sig.) of 0.215. Since the p-value is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is no significant association between teacher anxiety and gender.

Table 12

Crosstabulation of teacher anxiety and gender differences

Tchr_Anxiety * Gender Crosstabulation				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Girl	Boy	
Tchr_Anxiety	no	19	13	32
	yes	41	47	88
Total		60	60	120

Table 13

Chi-square test of teacher anxiety and gender differences

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.534 ^a	1	.215		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.065	1	.302		

Likelihood Ratio	1.541	1	.214		
Fisher's Exact Test				.302	.151
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.521	1	.217		
N of Valid Cases	120				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

4.8 Examining Correlation Between Test Anxiety and Academic Performance.

A correlation test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between test anxiety and academic performance. The analysis was conducted on a sample size of 120 observations (N = 120). The Pearson correlation coefficient between Academic Performance and Test Anxiety is 0.186. This value indicates a weak positive correlation between the two variables. The p-value or Sig. (2-tailed) value for the correlation is 0.041. Since this value is less than the commonly used significance level of 0.05, we can conclude that the correlation between AccPerf and TestAnxiety is statistically significant.

The positive correlation coefficient of 0.186 suggests that as Test Anxiety increases, AccPerf tends to increase as well, or vice versa. However, the correlation is relatively weak, indicating that the relationship between the two variables is not very strong.

Table 14

Pearson's correlations of academic performance and test anxiety

Correlations			
		AccPerf	TestAnxiety
AccPerf	Pearson Correlation	1	.186*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.041
	N	120	120
TestAnxiety	Pearson Correlation	.186*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	
	N	120	120

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.9 Comparing Teacher Anxiety In 4th And 5th Grade Students.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis, Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between Teacher anxiety and class differences. The crosstabulation table shows the counts of observations for each combination of the two categorical variables "Tchr_Anxiety" (Teacher Anxiety) and "Class" (4th or 5th grade).

Pearson Chi-Square:

The Pearson Chi-Square value is 2.727 with 1 degree of freedom and a p-value (Asymp. Sig.) of 0.099. Since the p-value is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is no significant association between teacher anxiety and class (4th or 5th grade)

Table 15

Crosstabulation of teacher anxiety and class differences

Tchr_Anxiety * Class Crosstabulation				
Count				
		Class		Total
		4.00	5.00	
Tchr_Anxiety	no	12	20	32
	yes	48	40	88
Total		60	60	120

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.00.
- b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Table 16

Chi-square test for teacher anxiety in class differences

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.727 a	1	.099		
Continuity Correction ^b	2.088	1	.148		
Likelihood Ratio	2.750	1	.097		
Fisher's Exact Test				.148	.074
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.705	1	.100		
N of Valid Cases	120				

4.10 Comparing Test Anxiety In 4th And 5th Grade Students.

A Chi – Square Test of Independence was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between Test anxiety and class differences. The crosstabulation table shows the counts of observations for each combination of the two variables "Test Anxiety" and "Class" (4th or 5th grade). The "Test Anxiety" variable appears to be a continuous variable with values ranging from 1.30 to 4.40.

Pearson Chi-Square:

The Pearson Chi-Square value is 40.795 with 27 degrees of freedom and a p-value (Asymp. Sig.) of 0.043. Since the p-value is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is a significant association between test anxiety and class (4th or 5th grade) in the given data i.e., 5th grade students showed more test anxiety than 4th grade students.

Table 17

Crosstabulation of test anxiety in class differences

TestAnxiety * Class Crosstabulation				
Count				
		Class		Total
		4.00	5.00	
TestAnxiety	1.30	3	1	4
	1.40	1	0	1
	1.50	2	0	2
	1.60	6	1	7
	1.70	1	0	1
	1.80	5	0	5
	1.90	2	0	2
	2.00	1	4	5
	2.10	0	3	3
	2.20	2	6	8
	2.30	4	4	8
	2.40	2	1	3
	2.50	1	0	1
	2.60	1	6	7

	0			
	2.7	3	5	8
	0			
	2.8	5	2	7
	0			
	2.9	1	4	5
	0			
	3.0	5	3	8
	0			
	3.1	2	1	3
	0			
	3.2	5	3	8
	0			
	3.3	1	4	5
	0			
	3.4	1	4	5
	0			
	3.5	1	3	4
	0			
	3.6	1	1	2
	0			
	3.7	0	2	2
	0			
	3.9	1	0	1
	0			
	4.0	2	2	4
	0			
	4.4	1	0	1
	0			
Total		60	60	120

Table 18

Chi-square tests for test anxiety in class differences.

Chi-Square Tests				
		Val ue	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson	Chi-Square	40.7 95 ^a	27	.043
Likelihood Ratio		49.6 84	27	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association		4.36 3	1	.037
N of Valid Cases		120		

