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1.1 Introduction

In the progressive era of today psychological researches can be proved useful unlike physics, experiments are conducted in psychology, but experimental related variables can not be controlled to tally and the constant result of its is discussed.

But the problems existing in society can not be taken into a laboratory and can't be controlled completely. Therefore, such problems prevailing in the society can be studied through social science like sociology, economics, psychology etc. And though these searches and researcher something new is invented and these types of researches are beneficial for us and such researches are always welcome. In this circumstance this is my humble attempt to do research on such beliefs of the society.

Adolescence emerges as a period of risk of psychological maladjustment where the physical, psychological and social formations lend to adolescent experiencing more frequent and more intense emotions than younger and older individuals (Larson & Lampaman Petraits, 1989). Adolescents are more interpersonally attracted towards person with attitude similarity backgrounds, values and beliefs. We tend to have more positive emotions towards a person when we came to know that he or she was same attitude as ours (Byrne, 1971). Similarity is of great significant to adolescents because they are always in need of other conforming to their value and beliefs (or buch & Sprecher, 2003. Romantic experiences not only are central in the daily lives of adolescents but also they are thoughts to shape both intimacy and identity development (Erikson, 1986; Fyrman & Shaffer, 2003). They may also help adolescents successfully establish autonomy as they explore extra family relationships and came to rely less one parent (Furman & Shaffer, 2003). They many also help
adolescents successfully establish autonomy as they explore extra familiar relationships and came to really less on parents (Furman & Shaffer, 2003). Social intelligence (S.I.) is the ability to get along well with others and to get them cooperate with your sometimes referred to simplistically as people skills, S.I. an awareness of self situations, social dynamics that govern them a knowledge of interaction styles, strategies that can help a person achieve his or her objective in dealing with others, ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls get with along with.

Man is a social animal. The base of his social life is his home and his family. The personal development of a person is made possible through the family system. His primary personality is developed through his family. The family is a important for the origin and development of human personality.

Psychologically, the family is more important the family is a small but nearest atmosphere of human being. Each child cultivates its personality in it. The changes which are found in his behaviour, nature or civilization are widely influenced by the role of the family.

Learning in psychology subject is a very active field, because learning is the most initial psychological process according to Domjan and Krause (2002). Learning plays a vital role for a person to adjust with the atmosphere. Normally learning means the change in social intercourse. But the change in all sorts of social intercourses is not called Learning. E.g. the fatigue is felt because of taking medicine or because of sickness or maturity. In psychology, learning starts from the change, which occurs through study or realisation. Generally the objective of the change is made possible for a person to adjust and to manage in atmosphere. The birth at the time of a child its capacity or responding abilities are limited but that child gets proper stimulus from the atmosphere and these responding abilities are created automatically. As soon as a child grows and aquires the maturity. It becomes capable to give the various responses for example he knows and identify certain persons as grandfather, grandmother even
after that it learns how to speak and write these words. The child observes people working in different situation and follows them he learns about various objects like mango, an orange, a cow, a book, a boy or a girl etc. and remembers them. Gradually the child grows by age he observes many incidents and things and learns about their specific characteristic divides the things in various categories like fruits, animals, furniture, liquids etc. He learns to drive different vehicles like scooter, car etc. He communicates and interacts with others effectively. All the things are become possible due to learning. Each and every person manages one's life and solves various kinds of problems of one's life because he has acquired a capacity and ability to learn and adjust new things.

1.2 Adolescence

Adolescence is a time when individuals begin to assert themselves as distinct human beings since no two persons have exactly the same experiences or occupy identical positions in the social structure, each can assert his distinctness providing he receives at least modest encouragement from his society. During adolescence as at no other time in life, the individual and his society must come to terms. Every adolescent is expected to learn to participate effectively in society and to acquire the necessary competence to do so mainly through interpersonal relationships. As a result of substantial interaction with parents, teachers, employers and peers, who exhort, assess, reward and punish him, the adolescent's competence is continuously being evaluated. The important persons in his life partially direct and prescribe his behaviour and their censure or approval help to determine his emotional commitment to responsible behaviour (Brim, 1965). Adolescence emerges as a period of risk of psychological maladjustment where the physical, psychological and social transformations lead to adolescents experiencing more frequent and more intense emotions than younger or older individuals (Larson & Lampman – Petraits, 1989).
1.2.1 Meaning and Definition of Adolescence

Adolescence is a transition in the life cycle, linking childhood to adulthood. The term adolescence comes from the Latin verb "Adolescence meaning to grow" or "grow to maturity" (Harlock, 1957) the period of adolescence is most closely associated with teenage years (Erik Erikson, 1968).

Adolescence usually starts when an individual attains sexual maturity and ends when he/she becomes legally independent of his/her parents. It is easily to determine the onset of adolescence, but it is not easy to determine the end. The onset of puberty is characterized by physiological changes in a child's body, but the end there of is determined by cultural factors. Become there are many cultures in the world each culture will have its own criteria of determining the end of adolescence. Koruger (1994) state that unlike the onset of puberty where physical development is the main criterion a variety of social, legal, psychological and economic criteria are applied to determine the end of adolescence. The term of adolescence is commonly understood to define the period of life between childhood and adulthood (Kaplan, 2004). This time frame, however, not only describes a very diverse reality, but adolescence varies considerably across cultures over time and within individuals.

• Definition

Lastly, adolescence is uniquely experienced within individuals even of similar chronological age. The physical onset of puberty is not the same for all adolescents. Adolescence may be begin as early as age a for some girls or as lat as age 13 for other. Thus the physical experiences of these individuals will very greatly, as will their social experiences. Girls who mature. Earlier than their, poor. Often begin "adolescence" looking older than their chronological age (Kaplan, 2004)

"Adolescence refers to the process of growing up or the period of life from puberty to maturity"

- Webster's (1977)
"Adolescence is an in between period beginning with the achievement of physiological maturity and ending with the assumption of social maturity that is with the assumption of social, sexual, economic and legal rights and duties of the adult.

- Muss (1996)

"Adolescence is the period of rapid growth between childhood and adulthood including psychological and social development.

- Atwater (1992)

"Adolescence as the development period of transition between childhood and adulthood that involves biological, cognitive and social changes in this context.

• Biological changes involve physical development.

• Cognitive changes involve thoughts, intelligence and language.

• Social changes involve relationships with other people in emotions in personality and in the social context.

- Santrock (1993)

1.2.2 Adolescence Development

Adolescence is that period which is characterized by rapid physical emotional, social, moral and intellectual development and changes.

• Physical development and changes.

The process of rapid physical changes in adolescence is called in puberty it starts gradually, from around eleven years for girls and thirteen for boys the age at which puberty starts has been dropping in most countries, probably due to better nutrition so, your children may hit puberty earlier than you did the hormone change responsible actually begin produce periods of moodiness and restlessness. Girl start these changes before boys and will, for the first three are four years appear to be maturing must faster after this, boy catch up.

These changes include:
For girls: Menstrual periods growth of under-arm, boys and pubic hair for boys, voice breaks become (deeper), growth of body and pubic hair, facial hair erections and wet dreams for bath. Rapid physical growth.

By the age of 17, they will be young men and women who may be bigger than their parents and capable of having children themselves inspite of this they often still need support from you. It not surprising that, with the speed of these changes, some adolescents becomes very concerned about their appearance. They may, need a lot of reassurance, especially if they are not growing or maturing as quickly as their friends. They and their parents may worry less if they remember that there's a lot of difference in the ages at which these changes occur growth and development uses a lat of energy and this may be why teenagers often seem to need so much sleep their getting up may be irritating, but it may well not be just laziness.

Young children grow despite great hardships but later adolescence is more dependent upon favoring conditions in the environments, disturbances of which more readily cause arrest and prevent maturity not only is the range of variation in growth how increased but there is far greater liability to reversion. We advance to the later. Stages of adolescence, all these are greatly increased, as is the predisposition to sickness. The yang pubescent, achieving his growth in the realm of fundamental qualities, dimensions and functions, comes up to adult size at eighteen relatively limp and inept, like an insect that has just accomplished its last molt, and is therefore far more in the need of protection, physical care, moral and intellectual guidance this last great wave of growth throws the child up onto the shores of man hood or womanhood relatively helpless as from a second birth. (Hall, 1904, 41-48)

- **Psychological development and changes**

As well as growing taller starting to shave or having periods people of this age starts to think and feel differently. They make close relationship outside the family, with trends of their own ago. Relationship within the family also change parents become less important in their children's eyes as their outside the family develops real
disagree emerges for the first time as young people develop view of their own that are often not shared by their parents. As every body knows adolescents spend lop of time in each other's company, or on the telephone to each other although this can be irrigative to parents, it is an important way of becoming more independent. These friendships are part of learning how to get on with other people and gaining a sense of identify that is distinct from that of the family. Clothes and appearance are away of expressing solidarity with friends, although teenage children are still more likely to get their values from the family. Parent feel rejected and in a sense they are. But this is often necessary for young people to develop their own identify Even if you have rows and arguments. Your children will usually think a lot of you. The rejections and conflicts are often not to do with your personalities, but simply with the fact that you are parents from whom your children must become independent if they are to have their own life As they become more independent, young people want to they out new things but often recognize that they have little experience to fall back on when thing ellicult. This may produce a rapid changers in self-confidence and behaviour feeling vary adult one minute, vary young and in experience, the next being upset, feeling ill or looking confidence can make them free vulnerable. They may show this with sulky behavior rather then obvious distress. Parents have to be pretty flexible to deal with all this, and may feel under considerable strain them selves adolescence is the time when people first start in earnest to learn about the world and to find their place in it. This involves trying, some of which may be risky or even dangerous young people can carve excitemt in a way that most adults find difficult to understand and exciting activities may be dangerous. Fortunately, most people manage to find their excitement in music, sport or other activities that involve a lot of energy but little real physical risk. When they do experiment with drink or drugs or smoking it is usually with friends if a young person does this alone they are in much greater danger, warning from order adolescents will usually be taken more seriously then these from parents.
**Acceleration of Hormone secretions.**

Mary of the physical changes that occur during adolescence is due to increased output of hormones from the pituitary gland which is located in the brain. The pituitary gland responsible for growth and serves to monitor the hormone balance of the body.

**Social developments and changes.**

As it is a period of expanding social relations adolescence is largely the result of social factors.

The forces of sin and these of virtue never struggle so hotly for possession of the youthful soul. Statics show, the age of most frequent.

Conversion to true religion is precisely the years of the largest percentage of first commitments to house of detention for crime. It seems a low of psychic development, that more or less evil must be done to unloose the higher powers of constraint and to practice them until they can keep down the baser instincts the religious struggles of this age bear abundant evidence to the violence of these storms and counter - currents of which the human soul is now are arena temptations hitherto unknown to sins hitherto impossible bring. Redeeming agencies also new into action, and while the juvenile offender and the juvenile offender and the debauchee is arrested in his development and remains through life under the power of evil, growth is benign and those who achieve normal maturity domesticate their baser instincts into the service of grandness (HwI, 1904, 83)

**Development of moral values.**

Morality is defined as conforming to common standards, Rights or duties. The adolescent is oriented towards existing rule, standards and value, but he or she no longer wants to accept all that is imposed on her or him. She or he applies his own conscience and individual rights in choosing standards and values. He or his values are inflected more by peer group value then by parental value system.
• **Cognitive Development**

Adolescents thoughts are flexible and effective, adolescents can deal with abstract and hypothetical proposition problem solving behaviour also appears at this stage. The adolescent can plan carefully design an experiments appropriately, observe the result accurately and draw conclusion rightly intellectual maturation is the result of interaction between maturation experiences education and training.

**1.2.3 Theories of Adolescence**

(Muss, R. et al., 1996, Rice and Dolgin, 2002)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development Area</th>
<th>Primary Theorist</th>
<th>Main Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Biological</td>
<td>G, Stanley Hall, Amond Gessell, James Tanner</td>
<td>Focus of the period is physical and sexual development determined by genes and biology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Psychological</td>
<td>Sigmund Freud, Anna Freud</td>
<td>Focus on adolescence as a period of sexual excitement and anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Psychosocial</td>
<td>Erik Erikson</td>
<td>Focus is on identify forman; adolescents struggle between achieving identify and identity diffusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cognitive</td>
<td>Jean Piaget</td>
<td>Focus is on formal thought; moving beyond concrete, actual experiences and beginning to think in logical and abstract terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Theorist</td>
<td>Focus</td>
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<td>-----------------------------</td>
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<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecological (interaction</td>
<td>Vrie Bronfenbrenner</td>
<td>Focus is on the context in which adolescents develop: adulterants are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between individual and</td>
<td></td>
<td>influenced by family, peers, religion, school, the media, community</td>
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<tr>
<td>environment)</td>
<td></td>
<td>and world events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social cognitive learning</td>
<td>Albert Bandura</td>
<td>Focus is on the relationship between social and environment factors</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and their influence on behaviour children learn through modeling</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Margaret Mead,</td>
<td>Focus is on the culture in which the child groups up</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Caron Gilligan</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1.2.4 A Stage in the life span

According to Elizabeth B. Hurlock (1981) Pg.14 a Life span can be divided into stages.

- Parental period: Conception to birth
- Infancy: Birth to the end of second week
- Babyhood: end of the second week to end of the second year
- Early childhood: two to six years
- Late childhood: six to ten or twelve years
- Pre adolescence or puberty: ten or twelve to thirteen or fourteen years
- Adolescence: Thirteen or fourteen to eighteen years
- Early adulthood: Eighteen to forty years
- Middle age: Forty to sixty years
- Old age or senescence: Sixty years to death
1.2.5 Adolescence is Transitional period

Transition does not mean a break with or a change what has gone before but rather a passage from one stage a development to another. This means that what has happened before will leave its mark on what happens now and in the future. Children when they go from childhood to adulthood, must "put away childish things" and they must also learn new pattern of behaviour and attitudes to replace those the have abandoned (Hurlock 1981)

However, it is important to realize that what happened earlier has left its mark and will influence these new patterns of behaviour and attitudes As osterrieth has explained, "The psychic structure of the adolescent has its roots in childhood and many of its characteristics that are generally considered as typical of adolescence appear and are already present during late childhood costarred (osterrieth, P.A, 1969). The physical changes that take place during the early years of adolescence affect the individual's behavioural level and lead to reevaluations and shifting adjustments of values.

During any transitional period, the individual's status is vague and there is confusion about the roles the individual is expected to play the adolescent at this time, is neither a child nor an adult. If adolescents behave like children, they are often accused of being "too big for their birches" and are reproved for their attempts to act like adults on the other hand the ambiguous status of today's adolescents is advantageous in that it given them time to try out different life styles and decide what pattern behaviours, values and attitudes meet their needs best (Gunter, D.G. and H.A. Moore, 1975)

1.2.6 Problem of adolescents

Here below adolescents some problems described.

