



An investigation of the effect of adolescent shame on future expectations.

Citation

Lamar-Ray, Tracy. 2021. An investigation of the effect of adolescent shame on future expectations.. Master's thesis, Harvard University Division of Continuing Education.

Link

<https://nrs.harvard.edu/URN-3:HUL.INSTREPOS:37370039>

Terms of use

This article was downloaded from Harvard University's DASH repository, and is made available under the terms and conditions applicable to Other Posted Material (LAA), as set forth at

<https://harvardwiki.atlassian.net/wiki/external/NGY5NDE4ZjgzNTc5NDQzMGIzZWZhMGFIOWI2M2EwYTg>

Accessibility

<https://accessibility.huit.harvard.edu/digital-accessibility-policy>

Share Your Story

The Harvard community has made this article openly available.
Please share how this access benefits you. [Submit a story](#)

An investigation of the effect of adolescent shame on future expectations.

Tracy Lamar-Ray

A Thesis in the Field of Psychology
for the Degree of Master of Liberal Arts in Extension Studies

Harvard University
November 2021

Abstract

The predictive influence of future expectations on adolescent development, behavior and thriving justify the importance of improving understanding factors of potential impact. Excess shame's troublesome nature warrants additional clarity regarding its contributions to adolescent future expectations. This study's examination of adolescent shame's influence on future expectations sought to determine if high shame in adolescence predicts low future expectancies. It also explores whether adolescents from households with lower income reported higher shame and lower future expectations. Results from surveys of fourteen adolescents found that shame and future expectations correlate, specifically such that scoring high in shame resulted in lower future expectations. Females on average scored higher in shame than males, although most participants ranked high in shame. Finally, income was not significant at predicting future expectations, suggesting that SES alone may not influence adolescent belief and ideas about the future. Identifying a connection between adolescent shame and future expectations provides a broader foundation for existing knowledge about adolescent development.

Key words: adolescence, shame, future expectations, adolescent belief

Dedication

This work is dedicated to the four most important men in my life. First, to my sons, Eryck and Adam. I strive to be the best version of myself for you and to always be your example. I appreciate your patience and sacrifice as I worked toward this dream. Thank you for your love, kindness, and strength. To my father, your legacy of big dreams and extraordinary work ethic live deep within me. I've felt you with me each step of the way. I dedicate this achievement to you for those you didn't get the opportunity to realize. And finally, to my husband Randy, you have been my champion, support and confidant. I appreciate your willingness to participate and stand at my side during this journey of discovery and passion. Love you Always.

Acknowledgments

I would first like to thank Charles Houston for his encouragement at the onset of this monumental goal - I will forever appreciate your kindness and affirmation that this was possible. I'd like to recognize Mary VanHorn, my 1st grade teacher and first person I recall praising my intellect, for encouraging me to always be curious and inquisitive about the world around me. Next, I credit Alex P. Keaton, the fictional character brought to life by Michael J. Fox in the 80's, for introducing a little brown girl to Harvard University and inspiring her to reach for it. Peter Hardie is acknowledged not only for showing me what an actual Harvard grad looked like in the flesh but for his powerful impact during my formative years - I love and thank you. I would like to thank Dr. Adrienne Tierney - your influence and direction made all the difference to my thesis proposal process and subsequent success - your dedication and enthusiasm will always mean the world to me. I'd like to acknowledge Dr. Leah Somerville for her input and experience during the research phase - your guidance helped me breakthrough to new understanding of the research process, thank you so much. I want to thank Neha Dhawan and Niam Sinno, for their support, guidance and friendship throughout this process - your solidarity was priceless. Finally, I must thank Hedy Robinson, Terri Smith, William Lamar-Boone and Joan M. Smith - you are all my heart and soul; your love and support inspire and fuel my dedication to always pursue excellence.

Table of Contents

Dedication	iv
Acknowledgments	v
List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	viii
Chapter I. The Research Problem	1
Chapter II. Definition of Terms	5
Chapter III. Background of the Problem	7
Future Expectations	7
Environmental Influences on FE	11
FE and affect	14
FE in adolescence	16
Shame	19
Chapter IV. Research Method	25
Participants	25
Procedure	25
Instruments	30
Chapter V. Results	32
Demographic Factors	32
Future Expectations and shame	36
Future Expectations and Income	40
Chapter VI. Discussion	41
Chapter VII. Research Limitations	45
Chapter VIII. Implications	48
Conclusions	50
Appendix A. Demographic questionnaire	52
Appendix B. Test of Self-Conscious Affect-Adolescent	54
Appendix C. Score Sheet for Test of Self-Conscious Affect-Adolescent	62
Appendix D. Adolescent Shame Proneness Scale	65
Appendix E. Future Expectations Assessment	67
Appendix F. Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents	69
Appendix G. Recruitment Description (teachers)	73
Appendix H. Study Invitation	74
References	75

List of Tables

Table 1. Frequency for race and gender	33
Table 2. Frequency for age.	34
Table 3. Coefficients	35
Table 4. Linear Regression shame_FEtal	38

List of Figures

Figure 1. Partial regression plot of shame vs FEscore.	37
---	----

Chapter I.

The Research Problem

How do adolescents create a vision for their lives in the future? Evidence has suggested that future expectations predict how adolescents thrive, develop and behave in the since that they influence goal setting and behavior (Lerner & Callina, 2014; Sipsma et al., 2012). Cognitive capabilities such as forethought are necessary to formulate future expectations, as they facilitate reorganization and reinterpretation of experiences over time. Bandura et al. (1997) posited that these cognitive processes are the basis of learning and behavior. Yet, empirical studies have not identified which factors specifically influence how adolescents formulate future expectations.

Adolescence is a formative period of development because youths begin to differentiate aspects of their identities (Bandura, 1999). One way in which adolescents individuate is by establishing relationships independent from family members, teachers and other influential adults. By redefining boundaries with parents, caregivers and peers, adolescents begin to shape their own experiences. They accomplish this by selecting with whom they share those experiences. As adolescents begin to execute new degrees of agency in their lives, self-efficacy becomes more central to decision making and behavior (Bandura, 1999; Lewis, 1971).

Prior research has suggested that motivation, academic achievement and goal attainment predict adolescent future outcomes (Quane & Rankin, 1998). Moreover, grit and goal setting have been associated with achievement and success in adulthood

(Duckworth et al., 2007). Socioeconomic status (SES), ethnicity, community, family structure and access to opportunity have been correlated with academics, employment and behavioral outcomes in adolescence (Prince et al., 2016). There is evidence that stressful experiences affect adolescents' thoughts and feelings, impacting adolescent decision-making and ultimately predicting future expectations (Florencio et al., 2017). Conversely, conflicting research suggest that future expectations predict high-risk behavior, timing of adult role transition and improve subjective wellbeing (Beal et al., 2016; Eryilmaz, 2011; Prince & Nurius, 2014). Understanding actual long-term academic achievement, rates of graduation, employment status and involvement in risky or illegal behavior of adolescents is useful, however, these projected outcomes divert attention from ideas and thoughts adolescents construct and hold about potential for their futures. While much has been discovered about what predicts future outcomes, very little is known about how adolescent's feelings influence their future expectations.

Social Cognitive Learning Theory (Bandura, 1991) suggests that thoughts and emotions intimately integrate to predict and influence behavior; therefore, understanding which emotions influence adolescent future expectations is a legitimate empirical pursuit. Some adolescents encounter extreme poverty, neglect, physical and psychological abuse, homelessness, child sexual abuse and partner violence, coupled with 'typical' life challenges (SAMHSA, 2014). Tangney et al. (1996) uncovered important correlations between social context and central experiences of shame and suggest that shame occurs due to social experiences. Self-conscious emotions like shame can develop as a response to peer pressure, bullying, social media scrutiny, as well as academic or family responsibilities. Stuewig et al. (2015) suggest links between shame and increased high-

risk behavior in adolescence, while Brown (2006) proposes that shame encourages low self-esteem in adult women. Furthermore, Robinaugh & McNally (2010) explain that shame distorts self-concept and increases risk for developing psychological dysfunction in young adults. Examining whether adolescent shame specifically influences future expectations may provide clearer understanding of cognitive and emotional development, thus yield greater knowledge about affective mechanism dynamics in adolescence. Therefore, this research study will address whether the emotion of shame has an impact on adolescent future expectations.

The current study addresses gaps in the literature about adolescent beliefs regarding their futures in several ways. First, the proposed study will examine the construct of future expectations instead of future outcomes. Assessing *future expectations* involves measuring perceptions about the future in real time instead of a measuring a generalized end goal or achievement, as *future outcomes* have previously assessed. Second, by successfully identifying specific strategies to evaluate thoughts and beliefs about expectations instead of arbitrary outcomes, as in prior studies, assessing how *future expectations* relate to adolescent shame may be more useful. Specifically, this study will examine shame in adolescents to determine whether this emotion has an effect on adolescent future expectations.

The present study is a quantitative analysis of shame and future expectations of adolescents from an ethnically and socioeconomically diverse region in the Mid-Atlantic United States. The study will utilize self-report assessments to determine whether adolescents who report high levels of shame will have low future expectations. The study proposes to utilize psychosocial and ecological factors such as race, socioeconomic status

and school district to evaluate trends in the adolescent population sample. To date no other evaluations between the constructs of shame and future expectations have been conducted. Results from this study may make the role of shame and the etiology of adolescents' ideas about their futures clearer. Identifying a connection between adolescent shame and future expectations may provide a broader foundation for existing knowledge about adolescent development and improve our ability to provide support and resources to children throughout adolescence.

Chapter II.

Definition of Terms

Future expectations: beliefs surrounding the things one expects at a later time in life. Future expectations are operationally explained as the extent to which one expects that an event is likely to occur (Bandura, 2001).

Future orientation: an older construct for future expectations (Nurmi, 1991). It is described as the ‘orientation toward future events and outcomes (Nurmi, 1991), referred to as an adolescent’s capacity for forethought and planning and is suggested to inform motivation, decision-making and regulate behavior (Bandura, 1986)

Executive function: top down cognitive processes needed to focus attention and concentrate. It includes inhibition control and cognitive inhibition (self-regulation), working memory, and cognitive/mental flexibility (Diamond, 2012).

Self: conceptually explained as one’s idea of being an individual entity; possessing unique characteristics, feelings and beliefs, separate from another person. Self is operationally defined as recognizing activities, thoughts, and feelings as being one’s own (Lewis, 1971). Piaget’s (1952) Cognitive Development Theory suggests that awareness of self includes the ability to construct meaning autonomously and to conceive of being separate from others. These skills are fundamental to human development.

Self-efficacy: belief in one’s ability to execute a given action or achieve a desired goal (Bandura, 1977); also known as agency or one’s ability to control their actions.

Unlike self-concept, it is predictive of behavior in that it provides a framework for one to visualize or think about the potential consequences of their behavior, instead of relating solely to attributes related to identity (Bandura, 1977).

Self-perception: the way one views their abilities; operationally defined as relating to the degree of competency and adequacy one has in specific domains (Harter, 2012).

Self-concept: the way one views themselves; operationally defined as being related to ideas about how one describes and feels about him or herself (Dorahy et al., 2009)

Agency: conceptually framed as one's ability or capacity to act. Operationally defined as actions that an individual takes intentionally (Bandura, 1977).

Shame: conceptualized as a feeling of humiliation or distress. It is related to emotions of embarrassment resulting from exposure of private, intimate or vulnerable aspects of one's self to another (Baldwin et al., 2006). Shame results from feeling different or separate from others due to loss of respect, esteem, status or inclusion. An experience of significant pain due to beliefs that one is flawed and therefore unworthy of acceptance and belonging (Brown, 2006). Operationally defined as an affective construct and self-conscious emotion (Tangney, 1996)

Subjective wellbeing: considered one's evaluation of positive affectivity, negative affectivity and satisfaction with life

Chapter III.