a. 56 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50

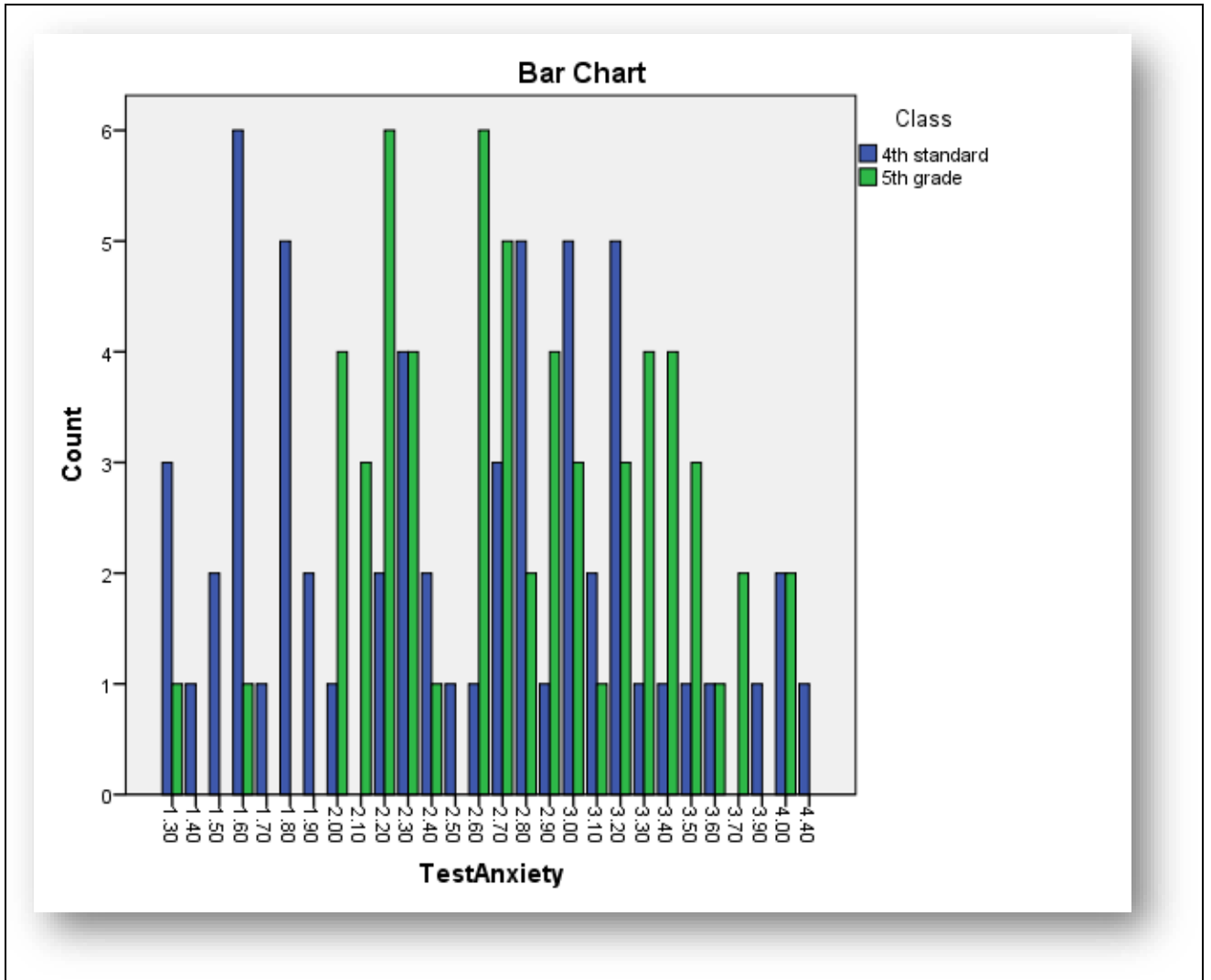


Figure 4

Test anxiety and different classes

4.11 Comparing Test Anxiety in Different School Settings.

One-way ANOVA Test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between Test anxiety in different school settings. The mean Test Anxiety scores are: 2.17 for unaided, 2.705 for govt, and 3.0375 for aided schools. And the total mean Test Anxiety across all schools is 2.6375.

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: The Levene's test checks if the variances of Test Anxiety are equal across the school types. The p-value (Sig.) is 0.062, which is greater than 0.05, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not violated.

ANOVA: The ANOVA tests if there are significant differences in the mean Test Anxiety scores between the school types. The p-value (Sig.) is 0.000, which is less than 0.05, suggesting that there are statistically significant differences in Test Anxiety means across the school types.

Post Hoc Tests (Multiple Comparisons): The Tukey HSD test compares the mean differences in Test Anxiety between pairs of school types. The mean differences between unaided-govt, unaided-aided, and govt-aided are all statistically significant (p-values < 0.05).

Homogeneous Subsets: The Tukey HSD test groups the school types into homogeneous subsets based on their mean Test Anxiety scores. The subsets show that the mean Test Anxiety for unaided is significantly different from govt and aided, while govt and aided are not significantly different from each other.

The analysis indicates that there are significant differences in Test Anxiety means across the school types. The unaided school type has a significantly lower mean Test Anxiety compared to govt and aided schools, while the govt and aided schools do not differ significantly from each other in terms of mean Test Anxiety.

Table 19
Descriptives of test anxiety in different school settings in one way ANOVA

Descriptives									
TestAnxiety									
	N	Me an	Std. Deviat ion	Std. Err or	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Mi nim um	Ma xim um	Betwe en- Comp onent Varian ce
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
unaided	40	2.1 70 0	.5029 1	.07 952	2.0092	2.3308	1.3 0	4.0 0	
govt	40	2.7 05 0	.7421 2	.11 734	2.4677	2.9423	1.3 0	4.4 0	

	aided	40	3.0 37 5	.5605 3	.08 863	2.8582	3.2168	1.4 0	4.0 0	
	Total	12 0	2.6 37 5	.7036 6	.06 424	2.5103	2.7647	1.3 0	4.4 0	
Model	Fixed Effects			.6104 3	.05 572	2.5271	2.7479			
	Random Effects				.25 269	1.5503	3.7247			.18224

Table 20

Homogeneity test for test anxiety

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
TestAnxiety			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.849	2	117	.062

Table 21

ANOVA test for test anxiety in different school

ANOVA					
TestAnxiety					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15.325	2	7.662	20.563	.000
Within Groups	43.597	117	.373		
Total	58.921	119			

Post Hoc Tests

Table 22

Post hoc analysis on school anxiety in different school

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: TestAnxiety						
Tukey HSD						
(I) School	(J) School	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
unaided	govt	-.53500*	.13650	.000	-.8590	-.2110
	aided	-.86750*	.13650	.000	-1.1915	-.5435
govt	unaided	.53500*	.13650	.000	.2110	.8590
	aided	-.33250*	.13650	.043	-.6565	-.0085
aided	unaided	.86750*	.13650	.000	.5435	1.1915
	govt	.33250*	.13650	.043	.0085	.6565

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

Table 23

Homogeneous Subsets of test anxiety and different school

TestAnxiety				
Tukey HSD ^a				
School	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
unaided	40	2.1700		
govt	40		2.7050	
aided	40			3.0375
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000
Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.				
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 40.000.				