- Family conflict
- Family with high levels of psychological control.
- Neglectful parenting (Low monitoring few boundaries)
• Learning disorder.
• Behaviors disorder.
• Mental health disorder such as anxiety, depression.
• Eating disorder (Dieating, Anorexia nervosa, Bulimia)
• ADHD (Attention - defict hyperactively disorder)
• Lack of physical activity.
• Moodiness.
• Aggression emotional distress.
• Suicidal ideation and attempts.
• Less affection shown to parents.
• Poor school behaviour.
• Destructive behaviour.
• Lying, stealing, ad delinquency.
• Self mutilation.
• Anti social behaviour and violence.
• Extreme fear of leaving home
• Become a new friends.
• Environments problems.
• Dogmatic manners.
• Contradictory action.
• Different type dreaming.
• Sub stance use such as tobacco, Alcohol, drugs, cigarette.
• Academic pressure.
• Dropping out.
• Absenteeism without permission.
• Mobile addiction.

1.2.7 Problem solving tips for Adolescents.

The following steps for problem solving are useful when you cannot find a solution. You can use them to work on most problems.

• Identify your problem.
• Think about why it's a problem.
• Problem definition.
• Brainstorm possible solutions.
• Evaluate the solutions.
• Decision making on your solution into action.
• Evaluate the problem and see your outcome.

1.2.8 Suggestion for parents of Adolescents students.

The following suggestion for parents of adolescents. This idea will be useful for adolescents’ parents.

- Listen and think calmly.
- Consider options and respect other people's options and needs.
- Speak in a constructive way mix trusts and betray loyalties. Be honest and loyal with the words used. Be too frank but donate offend.
- Parent warmth and strong positive. Communication helps young people establish individual values and make health life decisions.
- Give opportunities to gain self confidence through personal success.
- Try to find a balance between independence and family involvement.
- Be open to your adolescent’s ideas.
- Find activities that you and your adolescents enjoy and make a regular time for them make to eat together and talk about correct issues.
- Talking to your adolescent is important remember to let them know you love them take an interest in what is happening in their lives.

- Many adolescents will experiment with both sex and drugs. Try to talk about these topics with them. There are often stories in the newspaper as on TV about sex and drugs that you can use as a taking point and provide honest as accurate information about sex.

- Try to just listen without reacting there are times when you may be concerned about behaviour or problems.

- Try to be supportive and assist them to find solutions.

- Talk to your partner or other family and friends felling supported yourself with help you cope with change.

- There may be parenting groups in your area that meet and talk about adolescents contact your local area health service or school to find out.

- If taking to friends and family doesn't help or reassure you, talk to your child's teacher or health professional you trust.

- Go to your adolescents school every month as well as possible and try to know problems of adolescent, that is gives your child positive feeling.

- If something is wrong such as emotional ups and downs, depression anxiety more serious seek and help early so effective treatment includes counseling.

- Invite your adolescent friend for dinner.

- Be a role model for your adolescent.

- Decide the rules and disciple in advance.

- Don't take most of this criticism to heart and don't give up on your adolescents because adolescents are watching listening and learning more than you think.
- Adolescents can spend hours on the phone this can be frustrating for other don't putting an extra line because he/she misses an opportunity for young people to learn co-operation.

- Encourage them to get enough steep.

- Don’t compare your adolescents to others because every people are different.

- Model and encourage healthy eating habits and physical activity.

- Talk your children about the changes that they will experience during this time.

- Create an atmosphere of respect trust and honesty.

- Maintain your level expectations for your adolescent Don’t write negative behaviour with he/she is just adolescent.

1.3 Intelligence

Intelligence is a word we use in everyday life like learning speedly and understand good memory and thinking more word we use for intelligence word. In psychologists Boring (1923) have been content to define intelligence as whatever is that the tests measure then after many psychologists given definition of intelligence, 24 different experts were asked to give their view on the nature of intelligence (R.J. Sternberg of Detterman, 1986) They noted the standard themes of learning from experience and adapting to the environment. However contemporary experts put more emphasis on the role of Meta cognition, peoples under standing and control of their own thinking processes contemporary experts also emphasized the role of culture in intelligence. They pointed out that what is considered intelligent in one society may be considered stupid in another.

To understand current thinking about intelligence we must go the late 19th centuries to peek at the work of two intellectual monsters: Francis Galton and Alfred Binet

These men started largely opposing traditions for measuring intelligence and to some for understanding it extent Galton the psychophysical tradition, Binet the judgmental
Galton and Binet did not agree about much, but they did agree it is possible to understand and to measure intelligence scientifically (N. Brody, 2000)

1.3.1 Definition of intelligence

"Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment."

- Wechsler (1939)

"Intelligence refers to the whole class of cognitive behaviors which reflect an individual's capacity to solve problems with insight, to adapt himself to new situations, to think abstractly and to profit from his experiences.

- Robinson & Robinson (1965)

"Intelligence is the ability to understand activities the are characterized by (1) difficulty (2) complexity (3) abstractness (4) economy (5) adaptiveness to goal (6) social value (7) the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a conceration of emergy and a resistance to emotional factors.

- Stoddard (1941)

1.3.2 Theories of Intelligence

There are different theories about intelligence and none of which agree with each other every theories to thinking comes up with it's own different perspective and assumptions these theories have been into categories vise as under.

(1) Factor theories

On the basis of factor analysis psychologists have developed their own theories some of the important theories are.

(A) Thurston's

Thurston (1938) rejected the general theory of intelligence and instead presented his own theory and this theory states that the human intelligence includes 7 primary mental abilities. There are a number of groups of mental abilities, each of which has its own primary factor giving the group a functional unity and cohesiveness.
Thurston has given the following seven primary factors they are.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Ability</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>Spatial ability</td>
<td>Ability perceptive spatial relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Perceptual ability</td>
<td>Ability to grasp visual field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Numerical ability</td>
<td>Ability to do numerical calculations rapidly and accurately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>Verbal comprehension ability</td>
<td>Found intents involving verbal comprehensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>Word fluency</td>
<td>Ability to think and use words rapidly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>Ability to remember</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>Reasoning</td>
<td>Found in tasks that require a subject to discover a rule of principle involved in a series or groups of letters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thurston has developed a test called primary mental abilities test (PMA) to assess these factors.

(B) Spearman's two factor theory

This is a very popular theory according to the spearman intelligence is the ability to think constructively spearman (1904) proposes that intelligence consists of two abilities. One general ability known as 'G' factor and the other a group of specific abilities known as 'S' factor. G factor is universal inborn ability. Grater 'G' in an individual leads to greater success in life 'S' factor is acquired from the environment it varies from activity to activity in the same individual.
(C) Multi-Factor theory of intelligence

Proposed by E. L. Thordive (1920) According to Thorndike intelligence is not as single factor like general intelligence rather it is combination of multi factor. He distinguished the following attributes of intelligence.

(a) Level: Refers to the level of difficulty a task that can be solved,
(b) Range: Refers to a number of tasks at any given degree of difficulty.
(c) Area: Means the total number of situations at each level to which the individual is able to respond.
(d) Speed: Is the rapidly with which we can respond to the items.

Thorndive also given definition of social intelligence and he has given three type of intelligence.

(i) Concrete intelligence
(ii) Abstract intelligence
(iii) Social intelligence

(D) Guilford's tri-dimensional theory

J. P. Guilford (1967) proposed a three dimensional of intellect model according to Guilford every intellectual task can be classified according to it's.

1. Operations
2. Content
3. Products

(1) Operation:
According to operations he classified mental ability in five categories (a) Evaluation (b) convergent production (c) Divergent (d) Memory (e) Cognition

(2) Contents:
He classified content into five categories (a) Visual (b) Auditor (c) Symbolic (d) Semitic and (e) Behavioural
(3) Products:
He classified products into six categories (a) Units (b) Class (c) Relations (d) Systems (d) Transformations and (e) Implications.

Guilford has expended his cube shaped model of intelligence to include 150 factors which includes operations (5) X contents (5) X products (6) = 5x5x6 = 150

(2) Cognitive theories of intelligence
These theories consider intelligence as a process which helps to deal with problems and to find out the answers they called cognitive theories because cognitive process. The important theories are:

(A) Catell theory
Catell (1971) have proposed this theory in which they have distinguished two types of intelligence.

(I) Fluid intelligence
This is an innate biologically or genetically determined capacity and not influenced by education or training. This capacity helps the person in learning and problem solving. This is the ability which is useful in understanding and adjusting to strange situations. This ability develops fully in people by the end of an individual’s adolescence.

(II) Crystallized intelligence
It is a learned or acquired capacity. It is influence by environmental factor like education training, culture knowledge and learned skill.

(B) Information processing theory of intelligence
This theory was proposed by American psychologist Robert sternberg (1985). The information processing is like a process of solving a problem by an individual in which he proceeds to solve a problem which he comes across, gathers the necessary information and makes use of this information for completing that task.

Information processing includes the following steps.
Sternberg has constructs a three theory of intelligence.

1) **Contextual (Practical) sub theory**

‘Street smarts’ enable people to adapt to the demands of their environments through this processes of adaptation, shaping and selection individuals create an ideal fill between themselves and their environments. This type of intelligence is often referred to a "street smarts"

2) **Experiential (creative intelligence) sub theory**:

Is defined by the abilities to scope with novel situations and to profit from experience to familiar situations fosters adaptation. Moreover as a result of experience we also become able to solve problems more rapidly.

3) **Component (Analytical intelligence) sub theory**:  

Is what we generally think of as academic ability it enables us to solve problems and to acquire new knowledge and problem solving skill include encoding information and comparing pieces of information and generating a solution.

There other factor sub theory has given by him.

- Meta components: enable a person to plan what to do monitor things as they are being done, and evaluate thing after they are done.
• **Performance components**: Execute the instructions of the Meta components.

• **Knowledge acquisition components**: are used to learn how to solve problems.

Other theory of intelligence like Jensen's, Anderson's development, Eysenck's structural theory, Gardner's theory of multiple intelligence and many more psychological have given intelligence theory.

• **Social intelligence**

1.3.3 **What is social intelligence?**

Social intelligence is the ability to get along well with others and to get them to cooperate with you sometimes referred to simplistically "people skills" social intelligence includes an awareness of situations and the social dynamics that govern them and a knowledge of interaction styles and strategies that can help a person achieve his or her objectives in dealing with others. It also involves a certain amount of self-insight and a consciousness of one's own perceptions and reaction patterns.

Social intelligence the longest history. The idea goes back to Thorndike (1920), who defined social intelligence "the turn referred the person's ability to understand and manage other people", Karl Albrecht (2005) Classifies behaviors toward others and feeling some where on a spectrum between "toxic" effect and "nourishing" effect. Toxic behavior makes people feel devaluned, angry, Frustrated, guilty or otherwise in adequate. Nourishing behavior makes people feel valued, respected, affirmed encouraged or competent A continued pattern of toxic behavior indicates allow level of social intelligence the inability to connect with people and influence them effectively. A continued pattern of nourishing behaviour tends to make a person much more effective in dealing with other; nourishing behavior are the indicators of high social intelligence. Nicholas Flumphrey (1976) classifies social intelligence or the richness of our qualitative life, rather than our quantitative intelligence that truly makes truly makes humans what they are Ross Honey will (2014) views social
intelligence as an aggregated measure of self and social awareness, evolved social beliefs and attitudes and a capacity and appetite to manage complex. Social change.

1.3.4 Definition of social intelligence

"Social intelligence as the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls - to act wisely in human relations."

- Thorndike (1920)

"Social intelligence is the ability to deal with and adjust to other persons trails considered to be measurable aspect of social intelligence are the following : sense of humor memory for names and faces, common sense in social relations, recognition of the mental stage of the speaker and common observation of social behavior"

- Moss & Hunt (1927)

"Social intelligence as the person's ability to get along with people in general social technique or ease in society, knowledge of social matters, susceptibility to stimuli from other members of a group as well as insight into the temporary moods or underlying personality trails of strangers"

- Vernon (1933)

"Social intelligence can be define as the ability to adjust one self to the social environment and to act for its improvement it is an individual's ability to deal effectively with social relationships and with novel social situations"

- Cater V. Good (1945)

"Guilford defined behavioral content which he indicated may be roughly defined as social intelligence as information, essentially nonverbal, involved in human interactions, where awareness of attention, perception. Thoughts, desires feelings moods of other persons and of our selves are important."

- Guilford (1967)
"Social intelligence the capacity to know one self and to know other is an inalienable a part of the human condition as is the capacity to know objects or sounds and it observes to be investigated no less than these other less charged forms."

- Hawar Gardner (1983)

"Social intelligence is the degree of ease and effectiveness displayed by a person in social relationships"


"Social intelligence to refer to the individual's fund of knowledge about the social words"

- Cator and Kihlsorm (1987)

"Social intelligence the ability to construct accurate interpretations based on non verbal behaviour such as facial expressions, vocal parallax gauge, kinetic etc.

- Dane Archer (1980)

"Social intelligence as the individuals’ capacity to develop and manage relationships between individualized autobiographic agents which by means of communication build up which help to integrate and manage the individuals basic (selfish) invests relationship to the interests of social system the net higher level."

