PREVALENCE OF FORGIVENESS IN RELATION TO REJECTION SENSITIVITY IN ADULTS

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ABSTRACT

The desire to achieve acceptance and to avoid rejection is widely acknowledged to be a central human motive. Rejection sensitivity has effective role in life satisfaction and it is negatively associated with it. But forgiveness has positive relationship with life satisfaction. Forgiveness might provide potential benefit for overcoming the negative outcomes of Rejection sensitivity. The present study was done in Jaipur city, Rajasthan to access the relationship between forgiveness and rejection sensitivity in male and female unmarried adults. 70 unmarried individuals from age range of 20 to 30, where 35 were males and other 35 were females has been selected through random sampling method. Heartland Forgiveness Questionnaire (HFS) developed by Thompson et al and Rejection Sensitivity RS-Adult Questionnaire constructed by Berenson & et al. has been administered for data collection and the participants were asked to complete them. Data was calculated using mean, SD, and Pearson product-moment correlation and the hypothesis were tested on 0.01 level of significance. It was found that Forgiveness is negatively correlated with Rejection Sensitivity.

Keywords: Rejection sensitivity, forgiveness, unmarried adults

INTRODUCTION

It is our profound motivation to have a sense of belonging and to be accepted by others and it is felt in some way from birth throughout the life. Loneliness, depression anxiety anger often results when someone is rejected by members of a desired group and it is thought to reduce person’s ability to cope with future relationships. Everyone desires to be accepted and dislikes to be rejected from people who are important to them. People who are more concerned with rejection, they tend to have a quality known as rejection sensitivity. People who are sensitive towards rejection often react to rejection with strong hostility and aggression or sever anxiety and withdrawal. Rejection sensitivity was originally conceptualized as a tendency to believe potential rejection was caused by personal characteristics. Further work has expanded rejection sensitivity research to address rejection based on group membership such as race or gender.
Karen Horney was the first theorist to discuss the phenomenon of rejection sensitivity (Downey, G., 2008). She proposed that it is a part of the neurotic personality, and that it is a tendency to feel profound anxiety, tension and embarrassment at the smallest rebuke. Just being made to wait, for instance, could be seen as dismal or rejection and met with extraordinary outrage and antagonistic vibe.

Albert Mehebian recommended that delicate or sensitive individuals are hesitant to express feelings, will in general maintain a strategic distance from contentions or disputable talks, are hesitant to make demands or force on others, are effectively harmed by contrary input from others, and will in general depend a lot on recognizable others and circumstances in order to keep away from rejection. He also developed an early questionnaire measure of rejection sensitivity.

People's early experiences in life may lead to increased sensitivity to rejection. This rejection sensitivity often leads to misinterpretations of others' behavior and irrational jealousy leading to problematic relationship behaviors by the rejection-sensitive person.

Rejection sensitivity is composed of two parts, an emotional part with fearful or anxious feelings around certain others and a cognitive or thinking part that appraises situations as highly likely to lead to rejection.

Highly rejection sensitive people are distinctly characterized as having an expectation of rejection by significant others, perceiving inhumane and minor practices of others as rejection, and overcompensate to such circumstances such that this response undermines their associations with individuals and diminishes their sentiments of well-being (Downey & Feldman, 1996). Contingent upon the dimension of dissatisfaction and frustration, the subsequent painful circumstances may incorporate self-hurting practices, for example, delayed separation or negative self-(McDonald, Bowker, Rubin, Laursen, & Duchene, 2010).

The probability for youngsters to encounter rejection in their connections is more than that of individuals from other age gatherings (Wang et al., 2012) on the grounds that rejection sensitivity is especially marked in young age as people tend to get engaged in a variety of connections and relationships in their young age (Downey and Feldman, 1996). College understudies comprise of for the most part youngsters who always communicate with their surroundings for different reasons. They may set close friendships, form romantic relationships, or get to know others in instructive settings. What is regular about these relations is that youngsters may exceptionally depend on them as far as social, emotional and academic help (Ozen, Sumer, and Demir, 2010). Be that as it may, a conceivable disappointment in these connections may result in negative outcomes (Bowker, Thomas, Norman, and Spencer, 2011) when the sensitivity to rejection and dependence on these relationship is high.

Besides, the earlier studies denoted that the connections between's rejection sensitivity and adaptive or maladaptive psychological functioning, it has additionally harmed a few structures which may cause negative results for human well being (Ayduk et al., 2008; Ayduk, Downey, and Kim, 2001; London, Downey, Bonica, and Paltin, 2007). As one of these structures, forgiveness was characterized as a person's consent to restore trust in the relationship despite the fact that the individual was exposed to frightful conduct and the capacity
of both offending and offended people to talk about this hurtful behaviour to improve their relationship (Hargrave and Sells, 1997).

**Origin of the concept of rejection sensitivity:**

Bowlby (1980) gave the attachment theory is the most elaborated model of the psychological mediators linking early rejection with later interpersonal functioning, suggests that children developmental models of themselves and of relationships that influence their future relationships. At the core of these models are expectations about whether significant others will satisfy their needs or be rejecting. When caretakers fulfill children’s needs sensitively and consistently, a secure working model is developed by the children with the belief that others will do the same. And if the children’s needs are not being fulfilled by the caregivers, they will take it as rejection and in this place insecure working model is developed in their mind which will bring doubts and anxieties about whether others will accept and support them.

Drawing from Bowlby’s attachment model, Downey and Feldman (1996) proposed a model that suggests that when parents tend to meet children's expressed needs with rejection, children become sensitive to rejection. That is, they develop the expectation that when they seek acceptance and support from significant others they will probably be rejected, and they learn to place a particularly high value on avoiding such rejection. They thus experience anticipatory anxiety when expressing needs or vulnerabilities to significant others. These anxious expectations of rejection make them hyper vigilant for signs of rejection. When they encounter rejection cues, however minimal or ambiguous, they readily perceive intentional rejection and experience feelings of rejection. The perceived rejection is then likely to prompt both affective and behavioral overreactions, which may include anger and hostility, despondency, withdrawal of support, jealousy, and inappropriate attempts to control the significant other's behavior.

The model also suggests that people who enter a relationship disposed to anxiously expect rejection from significant others should be likely to perceive intentional rejection in their partner's insensitive or ambiguous behaviors, feel insecure and unhappy about their relationship, and respond to perceived rejection or threats of rejection by their partner with hostility, diminished support, or jealous, controlling behavior. From these theories, it can be concluded that people high in rejection sensitivity are not only unable to maintain supportive relationships, but due to the lack of quality relationships, may also perceive less social support from those relationships they do have.

Downey and Feldman (1996) in their study, enlisted couples in a submitted, non-marital relationship to finish surveys intended to look at how this inclination to negatively interpret incentive behavior would affect the relationship. They found that rejection sensitivity was found to undermine romantic relationships. It led people to feel insecure and dissatisfied with their relationships and to exaggerate their partners' dissatisfaction and desire to leave the relationship.
1) **Relationship Security.** Rejection sensitivity was altogether identified with being worried about rejection by the partner for both men and women. Rejection sensitive individuals demonstrated increased worry about being rejected by their partners, irrespective of their partners’ commitment to the relationship. The rejection sensitive individual continued to believe that their partner wanted to end the relationship even though the partner was fully committed to the relationship.

2) **Relationship Satisfaction.** Downey and Feldman (1996) found that rejection-sensitive men and women perceived that their partners were less satisfied with the relationship, because rejection-sensitive people appear to magnify or exaggerate level of dissatisfaction their partner experienced with the relationship.

   The dissatisfaction that was experienced was due to the problematic behaviors in which rejection-sensitive people engage.

3) **The Interpersonal Behavior of High Rejection-Sensitive People.** Therefore, Downey and Feldman (1996) examined the behaviors of rejection-sensitive people that could jeopardize the relationship. The partners of rejection-sensitive individuals found the relationship less satisfying because rejection-sensitive men were reported by their partners to show more jealousy and controlling behavior and rejection-sensitive women were reported by their partners to be more hostile and more emotionally unsupportive. In simple words it can be said that the dissatisfaction that was experienced was due to the problematic behaviors in which rejection-sensitive people engage.