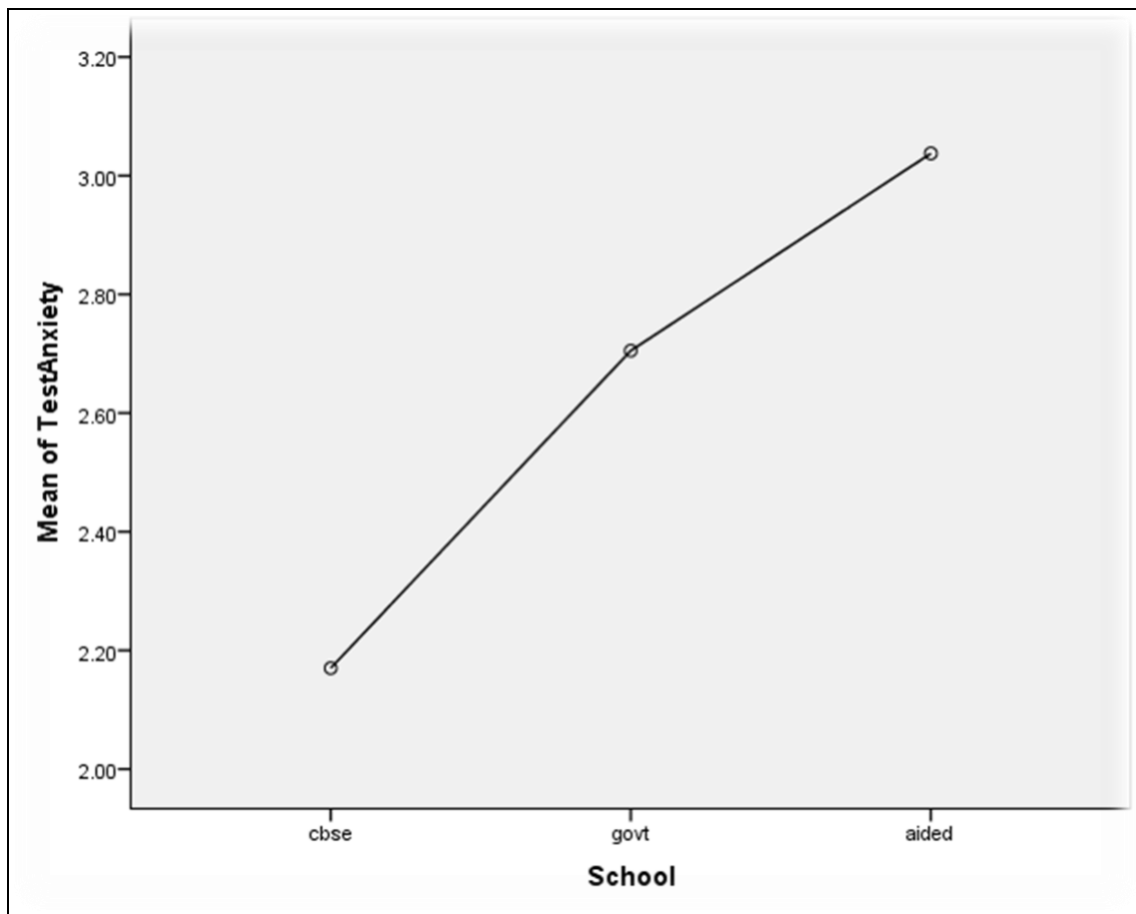


Figure 5

School settings and mean test anxiety

4.12 Examining Gender Differences in Test Anxiety.

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between gender differences in test anxiety. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean Test Anxiety between the female and male groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is 0.842 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.401, which is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is 0.842 with 116.693 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.401, which is also greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.401) is greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean Test Anxiety between the female and male groups in the given data.

Table 24

Group statistics on test anxiety in different gender

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TestAnxiety	female	60	2.6917	.66620	.08601
	male	60	2.5833	.74086	.09564

Table 25

T test to analyze gender differences in test anxiety

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
TestAnxiety	Equal variances assumed	.842	118	.401	.10833	.12863	-.14638	.36305
	Equal variances not assumed	.842	116.693	.401	.10833	.12863	-.14641	.36308

4.13 Analyzing School Refusal Behaviors with School Refusal Assessment Scale

In school refusal assessment scale there are four different functions, Each item in the question set contributes to a different function which may be contributing to the child's school refusal behavior. Here each function (avoidance of stimuli, escape from social situation, attention

seeking, tangible rewards) is compared with gender differences, different classes and different school setting.

13.1 Gender Differences and Avoidance of Stimuli

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between gender differences avoidance of stimuli. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean Avoidance between the female and male groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is 1.838 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.069, which is slightly greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is 1.838 with 116.176 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.069, which is also slightly greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.069) is slightly greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means at the conventional 5% significance level. However, it is important to note that the p-value is very close to 0.05, suggesting a marginally significant difference in the mean Avoidance between the female and male groups.

Table 26

Group statistics of avoidance in different gender

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Avoidance	female	60	2.1861	.92215	.11905
	male	60	1.8944	.81301	.10496

Table 27

T test for equality of means in avoidance

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2- taile d)	Mea n Diffe rence	Std. Error Diffe rence	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Low er	Uppe r
Av oid an ce	Equal variances assumed	1. 83 8	11 8	.069	.291 67	.158 71	- .022 62	.605 96
	Equal variances not assumed	1. 83 8	11 6. 17 6	.069	.291 67	.158 71	- .022 68	.606 01

13.2 GENDER DIFFERENCES AND ESCAPE FROM SOCIAL SITUATION

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between gender differences and escape from social situations. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean Escape from social situations between the female and male groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is 2.282 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.024, which is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is 2.282 with 117.900 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.024, which is also less than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.024) is less than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is a statistically significant difference in the mean Escape from social situations between the female and male groups in

the given data. The positive mean difference of 0.31111 indicates that females tend to have a higher mean Escape from social situations compared to males.

Table 28

Group statistics of escape from social situations in different gender

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Escapefromsocialsituations	female	60	1.7694	.73588	.09500
	male	60	1.4583	.75765	.09781

Table 29

T test for equality of means in escape from social situations

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Escapefromsocialsituations	Equal variances assumed	2.2	118	.024	.31111	.13635	.04109	.58113
	Equal variances not assumed	2.2	117.9	.024	.31111	.13635	.04109	.58113

13.3 GENDER DIFFERENCES AND ATTENTION SEEKING

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between gender differences and attention seeking behaviors. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean attention seeking between the female and male groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is 1.652 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.101, which is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is 1.652 with 111.018 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.101, which is also greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.101) is greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean attention seeking between the female and male groups in the given data. Although the mean difference of 0.36667 indicates that females tend to have a higher mean attention seeking compared to males, this difference is not statistically significant at the 5% significance level.

Table 30

Group statistics of attention seeking behaviour in different gender

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
attentionseeking	female	60	3.1806	1.05199	.13581
	male	60	2.8139	1.35924	.17548

Table 31

T test for equality of means in attention seeking

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
attentionseeking	Equal variances assumed	1.652	118	.101	.36667	.22189	-.07274	.80608

Equal	1.	11	.101	.3666	.2218	-	.8063
variances	65	1.		7	9	.0730	6
not assumed	2	01				3	
		8					

13.4 GENDER DIFFERENCES AND TANGIBLE REWARDS

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis, Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between gender differences and tangible rewards. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean tangible rewards between the female and male groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is -2.347 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.021, which is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is -2.347 with 117.661 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.021, which is also less than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.021) is less than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is a statistically significant difference in the mean tangible rewards between the female and male groups. The negative mean difference of -0.54167 indicates that females tend to have a lower mean tangible reward compared to males.