- Dautenhahn, K. (1999)

"Even through a solid, universally acknowledged definition of social intelligence is still missing; researchers have come to the agreement that social intelligence is undoubtedly multi dimensional in nature (Cantor & Kihstrom, 2000; Kang, Day & Mearel, 2005, Keating, 1978; Kosmitzki & John, 1993; Marowe, 1986; Silvera, Martinussen & Dahl, 2001; Vasiliva & Baungarthes, 2004)"
Table No. 1.1
Definitions Emphasizing Cognitive Components Extracted From Different Person Given Social Intelligence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to understand men and women, boy and girls.</td>
<td>Thorndike (1920)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knowledge of social matters and insight into moods or underlying trails of strangers.</td>
<td>Vermon (1933)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Judge correctly the feeling moods and motivation individuals.</td>
<td>Wedeck (1947)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Judgment in social situations and recognition of the metal states behind words and from social facial expressions and memory for names and faces.</td>
<td>Moss et al. (1955)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Role – taking ability</td>
<td>Ferrer (1959)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ability to interpret social cues and predict what will happen.</td>
<td>O’sullivan &amp; Guilford</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• As information essentially nonverbal involved in human interaction.</td>
<td>Gulford (1967)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Awareness of attention action and other person.</td>
<td>Gulord (1967)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deciding of social cues</td>
<td>(Sunberg, 1966, 1976;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The ability to create recognizable categories of behavioral acts and imagine many possible out comes of a setting.</td>
<td>Barne &amp; Strenberg, 1989)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sensitivity for other peoples behaviour. The ability to perceive the present mood of other people.</td>
<td>Hendricks et al. (1969)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knowledge of flues of social interaction.</td>
<td>Orlik (1978)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table No. 1.2</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social intelligence</strong></td>
<td><strong>Definition emphasizing Behavioral Components Excreted From Literature</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Memory for names and faces</td>
<td>Sternberg et al. (1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The capacity to know oneself and to know others.</td>
<td>Gardner (1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Degree of eased effectiveness displayed by a person in social relationship.</td>
<td>M. Goldmson Robert (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to judge, people with to feeling, thoughts and behaviour of persons, including one self.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Individuals fund of knowledge about the social world.</td>
<td>Cantor &amp; Kihlstren (1987)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Social problem solving</td>
<td>Cantor &amp; Harlowe (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to imaginative reason hypnotically about the responses, abstract, recognize social norm creative inductive ability and virtue it self.</td>
<td>Karren Williamsen (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to comprehend observed behaviours in the social context in which they occur.</td>
<td>Wong, Day, Maxwell &amp; Meara (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knowing the rules of etiquette</td>
<td>Wong et. all (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to understand other people.</td>
<td>Silvera, Martinussem &amp; Dahl (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability that covers social understanding social memory social perception, social creativity and social knowledge</td>
<td>Weis &amp; Sub (2005)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| • Ability to act wisely in human relations. | Thorndike (1920) |
| • Ability get along with others | Moss &amp; Hunt (1927) |
| • Get along with others and ease in society. | Vernon (1933) |
| • The ability to manipulate the responses of others. | Weinstein (1969) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>• The ability to deal with people and the applications of means to manipulate the responses of others.</th>
<th>Orlik (1978)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to construct accurate interpretations based on non-verbal behaviours.</td>
<td>Dane Arches (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Attempt of relevant social goals.</td>
<td>Ford (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to speak effectively to be appropriately responsive to the interview question, to display appropriate nonverbal behaviours.</td>
<td>Ford &amp; Tisav (1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Act appropriately upon and understanding of the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of persons, including one self.</td>
<td>Marlowe (1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to adapt to and act according in a variety of social situations.</td>
<td>Mayer &amp; Soloved (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Capability to develop and manage relationship between individualized autobiographic agents.</td>
<td>Daytenhahn, K (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to react to different social situations.</td>
<td>Silvera et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to get along with others and to get them too corporate.</td>
<td>Albretecht (2004)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3.5 The Psychometric view of social intelligence

The psychometric view of social intelligence has its origins E.L. Thorndike’s (1920) division of intelligence into three facets, pertaining to the ideas (abstract intelligence), concrete objects (Mechanical intelligence), and people (social intelligence). In his classic formulation: “By social intelligence is meant the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys’ girls… to act wisely in human relations. Similarly Moss and Hunt (1927) defined social intelligence, as the “ability to get along with
other’s Vernon (1933), provided the most wide-ranging definition of social intelligence as the person’s “ability to get along with people in general, social technique or ease in society, knowledge of social matters, susceptibility to stimuli from other member’s of a group, as well as insight into the temporary moods or underlying personality traits of strangers”

By contrast, Wechsler (1939, 1958) gave scant attention to the concept. Wechsler did acknowledge that the picture arrangement subtest of the WAIS might serve as a measure of social intelligence, because it assesses the individual’s ability to comprehend social situations. In his view, however “social intelligence applied to social situations” (1958). This dismissal is repeated in mataréizzo’s (1972). Fifth edition of wechsler’s monograph in which” social intelligence” dropped out as an index term.

Defining social intelligence seems easy enough especially by analogy to abstract intelligence. When it came to measuring social intelligence, however, E.L. Thorndike (1920) noted some what carefully that “convenient tests of social intelligence are hard to devise social intelligence shows it self abundantly in the nursery, on the play ground, in barracks and factories and salesroom but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory. It requires human beings to respond to, tome to adapt its responses, and face, voice, gesture and mien as tools! Nevertheless, true to the goals of the psychometric tradition, the abstract definitions of social intelligence were quickly transplanted into standardized laboratory instruments for measuring individual differences in social intelligence.

1.3.6 Theories and Model of social intelligence

1. Thordike (1920)

E.H. Thorndike has classified intelligence into three categories which are as follows.

(a) Concrete intelligence
(b) Abstract intelligence
(c) Social intelligence
(a) **Concrete intelligence:**

It is the ability of an individual to comprehend actual situations and to react to adequately.

(b) **Abstract intelligence:**

An abstractly intelligence person is able to discover relations among symbols and to solve the various problems with the help of such aids (symbols, formula, diagram etc.)

(c) **Social intelligence:**

Social intelligence means the ability of an individual to react to social situations of his or her daily life. Social intelligence is possessed by those people who are able to handle people well and also have the ability to make friends easily and understand human relations Thorndike had a psychometric view describes. Social intelligence as general intelligence applied to social situations or the ability to understand and manage people measurable by tests. Thorndike required a “genuine situation with real persons” for the measurement of social intelligence. It was rare that the behaviour of genuine persons served as stimuli therefore Thorndike subsequently failed to find a way to measure social intelligence. Thorndike (1920) noted that “?? “Convenient test of social intelligence are hard to device.

2. **Wecheler (1939, 1958) theory:**

Wecheler gave barely sufficient attention to the concept of social intelligence. Wecheler (1958) viewed “social intelligence is just general intelligence applied to social situations” Wecheler acknowledged that the picture Arrangement subset of the WAIS (Wechsler Adult intelligence scale) might serve as a mesure of social intelligence because it assesses social individual’s ability to comprehend social situations.

3. **Greenspan (1979) Hierarchical model:**

In this model social intelligence consists of three components (1) Social sensivity (2) Social insight (3) Social communication. Greenspan did not propose of social
intelligence, but implied that they could be derived from experimental procedures used to study social cognition in general.


Laid emphasis on the usefulness of adopting a behaviour effectiveness criterion to define of social intelligence. They are selected social intelligence measurer according to the criterion of behavioural effectiveness in social situations rather than cognitive understanding of them, it was claimed that there is little evidence to support a cognitive conceptualization of social intelligence.

5. Marlowe (1986):

Argued that social intelligence is composed a set of problem solving skills that enable the individual to find and to resolve interpersonal problems. Accordingly social intelligence is defined as the ability bath to understand the feelings, thoughts and interpersonal situations and also to act appropriately upon that understanding.


(i) The first is imaginative ability: The ability to represent alternative subjective points of view, not merely of a perceptual character, but also of an ideological character.

(ii) The second is an ability to reason hypothetically about the likely response of other to given course of events, given their various subjective points of view.

(iii) The third is an abstract ability, namely the ability to recognize social norms and values as socially constructed, rather than as a priori truths. This ability is necessary for transforming existing social arrangements.

(iv) The fourth is the creative imaginative ability to postulate what the social world would be like if it were based upon alternative social norms.
The fifth is an inductive ability to hypothesize about the sources of discord and well being both, in personal and interpersonal affairs.

The she which involves each of the above, abilities is the ability to recharge intellectual virtue it self.

7. Albert (2004, 05) five part model of social intelligence

Albert (2004) defines social intelligence as “the ability to get along well with others and to get them to co-operate” social intelligence is characterized as a combination of a basic understanding of people a kind of strategic social awareness and a set of skills for interacting successfully with them. Albrecht (2005) proposed a five part model of social intelligence social awareness, presence, authenticity clarity and empathy. (S.P.A.C.E.)

(i) Social Awareness

It is the ability to read situations, understand the social context that influences behaviour and choose behavioral strategies that are most likely to be successful.

(ii) Presence

It is the external sense of one’s self that others perceive: confidence self-respect and self-worth.

(iii) Authenticity

It is a way of behaving which engenders a perception that one is honest with one’s self as well as others.

(iv) Clarity

It is the ability to express one’s self clearly use language explain concepts clearly and persuade with idea. It invates of communicating skills such as listening feedback paraphrasing, semantic, flexibility skillful use of language, skill in using metaphor, and figures of speech and the ability to explain things clearly and concisely.
(v) Empathy

More than just an internal sense of relatedness or appreciation for the experiences of others, empathy in this context represents the ability to create a sense of connectedness with others. It is his capacity to get people meet on self on a personal level of respect and willingness to cooperate.

8. Weis and Sub (2005) performance model of social intelligence

Social intelligence that incorporates only cognitive ability requirement. The performance mode, representing a structural model of social intelligence incorporated social understanding, social memory, social perception, social creativity, and social knowledge as cognitive abilities. According to Weis and Sub (2005), social understanding requires individuals to understand or interpret social stimuli against the background of the given social cognition. The stimuli can vary according to their complexity and should allow conclusions about a person’s emotions, intentions, motivations, or personality traits. Social memory is defined as the storing and recall of objectively given social information that can vary in complexity. They defined social perception as the ability to perceive socially relevant information in more or less complex situations and social creativity as the production of as many and as diverse solutions or explanations as possible for the knowledge about the social world (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987, Veron, 1933).

Later Weis (2008) modified the performance model and postulated a general social intelligence factor on a higher-order level. The modified performance model of Weis and Sub (2005) thus represents a hierarchical model of social intelligence. In this model, the ability domains of social perception and social creativity constitute social intelligence in the narrow sense. The structural model of Weis and Sub (2005) also classified social knowledge to the cognitive abilities subsumed under social intelligence adheres in the hierarchical model, social knowledge is assigned a special role and it assumed to be positively to a putative general social intelligence factor and both models claim to predict social behaviour.
Recently weis (2008) attempted to measure social intelligence as a cognitive performance contract by developing a test battery of social intelligence (The social intelligence test Megdeburg, SIM) based on the performance model of weis and Sub (2005).

9. Goleman Denial model of social intelligence:

Goleman (2006) proposed a tentative model of social intelligence based on social neuroscience research over the past two decades, social neuron science emerged as a field dedicated to investigating the social brain. The social brain refers to the network of brain regions that are involved in understanding others.

Goleman organized social intelligence into two broad categories, social awareness and social facility. Social awareness includes what a person senses about others and social facility includes what a person does with that awareness. According to Goleman (2006) social awareness and social facility includes the following domains as shown in table.

Table No. 1.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Domains</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ordinal Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Attunement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Empathic Accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Social cognition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table No. 1.4

Social Facility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>Specification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Synchrony</td>
<td>Interacting smoothly at the non verbal level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self presentation</td>
<td>Presenting our selves effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Influence</td>
<td>Shaping the outcome of social interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Concern</td>
<td>Caring about other needs and acting according</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ingredients of social intelligence as suggested by Goleman (2006) can be diagrammatical represented as in figure.

![Diagrammatic representation of social intelligence](image)

**Above figure**: Diagrammatic representation of social intelligence.

Both the social awareness and social facility domains rang from basic, “low-road” capacities, to more complex “high-road” articulations.

The “low-road” traffics in raw feeding. It lets the person immediately feel with some else. The “high-road” traffics in a considered understanding of what is going on. It can think about what the person feels the “low-road” operates on automatic outside one’s awareness and with great speed, whereas, the “high-road” operates with voluntary control requires effort and conscious intent and moves more slowly. In Goleman’s model of social intelligence synchrony and primal empathy are purely “low-road” capacities while empathic accuracy and influence mingle “high” and “low”
Gomeman criticized the idea of social intelligence that have too often focused on “high-road” talents like social knowledge or the capacity for extracting the rules protocols and norms that guide appropriate behavior in given social salting. A focus on cognition about relationships neglects essential non cognitive abilities like primal empathy and synchrony, and it ignores capacities like concern. According to Goleman, pure cognitive perceptive slights the essential brain – to – brain social glue that builds the foundation for any interaction. The full spectrum of social intelligence abilities embraces both high – and – low – road, aptitudes. Goleman stressed that the talents of the “low-road” must be included in any full accounts of social intelligence without them the concept remains cold and dry valuing a calculating intellect but ignoring a warm heart (Gomeman, 2006). He supported the argument that the attempt to eliminate human values from social intelligence impoverishes the concept. According to Goleman, more robust measure a social intelligence would asses both “high-road” and “low-road” abilities.

Thus different researches have defined social intelligence distinctly in different ways over past year some theory model and definitions emphasize cognitive components and some emphasizes the behavior exponents and some both.

1.3.7 Social intelligence and Adolescent

The place of adolescents in this network of relationships influences their further development on the one hand, adolescents with low social status are at risk for conduct problem (Dodge and Pettit, 2003; Lajrd et al. 2001). On the other hand higher status predicts well-being (Ostberd, 2003) and helthy individual and inters personal functioning (Hartup, 1995). The relationship between social intelligence and popularity appear to be positive for both boys and girls. Sociometrically popular Students are prosaically and helpful to their peers (Coi and Kupersmidst, 1983). They have a behavioural repertoire (Social problem solving skills, positive social actions prosaically taints) that promotes success in friendships (New comb et al. 1993). Over all, sociomatrically popular students show high sociability and low levels of
withdrawal perceived popular students are especially socially visible. Alder et al, (1992). Found that adolescents perceived in that they seem to have some kind of social control for both boys and girls, perceived popularity is accompanied by admiration, leadership, and the ability to manipulate and control the social order of the peer group (Adler and Adler, 1998) Adler et al. (1992) further demonstrated that boys who have extremely poor social and interpersonal skills often have difficult social lives and low perceived popularity. Girls who are perceived as popular are viewed as prosaically, socially visible and using social – aggressive strategies to establish and maintain a popular status.

### 1.3.8 Personality as social intelligence

In contrast to the psychometric approaches, the social intelligence view of personality (Cantor & Fleeson, 1994, 1987, 1989; Cantor & Zirkel, 1990; Synder & Cantor, 1998) does not conceptualize social intelligence as a group of traits, on which individuals can be compared and ranked on a dimension from low to high. Rather, the social intelligence personality is based on the expectation that social behaviour is intelligent and that individual differences in social behaviour are the product of differences in the knowledge social behaviour is intelligent means that it is mediated by cognitive processes of perception memory, reasoning and problems – solving rather than being medicated by innate reflexes, conditioned responses, evolved genetic programs the like Rather than asking how socially intelligent a person is compared to some norm, the social intelligence view of personality asks what socially intelligent a person is compared to some norm the social intelligence view of personality asks what social intelligence a person has which he or she can use to guide his on her interpersonal behaviour. The social intelligence approach to personality is less interested in assessing the individual’s repertoire of social intelligence, than in seeking to understand the general cognitive structures and processes out of which individuality is constructed, how these develop over the life course of the individual and how they play a role in ongoing social interactions for this reason. (Cantor and Kihlstrom;
1987, 1989) did not propose any individual difference measures by which the person’s social intelligence can be assessed.