Background of the Problem

Future Expectations

Future expectations (FE) is described as the extent to which one anticipates an event will actually occur (Bandura, 2001). Prior research has suggested correlations between future expectations and characteristics of motivation, academic performance, goal achievement, risk-behavior, delinquency, life expectancy, occupation, adult role transition, quality of life, self-confidence, self-esteem and subjective wellbeing. Bandura (1991) theorized that future expectations resulted from developing forethought. This cognitive capability to consider life events through time is believed to support effective planning and decision-making in adolescence. For this reason, it is believed that FE motivates behavior (Prince et al., 2016).

FE has been broadly contextualized from individual, social and psychosocial perspectives in the literature. Nurmi (1991) explained that future orientation (an older term synonymous with FE) initially evolves from cultural and institutional contexts, then is influenced by social interactions and finally, from individual interests derived from exposure to the cultural and social contexts. For example, social context can influence FE from exposure to neighborhood dynamics, such as violence, which may lead one to expect to fall victim to crime or harm (Prince et al., 2016). Similarly, social dynamics may influence beliefs about FE such that attending an academically rigorous secondary school may lead students to expect to attend university in the future. An example of institutional influences would be religious affiliations or the school that one attends. Academic and religious instruction influences the development of FE by establishing

concrete expectancies for individuals, dictated by institutional systems and doctrinal beliefs. One's social environment has been linked to FE by predicting outcomes and risk behavior in adolescence (Beal et al., 2016). Family members and other influential adults, such as caregivers, teachers and religious leaders, may each contribute to the psychosocial and emotional development of adolescents' by encouraging or discouraging specific attitudes and behaviors, thus affecting adolescent FE (Sipsma et al., 2012; Stoddard & Pierce, 2015).

One drawback of prior research is the homogenization of groups as 'at risk', under-served, urban, and low-income or by SES. Understanding the motivation and expectations of these categorized groups has been examined through the lens of environmental structure, economics and by individual traits (Wilson, 1987). However, labeling groups in this way may impede more accurate assessments of future expectations in broader populations. For example, a study conducted by Quane & Rankin (1998) on the employment expectancies of African-American welfare recipients living in low-income areas highlights the problematic nature of narrowing in on fabricated and superficial differences that can result from group categorization. They investigated parental support, relative neighborhood income and maternal educational achievement to determine the relationship between employment expectations. Results suggested that the length of time residing in low-income neighborhoods and level of maternal education lowered adolescent expectation of academic achievement. While these results may not be surprising and are perhaps predictable, they are problematic in that they may miss underlying beliefs and possibly fundamental thoughts about *why* adolescents may have these feelings. This 1998 study falls short because it neglects consideration of personal

psychological influences, which may be of great importance, and moreover places emphasis on psychosocial and individual traits. This perspective has contributed to group marginalization of subsets of our population instead of approaching observation of adolescent FE inclusively, as a broader collective.

The current study addresses the aforementioned challenges, first by incorporating a more diverse adolescent sample than have been included in previous studies to discover mechanisms that explain how future expectations manifest in adolescence. Next, this research addresses shortcomings of prior research by examining future expectations from a multidimensional framework including consideration of psychological, psychosocial and individual aspects, as suggested by Bronfenbrenner (1989) and Nurmi (1991). In this way, the study is designed to address voids in prior empirical work on adolescent future expectations created by segmenting particular social groups.

This study defines FE as the extent to which one anticipates attainment of certain skills or specific outcomes. Future expectations are distinct from hope, aspirations and dreams. First, research has found that these latter variables embellish and overestimate the likelihood of actual outcomes by exaggerating expectancies (Oettingen & Mayer, 2002). Next, FE differentiate aspects of motivation and planning as well as evaluate causal attributes (Nurmi, 1991). Lastly, there tends to be a spiritual context to hope and aspirations (Stoddard & Pierce, 2015), whereas FE is associated with one's future planning, as it pertains to specific tasks or beliefs about achievement or occurrence (Seginer, 2008; Seligman et al., 2013). For instance, Stoddard & Pierce (2015) found that greater collective efficacy and contribution to community in adolescence predicted higher levels of hope and purpose in a survey of suburban public school 7th graders. Results

suggested that greater collective efficacy predicted higher levels of hope and purpose while higher levels of hope and purpose suggested higher positive FE. These results illustrate distinctions between the constructs of hope, aspirations and future expectations.

Studies of FE have yielded contradictory results. Some have suggested that age, subjective wellbeing, stress and self-confidence predict FE (Florencio et al., 2017; Raffaelli & Koller, 2005). Alternately, others propose that FE predict subjective-wellbeing, substance-use, delinquent behavior and adult role transition. Researchers have aspired to stimulate more consistent results because the lack of consensus about how to adequately assess FE has made generalizing findings challenging. Incomplete understanding of the construct persists for this reason. Sipsma et al. (2012) and Prince et al. (2016) advocate for taking a broad view of FE by considering individual, psychological, and psychosocial aspects to mitigate conflicting knowledge about the construct in experimental design. To this end, Sipsma et al. (2012) used a multidimensional measure to examine interview data collected from 15 to 18-year old athletes and their parents in The National Longitudinal Study of Youth in 1997. Future expectations were measured by a questionnaire, which asked participants to provide an estimate of the likelihood of certain events. Researchers used latent class analysis to group participants into subclasses by covariates based on Bronfenbrenner's (1989) ecological systems theory. Results suggested statistical differences for multiple subclasses of future expectations such as risk behavior, academic participation, expected victimization, employment, pregnancy, being arrested and death. Results further suggested, that being older, male, black, Hispanic and in poor health correlated to higher future expectations of drinking, being arrested or crime victimization. These findings are

not unexpected because much FE evidence supports the assertion that the construct consists of individual, psychological and psychosocial aspects; meaning that individual traits such as gender and age, psychological traits such as emotions, thoughts and beliefs and psychosocial factors such as environment, community, peer group and SES likely contribute to FE. Furthermore, because assessments rank FE as either *high* and *low* or *positive* and *negative* in most investigations, conflict in compiling and comparing data persist. For these reasons, it is vital to attempt to build upon existing work to reinforce a consolidated view of the construct.

Environmental Influences on FE

There is evidence that children who live in adverse environments or who experience stressful circumstances may have lower expectations for their futures (Prince et al., 2016). Other evidence suggests the possibility that risk factors and protective factors can influence the formation of adolescent FE. For instance, Prince et al. (2016) investigated black and Latino males from inner-city middle schools in Chicago to determine whether threats to safety and adolescent FE predicted risk behavior or delinquency. This longitudinal study focused on multidimensional aspects of FE by examining environmental, individual, family, and social characteristics as well as risk behaviors based on the Ecological Systems Model (Bronfenbrenner, 1989) across six different ages (assessment waves). Participants were assessed once a year for the first four years then roughly every two years beginning at age 12 through age 17. Participants completed the Future Expectations Questionnaire consisting of nine items which assess one's perception of themselves five years in the future; the Self-Report of Delinquency Scale which assesses tobacco, alcohol and drug use; the Children's Depression Inventory

at waves 1-4, which measures child depressive symptoms; and at wave 5, the Beck Depressive Inventory, which measures depression. Results suggested that low FE predicted substance abuse and delinquent behavior across time. Moreover, the results suggested a sensitive period of low positive expectations near age thirteen that correlated with higher delinquent behavior until age 14. The behavior pattern repeated between ages fourteen and fifteen according to these data. Inversely, high positive expectations predicted lower substance abuse and delinquency, thus the role of high and low expectations and substance abuse was reciprocal. Additionally, the results suggested that depression between ages 14 predicted higher threats to safety at age 15, while depression at age 12 suggested higher delinquency at age 13. Interestingly, depression at age 15 suggested lower delinquent behavior at age 17, while higher expected threats to safety at 13 suggested lower delinquent behaviors at age 14. These results are important for several reasons. First, they identify patterns of behavior and decisions linked to FE over particular time periods during adolescence. In this way, the findings reinforce a connection between adolescent FE and their actions, as suggested in other empirical studies. Next, and perhaps of greater interest, is that the results additionally propose a link between adolescents' FE and their emotions due to the assessment of depressive symptoms. Finally, results from this study imply that certain adolescent developmental periods may allow for intervention to impede development of clinical symptoms. Further examination of a connection between which specific emotions relate to adolescent FE is warranted in empirical work in the future.

Similarly, Raffaelli & Koller (2005) interviewed Brazilian adolescents living and working on the streets of Porto Alegre to determine whether their particular economic

and environmental circumstances influence FE. Sixty-nine, 10 to 18-year old adolescents receiving government support were solicited to participate in semi-structured interviews conducted by university students. Participants answered a Sentence Completion Task for Street Children & Adolescents and a Future Expectations questionnaire. Answers to open-ended responses were coded categorically and ranked as high or low probability of future outcome. Results suggested that stressful living environments and severely limited academic, economic and social resources promoted high expectations for joining the military and working for adolescent males and high future expectations of attending school and having families for females. Interestingly, males and females reported equal uncertainty about what to expect of their futures. Girls described optimistic albeit vague FE of personal achievement and attainment of material possessions. The nonspecific future expectations of adolescents in these findings echo those represented by other studies which suggest that stress in adolescence lower or inhibit FE formation (Florencio et al., 2017). Understanding if stressful circumstances provoke emotions like shame merits further study because evidence has implicated shame as a factor in increased risk-behavior and decreased self-efficacy (Baldwin et al., 2006).

FE and affect

Examinations of the relationship between well-being and future expectations have suggested links between FE, quality of life and subjective wellbeing (Ansoy et al., 2015; Eryilmaz, 2011; Tonsing & Ow, 2018). Tonsing and Ow (2018) suggest that health-related and cancer specific worries correlate to negative FE in 14 to 16 years old cancer survivors, while high self-esteem significantly correlated to high FE. The findings warrant consideration because these results strengthen the argument for a potential emotional component to FE development. Eryilmaz (2011) examined the emotional influence on FE by studying the subjective wellbeing of two hundred and thirty-three 14 to 17-year-old Turkish high school students. Students completed the Subjective Well-being Scale, which measures satisfaction, positive affection about family, relationships, and life overall, and the Positive Future Expectations Scale (PFES) which measures overall positivity about the future. Results suggested that positive future expectations correlated with greater subjective wellbeing. Because subjective wellbeing is considered one's evaluation of positive affectivity, negative affectivity and satisfaction with life (Ansoy et al., 2015), further examination of other affectivity or emotions that could influence FE is an appropriate empirical contribution.

Along the lines of the previously discussed research, Ansoy et al. (2015) examined 420 employed and 482 non-working Turkish adolescents and young adult students to determine whether subjective wellbeing related to positive and negative expectations. Fifteen to 20-year old participants were randomly selected from vocational education centers and completed The Adolescent Subjective Wellbeing Scale (ASWS) and the Positive Future Expectation Scale (PFES) surveys. Results suggested no

significant difference in general wellbeing between working and non-working students; however, they did suggest a relationship between positive future expectations and subjective wellbeing, regardless of whether or not students were employed. The correlation identified between positive FE and subjective wellbeing repeats the findings of Eryilmaz (2011), suggesting that one's overall life satisfaction relates to ideas about their future. Because wellbeing does not specifically measure individual emotions and instead indicates general satisfaction or affection for life circumstances, it is legitimate to question which emotions help establish overall pleasure or fulfillment as well as emotions that may elicit dissatisfaction. Examining emotional affectivity potentially related to adolescent future beliefs is a logical research progression that may uncover a relationship between shame and expectancies later in life.

Iovu (2014) surveyed three thousand, five hundred and nine 12th grade students (58.2% female) in Romania to examine personal, psychological and social aspects of FE. Students completed online surveys measuring self-confidence, family support, peer-support and FE. Results showed that girls reported higher positive FE than boys and boys reported higher worries about their FE. High self-confidence suggested higher positive FE, while low self-confidence, low teacher support and low peer-support each suggested greater negative FE. These results are not unexpected because results from other studies have proposed that high positive FE correlate to higher academic achievement, better adjustment in school, lower involvement in risk behavior and greater resilience (Beal et al., 2016; Callina et al., 2017; Davis, 2015 & Sipsma et al., 2012). These findings lend credence to the argument that adolescents who have high self-confidence and a positive self-image are more likely to have positive ideas about their

future, hence it is reasonable to suggest that feelings about ones' self in adolescence could influence FE.