Table 32

Group statistics of tangible reward in gender differences

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
tangiblerewards	female	60	2.7389	1.22987	.15878
	male	60	3.2806	1.29772	.16754

Table 33

T test for equality of means in tangible rewards

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differe nce	Std. Error Differe nce	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
tangible rewards	Equal variances assumed	- 2.3 47	118	.021	- .54167	.23082	- .99875	- .08458
	Equal variances not assumed	- 2.3 47	117 .66 1	.021	- .54167	.23082	- .99877	- .08457

13.5 CLASS DIFFERENCES AND AVOIDANCE OF STIMULI

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between class differences and avoidance of stimuli. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean Avoidance between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is -1.730 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.086, which is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Avoidance between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is -1.730 with 117.344 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.086, which is also greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.086) is greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean Avoidance between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups.

Although the mean difference of -0.27500 indicates that the 5th grade group tends to have a higher mean Avoidance compared to the 4th standard group, this difference is not statistically significant at the 5% significance level.

Table 34

Group statistics of avoidance in class differences

Group Statistics						
	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Error
Avoidance	4th standard	60	1.9028	.90265	.11653	
	5th grade	60	2.1778	.83748	.10812	

Table 35

T test for equality of means in avoidance

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Avoidance	Equal variances assumed	-1.730	118	.086	-.27500	.15896	-.58979	.03979
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.730	117.344	.086	-.27500	.15896	-.58981	.03981

13.6 CLASS DIFFERENCES AND ESCAPE FROM SOCIAL SITUATION

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis, Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between class differences and escape from social situation. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean Escape from social situations between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is 0.120 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.905, which is much greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is 0.120 with 117.783 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.905, which is also much greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.905) is much greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean Escape from social situations between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups. The mean difference of 0.01667 is very small, indicating that the two groups have almost identical mean Escape from social situations scores.

Table 36

Group statistics of escape from social situation in class differences

Group Statistics					
	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Escapefromsocialsituations	4th standard	60	1.6222	.74653	.09638
	5th grade	60	1.6056	.77930	.10061

Table 37

T test for equality of means in escape from social situations

	t-test for Equality of Means						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper

Escapefroms ocialsituation s	Equal variances assumed	.1 20	11 8	.905	.0166 7	.1393 2	- .2592 3	.2925 6
	Equal variances not assumed	.1 20	11 7. 78 3	.905	.0166 7	.1393 2	- .2592 3	.2925 7

13.7 CLASS DIFFERENCES AND ATTENTION SEEKING

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis, Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between class differences and attention seeking. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean attention seeking between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is -0.223 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.824, which is much greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is -0.223 with 102.141 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.824, which is also much greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.824) is much greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean attention seeking between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups. The mean difference of -0.05000 is very small, indicating that the two groups have almost identical mean attention seeking scores.

Table 38

Group statistics of attention seeking in class differences

Group Statistics					
	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
attentionseeking	4th standard	60	2.9722	.95677	.12352
	5th grade	60	3.0222	1.45117	.18735

Table 39

T test for equality of means in attention seeking

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
attentionseeking	Equal variances assumed	-1.948	118	.054	-.05000	.22440	-.49437	.39437
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.948	102.14	.054	-.05000	.22440	-.49509	.39509

13.8 CLASS DIFFERENCES AND TANGIBLE REWARDS

An independent sample t-test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between class and tangible rewards. The t-test assesses whether there is a significant difference in the mean tangible rewards between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups.

For the "Equal variances assumed" case: The t-value is 1.948 with 118 degrees of freedom. The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.054, which is slightly greater than the conventional

significance level of 0.05. For the "Equal variances not assumed" case: The t-value is 1.948 with 112.571 degrees of freedom (adjusted for unequal variances). The p-value (Sig. 2-tailed) is 0.054, which is also slightly greater than 0.05.

Since the p-value (0.054) is slightly greater than the significance level of 0.05 in both cases, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of equal means at the conventional 5% significance level. However, it is important to note that the p-value is very close to 0.05, suggesting a marginally significant difference in the mean tangible rewards between the 4th standard and 5th grade groups. The positive mean difference of 0.45278 indicates that the 4th standard group tends to have a higher mean tangible reward compared to the 5th grade group.

Table 40

Group statistics of tangible rewards in class differences

Group Statistics					
	Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
tangiblerewards	4th standard	60	3.2361	1.40596	.18151
	5th grade	60	2.7833	1.12467	.14519

Table 41

T test for equality of means in tangible rewards

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differ ence	Std. Error Differ ence	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
tangibl erewar ds	Equal variances assumed	1.9 48	11 8	.054	.4527 8	.2324 4	- .0075	.91307 1
	Equal variances not assumed	1.9 48	11 2.5 71	.054	.4527 8	.2324 4	- .0077	.91330 4

13.9 SCHOOL DIFFERENCES AND AVOIDANCE OF STIMULI

One-way ANOVA Test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between school differences and avoidance of stimuli. The mean Avoidance scores are: 2.2250 for unaided, 1.9833 for govt, and 1.9125 for aided schools. The total mean Avoidance across all schools is 2.0403.

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: The Levene's test is used to check if the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met. The Levene's statistic value is 4.477 with 2 degrees of freedom for the numerator and 117 degrees of freedom for the denominator. The p-value (Sig.) is 0.013, which is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Since the p-value (0.013) is less than 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis that the variances are equal across the three groups. This indicates a violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption for the ANOVA.

ANOVA: The ANOVA tests if there are significant differences in the mean Avoidance scores between the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided). Since the p-value (0.250) is greater than the significance level of 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there are no statistically significant differences in the mean Avoidance scores among the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided) in the given data.

Table 42

Descriptives of avoidance in different school setting in one-way ANOVA

Descriptives									
Avoidance									
	N	Me an	Std. Devia tion	Std. Err or	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Mi nim um	Ma xim um	Betwe en- Comp onent Varian ce
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
unaided	40	2.2 25 0	1.053 11	.16 651	1.8882	2.5618	.67	5.5 0	
govt	40	1.9 83 3	.8580 1	.13 566	1.7089	2.2577	.50	4.0 0	
aided	40	1.9 12 5	.6719 7	.10 625	1.6976	2.1274	.00	3.5 0	
Total	12 0	2.0 40 3	.8779 4	.08 014	1.8816	2.1990	.00	5.5 0	
Model	Fixed Effects		.8749 8	.07 987	1.8821	2.1985			
	Rando m Effects			.09 460	1.6333	2.4473			.00771

Table 43

Homogeneity test for avoidance

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Avoidance			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.477	2	117	.013

Table 44

ANOVA test for avoidance in different school

ANOVA					
Avoidance					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.148	2	1.074	1.403	.250
Within Groups	89.574	117	.766		
Total	91.722	119			

13.10 SCHOOL DIFFERENCES AND ESCAPE FROM SOCIAL SITUATIONS

One-way ANOVA Test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between school differences and escape from social situation. The mean Escape from social situations scores are: 1.7958 for unaided, 1.4708 for govt, and 1.5750 for aided schools. The total mean of Escape from social situation across all schools is 1.6139.