**1.3.9 Social intelligence and emotional intelligence**

According to Landy (2005) emotional intelligence as a so called new construct has simply replaced the older nation of social intelligence similarly Bowman et. al. (2001) posited that it is not certain to what extent tacit knowledge, social and emotional intelligence measures are structurally independent. Although Fillp Lievens and David Chan (2009) show that these three constructs are definitely over lapping, it is possible to make at least some subtle distinctions on the one hand, emotional intelligence might be some what narrower than social intelligence because it focuses on emotional problems embedded in social problems (Inayer & Salovey, 1993). That is probably why salovery and Mayer (1990) define emotional intelligence as a subset of social intelligence conversely, one might also posit that emotional intelligence is border than social intelligence because internal regulatory pocesses / emotions are also taken into account something that is not the case in social intelligence with it’s emphasis on real-world problems is more distinct than the other two constructs because it makes no reference to inter personal skill (Austin & Saklofske, 2005). Domain specificity is another aspect of tacit knowledge that contrasts to the more generic nature of social and emotional intelligence. In any case these conceptual distinctions are open to investigation because no study has explicitly examined the three constants together (Wise & Suss, 2005) and other difference between emotional intelligence and social intelligence specific to do with the integrant emotional intelligence intersection of the emotions and thoughts, while social intelligence we are taking about a general category the human capacity to understand what’s happening in the world responding to that understanding in a personality and socially effective manner.
1.3.10 Social intelligence in life tasks

According to Cantor and Kihlstrom (1987). Social intelligence is specifically geared to solving the problems of social life and in particular managing the life tasks, current concerns (Klinger, 1977) or personal projects (Litle, 1989) which the person selects for him or herself or which other people impose on him or her from outside. Put another way, one's social intelligence cannot be evaluated in the abstract, but only with respect to the, domains and contexts in which it is exhibited and the life tasks it is designed to serve, and even in this case "adequacy" can not be judged from the viewpoint of the external observer, but rather from the viewpoint of the subject whose life tasks are in play.

Life tasks provide an integrative unit of analysis for the analysis the interaction between the person and the situation. They may be explicit or implicit, abstract or circumscribed, universal or unique, enquiring or stage specific, rare or common place ill-defined or well-defined problems. Whatever their features, they give meaning to the individual's life and serve to as agonize his or her daily activities. They are defined from the subjective point of view of the individual: they are the tasks which the person perceives him or herself as "working on and devoting energy to solving during a specified period in life (Cantor & Kihlstrom 1987). First and foremost life tasks are articulated by the individual of self-relevant time-consuming, and meaningful they provide a king of organizing scheme for the individual's on going daily life and they are responsive to the demands, structure and constrains of social environment in which the person lives life tasks are imposed on people, and the ways in which they are approached may be constrained by socio cultural factors. How’re, unlike the stage structured views of Erikson (1950) and his popularizes (e.g. Levinson, 1978, Sheehy, 1976), the social intelligence view of personality does not propose that every one at a particular age is engaged in the same sorts of life task. Instead, periods of transition, where the person is entering into new institutions, are precisely those times where individual differences in life tasks become most apparent.
For example, Cantor and her associates have chosen the transition from high school to college as a particulate informative period to investigate, life tasks (Cantor, Acker and Cook Fluragan, 1992; Flesson, 1991, 1994; Cantor & Harlow, 1994; Cantor & Langton, 1989; Cantor & Malley, 1941; Cantor, Noren, Niedeuthal, Langston, & Brower; 1987; Zirkel & Cantor; 1990). Freshman year is more than just convenient for academic researchers to study: The transition from high school to college and adulthood is a critical developmental milestone, where many individuals leave home for the first time to establish various independent habits and life styles and although the decision to attend college may have been made for them (or may not have been a decision at all but just a fact of life), students still have a great deal of leeway to decide for themselves that they want to do with the opportunity... what life tasks will occupy them for the next four years. Accordingly, when college students are asked to list their life tasks, they list social life tasks (e.g., making friends or being on my own) as often as they list academic ones (e.g., getting good grades or carving a future direction) and while the majority of students’ life task could be slatted into a relatively small number of common categories, their individual constructs of these tasks were quite unique and led to equally unique strategies for action.

### 1.3.11 Development of social intelligence

Discussion in the field of social intelligence also included the development of social intelligence or it is genetically determined many exponents in the field have. Clearly, expressed their view on the issue Wilson (1978), Desen (1980) and Maria and Piper (1980) from their studies concluded that early home environment is a significant predication of mental development at the same time the home is of extraordinary importance in the development of social intelligence. Although the psychometric and personality views of social intelligence are opposed on many important points, such as the matter of comparative assessment of individuals they come together nicely in recently work on the development of social intelligence (Greenspan, 1979) of course social intelligence has always played a role in the concept of mental retardation. This
psychiatric diagnosis requires not only evidence of sub normal intellectual functioning (i.e. It < 70) but also demonstrated evidence of impairments in "communication self-care, home living, social and interpersonal skills, use of community resource, self-direction, functional academic skills, work leisure health and safety (American psychiatric Association, 1994).

While the conventional diagnostic criterion for mental retardation places primary emphasis on IQ and intellectual functioning (Greenapan, 1979) has argued that it should emphasize social and practical intelligence instead. To this end Greenspan proposed a hierarchical model of social intelligence in this model he did not propose specific tests for any of these components of social intelligence all this well and good but while the criterion for impaired intellectual functioning is clearly operationalized by an IQ threshold there is as yet no standard by which impaired social functioning impaired social intelligence can be determined. The Vineland social maturity scale (Doll, 1947) was an important step in this direction: this instrument, which yields congregate score of social age and social quotient. However, it is a telling point that this instrument for evaluating social intelligence and other aspects of adaptive behavior was intruded almost a half century after the first IQ scale was introduced by Binet and Simon. The Vineland, which has been recently, revised (Sparrow, Balla & Cichett, 1984) but its adequacy as a measure of social intelligence is compromised by the fact that linguistic functions, motor skills, occupational skills, and self-care and self-direction are assessed as well as social relations. As an alternative, Taylor (1990) has proposed a semi structured social intelligence interview covering such domains as social memory, moral development recognition of and response to social cues and social judgment. However Taylor concedes that such an interview, being ideographically constructed to take account of the individual's particular social environment, can not easily yield numerical scores by which individuals can be compared and ranked. More important than ranking individuals, from Taylor's point of view, is identify area of high and low functioning within various environments.
experienced by the individual and to between the individual and determine the goodness of fit between the individual and the environments in which he as she lives. This latter goal, of course, is a primary thrust of the social intelligence view of personality espoused by Cantor and Kihiston (1987)

Marlowe (1985) designed a training course for improving social functioning in normal adolescents and adults. They systemic behavioral and educational interventions included in the course were assertiveness, social skills, interpersonal communications, and social problem solving team development, negotiation, coaching and self image.

Albrecht (2004) understand social intelligence as a combination of skill pressed through learned behaviour. He suggested that after assessing the impact of one's behaviour on others. According to him people who lack insight and competence in dealing with others can make significant improvements in their social intelligence status as a result of understanding the basic concepts and assessing themselves against a comprehensive model of interpersonal effectiveness.

Chesnokova and Subbotsky (2005) viewed social intelligence as a useful, creative and adaptive capacity. According to them, social intelligence is not an innate capacity it develops at a certain point of an individual life and that it is possible to train and increase social intelligence in children.

Kang, Day and Meara (2005) argued that social intelligence has a powerful intuitive appeal people vary in the level of their social intelligence and that variation is consistent with one's experiences with others in social setting and with one's observations of the social interactions of others.

Goleman (2006) suggested that it is possible to develop social intelligence. Phipps (2007) pointed that social intelligence can be learned. He proposed two approaches that would be helpful for the development of social intelligence, social learning theory and appreciative inquiry social learning theory postulates that significant human experiences create assumptions and behaviors which we carry into future in an effort
to adopt to life's circumstances. Appreciative inquiry helps the power of positive thinking engaging our attention focusing our attention and ideals and goals. It was found that both methods tap the awesome power of the brain to forgeneural path ways for new ideas and strange then desired social interaction behaviors.

Graham (2008) suggested that social intelligence can be developed although genetics plays role in determining social intelligence because of clear links to personality characteristics such as extraversion, dominance, social presence, affiliation and self acceptance. He proposed that developing social intelligence means changing the way one acts and intracts with others and then turning these changes in to new habits this takes focused attention and practice, allowing within the basal of ganglia of the brain.

Thus many researchers came up with the view that social intelligence can definitely be developed by proper training

1.3.12 What are the key elements of social intelligence

According to Ronald E. Riggio (2014) some elements of social intelligence

- Verbal fluency and conversational skills; you can easily spot someone with lots of social intelligence at a party or social gather in because he or she knows how intelligence person can carry on conversations with wide verity of people, and is tactful and appropriate in what is said combined, these represent what are called social expressiveness skills.

- Knowledge of social Roles; Rules: socially intelligence individuals learn how to play various social roles. They are also way versed in the informal rules, or "norms" that govern social interaction in other words, they "know how to play game of social interaction. As a result they came off as socially sophisticated and wise.

According to other literature social intelligence elements.
• Effective listening skills

Socially intelligence persons are great listeners; As a result others come a way from an interaction with a social intelligence person feeling as if they had a good "connection" with him or her.

• Understanding what makes other people Tick

Great people watchers, individuals high in social intelligence attune themselves to what others are saying and how they are having, in order to try to "read" what the other person is thinking or feeling understanding emotions is part of emotional intelligence, and social intelligence are correlated-people who are especially skilled are high on both.

• Role playing and social self-efficacy

The socially intelligence person knows how to play different social roles allowing him or her to feel comfortable with all types of people. As a result, the social intelligence individual feels socially self-confident and effective - what psychologist call.

• Impression management skills

Person with social intelligence are concerned with the impression they are making on others. They engage in what I call the "Dangerous art of impression management", which is a delicate balance between managing and controlling the image you portray to others and being reasonably a "authentic" and letting others see the true self. This is perhaps the most complex elements of social intelligence.

• Presence: Socially intelligent person always presence good school college, company etc.

• Clarity: Socially intelligence person perfect.

• Awareness: Socially intelligence person he know what is doing am I and awareness his self, social world and many more.

• Dependability is good and sympathy to others people socially intelligent person.
1.3.13 Suggestion for Adolescents how can they improve their social intelligence:

Improving the strength of social intelligence can help you guard against such misunderstanding and give you a greater resilience to our relationship. Some tips as under that you can help improving you social intelligence.

• Practice assertiveness techniques.
• Be aware of your non-verbal communication.
• Don't fall into the vicious circles of misunderstanding.
• Use social intelligence as well as offline.
• Understand of social world.
• Improve your social skill.
• Develop your communication skill.
• Do your conflict management.
• Use mannerly worlds like "please" thank you, etc.
• Give compliments regularly to others.
• Receive compliments without discounting.
• Apologize.
• Accept the apology of others.
• Introduce others.
• Make more friends and live properly with them.
• Keep your promises which you give to others.
• Meet different kind and types of people.
• Learn to take your social responsibilities.
• Respect your elders.
• Be more socialize.
• Follow social rules.
• Don’t get pressurized by the society.
• Respect of heterogeneous peoples.
• Learn from your past experience.
• Participate in social and family cultural events.
• Control your emotions.
• Behave respectfully and maintain dignity of others.
• Learn from others mistakes.

1.4 Family and Definition of Family

The family is one of the most important socio economic institutions in our society, but the nature of links between family members varies dramatically across nationality. Family is environment where the children learned to use their facilities and understand and cope with the physical world. it is a time when they don't bother with trivial things such as the family relationship it is the place where they learn how family relationship work by observing their parents grad-parents, sibling and rest of the family members deal with each other.

• Definition

"The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and entitled to protection by society and state."

(United Nation, 1945)

"There are diverse types of families, many of which include people related by marriage or biology or adoption a well as people related through affection, obligation, dependence or co-operation"

(Rothausen, 1999)
"Family as any group of people related either biologically, emotionally or legally. That is the group of people that the patient defines as significant for his or her well-being.

(Mcdaniet et al. 2005)

1.4.1 Family theories

1. Family systems theory

Every family has system and small groups. This theory views families as living organisms and stresses boundaries, rules, expectations and behaviors that the family maintains equilibrium and the status homeostasis. If something changes is one part of the family, other parts will need to adjust as well. In addition system in the community so changes in one family will create imbalance and lead to changes in other systems that surround that shall address these interconnected units and never assume an individual can change without these other adjustments.

• The eight interlocking concept of Bowen family system theory (1978)

1. Differentiation of self

Level of differentiation refers to the which can think and act for self while in contract with emotionally charged issues. It also refers to the degree to which a person can decide between thoughts and feelings. At higher levels of differentiation, people maintain separate, solid selves under considerable stress and anxiety. They manage their own reactivity and choose thoughtful actions. At lower levels of differentiation, people depend on others to function, and they develop significant symptoms under stress. They act often destructively based on anxious reactions to the environment. Their intellectual reasoning fuses with emotionality even highly intelligent people can be poorly disentailed.

One cannot actually measure level of differentiation because it required observation of multiple areas of functioning over a life course. However, the scale gives a way of conceptualizing variability in coping among people.
Some way think Bowen theory seems too deterministic, but it actually promotes personal agency and improving one’s life, the life of one's children an life of one's family. The process of differentiating a self involves a conscious effort at can consolidate solid the amount of solid self by defining beliefs and principles managing anxiety and reactivity and relating differently to the family system. People engaged in these efforts reap positive benefits for their own functioning, and they automatically raise the level differentiation in the whole system.

2. Triangles

The Bowen researches consider triangles a natural function of living systems. Triangles can have either negative or positive outcomes depending on how their members manage anxiety and reactivity. Bowen postulated that of one member of the triangles remains calm and in emotional contact with the other two, the system automatically calms down. On the other hand, with enough stress and reactivity members lock into a triangular position and develop symptoms.

3. Nuclear family emotional process

The nuclear family managing different anxiety with conflict, distance, over and under functioning reciprocity, which at extremes can lead to dysfunction in a spouse and child focus, people engaged in conflict fight, argue blame and criticize each other. Partners who distance tend to be emotionally unavailable and to avoid potentially uncomfortable, though important, topics. Reciprocity in takes on responsibility for the two some. The two people slide into over adequate and under adequate roles. This can become so extreme that one partner becomes in capacitated either with an illness of a general lack of direction. Child focus is discussed more under the next concept.

4. Family projection process

Bowen family systems consults report that when parents can instead manage their own anxiety and resolve their own relationship issues, the functioning of the child automatically improves.
5. Emotional cutoff
Where family members discontinue emotional contact with each other. This has significant implications for the functioning of future generation as the emotional family unit is severed in such a way that anxiety has fewer places to be aborted in the extended family system. Consequently, chronic anxiety increases. People look for other relationships to substitute for the cut off relationship. These new relationships intensify and people become lank to symptoms.