FE in adolescence

The evidence discussed to this point has described FE as a dependent variable, while other empirical work suggests that future expectations can predict adolescent behavior and decision-making (Callina et al., 2017; Prince et al., 2016). Studies on the impact of adolescent FE on decision-making point to specifics about when adolescents begin to adopt adult activities. For example, Beal, Crockett, and Peugh (2016) investigated adolescent's adult role transition by examining junior high students from a rural area in the Eastern United States. Participants were interviewed about their FE of taking on adult roles. The roles included beginning employment and secondary education, moving out of caregiver's homes, getting married and starting families. Results suggested distinct timing patterns for shifting into adult roles, such that FE predicted the actual timing of adult role transitions. Results also suggested that some juveniles changed their FE during high school, which lends support for prior studies that propose transference of FE in older adolescents. Specifically, two thirds of participants changed their future expectations between junior and senior year. Furthermore, FE predicted the timing of adulthood roles such that they correlated to when adolescents actually began to participate in or transition to specific adult activities. These findings are informative because they propose that FE in late adolescence may accurately predict actions and behaviors in early adulthood. Further significance of these results is that they may provide an opportunity to observe a distinct time when future expectations change in adolescence. This specific time in development may be a crucial window when ideas and

emotions have particularly significant influence FE. Consequently, this study emphasizes the importance of identifying additional variables that influence and predict adolescent future expectations such as specific emotions.

The evidence reviewed thus far explains correlations between adolescent FE and risk-behavior, stressful circumstances, adverse environments, wellbeing, self-confidence and decision-making, nonetheless mechanisms explaining how these FE develop remains unclear. A unique investigation by Niese et al. (2018) examined how trait biases in self-belief and valence weighting (general tendency to view things positively or negatively) effect expectation formation. Researchers influenced 146 undergraduates' imagery perspective by controlling students' first-person or third-person perspective valence weighing bias, then, asked them complete a series of self-report questionnaires. Third-person *or top-down* cognitive processing perspective incorporates background knowledge (contextual recall) of an object or experience to influence expectancies, however first-person or *bottom-up* processing perspective formulates expectancies based solely upon data provided by stimuli from a given circumstance (immediate prompt). Self-belief trait bias operates via a top-down process (contextual recall) while valence-weighting biases operate from bottom-up processing (immediate prompt). Results of the experiments identified a novel distinction between valence weighting bias processing style, self-beliefs and FE formation. Results proved that self-beliefs corresponded more to third person perspective (recall). Further, participants formed FE aligned with their valence weighting bias from first person perspective (immediate prompt). To clarify, third person perspective predicted self-beliefs while first person perspective predicted future expectations. Specifically, results showed that first-person perspective (bottom-up)

caused participants to use valence-weighting bias to form positive FE compared to the control group who did not receive immediate feedback on the experimental task. These results are important because since valence weighting tendencies vary by situation, then it may be useful to consider valence weighting biases, rather than self-beliefs, to determine whether a person will develop positive FE. Another important aspect of these findings is that they infer that intervention, specifically, is effective at provoking positive FE formation. For example, these results showed that participants formed expectations about investments in accordance with third-person imagery but not with first person imagery, meaning that their self-beliefs influenced expectations about the future as opposed to their valence weighting bias in the case of the gambling experiment.

Although this study included adults, these findings are noteworthy for several reasons. First, causation can be determined because this study was a true experiment. By differentiating and examining first and third-person perspectives, the researchers were able to prove that manipulating valence-weighting bias effects expectation formation, specifically positive FE. Next, results illustrated differences between bottom-up (1st person) and top-down (3rd person) processing styles for valence weighting tendencies, which reinforces the relevance of cognitive processing mechanisms for developing FE in that distinct pathways and resources are utilized to evaluate information. This finding is crucial because it identifies a framework and explains a cognitive mechanism which predicts positive or negative FE. The novelty of this study emphasizes the necessity of uncovering whether an emotional component such as shame can influence cognitive processing mechanisms that impact FE development in adolescence. This experiment achieved this by highlighting the psychological complexity of expectancy formation.

Shame

The construct of shame has been a topic of interest since the beginning of the 19th century. Freud (1905, 1933), Lynd (1958) and Erikson (1963) commented on shame's ability to wound one's idea of self. It has been described as 'a painful feeling' that causes one to want to withdraw from or hide from exposure (Brown, 2006). Psychology contextually categorizes shame as a self-conscious affect included with other emotions like guilt, pride and embarrassment. Self-conscious emotions inform us about environmental stimuli plus provide a means of self-assessment by furnishing specialized cognitive appraisal mechanisms (Turner, 2014). The psychological perspective explains that emotions serve as adaptive behavioral mechanisms, while the scientific perspective argues in favor of the biological advantages of emotions. Facial expressions or physiologic responses such as a racing pulse serve as protective factors that allow animals to react to environmental stimuli (Reimer, 1996). While emotional capability appears to be innately born into primates, mastery of affective behavior develops over time and becomes particularly relevant during adolescence, as one's individual emotional awareness and intelligence improves along with the capability to better recognize others' emotions (Erikson, 1963). Social comparisons help adolescents evaluate adherence to or divergence from social norms to equate group membership and foster relationships (Callina et al., 2014). Therefore, shame may possess protective features that conceal aspects of 'the self' in circumstances when is not beneficial to be fully exposed, (Lewis, 1971; Schneider, 1977). For this reason, emotions help provide necessary feedback to accurately appraise behavioral conduct, interaction in relationships and within our environment (Nurmi, 1991).

Inclusion promotes feelings of security, confidence, social identity and self-efficacy while shame tends to elicit motivation to retreat, hide or separate from others. In this way, shame may function as a protective measure, shielding one from exposing more than is appropriate (Tangney et al., 1996). Alternatively, because shame has been empirically linked to depression, psychological dysfunction and risk behavior, it is pertinent to examine whether adolescent shame specifically influences FE (Baldwin, 2006; Bandura, 2001; Reimer, 1996).

Although much of existing research on shame has included information about guilt, distinctions between the two emotions have been uncovered (Tangney et al., 1996; Turner, 2014). Tangney et al. (1996) suggest that shame relates to ideas directed at ‘the self’, while guilt has been linked to one’s actions.

Shame has been operationalized in different ways. Some research has described it as ‘state shame’, referring to situational experiences of shame. Others define shame as ‘global’ or ‘trait’, implying one’s general, overall feeling and prolonged self-assessment. Shame is often explained as one’s individual ‘affinity for’ or ‘proneness to’ shame and measured by assigning a high or low score (Tangney, 1991; Turner, 2014). An alternative perspective by Gilbert et al. (2010) theorizes that shame is a multidimensional affect. They argue that ‘external shame’ results when one anticipates a negative response or rejection from an external source. External shame may also be elicited by real or perceived social threats that provoke feelings of inadequacy, inferiority or unworthiness. Contrariwise, ‘internal shame’ occurs when an individual adopts negative assessments of his or herself (Gilbert, 2017; Gilbert et al., 2010; Reimer, 1996; Simonds et al., 2016). For the purpose of this study, shame will be defined as trait shame, characterized as a

self-conscious emotion and measured using a fixed score as well as evaluated on a high or low proneness scale.

Brown's Shame Resilience Theory (SRT) proposes that shame encompasses psycho-social-cultural aspects. Psychological components of the theory include cognition, emotions and behavior, while the social aspects emphasize women's shame in context of interpersonal relationships (Brown, 2006). Shame's tendency to promote negative self-assessments and manifest as personal judgments of character aspects, physical appearance, desires, goals, to permeate identity and inform social acceptance were each identified by interviewing 215 women aged 18 -75 years old (White 47%, Latina 18%, Black 30% & Asian 5%; mean age 40 years). Results surmised that powerlessness, isolation and feeling trapped most consistently correlated with feelings of shame. SRT categorizes the pressure and perceived failure women often feel in response to cultural expectations. Women reported beliefs that they were "flawed or unworthy of acceptance and belonging" (participant excerpt Brown, 2006). These results suggest that self-beliefs related to shame can be detrimental.

Because humans place high importance on how others view them and particularly so in adolescence, being excluded or judged by others during adolescence can evoke feelings of shame that may affect beliefs about what is possible in the future. Results suggested by the SRT study (Brown, 2006) highlight the importance of further examination of shame in adolescent populations to establish a framework of shame's impact on their future expectations. The problematic nature of shame in adult women may indicate relevance in examining its significance in adolescent populations to

determine whether shame's effect on self-belief correlate to influencing beliefs about the future.

The existing body of evidence supports the potentially detrimental influence of shame on adolescent emotional development and social adaptation. Stuewig et al. (2014) conducted a longitudinal study of 380 5th graders to investigate how shame and guilt related to adolescent risk behavior and delinquency. Children from an ethnically and socioeconomically diverse suburb of Washington, DC were surveyed from 1st through 7th grades and again at age 18 using the Test of Self-Conscious Affect – Child (TOSCA-C; Tangney, 1991), which assesses a child's likelihood of making a negative global self-evaluation. Results suggested that shame encouraged high-risk behavior, (such as having unprotected sex and illegal drug use) therefore, providing additional support for a connection between shame and future behavior. Results of a study by Baldwin et al., (2006) of one hundred, ninety-eight college students from the Midwest (ages 18 to 26 years; 62.9% female, 35.1% male, 2% no gender code) suggested that high shame scores correlated with low self-efficacy. Participants were surveyed using the Test of Self-Conscious Affect (TOSCA 3, Tangney & Dearing, 2002) and the General Social Self-Efficacy Scales (Sherer et al., 1982). Results from this study supported those of prior findings, suggesting that perceived self-efficacy and shame impact a person's beliefs about and interactions within their environments. It is important to continue to evaluate shame in adolescence because this period is especially relevant for developing self-efficacy and identity, consequently, may provide clues to thoughts about their futures.

Margins in the literature on future expectations present opportunities for novel studies of its relationship to shame in adolescent populations. It has been proposed that

the multidimensional qualities of FE require sensitivity to social, psychosocial and individual elements when studied to fully examine all aspects of the construct. Although prior work has appropriately focused on the FE of adolescent populations suggesting that FE predict higher subjective-wellbeing, adult role transitions and potential risk behaviors, research has fallen short of uncovering mechanisms that drive adolescents' beliefs about their FE and whether emotions such as shame can impact those beliefs.

On the other hand, shame investigations have yielded consistent results by finding connections with psychological symptomology and dysfunction in adulthood. Studies have provided multiple scales that consistently measure shame. Additionally, empirical studies have analyzed adult and adolescent populations. Deeper insight into adolescent shame could then provide useful means of interpreting juvenile social behavior. Insight could also present tools for those who support children, including families, educators, communities and policy makers, to encourage development of healthy identities and social relationships. Lastly, improved insight could help promote protective factors against psychological distress or dysfunction in adolescence. Evidence of the troublesome nature of excessive shame warrants additional clarity about shame's contribution to adolescent future expectations. Shortcomings of existing research on FE emphasize the relevance of this study as it aims to include a representative selection of juveniles to discover generalized mechanisms of how future expectations may manifest in adolescence. This study tests the hypothesis that students who report feeling shame *often* (score high in shame) will score lower in future expectations. It is also hypothesized that shame levels will differ for household income level, specifically such that adolescents in

homes with lower incomes will have lower future expectations and report higher shame than adolescents in higher income homes.

Chapter IV.

Research Method

The paragraphs below provide a discussion of the participants, procedure and instruments used in this study.

Participants

This study consisted of adolescent participants from Northeastern and Mid-Atlantic regions of the United States. The sample size included 20 adolescents (10 males, 8 females, 2 blank responses) and 6 were eliminated from the dataset for incomplete survey submissions, resulting in a final sample size of 14 respondents ($n=14$).

