

A Study on Ambivalent Sexism and Sport Emotion among NRIs (Non-Resident of India) and Non NRIs

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ABSTRACT

Sexism in India is not just about the hugely unfair things that happen. It is also the “small things” which work ominously in the background and need our attention. We probably overlook casual, everyday sexism more than we give into it. Precompetitive emotion is characteristic of athletes. It is a central feature of many sporting events. The study aims to study ambivalent sexism and sport emotion among NRI and non NRI adolescents. Although results the present study shows that there is no significant difference between ambivalent sexism and sport emotion among NRI and non-NRIs, ambivalent sexism was found more among non-NRIs and sport emotion was found more among NRIs.

Keywords: *Ambivalent Sexism, Sport Emotion, NRI, Non-NRI*

Today, around 51 percentage of the world population constitutes of adolescent boys. Among them 9.7 percent comprises of NRIs. Thus, this group deserves attention as it constitutes a great extent of Indian population. An Indian citizen who stays abroad for employment or carrying on business or vocation outside India or stays abroad under circumstances indicating an intention for an uncertain duration of stay abroad is a non-resident. From a legal perspective, it refers to someone who hasn't stayed in India for 182 days in a year or for 365 days in four consecutive years. People usually go outside India mainly for good job opportunities or higher education. In our society, NRI often are viewed in high regard. They are often portrayed as hardworking people who sacrifice the comforts of their home country, near and dear ones, and go to a foreign country to earn big and support their family back home.

Categories

The following are the main three categories of NRIs:

1. Indian citizens who stay abroad for employment or for carrying on a business or vocation or any other purpose in circumstances indicating an indefinite period of stay aboard.
2. Indian citizens working abroad on assignment with foreign government agencies like United Nations Organizations (UNO), including its affiliates, World Bank etc.

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3. Officials of Central and State Government and Public Sector undertaking deputed abroad on their temporary assignments or posted to their offices, including Indian diplomat missions, abroad.

Adolescence

According to Bigner (1983), adolescence can be defined as a stage in the life cycle between 13 and 18 years of age characterized by increasing independence from adult controls, rapidly occurring physiological changes, exploration of social issues and concerns, increased focus on activities with a peer group and establishment of a basic self-identity.

Ambivalent sexism

Sexism has typically been conceptualized as a reflection of hostility toward women. This view neglects a significant aspect of sexism: the subjectively positive feelings toward women that often go hand in hand with sexist antipathy. We view sexism as a multidimensional construct that encompasses two sets of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism needs little explanation; by it, mean those aspects of sexism that fit Allport's (1954) classic definition of prejudice. Benevolent sexism is a set of interrelated attitudes toward women that are sexist in terms of viewing women stereotypically and in restricted roles but that are subjectively positive in feeling tone (for the perceiver) and also tend to elicit behaviors typically categorized as prosocial (e.g., helping) or intimacy-seeking (e.g., self-disclosure).

Sport Emotion

The major theories of motivation can be grouped into three main categories: physiological, neurological, and cognitive. Physiological theories suggest that responses within the body are responsible for emotions. Neurological theories propose that activity within the brain leads to emotional responses. Finally, cognitive theories argue that thoughts and other mental activity play an essential role in forming emotions. The sport emotions are anger, anxiety, dejection, excitement, and happiness. Unpleasant emotions are Anger, Anxiety and Dejection and Pleasant Emotions are Happiness and Excitement.

Need And Significance of The Study

The present study is conducted among NRI and Non-NRI adolescent boys and girls.

Sexism in India is not just about the hugely unfair things that happen. It is also the „small things“ which work ominously in the background and need our attention. We probably overlook casual, everyday sexism more than we give into it. Sexism extends from classroom seating arrangements to advertisements which we see on televisions, hoardings, billboards and traffic jams. We need to understand what creates sexism and expose the attitudes which repeat the patterns of harmful experiences that women and girls face. We need to break the mould-the expectations about men and women, girls and boys that perpetuate harassment and gender injustice. The voices of girls around the country who are being subjected to sexual harassment and sexism at school must be heard and acted on. It is clear that schools must urgently do more to tackle sexism, but they need support and guidance to be able to do so effectively.

The goals of this research are to (1) reveal the multidimensional nature of sexism, (2) offer theoretical and empirical analysis of the sources and nature of men's ambivalence towards women.

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Emotion is a central feature of many sporting events. Most emotion theorists argue that emotions have the power to motivate and regulate cognitions and behaviors in sport. Some theorists believe basic emotions are linked to evolutionary development (phylogeny), whereas others hold that emotions are social constructions and reflect only social learning through shared experiences across cultures and the past history of the person (ontogeny). These views of course influence the criteria used to identify basic emotions. Athletes can learn to regulate the expression of basic emotions, but such regulation can be overwhelmed in extreme situations. Understanding how social learning is integrated into the brain mechanisms regulating basic emotions has critical implications for emotional regulation.

The goals of this study are to

- (1) determine how geographical factors affect sport emotion,
- (2) identify basic sport emotions.

Objectives

1. To study ambivalent sexism among NRI adolescents.
2. To study ambivalent sexism among Non-NRI adolescents.
3. To study sport emotion among NRI adolescents.
4. To study sport emotion among Non-NRI adolescents.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

NRI (Non-Residents of India)

The NRI's life has only a few memories saved. Most of his beginning years are gone dealing with immigration issues, transferring visas, learning to drive and maintain good credit history. In no time, NRI compellingly takes a huge shift in thinking and style of living. Soon, he is stuck in a vicious cycle of immigration at the expense of his goal keeping.

Definition

A person is a resident who has stayed equal to more than 182 days of current financial year in India or if he stayed in India for 60 days or more in previous financial year and 365 days or more in four years before that financial year in consideration (Income Tax Act, 1961).

An Indian abroad is popularly known as Non-Resident Indian (NRI). NRI is legally defined under the Income Tax Act, 1961 and the Foreign Exchange Management Act, 1999 (FEMA) for applicability of respective laws.

Characteristics

(1) He is broadminded

NRIs have travelled the world and have met people from different countries during their stay in the country. This has led them to come in close contact with people who are from different cultures, traditions, caste religion etc. As a result, they become more broadminded in their views and opinion than the traditional Indians.

(2) He is often expected to make a show of power with money:

Due to rich label status of an NRI, he is often compelled by his family or friends to buy real estate, luxury items like high end cars or invest in business. An NRI is often expected to have a word of cash ready at his disposal.

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(3) He is an expert in International matters.

Being in a new country naturally makes one curious about the laws, culture, and customs they practice there. He always gets a chance to meet and talk with nationals from other countries which shed a lot of light on various matters of world politics, geography, country policies and traditions.

(4) He treats others with more respect.

NRI's stay in foreign countries has taught them a lot about the life experiences of themselves and the people around them. They have seen and been through innumerable hardships. Thus, they become more understanding and are often sympathetic to the sad plight of others.

Indians in the Middle East

There is a huge population of Indians in the Middle East, especially in the oil-rich monarchies, neighboring the Persian Gulf. Most moved to the Gulf after the oil boom to work as laborers and for clerical jobs. However, Indians in Gulf do not become citizens. One of the major reasons Indians like to study and work in Gulf is because of the tax-free income it provides and its proximity to India.

Adolescence

Adolescence means to “emerge”, to achieve „identity“. The time of growing up from childhood to adulthood is known as the adolescence. Adolescence can start at nine (9) and end at eighteen (18). Young people may grow quickly in some ways and more slowly in others. It is a time when children undergo crisis of identity.