6. Multi generational transmission process
Differentiation of self is transmitted through the multi generational transmission process. This concept describes patterns of emotional process through multiple generations. It offers a way of thinking about family patterns that goes beyond a dichotomy of genes versus environment one of the ways family patterns are transmitted across generations is through relationship triangles.

7. Sibling position
Sibling position a concept which Bowen adopted from the research of Walter Toman, affects variation in basic and functional levels of differentiation as well. Oldest, youngest, and middle children tend toward certain functional roles in families, influenced also by the particular mix of sibling position of parents and other relatives.

8. Societal emotional process
The last concept Bowen developed is society emotional process. It refers to the tendency of people within a to be more anxious and unstable at certain times than others. Environmental stressors like over population, scarcity of natural resources, economic forces, and lack of skills for living in a diverse world are all potential stressors that contribute to a regression in society.

2. The family development theory
Family development theory focuses on the systematic and patterned experienced by families as they move through their life course. The term family as used here
represents a social group containing at least one parents-child relationship the family
group is organized and governed by social norms. The norm is social rules that govern

group and individual behavior.

Family development theory is an inter disciplinary approach examining the family
and it's involves biological, social and psychological perspective of development.

Biological needs in a family vary depending on the family structure and ages of its
members. In social development it affected by society and culture as a family
develops whatever is going on around it will change it and in that just as a human
develops through a sequence of stage so, deeps a family.

• The family life cycle

Stage - 1: Independent single

People between ages 18-30 living apart from their parents of orientation with no-
committed relationship or new family. Entering world of employment developing
sense of self-identify as adult. New control of choices and decision making adjusting
to parents having to adopt to lesser role may welcomes advice may be testing
relationships and experimenting with new found indepence.

Stage - 2: New married / common-law couple

Getting to know each other learning to work as a team considering what other person
may need. Decision making as a team communication development creating own
language managing sharing money and responsibilities and planning careers and
family choices.

Stage - 3: Early parenthood : couple prepares for new baby during pregnancy,
included early toddler years and preschool years, major life style changes occur for
the couple, juggling many demands of parenting relationship, career, financial
individual needs considered the most stressful but most rewarding stage of a family.
Stage – 4: later parenthood

Beings when oldest child beings adolescence and junior, teenage years including puberty dating, peer pressure and testing independence. Lasts until lost child leaves home considered very stressful, communication may be issue.

Stage - 5: Lunching or empty nest parents must renew their relationship with each other careers have peaked and income pressures often decrease and many include grand children as well as aging parents to care for communication with older children may be issue.

Stage - 6: Family in later life Adjustments when one or both parents stop working and enjoyment of more financial security.

- The components of family systems theory are as follows
  - Have interrelated and construction

The elements of a system are the members of the family. Each element has characteristics: there are relationships between the relationships function in an inter dependant manner. All of these create a construction interrelationship among the elements, including membership in a system and the boundary between the system and its environment.

- Interact in pattern:

There are predictable pattern of interaction that come in a family system. These repetitive cycles help maintain the family equilibrium and indication the element about how they should function.

- Have boundaries and can be viewed on a continuum from open to closed every system has ways of including and excluding elements so that the line between those within the system and those outside of the system is clear to all. If open boundary system allows elements and situations outside the family to influence it. A closed boundary systems isolate its members from the environment and seems isolated and self contained No family system is completely closed or completely open.
- Function by the composition law:

Every family system even through it is made up of individual elements; results in organic whole and over all family images and themes are reflected in this holistic quality.

Use messages and rules to shape members:

Message and rules are relationship agreements which fix and limit a family member's behaviour over time. They are repetitive and redundant they are rarely, if every explicit or written downy. They give power they induce quit, they control or limit behaviours and they perpetuate themselves and reproduce most messages and rules can be stated.

1.4.2 Family formation

A number of theories in psychology light on the nature and drives of family creation, amongst them object relations theory attachment theory and theories of personality.

"Object relations" refers to the emotional bonds between the self and another person or object. It was first developed by Freud who defined "objects" as anything an infect directs drives towards, in seeking satiation (Frued, 1914). Subsequently object relations theories grew out of the writings of major psychological theories such as fairbarin, (1953); Kernberg (1970), Kleam (1952), Kbhut (1985), Winnicott (1971) etc.

Object relations theories argue family is the result of innate drives to from and maintain relationships. However, these fundamental drives are strongly mediated by the way individuals interpret their earliest primary relationship, particularly the mother infant dyad. It is the interpretation on the relationship between the infant self and primary figures (particularly the mother) that the foundations for the development of individual identify and personality and becomes the basis later relationships with others in marriage and raising a family. Object relations theories argue that our basic
tendency is to seek out others - such as spouses who will reaffirm our earliest self-object relationships.

Attachment theory also offers insights into the creation and maintenance of family relationship like object relations theories. Attachment theory argues that the bonds between a child and care-giver, usually the mother, affects the child's personality development and subsequent interpersonal relationship (Ainsworth, Blechar, Waters and Wall, 1978).

Bowlby and Ainsworth (1991) outlined three kinds of attachments that infants had to their mothers: secure attachment, where children had a loving childhood with mothers who were sensitive and responsive to their needs; avoidant attachment characterizing children who were constantly denied physical contact by their mothers, and anxious attachment, resulting from mothers who were slow and in consistent in responding to their infant's cries.

Attachment theories argue that the formation and strengthening of relationships in adulthood parallel attachments styles of infancy and that there are different kinds of love experiences for people with different strengths of relationships. Adults with secure relationships are confident in both themselves and their relationships while those with avoidant behaviours tend to be detached from both their own feelings and their relationships. Anxious are likely to be apprehensive and distressed both in themselves and in relationships (Morgan and Shaver, 1999).

Family creation, age at first marriage and the structure and quality of romantic and family relationship are influenced by the working model (or mental model) on self and others that was developed during infancy and childhood and attachments styles in adult relationships parallel those in infancy. Adults with secure attachments find it relatively easy to get close to others are comfortable depending on others and having others depend on them and to form relationships based in trust, friendship and positive emotions, relationships which they believe can be long-lasting. By contrast, adults with avoidant attachments question the possibility or durability of romantic
love. They may have relationships based on fears of closeness, finding it difficult to trust others completely or to allow themselves to depend on others. Finally adults with anxious attachments may struggle to find what they consider to be true love they that others are reluctant to get as close as they would like, and may worry that their partner does not love them or will not want to stay with them (Hazanad Shaver, 1987)

Theories of personality within psychology also offer insight into family formation arguing that personality characteristics play a central role in the section of marriage partners (Botwin, Buss and Shuakelford, 1987). Theories of assortative mating contend that people tend to seek mates who are similar to themselves (Backwell and Lichter, 2000) Also, most individuals tend to want certain personality characteristics such as emotional stability, agreeable, dependability and openness in mate (Larsen and Buss, 2002).

1.4.3 Family structure

Many forms of family structure exist in modern society today the traditional two-parent hetero sexual family, sole parent, step and blended, foster families, However family functioning appear to be more important than family structure to the well-being of family to children development. A universal issue in all families is the presence or absence of secure attachments within the family (Veronica, J. et al. 2004).

The impact of different family structures ha been addressed in a large number of studies in general, being raised in a sole parent or step family (as compared with being raised in a family both biological parents) or in an "out of family" placement is correlated with poorer outcomes on a wide range if measures. (Baker, Pryor and Shirley - 2000, Haveman and walfe - 1993, Rodgrs and Pryor 1998)

Research suggests that the relationship between sole parenthood and adverse outcomes is not primarily a direct causal one but is explained by other factors associated with, but note, exclusive to, sole parenthood (Baker et al. 2000, Landly and Kwan Tam, 1998). Particular family structures are not themselves a problem there are many diverse family structures that can function well for parents and children a like -
but the instability of relationships, households and families that accompanies change is a great threat to the wellbeing of children (Pryor and Rogers, 2001)

1.4.4 Family behaviour

Family for many individuals the family is the domain in which they see looks to fulfill innate drives and achieve many life goals. Membership of a family is more likely to enhance each individual's emotional, social and physical well-being when there is secure attachment and affection between family members individuals have some autonomy roles and responsibilities are clear there is social support from external sources, and levels of stress on the family from external or internal sources are low (Veronica, J. et al. 2004)

Family systems comprise the ways families organize themselves and how their members interact with one another. Families typically have roles that determine the way they are organized and which help the family define and perform its functions (Minchin, 1974). Family system theory also known as Bowen provides a framework for examining family situations and behaviours in terms of past relationships and family histories (Bowen, 1985). It offers a theory of family behaviours based on the premise that the family can be viewed as a single emotional unit made up of interlocking relationships existing over many generations (Kerrand Bowen, 1988).

A key concept in family system theory is that the family is an emotional system or an emotional unit, the family members are emotionally interdependent and function in reciprocal relationships with one other. Therefore, the functioning of one member cannot be completely understood if taken out of the context of functioning of the people closely involved with him (Kerr, 1988). Family systems theory argues that an individual's behaviour throughout the life course is closely related to the functioning in one's original family one strength in of family systems theory is that is conceptualizes ‘family’ as encompassing a variety of family forms including the immediate family with whom the individual lives, the enhanced family of relatives and friends, and the community at large (Veronica, J. et al, 2004)
1.4.5 Sibling relationships

Siblings play an exclusive role in one another's lives that simulates that companionship of parent as well as the power and assistance of parents (Eurman, W. & Bachermester, D. 1985). Because sibling often grow up in the same household. They have a large amount of exposure to one another, but this relationship tends to be more golitarian than with family members. Further more sibling relationships often reflect the overall situation of cohesiveness within a family (Eat, P. & khoo, S. 2005) relationship among the children in a family are not always miserable sibling competition not with standing the advantages of having brothers and sisters are numerous. The first and primary advantage is that a sibling especially an older sibling of the same sex can serve as a role model. Some authorities believe that, in the long run the positive important of siblings in teaching social roles to their brothers and sister for out weights the negative aspects of sibling rivalry (Danald, P. 1964). He nature of sibling relationships changes from childhood to adolescence. While yang adolescents often provide one another with warmth and support (Lenper, J. et al. 1942).

1.4.6 Types of families

1. Join family

According to Iravati Karve joint family is a group of people who generally give under one roof who eat food cooked at one hearth, who held property in common and who participate in common family worship and are related to teach as some type of kindred.

According o K.M. Kapadiya joint family is a group formed not only of a couple and their children but also other relations either from father's side, depending on whether the joint family is patrilineal or matrilineal.

According to E. A. Rose Traditional joint family was a kind of entity of those related to each other as some type of kindred. Co-residence, common property and
commensality co-worship as well as the observance of certain rights and obligations are some of the essential features of the joint family.

**Joint family characteristics**

According to Puja Mandal, some characteristic as under

**• Large size:**

The joint family is large in size it consists of parents’ children, groan children and other near relatives along with women. It is a group in which several basic families live together at one and the same time.

**• Common residence.**

The members of joint family usually live under the same roof. They may also live in separate house in close proximity to one another Sir Henry Maive holds the view that joint habitation is the most striking feature of a joint family. The traditional large joint family household is very of ten called the 'Great House'.

**• Common kitchen.**

Common residence through an important feature is not necessarily a determining factor for the formation of a joint family. The reason is not for to seek. A number of persons may live under one roof, as in the case of an apartment but they do not necessarily from a joint family. The members of a joint family take food cooked at one hearth.

Generally the wife of the head of the house remains in charge of the kitchen. She is assisted by other women in culinary activities. Women first serve the children and the male members of the family and then they take their food. Even they do not hesitate to serve food to even uninvited guests. The moment the kitchen is separated, the joint family cases to exist.

**• Joint property**

In a joint family, the ownership, production and consumption of wealth takes place on a joint basis both movable and immovable property of the family is owened jointly.
The jointly property is managed by the head of the family, who is known as the 'Karta'. He acts as a trustee and looks members of the family. The total earnings of all the family members are pooled together, family expenses are met out of these earnings.

- **Common worship.**

Common worship an integral feature of the joint family system generally the members of a joint family believe in the same religion and worship similar deities. The deities are called 'Kula Devats'. Members of the family take part in the various regions rituals ceremonies and sacrifices this common.

- **Blood relationship.**

All the members of the joint family are related to each other as some type of kindred kinship the binds the members in to gatherness in the family.

- **Common structure.**

A Joint family consists of a large number of members and if they do not cooperate with one another it is not possible to maintain the organization and creation of the joint family.

- **Feministic combination.**

In the joint family individual interests are subordinated to family interests.

- **Rule is Karta.**

Rule by Karta is another intestinal feature of the joint family the head of the joint family. Wields unquestionable authority over all the members of the family. The entire system revolves round the principle of subordination of all other members to the head. The Karta takes independent decisions pertaining to property, business at fairs, Children's education, their occupation and marriage, major purchases and soles etc. He interacts with family members in such a way that it would lead to their material and spiritual well-being.
• Principal of seniority:
The authority in the family is determined on the principle of seniority. The eldest male / female may delegate the authority to someone else keeping the principle of seniority in view. The principle of seniority limits the scope for the development of individualism.

• Joint responsibility.

• Mutual rights and obligations.

• Filial relationship.

2. Divided family

Today in India, we have a generation of people who after having lived in joint family system have taken the starting to break out and start a divided family. A large contributor to this break away was industrialization industrial revolution brought with increase in job opportunities in and around major industrialized and commercial cities and towns. Most of parents want to bring up their children with their own set of values and principles, without any "interference". This is something that can be easily established in a divided family where in the child has to follow only one set of values and is not confused with varying opinions.

There is more space for individuality and self-expression in divided family.

Divided families make the child more self-trustily and decisive as he/she is not as interpedently on a large number of family members to make decisions and take action. This independent streak can come in handily, as your child grows into an adult and has to make many decisions him / her.

Divided family means the part of family that includes only the father, mother and their children.

Some characteristics of divided family

• Small size

• Not a join property with elder or little brother
• Blood relationship
• Both of your parents under the same roof
• Support and stability
• Easily sharing responsibilities
• Can have relationship with both parents

1.4.7 Birth order and family

When Francis Galton punished English man of science in 1874 he found from biographical data of scientists that the proportion of only sons and first born sons was greater than would have been expected by change alone Galton invoked the antique laws of primogeniture to explain his findings the eldest son usually inherited the wealth of his parents and thus was free to pursue such matters of interest as science (Altys, 1966)

Galton's Pioneering research has inspired further study the relationship between birth order and socialization. Rosenberg and Sutton - Smith (1964) reason that birth order to day is an ecological variable that "operates" operates chiefly as a determinant of the availability of the major rewards in the child's family of origin. The differential effects of birth order would appear to be more significant in child hood than adolescence when boys and girls have access to other models and rewards than those of their parents. Thus many early internalization of role behavior that persists in adolescent identity formation and the adult personality have been showmen to be related to birth order (Rosenbergad, Sutton - Smith, 1994).