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: The Levene's test is used to check if the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met. The Levene's statistic value is 2.856 with 2 degrees of freedom for the numerator and 117 degrees of freedom for the denominator. The p-value (Sig.) is 0.062, which is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05.

ANOVA: The ANOVA tests if there are significant differences in the mean Escape from social situations scores between the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided). The p-value

(Sig.) is 0.149, which is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Since the p-value (0.149) is greater than the significance level of 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there are no statistically significant differences in the mean Escape from social situations scores among the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided) in the given data.

Table 45

Descriptives of escape from social situations in different school setting in one-way ANOVA

Descriptives									
Escapefromsocialsituations									
	N	Me an	Std. Deviat ion	Std. Err or	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min imu m	Ma xim um	Betwe en- Comp onent Varian ce
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
unaided	40	1.7 95 8	.9132 5	.14 440	1.5038	2.0879	.00	3.50	
govt	40	1.4 70 8	.7433 3	.11 753	1.2331	1.7086	.00	4.00	
aided	40	1.5 75 0	.5648 2	.08 931	1.3944	1.7556	.50	2.50	
Total	12 0	1.6 13 9	.7599 3	.06 937	1.4765	1.7513	.00	4.00	
M o d el	Fixed Effects		.7540 1	.06 883	1.4776	1.7502			
	Rando m Effects			.09 581	1.2016	2.0261			.01333

Table 46

Homogeneity test for escape from social situations

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Escapefromsocialsituations			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.856	2	117	.062

Table 47

ANOVA test for escape from social situations in different schools

ANOVA					
Escapefromsocialsituations					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.203	2	1.102	1.938	.149
Within Groups	66.518	117	.569		
Total	68.721	119			

13.11 SCHOOL DIFFERENCES AND ATTENTION SEEKING

One-way ANOVA Test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between school differences and attention seeking behaviour. The mean attention seeking scores are: 3.5708 for unaided, 2.2458 for govt, and 3.1750 for aided schools. The total mean attention seeking across all schools is 2.9972.

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: The Levene's test is used to check if the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met. The Levene's statistic value is 4.076 with 2 degrees of freedom for the numerator and 117 degrees of freedom for the denominator. The p-value (Sig.) is 0.019, which is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Since the p-value (0.019) is less than 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis that the variances are equal

across the three groups. This indicates a violation of the homogeneity of variances assumption for the ANOVA.

ANOVA: The ANOVA tests if there are significant differences in the mean attention seeking scores between the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided). The p-value (Sig.) is 0.000, which is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Since the p-value (0.000) is less than the significance level of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there are statistically significant differences in the mean attention seeking scores among the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided) in the given data. Unaided and aided schools had high attention seeking behaviors than government school students.

Table 48

Descriptives of attention seeking in different school setting in one-way ANOVA

Descriptives									
attentionseeking									
	N	Me an	Std. Deviat ion	Std. Err or	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min imu m	Ma xim um	Betwe en- Comp onent Varian ce
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
unaided	40	3.5 708	1.150 92	.18 198	3.2027	3.9389	1.3 3	6.00	
govt	40	2.2 458	1.279 91	.20 237	1.8365	2.6552	.00	5.00	
aided	40	3.1 750	.8129 6	.12 854	2.9150	3.4350	1.5 0	5.00	
Total	120	2.9 972	1.224 17	.111 75	2.7759	3.2185	.00	6.00	
Model	Fixed Effects		1.099 04	.10 033	2.7985	3.1959			
	Rando m Effects			.39 269	1.3076	4.6868			.43241

Table 49

Homogeneity test for attention seeking

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
attentionseeking			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.076	2	117	.019

Table 50

ANOVA Test for attention seeking behaviour in different school

ANOVA					
attentionseeking					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	37.009	2	18.504	15.320	.000
Within Groups	141.324	117	1.208		
Total	178.332	119			