   Rejection sensitivity as defensive motivational system: As Rejection sensitivity (RS) is the disposition to anxiously expect, readily perceive, and intensely react to rejection, Downey, Mougiros, Ayduk, London and Shoda (2004) examined rejection sensitivity as defensively motivated system. It was found that a defensive motivational system becomes automatically activated when rejection cues are perceived and faced. The defensive motivational system helps the individual high in rejection sensitivity to react by detecting the rejection in social situation. The negatively classified stimuli which is faced by the individual who are high in rejection sensitivity, prepares the individual for actions that aim to protect the self with fight and flight responses. Evidence is provided that for people who are highly rejection sensitive, the defensive motivational system automatically gets activated by the rejection cues. Eye blink startle magnitude was potentiated in people high in RS when they viewed rejection themes. RS also predicts being conditioned to react to angry faces with a physiological threat response that is more resistant to extinction than conditioned responses to other stimuli (Olsson, Carmona, Remy, Downey, & Ochsner, 2007).

**Forgiveness**

*It would give us some comfort if we could only forget a past that we cannot change. If we could only choose to forget the cruelest moments, we could, as time goes on, free ourselves from their pain. But the wrong sticks like a nettle in our memory. The only way to remove the nettle is with a surgical procedure called forgiveness.*

-Smedes, The Art of Forgiving
Forgiveness is basic to our joy and objective achievement and it must be a piece of our life. There isn't one valid justification to remain irate or angry and not to forgive. By and large, be that as it may, it includes a choice to relinquish resentment and thoughts of revenge.

Forgiveness doesn't mean overlooking or pardoning the damage done to you or making up with the individual who caused the mischief or harm. Forgiveness brings a sort of harmony that encourages you go on with life. Forgiveness alludes to the demonstration of diminishing negative sentiments toward somebody who has harmed or outraged oneself. In some cases forgiveness involves replacing negative emotions with positive sentiments. However it would be sufficient to decrease the negative feelings as believed by many researchers.

Research proposes that individuals will in general be additionally forgiving on the off chance that they are pleasant and coexist effectively with others. What's more, individuals are bound to endeavor forgiveness in the event that they relate to a religious or otherworldly conviction framework wherein forgiving is a basic belief. Neurotic people, who are inclined to concentrate on pessimistic occasions, regularly experience issues forgiving. Forgiveness is additionally hard for people who have a feeling of privilege, implying that they consider themselves to be better than others and are exceedingly put resources into shielding their rights.

**Forgiveness in Psychology**

Individuals have devised an assortment of potential solutions for the destructive impacts of relational transgressions (Fry and Bjo¨rkqvist, 1997). Forgiveness is that one mechanism that can interfere with the repetitive idea of avoidance and retaliation. It is an approach whereby individuals subdue their characteristic negative reactions to transgressors and become progressively spurred to sanction positive ones instead. A considerable lot of the world's religions have explained the idea of absolution for centuries (McCullough and Worthington, 1999; Rye et al., 2000). Undoubtedly, the suggestion that individuals have been excused by God and, subsequently, ought to pardon their own transgressors is regular to each of the three incredible monotheistic conventions (McCullough and Worthington, 1999). In spite of the significance of absolution inside numerous religious conventions, social scholars and social researchers essentially have disregarded forgiveness throughout the previous three centuries. Forgiveness neglects to warrant even a reference in 300 years of post-Enlightenment thought. In the final two many years of the twentieth century, notwithstanding, social researchers started to consider pardoning (McCullough, Pargament, and Thoresen, 2000b). They advanced in defining and estimating it, and in investigating its formative, identity, and social substrates. They likewise gained ground in evaluating its value for individual and social prosperity, and in structuring mediations to advance absolution. Proof of scientific advancement can be found in the developing number of exact diary articles, the gathering of a few national meetings, and the creation of a few altered accumulations committed to forgiveness(e.g., Enright and North, 1998; McCullough, Pargament, and Thoresen, 2000a; Worthington, 1998). In addition, in 1998 the John Templeton Foundation and other generous establishments started a battle to give $10 million in subsidizing to scientific investigate on pardoning (Holden, 1999). With national enthusiasm for the point, solid financial backing, and scores of research groups, we might enter a brilliant time of pardoning research (McCullough, 2001).
What Is Forgiveness?

Theorists and researchers generally concur with Enright and Coyle’s (1998) assertion that forgiveness is different from pardoning (which is, strictly speaking, a legal concept); condoning (which involves justifying the offense); excusing (which implies that a transgression was committed because of extenuating circumstances); forgetting (which implies that the memory of a transgression has decayed or slipped out of conscious awareness); and denial (which implies an unwillingness or inability to perceive the harmful injuries that one has incurred). Enright defined forgiveness as “a willingness to abandon one’s right to resentment, negative judgment, and indifferent behavior toward one who unjustly hurt us, while fostering the undeserved qualities of compassion, generosity, and even love toward him or her” (Enright, Freedman, & Rique, 1998, pp. 46-47) For Enright (2000; Enright et al., 1998), it is vital that a generous individual create kindhearted position toward a transgressing individual. Besides, Enright was additionally resolved in expressing that forgiveness can’t be stretched out to the circumstances and that must be coordinated distinctly at individuals.

Enright's model of forgiveness has received empirical support and sees forgiveness as a journey through four phases which are:

1. **Uncovering phase**: Emphases on exploring the pain that the individual has experienced.
2. **Decision phase**: The nature of forgiveness is discussed. Also the individual commits that they will try to forgive the spouse
3. **Work phase**: shifts the focus to the transgressor in an effort to gain insight and understanding.
4. **Deepening phase**: the victim moves toward resolution, becoming aware that they are not alone, has themselves been the recipient of others' forgiveness, and finds meaning and purpose in the forgiveness process.

Most scholars also agree that forgiveness is distinct from reconciliation, a term that implies the restoration of a fractured relationship (Freedman, 1998). To go further in defining forgiveness, however, we must differentiate among three senses in which the term can be used. Forgiveness may be defined according to its properties as a response, as a personality disposition, and as a characteristic of social units. As a response, forgiveness may be understood as a prosocial change in a victim’s thoughts, emotions, and/or behaviors toward a blameworthy transgressor. A variety of conceptualizations of forgiveness as a response can be found in the published literature (McCullough & Worthington, 1994; Scobie & Scobie, 1998). According to McCullough (2000;McCullough et al., 1998.), forgiveness reflects increases in prosocial motivation towards another such that there is less desire to avoid transgressing person and to harm or seek revenge toward that individual and increased desire to act positively toward the transgressing person. Changes in motivation are viewed as being at the core of this theory (McCullough et al., 2000a, 2000b), with the person becoming more benevolent over time; moreover forgiveness is seen as applicable only when there is another person who has engaged in a transgression.
In the theory espoused by Thompson and her colleagues (Thompson et al., 2005), forgiveness is a freeing form of negative attachment to the source that has transgressed against a person. Of all forgiveness theories, Thompson is the most inclusive in that the source of transgression, and thus the target of any eventual forgiveness, may be oneself, another, or a situation that is viewed as out of one’s control.

The Tangney model suggests that the crux of the forgiving process is giving up the negative emotions. In 1999, Tangney and her colleagues (Tangney, Fee, Reinsmith, Boone, & Lee, 1999) suggested that forgiveness reflected cognitive affective transformation following a transgression in which the victim makes a realistic assessment of the harm done and acknowledges the perpetrator’s responsibility, but freely chooses to “cancel the debt” (which involves a “cancelation of negative emotions directly related to the transgression), giving up the need to revenge or deserved punishments and any quest for restitution. In particular, in forgiving, the victim overcomes his or her feelings of resentment and anger for the act. In short the harmed individual essentially removes himself or herself from the victim role.