Family size appears to be a key factor in determining whether ordinal position affects socialization. Rosenberg and Sutton - Smith (1964) discuss how the size of a family affects the distribution of parental reinforcements one child to one parent may provide a match up in a two child family, but on of the children may be excluded in a three - child family. This child may try to compete by acting either like a child to obtain a share of the resources or an adult to receive special cognition from his parents. The
oldest child usually receives explicit recognition from both his parents and younger siblings for assuming the role of parents - surrogates, especially in large families. Rosenberg and sutton - smith also point out that more rivalry should be expected in same sex, two child families since same sex siblings compete for the same rewards. The rivalry should have the greatest impact on a first born, who undisputed claim to the family rewards until second born challenges his superman. When the second child arrives, a pattern for distributing the rewards must be developed but he is helped in his strangle by the older sibling who though a rival is also a model. But an older opposite - sex sibling may not facilitate sex role learning. Assuming the stereo type that girls are supposed to be more obedient, responsible and naught and boys more achieving self reliant and independent modeling one's behavior after that of an opposite sex sibling might make it difficult to identify with either feminine or masculine role. In a study of 900 children in the fourth through the sixth grades in 14 ohio school Resenbirg and Sutton - Smith (1964). Found support for most of these nations; for example as family size increased sex - role anxiety in both first and later born decreased. But in two child families these seemed to be a complementary imbalance - what was propitious for one siblings was not for the other a first - born with younger sibling of the same sex was more anxious, compulsive and assertive of his masculinity of femininity but first - born with a younger sibling of the opposite sex had of these characteristics. In two child families buy with a boy sibling were more masculine than boys with a girl sibling, and girls with a girl sibling were more feminine than girls with a boy sibling. In there - child families, however the first - born with younger siblings of the same sex siblings. For the second - born in two and three child families, the presence of an older same - sex sibling facilitated sex - role learning with minimal anxiety; the presence or and older opposite sex sibling led to sex role conflict and heightened anxiety.

Rosenbirg and Sutton - Smith (1964) also reported that in a three - child family, a first born girl or a later - born boy held he "most favorable position" relative to
socialization pressures and personality adjustment; in the two-child family, the second-born child with an older, same-sex sibling second to be in the favored position. In a study of youths ranging in age from 6 to 17 who were referred to outpatient psychiatric (Linics, Tuckman and Regan (1967 a) reported that in two-child families, the older sibling was least favorably situated. This child was referred more often to a psychiatric clinic for anxiety, aggression, and difficulties in interpersonal relations. In three-child families, the oldest sibling also appeared to have more interpersonal problems than the younger two, but in four-or-more-child families, there was little difference among the children according to birth order, suggesting to the research that there were" changes in parental attitudes and behavior, greater experience in debating with children, increasing importance of influences outside the home, and increasing ability on the part of older child increasing ability on the art of older child in dealing with anxiety, aggression, and interpersonal relations. (Tuckman and Regan, 1964 a. p. 39). But the first born but the first born were over represented in the clinic population nonetheless, and the researchers believe that the negative effects of first born status persist in to adolescence despite changes in family size. Tuckman and Regan (1967 b) also reported that although anxiety and neurotic behaviour decreased as family size increased, anti social problems. They suggested that in large families there is less parental pressure on children to do well and conform to middle class standards and thus there are lower levels of anxiety; conversely. In large families parents must confront the mounting pressure of household, chores, finical worries, and other problems day-to-day living and so they cannot adequately attend to the needs them free to express various forms of antisocial behavior.

1.4.8 Family relationship

V.G. Cicireli (1977) Provides an in depth review of the adult child and elderly parent relationship. He concludes that most adult children maintain a relationship with their adult parent because there are affection and bonds between them. Their relationship is characterized by close compatible and satisfying feeling between parents and
children. At the same time adult children need support in their relationship with their parents areas of need and always to meet these needs are discussed.

Family relationship is the second variable in the study and it is explained as the as the relationship aspects of the family which gives quality and flexibility to the functioning of the family relationship is the standing of one person to another, According to Wynne (1984) the terms relationship, relatedness, relating and relational systems are used to refer to the qualities and patterns of the processes that take place between persons. Each individual plays, a number of roles in the family and these influence relationships. The relationship involves a reciprocal interaction between members of the family.

"Family relationship (anthropology) relatedness or connection by blood or marriage or adoption.

1.4.9 Family relationship during adolescence

The relationship of young adolescents with member of their families deteriorate as adolescence progresses the usually lies on both sides parents far too often refuse to modify their concepts of their children's abilities at they grow older. A result they treat their adolescent sons and daughters much as they did when they were, younger in spite of this they expect them to "act their age" especially when it comes to assuming responsibilities (Hurlock E. B. 1981).

Even more important is the so called "generation gap" between adolescents and their parents. This gap is partly the result of radical changes in values and standards of behaviour that normally occur in any rapidly changing culture and partly the result of the fact that may young people now have greater educational social and cultural opportunities than most of their parents had when they were adolescents. Thus it is more correctly a "cultural gap", not due chronological age (Colmen, J. R. George, and G. Holt, 1977 and Lerner, R.M. et al. 1975).
In no area is this generation gap more apparent than in general mores. As way pointed out earlier. A sexual behavior that is condoned today among adolescents would have been strongly condemned by their parent at that age. (E. B. Hurlock, 1981).

Parent cannot be blamed for all the friction that develops between them and their adolescent children. No one is more irresponsible, more difficult to live with more unpredictable, or more exasperating than young adolescents - with the possible exception of preadolescents. Their inability or unwillingness to communicate with their parents helps to widen the gap between them. (Grando, R. & B. G. Girsberg, 1976) parents like wise find it difficult to accept their adolescent children’s objections to the restrains they regard as necessary; and they may be impatient with their failure to assume responsibilities they feel are appropriate for their age. These sources of irritation generally reach peak between fourteen and fifteen years, after which there is generally an improvement is in parent child relationships (Weller, L and Luch Herhand, 1977).

Equally important, many adolescents that their parents do not “understand them” and their standards of behaviour are old fashioned. This is due more to the culture gap, explain above, then to differences in age (E. b. Hurlock, 1981).

Although the sources of friction between adolescents and members of their family are myriad of certain, ones are almost universal in American families of greater in early than in late adolescence and they may be more common among girls than among boys (Coleman, J. R. et al. 1979)

According E. B. Harlock (1981) the most common and most serious sources of friction between adolescents and members of their families are listed as under.

- **Common causes of family conflict during adolescence**
  - Standards of behaviour
  - Methods of discipline
  - Relationships with siblings
- Feeling victimized
- Hyper critical attitudes
- Family size
- Immature behaviour
- Rebellion against relative
- Latchkey problems

1.4.10 Family function

Family is the most universal and fundamental social institution which performs a variety of functions in human society. Different sociologists and psychologist have classified the functions of family into different types here some family function mentioned as bellow.

According to Schiamberg (1983) family functions are.

1. Socialization of children.
2. Economic co-operation & division labor.
3. Care, supervision, monitoring and interaction.
4. Legitimizing sexual relations.
5. Reproduction.
6. Provision of status: Social familiar attributes (location)
7. Affection, emotional support and companionship.

Puja Mondal : Also a list of the basic function.

1. Biological functions:
   a) Satisfaction of sexual desires
   b) Reproduction
   c) Nature of children
2. Psychological functions
   a) Psychological security
   b) Affection

3. Traditional functions
   a) Physical function
      (i) Physical cure
      (ii) Provision of food and clothing
      (iii) Provision of shelter
   b) Economic functions
      (i) Labor division
      (ii) Determination of inheritance
      (iii) Productive unit
      (iv) Management of income
   c) Social functions
      (i) Determining social status
      (ii) Socialization
      (iii) Social control
      (iv) Perpetuation of human achievements from one
           Generations to other generation.
      (v) Helpful in selection of life partner.
   d) Religious functions
   e) Political functions
   f) Cultural functions
   g) Education functions
   h) Re-creational functions
• According to Callaghan, (1987) functions and characteristics of healthy families.

1. Clearly identified hierarchy
2. Well-defined parental roles
3. Flexibility & adaptability can respond to situational maturational crises.
4. Consistent affection
5. Consistent limit-setting
6. Open communication bi-directional
7. Consistent clear rules & expectations
8. Increased of support nurturance and acceptance of family members.

1.4.11 Characteristics of dysfunctional families

Minuchian (1978) gave characteristic of dysfunctional families.

1. Rigidity - lack of flexibility.
2. Lack of individuation - enmeshment.
3. Extreme detachment.
4. Scope - gating family member who is the object of displaced conflict.
5. Triangulation - Detouring conflict between two people involving a third person, there by stabilizing the relationship between the original pair.
6. Faulty problem solving skills.
7. Conflict avoidance.
8. Low levels of support.
9. Increased degree of expressed hostility towards each other.

1.4.12 Why are healthy family relationships important and what are healthy family relationship.

Typically when we think of families, the traditional divided and joint family who are biologically related may come to mind. However a family can be made up of anyone a person considers to be their family. A family shares emotional bonds, common values
goals and responsibilities. Family members contribute significantly to mental health of each other when a family includes adolescent one more adults may take on an involved role in the child's life and become a parents or care. Parents and cares may not necessarily be biologically related to the child or ever live with the child all the time. A child may have one or several parents or cares.

Healthy family relationship help all members of a family feel secure and connected to one another family relationships sometimes involve conflict which is a normal part of family life conflicts can occur between adolescent, children or adults and children, father and adolescent decisions does not match. It is important that these conflicts are dealt with in a safe and respectful way healthy family relationship also mean that positive interaction between family members out number the difficult times.

The relationships we experience with the people around us have a great influence on our mental health; strong, positive relationships help us build trust and feed supported. Having people around us who can share positive and difficult times can also help us manage stress when things become tough.

Children first of about relationships from their own families, families give them a model from which they start to find how to build relationships throughout their lives and adolescent also who have a model of healthy relationships from their families are better able to create these relationships outside their families with the other children and adults in their lives when adolescent learn the skills of building positive relationships they can practice these skills over and over again as they meet new friends, people. Adolescent also feel secure when they know that their family members love and will protect one another. A warm and secure family environment helps adolescent learn develop and experience what strong relationships look like.

1.4.13 Some tips for parent of adolescents. How to build good family relationship with their adolescents.

Building and maintaining positive relationships with adolescents and with all family members is not always easy. All families have times when moods flare, feeling get
hurt and misunderstanding occur it helps to have good communication flexibility and creativity these situations and maintain positive connections.

- Try to spend regular quality time together as a whole family and with each adolescent student, even if it is for a few minutes each day.

- Make adolescents feel secure and loved which helps their brains develop.

- You can help to overcome difficulties with adolescents eating, sleeping, learning and behavior.

- Have one-on-one chats with each family member to build and strengthen individual relationships.

- Good communication is important for good family relationships.

  • Talk about everything.
  • Listen with full attention to each other.
  • Make it of to talk about feeling.

- Work together to solve problems.

- Show appreciation love and encouragement through word and affection.

- Shows values and engage in family rituals.

- Teach and model problem solving skills to adolescent so they become more confident at resolving their own conflicts.

- Set example and send clear messages to children so they learn how to treat family members.

- Give attention to healthy and appropriate behavior.

- Give space to your adolescent to their independence.

- Manage work - family conflict.

- Find out about adolescents development knowing what kinds of behaviours are typical at their age and which stage he/she are going.
**1.4.14 Tips for adolescent how build good family relationship**

- Understand your family well.
- Respect your family.
- Give times your family.
- Never discriminate your friend younger and alder brother and hat to them.
- Learn to compromise.
- Avoid using aggressive and abusive words against family member.
- Never ever break any promise.
- Learn to forgive.
- Don't scold too much any one.

**1.5 What is learning Behaviour?**

Learning Behaviour emphasis the determinate the link between the way in which children and adolescents (young people) learn and their social knowledge and behaviour. In doing this the focus upon establishing positive relationships across three elements of self, others and course. The principles of learning behaviour have wide ranging implication for pupils, teachers, parents and other professionals. The principles can be applied to all children and adolescents at any age and not just those perceived as being “difficult to manage”. The apply as much to teachers and their relationship with children as much as they apply to the children and adolescents themselves. Pupils do his “learning behaviour through motivation, attention, attitude toward learning and Flexibility. Many of the learning behaviours studied were related to staying on task in group setting. Useful strategies related to the development of motivation attention on study.

**1.5.1 Nature and Meaning of Learning**

Learning is key process in human behaviour. All living is learning. If we compare the simple basal ways in which a child feels and behaves, with the complex modes of
adolescent behaviour his skills, habits thought and the like. We know what difference learning has made to the individual the individual is constantly interacting with and influenced by the environment. This experience makes him/her to change his/her behaviour in order to deal effectively with it. Therefore, learning is a change in behaviour, influenced by previous behaviour. Learning involves problem solving. Learning and activity across by the personal and social demand. Why should one learn? Because it is the demand of individual learn many things.

- All Living is learning.
- Learning is a change in behaviour.
- Learning is an adjustment.
- Learning comes about as a result of practice.
- Learning is Universal
- Learning is a relatively permanent change?
- Learning is Growth.
- Learning is not directly observable. The only way to study learning through some observable behaviour and some measure behaviour with psychological scale.
- Learning may be defined as the process by which a relatively enduring change in behaviour occurs as a result of experience or practice.


“Learning can be defined as any relative permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice or experience.

-Morgan, king, Weisz & Schlipar, 1986
Learning is relatively performed anent change in behaviour or in behavioural potentiality that result from experience and cannot be attributed to temporally body by illness, fatigue or drugs.


According to peter Gray psychologist and introductory textbook,” psychology” learning is defined broadly as any process through which experience at one time can alter an individuals behaviour at a future time. Most of psychology according to Gray is concerned with learning as our behaviour is consequence of our experience.

One of the most famous psychological experiments in learning and behaviour was conducted by Ivan petrovich Pavlov His experiment in part of classical conditioning, which concern itself with the formation of new reflexes, a response automated by stimuli. According to Gray necessarily pavlov’s conditioning studied dogs and their response to food. The dogs had tubes errantly implanted to collect their salivary and juices Pavlov.