Procedure

Adolescents were originally going to be recruited in person from health and psychology classes in five public high schools. The study aimed to include a minimum of 150 student participants. After obtaining approval from school district administration and Harvard University's Committee on the Use of Human Subjects, school administrations would invite principals of each school to reach out to health and psychology teachers from their school. Teachers would be asked to invite students from their classes to participate in the survey by distributing a flyer which explained the purpose of the study and how to participate. Initial inclusion criteria included (1) full time student status in a participating high school, (2) willingness to complete and return a demographic information sheet (Appendix A), (3) returning a consent document signed by a parent or guardian and (4) completing an assent form. The study Recruitment Description (Appendix G) would be distributed to each participant during health or physical

education classes to take home at return after completion. Students over the age of eighteen would provide personal consent. Students who failed to return signed parental consent forms, who provided incomplete demographic information or surveys, would be eliminated from the dataset. Teachers would be reminded to emphasize that participation was completely voluntary and that all information provided would be kept private and confidential.

The Covid-19 Pandemic struck during the IRB application process, which reformed and restricted all in-person research by Harvard University affiliates. Due to restrictions, study recruiting modifications were necessary. The following alternative method was approved by Harvard University's Committee on the Use of Human Subjects:

Method 1 Alt. The researcher completed and submitted electronic research applications to each high school district, per specification of respective Departments of Planning and Research. When research applications were accepted by the districts, the researcher would invite psychology and health teachers to upload and post the study announcement onto their school's online remote learning communication/assignment platform (ie: Canvas, Zoom, Schoology, etc.), because in-person instruction was not occurring due to CoVid-19. The Recruitment Description can be found in Appendix G.

The advertisement contained a brief explanation of the study, how to participate and information about its duration. It also contained links to parental consent and child assent smart-documents that would be electronically signed and submitted through Qualtrics. No further action was required of teachers, principals or school administration.

Four school districts denied approval or declined to participate, citing difficulties related to Covid-19 restrictions, absentee student bodies, and excessive teacher workload. Response from the remaining district had not been received as of the date of this study's publication.

Method 2. A description of the study was submitted to representatives of Children Helping Science (CHS), an online research platform for parents and children. After approval from Harvard's Committee for use of Human Subjects and CHS review, a brief explanation about the study was posted on their website to recruit participants (see Appendix G). The description on the site specified that participating children should be between the ages of 13 and 18 years old, (per CHS study category age delineations). The study remained active on the site for approximately 8 weeks or until a suitable number of participants enrolled, for a maximum of 200 participants. Parents elect to register their children by providing their child's name, age and the parent's email. A consent document was not required because consent is done by providing their child's information and an email address. CHS notified the researcher by email when a child was registered to participate. The researcher then used Qualtrics to generate an email message containing a link to the survey to the email provided by the parent. The researcher was able to confirm receipt of parental consent using this method so that parental email was involved and verified.

Method 3. Respondent driven sampling (RDS) was employed as a third recruiting method after Method 1 was denied by school districts in attempt to expand the study sample. RDS is a sampling method utilized to gain access to sample populations that are typically difficult to reach. Adolescents are a vulnerable population and because broad

participation could not be facilitated through schools, network-sampling (a type of RDS) directly through parents was performed. An initial source of individuals consented to participate, then they invite other participants to join in successive waves such that the sample population expands or *snowballs* from the *seed* group.

An email contact list was volunteered to the researcher by a parent from a social-network of parents. After applying for and receiving a recruitment modification approval from Harvard's Committee for Use of Human Subjects, the researcher was provided the contact list. The Study Invitation email was sent to addresses on the list (see Appendix H). Parents provided consent by replying to an embedded link to consent forms in Qualtrics. Parents were prompted to select a box, enter their email once again and type in their initials to provide electronic consent in Qualtrics. Qualtrics was set up to alert the researcher when parents consented. When the researcher received email notification from Qualtrics that a parent provided consent, the researcher manually generated an anonymous link to the surveys.

That Qualtrics link was then pasted into an email generated from a dedicated email account exclusively used for the study and was forwarded to the parent. Parents shared the survey link with their adolescent.

During the study, students completed 4 self-report questionnaires and a demographic form in Qualtrics using a computer or a handheld electronic device such as a tablet or cell phone. Questionnaires were drafted using language that students understand and are established as valid and reliable measures for adolescent populations. Participants took the surveys on their own, outside of the class. Completion of the surveys took roughly 25-30 minutes. Participants filled out surveys only once.

Students were compensated for their participation by being entered into a raffle for an electronic device. Debriefing information was emailed to parents post data analysis to ensure that the research goal was not disclosed to the sample population during the data collection process. Surveys containing incomplete information were omitted from data analysis. Hard copies of survey were not required or used for any part of the study. Participant identities (where applicable) were not attached to completed questionnaires to insure privacy and confidentiality. Questionnaires were accessed and maintained through Qualtrics which utilizes a two-step log in procedure for security. No useful identifying information linking participants to data was kept; alternatively, a numbering system was established to manage surveys. Responses were kept confidential and data were viewed solely by the researcher. Data were retained after completion of statistical analysis, finalization of the study, with no identifying information about participants.

Instruments

The study employed self-report questionnaires to measure shame, self-perception and future expectations.

Demographic information. A demographic questionnaire collecting the following information: gender, age, grade, school district (city), type of schooling, race, income and military affiliation. (Appendix A).

Shame. The Test of Self-Conscious Affect-Adolescent – TOSCA-A is a scenario-based survey developed by J. P. Tangney et al. (1991) that has been used extensively to evaluate shame and guilt (Appendix B). The questionnaire measures self-conscious emotions such as shame, guilt, pride, externalization of blame and apathy in adolescents. Fifteen brief scenarios are presented and each one is followed by an assessment of shame and guilt using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 is *not at all likely* and 5 is *very likely*. This assessment has shown high validity in empirical studies with reliabilities reported between 0.77 and 0.82 for shame and guilt scales (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Internal and external shame. The Adolescent Shame-Proneness Scale (ASPS) is a 19-item scale used to assess three components of shame-proneness: negative self-evaluation, externalization and emotional discomfort (Appendix D; Simonds et al., 2015). Participants are asked to write three examples of recent instances where they felt shame, then presented with 19 short prompts of scenarios which ask about feelings of shame that are measured on a Likert scale of 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*a lot*). Test-retest reliability has been demonstrated in studies of 11-18-year-old populations.

Future Expectations. The Future Expectations Questionnaire (FESA) (Appendix E; McWhirter & McWhirter, 2008) evaluates positive and negative perceptions of

adolescent's futures using questions covering 5 domains including work & education, marriage & family, church & community, health and child's future. Questions are scored using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 equals *definitely not*, 2 is *probably not*, 3 means *unsure*, 4 means *probably will* and 5 indicates *definitely will*. Scores are derived totaling then averaging across subscales.

Self-Perception. The Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents-SPPA (Harter, 2012) measures self-perception and global self-worth of adolescents ages 13-18 across nine distinct domains. Eight domains evaluate self-perception while the ninth measures global self-worth separately. Questions ask whether a two-sided sentence statement is '*really true for*' or '*sort of true for*' the participant. The statements are counter balanced such that each side of the sentence represents an opposing sentiment, and participants are directed to select the side that best represents what they are like. The sentences are scored on a Likert scale of 1-4. Scores are positively and negatively scored to insure selections are intentional.

Chapter V.

Results

Twenty participants completed electronic surveys. Three were recruited through the CHS website and the remaining 17 were recruited using snowball sampling. Data were exported from an Excel spreadsheet into JASP for analysis.

The extensive analysis planned for the original study was not possible given the limited sample size, therefore, fundamental statistical analyses were applied to the dataset. The analysis included t-tests, correlation analysis, simple linear regression and ANOVA. The results are presented hereafter including detailed discussion of hypotheses.

Demographic Factors

Among the 20 participants, six were subsequently omitted from the dataset for failing to complete one or more assessment in the survey. The remaining sample ($n=14$) included 7 males and 7 females. Racial representation can be found in (Table 1). No participant identified as transgender or non-binary, thus these categories were omitted during analysis. Participants ranged in age from 13 to 18, with 2 thirteen-year-old participants (female), 4 fourteen-year-olds (male), 1 fifteen-year old (female), 5 sixteen-year-olds (2 female), 1 seventeen-year-old (female) and 1 eighteen-year-old female (Table 2). Seven participants were in middle school (3 female), the remaining participants were 1 freshman (female), 2 sophomores (male), 2 juniors (1 female, 1 male) and 2 seniors (male).

Most respondents (71.43%) were from civilian families followed by retired military families and active duty military families which both consisted of 14.29%. Male

adolescents from civilian families made up 42.86% of participants, followed by females at 28.57%. Active duty (2 female) and retired military (1 female, 1 male) participants each made up 14.29%.

Table 1. Frequency for race and gender

	Total	Female	Male
	14	7	7
Black	2	1	1
	14.29%	7.14%	7.14%
White	6	3	3
	42.86%	21.43%	21.43%
Hispanic	2	2	0
	14.29%	14.29%	0
multiracial	4	1	3
	28.57%	7.14%	21.43%

Public school participant accounted for 78.57% (42.9 % male, 35.7% female) of the total, followed by 14.29% for private school (50% male) and finally 7.14% home school adolescents (1 female).

Table 2. Frequency for age.

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
13	2	14.286	14.286	14.286
14	4	28.571	28.571	42.857
15	1	7.143	7.143	50.000
16	5	35.714	35.714	85.714
17	1	7.143	7.143	92.857
18	1	7.143	7.143	100.000
Missing	0	0.000		
Total	14	100.000		

Prior to hypothesis testing, analyses were conducted to examine any influence of demographic factors on shame scores. Correlation analysis were performed to establish means, medians and standard deviations for factors of gender, age, grade, city, schooling type, race, income and military affiliation. First, *shame* was extracted from the TOSCA-A and examined as an independent variable. The factor was calculated by establishing a grand total for all questions on the subscale for shame. *Shame* scores ranged from 29 to 55 ($M = 42.43$, $SD = 8.29$). Next, regressions were conducted for shame against each demographic factor. Results were not significant for any factor save for gender ($p < .001$, $\beta = -6.0$, $R^2 = 0.141$), as can be seen in Table 3. These data met assumptions for regression, therefore results suggested a significant relationship between gender and shame.

Further examination of the phenomenon between shame and gender prompted linear regressions of two separate shame factors. The factor *SHAMEscore* was calculated

by averaging total scores across all five subscales of the TOSCA-A which provided a global or overall shame score. On average, adolescent female shame scores were higher (45.43) than that of adolescent males (39.43) and results of the regression suggested a significant linear relationship between shame and gender ($\beta = -6.0, p < .001, R^2 = 0.14$). Because the overall model did not show significance ($p = 0.186$) further analysis was conducted using variable *SHAMEscore*. *SHAMEscore* figures ranged from 2.68 to 3.65 ($M = 3.13, SD = 0.257$). Results from regression analyses suggested a significant relationship between *SHAMEscore* and gender ($p < .001, \beta = -0.26, R^2 = .275$). These results suggest a linear relationship between gender and shame. This model neared significance at ($p = .054$), which suggests that model containing *SHAMEscore* better explained the overall relationship between gender and shame than the model containing the variable *shame* alone.

Table 3. Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized	Standard Error	Standardized	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Upper
H ₀	(Intercept)	3.127	0.069		45.484	< .001	2.979	3.276
H ₁	(Intercept)	3.517	0.193		18.254	< .001	3.097	3.937
	gender	-0.260	0.122	-0.524	-2.134	0.054	-0.526	0.006

Note. H1 = Gender and *SHAMEscore*

The researcher ranked shame scores according to the TOSCA-A scale from *seldom* (low), *average*, and *often* (high). Twelve of fourteen (85.71%) participants in the sample ranked high in shame or reported experiencing feeling shame often.

The next analysis used simple linear regression to explore self-perception and future expectations data from the SPPA assessment. Residual, probability and scatter plots were reviewed and they met assumptions. Results suggested that self-perception has a significant negative linear relationship with future expectations ($p < .001$, $\beta = -2.922$, $M = 17.4$, $SD = 2.646$, $R^2 = 0.205$, $CI -6.541 - 0.697$).