Definition

According to A.T. Jersild, “Adolescence is a span of years during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood mentally, emotionally, socially and physically”. In India, adolescence is a phase that is more difficult to define particularly in terms of age.

Stages of Adolescence

Early Adolescence:

Early adolescence is from 10 to 12 years. The rate of growth increases, starting first in the hands and feet and later in the limbs. In early adolescence, they start initiating independence from the family, and desire for privacy. There may be a clash between the wish for their autonomy and parental authority

Middle Adolescence:

Middle adolescence ranges from 12 to 16 years. The peak of the height-velocity curve is seen. Auxiliary hair and sweat glands develop. In 80% of girls, dramatic event of menarche occurs. The timing is influenced by genetic factors and nutritional status. Any chronic illness can delay puberty.

Late adolescence:

Late adolescence ranges from 16 to 19 years. The body approximates the young and the development of secondary sex characteristics is completed. In late adolescence, career decisions are finally traced. The child gradually returns to the family, on a new footing.

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Theories on Nature of Adolescence

G. Stanley Hall's Biogenetic Psychology of Adolescence

G. Stanley Hall (1844-1924), was the first psychologist to advance a psychology of adolescence in its own right and to use scientific methods to study them. He defined this period to begin at puberty at about 12 or 13 years, and end late, between 22 years to 25 years of age. Hall also described adolescence as a period of Sturm und Drang, "storm and stress." In German literature, the period of sturm und drang includes the works of Schiller and the early writings of Goethe. It is a literary movement full of idealism, commitment to a goal, and revolution against the old, expression of personal feelings, passion and suffering. Hall saw an analogy between the objectives of this group of young writers at the turn of the eighteenth century and the psychological characteristics of adolescence.

Sigmund Freud and the Psychoanalytic Theory of Adolescent Development

Freud paid relatively little attention to adolescent development only to discuss it in terms of psychosexual development. He shared a common idea with that of Hall's evolutionary theory: that the period of adolescence could be seen as phylogenetic. Freud did maintain that the individual goes through the earlier experiences of mankind in his psychosexual development. According to Freud and psychoanalytic theory, the stages of psychosexual development are genetically determined and are relatively independent of environmental factors. Freud believed that adolescence was a universal phenomenon and included behavioral, social and emotional changes; not to mention the relationships between the physiological and psychological changes, and the influences on the self-image. He also stated that the physiological changes are related to emotional changes, especially an increase in negative emotions, such as moodiness, anxiety, loathing, tension and other forms of adolescent behavior.

Anna Freud's Theory of Adolescent Defense Mechanism

Anna Freud assigns greater importance to puberty as a critical factor in character formation. She also places much emphasis on the relationship between the id, the ego and the superego. She believes that the physiological process of sexual maturation, beginning with the functioning of the sexual glands, plays a critical role in influencing the psychological realm. This interaction results in the instinctual reawakening of the libidinal forces, which, in turn, can bring about psychological disequilibrium. The painfully established balance between ego and id during the latency period is disturbed by puberty, and internal conflict results. Thus, one aspect of puberty, the puberty conflict, is the endeavor to regain equilibrium.

Erik Erikson's Theory of Identity Development

The core concept of Erikson's theory is the acquisition of an ego-identity, and the identity crisis is the most essential characteristic of adolescence. Although a person's identity is established in ways that differ from culture to culture, the accomplishment of this developmental task has a common element in all cultures. In order to acquire a strong and healthy ego-identity the child must receive consistent and meaningful recognition of his achievements and accomplishments.

Leta Stetter Hollingworth's Emphasis on the Continuity of Development

An influential theory of development has been espoused by Leta Stetter Hollingworth (1886- 1939) in her book, *The Psychology of the Adolescent* (1928). It is reported that she was even more pronounced than were Mead and Benedict in her attack on Hall's idea of adolescence as a

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period of "storm and stress." She dismissed his works as of little scientific or practical value. Her views were influenced by the work of cultural anthropologists.

Kurt Lewin: Field Theory and Adolescence

Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) was a pupil of the early Gestalt school of psychologists at the University of Berlin. But Lewin's theory on adolescence is conceptually different from other theories. His theory on adolescent development is explicitly stated in "Field Theory and Experiment in Social Psychology" (1939). His field theory explains and describes the dynamics of behavior of the individual adolescent without generalizing about adolescents as a group. His constructs help to describe and explain, and predict the behavior of a given individual in a specific situation. In a sense, the field theory of adolescence is expressed explicitly and stated more formally than other theories of adolescent development.

Jean Piaget's Cognitive Theory of Adolescent Development

Jean Piaget began to look at the period of adolescent development later in his career with the publication of *The Growth of Logical Thinking from Childhood to Adolescence* (with B. Inhelder, 1958). "The adolescent not only tries to adapt his ego to his social environment but, just as emphatically, tries to adjust the environment to his ego".

The adolescent thinker can leave the real objective world behind and enter the world of ideas. The adolescent, who has mastered formal operations, begins by thinking of all logical possibilities and then considers them in a systematic fashion; reality is secondary to possibility. Reversal of the direction of thought between reality and possibility constitutes a turning point in the development of the structure of intelligence, since it leads to an equilibrium that is both stable and fixed. Formal operations allow the adolescent to combine propositions and to isolate variables in order to confirm or disprove his hypothesis. He no longer needs to think in terms of objects or concrete events, but can carry out operations of symbols in his mind.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Etchezahar E. and Unagaretti J.(2014) conducted a study on 250 secondary school students from the city of Buenos Aires aging between 16 and 18 of both to determine which women stereotype are most common in a group of young adolescents. The relationship between hostile forms and stereotypes of women in men and women were analyzed finding no statistically significant differences. Similarly, after analyzing the relationship between benevolent forms and women stereotypes in men and women significant differences were found.

Steptoe A.S. and Butler N. (1996) conducted a study to assess the association between emotional well-being and extent of participation and regular sport or vigorous recreational activities in 2223 boys and girls with a mean age of 16.3 years. Results shows that emotional well-being is positively associated with the extent of participation in sport and vigorous recreational activities among adolescents.

Nock M. and Prinstein M.J. (2005) conducted an ecological assessment study among adolescents and young adults to reveal the form and function of self-injurious thoughts and behaviors. The participants were 30 adolescents and young adults with a recent history of self- injuries who completed signal and even to contingent assessment on handheld

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computers over a 14-day period. Results reported about an average of 5.0 thoughts of non-suicidal self-injury per week, most often of moderate intensity and short duration.

Hyunh V. and Fuligini A. (2010) conducted a study to examine whether parent child conflict and cohesion during adolescence vary among families characterized as having different cultural traditions regarding parental authority and individual autonomy. Approximately 1000 American adolescents from immigrant and native-born families with Mexican, Chinese, and European backgrounds reported on their beliefs, expectations, and relationship with parents. Results showed that despite holding different beliefs about parental authority and individual autonomy, adolescents from all generations reported similar levels of conflicts and cohesion with their parents.

Skinner T. et al. (2011) conducted a longitudinal study on 52 adolescents with Type 1 diabetes to examine whether peer support and illness representation mediate the link between family support, self-management and wellbeing. They were recruited and followed over six months completing assessments of self-management, well-being and social support. Results showed that although support from family and friends was pretty predictive of better dietary self-care, this relationship was mediated by personal model beliefs.