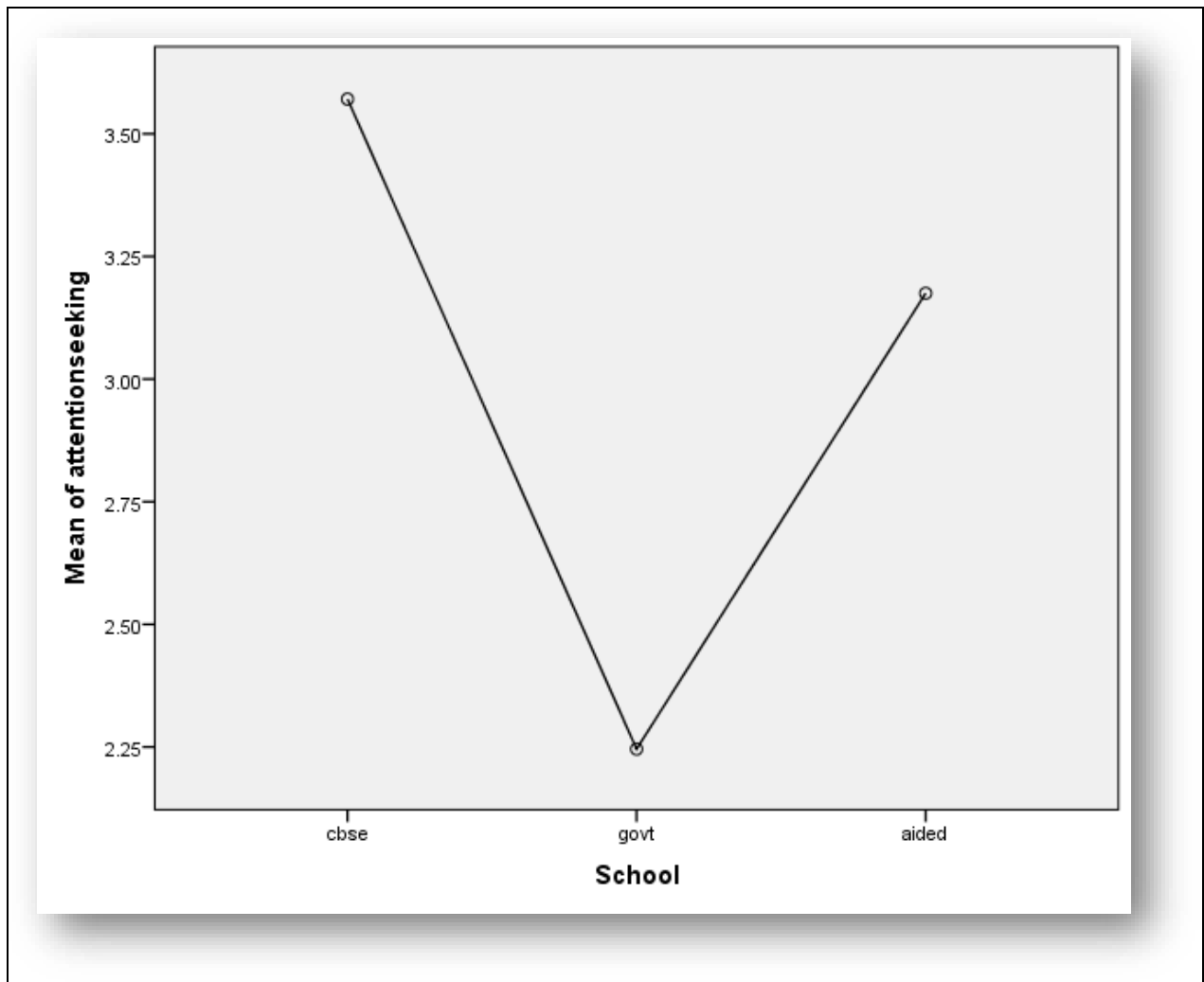


Figure 6

School settings and mean of attention seeking

13.12 SCHOOL DIFFERENCES AND TANGIBLE REWARDS

One-way ANOVA Test was performed to test the Hypothesis,

Following are the results from SPSS for testing the relationship between school differences and tangible rewards. The mean tangible rewards scores are: 3.4958 for unaided, 2.9125 for govt, and 2.6208 for aided schools. The total mean tangible rewards across all schools is 3.0097.

Test of Homogeneity of Variances: The Levene's test is used to check if the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met. The Levene's statistic value is 1.078 with 2 degrees of freedom for the numerator and 117 degrees of freedom for the denominator. The p-value (Sig.) is 0.344, which is greater than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Since the p-value (0.344) is greater than 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the variances are

equal across the three groups. This indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variances for the ANOVA is met.

ANOVA: The ANOVA tests if there are significant differences in the mean tangible rewards scores between the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided). The p-value (Sig.) is 0.007, which is less than the conventional significance level of 0.05. Since the p-value (0.007) is less than the significance level of 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there are statistically significant differences in the mean tangible rewards scores among the three groups (unaided, govt, and aided) in the given data.

the one-way ANOVA provides evidence of significant differences in the mean tangible rewards scores between the unaided, govt, and aided groups. The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, and the ANOVA results can be considered valid. Unaided school showed higher need for tangible rewards than aided and government school students

Table 51

Descriptives of tangible rewards in different school setting in one-way ANOVA

Descriptives									
tangiblerewards									
	N	Me an	Std. Deviat ion	Std. Erro r	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min imu m	Max imu m	Betwee n- Compo nent Varianc e
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
unaided	40	3.4 958	1.0625 0	.168 00	3.1560	3.8356	1.33	5.50	
govt	40	2.9 125	1.3101 6	.207 15	2.4935	3.3315	1.00	6.00	
aided	40	2.6 208	1.3450 3	.212 67	2.1907	3.0510	.50	6.00	
Total	120	3.0 097	1.2879 7	.117 58	2.7769	3.2425	.50	6.00	

Model	Fixed Effects			1.24559	.11371	2.7845	3.2349			
	Random Effects				.25723	1.9030	4.1165			.15971

Table 52

Homogeneity test for tangible rewards

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
tangiblerewards			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.078	2	117	.344

Table 53

ANOVA test for tangible rewards in different schools

ANOVA					
tangiblerewards					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15.880	2	7.940	5.118	.007
Within Groups	181.526	117	1.552		
Total	197.405	119			

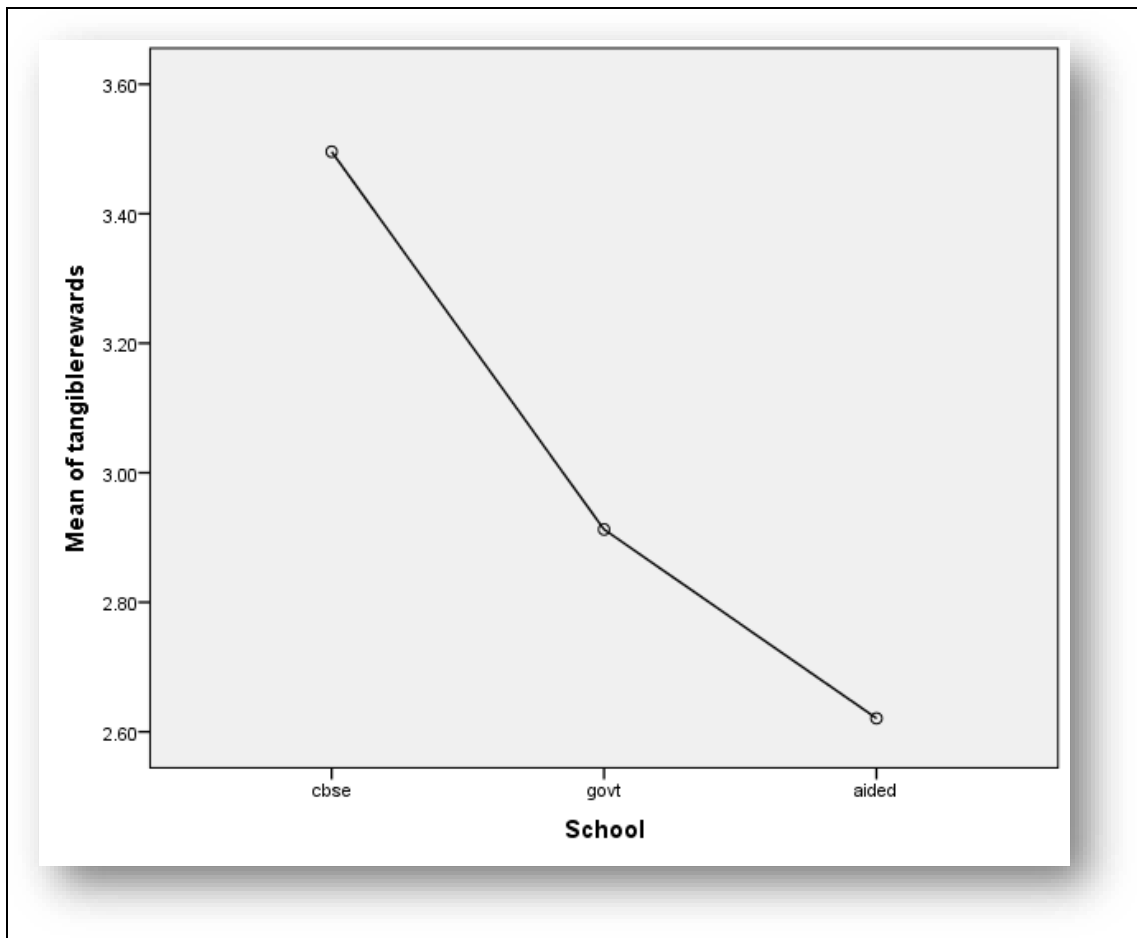


Figure 7
School setting and mean of tangible rewards

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The on “**Examining school anxiety in elementary school students**” was conducted among elementary students of 4th and 5th standards in different school settings (unaided, aided and government) from Ernakulam district.