All of these definitions, however, are built on one core feature: When people forgive, their responses (i.e., what they feel and think about, what they want to do, or how they actually behave) toward people who have offended or injured them become less negative and more positive—or prosocial—over time (McCullough, Pargament, & Thoresen, 2000b). As a personality disposition, forgiveness may be understood as a propensity to forgive others across a wide variety of interpersonal circumstances. In this sense, people can be scaled along a forgiving-unforgiving continuum, with most people (by definition) falling somewhere toward mean of the population. The disposition to forgive might itself have several aspects (Mullet, Houdbine, Laumonier, & Girard, 1998). As a quality of social units, forgiveness may be understood as an attribute that is similar to intimacy, trust, or commitment. Some social structures (e.g., some marriages, families, or communities) are characterized by a high degree of forgiveness (e.g., marriages, families, or communities in which participants are forgiven readily for their transgressions), whereas other social structures are characterized by less forgiveness (e.g., social institutions that hasten to ostracize or retaliate against members who commit transgressions).

Worthington and colleagues emphasize the role of emotion in the forgiveness process. According to them there are two types of forgiveness: Decisional forgiveness and Emotional forgiveness.

Decisional forgiveness is supposed to be a behavioral intention statement that one will eliminate revenge and avoidance and possibly restore interaction if the threat of future harm can be prevented. However, one may grant decisional forgiveness while still holding a grudge against the transgressor. This phenomenon is known in the literature as “hollow forgiveness”. Emotional forgiveness is the replacement of negative, unforgiving emotions with positive emotions (such as empathy love compassion sympathy etc). It can be thought as the intentional experiencing of the positive emotion.
Likewise, emotion is considered an important aspect in several other models of forgiveness. For instance, Fitzgibbons suggested that a client’s intellectual decision to forgive is followed by emotional forgiveness, that is, when someone truly feels like forgiving the transgressor.

Researchers have begun to shed light on several dimensions of forgiveness. In particular they have explored: (a) how the propensity to forgive develops across the life span; (b) the personality traits that are linked to forgiveness; (c) the social-psychological factors that influence forgiveness; and (d) the links of forgiveness to health and well-being.

**Development of the Disposition to Forgive**

Darby and Schlenker (1982) were the first researchers to see age-related trends in forgiveness. There are other researchers also have found that people appear generally to become more forgiving as they age (Enright et al., 1989; Girard & Mullet, 1997; Mullet & Girard, 2000; Mullet et al., 1998; Park & Enright, 1997; Subkoviak et al., 1995). For example, Enright et al. (1989) found that chronological age and reasoning about forgiveness were correlated strongly in a sample of American children, adolescents, and adults. Girard and Mullet (1997) likewise detailed that there is a contrast in willingness to forgive among adolescents, adults, and older adults as it was found that older adults are likely to be forgiving in a variety of transgression scenarios than did the adolescents and adults. Mullet et al. (1998) additionally discovered that older adults scored extensively higher than did young adults on measures of the disposition to forgive.

Enright et al. (1989) also found that Kohlbergian moral reasoning was positively correlated with people’s stage of reasoning about forgiveness. These stages are: revengeful forgiveness and restitutational forgiveness (Earliest Stage), expectational forgiveness and lawful expectational forgiveness (Intermediate Stage), forgiveness as social harmony and forgiveness as love (High Stage).

**Personality and Forgiveness**

Forgiving people differ from less-forgiving people on many personality attributes. For example, forgiving people report less negative affect such as anxiety, depression, and hostility (Mauger, Saxon, Hamill, & Pannell, 1996). Forgiving people are also less ruminative (Metts & Cupach, 1998), less narcissistic (Davidson, 1993), less exploitative, and more empathic (Tangney et al., 1999), tend to endorse socially desirable attitudes and behavior (Mauger et al., 1992) than their less-forgiving counterparts. Moreover, self-ratings of the disposition to forgive correlate negatively with scores on hostility and anger (Tangney et al., 1999), as well as with clinicians’ ratings of hostility, passive-aggressive behavior, and neuroticism (Mauger et al., 1996). What can we deduce from this array of correlates? To some extent, they probably convey redundant information because many personality traits can be reduced to a handful of higher order personality dimensions. Within the Big Five personality taxonomy (e.g., John & Srivastava, 1999), for example, the disposition to forgive appears to be related most strongly to agreeableness and neuroticism (McCullough & Hoyt, 1999). Other research confirms the link between agreeableness and forgiveness (Ashton et al., 1998; Mauger et al., 1996). Researchers have found also that forgiveness is related inversely to measures of neuroticism (Ashton et al.,
1998; McCullough & Hoyt, 1999). Thus, the forgiving person appears to be someone who is relatively high in agreeableness and relatively low in neuroticism/negative emotionality.

### Social Factors Influencing Forgiveness

Forgiveness is influenced also by the characteristics of transgressions and the contexts in which they occur. Generally, people have more difficulty forgiving offenses that seem more intentional and severe and that have more negative consequences (Boon & Sulsky, 1997; Girard & Mullet, 1997). The extent to which an offender apologizes and seeks forgiveness for a transgression also influences victims’ likelihood of forgiving (Darby & Schlenker, 1982; Girard & Mullet, 1997; McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997; McCullough et al., 1998; Weiner, Graham, Peter, & Zmuidinas, 1991). By and large, the effects of apologies appear to be indirect. They appear to cause reductions in victims’ negative affect toward their transgressors (Ohbuchi, Kameda, & Agarie, 1989) and increases in empathy for their transgressors (McCullough et al., 1997; McCullough et al., 1998). Victims also form more generous impressions of apologetic transgressors (Ohbuchi et al., 1989). Perhaps apologies and expressions of remorse allow the victim to distinguish the personhood of the transgressor from his or her negative behaviors, thereby restoring a more favorable impression and reducing negative interpersonal motivations. In this way, apologies may represent an effective form of reality negotiation (Snyder, Higgins, & Stucky, 1983). Indeed, Snyder’s theory of reality negotiation explains why many of transgressors’ post transgression actions (including cancellation of the consequences of the offense; Girard & Mullet, 1997) influence the extent to which victims forgive. Other general theories of social conduct (e.g., Weiner, 1995) lead to similar predictions.

### Interpersonal Correlates of Forgiveness

Forgiveness may be influenced also by characteristics of the interpersonal relationship in which an offense takes place. In several studies (Nelson, 1993; Rackley, 1993; Roloff & Janiszewski, 1989; Woodman, 1991), researchers have found that people are more willing to forgive in relationships in which they feel satisfied, close, and committed. McCullough et al. (1998) surveyed both partners in over 100 romantic relationships to examine more closely the association of relational variables to acts of forgiveness. Both partners rated their satisfaction with and commitment to their romantic partner.

### Forgiveness, Health and Well-Being

Tangney et al. (1999) found that the tendency to forgive others was related to low depression, hostility-anger, paranoid ideation and interpersonal sensitivity and psychoticism. Exline, Yali, and Lobel(1999) found that experience of forgiving God was related to mental health Variables. Individuals who find it difficult to forgive God independently predicted anxious and depressed mood.
Cultivating Forgiveness

In instructing forgiveness, sources that can be used as targets are-

**FORGIVING ANOTHER PERSON:** It was found that the model of Gordon, Baucom, and Snyder is useful one (2004, 2005; Gordon & Baucom, 1998) with the couples dealing with forgiveness in the wake of marital infidelities. Where forgiveness is the goal this model suggests three steps to attain forgiveness (1) by promoting a non distorted, realistic appraisal of the relationship of the two people, (2) Attempt to release from the bond of ruminative, negative affect held toward the transgressing partner, (3) by helping the victimizes partner lessen his or her desire to punish the transgressing partner. Over time, forgiveness makes it possible for the victimized person to outpour the negative feelings to diminish. The model of Everett Worthington of Virginia Commonwealth University (Riply & Worthington, 2002; Worthington, 1998; Worthington & Drinkard, 2000) is the another productive approach for helping couples to deal with infidelity. This model is based on helping the partners through the five steps of acronym REACH: **R**ecall the hurt and the nature of the injury caused; **E**mpathy in both partners; **A**ltruistically give the gift of forgiveness between partners; **C**ommit verbally to forgive partner, and **H**old on to forgiveness for each other.