Shogren T. and Lopez Z. (2006) conducted a study to explore the association between hope, optimism, locus of control, and self-determination and life satisfaction in adolescents with and without cognitive disabilities using structural equation modeling. The result demonstrated strong correlation among hope, optimism, and self-determination.

Stice E. et al. (2000) examined data from four-year school based longitudinal study (n=1,124) to test whether the increase in major depression that occurs among girls during adolescents maybe partially explained by the body image and eating disturbances that emerge after puberty. Results were consistent with the assertion that the body –image-and eating-related- risk factors that emerge after puberty might contribute to the elevated rates of depression for adolescent girls.

Dobbins M and DeCorby K (2006) conducted a study to summarize the evidence of the effectiveness of school-based interventions in promoting physical activity and fitness in children and adolescents. There is good evidence that school based physical activity interventions have a positive impact on four of the nine outcome measures. Specifically, positive effects were observed for duration of physical activity, television viewing and blood cholesterol.

Ambivalent Sexism

Hostile and Benevolent Sexism

Sexism has typically been conceptualized as a reflection of hostility toward women. This view neglects a significant aspect of sexism: the subjectively positive feelings toward women that often go hand in hand with sexist antipathy. We view sexism as a multidimensional construct that encompasses two sets of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism needs little explanation; by it we mean those aspects of sexism that fit Allport's (1954) classic definition of prejudice. We define benevolent sexism as a set of interrelated attitudes toward women that are sexist in terms of viewing women stereotypically and in restricted roles but that are subjectively positive in feeling tone (for the perceiver) and also tend to elicit behaviors typically categorized as prosocial (e.g.,

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helping) or intimacy-seeking (e.g., self-disclosure). We do not consider benevolent sexism a good thing, for despite the positive feelings it may indicate for the perceiver, its underpinnings lie in traditional stereotyping and masculine dominance (e.g., the man as the provider and woman as his dependent), and its consequences are often damaging.

Sources of Hostile and Benevolent Sexism

We propose that hostile and benevolent sexism have their roots in biological and social conditions that are common to human groups. Although "anthropologists do not totally agree on whether male dominance characterizes all human cultures" (Stockard & Johnson, 1992, p. 89), they do agree that patriarchy (men possessing structural control of economic, legal, and political institutions) is prevalent across cultures.

Cross-cultural and historical evidence gathered by Guttentag and Secord (1983) shows that, within patriarchal societies, women's dyadic power is reflected in a particular form of social ideology: protective attitudes toward women, a reverence for the role of women as wives and mothers, and an idealization of women as romantic love objects. These are precisely the attitudes we define as characterizing benevolent sexism.

The above analysis suggests that both hostile and benevolent sexism revolve around issues of social power, gender identity, and sexuality. We propose that HS and BS are composed of three shared components: Paternalism, Gender Differentiation, and Heterosexuality.

Paternalism

In common discourse, paternalism and sexism are often used synonymously, yet the former term, surprisingly, is not indexed in PsycLit, despite many references to the latter. Paternalism literally means relating "to others in the manner of a father dealing with his children". This definition meshes well with the view that sexism is a form of ambivalence, for it includes connotations of domination (dominative paternalism) as well as affection and protection (protective paternalism). Advocates of dominative paternalism justify patriarchy by viewing women as not being fully competent adults, legitimizing the need for a superordinate male figure. Yet protective paternalism may coexist with its dominative counterpart because men are dyadic ally dependent on women (because of heterosexual reproduction) as wives, mothers, and romantic objects; thus, women are to be loved, cherished, and protected (their "weaknesses" require that men fulfill the protector-and-provider role). Research on power in heterosexual romantic relationships confirms that dominative paternalism is the norm. In its most extreme form, the traditional marriage, both partners agree that the husband should wield greater authority, to which the wife should defer. Protective paternalism is evident in the traditional male gender role of provider and protector of the home, with the wife dependent on the husband to maintain her economic and social status.

Gender Differentiation

All cultures use physical differences between the sexes as a basis for making social distinctions, which are manifested as notions about gender identity (Harris, 1991; Stockard & Johnson, 1992). Developmentally, gender is one of the earliest and strongest forms of group identity to be internalized (Maccoby, 1988), and people are more likely to categorize others on the basis of gender than on the basis of race, age, or role (A. P. Fiske, Haslam, & Fiske, 1991; Stangor, Lynch, Duan, & Glass, 1992). Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1981) suggests that the tendency to differentiate between groups will be strong when social status

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is bound up with group membership, helping to create social ideologist hat justify the status differences. Like dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation presents a social justification for male structural only men are perceived as having the traits necessary to govern important social institutions. This creates downward comparisons, in which women serve, in Virginia Woolf's (1929 / 1981) words, as "looking-glasses possessing the magic and delicious power of reflecting the figure of a man at twice natural size", allowing individual men to enhance their self-esteem by association with a male social identity (Tajfel, 1981)

Alongside the competitive drive to differentiate, however, the dyadic dependency of men on women (as romantic objects, as wives and mothers) fosters notions that women have many positive traits (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Mladinic, 1993; Poplau, 1983) that complement those of men (complementary gender differentiation). Just as the traditional division of labor between the sexes creates complementary roles (men working outside the home, women within), the traits associated with these roles (and hence with each sex) are viewed as complementary. The favorable traits ascribed to women compensate for what men stereotypically lack (e.g., sensitivity to others' feelings). Hence a man may speak of his "better half "; for the benevolent sexist, the woman completes the man.

Heterosexuality

Virginia Woolf (1929/1981) hazarded her own answer about the reasons for polarized images of women in literature: "the astonishing extremes of her beauty and horror; her alternations between heavenly goodness and hellish depravity" are as "a lover would see her as his love rose or sank, was prosperous or unhappy". Heterosexuality is, undoubtedly, one of the most powerful sources of men's ambivalence toward women. Heterosexual romantic relationships are ranked by men (and women) as one of the top sources of happiness in life (see Berscheid & Peplau, 1983; Brehm, 1992), and these relationships are typically nominated as the most psychologically close and intimate relationships men have (Berscheid et al., 1989).

Men's sexual motivation toward women may be linked with a genuine desire for psychological closeness (heterosexual intimacy). Although, at their best, heterosexual relationships are the source of euphoric and intimate feelings (Hatfield, 1988), romantic relationships between men and women also pose the greatest threat of violence toward women (Unger & Crawford, 1992). Men's dyadic dependency on women creates an unusual situation in which members of a more powerful group are dependent on members of a subordinate group. Sex is popularly viewed as a resource for which women act as the gatekeepers (ZiUmann & Weave~ 1989). The belief that women use their sexual allure to gain dominance over men is a belief that is associated with hostility toward women (Check, Malamuth, Elias, & Barton, 1985). As Bargh and Raymond (1995) and Pryor, Giedd, and Williams (1995) demonstrated, for some men sexual attraction toward women may be inseparable from a desire to dominate them (heterosexual hostility).

Nature of Sexist Ambivalence

Glick suggested that sexist ambivalence stems from simultaneously holding two sets of related sexist beliefs: hostile and benevolent sexism. He labeled this ambivalent sexism because he believed that these two constructs subjectively entail opposite evaluative feeling tones toward women (a claim for which we offer supportive data in the studies that follow). However, the present conception of ambivalence proposes that hostile and benevolent

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sexism may be positively correlated, whereas other ambivalence theorists have assumed (and have found) that beliefs associated with ambivalence are typically conflicting (and therefore negatively correlated) or, at best, are unrelated (Cacioppo & Bernston, 1994; Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995). Glick characterized them as ambivalent because, even if the beliefs about women that generate hostile and benevolent sexism are positively related, they have opposing evaluative implications, fulfilling the literal meaning of ambivalence.