Future Expectations and shame

Having confirmed shame's relationship to gender in these study data, attention was directed to the variable of interest, future expectations. To address the objective of assessing the relationship between shame and future expectations, moreover to specifically test the hypothesis that adolescents who score high in shame will score low in future expectations, separate analyses were run utilizing factors *shame* and *SHAMEscore*. Then analyses were run to test future expectations with *FEscore* and *FEtotal* against *shame*. To begin, correlations were run between factors to test for assumptions.

Next, simple linear regression was performed for *FEscore* (future expectations profile score averaged across subscales) as the dependent variable and *shame* (independent category score from TOSCA-A assessment) as the independent variable. Average score on *FEscore* fell between 12.06 to 27.4 ($M = 18.81$, $SD = 2.08$) and results suggested a significant linear relationship between *shame* and *FEscore* ($p < .001$,

$\beta = -0.204$, $R^2 = 0.163$). Further, as shame increased, FEscore decreased (Fig 1). The overall model p-value ($p = .152$) was not significant, R^2 explained 16.3% of the variability.

Figure 1. Partial regression plot of shame vs FEscore.

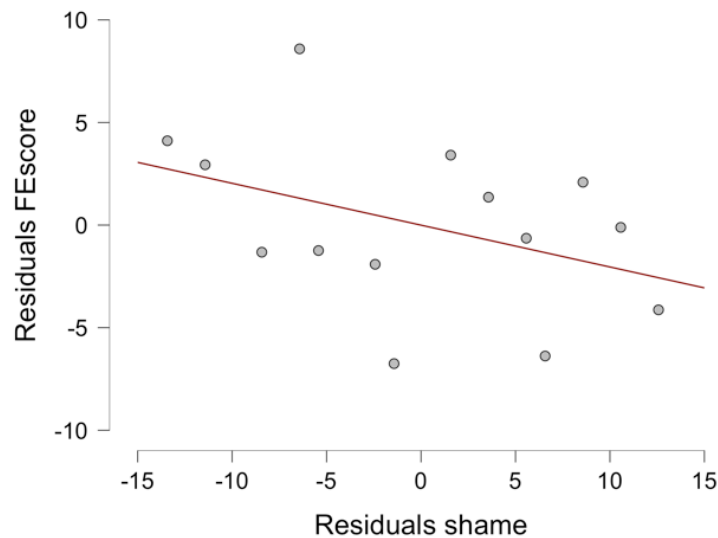


Figure 1. Partial regression plot of shame vs FEscore

The next procedure was a regression for *shame* as independent variable and *FEtotal* (the sum score of subscale categories) as the dependent variable. Shame scores ranged from 59 to 113 ($M = 42.43$, $SD = 8.23$) and results suggested a significant relationship between shame and FEtotal ($p < .001$, $\beta = -0.46$, $R^2 = 0.049$). The R-squared value of this model explained more variability than the previous model approached as it approached 50%.

Additionally, significance was determined between shame and each subscale factor of the future expectations measure (work education, ($p < .02$), marriage and family ($p < .001$), church and community ($p < .021$), health ($p < .005$), children's future ($p < .009$).

Subsequent analysis employed the factor *SHAMEscore*, results follow.

Table 4. Linear Regression shame_FEttotal

Coefficients					
Model		Unstandardized	Standard Error	Standardized	t p
H ₀	(Intercept)	89.571	4.564		19.625 < .001
H ₁	(Intercept)	109.015	25.031		4.355 < .001
	shame	-0.458	0.580	-0.222	-0.790 0.445

To examine global shame's relationship to future expectations, simple linear regression was conducted on *SHAMEscore* with *FEscore* and *FEtotal*. To reiterate, global shame is measured by totaling each of six subscales on the TOSCA-A and averaging across that score. Neither regression reached significance: *FEscore* ($p = .196$,

$\beta = -0.437$, $M = 18.81$, $SD = 4.19$) and *FE total* ($p = .672$, $M = 89.57$, $SD = 17.07$), suggesting no statistically significant relationship between adolescent global shame (*SHAMEscore*) and independent or the average profile score for future expectations.

Further analysis was conducted utilizing a different instrument to measure discrete aspects of overall shame in relation to future expectations. To start, scores from three subscales on the ASPS (Adolescent Shame Proneness Scale) were used for simple linear regressions. The three factors included negative self-evaluation(*negSelEvl*),

externalization(*extrnaASP*), and emotional discomfort(*emotDis*). Results reached significance for each subscale: *negSelEvl* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -0.378$, $M = 10.79$, $SD = 8.16$, $R^2 = 0.033$, $CI -1.672 - 0.916$), *extrnaASP* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -1.686$, $M = 4.714$, $SD = 3.931$, $R^2 = 0.151$, $CI -4.205 - 0.832$), *emotDis* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -1.537$, $M = 8.78$, $SD = 4.49$, $R^2 = 0.164$, $CI -3.724 - 0.650$). Evaluation of scatter and residual plots determined that assumptions were met, thus these results suggest a negative linear relationship between *FEtotal* and domains of shame.

Next, analyses were performed for each ASPS subscale factor and *FEscore* for comparison. Results, again, suggested significant relationships for each factor subscale: *negSelEvl* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -0.186$, $M = 10.79$, $SD = 8.16$; $R^2 = 0.132$, $CI -0.487 - 0.114$), *extrnaASP* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -0.529$, $M = 4.17$, $SD = 3.931$, $R^2 = 0.247$, $CI -1.111 - 0.052$), *emotDis* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -0.376$, $M = 8.79$, $SD = 4.49$, $R^2 = 0.163$, $CI -0.912 - 0.161$), providing evidence of a negative linear relationship between adolescent shame and future expectations.

Finally, Global self-evaluation is an independent factor measured by the ASPS and is scored on a separate scale within the measure. Analysis was run with this variable to determine any relationship between global self-worth (*globSelWth*) and future expectations. Regressions for *globSelWth* and *FEscore* and *FEtotal* each suggested significance where *globSelWth* predicted *FEtotal* ($p < .001$, $\beta = -3.678$, $M = 10.43$, $SD = 1.91$, $R^2 = 0.169$) and predicted *FEscore* ($p < .001$, $\beta = M = 10.42$, $SD = 1.910$, $R^2 = 0.143$).

Future Expectations and Income

Lastly, analyses were performed to test the second hypothesis that future expectations differ for household income and shame score, specifically that adolescents in lower income homes, who score high in shame will score lower on future expectations. Although factorial analysis is the appropriate statistic for this evaluation, the procedure could not be conducted with confidence to test this hypothesis given the small sample size. Alternatively, a simplified one-way AVOVA was conducted. First, a new factor called *income_rank* was created then *income* was coded for levels: *high* and *low*. Results from analysis conducted between *income_rank* and FEscore did not reach significance ($p = 0.502$, $F = 0.478$), nor did results for FEtotal and *income_rank* ($p = 0.838$, $F = 0.044$). These results suggested that no significant differences exist between adolescent household income level and future expectations when evaluated independent of the factor shame.

Chapter VI.

Discussion

This study aimed to examine the phenomenon between shame and future expectations in adolescent populations. Despite extensive research on adolescent shame and the literature on future expectations, no prior study sought to identify a connection between them. Hence, this study provides new information by demonstrating that shame in adolescence can contribute to their future expectations. One goal of the investigation was to include a heterogeneous sample of participants from broad socioeconomic, racial and military backgrounds, as well as gender representation. Although significant differences were not identified between shame scores and factors of race, income, city school district, schooling type or military affiliation in this study, shame scores differed in female and male adolescents. Adolescent females on average reported higher levels of global shame than males. Further, female adolescents also scored higher than males when shame was extracted as a single-score category using the TOSCA-A measure. These findings were not surprising and correspond to contemporary knowledge about adolescent shame in existing literature (Simonds et al., 2015; Tangney et al., 1991). Further, it is notable that these results reflect those of other studies, despite this study's small sample size which lends support for validity and reliability of the instruments used. This may also provide added merit to findings of this study. Additional consideration should be given to the large percentage of participants ranking high in shame. A large majority of the sample reported feeling shame often and this rank held across all factors

including gender, age, grade, income, military affiliation, school district and race. These results likely point to the commonality of experiencing shame in adolescence.

Concerning future expectations, results suggested significant relationships between adolescent shame and future expectations when shame was evaluated as a single factor. This study also identified a significant relationship between self-perception in adolescence and future expectations. It is reasonable to find a relevant relationship between self-perception and shame as they share an affective component, hence it is reasonable to suggest that feelings about ones' self in adolescence could influence FE.

However, as suggested in other studies, 'self' and self-belief may not be as reliable a factor at identifying future expectancies as valence weighting biases due to the use of contextualized background information employed by top-down cognitive processing (Niese et al., 2018). Differences in cognitive processing and perspective taking may be an aspect to consider in prospective study designs as shame may be a more precise indicator of FE.

Strikingly, as hypothesized, participants scoring high in shame scored low on future expectations. The factor *shame* was used to anchor the analysis as it provided an unambiguous, consistent, quantitative measure of the emotion. This approach proved to be useful for evaluating the questions of interest. Global shame, however, revealed no significant relationship with adolescent future expectations using the TOSCA-A. Differences in findings between global shame and shame are not unexpected since global shame assesses an overall psychological state by including multiple discriminant subscales combined as a total profile score. Further, global shame encompasses indistinct aspects of self-belief, which can yield ambiguity to assessment. The resulting effect is

likely to inflect variability into global shame scores. Additional studies are required to investigate variability in the results between the two factors in larger samples.

Alternatively, shame scores were consistent at predicting future expectations on the ASPS and TOSCA-A. Negative self-evaluation, externalization and emotional discomfort reported by adolescents predicted negative future expectations and again, supported the directional hypothesis that higher shame scores predict lower future expectations. These findings indicate specific information about how negative self-evaluation, emotional discomfort and externalization associate with adolescent future expectation formation while providing observation of discrete aspects of adolescent shame. These results are consistent with assertions that self-efficacy and agency are related to future expectations (Bandura, 2001). In the instance of testing global shame as an independent factor using the ASPS, global shame indeed predicted future expectations. This may be explained by evidence that bottom-up cognitive processes drive first-person, intrinsic personal biases (Niese, et al., 2018). More examinations of the relationship between cognition, affective emotions and future expectancies are required. Agreement across two common assessments of adolescent shame cautiously reinforce results of this study despite the small sample size. Moreover, the consistency in results adds to the existing body of knowledge about how adolescent future expectations develop.

Finally, evidence was not found to support the hypothesis that adolescents from lower income homes who score high in shame, score low in future expectations. Though the hypothesis was not supported, these results alone are interesting because they potentially dispel notations about differences in future expectancies between adolescents

who live in households of modest incomes versus those from wealthier backgrounds. If income alone is not a significant predictor of adolescent future expectations and other factors such as shame interact with demographic variables to predict future expectations, alternative approaches to providing support for adolescents beyond financial resources could prove especially useful. The universality of experiencing shame in adolescence across age, gender and SES could be critical to providing deeper understanding, therefore further studies examining the potential relationship between future expectations and shame in larger adolescent sample populations will be necessary.

Chapter VII.