**FORGIVING ONESELF:** Self forgiveness has been defined as “a process of releasing resentment toward oneself for a perceived transgression or wrong doing” (DeShea & Wahkinney, 2003, p.4). The consequences of not forgiving oneself can be much more severe than the consequences of not forgiving another person (Hall & Finchman, 2005). Interventions to lessen counterproductive criticism of the self are aimed at helping the individual take responsibility for the bad actions and then let go so that she or he can move forward with the tasks in the life.

**FORGIVENESS OF A SITUATION:** This aims at teaching a person to release the bitterness he felt about a series of “bad break” that he had received in his life. This can be illustrated with the help of a case when Dr. Snyder saw a person in therapy who held severe angry and bitter thoughts toward the tornado for destroying his house and making him feel psychologically victimized. In the course of treatment, the goal was to help this man to stop ruminating about the tornado, as well as to stop blaming it for having ruined his life (Snyder, 2003). The man was taught to let go of his resentment toward the tornado. After that he came to understand that the letting go was part of moving forward so as to have hope in his life (Lopez, Snyder, et al., 2004; Snyder, 1989)

**Elements of Forgiveness**

Ryan Howes in his theory discussed about 4 elements of the effective attempts of forgiveness that is-

- A. Express the emotion
- B. Understand why
- C. Rebuild safety
D. Let go

Express the emotions: The forgiver needs to completely express how it affected her, whatever the wrongdoing or bad form or violation or injustice. In the event that the transgression evokes outrage or misery or hurt, those emotions should be profoundly felt and communicated. On the off chance that it's conceivable to express it to the culprit. If not, remain in, void seat, ardent letter or shouting in a room might do the trick.

Understand why: Our mind will keep on hunting down some clarification until it's fulfilled. Perhaps we won't concur with the justification, yet we need some composition that clarifies why the demonstration occurred. In certain circumstances, even an acknowledgment of haphazardness can be an adequate worldview.

Rebuild safety: The forgiver needs to feel a sensible measure of confirmation the act won't repeat. Regardless of whether it comes as an earnest statement of regret from the culprit, a more grounded barrier against future assaults or expulsion from that individual's impact, wellbeing should be re-gained. To a sensible sum, obviously, in light of the fact that we are never 100% safe.

Let Go: The above mentioned elements helps us to process the events. It is how someone feel, understand what happened and know it won’t happen again. This exceptionally troublesome advance is a choice. Giving up is making a guarantee to not hold resentment. On account of a relationship, it implies one accomplice won't allude to that past transgression once more. It's taking steps to cease from ruling the transgression over the other later on. With regards to pardoning, the unfortunate casualty holds all the power. Letting go implies surrendering this predominant job; a venturing down from the amazing position of injured individual to permit fairness once more. Moreover, letting go is making a guarantee to yourself that you'll quit abiding/replaying/ruminating/perseverating on the bad form. On the off chance that giving up feels inconceivable, it's presumably on the grounds that A, B or C weren't adequately finished.

Review of literature

The review of literature evaluates the empirical data on Rejection Sensitivity and Forgiveness. Vast research data is available on rejection sensitivity and forgiveness. However, studies examining the relation between rejection sensitivity and forgiveness can be rarely found. There is a growing fund of research on rejection sensitivity and forgiveness in married adults/couples, children and adolescents but researches on unmarried adults are at initial stage.

Geraldine Downey & Scott I. Feldman (1996) conducted four different studies on social rejection and anxiety. Result shows that this cognitive-affective processing disposition undermines intimate relationships. Study 1 describes a measure that operationalises the anxious-expectations component of rejection sensitivity. Study 2 provides experimental evidence that people who anxiously expect rejection readily perceive intentional rejection in the ambiguous behavior of others. Study 3 shows that people who enter romantic relationships with anxious expectations of rejection readily perceive intentional rejection in the insensitive behavior of their new partners. Study 4 demonstrates that rejection-sensitive people and their romantic partners are dissatisfied with
their relationships. Rejection-sensitive men's jealousy and rejection-sensitive women's hostility and diminished supportiveness help explain their partners' dissatisfaction.

Debbie Sau-King CHOW & et.al (2007) conducted a research on older adults which showed that in late adulthood, greater depression, poorer social functioning, greater loneliness, and lower life satisfaction can be seen among individuals. The relationship between age-based rejection sensitivity and poor psychological health was weaker among older adults with high (vs. low) discriminative facility.

In a longitudinal study conducted by Marston, E. G. & et.al (2010) on 184 adolescents around the age of 16, concluded that the negative effect of rejection sensitivity, as a greater sensitivity was related to increased depressive and anxiety symptoms.

A study conducted by Xia Li (2011) showed that social anxiety is positively related to rejection sensitivity. In order to lower social anxiety, the efforts may be made to lower the rejection sensitivity, improve self-esteem, and give them more social support to keep psychological health, the teenagers who are female or from village should be concerned very much.

A study was done by Roscheck & David William E. Schweinle (2011) on 135 undergraduate students to investigate the relationship between rejection sensitivity and their level of participation in positive classroom engagement. It was found that there was a negative correlation between students' sensitivity to rejection and their level of participation in positive classroom engagement. These findings suggest that students who do not become engaged in positive classroom behaviors may be afraid to do so for fear of rejection by peers and/or instructors, and that this relationship is moderated to a large degree by the students' prevention pride.

A study done by Christopher A. Hafen & et.al (2014) conducted a study on 180 adolescents from age 16 to 22. Individuals with elevated levels of rejection sensitivity at age 16 were less likely to have a romantic partner at age 22, reported more anxiety and avoidance when they did have relationships, and were observed to be more negative in their interactions with romantic partners. In addition, females whose rejection sensitivity increased during late adolescence were more likely to adopt a submissive pattern within adult romantic relationships, further suggesting a pattern in which rejection sensitivity forecasts difficulties.

To examining the role of relationship satisfaction in the association between Rejection sensitivity and infidelity, a research was conducted by Zahra Amer (2018) on undergraduate students (77 males, 249 females, 1 other) revealed that rejection sensitivity negatively predicted relationship satisfaction and that relationship satisfaction negatively predicted infidelity; however, rejection sensitivity did not significantly predict infidelity.

Prior studies suggest that psychological difficulties arise from higher trait Rejection Sensitivity (RS)—heightened vigilance and differential detection of social rejection cues and defensive response to. On the other hand, from an evolutionary perspective, rapid and efficient detection of social rejection cues can be considered beneficial. We conducted a survey and an electrophysiological experiment to reconcile this seeming contradiction. We compared the effects of RS and Rejection Detection Capability (RDC) on perceived
interpersonal experiences (Study 1) and on neurocognitive processes in response to cues of social rejection (disgusted faces; Study 2). It found that RS and RDC were not significantly related, although RS was positively related to perceived social rejection experiences and RDC was positively related to perceived social inclusion experiences. Event-related brain potentials (ERPs) revealed that higher RS was related to cognitive avoidance (i.e., P1) and heightened motivated attention (i.e., late positive potential: LPP), but not to facial expression encoding (i.e., N170) toward disgusted faces. On the other hand, higher RDC was related to heightened N170 amplitude, but not to P1 and LPP amplitudes. These findings imply that sensitivity to rejection is apparently distinct from the ability to detect social rejection cues and instead reflects intense vigilance and defensive response to those cues. We discussed an alternative explanation of the relationship between RS and RDC from a signal detection perspective. (https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01516/full)