Another reason why sexist individuals may, in our terms, be ambivalent toward women without experiencing any sense of confusion, conflict, or tension about these attitudes is that sexist ambivalence may generally take the form of dividing women into favored in-groups--- consisting of women (e.g., homemakers) who embrace traditional roles that fulfill the paternalistic, gender identified, and sexual motives of traditional men--versus disliked out-groups--consisting of women (e.g., feminists) who challenge or threaten these needs and desires. Many researchers (e.g., Deaux, Winton, Crowley, & Lewis, 1985; Taylor, 1981) have argued that women are typically classified in terms of such subtypes.

Review of Literature

Christopher et al. (2006) assessed the relationship between different facets of ambivalent sexism and conservative ideology among 246 residents of two towns in Southern Michigan using Social Dominance Orientation scale (SDO), a Protestant Work Ethic Scale (PWE) and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). Zero order correlations revealed that SDO, RWA and PWE were each related to both components of ambivalent sexism.

Lila S. and Gracia G. (2013) aimed to examine ambivalent and empathy as determinants of male police officers law enforcement attitudes towards partner violence against women. The study sample was composed 404 male police officers scoring low in benevolent sexism expressed a general preference for unconditional law enforcement whereas those scoring high in benevolent sexism expressed a preference for conditional law enforcement. Results also showed that those who scored low in hostile sexism expressed a general preference for unconditional law enforcement.

Ozdemir F. et al. (2016) conducted a study to predict ambivalent sexism with religious orientation types such as intrinsic religiosity, extrinsic religiosity and quest religiosity. 583 university students who study in different universities of Turkey completed Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and Religious Orientation Scale. Findings indicated significant gender differences on study variables and significant associations between ambivalent sexism and religious orientation types within university students sample in Turkey.

Pereira R. et al. (2005) aimed at knowing the extent to which the human values and ambivalent sexism correlated with each other. A sample of 301 individuals deriving from different social classes of Joao Pessoa, ages ranging from 18-72 years old. They answered the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and the Basic Values questionnaire and a set of demographic questions. Results corroborate the idea that conservative thoughts, beliefs and behavior tend to promote ambivalent sexism.

Dubiety E. et al. (2011) studied ambivalent sexism attitudes, values and social dominance orientation in a sample of 238 males and females from the National Military School training to become officails. Results show the presence of sexist attitudes.

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Meghan S. and Busso J. (2005) conducted a correlational study that explores the hypothesis that religiosity and scriptural literalism (the degree to which one interprets scriptures literally) are associated with sexism. Participants were female and male (N = 504) university students who anonymously completed the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997, 2001a, 2001b), the Scriptural Literalism Scale (Hogged & Friedman, 1967), and the Religious Orientation Scale-Revised (Gorsuch & McPherson, 1989). Results showed that intrinsic religiosity, extrinsic religiosity, and scriptural literalism were positively associated with benevolent, but not hostile, sexism.

Davies M. and Gilston J. (2012) studied the relationship between male rape myth acceptance, female rape myth acceptance, attitudes toward gay men, a series of gender role and ambivalent sexism measures, victim blame and assault severity were investigated. Respondents comprised 323 undergraduates (146 males and 177 females) from a large University in the Northwest of England. Results broadly conformed to predictions, with men generally more negative than women, and male rape myth acceptance significantly related to female rape myth acceptance, ambivalent sexist attitudes about gay men, gender role attitudes, and victim blame.

Taşdemir N. et al. (2009) conducted a study that explored the relationships among hostile sexism (HS), benevolent sexism (BS), and religiosity for men and women in Turkey, where Islam is the predominant religion. 73 male and 93 female university students completed measures of ambivalent sexism and religiosity. Replicating previous work with Christians, religiosity was a significant correlate of BS when HS was controlled, for both men and women. As predicted, and in contrast to previous research with Christians, results show partial correlations indicated that Muslim religiosity was a significant correlate of HS for men, when BS was controlled, but not for women. Women but not men showed a significant difference between religiosity's partial correlations with HS and BS.

Chen Z. and Fiske S. (2009) conducted a study to find the relation between Ambivalent Sexism and Power-Related Gender-role Ideology in Marriage with Glick-Fiske's (1996) Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) and a new Gender-Role Ideology in Marriage (GRIM) consisting of 552 Chinese and 252 US undergraduates. Results indicated that Chinese and men most endorsed hostile sexism; Chinese women more than U.S. women accepted benevolent sexism.

Sport Emotion

Definition

In psychology, emotion is often defined as a complex state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes that influence thought and behavior. Emotionality is associated with a range of psychological phenomena, including temperament, personality, mood, and motivation. According to author David G. Meyers, human emotion involves "...physiological arousal, expressive behaviors, and experience."

Theories of Emotion

The major theories of motivation can be grouped into three main categories: physiological, neurological, and cognitive. Physiological theories suggest that responses within the body are responsible for emotions. Neurological theories propose that activity within the brain leads to emotional responses. Finally, cognitive theories argue that thoughts and other mental activity play an essential role in forming emotions.

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- 1. Evolutionary Theory of Emotion:** It was naturalist Charles Darwin who proposed that our emotions exist because they serve an adaptive role. Emotions motivate people to respond quickly to stimuli in the environment, which helps improve the chances of success and survival. Understanding the emotions of other people and animals also plays a crucial role in safety and survival.
- 2. The James-Lange Theory of Emotion:** The James-Lange theory is one of the best-known examples of a physiological theory of emotion. Independently proposed by psychologist William James and physiologist Carl Lange, the James-Lange theory of emotion suggests that an external stimulus leads to a physiological reaction. Your emotional reaction is dependent upon how you interpret those physical reactions. According to this theory of emotion, you are not trembling because you are frightened. Instead, you feel frightened because you are trembling.
- 3. The Cannon-Bard Theory of Emotion:** Another well-known physiological theory is the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion. First, he suggested, people can experience physiological reactions linked to emotions without actually feeling those emotions. Cannon also suggested that emotional responses occur much too quickly for them to be simply products of physical states. Cannon and Bard's theory suggests that the physical and psychological experience of emotion happen at the same time and that one does not cause the other.
- 4. Schachter-Singer Theory:** Also known as the two-factor theory of emotion, the Schachter-Singer Theory is an example of a cognitive theory of emotion. This theory suggests that the physiological arousal occurs first, and then the individual must identify the reason for this arousal to experience and label it as an emotion. A stimulus leads to a physiological response that is then cognitively interpreted and labeled which results in an emotion.
- 5. Cognitive Appraisal Theory:** According to appraisal theories of emotion, thinking must occur first before experiencing emotion. Richard Lazarus was a pioneer in this area of emotion, and this theory is often referred to as the Lazarus theory of emotion. According to this theory, the sequence of events first involves a stimulus, followed by thought which then leads to the simultaneous experience of a physiological response and the emotion.
- 6. Facial-Feedback Theory of Emotion:** The facial-feedback theory of emotions suggests that facial expressions are connected to experiencing emotions. Charles Darwin and William James both noted early on that sometimes-physiological responses often had a direct impact on emotion, rather than simply being a consequence of the emotion. Supporters of this theory suggest that emotions are directly tied to changes in facial muscles.