Research Limitations

This study produced evidence suggesting that shame contributes to the formation of adolescent future expectations. However, several limitations should be regarded. Although the study included an even split of male and female adolescent participants, it fell short in sample size. The pandemic severely affected recruiting methods. The respondent driven sampling or snowballing procedure was deployed as an alternative to traditional recruiting methods in an effort to expand the sample size organically such that each wave of participants would invite or recruit the next. Although evidence suggests that this method is useful at establishing a random sample because it starts with a convenience sample, one notable limitation is that it provides no basis for inferring validity to general populations. Homophily, or the connections between those within a network sample, can only be adjusted statistically to compensate for biases and variance when a sample size becomes large enough (Heckathorne & Cameron, 2017). In this study, snowballing of participants was slow, hence the sample did not reach substantial size for assumptions of RDS to be met. It is possible that homophily in the sample was high or that individuals shared close connections or similar factors that were unknown to the researcher. When homophily is high, meaning potential connections between respondents is high, standard error increases (Heckathorne, 2002). Because far fewer respondents participated than originally planned, the power of this study may not be insufficient to validate statistical analysis, thus significance must be implied cautiously. Future investigations could utilize either network sampling to access populations of adolescents for longer periods of time to encourage more waves of

participants, begin with broader seed populations to facilitate effective snowballing or approach recruiting from a more traditional perspective to attain a large enough sample size to run broader statistical analysis. Another primary goal of further research should be to include a diverse adolescent sample population. An additional drawback of this study is that it utilized a measure for future expectations that unfortunately isn't consistently used. Assessments of FE could benefit from a more universally accepted tool that approaches the construct holistically. One aim of this investigation is to provide additional support for an assessment that is sensitive to the multidimensional nature of FE. The FE measure employed in this study enhances the capability of viewing domain-specific aspects with one tool to potentially streamline results across studies. The lack of an experimental design involving application of a treatment and a control group is another limitation of this study. This observational study can cautiously imply correlations and offer valuable information about phenomenon; however, it offers no usefulness for causal inferences. Administration of a treatment could be a focus for future studies. One final limitation of this examination is that although the focus of this study was to assess adolescent shame, existing self-report shame measures for adolescents do not isolate shame, so shame is juxtaposed with questions regarding guilt and or with subscales involving externalization, negative self-evaluation, etc. Because of this, the study used multiple assessments to investigate the hypotheses. Using two metrics may be bothersome for producing concise and reliable results.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, this study enhances the literature on shame and future expectations. Strengths lie with the novelty of correlating shame and future expectations in adolescent populations by presenting a unique perspective.

Moreover, results identified a negative directional relationship between the two constructs, supporting the main hypothesis. Lastly, by utilizing two parallel recruiting methods simultaneously, the sample was inadvertently divided into middle school and high school participants. This partitioning cautiously bolsters the significance of the results because network sampling literature suggests that separating the sample helps to adjust for homophily that may affect the accuracy of statistical analysis notwithstanding the sample size of the study.

Chapter VIII.

Implications

Shame's link to predicting behavior in adolescence (Reimer, 1996; Stuewig et al., 2015) plus its connections to psychological symptomology and dysfunction in adulthood (Dorahy et al., 2015; Pinto-Gouveia & Matos, 2011; Robinaugh & McNally, 2010) reinforce the pertinence of continued studies in adolescent populations. Social demands placed upon contemporary adolescents are different and potentially more damaging than any other time in human history. Technology's ever-present influence from social media, entertainment and peers, pressure young people to measure up to unrealistic standards set by fabricated esthetics, material possessions and exceptional experiences. Feelings of insecurity, doubt, unworthiness, self-blame, worthlessness, pain elicited by shame undermine self-confidence while provoking desire to withdraw and hide. The shame literature explains that when left unchecked, depressive symptoms, self-injury, suicidal ideation, eating disorders, high-risk sexual behavior, and illegal activity (Robinaugh & McNally; Stuewig, 2014; Tangney, 2015) can occur. There is greater need than ever for new tools and resources to more effectively manage the constant sensory input impacting adolescents' emotions and thoughts.

The goal of this inquiry was to provide an opportunity to explore adolescent shame, overall future expectancies as well as discrete aspects of those expectancies. Identifying a connection between shame and future belief in adolescence uncovers an emotional influence on the complexity of expectancy formation. My hope is to encourage

new ways to understand and engage young people during their adolescence to help them better understand themselves and promote acquisition of tools to manage negative emotions. If adolescents who rank high in shame can be identified then there is potential to offer supportive intervention to counteract developing low future expectations. For example, adolescents could be dually evaluated for shame and future expectations to identify those potentially struggling with negative self-identification. Then school psychologists could work to improve emotional awareness for parents and adolescents by directly educating those families. Another approach could be a general campaign to increase overall awareness and destigmatize feelings of shame in adolescence. This could be effective at reaching a broad audience of youth. In this way, adolescents plus those in their social environment including caregivers, parents, teachers, administrators and community all gain valuable information that becomes applicable for intervention.

Conclusions

Very little is known with respect to how adolescents construct vision for their future. Literature on future expectations informs us that future expectations can predict behavior, achievement and well-being, yet factors influencing the development of thoughts and beliefs about future expectancies have rarely been identified. Further examination shame and other affective emotions will expand our knowledge about how cognition guides future expectation formation in adolescence.

Adolescence is already period of extreme change moreover, this generation of youth experience challenges faced by no group before them due to the rapidly advancing society they were born into. Consequently, they are confronted with the task of growing into adulthood while navigating new societal demands brought on by the technological age. Adolescents require accurate and useful information, tools and support to transition adequately through this phase. Improved insight can encourage success in myriad ways. First, success can be nurtured by promoting protective factors against psychological distress or dysfunction in adolescence through awareness of shame and its influence on future expectations. Next, evaluating shame and future expectations can be a tool for those who support adolescents, including families, educators, communities and policy makers. Finally, developing practices to stimulate healthy identity formation, positive relationships and community support for adolescents can be achieved.

Society is pivoting to a more informed perspective by beginning to acknowledge the impact of thoughts and emotions on overall health, well-being and thriving. Therefore, these findings offer new methods for utilizing existing tools to assess and examine how negative adolescent emotions and thoughts effect their futures.

The troublesome nature of excessive shame warrants deep understanding about its contribution to adolescent future expectations. The novelty of this study emphasizes the necessity of more research on shame and to uncover whether the emotion can influence cognitive mechanisms impacting belief development in adolescence.

Appendix A.

Demographic questionnaire

1. I identify as:

- Female
- Male
- Transgender
- Non-binary

2. Please circle your current age

14

15

16

17

18

3. Please indicate your current school grade level.

- Middle School
- Freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior

4. Which is your city school District?

- Newport News
- Chesapeake
- Virginia Beach
- Norfolk
- Hampton
- Suffolk
- Isle of Wight
- Other

5. Which type of schooling do you receive (Please select best answer)

- public
- private
- home school
- parochial

6. What is your race?

- White/Caucasian
- African American
- Hispanic
- Asian
- Native American
- Pacific Islander
- Other
- Prefer not to answer

7. Please select your household income range?

- under \$50,000
- \$51,000 - \$75,000
- \$76,00 - \$100,000
- \$101,000 - \$150,00
- above \$150,000

8. Please indicate if your parents or primary caregiver have a military affiliation

- Civilian family
- Active duty Military family
- Retired Military family

Appendix B.

Test of Self-Conscious Affect-Adolescent (TOSCA-A, Tangney et al., 1991)

1. You trip in the cafeteria and spill your friend's drink.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would be thinking that everyone is watching me and laughing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would feel very sorry. I should have watched where I was going.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I wouldn't feel bad because it didn't cost very much.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "I couldn't help it. The floor was slippery."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. For several days you put off talking to a teacher about a missed assignment. At the last minute you talk to the teacher about it, and all goes well.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "I guess I'm more convincing than I thought."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would regret that I put it off.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would feel like a coward.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "I handled that well."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) I would think: "The teacher should have asked me about it first. It's her job."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. While playing around, you throw a ball and it hits your friend in the face.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would feel stupid that I can't even throw a ball.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "Maybe my friend needs more practice at catching."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would think: "It was just an accident."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would apologize and make sure my friend feels better.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. You and a group of classmates worked very hard on a project. Your teacher singles you out for a better grade than anyone else.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "The teacher is playing favorites."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would feel alone and apart from my classmates.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would feel that my hard work had paid off.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would feel competent and proud of myself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) I would tell the teacher that everyone should get the same grade.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. You break something at a friend's house and then hide it.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "This is making me anxious. I need to either fix it or replace it."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would avoid seeing that friend for a while.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would think: "A lot of things aren't made very well."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "It was only an accident."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. At school, you wait until the last minute to plan a project, and it turns out badly.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would feel useless and incompetent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "There are never enough hours in the day."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would feel that I deserve a bad grade.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "What's done is done."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. You wake up one morning and remember it's your mother's birthday. You forget to get her something.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "It's not the gift that matters. All that really matters is that I care."	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐
b) I would think: "After everything she's done for me, how could I forget her birthday?"	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐
c) I would feel irresponsible and thoughtless.	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐
d) I would think: "Someone should have reminded me."	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐

8. You walk out of a test thinking you did extremely well. Then you find out you did poorly.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would feel that I should have done better. I should have studied more.	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐
b) I would feel stupid.	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐
c) I would think: "It's only a test."	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐
d) I would think: "The teacher must have graded it wrong."	☐	-----	☐	-----	☐

9. You make a mistake at school and find out a classmate is blamed for the error.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "The teacher does not like the classmate."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "Life is not fair."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would keep quiet and avoid the classmate.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would feel unhappy and eager to correct the situation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. You were talking in class and your friend got blamed. You go to the teacher and tell him the truth.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "The teacher should have gotten the facts straight before he blamed my friend."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would feel like I always get people in trouble.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would feel good about setting the record straight.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would be proud of myself for being an honest person.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) I would think: "I'm the one who should get in trouble. I shouldn't have been talking in the first place."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. You and your friend are talking in class and you get in trouble.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "I should know better. I deserve to get in trouble."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "We were only whispering."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would think: "The teacher is unfair."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would feel like everyone in the class was looking at me and they were about to laugh.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. You make plans to meet a friend. Later you realize you stood them up.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "I'm inconsiderate."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "Well, they'll understand."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would try to make it up to them as soon as possible.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "Someone distracted me just before I was supposed to meet my friend."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. You volunteer to help raise money for a good cause. Later you want to quit, but you know your help is important.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would feel selfish and I'd think I am basically lazy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "I was pressured into helping."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would think: "I should be more concerned about doing whatever I can to help."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would feel great that I had helped.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) I would feel very satisfied with myself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Your report card isn't as good as you wanted. You show it to your parents when you get home.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would think: "Everyone gets bad grades once in a while."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "I really didn't deserve the grades, it wasn't my fault."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) Now that I got a bad report card, I would feel worthless.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "I should listen to everything the teacher says and study harder."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. You have recently moved to a new school and everyone has been very helpful. A few times you had to ask some big favors, but you returned the favors as soon as you could.

	not at all likely	unlikely	maybe (half & half)	likely	very likely
a) I would feel like a failure.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) I would think: "Maybe this school doesn't do enough to help new students."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) I would be especially nice to the people who had helped me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) I would think: "I am smart to ask for help when I need it."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e) I would be proud that I returned the favors.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix C.

Score Sheet for TOSCA-A (Tangney et al., 1991)

TOSCA-Adol*

The TOSCA-Adol (Test of Self-Conscious Affect for Adolescents; Tangney et al., 1991) is comprised of 10 negative and 5 positive scenarios yielding indices of Shame-proneness, Guilt-proneness, Externalization, Detachment/Unconcern, Alpha Pride, and Beta Pride. The scenarios and associated responses were drawn from, in part, the TOSCA for adults and, in part, from the TOSCA-C for children. Some of the items were rewritten slightly to make the content more relevant for adolescents.

Scoring for the TOSCA-Adol

1. a) Shame
b) Guilt
c) Detached
d) Externalization
2. a) Alpha Pride
b) Guilt
c) Shame
d) Beta Pride
e) Externalization
3. a) Shame
b) Externalization
c) Detached
d) Guilt
4. a) Externalization
b) Shame
c) Beta Pride

- d) Alpha Pride
- e) Guilt

5. a) Guilt
- b) Shame
 - c) Externalization
 - d) Detached

6. a) Shame
- b) Externalization
 - c) Guilt
 - d) Detached

7. a) Detached
- b) Guilt
 - c) Shame
 - d) Externalization

8. a) Guilt
- b) Shame
 - c) Detached
 - d) Externalization

9. a) Externalization
- b) Detached
 - c) Shame
 - d) Guilt

10. a) Externalization
- b) Shame
 - c) Beta Pride

- d) Alpha Pride
- e) Guilt

11. a) Guilt
- b) Detached
 - c) Externalization
 - d) Shame

12. a) Shame
- b) Detached
 - c) Guilt
 - d) Externalization

13. a) Shame
- b) Externalization
 - c) Guilt
 - d) Beta Pride
 - e) Alpha Pride

14. a) Detached
- b) Externalization
 - c) Shame
 - d) Guilt

15. a) Shame
- b) Externalization
 - c) Guilt
 - d) Alpha Pride
 - e) Beta Pride

Appendix D.