1.5.2 Adolescent Behaviour and Learning

The developmental stage of adolescence is a complicated on to say the least. It is a time when pulling away and the desire for independence live alongside vulnerability and a needs, hormones and responsibilities all vying for attention. Bodies are changing and giving different cues than they have before the social climate and influence of peers is important and yet often a challenge to forthcoming achievement. This a lot for a adolescents to competition with the best circumstances. If the adolescent is also dealing with neuron development irregularities this way of experiences, needs and emotions an even obscure code to decipher without realizing it, teachers and parents can exacerbate the challenges faced by the struggling adolescent student by misreading behavioural clues as misbehaviors. This misbehavior is affect in adolescents learning. If we are not finding this behaviour. So it may be convert to learning disability or behaviour problem.
1.5.3 How people learn

Kolb, D.A. (1981) identified two separate learning activities that occur in the learning cycle. Perception and processing this is represented on the diagram as two axis diving the cycle into four quadrants.

1) Converging process

Converging processes relate to bringing a number of perspectives to finding a signal answers-usually right or wrong.

2) Diverging processes

Diverging processes are about generating a number of accounts of different experiments this is more creative process.

3) Assimilating processes

Assimilating processes describe (roughly) the taking in of new knowledge.

4) Accommodating process

This processes describe the related of new knowledge to our prior experiences and beliefs.

When we are doing something it is concrete experimentation and thinking about it that is reflection. Taking with other and applying what we already know to the situation that is abstract conceptualization, we are doing something new thing in a more sophisticated any based on our learning this is active experimentation. Initially all learning comes from perception which is directed to the brain by one or more the five senses. Sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste. Psychologists have also found that learning occurs most rapidly when information is received through more than one sense.
1.5.4 Principle (Laws) of Learning

Education psychologists have identity several principles which appear generally applicable to the learning process. They provide additional comprehension into what makes people learn most effectively and principles of learning, also referred to as laws of learning. Edward Thorndike developed the first three “Laws of learning readiness, exercise and effect.

1) Readiness

Individuals learn based when they are ready to learn, and they do not learn well if they see no reason for learning. Getting students ready to learn is usually the instructor’s responsibility. If students have a strong purpose, a clear objective and definite reason for learning something they make more progress than if they lack of motivation. Readiness indicates a degree of single-mindedness and eagerness when students are ready to learn, they meet the instructor at least halfway, and this simplifies the instructor’s job.

2) Exercise

The principle of exercise state that those things most often repeated are best remembered. It is the basis of drill and practice. The human memory is err able. The mind can rarely retain, evaluate and apply news concepts or practices after a single expose. Students do not learn to weld during one shop period or to perform crosswise landings during one instructional flight. They learn by applying what they have been told and shown, Every time practice occurs, learning continues. The instructor must provide opportunities for students to practice and, at the same time make sure that this process is directed toward a goal.

3) Law of effect

The principle of effect is based on the emotional relation and motivation. Learning is strengthened with pleasant or satisfying feeling with unpleasant feeling to do
otherwise. Experiences that produce feeling of defeat, frustration anger and confusion are unpleasant for the student.

The additional laws (principle) of learning.

* Primacy

Learning should be done correctly for the first time since it is difficult to ‘Unlearn.’

The primacy principle the state of being first, often creates a strong almost unshakable, impression for the instructor, this means that what is taught must be right the first time. For the student, it means that learning must be right.

* Intensity

The more intense something is taught the more likely it will be retained. The principle of intensity implies that a student will learn more from the real thing than from a substitute.

* Recency

The principle of recency states that things most recently learned are best remembered.

* Freedom

The principle of freedom states that things freely learned are best learned since learning is an active process, Students must have freedom. Freedom of choice, freedom of action, freedom to bear the results of action – these are the three great freedoms that constitute personal responsibility. If no freedom is granted students may have little interest in learning.

* Requirement

The law of requirement states that “We must have something to obtain or do something.” It can be ability, skill, instrument or anything that may help us to learn or gain something.
1.5.5 Mental process related to Learning

Learning memory mental processes learning, memory and mental processes. An individual learns that one event follows another memory and learning are closely connected that people often confuse them with each other. But the specialists who study them two distinct phenomena.

The specialists define learning as a Memory, on the other hand, is the process that will modify a subsequent ability to remember past experiences behaviour.

You learn a new language by studying it, but you then speak it by using your memory to recall the words that you have learned. Memory is essential to all learning, because it lets you store and recall the information that you learn memory is basically nothing more than the record left by a learning process. Thus memory depends on learning but learning also depends on memory, because the knowledge stored in your memory provides the framework to which you likely association. And the more extensive your framework of existing knowledge the more easily you can issue new knowledge to it.

There are five process (Puno, M.2013) learning memory and learning process.

1) Habituation: It is the simplest kind of learning, accounts for learning to ignore a stimulus that has become familiar and has no serious consequence.

2) Classical conditioning.

A reflex is the automatic response to a stimulus, while the natural stimulus is on that does not elicit the reflex being studied, although it may elicit other responses. In Pavlov research, he devised a simple experiment to determine how salivation could occur in the absence of an obvious physical cause. Pavlov established the existence of the two basic components for his experiment, a natural reflex (salivation of the dog when food was placed on its tongue) and a natural stimulus (the sound of the) buzzer.

- Basic Elements of classical conditioning.
* Unconditioned Stimulus (UCS) – the stimulus elicits the response without conditioning.

* Unconditioned Response (UCR) – the automatic unlearned reaction to the stimulus.

* Conditioned stimulus (CS) – refers to the previously mental stimulus, after paired with the unconditioned stimulus.

* Conditioned Response (CR) – the response it elicits from the conditioned stimulus.

3) Operant conditioning.

Operant is a response that operates in the environment a reinforce increases the probability that an operant behaviour will occur again.

Main types of Reinforcements.

* Positive Reinforcements: are stimuli that strengthen a response. If they are presented after the response has occur.

* Negative Reinforcements: are unpleasant stimuli such as pain, frustration or boredom that strengthen a response if they are removed after the response has occurred.

**Schedule of Reinforcements**

* Fixed-Ratio Schedule: - provides reinforcement following a mixed number of responses.

* Variable-Ratio Schedule: given reinforcement only after making a certain number of responses but that number varies unpredictably.

* Fixed-internal schedule: gives reinforcement for the first response that occurs after some fixed time has passed since the last reward, regardless of how many responses have been made during the interval.
* Variable-interval schedule: provides reinforcement for the first response after some period of time, but the amount of time varies.

* Stimulus Discrimination – In conditioned responses play an important role in human behaviour refers to stimuli that signal. Whether reinforcement is available if a certain response is made.

* Generalisation of operantly conditioned responses plays an important role in human behaviour. Generalization occurs when an organism makes the same response to similar stimuli.

4. Social learning

Social learning theory (Bandura, A. 1977) posits that people learn from one another, via observation, limitation and modeling.


Cognitive learning process of learning pervades our lives. Among students learning involved not only in the mastery of new skill or academic subject but also in the development of emotions, social interaction, and even personality.

While memory cannot occur. Without learning once information has been learned our memory may allow the learning to decay. Occasionally memory will unintentionally play a bit loose with the truth regarding what was previously learned. Emotions can be a catalyst or a barrier to learning, it has been estimated that 95% of our reactions are unconsciously driven by the amygdala and only meekness impacted by the executive centers of the Cerebral cortex. Although ours is generally considered a rational brain, it is an emotional brain where feeling receive first priority. A student who is upset one we can’t learn and will not remember content information well during assessment.

Several connected brain regions play key roles in memory formation, including the thalamus, amygdala, hippocampus and cerebral cortex. It is the interaction of nearly
all parts of the brain that allows for the construction of our memories in this topic how hippocampus and amygdala connection with memory discussed bellow.

The hippocampus plays a crucial role in forming and storing our memories of facts and events initially, short-term memories are briefly stored in the hippocampus, prior to being transferred to other brain regions where they are consolidated with prior knowledge into long-term memories. While constant stress and high anxiety can damage hippocampus brain cells, patterns, emotions, relevance, context, content and sense-making, boost attention, memory formation and recall. That all affects on learning and study cannot attention in class room so that their learning behaviour can be down.

Emotional experiences both positive and negative enjoy the highest probability of reaching permanent memory storage. It is the amygdala hippocampus connection that fosters the development of our most memorable moments in life. In the classroom, emotions determine what students pay attention to, which impacts what students will later remember.

So we can say about upper discussion based memory are affected to learning behaviour.

1.5.6 Learning theory

There are many different theories of learning. I will look May theories categories of learning. I also discuss some theories as well as possible by me. These theories, such as cognitive development. Student differences, and motivation and engagement in learning.

1) Behaviorism

Behaviorist psychology, come in the 1920s and 1930s from an attempt to the model the study of human behaviour on the methods of physical science. Therefore it concentrates attention on aspects of behaviour that are capable of direct observation
and measurement behaviorism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviours and discounts mental activities. Behaviorism theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquiring of new behaviour. At the heart of behaviorism is the idea that certain behavioral response becomes associated in a mechanistic and invariant way with specific stimuli.

How’re, most behaviour is more complex. Nevertheless, according to behaviorists, it is possible to reinforce through reward or punishment the association between any particular stimulus or event and a particular response. The bond formed between a stimulus and a response will depend on the existence of appropriate means reinforcement at the time of association between stimulus and response. Behaviour therefore can be modified or controlled by appropriately reinforcing random behaviour as it occurs.

Experiments by behaviorists identify conditioning as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning, each yield a different behavioural pattern. Classical conditioning occurs when natural reflex responds to a stimulus. The most popular example is Pavlov’s observation that dogs salivate when they eat or even see food. Essentially, animals and people are biologically “wired” so that a certain stimulus will produce a specific response. Operant conditioning occurs when a response to is reinforced. Basically, operant conditioning is a simple feedback system. If reinforcement follows the response to a stimulus, then the response becomes more probable in the future.

- Classical conditioning: stimulus/response (Behaviorist perspective).

Ivan Pavlov 1849 – 1936 Classical conditioning theory.

* Behaviorism: Stimulus, Response, Reinforcement.


* Edward Guthrie 1886-1959 contiguity Theory.
* William Kaye Estes 1919 – Stimulus Sampling theory.

- Neo-behaviorisms : Stimulus – Response;
  Internal variables; purposive. Behaviour.


2) Cognitive

Behaviorism ignores mental activity as the basis for learning. Learning for behaviorists is determined by external environmental structures that lead to reinforcement of behaviour, rather than to mental processing or conscious thought on the part of the learner. Cognitive, though, persist that there are mental process “internal and conscious representation of the world that are necessary for human learning.

The cognitive approach holds that if we are to understand learning we cannot confine ourselves to observable behaviour, but must also concern ourselves with the learner’s ability mentally to recognize his psychological field (i.e. his inner world of concepts, memories, etc.) in response to experience. This later approach therefore put stress not only on the environment, but also the way in which the individual interprets and tries to make sense of the environment. It sees the individual not as the somewhat mechanical product of his environment, but as an active agent in the learning process intentionally trying to process and categorize the stream of information fed into him by the external world (Fontana, 1981).
Cognitive approaches to learning a very wide range. On the one hand attempts have been made through areas such as artificial intelligence to provide mechanical, electronic and physical representations of mental processes reflecting very much as objectivist knowledge and speech position. On the other hand teachers who place a stronger emphasis on learners developing personal meaning through reflection, analysis and construction of knowledge through conscious mental processing would indicate much more of a constructivist knowledge and speech position. Cognitive approaches to learning “With their focus on abstraction, generalization and creative thinking seem fit much better in higher education.

* Cognitive perspective: Learning as a mental process.

-Gestalt Learning Theory: They are emphasis on perception, Decision making, Attention, Memory & problem solving.

- Max Wertheimer 1880 – 1943 Gestalt Learning theory.

- Kurt Lewin 1890 – 1947 Field Theoretical Approach.


- Kurt Koffka 1887-1941 Gestal Theory.

- Leon Festinger 1919-1989 Cognitive Dissonance

- Information processing and computer models.


* George, A, Miler 1920 – Information processing Theory.


* Craik & Luckhart Level of processing

* Allan paivio 1941-Dual coding Theory.

* Davin E. Rumelhart – Interactive Activation with competition.
- Constructivism: Knowledge is constructed, the Learner is an Active Creator.

* David Ausubel: 1918 – 2008 Suybsumption Theory

* Jerome Bruner: 1915 – Constructivism

* Jean Piaget: 1896 – 1990 Genetic Epistemology

* Jean Lave: situated cognition

* Chris Argyris: 1923 Double Loop Learning

* Rand J. Spiro: Cognitive Flexibility

* David Kob: Learning Styles.

* John Flavell: Meta cognition

* Roger Schank: Script Theory

3) Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory also called observational learning theory occurs when an observer’s behaviour changes after viewing the behaviour of a model. An observer’s behaviour can be affected by the positive or negative consequences – called vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment of a model’s behaviour.

Learning by observation involves four separate processes. Attention, retention, production and motivation.

Attention: observes cannot learn unless they pay attention to what happening around them. This process is influenced by characteristics of the model, such as how much one likes or identifies with the model, and by characteristics of the observer, such as the observer’s expectations or level of emotional arousal.

Retention: Observers must not only recognize the observed behaviour but also remember it at some later time. These processes depend on the observer’s ability to
code or structure. The information in an easily remembered form or to mentally or physically rehearse the model’s actions.

* Production: Observers must be physically and intellectually capable of producing the act. In many cases the observer possesses the necessary responses. But sometimes, reproducing the model’s actions may involve skills the observer has not yet acquired. It is one thing to carefully watch circus juggler but it is quite another to go home and repeat those acts.

Motivation: In general, observers will perform the act only if they have some motivation or reason to do so. The presence of reinforcement or punishment, either to the model or directly to the observer, becomes most important in this process.

For many educators, the social context of learning is critical, ideal are tested not just on the teacher but also with fellow student, friends, and colleges. Furthermore, knowledge is mainly acquired through social processes or institutions that are socially constructed: schools, universities. What is taken to be knowledge is also socially constructed, Knowledge is thus not about content but also about values.

- Social Learning perspective: Learning as a group process.

* Lev Vygotsky : 1896 – 1935 Social constructivism
* Albert Bandura : 1925 – Observational Learning
* John selly Brown : Cognitive Apprenticeship.

4) Humanistic theories

The Humanistic theories of learning tend to be highly value – driven and more like prescriptions rather than descriptions. They emphasize the “natural desire” of everyone to learn. Whether this natural desire to learn whatever is you are teaching, however, is not clear. It follows from this, they maintain, that learners need to empower and to have control and the learning process. So the teacher relinquishes a
great deal of authority and becomes a facilitate. According Humanistic perspective emotions and affect play a role in learning.


* Carl Rogers: 1902 – 1987 Experiential learning

* Jack Mezirow: Transformational Learning

5) Brain based Learning

This learning theory is based on the structure and function of the brain. As long as the brain is not prohibited from fulfilling its normal processes, learning will occur.