Basic Sport Emotions

The emotions are anger, anxiety, dejection, excitement, and happiness. Unpleasant Emotions are Anger, Anxiety and Dejection and Pleasant Emotions are Happiness and Excitement.

(I) Anger

Anger is considered to be an emotion comprising high arousal (Kaufman, 1970) that results from an event perceived to be a "demeaning offence against me and mine"). Anger can be expressed toward another person when accompanied by thoughts or intentions to harm another person (Kaufman, 1970), and it has been associated with aggressive sport behavior (Isberg, 2000). Anger can be channeled internally to self-blame, and in such conditions tends to be associated with feelings of depression (Spielberger, 1991) and poor performance (Lane

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& Terry, 2000). By contrast, anger can be channeled externally toward the source of the frustration, and under such conditions can be associated with good performance (Beedie et al., 2000; Lane & Terry, 2000). The prevalence of anger in sport has been outlined in research by Hanin and colleagues (e.g., Hanin & Syrjä, 1995), while the relevance of anger to sport involvement is exemplified by Brunelle, Janelle, and Tennant (1999), who suggested:

Anger appears to be an intrinsic product of an environment that locks opposing forces together in athletic competition. Not only has it been accepted as an inherent part of sport, but anger is often encouraged and elicited to improve athletic performance. Given that anger is an emotion experienced by athletes in competition, and could impact performance, any scale designed to assess emotion in sport should assess anger.

(2) Anxiety

Anxiety is an emotion that has generated a great deal of research interest in sport psychology. Raglin and Hanin proposed, “Of all the psychological factors thought to influence sport performance, anxiety is often considered the most important.” In general, anxiety is considered to reflect uncertainty regarding goal attainment and coping (Lazarus, 2000) and is typified by feelings of apprehension and tension along with activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, 1966). Similar to anger, anxiety has been found to be associated with good performance in some studies and poor performance in others (Jones, 1995).

The vast amount of research on anxiety and related concepts, such as tension, in sport would suggest that anxiety should be a key construct represented in a sport-specific measure of emotion.

(3) Dejection

Another prominent affective state proposed to influence sport performance is depressed mood (Lane & Terry, 2000). Although research findings indicate that few participants report feelings of depressed mood before competition (Hanin, 2000; Terry & Lane, 2000), it has been proposed that when depressed mood does occur it has a substantial influence on performance (Lane & Terry, 2000). Also, research has found that poor performance is associated with depressed mood (e.g., Hassmén & Blomstrand, 1995). Accordingly, a third emotion in the 5factor model was termed dejection. The term dejection was used in contrast to depressed mood because the term depression is fraught with clinical connections. It is proposed to be a low intensity negative emotion characterized by feelings of deficiency and sadness. Drawing on Carver and Scheier’s (1990) control process view of affect, Frijda (1994) proposed that dejection is an emotion that results from an individual’s perception of the relationship between actual progress and expectations regarding rate of progress. It is likely to arise if one does not believe he or she is making sufficient progress to achieve a meaningful goal, or following actual or perceived failure to achieve a meaningful goal.

(4) Happiness

Taking part in sport is a positive experience for many people, yet research has focused predominantly on sport participants’ experiences of negative emotions (Jackson, 2000). Positive emotions associated with sport include happiness and joy (Jackson, 2000; Lazarus, 2000). Both Jackson and Lazarus see happiness and joy as interchangeable terms indicating that a person has appraised him/herself as making progress toward a goal (Lazarus, 2000). Joy refers to a higher intensity feeling (similar to ecstasy) while happiness refers to a lower

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intensity feeling (similar to contentment). Therefore, the fourth component of the 5-factor model was termed happiness. Although the term happiness was used for the subscale, it is acknowledged that a high score may indicate the individual is experiencing something more akin to joy or ecstasy.

(5) Excitement

Although there has been little research on excitement in sport, athletes report experiencing excitement in relation to performance and often perceive it to be facilitative of performance (Robazza, Bortoli, & Nougier, 2002). Burton and Naylor (1997) identified the need to accurately distinguish between anxiety and high intensity positive emotions such as excitement. Accordingly, excitement was chosen to reflect the high intensity positive feelings reported by individuals. Excitement is typically considered to be a positive emotion that is associated with arousal and activation of the autonomic nervous system (Kerr, 1997), and is often cited as being “facilitative anxiety” (Burton & Naylor, 1997; Jones, 1995). It is proposed to occur when a person has a positive expectation of his or her ability to cope and reach goals when placed in a challenging situation (Jones, 1995).

Review of Literature

Larson R. and Richards K. (2014) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between achievement goals and discrete emotions in sport and whether emotions vary with gender and type of sport. Males (n=179) and females (n=184) athletes were asked to participate in the study whose age ranged from 18 to 23 years. Participants filled in two instruments, namely Task and Ego Orientation in Sports Questionnaire (TEOSQ) and Sport Emotion Questionnaire (SEQ). The results of this study established the conclusion that achievement goals are associated with discrete emotions and that the shape of emotions is affected by gender and type of sport.

Proios M. (2013) conducted a study to provide new knowledge on the relation between emotions and morality by investigating the relation between discrete emotions and moral content judgment in sports. The participants were 363 athletes (179 male, 184 female) who were involved in competitive sport at the time of data collection. Their age ranged from 18 to 23 years (M = 20.01, SD = 1.38). All participants were undergraduate sport-science students at a Greek university and were involved in several sports. The subjects filled in two questionnaires: Moral Content Judgment in Sport Questionnaire and Sport Emotion Questionnaire. The results supported a rather vague relationship between discrete emotions and moral content judgment.

Hanin et al. (2000) investigated anger and anger related symptoms and sport emotions upon karate performance among high level karate athletes (N=20) aged 17–33-year-olds. They completed state anger subscale of State Trait Anger Expression Inventory -2 and Sport Emotion Questionnaire (SEQ). Results showed that performance related anger and other clusters of pleasant and unpleasant emotions is warranted.

Uphill M. and Ryan G. (2010) conducted a study to examine the influence of emotions on performance in basketball. 6 female basketball players filled sport emotion questionnaire and their frequency of performance behaviors were recorded minute by minute. Results showed that the only emotions revealed as a significant predictor of a successful game involvement was happiness; both anger and embarrassment were significant predictors of

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increased uninvolved game involvement. The study provides evidence that emotions are associated with changes in game behavior in competitions.

Nichollas A. and Lery R. (2012) examined athletes stress appraisal, emotions, coping and performance rating scales using a coping questionnaire, Sport Emotion Questionnaire (SEQ) and a subjective performance measure. Participants were 557 athletes aged between 18 and 64 years (Mage=22.28 years, SD=5.72). Results revealed that appraisals of uncontrollable – by-self, stressfulness and centrality were truly associated with the relational meaning threat appraisals. These appraisals were associated with unpleasant emotions prior with competition.

Biscaia R. et al. (2012) conducted a study to examine the relationship between spectators' emotions, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions at football games. A survey was conducted among spectators of the top Portuguese professional football league during eight games (n=466). The sport emotion questionnaire was used to assess spectators' emotions and the results gathered from a structural equation model suggest that analysis of specific emotions is crucial to understand spectators' responses. Findings provide evidence that only the emotion of joy has a positive direct effect on satisfaction, as well as an indirect effect on behavioural intentions, via satisfaction. In turn, dejection has a negative direct effect on behavioural intentions, while satisfaction positively influences behavioural intentions.