Adolescent Shame Proneness Scale (ASPS, Simonds et al., 2015)

Adolescent Shame Proneness Scale (ASPS) Simonds et al. (2015) ©

The ASPS is a 19-item measure assessing 3 components of shame-proneness—negative self-evaluation, externalization, and emotional discomfort. In the initial validation research, empirical studies supported the reliability and validity of the ASPS as a semi-idiographic measure of shame-proneness in adolescents aged 11 to 18 years. ASPS scores correlate as expected with scores on existing measure of shame-proneness and with measures of anger, negative affect, and self-esteem. However, further validation is required in other samples.

For full details of measure development and psychometric properties, please see the full article:

Simonds, L.M., John, M., Fife-Schaw, C., Willis, S., Taylor, H., Hand, H., Rahim, M., Winstanley, H. & Winton, H. (2016). Development and validation of the Adolescent Shame Proneness Scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 28, 549-562. The measure is to be presented as laid out below.

Scoring:

Sum the scores for all items within each subscale. There are no reverse-keyed items. A total score is not valid; the subscale scores should be used separately in any analyses. The subscale items are:

Negative Self-Evaluation (10 items): 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 14, 16, 17, 19

Externalisation (4 items): 5, 6, 7, 11

Emotional discomfort (5 items): 9, 12, 13, 15, 18

Adolescent Shame Proneness Scale

Instructions

It is common for young people to experience feelings of shame. Shame can occur when you have done something or when someone else has done something to you. Here are some examples of situations that might make young people feel shame:

- You are being bullied
- You make a mistake in front of your whole class and everyone laughs
- You do badly in a test or examination
- Your family cannot afford to buy you the newest gadgets or most fashionable clothes
- You are horrible about your best friend behind his/her back

IMPORTANT

Can you think of some situations that have happened recently where you have felt shame? Please write some down, in the spaces below. If you don't want to write them down, that's ok

1.

2.

3.

Below are some things that people might think, feel or do when they feel shame. Please read each one and circle the number next to how you would **generally** think, feel and act in situations like the ones you have written down. If you haven't written down the situations, just try to hold them in mind when thinking about the statements below.

EXAMPLE: Thinking back to times when you have felt shame, if you very often think "I am no good" then you would circle the number 3, as shown below.

	Not at all	A little bit	Quite a bit	A lot
I thought "I am no good"	0	1	2	3

Circle the number next to each statement below thinking about the situations you have written down	Not at all	A little bit	Quite a bit	A lot
1. I thought "I have let other people down"	0	1	2	3
2. I felt worthless and small	0	1	2	3
3. I thought "Other people must think I am no good"	0	1	2	3
4. I thought "I am a nasty person"	0	1	2	3
5. I wanted to shout and scream	0	1	2	3
6. I felt angry at other people	0	1	2	3
7. I wanted to seek revenge	0	1	2	3
8. I thought "No one likes me"	0	1	2	3
9. I felt disappointed	0	1	2	3
10. I thought "Other people must think I am stupid"	0	1	2	3
11. I wanted to punch walls or break things	0	1	2	3
12. I felt sad	0	1	2	3
13. I had a horrible feeling inside	0	1	2	3
14. I thought "I am no good"	0	1	2	3
15. I felt embarrassed	0	1	2	3
16. I thought "Other people must think I am nasty"	0	1	2	3
17. I thought "I am stupid"	0	1	2	3
18. I felt frustrated	0	1	2	3
19. I thought "It is better if I was not around"	0	1	2	3

Appendix E.

Future Expectations Assessment (FESA, McWhirter & McWhirter, 2008)

FESA English version (not formatted)

We would like to understand some of your future expectations. Please circle the response that best describes your expectations.

	Definitely Not	Probably Not	Unsure	Probably Will	Definitely Will
As an adult:					
1. I will be able to achieve the level of education that I want.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I will always have a place to live and enough to eat.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I will be able to achieve the things that I want to achieve.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I will be able to have the things that I want to have.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I will find a job that pays enough to support myself and my family.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My job will give me opportunities to be proud of myself.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I will find a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I will find a stable job.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I will find a job that I enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5
As an adult:					
10. I will feel satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I will get married.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I will get married before I am 25 years old.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My marriage will last for the rest of my life.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I will have children.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I will be able to provide a safe place to live for my children.	1	2	3	4	5

16. My children will grow up in a time of peace.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My children will live long lives.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I will go to mass or other religious services regularly.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I will participate in many church/religious activities.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I will be a leader in my community.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I will participate in sports.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I will have a healthy diet.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I will have good health.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I will live a long life.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I will live a happy life.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F.

Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPPA, Harter, 2012)

What I Am Like

Name _____ Age _____ Birthday _____ ☐ Boy ☐ Girl
 Month Day (check one)

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me		Sort of True for me	Really True for me
			Sample Sentence		
a.	☐	☐	Some teenagers like to go to movies in their spare time BUT Other teenagers would rather go to sports events	☐	☐
1.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are just as smart as others their age BUT Other teenagers aren't so sure and wonder if they are as smart	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends BUT Other teenagers find it pretty easy to make friends	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do very well at all kinds of sports BUT Other teenagers <i>don't</i> feel that they are very good when it comes to sports	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are <i>not</i> happy with the way they look BUT Other teenagers <i>are</i> happy with the way they look	☐	☐
5.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are ready to do well at a part-time job BUT Other teenagers feel that they are not quite ready to handle a part-time job	☐	☐
6.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that if they are romantically interested in someone, that person will like them back BUT Other teenagers worry that when they like someone romantically, that person <i>won't</i> like them back	☐	☐
7.	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually do the right thing BUT Other teenagers often don't do what they know is right	☐	☐
8.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are able to make really close friends BUT Other teenagers find it hard to make really close friends	☐	☐
9.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are often disappointed with themselves BUT Other teenagers are pretty pleased with themselves	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
10.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are pretty slow in finishing their school work	BUT	Other teenagers can do their school work quickly	☐	☐
11.	☐	☐	Some teenagers know how to make classmates like them	BUT	Other teenagers don't know how to make classmates like them	☐	☐
12.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think they could do well at just about any new athletic activity	BUT	Other teenagers are afraid they might not do well at a new athletic activity	☐	☐
13.	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their body was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their body the way it is	☐	☐
14.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they <i>don't</i> have enough skills to do well at a job	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they <i>do</i> have enough skills to do a job well	☐	☐
15.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are <i>not</i> dating the people they are really attracted to	BUT	Other teenagers <i>are</i> dating those people they are attracted to	☐	☐
16.	☐	☐	Some teenagers often get in trouble because of things they do	BUT	Other teenagers usually <i>don't</i> do things that get them in trouble	☐	☐
17.	☐	☐	Some teenagers <i>don't</i> know how to find a close friend with whom they can share secrets	BUT	Other teenagers <i>do</i> know how to find a close friend with whom they can share secrets	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't like the way they are leading their life	BUT	Other teenagers do like the way they are leading their life	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do very well at their classwork	BUT	Other teenagers <i>don't</i> do very well at their classwork	☐	☐
20.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't have the social skills to make friends	BUT	Other teenagers do have the social skills to make friends	☐	☐
21.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are better than others their age at sports	BUT	Other teenagers don't feel they can play as well	☐	☐
22.	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their physical appearance was different	BUT	Other teenagers like their physical appearance the way it is	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
23.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel they are old enough to get and keep a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers do not feel that they are old enough, yet, to really handle a job well	☐	☐
24.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that people their age will be romantically attracted to them	BUT	Other teenagers worry about whether people their age will be attracted to them	☐	☐
25.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel really good about the way they act	BUT	Other teenagers <i>don't</i> feel that good about the way they often act	☐	☐
26.	☐	☐	Some teenagers <i>do</i> know what it takes to develop a close friendship with a peer	BUT	Other teenagers <i>don't</i> know what to do to form a close friendship with a peer	☐	☐
27.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are happy with themselves most of the time	BUT	Other teenagers are often not happy with themselves	☐	☐
28.	☐	☐	Some teenagers have trouble figuring out the answers in school	BUT	Other teenagers almost always can figure out the answers	☐	☐
29.	☐	☐	Some teenagers understand how to get peers to accept them	BUT	Other teenagers <i>don't</i> understand how to get peers to accept them	☐	☐
30.	☐	☐	Some teenagers <i>don't</i> do well at new outdoor games	BUT	Other teenagers are good at new games right away	☐	☐
31.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think that they are good looking	BUT	Other teenagers think that they are not very good looking	☐	☐
32.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel like they could do better at work they do for pay	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they are doing really well at work they do for pay	☐	☐
33.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are fun and interesting on a date	BUT	Other teenagers wonder about how fun and interesting they are on a date	☐	☐
34.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do things they know they shouldn't do	BUT	Other teenagers hardly ever do things they know they shouldn't do	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
35.	☐	☐	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends they can really trust	BUT	Other teenagers <i>are</i> able to make close friends they can really trust	☐	☐
36.	☐	☐	Some teenagers like the kind of person they are	BUT	Other teenagers often wish they were someone else	☐	☐
37.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are pretty intelligent	BUT	Other teenagers question whether they are intelligent	☐	☐
38.	☐	☐	Some teenagers know how to become popular	BUT	Other teenagers do not know how to become popular	☐	☐
39.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do not feel that they are very athletic	BUT	Other teenagers feel that they <i>are</i> very athletic	☐	☐
40.	☐	☐	Some teenagers really like their looks	BUT	Other teenagers wish they looked different	☐	☐
41.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are really able to handle the work on a paying job	BUT	Other teenagers wonder if they are really doing as good a job at work as they should be doing	☐	☐
42.	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually <i>don't</i> go out with people they would really like to date	BUT	Other teenagers <i>do</i> go out with people they really want to date	☐	☐
43.	☐	☐	Some teenagers usually act the way they know they are supposed to	BUT	Other teenagers often don't act the way they are supposed to	☐	☐
44.	☐	☐	Some teenagers <i>don't</i> understand what they should do to have a friend close enough to share personal thoughts with	BUT	Other teenagers <i>do</i> understand what to do to have a close friend with whom they can share personal thoughts.	☐	☐
45.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are very happy being the way they are	BUT	Other teenagers often wish they were different	☐	☐

Susan Harter, Ph.D., University of Denver, 2012

Appendix G.

Recruitment Description (teachers)

Recruitment Description

Hello teachers and instructors. Please invite your students to participate in the following study by posting access to the following message:

A researcher at a University is conducting a study that aims to learn more about how adolescents feel and think and about things over time. They are interested in including high school students from your area in the study. You will be asked to answer a set of questionnaires. They will not take much time, likely 20-25 minutes or less. If you decide to participate, you will be provided detailed instructions on how to join the study. Study participation is totally voluntary and you are not required to participate. For your participation, you will be entered into a raffle to win an electronic device valued at \$90.00.

A link to directing you to an electronic document containing parental consent is included in this document, as you will need permission from a parent. All information and replies to the survey will be kept private and confidential. Any questions regarding participation can be directed to aftot223@gmail.com.

Thank you for your consideration.

parental consent link:

Appendix H.

Study Invitation

Study Invitation

Hello parents. We invite your children to participate in the following study:

A researcher at a university is conducting a study that aims to learn more about how adolescents feel and think and about things over time. They are interested in including students age 14-18 from your area in the study. Your child will be asked to answer a set of questionnaires. The survey will not take much time, likely 20-25 minutes or less. Study participation is totally voluntary and they are not required to participate. After you consent, a link to access the survey will be provided via email.

To further assist with this study, please feel free to forward this advertisement to others in your community whom you believe may have interest in participation.

For their participation, students will be entered into a raffle to win an electronic device valued at \$90.00. The researcher will use initial email addresses as the raffle entry and the winner will be contacted via email as well.