5.1 Aim

The study aims “Examining school anxiety in elementary school students”

5.2 Objectives

1. To examine parenting style and academic performance.
2. To examine gender differences in academic performance.
3. To examine teacher anxiety in different school setting.
4. To compare teacher anxiety and academic performance.
5. To examine gender differences in teacher anxiety.
6. To examine the correlation between test anxiety and academic performance.
7. To compare teacher anxiety in 4th and 5th grade students.
8. To compare test anxiety in 4th and 5th grade students.
9. To compare test anxiety in different school settings.
10. To examine gender differences in test anxiety.
11. To utilise school refusal assessment scale to analyse refusal behaviour
 - Avoidance of stimuli
 - Escape from social situations
 - Attention seeking behaviour
 - Tangible rewards

5.3 Sample

The sample chosen for the present study consist of 120 sample of children. Three schools were selected (aided school from urban area, an unaided school and a government school from rural area) and the focus group was 4th and 5th standards from each school. Ten boys and ten girls from each class were chosen within the age group of 9 to 12 years.

5.4 Tool

The tools selected for the study were questionnaires and a socio-demographic data sheet. The questionnaire comprised of two standardized scales (Westside test anxiety scale and School refusal assessment scale revised (C)). The socio-demographic data sheet is a self-designed sociodemographic profile.

5.5 Findings

The findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

5.5.1 Socio-demographic profile of respondents

- Only 11.7 % children were single child and was higher in government school
- Government school had a greater number of students with strict and friendly parenting style in comparison with unaided and aided schools.
- The number of nuclear families is slightly higher for unaided than aided and government schools. Single parent families were much higher in aided school
- The number of achievers and non-achievers had only a small difference
- Almost 86.7% showed participation in the arts and sports
- Most of the students were average academic performers and government school had more average performers and aided had more below average performers.
- About 73.3% of students had teacher anxiety

5.5.2 Test Anxiety Score of Respondents

The majority of students had normal test anxiety and high normal test anxiety and the least number of students showed extremely high anxiety. Unaided school had the highest number of normal test anxiety, government school had a greater number of high normal and extremely high test anxiety and aided school had the highest number of moderately high test anxiety.

5.5.3 Relationship Between Parenting Style and Academic Performance.

The study found that there was no significant association between parenting style and academic performance.

5.5.4 Relationship Between Gender Differences and Academic Performance.

The study found that there was significant relationship between gender and academic performance. Most of the excellent and good academic performers were girls.

5.5.5 Relationship Between Teacher Anxiety in Different School Settings.

The study found that there was significant relationship between teacher anxiety in different school settings most of the kids in unaided school showed teacher anxiety compared to government and aided school.

5.5.6 Relationship Between Teacher Anxiety and Academic Performance.

The study found that there was no significant association between teacher anxiety and academic performance.

5.5.7 Relationship Between Teacher Anxiety and Gender Differences.

The study found that there is no significant association between teacher anxiety and gender differences. Both the girls and boys showed teacher anxiety.

5.5.8 Relationship Between Test Anxiety and Academic Performance.

The study found that there is positive correlation between test anxiety and academic performance. Test Anxiety increases, Academic Performance tends to increase as well, or vice versa.

5.5.9 Relationship Between Teacher Anxiety and Class Differences.

The study found that there is no significant association between teacher anxiety and class differences. Both classes showed teacher anxiety.

5.5.10 Relationship Between Test Anxiety and Class Differences.

The study found that there is a relationship between test anxiety and class differences. 5th grade students showed more test anxiety than 4th grade students.

5.5.11 Relationship Between Test Anxiety in Different School Settings.

The study found that there are significant differences in Test Anxiety means across the school types. The unaided school type has a significantly lower mean Test Anxiety compared to govt and aided schools, while the govt and aided schools do not differ significantly from each other in terms of mean Test Anxiety.

5.5.12 Relationship Between Gender Differences in Test Anxiety.

The study found that there is no significant difference in mean Test Anxiety between the female and male groups. Both groups had almost same test anxiety.

5.5.13 Analyzation School Refusal Behaviors with School Refusal Assessment Scale

The study found that by analyzing four functions (avoidance of stimuli, escape from social situations, attention seeking and tangible rewards) of school refusal behaviors with gender, class and school differences there is significant association between gender differences and escape from social situations (Females tends to show escape from social situation more than boys), gender differences and tangible rewards (Males show higher tendency towards tangible rewards than girls), school differences and attention seeking (Unaided and aided schools had high attention seeking behaviors than government school students) and school differences and tangible rewards (Unaided school showed higher need for tangible rewards than aided and government school students).

5.6 Conclusion

The present study “Examining school anxiety in elementary school students” discusses the prevalence of school anxiety among 4th and 5th grade elementary school students across different school settings. The study particularly focuses on teacher anxiety, test anxiety, parenting style, academic performance, school refusal behaviours and its complex interplay on with factors such as gender, class and school differences.

The study found that nearly every student had anxiety related to teachers, and most of them displayed medium to high levels of test anxiety. A small percentage of students also displayed extremely high levels of test anxiety. among all types of educational environments, anxiousness among teachers was seen, although it was more pronounced among unassisted pupils than in government and assisted schools.

Academic achievement and test anxiety were found to be positively associated. Additionally, test anxiety was shown to differ significantly between school types, with unassisted students reporting lower levels of test anxiety than government and aided school students. Fifth graders also reported higher levels of test anxiety than fourth graders.

The School Refusal Assessment Scale was used in a study on school refusal behaviors, and the results showed substantial gender differences in terms of escape from social settings (more common in females) and physical rewards (more common in males).

Additionally, students at unaided and aided schools exhibited more attention-seeking behaviours than students in government schools, and unaided students demanded more tangible incentives than students in aided and government schools.

These results highlighted how important it is to comprehend and treat school anxiety in order to foster a welcoming and helpful learning environment for students in various school settings.