Louise R. et al. (2010) conducted a study to explore the attention patterns associated with positive and negative emotions during sport competition, and athletes' perceptions of the consequences of these attention changes for concentration and performance. Sixty-nine athletes from US aged 18-22 completed the Sport Emotion Questionnaire following a national softball competition. They also retrospectively reported their perceptions of how emotions influenced their attention, concentration, and sport performance. Excitement and happiness were more closely associated with concentration than anxiety, dejection, and anger. Although excitement demanded more attention than the negative emotions, the positive emotions were perceived as more likely to lead to a performance-relevant focus and automatic physical movements, both of which were beneficial for concentration and performance.

Turner M. et al. (2012) studied the association between Cardio Vascular reactivity and competitive performance was examined in cognitive (Study 1) and motor (Study 2) tasks. In Study 1, 25 participants (9 female) completed a modified Stroop Test and Sport Emotion Questionnaire, and in Study 2, 21 female netballers completed a netball shooting task and SEQ, under competition. Measures of CV reactivity, self-report measures of self-efficacy, control, achievement-goals and sport emotions along with baseline and competitive task performance were taken. Results showed relation with sport emotion and cardiovascular activity.

Meijen C. et al. (2012) explored cognitive and affective components of challenge and threat states using SEQ and Theory of Challenge and Threat States in Athletes (TCTSA). One hundred and seventy-seven collegiate athletes indicated how they typically approached an important competition on measures of self-efficacy, perceived control, achievement goals, emotional states and interpretation of emotional states. The results suggest that a perception of challenge was not predicted by any of the cognitive components. A perception of threat was positively predicted by avoidance goals and negatively predicted by self-efficacy and

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approach goals. Both challenge and threat had a positive relationship with anxiety and dejection.

Kavussanu, M., & Ring, C. (2013) investigated the effects of achievement goals on (a) emotions experienced before and after a competitive agility task and (b) perceived and actual agility performance. Male (n = 60) and female (n = 60) undergraduate students were assigned to a task, ego, or control group and following a practice session, they competed in a speed agility quickness ladder drill. Participants completed questionnaires measuring excitement and anxiety at pre practice and pre competition, happiness and dejection at post practice and post competition (SEQ), and perceived performance for practice and competition. Actual performance was also measured. Results reported greater pre competition excitement than the task and control groups and higher pre competition anxiety than the task group. The task and ego groups also reported higher post competition perceived performance than the control group.

METHODOLOGY

Research Question

Is there a significant difference between Ambivalent Sexism and Sport Emotion among NRI and Non- NRI adolescents?

Objectives

1. To understand the difference in ambivalent sexism among NRI and non-NRI adolescents.
2. To understand the difference in sport emotion among NRI and non-NRI adolescents.

Hypothesis

The following hypothesis is laid:

1. There is significant difference in benevolent sexism among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
2. There is significant difference in hostile sexism among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
3. There is significant difference in anxiety among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
4. There is significant difference in dejection among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
5. There is significant difference in excitement among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
6. There is significant difference in anger among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
7. There is significant difference in happiness among NRIs and Non-NRIs.
8. There is significant relation among ambivalent sexism and sport emotion among NRIs and Non-NRIs.

Research Design

A descriptive study research design was employed to conduct the study.

Sample

A total of 120 samples were collected for the study. They consisted of 60 males and 60 females each belonging to the age group 16 to 20. The subjects are undergraduate students from three different colleges in Kerala- Kristu Jyoti College of Management and Technology, Chethipuzha, St. Joseph College of Engineering and Technology, Palai and Mar Augustinos College, Ramapuram.

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Table 3.1. Distribution of the Sample

GROUP	NRI	NON-NRI	PERCENTAGE
MALES	30	30	50%
FEMALES	30	30	50%
TOTAL	60	60	

Variables And Operational Definitions

The study consists of an independent and a dependent variable. Independent variable is the group under study –NRI adolescents. An Indian adolescent studied or presently studying abroad is referred to as an NRI.

Ambivalent sexism and sport emotion are the dependent variables. Ambivalent sexism is an ideology composed of both a „hostile“ and „benevolent“ prejudice toward women. Hostile sexism is an antagonistic attitude toward women who are often viewed as trying to control men through feminist ideology or sexual seduction. Benevolent sexism is a chivalrous attitude toward women that feels favorable but is actually sexist because it casts women as weak creatures in need of men’s protection.

One definition of emotion previously applied to sport by Vallerand and colleagues (1983,2000) was first formulated by Deci (1980), who defined emotion as following:

“...a reaction to a stimulus event (either actual or imagined).It involves a change in the viscera and musculature of the person is experienced subjectively in characteristic ways is expressed through such means as facial changes and action tendencies, and may mediate and energize subsequent behaviors.

Assessment Tools

The present study is conducted to assess ambivalent sexism and sport emotion among NRI and Non-Writhe tools used to measure the following are as follows:

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

The ASI was initially developed by Glick and Fiske in 1996 to measure the ambivalence of men towards women. The scale consisted of 22 items grouped into a single factor of benevolent sexism which was further divided into the three sub factors of protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation and heterosexual intimacy. The study is standardized among individuals of age group 18-77.

Scoring

The ASI may be used as an overall measure of sexism with hostile and benevolent components equally weighted by simply averaging the score for all items after removing the items listed below.

Reverse the following items(0=5 , 1=4 , 2=3 , 3=2, 4=1, 5=0) : 3,6,7,13,18,21
Hostile sexism score=average of the following items:2,4,5,7,10,11,14,15,16,18,21

Benevolent sexism score=average of the following items: 1,3,6,8,9,12,13,17,19,20,22

Reliability

The reliability of the score was estimated by means of a coefficient of equivalence (Cranach’s alpha), and the estimates were 0.86(HS) and 0.83(BS) and 0.88 for the total

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scales show appropriate for research purposes and for assessment at the group level. And the total scores could even be used for individual or clinical assessment.

Validity

Investigators reported here provide strong support for the theory of ambivalent sexism and for the convergent, discriminant, and the predictive validity of the ASI. Across Across 5 studies (involving men and women, undergraduates and non-student samples), factor analysis repeatedly confirm the existence of benevolent and hostile sexism, both of which are reliably measured by the two ASI sub scales. Although the ASI was initially developed with student samples, it showed its strongest predictive validity among men in the two nonstudent samples 18-78.

Sport Emotion Questionnaire (SEQ)

The sport emotion Questionnaire (SEQ) was developed and initially validated by Jones M.V. et al in 2005 to assess sport performer's pre-competitive emotions. The study was standardized in the age group 18-78.

Reliability

All five subscales on the SEQ demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (anxiety $\alpha=0.85$, dejection $\alpha=0.87$, anger $\alpha=0.87$, excitement $\alpha=0.77$ and happiness $\alpha=0.85$). It is also worth noting that the anxiety factor significantly correlated with the dejection (0.47), anger (0.36), excitement (0.24) and happiness (0.16) factors. In addition, there was a statically significant correlation between the anger and dejection (.73) and excitement and happiness factor (.72).

Validity

Confirmatory factor analysis indicated 22 and 5-factor structure provided acceptable model fit. Results supported the criterion validity of the SEQ. The SEQ is proposed as a valid measure of pre-competitive emotion for use in sport settings.