A study done by Ehrlich, Gerson et.al (2015) suggests that Individuals who are high in rejection sensitivity are vigilant toward social cues that signal rejection, and they exhibit attention biases towards information that confirms expectations of rejection. Female participants, classified as high or average in rejection sensitivity, completed a modified dot-probe task in which a neutral face was paired with either another neutral face or a gaze-averted (“rejecting”) face while EEG was collected and ERP components were computed. Behavioral results indicated that average rejection sensitive participants showed an attention bias away from rejecting faces, while high rejection sensitive participants were equally vigilant to neutral and rejecting faces. High rejection sensitivity was associated with ERP components signaling elevated attention and arousal to faces. These findings suggest that rejection sensitivity shapes behavioral and neurocognitive responses to faces. (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4509606/)

A study was done by Downey et.all( 2004) which used the startle probe paradigm to test whether the affect-based defensive motivational system is automatically activated by rejection cues in people who are high in RS. Stimuli were representational paintings depicting rejection (by Hopper) and acceptance (by Renoir), as well as nonrepresentational paintings of either negative or positive valence (by Rothko and Miro, respectively). Eyeblink startle magnitude was potentiated in people high in RS when they viewed rejection themes, compared with when they viewed nonrepresentational negative themes. Startle magnitude was not attenuated during viewing of acceptance themes in comparison with nonrepresentational positive themes. Overall, the results provide evidence that for people high in RS, rejection cues automatically activate the defensive motivational system, but acceptance cues do not automatically activate the appetitive motivational system.
This study examined whether responsibility attributions for self and partner behaviors differentially mediate the link between rejection sensitivity (RS), unstable self-esteem (USE), and relationship outcomes (i.e., violence and silencing the self, STS). Individuals in dating relationships in Turkey (N = 177) completed the measures of attributions for self and partner behaviors, RS, USE, violence, and STS. The results indicated that RS and USE had indirect effects on violence via attributions for partner behaviors. Attributions for self-behaviors mediated the relationship between RS together with USE and silencing the self-behaviors. Furthermore, USE was directly associated with silencing the self-behaviors. The findings were discussed in terms of theoretical and practical implications as well as directions for future research.

(Rejection Sensitivity and the Rejection–Hostility Link in Romantic Relationships) Rejection sensitivity is the disposition to anxiously expect, readily perceive, and intensely react to rejection. In response to perceived social exclusion, highly rejection sensitive people react with increased hostile feelings toward others and are more likely to show reactive aggression than less rejection sensitive people in the same situation. This paper summarizes work on rejection sensitivity that has provided evidence for the link between anxious expectations of rejection and hostility after rejection. We review evidence that rejection sensitivity functions as a defensive motivational system. Thus, we link rejection sensitivity to attentional and perceptual processes that underlie the processing of social information. A range of experimental and diary studies shows that perceiving rejection triggers hostility and aggressive behavior in rejection sensitive people. We review studies that show that this hostility and reactive aggression can perpetuate a vicious cycle by eliciting rejection from those who rejection sensitive people value most. Finally, we summarize recent work suggesting that this cycle can be interrupted with generalized self-regulatory skills and the experience of positive, supportive relationships.

(INTERPERSONAL REJECTION) While it is true that betrayal leads to the loss of reliance on an individual, this chapter asserts that distress from the breach of trust comes from a sense of being neither regarded nor accepted. The author utilizes the interpersonal script method in understanding the latest researches in the field. Psychologically speaking, betrayal seems to be a complex form of interpersonal relationship conflict. Various sorts of emotions can be felt upon experiencing this circumstance, including anger, fear, doubt, and repulsion. Mechanisms to counteract these potentially destructive feelings involve taking revenge or letting go of the mistakes. Although reconciliation is suggested, it depends on the hurt party to forgive and accept or to repress and retaliate. Likewise, the offender has the choice to apologize and maintain the bond, to create alibis and enjoy the relief from the guilt, or even to leave with no confrontation and destroy the ties with silence.
Self-compassion and forgiveness: The protective approach against rejection sensitivity. The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between self-compassion, forgiveness and rejection sensitivity. Participants were 496 university students who completed the Self-compassion Scale, the Trait Forgiveness Scale and the Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire. The data were analyzed with Pearson Moments Correlation Analysis and Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA). In findings, forgiveness and self-compassion were negatively related to rejection sensitivity, and forgiveness was also associated with self-compassion. Moreover, rejection sensitivity was predicted negatively by forgiveness and self-compassion, and also self-compassion is the best predictor for rejection sensitivity. The findings were discussed in light of the related literature.

Rejection sensitivity, the tendency to anxiously or angrily expect rejection, is associated with internalizing difficulties during childhood and adolescence. The primary goal of the present study was to examine whether supportive parent-child relationships and friendships moderate associations that link angry and anxious rejection sensitivity to depression and social anxiety during middle adolescence in an ethnically diverse sample of 277 youth (M age = 14.30 years; 46.93% male). Analyses revealed that angry rejection sensitivity was related to depressive symptoms, but only for adolescents reporting low support from parents and friends. Friend support moderated the association between (1) angry rejection sensitivity and social anxiety, and (2) anxious rejection sensitivity and depressive symptoms. For adolescents reporting low support from friends, support from parents was positively related to social anxiety. Findings highlight the importance of considering relationships in studies of rejection sensitivity and adjustment during adolescence.

FORGIVENESS

Lesley A. Brose & et.al (2005) found that situational and dispositional forgiveness were negatively correlated with Neuroticism and positively correlated with Agreeableness. Extraversion was positively related to one forgiveness measure. None of the forgiveness measures were related to Openness or Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness showed suppression effects and was negatively correlated with one situational and one dispositional forgiveness measure when included in multiple regression equations. This study was conducted on 275 college students and result shows that five-factor domains uniquely contributed to the prediction of forgiveness beyond demographics, empathy, religiousness, and social desirability.
One out of six studies presented by Laura Yamhure Thompson & et.al (2005) showed that Forgiveness correlated positively with cognitive flexibility, positive affect, and distraction; it correlated negatively with rumination, vengeance, and hostility.

A study done by Doug Oman & et.al (2010) showed that meditation-based stress-management practices reduce stress and enhance forgiveness among college undergraduates.

Loren Toussaint & John R. Webb (2010) conducted a research to examine gender differences in the relationship between Empathy and Forgiveness on 127 community residents which showed that there is more empathy found in woman as compared to man, but no gender difference for forgiveness was apparent. However Empathy was associated with forgiveness in men—but not in women.

In a research conducted by Arlene Malone & et.al (2011) to explore the relationship between Forgiveness and emotional wellbeing indicated that the higher an individual’s level of stress, the higher their motivation to avoid the person whom is believed to have wronged them and also more likely to have revenge thoughts about them. Men tended to report more revenge motivations about the person whom they perceive wronged them, more so than women.

A study done by Stephanie Lichtenfeld & et.al (2015) showed that only individuals who have emotionally forgiven a transgression, and not those who just decided to forgive, subsequently forget offense relevant traits attributed to the transgressor.

Paul Raj & et.al (2016) conducted a study in which a qualitative research approach following a phenomenological framework was used. A total of 12 adults who scored high on Heartland Forgiveness scale, ranging from 25 to 40 years of age were included in the study and their personal experiences were explored by using semi structured in depth interviews. The study showed that childhood antecedents of forgiveness are parental influences and early childhood experiences.

A qualitative study was done by Sadaf Akhtar & et.al (2017) which suggested that forgiving a range of real-life interpersonal offences may be an important determinant of psychological wellbeing, particularly among religious/spiritual populations.