5.7 Limitations

- The study was only limited to Ernakulam district
- The sample size was small due to time limitations
- The study focused on only 4th and 5th grade students

5.8 Suggestion for further research

- The study can be conducted using a large sample and can be expanded to larger area
- The study can be conducted for kinder garden or for secondary students
- A comparative study can be done between different factors affecting school anxiety or with subdivisions of school
- An appropriate tool can be developed to measure school anxiety or academic anxiety

Recommendations

The study put forward the following recommendations:

- The schools can implement various intervention programme to reduce school refusal behaviour.
- Teachers and school authorities could provide supportive environment to the students
- Awareness classes can be given to school authorities about their attitude towards children and various coping mechanism for anxiety among children.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

1. Name:
2. Age:
3. Grade:
4. Gender:
5. No. of siblings:
6. Is your parent: Very strict/ Disciplined
 - Strict as well as supportive and friendly
 - Very friendly & excess freedom/few rules
7. Family structure: Two parent household
 - Single parent household
 - Joint family
9. Achievements during this yr:
10. Participation in art/sports :
11. Academic performance: Excellent
 - Good
 - Average
 - Below Average
12. Do any of the staffs members or teachers worry you: yes/ no

APPENDIX II

Appendix A: Westside Test Anxiety Scale

Rate how true each of the following is of you, from extremely or always true, to not at all or never true. Use the following 5 point scale.

5	4	3	2	1
extremely or always true	highly or usually true	moderately or sometimes true	slightly or seldom true	not at all or never true

- 1) The closer I am to a major exam, the harder it is for me to concentrate on the material.
- 2) When I study, I worry that I will not remember the material on the exam.
- 3) During important exams, I think that I am doing awful or that I may fail.
- 4) I lose focus on important exams, and I cannot remember material that I knew before the exam.
- 5) I finally remember the answer to exam questions after the exam is already over.
- 6) I worry so much before a major exam that I am too worn out to do my best on the exam.
- 7) I feel out of sorts or not really myself when I take important exams.
- 8) I find that my mind sometimes wanders when I am taking important exams.
- 9) After an exam, I worry about whether I did well enough.
- 10) I struggle with writing assignments, or avoid them as long as I can. I feel that whatever I do will not be good enough.

_____ Sum of the 10 questions

_____ Divide the sum by 10. This is your Test Anxiety score.

What does your test anxiety score mean?

- 1.0—1.9 Comfortably low test anxiety
- 2.0—2.5 Normal or average test anxiety
- 2.5—2.9 High normal test anxiety
- 3.0—3.4 Moderately high (some items rated 4=high)
- 3.5—3.9 High test anxiety (half or more of the items rated 4=high)
- 4.0—5.0 Extremely high anxiety (items rated 4=high and 5=extreme)

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APPENDIX III

School Refusal Assessment Scale-Revised (C)

Children sometimes have different reasons for not going to school. Some children feel badly at school, some have trouble with other people, some just want to be with their family, and others like to do things that are more fun outside of school.

This form asks questions about why you don't want to go to school. For each question, pick one number that describes you best for the last few days. After you answer one question, go on to the next. Don't skip any questions.

There are no right or wrong answers. Just pick the number that best fits the way you feel about going to school. Select the number.

Here is an example of how it works. Try it. Select the number that describes you *best*.

Example:

How often do you like to go shopping?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Now go to the next page and begin to answer the questions.

School Refusal Assessment Scale-Revised (C)

Name: _____

Age: _____

Date: _____

Please select the answer that best fits the following questions:

1. How often do you have bad feelings about going to school because you are afraid of something related to school (for example, tests, school bus, teacher, fire alarm)?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

2. How often do you stay away from school because it is hard to speak with the other kids at school?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

3. How often do you feel you would rather be with your parents than go to school?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

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4. When you are not in school during the week (Monday to Friday), how often do you leave the house and do something fun?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

5. How often do you stay away from school because you will feel sad or depressed if you go?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

6. How often do you stay away from school because you feel embarrassed in front of other people at school?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

7. How often do you think about your parents or family when in school?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

8. When you are not in school during the week (Monday to Friday), how often do you talk to or see other people (other than your family)?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

9. How often do you feel worse at school (for example, scared, nervous, or sad) compared to how you feel at home with friends?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

10. How often do you stay away from school because you do not have many friends there?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

11. How much would you rather be with your family than go to school?

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Never | Seldom | Sometimes | Half the Time | Usually | Almost Always | Always |
| <input type="radio"/> 0 | <input type="radio"/> 1 | <input type="radio"/> 2 | <input type="radio"/> 3 | <input type="radio"/> 4 | <input type="radio"/> 5 | <input type="radio"/> 6 |

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12. When you are not in school during the week (Monday to Friday), how much do you enjoy doing different things (for example, being with friends, going places)?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

13. How often do you have bad feelings about school (for example, scared, nervous, or sad) when you think about school on Saturday and Sunday?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

14. How often do you stay away from certain places in school (e.g., hallways, places where certain groups of people are) where you would have to talk to someone?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

15. How much would you rather be taught by your parents at home than by your teacher at school?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

16. How often do you refuse to go to school because you want to have fun outside of school?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

17. If you had less bad feelings (for example, scared, nervous, sad) about school, would it be easier for you to go to school?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

18. If it were easier for you to make new friends, would it be easier for you to go to school?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

19. Would it be easier for you to go to school if your parents went with you?

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Half the Time	Usually	Almost Always	Always
<input type="radio"/> 0	<input type="radio"/> 1	<input type="radio"/> 2	<input type="radio"/> 3	<input type="radio"/> 4	<input type="radio"/> 5	<input type="radio"/> 6

20. Would it be easier for you to go to school if you could do more things you like to do after school hours (for example, being with friends)?

Never Seldom Sometimes Half the Time Usually Almost Always Always

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

21. How much more do you have bad feelings about school (for example, scared, nervous, or sad) compared to other kids your age?

Never Seldom Sometimes Half the Time Usually Almost Always Always

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

22. How often do you stay away from people at school compared to other kids your age?

Never Seldom Sometimes Half the Time Usually Almost Always Always

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

23. Would you like to be home with your parents more than other kids your age would?

Never Seldom Sometimes Half the Time Usually Almost Always Always

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

24. Would you rather be doing fun things outside of school more than most kids your age?

Never Seldom Sometimes Half the Time Usually Almost Always Always

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Do not write below this line

1.	<input type="text"/>	2.	<input type="text"/>	3.	<input type="text"/>	4.	<input type="text"/>
5.	<input type="text"/>	6.	<input type="text"/>	7.	<input type="text"/>	8.	<input type="text"/>
9.	<input type="text"/>	10.	<input type="text"/>	11.	<input type="text"/>	12.	<input type="text"/>
13.	<input type="text"/>	14.	<input type="text"/>	15.	<input type="text"/>	16.	<input type="text"/>
17.	<input type="text"/>	18.	<input type="text"/>	19.	<input type="text"/>	20.	<input type="text"/>
21.	<input type="text"/>	22.	<input type="text"/>	23.	<input type="text"/>	24.	<input type="text"/>
Total Score =	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Mean Score =	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Relative Ranking =	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

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