Scoring

Anxiety= Average of uneasy, tense, nervous, apprehensive, anxious (total score/5)

Dejection=Average of upset, sad, unhappy, disappointed, dejected (total score/5)

Excitement=Average of exhilarated, excited, enthusiastic, energetic (total score/4)

Anger=Average of irritated, furious, annoyed, angry (total score/4)

Happiness= Average of pleased, joyful, cheerful, happy (total score/4)

Data Collection Procedure

The data was collected from three different colleges in Kerala-St. Joseph College Of Engineering And Technology, Pala (nmale=20, nfemales=20), Mar Augustinos College, Rampuram (nmale=20, nfemale=20), Kristujyoti College Of Management College And Technology, Chethipuzha (nmale=20, nfemale=20). It was made sure that there was 10 NRIs and 10 Non-NRIs each from an institution. Thus, making a total of 120 participants with 60 NRIs and 60 Non-NRIs.

The subjects were personally met in their respective institutions a good rapport was established with the students. They were given a brief description about the research. The participants were ensured about the confidentiality of their data. Participants were given clear instructions on how to answer the respective questionnaires. Their doubts were also clarified before handing over the ASI and SEQ. This is an untimed test, however they were

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asked to report the first answer that comes to their mind and not take much time thinking about it. The subjects cooperated with the procedure wholeheartedly and respective data was collected from each institution...

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis of the data was conducted using SPSS package. Statistical methods include descriptive and inferential methods.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to describe basic features of data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Such summaries may be either quantitative, i.e., summary statistics or visual, i.e., simple-to-understand graphs. These summaries may either form the basis of the initial description of the data as part of a more extensive statistical analysis, or they may be sufficient in and of themselves for a particular investigation. This generally means that descriptive statistics, unlike inferential statistics, is not developed on the basis of probability theory, and are frequently nonparametric statistics. For example, mean standard deviation.

The statistical mean refers to the mean or average that is used to derive the central tendency of the data in question. To find the mean, add up the values in the data set and then divide by the number of values that you added.

It is represented by:

$$\mu = (\sum X_i) / N$$

Standard deviation is the square root of the mean of the squares of the deviations of all values of a series from their arithmetic mean. and is represented by:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{[\sum (X_i - \mu)^2 / N]}$$

Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make judgments of the probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one or the one that might have happened by chance in the study. Inferential statistics are valuable when examination of each member of an entire population is not convenient or possible. For example, t-test, Pearson correlation. t-test is applied when test statistic follows t-distribution. t- test is used as a hypothesis testing tool, which allows testing of an assumption applicable to a population.

Pearson correlation is a method commonly used in linear equations. It was developed by Karl Pearson.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study is conducted to find the relationship between ambivalent sexism and sport emotion among NRI and Non-NRI adolescents. The sample size consists of 120 adolescents (NRImales-30,Non-NRImales-30,NRIfemales-30,Non-NRIfemales-30).The data were collected from three different colleges in Kerala- Kristu Jyoti College Of Management And Technology, Chethipuzha, St. Joseph College Of Engineering And Technology, Palai and Mar Augustinos College, Ramapuram.The assessment tools used to measure the

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variables are Ambivalent Sexism Inventory(ASI)and Sport Emotion Questionnaire(SEQ) for assessing ambivalent sexism and sport emotion respectively. The data was collected by means of questionnaires.

Analysis of Ambivalent Sexism between NRI and Non-NRI Adolescents

Table 2: Mean, Standard Deviation, t-value, p-value of ambivalent sexism among NRI and Non-NRI adolescents.

VARIABLE	GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	t-value	p-value
Benevolent Sexism	NRI	60	2.70	0.64	2.48	0.016*
	Non-NRI	60	3.19	0.90		
Hostile Sexism	NRI	60	2.78	0.81	0.55	0.58
	Non-NRI	60	2.64	1.02		
Total	NRI	60	5.47	0.83	1.34	0.183
	Non-NRI	60	5.81	1.11		

* indicates significant at 0.05 level

Table 2. Shows the mean value, standard deviation, t-value, p-value of ambivalent sexism among NRI and Non-NRI adolescents. The mean value of benevolent sexism among NRI and Non-NRI is 2.70(0.64) and 3.19(0.90) respectively. t-test was used to find the significance and the t-value obtained is 2.48 and its corresponding p-value obtained is 0.016 which shows that t- value is significant at 0.05 level of significance. In India, such sexist attitudes are not encouraged by the laws. However, traditional Indians still hold on to age old beliefs and pass on to their progeny. Although overt expression is reduced drastically, such attitudes are still latent in Indians.

The mean value of hostile sexism among NRI and Non-NRI is 2.78(0.81) and 2.64(1.02) respectively.t-test was used to find the significance and the t-value obtained is 0.55 and the corresponding p-value obtained is 0.58. This shows that it is not significant. Comparing the mean values among NRI and Non-NRI, NRI adolescents score more in hostile sexism. In Middle Eastern countries there is more of clear cut discrimination or stereotypes on the basis of a gender especially in countries like Saudi Arabia and Iraq. As a result of exposure to such a prejudice since childhood, one may develop explicit attitudes of sexism. This was clearly depicted in the results.

The mean value of ambivalent sexism among NRI and non NRI is 5.47 (0.83) and 5.81(1.11) respectively. t-test was used to find the significance and the t-value obtained is 1.34 and the corresponding p-value obtained is 0. 183.This shows that it is not significant. Comparing the mean values among NRI and non NRI, non NRI scores more in ambivalent sexism. Indians also have historical roots in sexism. In the early 19th century women were not given much of an opportunity to excel or even participate in those professions or activities as that of men. Although times have changed and technology has progressed there are still implicit stereotypes about women still common and evident in the country it may not be explicit as there is equal rights for both sexes, there are still age-old beliefs imparted in home and society. Native Indians score more in ambivalent sexism.

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and Non NRIs**

Analysis of Sport Emotion Between NRI and Non-NRI Adolescents

Table 3 Mean, Standard Deviation, t-value, p-value of sport emotion among NRI and Non- NRI adolescents.

VARIABLE	GROUP	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	t-value	p-value
ANXIETY	NRI	60	1.67	0.87	1.3	0.19
	Non-NRI	60	1.94	0.80		
DEJECTION	NRI	60	0.73	0.75	0.25	0.80
	Non-NRI	60	0.78	0.79		
EXCITEMENT	NRI	60	2.53	0.77	2.06	0.043*
	Non-NRI	60	2.09	0.85		
ANGER	NRI	60	0.64	0.81	0.58	0.56
	Non-NRI	60	0.77	0.74		
HAPPINESS	NRI	60	2.45	0.81	2.24	0.02*
	Non-NRI	60	1.98	0.84		
TOTAL	NRI	60	8.03	1.52	1.25	0.21
	Non-NRI	60	7.57	1.36		

* denotes significant at 0.05 level

Table 3 shows the mean value, standard deviation, t –value and p- value of sports emotion among NRI and non NRI adolescents. The mean value of anxiety among NRI and non NRI adolescence is 1.67 (0.87) and 1.94 (0.80) respectively .t- test was used to find the significance and the t-value obtained is 1.3 and the corresponding p-value obtained is 0.19. This shows that it is not significant. This may be due to the fact that non-NRI students have limited access to resources and more uncomfortable lifestyle when compared to NRI students. Most of the Indian students are exposed to stressful circumstances at an early age due to burdening of responsibilities. It is a traditional approach prevailing in Indian culture so that they become self- reliant in future. However, it can often result in increased anxiety in Indian adolescents when compared with NRI adolescents who leads a rather comfortable life due to advancement in technology.