A study of Fitzgibbons, R. P. (1986) presents the cognitive and emotive uses of forgiveness as a psychotherapeutic technique that enables patients to release anger without inflicting harm on others. Forgiveness is considered a powerful therapeutic intervention that frees people from their anger and from the guilt that is often a result of unconscious anger. It (1) helps individuals forget the painful experiences of their past and frees them from the subtle control of individuals and events of the past; (2) facilitates the reconciliation of relationships more than the expression of anger; and (3) decreases the likelihood that anger will be misdirected in later loving relationships. (Fitzgibbons, R. P. (1986). The cognitive and emotive uses of forgiveness in the treatment of anger. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, 23(4), 629-633.)
McCullaugh did a study on Interpersonal forgiving in close relationships which states that interpersonal forgiving was conceptualized in the context of a 2-factor motivational system that governs people's responses to interpersonal offenses. Four studies were conducted to examine the extent to which forgiving could be predicted with relationship-level variables such as satisfaction, commitment, and closeness; offense-level variables such as apology and impact of the offense; and social–cognitive variables such as offender-focused empathy and rumination about the offense. Also described is the development of the transgression-related interpersonal motivations inventory—a self-report measure designed to assess the 2-component motivational system (Avoidance and Revenge) posited to underlie forgiving. As predicted, empathy, apology, rumination, and several indexes of relationship closeness were associated with self-reported forgiving.


Most of the studies on rejection sensitivity and forgiveness are on adolescents and college students. There is a growing body of researches determining the intimate relationship and relationship satisfaction in rejection sensitive people as well as the relation of rejection sensitivity with depressive- anxiety symptoms and social anxiety. There are researches determining the relation of forgiveness with stress management, empathy, emotional wellbeing.

Yet we know extremely little about the relationship between rejection sensitivity and forgiveness. There is no such study has been done in the past, so I aim to do this study.

Rejection sensitivity has effective role on life satisfaction and it is negatively associated with life satisfaction (Ayduk, Downey, & Kim, 2001). In contrast, self-compassion and forgiveness have positive relationship with life satisfaction (Allen, Goldwasser, & Leary, 2012; Sastre et al., 2003). Although the relationships between rejection sensitivity and abnormal variables such as depression (Ehnvall et al., 2009), social anxiety (Fang et al., 2011), negative parents attitudes have been widely examined, much less research has focused on rejection sensitivity and its relationship with self-structures like self-compassion and positive concept such as forgiveness.

(https://www.researchgate.net/publication/281408998_Self-compassion_and_forgiveness_The_protective_approach_against_rejection_sensitivity_Oz-duyarililik_ve_affedicilik_Readdedilme_duyarligilina_karsi_koruyucu_bir_yaklasim)

(TRANSGRESSION SEVERITY AND FORGIVENESS: DIFFERENT MODERATORS FOR OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE SEVERITY) The current investigation examines insider/subjective and outsider/objective perspectives on forgiveness. Two hundred and thirty-two undergraduates in dating relationships were asked to describe situations in which they had been hurt by their romantic partners. Both subjective and objective ratings of event severity predicted forgiveness. In addition, rejection sensitivity proved consequential in moderating the impact of objective severity whereas responsibility attributions moderated the impact of subjective severity ratings. These results suggest the need to adopt a more complex model of forgiveness, and that as researchers develop increasingly sophisticated interventions to promote forgiveness, it will be important to consider both objective and subjective influences.
The Relationships between Positivity, Forgiveness, Happiness, and Revenge

Vengeance is negative structure for interpersonal relationship and personality. Therefore, alternative models should be developed for lessening it. The basic purpose of this study was to examine the probable relationships between forgiveness, positivity, happiness, vengeance in university students. Participants were 330 (167 females, 163 males) university students in Turkey who volunteered to take part in this study. All of the participants were either 22 or 39 years old, with a mean age of 28.65 years. For gathering data, Oxford Happiness Questionnaire-Short Form, Positivity Scale, Trait Forgiveness Scale and Vengeance Scale were used. While analyzing the data, Independent sample t test, Pearson correlation analysis, and Multiple Regression analysis were used. According to the findings, there were statistical significant relationships between forgiveness, positivity, happiness, and vengeance. In other words, vengeance had negative links with forgiveness, positivity, happiness. Findings of multiple regression analysis indicated that the increase of forgiveness, positivity, and happiness lead to reduction of vengeance.

(Clarke, 2016) (Comparaison des groupes de test en fonction de la dernière dépendance) The goal of this study was to compare Forgiveness in normal, non-clinical depressed and clinical depressed people. 151 individuals including 31 clinical depressed, 60 non-clinical depressed and 60 normal people were asked to complete Enright Forgiveness Inventory (EFI; Enright et al., 1991) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI; Beck, 1979). Result revealed that normal group have been more forgiving than non-clinical depressed group. There was no significant difference between non-clinical depressed and clinical depressed group in forgiveness. Forgiving others protects people against the negative effect of anger, hatred and revenge and prevents them from becoming depressed.

Aim and Objective

The aim of the present study is to identify the relationship between rejection sensitivity and forgiveness in adults.

Objectives:

The main objective of the test is to examine the relationship between rejection sensitivity and forgiveness.

Other objectives of the study are:

1. To study rejection sensitivity among adult unmarried males.
2. To study rejection sensitivity among adult unmarried females.
3. To study forgiveness among adult unmarried males.
4. To study forgiveness among adult unmarried females.
Hypothesis

The main hypothesis formulated for the study is that:

There is no correlation between forgiveness and rejection sensitivity.

Methodology

TOOLS:

The study is to be conducted by using the following tools:

1. Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire - Adult Version (A-RSQ)
2. Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS)

DESCRIPTION OF TOOLS:

Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire - Adult Version (A-RSQ):

Rejection Sensitivity RS-Adult Questionnaire constructed by Berenson & et.al is used to measure sensitivity to actual or perceived rejection. It consists 9 hypothetical situations involving interactions with parents, friends and peers. Each of the 9 scenarios is to be read by the adults and then they answer two questions related to that situation. For example, one of the vignettes in ARSQ is “You ask your family members for a loan to help you through a difficult financial time”. The three questions that follow the vignette are as follows: “(1) How concerned or anxious would you be over whether your family would want to help you” gives the rejection concern. (2) “I would expect that they would agree to help as much as they can” gives the acceptance expectancy.

The responses are indicated on a 6-point scale. The scoring is done by Calculating a score of rejection sensitivity for each situation by multiplying the level of rejection concern (the response to question a) by the reverse of the level of acceptance expectancy (the response to question b). The formula is: rejection sensitivity = (rejection) * (7-acceptance expectancy). The mean of the resulting 9 scores was taken to obtain the overall rejection sensitivity score.

The Internal consistency (alpha) of this test is .89 and Test retest reliability (Spearman Brown coefficient) is .91.

2) Heartland Forgiveness Scale:

The Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS Thompson) is an 18-item, self-report questionnaire designed to assess a person’s dispositional forgiveness (i.e., one’s general tendency to be forgiving), rather than forgiveness of a particular event or person. The HFS consists of items that reflect a person’s tendency to forgive him or herself, other people, and situations that are beyond anyone’s control (e.g., a natural disaster). Four scores are calculated for the HFS. There is a score for the Total HFS and a score for each of the three HFS subscales (HFS Forgiveness of Self subscale, HFS Forgiveness of Others subscale, and HFS Forgiveness of Situations).
Scores for the Total HFS can range from 18 to 126. Scores for the three HFS subscales can range from 6 to 42. The convergent validity of Heartland Forgiveness Scale in relation with Multidimensional Forgiveness Inventory (MFI) on self scale is $r=.33$, others scale is $r=.47$, and situation scale is $r=.42$. Internal consistency reliability- The range of Cronbach alpha coefficients, reported for studies 2-4, are for HFS Self, $\alpha=.72$ to .76; for HFS Others $\alpha= 0.78$ to 0.81; for HFS Situation, $\alpha=0.77$ to 0.82.

SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING METHOD:

The sample consisting of 70 adults who meet the criteria were included in the study where 35 participants are male and other 35 are female.

The population to be studied consisted of adults who are unmarried. Sample was randomly selected from the Jaipur district on the basis of their availability. Adults who agreed to take the test (questionnaire) were included through random selection.

Inclusion Criteria

- Adults aged 20-30.
- Adults who are unmarried.
- Adults who are able to read, speak and understand English.

Exclusion Criteria

- Participants with lower socio economic status.
- Married adults.