All information and replies to the survey will be kept private, confidential and will not be shared with any other party. Individual survey responses will be anonymous to the researcher, as they have no method to connect surveys to specific participants. Any questions can be directed to aftot223@gmail.com. *Please find the link to the parental consent document below. Once you provide consent, and another anonymous link to the survey will be emailed to you.*

Thank you for your consideration

References

- Andsoy, I. I., Karaca, S., Bingol, F., Eren, N. & Ayse, K. (2015). Comparison of subjective wellbeing and positive future expectations in between working and non-working adolescents in Turkey. *Iran Red Crescent Medical Journal*, 18 (2), doi:10.5812/ircmj.21055.
- Baldwin, K. M., Baldwin, J. R., & Ewald, T. (2006). The relationship among shame, guilt and self-efficacy. *American Journal of Psychotherapy*. 60, (1).
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs. NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A., Adams, N. E., & Beyer, J. (1977). Cognitive processes mediating behavioral change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 35, 125-139
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundation of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ:Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Self-regulation of motivation through anticipatory and self-reactive mechanisms. In R. A. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Perspectives on motivations: Nebraska symposium on motivation* (Vol. 38, pp. 69-164). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company.
- Bandura, A. (1999). A social cognitive theory of personality. In L. Pervin & O. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality*. (2nd ed., pp. 154-196). New York: Guilford.
- Bandura A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprar, G. V. Pastorelli, C. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs of children's aspirations and career trajectories. *Child Development*, 72 (1), 187-206.
- Barr, P. (2004). Guilt- and shame-proneness and the grief of perinatal bereavement. *Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 77, 493-510.
- Beal, S. J., Crockett, L., & Peugh, J. (2016). Adolescent's changing future expectations predict the timing of adult role transitions. *Developmental Psychology*, 52 (10), 1606-1618.
- Berk, L. E. (2014). *Exploring Lifestyle Development*, (3rd ed). Kendallville, IN: Pearson.

- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1989). Ecological systems theory. In R. Vasta (Ed.), *Six theories of child development annals of child development: A research annual* (pp.187-249). Greenwich CT: JAI Press
- Brown, B. (2006). Shame resilience theory: a grounded theory study on women and shame. *Families in Society*, 87 (1), 43-52.
- Callina, K. S., Johnson, S. K., Buckingham, M. K. & Lerner, R. M. (2014). Hope in context: Developmental profiles of trust, hopeful future expectations and civic engagement across adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 43 (6), 869-883.
- Callina, K. S., Johnson, S. K., Tirrell, J. M., Batanova, M., Weiner, M. B. & Lerner, R. M. (2017). Modeling pathways of character development across the first three decades of life: An application of integrative data analysis techniques to understand the development of hopeful future expectations. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*. 46, 1216-1237.
- Campbell, J. D. (1990). Self-esteem and clarity of self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 538-549.
- Carlton, M. P. & Winsler, A. (1998). Fostering intrinsic motivation in early childhood classrooms. *Early Childhood Education*, 25 (3), 159-166.
- Christoph, G., Goldhammer, F., Zylka, J., & Hartig, J. (2015). Adolescents' computer performance: The role of self-concept and motivational aspects. *Computers and Education*, 81, 1-12.
- Diamond, A. (2012). Activities and programs that improve children's executive functions. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*. 21 (5), 335-341.
- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D. & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92, 6, 1087-1101.
- Dorahy, M. J., Middleton, W., Seager, L., McGurrin, P., Williams, M., Chamners, R. (2015). Dissociation, shame, complex PTSD, childhood maltreatment, and intimate relationship self-concept in dissociative disorder, chronic PTSD and mixed psychiatric groups. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 172, 195-203.
- Eccles, J. S. (1999). The development of children ages 6 to 14. *The Future of Children*. 9, (2), 30-44.
- Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society*. New York: Norton.
- Eryilmaz, A. (2011). The relationship between adolescents' subjective well-being and positive expectations towards future. *The Journal of Psychiatry and Neurological Sciences*, 24, 209-215.

- Fite, R. E., Lindeman, M. I. H., Rogers, A. P., Voyles, E. & Durik, A. M. (2017). Knowing oneself and long-term goal pursuit: Relations among self-concept clarity, conscientiousness and grit. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 108, 191-194.
- Florencio, C. B. S., Silva, S. Ramos, M. F. H. (2017). Adolescent perceptions of stress and future expectations. *Paideia*, 27 (66), 60-68.
- Gilbert, P. (2017). Shame and the vulnerable self in the medical contexts: The compassion solution. *Medical Humanity*, 0, 1-7. doi:10.1136/medhum-2016-011159
- Gilbert, P., McEwan, K., Irons, C., Bhundia, R., Christie, R., Broomhead, C., & Rockliff, H. (2010). Self-harm in a mixed clinical population: The roles of self-criticism, shame, and social rank. *Clinical Psychology*, 49, 563-576.
- Goss, K., Gilbert, P. & Allan, S., (1994). An exploration of shame measures – I: The other as shamer scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 17, 5, 713-717.
- Grubbs, J. B., Wilt, J. Stauner, N., Exline, J., & Pargament, K. I. (2016). Self, struggle, and soul: linking personality, self-concept, and religious/spiritual struggle. *Personality and Individual Differences* 101, 144-152.
- Hanley, A. W. & Garland, E., L. (2017). Clarity of mind: structural equation modeling of associations between dispositional mindfulness, self-concept clarity and psychological well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences* 106, 334-339.
- Harter, S. (2012). Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents, Denver, CO
- Hecathorne, D. (2002). Respondent-driven sampling: A new approach to the study of hidden samples. *Soc. Probl.* 44 (2), 174-99.
- Heckathorne, D. & Cameron, C. (2017). Network sampling: from snowball and multiplicity to respondent-driven sampling. *Annual Review of Sociology* 43, 101-119.
- Iovu, M. (2014). Adolescent's positive expectations and future worries on their transition to adulthood. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 149, 433-437.
- Klein, K. & Dweck, C. S. (1995). Helplessness in early childhood: the role of contingent worth. *Child Development*, 66 (6), 1719-1738.
- Lerner, R. M., & Callina, K. S. (2014). Relational development systems theories and the ecological validity of experimental designs. *Human Development*, 56(6), 372-380.
- Lewis, H. B. (1971). *Shame and guilt in neurosis*. New York: International Universities Press, Inc.

- Lynd, H. (1958). *On shame and the search for identity*. New York: Science Editions, Inc.
- McWilliams, M. A., Nier, J. A. & Singer, J. A. (2012). The implicit self and the specificity-matching principle: Implicit self-concept predicts domain-specific outcomes. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 54, 474-478.
- McWhirter, E. H., & McWhirter, B. T. (2008). Adolescent expectations of work, education, family, and community: Development of a new measure. *Youth and Society*, 40, 182-202.
- Makogon, I. K. & Enikollpov, S. N. (2013). Problems with the assessment of shame and guilt. *Psychology in Russia: State of the Art*, 6, (4), 168-175.
- Niese, Z., A., Libby, L. K., Fazio, R. H., Eibach, R. P., & Pietri, E. S. (2018). Does the future look bright? Processing style determines the impact of valence weighting biases and self-beliefs on expectations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology: Attitudes and Social Cognition*, 116 (2), 193-214.
- Nurmi, J. (1991). How do adolescents see their future? A review of the development of future orientation and planning. *Developmental Review*, 11, 1-59.
- Oettingen, G. & Mayer, D. (2002). The motivating function of thinking about the future: expectations versus fantasies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83 (5), 1198-1212.
- Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Pilarska, A. (2016). How do self-concept differentiation and self-concept clarity interrelate in predicting sense of personal identity? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 102, 85-89.
- Pinto-Gouveai, J., & Matos, M. (2011). Can shame memories become a key to identity? The centrality of shame memories predicts psychopathology. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 25, 281-290.
- Prince, D. M. & Nurius, P. S. (2014). The role of positive academic self-concept in promoting school success. *Children and Youth Services Review*. 43, (145-152).
- Prince, D. M., Epstein, M., Nurius, P. S., Gorman-Smith, D., Henry, D. B. (2016). Reciprocal effects of positive future expectations, threats to safety, and risk behavior across adolescence. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychology*. 48 (1), 56-67.
- Quane, J. M. & Rankin, B. H. (1998). Neighborhood poverty, family characteristics, and commitment to mainstream goals; the case of African American adolescents in the inner city. *Journal of Family Issues*, 19 (6), 769-794.

- Raffaelli, M. & Koller, S. H. (2005). Future expectations of Brazilian street youth. *Journal of Adolescence*, 28, 249-262.
- Reimer, M. (1996). Sinking into the ground: The development and consequences of shame in adolescence. *Developmental Review*, 16, 321-363.
- Robinaugh, D. J. & McNally, R. J. (2010). Autobiographical memory for shame or guilt provoking events: Association with psychological symptoms. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 48, 646-652.
- Substance Abuse Mental Health Services Administration. (2014). *Trauma-informed care in behavioral health services*.
https://store.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/d7/priv/sma14-4816_litreview.pdf
- Schmid, K., L., Phelps, E. & Lerner, M. (2011). Constructing positive futures: Modeling the relationship between adolescent' future expectations and intentional self-regulation in predicting positive youth development. *Journal of Adolescence*, 34, 1127-1135.
- Schneider, C.D. (1977). *Shame, exposure and privacy*. Boston: Beacon.
- Seginer, R. (2008). Future orientation in times of threat and challenge. How resilient adolescents construct their future. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 32, 4, 272-282.
- Seligman, M. E., Railton, P., Baumeister, R. F., & Sripada, C. (2013). Navigating into the future or driven by the past. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 8, 2, 119-141.
- Showers, C. J., Ditzfeld, C. P., & Zeigler-Hill, V. (2014). Self-concept structure and the quality of self-knowledge. *Journal of Personality*, 83, 5, 534-551.
- Simonds, M. L., John, M., Fife-Schaw, C., Willis, S., Taylor, H., Hand, H...Winton, H. (2016). Development and validation of the adolescent shame-proneness scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 28, 549-562.
- Sipsma, H. L., Ickovics, J., R., Lin, H. & Kershaw, T, S. (2012). Future expectations among adolescents: A latent class analysis. *American Journal Community Psychology*, 50, 169-181.
- Stuewig, J., Tangney, J. P., Kendall, S., Folk, J. B., Reinsmith Meyer, C., Dearing, R. L. (2015). Children's proneness to shame and guilt predict risky and illegal behaviors in young adulthood. *Child Psychiatry Human Development*, 46, 217-227.
- Stoddard, S. A., & Pierce, J. (2015). Promoting positive future expectations during adolescence: The role of assets. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 56 (3 & 4), 332-341.

- Tangney, J. P., Miller, R. S., Flicker, L., & Barlow, D. H. (1996). Are shame, guilt and embarrassment distinct emotions? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70 (6), 1256-1269.
- Tangney, J. P., Wagner, P., Gavlas, J., & Gramzow, R. (1991). The test of self-conscious affect for adolescents (TOSCA-A). Fairfax, VA: George Mason University.
- Tangney, J. P., Wagner, P. & Gramzow, R. (1992). Proneness to shame, proneness to guilt and psychopathology. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 101, 3, 469-478.
- Thompson, R. & Zuroff, D. C. (2009). My future self and me: Depressive styles and future expectations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 48, 190-195.
- Tonsing, K. & Ow, R. (2018). Quality of life, self-esteem, and future expectations of adolescent and young adult cancer survivors. *Health and Social Work*, 43 (1), 15-21.
- Turner, J. E. (2014). Researching state shame with the experiential shame scale. *The Journal of Psychology*, 148 (5), 577-601.
- Wilson, W. J. (1987). *The truly disadvantaged: The inner city, the underclass, and public policy*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Whittle, S., Liu, K., Bastin, C., Harrison, B. J., & Davey, C. G. (2016). Neurodevelopmental correlates of proneness to guilt and shame in adolescence and early adulthood. *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience*, 19, 51-57.
- Wyman, P., Cowen, E., Work, W. & Kerley, J. (1993). The role of children's future expectations in the self-system functioning and adjustment to life stress: A prospective study of urban at risk children. *Development and Psychology*, 5 (4), 649.