The mean value of dejection among NRI and non-NRI is 0.73(0.75) and 0.78(0.79) respectively. t-test was used to test the significance among the variables and the t-value obtained is 0.25 and the corresponding p-value is 0.80. It is not significant thus, comparing the mean values among NRI and non-NRIS, non-NRIS are more prone to dejection. This may be due to the fact that NRIs are often trained in a highly competitive atmosphere than the non-NRIs. Thus, the NRIs are well exposed to their share of success and failures and hence be less sensitive to dejection, this is not the case with non NRIs thus they scored more on dejection.

The mean value of excitement among NRIs and non-NRIs are 2.53(0.77) and 2.09 (0.85) respectively.t- test was used to find the significance among the variables and the t value obtained is 2.06 and the corresponding p-value is 0.043 which shows that the t value is significant at 0.05 level of significance. This may be due to the fact that sports are much more competitive and encouraged in the Middle Eastern countries. Thus, there is greater scope for excitement in the other countries than India. In India, the tradition of emphasizing academics is practiced in schools.

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The mean value of anger among NRI and non-NRI is 0.64(0.81) and 0.77(0.74) respectively. t-test was used to find the significance among the variables and the t-value obtained is 0.58 and corresponding p-value is 0.56 which shows it is not significant. Comparing the mean values among NRIs and non-NRIs, non-NRIs score more in anger. This may be due to the fact that NRIs are more exposed to a closed environment. Thus, channeling of negative emotions are not encouraged in Middle Eastern countries however there are no such restrictions in one's native land thus non NRIs can freely express their emotions be it anger or aggression.

The mean value of happiness among NRIs and non NRIs are 2.45(0.81) and 1.98 (0.84) respectively. t-test was used to find the significance and the t-value obtained is 2.24 and the corresponding p-value is 0.02 which means the t-value is significant at 0.05. This can be attributed to the comfortable lifestyle and technological advancements. While we compare the children in India and Saudi Arabia, the stress is much lesser in Middle Eastern countries, as parents make sure that the children are comfortable and lack nothing. In India, children are independent and self-reliant and this may compromise with their happiness.

The mean value of sport emotion among NRIs and non NRIs are 8.03(1.52) and 7.57(1.36) respectively. t-test was used to find the significance and the t-value obtained is 1.25 and the corresponding p-value is 0.21. Thus, it is not significant. Comparing the mean values among NRIs and non-NRIs, NRIs score more in sport emotion. This may be due to the highly competitive environment offered in the Middle Eastern countries. Thus, this may be the reason for higher sport emotion in NRIs.

CONCLUSION

Tenability Of Hypothesis

Hypothesis one states that there is a significant difference in benevolent sexism among NRIs and non-NRIs. t-test was conducted and the results show that there is a significant difference among NRIs and non-NRIs. Therefore, we accept the hypothesis.

1. Hypothesis two states that there is significant difference in hostile sexism among NRIs and non NRIs. t-test was conducted and the result shows that there is no significant difference among in NRIs and non NRIs. Therefore, we reject the hypothesis.
2. Hypothesis three states that there is significant difference in anxiety among NRIs and non NRIs. t-test was conducted and the results show that there is no significant difference among NRIs and non-NRIs. Therefore, we reject the hypothesis.
3. Hypothesis four states that there is significant difference in dejection among NRIs and non NRIs. t-test was conducted and the results show that there is no significant difference among in NRIs and non-NRIs. Therefore, we reject the hypothesis.
4. Hypothesis five states that there is significant difference in excitement among NRIs and non-NRIs. t-test was conducted and the results show that there is significant difference among NRIs and non-NRIs. Therefore, we accept the hypothesis.
5. Hypothesis six states that there is significant difference in anger among NRIs and non- NRIs . t-test was conducted and the result shows that there is no significant difference among NRIs and non-NRIs. Therefore, we reject the hypothesis.

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6. Hypothesis seven states that there is significant difference in happiness among NRIs and non-NRIs. t-test was conducted and the results show that there is significant difference among NRIs and non-NRIs. Therefore, we accept the hypothesis.

Implication

There are still countries where women are imprisoned tortured or even put to death for asserting their rights. They are victims of their governments, societies, and cultures. In these countries, change is difficult to accomplish and often dangerous when attempted. In countries where extreme patriarchy exists, women are stripped of their rights and dignity.

Masculinity that is constructed this way is damaging to us all. It's going to take a powerful re-orientation, a transformation of life as we know it to change this. Mainly, it's going to take a radical re-envisioning of what it means to be a boy and then a man and the sexism it sustains, are baked into dominant understandings of power and masculinity.

Sexism in India is still prevailing and deserves attention because even today voices of girls around the country are being subjected to sexual harassment and gender injustice. Studying this as a cross-cultural sector outside and inside India gives us an insight as to the relevance of its existence its major causes and how to tackle them. It can be your first step to gain wisdom in this area. Argue that emotions have the power.

Feelings play a big role in communication. Emotional awareness, or the ability to understand feelings, will help you succeed when communicating with other people. If you are emotionally aware, you will communicate better. You will notice the emotions of other people, and how the way they are feeling influences the way they communicate. You will also better understand what others are communicating to you and why. Sometimes, understanding how a person is communicating with you is more important than what is actually being said.

Emotions will ultimately dictate how you perform throughout a competition. Emotions during a competition can cover the spectrum from excitement and elation to frustration, anger, and disappointment. Emotions are often strong and, most troublesome; they can linger and hurt your performances long after you first experience them. Negative emotions can raise your performance at first because they increase your intensity and get you to fight harder. It also stimulates your body to achieve prime intensity, where your body is relaxed, energized, and physically capable of performing its best.

Studying sport emotions can motivate and regulate combinations and behaviors in sport. Once identifying the emotions, it can help in moulding the emotions the desired way and most successful in sports. Here competition the study gives an opportunity to over trace the cultural emphasis on different competitive spirit. It can be applied in the practical academic life.

Limitations

1. The sample size considered for the study was less (120) thus, chances for sampling error is more.
2. Data was collected from restricted locality or concentrated on a single area.

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3. The NRIs considered for the study were presently residing in India. Thus, there may be already an infusion of Indian culture.
4. Study was restricted to cross cultural and geographical and no emphasis was given to gender differences.
5. They were under supervision of the experimental does there are chances of state in random or false answers.
6. The study was restricted to only a particular age group of adolescence.
7. Review of literature was not widely available for preferred group –NRIs and non NRIs.
8. Self-report measures were taken for the study.
9. There was no previous experience of conducting a research.

Suggestion For Future Research

The current research was conducted among adolescents-NRIs and Non-NRIs. One can broaden the research to different age groups like adults. Gender differences can also influence the variables especially sexism and sport emotions. Thus, in the future researches one can incorporate the emphasis on gender differences. More variables like well-being or self-esteem can be studied on this group. The study can be more effective if one picks variables that are in consistency with a particular geographical culture. Also results can be more efficient if the samples were collected from there non-native countries that is collecting data from NRIs who still reside outside India. It can be done online. In this study sampling error may be due to fewer samples, thus increasing the sample size for future research can reduce this error to a large extent. Also, instead of restricting the samples of particulate district, if efforts are made to explore samples from a large area it can be helpful in generalization.

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Conflict of Interest

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