Main study consisted of the following main steps:

- Listing the places that constitute the sampling frame.
- Randomly selecting sample from the places.
- Main data collection from the sample.

Main data collection involved the following steps:

- Consent was taken from the participants if they want to fill the questionnaire and they were also asked if they can read, speak and understand English.
- Adults who cannot speak, write and understand English were excluded.
- Some participants get the test mailed to them because of the shortage of time and the other filled the test instantly.
- Data was collected from the participants who filled the test/questionnaire.
- The questionnaires to be mailed by the participants were collected the next day.
- All essential ethical considerations were followed while conducting the research.
Statistical Analysis:

- Mean and Standard deviation for study variables were calculated.
- Pearson product moment correlation was computed to study the relationship between concerned variables

Results and Discussion

Statistics is a set of procedures for describing, synthesizing, analyzing, and interpreting quantities data. For example, 1000 scores can be represented by a single number. As another example, you would not expect two groups to perform exactly the same on a posttest, even if they were essentially equal. Application of the appropriate statistic helps you to decide if the difference between two groups’ scores is big enough to represent a true rather than a chance difference.

Choice of appropriate statistical techniques is determined to a great extent by your research design, hypothesis, and the kind of data that will be collected. Thus, different research focuses lead to different statistical analyses. The statistical procedures and techniques of the study should be identified and described in detail in the research plan. Data analysis is as important as any other component of research. Regardless of how well the study is conducted, inappropriate analyses can lead to inappropriate research conclusions.

Descriptive Statistics

The first step in data analysis is to describe, or summarize, the data using Descriptive Statistics. In some studies, particularly survey ones, the entire data analysis procedure may consist solely of calculating and interpreting descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics permit the research to meaningfully describe many pieces of data with a few indices. If such indices are calculated for a sample drawn from a population, the resulting values are referred to as statistics; if they are calculated for an entire population, they are referred to as parameters. Most of the statistics used in educational research are based on data collected from well-defined samples, so most analyses deal with statistics, not parameters. Restarted, a statistic is a quantitative index that describes performance of a sample or samples, and a parameter is a quantitative index describing the performance of a population.

The major types of descriptive statistics are measures of central tendency, measures of variability, measures of relative position, and measures of relationship. Measures of central tendency are used to determine the typical or average score of a group of scores. Measures of variability indicate how spread out a group of scores is. Measures of relative position describe a participant’s performance compared to the performance of all other participants. Measures of relationship indicate the degree to which two sets of scores are related. Before actually calculating any of these measures, it is often useful to present the data in graphic form.
The Mean

The mean is the arithmetic average of the scores and is the most frequently used measure of central tendency. It is calculated by adding up all of the scores and dividing that total by the number of scores. In general, the mean is the preferred measure of central tendency. It is appropriate when the data represent either an interval or ratio score and is more precise than the median and the mode, because if equal-sized samples are randomly selected from the same population, the means of those samples will be more similar to each other than either the medians or the modes. By the very nature of the way in which it is computed, the mean takes into account, or is based on, each and every participants score.

The Standard Deviation

The standard deviation is used when the data are interval or ratio, and is by far the most frequently used index of variability. Like the mean, its central tendency counterpart, the standard deviation is the most stable measure of variability and includes every score in its calculation. In fact, the first step in calculating the standard deviation is to find out how far away each score is from the mean by subtracting the mean from each score. If you known the mean and the standard deviation of a set of scores is relatively normal or bell-shaped (about which we will have more to say shortly), then the mean plus 3 standard deviations and the mean minus 3 standard deviations encompass over 99% of the scores. In other words, each score distribution has its own mean and its own standard deviations that are calculated based on the scores. The number 3 is constant. For any normal distribution of scores, the standard deviation multiplied by 3 and then added to the mean and subtracted from the mean will include almost all the scores in the distribution. The symbol for the mean is \( \bar{X} \) and the standard deviation is usually abbreviated as SD. Thus, the concept described here can be expressed as follows: \( 3SD = 99+\% \) of the scores.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics for Female Unmarried Adults

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Rejection Sensitivity</td>
<td>10.49</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Forgiveness</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>9.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics for Male Unmarried Adults

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Rejection sensitivity</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Forgiveness</td>
<td>78.23</td>
<td>11.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table 4.1 and 4.2 depicts Descriptive Statistics – Mean & Standard Deviation (SD) for Unmarried Females and Males Adults with respect to the variables Rejection Sensitivity and Forgiveness.

Table

It can be observed that the obtained Mean ($\overline{X}$) and Standard Deviation (SD) values of Males for the variable Rejection Sensitivity (RS) are $\overline{X} = 10.35$ and $SD = 3.06$, Forgiveness (F) are $\overline{X} = 78.23$ and $SD = 11.829$ respectively.

Mean ($\overline{X}$) and Standard Deviation (SD) values of Females for the variable Rejection Sensitivity (RS) are $\overline{X} = 10.49$ and $SD = 2.73$, Forgiveness are (F) $\overline{X} = 78.3$ and $SD = 9.31$ respectively.

The aforementioned Mean and Standard Deviation values for Male and Female with respect to Rejection Sensitivity and Forgiveness are also presented diagrammatically in a bar diagram Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.3 Mean for Male and Female Adults with respect to Forgiveness and Rejection Sensitivity.
Correlation

Statistical correlation is a statistical technique which tells us if two variables are related. For example, consider the variables family income and family expenditure. It is well known that income and expenditure increase or decrease together. Thus they are related in the sense that change in any one variable is accompanied by change in the other variable. Again price and demand of a commodity are related variables; when price increases demand will tend to decreases and vice versa. If the change in one variable is accompanied by a change in the other, then the variables are said to be correlated. We can therefore say that family income and family expenditure, price and demand are correlated.

Relationship between Variables

Correlation can tell you something about the relationship between variables. It is used to understand:

1. whether the relationship is positive or negative
2. The strength of relationship.

Correlation is a powerful tool that provides these vital pieces of information. In the case of family income and family expenditure, it is easy to see that they both rise or fall together in the same direction. This is called positive correlation. In case of price and demand, change occurs in the opposite direction so that increase in one is accompanied by decrease in the other. This is called negative correlation.
Coefficient of Correlation

Statistical correlation is measured by what is called coefficient of correlation (r). Its numerical value ranges from +1.0 to -1.0. It gives us an indication of the strength of relationship. In general, r > 0 indicates positive relationship, r < 0 indicates negative relationship while r = 0 indicates no relationship (or that the variables are independent and not related). Here r = +1.0 describes a perfect positive correlation and r = -1.0 describes a perfect negative correlation. Closer the coefficients are to +1.0 and -1.0, greater is the strength of the relationship between the variables.

As a rule of thumb, the following guidelines on strength of relationship are often useful (though many experts would somewhat disagree on the choice of boundaries).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value of r</th>
<th>Strength of relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1.0 to -0.5 or 1.0 to 0.5</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.5 to -0.3 or 0.3 to 0.5</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.3 to -0.1 or 0.1 to 0.3</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.1 to 0.1</td>
<td>None or very weak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation is only appropriate for examining the relationship between meaningful quantifiable data (e.g. air pressure, temperature) rather than categorical data such as gender, favorite color etc.

Disadvantages

While 'r' (correlation coefficient) is a powerful tool, it has to be handled with care.

1. The most used correlation coefficients only measure linear relationship. It is therefore perfectly possible that while there is strong non linear relationship between the variables, r is close to 0 or even 0. In such a case, a scatter diagram can roughly indicate the existence or otherwise of a non linear relationship.
2. One has to be careful in interpreting the value of 'r'. For example, one could compute 'r' between the size of shoe and intelligence of individuals, heights and income. Irrespective of the value of 'r', it makes no sense and is hence termed chance or non-sense correlation.
3. 'r' should not be used to say anything about cause and effect relationship. Put differently, by examining the value of 'r', we could conclude that variables X and Y are related. However the same value of 'r' does not tell us if X influences Y or the other way round. Statistical correlation should not be the primary tool used to study causation, because of the problem with third variables.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation is one of the measures of correlation which quantifies the strength as well as direction of such relationship. It is usually denoted by Greek letter ρ. In the study of relationships, two variables are said to be correlated if change in one variable is accompanied by change in the other - either in the same or reverse direction.
Conditions
This coefficient is used if two conditions are satisfied:

1. the variables are in the interval or ratio scale of measurement
2. a linear relationship between them is suspected

Positive and Negative Correlation
The coefficient (ρ) is computed as the ratio of covariance between the variables to the product of their standard deviations. This formulation is advantageous. First, it tells us the direction of relationship. Once the coefficient is computed, ρ > 0 will indicate positive relationship, ρ < 0 will indicate negative relationship while ρ = 0 indicates non existence of any relationship. Second, it ensures (mathematically) that the numerical value of ρ range from -1.0 to +1.0. This enables us to get an idea of the strength of relationship - or rather the strength of linear relationship between the variables. Closer the coefficients are to +1.0 or -1.0, greater is the strength of the linear relationship.

As a rule of thumb, the following guidelines are often useful (though many experts could somewhat disagree on the choice of boundaries).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value of ρ</th>
<th>Strength of relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1.0 to -0.5 or 1.0 to 0.5</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.5 to -0.3 or 0.3 to 0.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>-0.3 to -0.1 or 0.1 to 0.3</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.1 to 0.1</td>
<td>None or very weak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Properties of P
This measure of correlation has interesting properties, some of which are enunciated below:

1. It is independent of the units of measurement. It is in fact unit free. For example, ρ between highest day temperature (in Centigrade) and rainfall per day (in mm) is not expressed either in terms of centigrade or mm.
2. It is symmetric. This means that ρ between X and Y is exactly the same as ρ between Y and X.
3. Pearson’s correlation coefficient is independent of change in origin and scale. Thus ρ between temperature (in Centigrade) and rainfall (in mm) would numerically be equal to ρ between temperature (in Fahrenheit) and rainfall (in cm).
4. If the variables are independent of each other, then one would obtain ρ = 0. However, the converse is not true. In other words ρ = 0 does not imply that the variables are independent - it only indicates the non existence of a non-linear relationship.
Caveats and Warnings

While ρ is a powerful tool, it is a much abused one and hence has to be handled carefully.

1. People often tend to forget or gloss over the fact that ρ is a measure of linear relationship. Consequently a small value of ρ is often interpreted to mean non existence of relationship when actually it only indicates non existence of a linear relationship or at best a very weak linear relationship. Under such circumstances it is possible that a non linear relationship exists.

A scatter diagram can reveal the same and one is well advised to observe the same before firmly concluding non existence of a relationship. If the scatter diagram points to a non linear relationship, an appropriate transformation can often attain linearity in which case ρ can be recomputed.

2. One has to be careful in interpreting the value of ρ.

For example, one could compute ρ between size of a shoe and intelligence of individuals, heights and income. Irrespective of the value of ρ, such a correlation makes no sense and is hence termed chance or non-sense correlation.

3. ρ should not be used to say anything about cause and effect relationship. Put differently, by examining the value of ρ, we could conclude that variables X and Y are related. However the same value of ρ does not tell us if X influences Y or the other way round - a fact that is of grave import in regression analysis.

### Table 4.5 Correlation matrix for Rejection Sensitivity and Forgiveness in Male and Female unmarried adults

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Forgiveness (Males)</th>
<th>Forgiveness (Females)</th>
<th>Rejection Sensitivity (Females)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rejection Sensitivity (Males)</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection Sensitivity (Females)</td>
<td>-0.68</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forgiveness (Females)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

In order to investigate the significance of nature and degree of relationship of Forgiveness and Rejection Sensitivity in Unmarried Male and Female Adults, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was computed. The correlation Matrix 4.5 depicts inter-correlations among Forgiveness and Rejection Sensitivity in Unmarried Male and Female Adults.
It can be observed that Forgiveness is significantly negatively correlated with rejection sensitivity. Forgiveness in Males is significantly negatively correlated with Rejection Sensitivity in Males (r= -0.25; p < 0.01) and Rejection Sensitivity in Females (r= -0.68; p < 0.01). Forgiveness in Females is significantly negatively correlated with Rejection Sensitivity in Males (r= -0.20; p < 0.01) and Rejection Sensitivity in Females (r= -0.25; p < 0.01).

Rejection Sensitivity in Males is found to be significantly positively correlated with Rejection Sensitivity in Females (r= 0.44; p < 0.01) and Forgiveness in Females is significantly positively correlated with Forgiveness in females (r= 0.10; p < 0.01).

**Summary and Conclusion**

The present study was aimed to studying the prevalence of forgiveness in relation to rejection sensitivity among unmarried adults of Jaipur city, Rajasthan. The main purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between rejection sensitivity and forgiveness in adults. The data was collected from 70 unmarried individuals of age range 20-30 where 35 are males and 35 are females. It was found that forgiveness is negatively correlated with rejection sensitivity. Apart from this it was found that there is positive correlation between forgiveness among males and forgiveness among females & rejection sensitivity among males and rejection sensitivity among females. That shows rejection sensitivity and forgiveness is not influenced by gender roles. It is something innate.

**The objective of the study are:**

The main objective of the test is to examine the relationship between rejection sensitivity and forgiveness.

Other objectives of the study are:

1. To study rejection sensitivity among adult unmarried males.
2. To study rejection sensitivity among adult unmarried females.
3. To study forgiveness among adult unmarried males.
4. To study forgiveness among adult unmarried females.

**Hypothesis:**

The main hypothesis formulated for the study is that:

There is no correlation between forgiveness and rejection sensitivity.

**Psychological Tool:**

*Rejection Sensitivity Questionnaire* - Adult Version (A-RSQ) constructed by Berenson & et.al consisting 9 items and *The Heartland Forgiveness Scale* (HFS) developed by Thompson et. al consisting 18 items was selected for the administration of the research.

**Sample:**

70 unmarried individuals of age range 20-30 were selected through random sampling method out of which 35 are males and 35 are females.
Conclusion:

There is no such study on which examined the relationship between forgiveness and rejection sensitivity among unmarried adults on Indian population. Past studies established that rejection sensitive anxiety and depression symptoms and social anxiety (Marston, E. G. & et.al, 2010; Xia Li, 2011). Rejection sensitivity has been studied in relation with Positive classroom engagement, romantic partner and romantic relationship (Roscheck & David William E. Schweinle, 2011; Christopher A. Hafen & et.al 2014; Zahra Amer 2018). Past researches have shown that Forgiveness is being studied in relation with neuroticism and agreeableness, cognitive flexibility positive affect, distraction, empathy (Lesley A. Brose & et.al, 2005; Laura Yamhure Thompson & et.al, 2005; Loren Toussaint & John R. Webb, 2010 ).

Forgiveness and Rejection sensitivity were tested to identify the relationship between them both. Findings revealed negative relation between Forgiveness and Rejection Sensitivity.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE SUGGESTIONS

Limitations

1. The study area is being limited only to Jaipur district of Rajasthan.
2. It may not be appropriate to generalize its findings, owing to the small sample size
3. The data obtained through questionnaires were all self report from the participants.
   Hence the findings may be subjected to response consistence effect.
4. There may be some chances of biasness.

Future Suggestions

1. Bigger sample size may have been taken for better research results.
2. The research must have been carried out in more than one district.

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This thesis focuses on rejection sensitivity in two of the most frequent disorders it is associated with: Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD) and Major Depression (MDD). First, an overview over existing empirical research on mental distress / disorders associated with rejection sensitivity is given (study 1). Second, a first step to disentangle the relationship of experienced rejection, rejection sensitivity, and psychological distress (borderline and depressive symptoms) is aspired (study 2). In Study 3, autobiographical memories of rejection in BPD and MDD are analyzed in respect to specificity and linguistic patterns.