1.5.7 Types of Learning

Learning is the act of acquiring new or modifying and reinforcing human learning may occur as part of education, personal development, schooling or training different of educator psychologist. Etc, given different types of learning in this topic mentioned some types of learning.

1) Non-associative learning.

Non associative learning refers to “a relatively permanent change in the strength of response to a single stimulus due to repeated exposure to that stimulus and non-associative can be divided into habituation and sensitization. Habituation learning in which there is a progressive diminution of behavioural response probability with repetition stimulus. An animal first responds to a stimulus, but if it is not both rewarding and the animal reduces subsequent responses and sensitization is thought to underlie both adaptive as well as maladaptive learning processes in the organism.

2) Associative learning

Associative learning is the process by which an association between two stimuli or a behaviour and a stimulus is learned. The two forms of associative learning are
classical and operant conditioning. In the former a previously neutral stimulus is repeatedly presented together with a reflex eliciting stimuli until eventually the neutral stimulus will elicit a response on its own. In operant conditioning certain behaviour is either reinforced or punished which results in an altered probability that the behaviour will happen again.

(A) Classical conditioning

(B) Operant conditioning

Both types are discussed in 1.6.5. So see the 1.6.5 about classical conditioning and operant conditioning.

3) Play learning

Play it pertains to human as a form of learning is central to a child’s learning and development. Through play, children learn social skills such as sharing and collaboration. Children develop emotional skills such as learning to deal with the emotion of anger, through play activities. As a form of learning play also facilitates the development of thinking and language skills in children (Lillemyr, 2009).

There are five types of play according to Lillemyr (2009):

1. Sensor motor play aka functional play, characterized by repetition of activity.

2. Role play occurs from 3 to 15 years of age.

3. rule-based play where authoritative prescribed codes of conduct are primary.

4. Construction play involves experimentation and building.

5. Movement plays aka physical play.

These five types of play are often intersecting. All types of play generate thinking and problem-solving skills in children.
4) Enculturation learning

Enculturation is the process by which a person learns the values and behaviours that are appropriate or necessary in the culture by which he or she is surrounded (Grusec, et al, 2007). Parents, other adults, and peers shape the individual’s understanding of the values. If successful, enculturation result in competence in the language, values and rituals of the culture (Grusec, et al. 2007).

5) Episodic learning

Episodic learning is a change in behaviour that occurs as a result of an event. (Terry 2006). Episodic learning is no named because events are recorded into episodic memory. This is one of the three forms of explicit learning and netrieval, along with perceptual memory and semantic memory.

6) Multimedia learning

Multimedia learning is where a person uses both auditory and visual stimuli to learn information (Mayer, 2001). This type of learning relies on dual-coding theory (Paivio 1971).


Electronic learning or e-learning is a general term used to refer to computer – enhanced learning. A specific and always more diffused e-learning mobile learning, which use different mobile telecommunication equipment. Such as cellars phones. When a learner interacts with e-learning environment, it’s called augmented learning.

8) Rote learning

Rote learning is memorizing information so that it can be recalled by the learner exactly they way it was read or heard.
9) Meaningful learning

Meaningful learning is the concept that learned knowledge is fully understood the extent that it relates to the other knowledge. To this end, meaningful learning contrasts with rote learning in which information is acquired without regard to understanding. Meaningful learning, on the other hand, implies there is a comprehensive knowledge of the context of the facts learned (Hassard, Jack, 2011).

10) Informal learning

Informal learning occurs through the experience of day-to-day situations and life. It is learning from life, play, exploring, etc.

11) Formal learning

Formal learning is learning that takes places within a teacher-student relationship, such as in a school system. The term formal learning has nothing to do with the formality of learning, but rather the way it is directed and organized, in formal learning, the learning departments set out the goal and objectives of the learning (Bell, J, and Dale, M.1999).

12) Non formal learning

Non formal learning is organized learning outside the formal learning system. For example learning by carrying together with people with similar interests, workshops.

13) Tangential learning

Tangential learning is the process by which people well self-educate if a topic is exposed to them in a context that they already enjoy. Self-education can be improved with systematization. Self-education can be improved with systematization. According to Scott Armstrong, J (1979) in natural learning, self-oriented learning training has proven to be an effective tool for assisting independent learners with the natural phase of learning.
14) Dialogic learning

The Dialogic learning is type of earning bases on dialogue.

15) Incidental learning

This type of learning is not planned by either the instructor or the student but happens as a by product of another activity, which may be an experience, observation, self-reflection, interaction, unique event or common routine task.

16) Domains learning

Banjamin Bloom (1956) has suggested three domains of learning.

* Cognitive – To recall, analyze, discuss etc.

* Psychomotor – to dance, drive, swimming etc.

* Affective – To live something, love, hate etc.

17) Transfer learning

Transfer of learning is the application of skill, knowledge or understanding to resolve a novel problem. Which happen when certain conditions are fulfilled? Research indicates that learning transfer is infrequent; most common when cued, primed and guided,(Perkin, D.N. Salomon, G. 1989). And has sought to clarify what it is, and how it might be promoted through instruction.

Perkins and Salomon (1992) suggest that positive transfer in cases when learning supports novel problem solving, and negative transfer happen when prior learning inhibits performance on highly correlated tasks, such as second or third – language learning.
18) Active learning

Active learning happen when a person takes control of their learning experience since understanding information is the key aspect of learning. It is important for learners to recognize what they understand and what they do not.

19) Machine learning

Machine learning a branch of artificial intelligence, concerns the construction and study of systems that can learn from data.

20) Motor learning

The stages to motor learning are the cognitive phase, the associative and the autonomous phase. A motor skill is a function, which involves the precise movement of muscles with the intent to perform a specific act.

21) Spatial learning

Spatial learning refers to the process through which animals encode information about their environment to facilitate navigation through space and recall the location of motivationally relevant stimuli. It is generally believed that spatial learning entails encoding of the locations of cues relative to the position of other cues in a particular environment that leads to the information of a cognitive map of an individual’s surroundings.

22) Relational learning

Relational learning can assist differentiation between stimulus properties, either absolute or relational.

23) Observational/Social learning

Observational is learning that happen through observing the behaviour of others. This form of learning does not need reinforcement to occur, but instead, requires a model.
A social model can be a parent, sibling, friend, or teacher, but particularly in childhood – a model is someone of higher status.

24) Connected learning

Connected learning is a type of learning that integrates personal interest, peer relationships and achievement in academic, civic or career – relevant area (Ito, M. et al. 2013).

25) Chaining learning

Any skill can be thought of as a chain of small steps. These small steps are identified by completing a task analysis. Each, step, or link in the chain, serves as a cue to do the next step. By building one step onto another learned step in the sequence, strong chain can be created. This called chaining. There are two kinds of chaining, forwards and backwards.

26) Concept learning

Concept learning means while teaching simple concepts with clear instances is not that difficult, teaching concepts border cases is difficult, and teaching complex concepts remains a major challenge. According to E-leaner Rosch (1978). Suggested that the natural concepts in everyday life are learned though examples rather than abstract rules.

27) Discrimination learning

Stimulus discrimination is when we learn to respond only to the original stimulus and not to other similar stimuli.

28) Generalization learning

Generalization refers to a process within operant and classical conditioning, where conditioned responses start occurring in response to the presentation of other, similar.
Stimuli, not just the conditioned stimulus. In this learning people given response to the stimuli similar.

**1.5.8 Learning styles**

Learning is a complicated concept as every one is unique in their own way, and learn in their own way as well. That said, it is still very much possible to classify a learning style into one of seven categories.

The seven style of learning

1) **Visual (Spatial):** These people prefer to use pictures, images, and spatial understanding.

2) **Aural (Auditory – musical):** These people prefer to use sound and music.

3) **Verbal (linguistic):** These people using words, both in speech, and writing.

4) **Physical (Kinesthetic):** These people are the “learn by doing” people that use their body, hands and sense of touch.

5) **Logical (Mathematical):** These people using logic, reasoning and systems.

6) **Social (inter personal):** These people learn in groups or with other people.

7) **Solitary (intra personal):** These people doing work alone and use self-study.

**1.5.9 Factor influencing in learning**

There are several of factors influencing on learning. Either in a positive or a negative way study mentioned some factor that is as under.

1) **Personal factor**

The process of learning in influenced by a variety of personal factor. Some important personal factors are following :-
* Sensation and perception

Sensation and perception are the psychological factors which help in learning. Sensation is at the core of perception. There are five sense organs, skin, ears, tongue, eyes, and nose. These sense organs are the gateway of knowledge and help in perception of various stimuli in the environment.

* Fatigue and boredom

The difference between the two is that fatigue is mental and physical tiredness which decrease in efficiency and competency to work. Boredom, on other hand is a lack of desire or an aversion to work.

* Age and Maturation

Learning is directly dependent upon age and maturation. No learning can take place unless individual is matured enough to learn. Some children can learn better at earlier age while other take more time to learn the same content.

* Emotional condition

Good emotional condition enhances the quality and speed of learning opposite emotional condition, on the other hand, hinder learning.

* Need:

A need is the lack of the something, which, if provided, would facilitate child’s usual behaviour. The lack of something is experienced by the child. The child then tries to perform and does not learning well.

* Interests

Various types of interests of the students can be exploited to facilitate theirs learning.
Motivation

Motivation is the heart of the learning. It generates the will in an individual to do something.

(a) Intrinsic:

This type of motivation arises when the resolution of the attention is to be found in mastering in the learning task itself. The material learned provides its own.

(b) Extrinsic

Extrinsic motivation when student doing a learning task. But for reasons which are external. If a student engages doctor because he thinks it wills please his father who is an engineer. So this is effect in students’ extrinsic motivation.

* Intelligence.

A low score in one subject and his scores in other subjects indicate the possible presence of a special deficiency low IQ also influences in learning behaviour.

* Attitude

Attitude falls under mental factors attitudes are made up of organic and kinesthetic elements. They are not be confused with emotions that are characterized by internal visceral disturbance. Attitudes are more or less of definite sort. They play a large part in the mental organization and general behaviour of the individual. Attitudes exercise a stimulating effect upon the rate of learning and teaching and upon the progress in school.

* Aptitude:

A student, who possesses appropriate aptitude for a particular subject of study or skill, will learn better and retain it for a longer time. On other hand he will require relatively longer time to study a subject for which he lacks natural aptitude.
2) Sleep

Sleep is a biological factor that can affect the learning performance of people. In particular, too little, Sleep has a major impact. It leads to memory and concentration problems, problems, people have more difficulty responding flexibly to new situation and there is a stronger response to emotionally negative stimuli.

3) Self-regulating

Self-regulating capacity has a positive relationship with academic achievement. When someone has a large self-regulating capacity he/she is well able to orient plan monitor and adopt his/her behaviour and strategies during learning task.

4) Self-directed

Self-directed learning has a positive correlation with academic success such a person is able to asses his/her own learning needs, establishes personal goals, takes decisions about which learning strategies to use and is able to assess the outcomes.

5) Self-esteem

Many literature and psychological education study shows a positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement, but is not clear which way this effect works. The assumption is that the higher your self-esteem, the better you perform in school.

6) Fear and Anxiety

Fear and anxiety generally has a negative influence on the study-success.

7) Mental health

A good mental health generally has a positive influence on the study-success, attention, learning, but some time mental health low that influence on learning.
8) Environmental factors

The influence of environment beings since the time of the conception of the child in the womb of the mother. Foetus in the womb in influenced by mother’s mental, Physical and emotional conditions.

The external environment starts from the time of birth of the child. The external environment refers to the surroundings which prevail in home, school and locality.

At these places the child interests with other members of the family teachers’ classmates or peers and neighbors. He establishes relationship with them. Some of the environmental factors are as under.

* Natural surroundings cover the climatic and atmospheric conditions.

* Social surroundings Includes especially the environment of home, school and locality. It is difficult to do a good job teaching in a poor type of building and without adequate equipment and instructional materials.

* Heredity.

* Freedom and self-discipline.

* Recognition of teacher’s Authority.

- Nature Neglect
  
  * Physical Environment of School
  
  * Gap between school and community
  
  * Wholesome Experiences.

- Media influence of learning

  According to the psychologists, the Media is an important component of transmitting information.
(A) Print Media

It refers to texts or printed materials. It is economical and has traditionally been used for pedagogical purposes.

(B) Non-Print Media

It is also known as modern electronic media. It has certain unique qualities which in certain cases facilitate learning much faster than the print media.

9) Social media

Using social media becomes a risk to adolescents more often than most adults realize. Most risks fall into the following categories. Peer-to-peer, inappropriate content, lack of understanding of online privacy issues, and outside influence of third-party advertising groups.

- Cyber buying and online harassment.

- Sexing

- Facebook Depression.

- WhatsApp Anxiety

10) Personality

* Learner preferences

* Teacher’s personality

* Learner beliefs

* Age of Acquisition

* Learning strategy.
1.5.10 Learning disabilities

Learning disabilities are an umbrella term for a wide variety of learning problems. A learning disability is not a problem with intelligence or motivation kids with learning disabilities are not lazy. Infact, most are just as smart as everyone else. Their brains are simply wired differently. This difference affects how they receive and process information. Children and adults with learning disabilities see, hear and understand things differently. This can lead to trouble with learning new information and skills and putting them to use. The most common types of learning disabilities involve problems with reading, writing, math, reasoning, listening and speaking.

1.5.11 Parents suggestion of adolescents how to improve yours child, Adolescents learning behaviour.

* Don’t give your adolescent more suggestion.

* Give a good offer for choice.

* Give a behaviour therapy target proper, behaviour which you can improve.

* Keep rules simples and easy to understand.

* Set a good example and try to motivate his/her

* Use plays activities to teach social skills.

* Teach children how to resolve conflict and problems.

* Teach children how to apologize with teachers and others.

* Teach children how to correct their miss behaviour.

* Guidance discipline.

* Guidance value of life.

* Visit every month school and talk to your children behaviour, problem etc.
1.5.12 Suggestion for adolescent. How to improve their learning behaviour.

* Don’t understand work is hard.

* Use in learning different types of learning strategies.

* Know your ability.

* Attention in class room.

* During read don’t use mobile like listing song etc.

* Don’t given response unconsciously.

* When you are reading that time you have no interest in subject so take other subject.

* When you are suffering any illness talk your parents about it.

* Help your friend and take their help if any type needed.

* Participate in your school activity Don’t upset when your result or test mark low but analysis about it and ask your teacher which point you can not understand.

* Don’t leave work which you can do.

* Don’t anger highly

* Understood another people failed and learn to them.

* Doe’s self confidence in your self.

1.6 Significant of the study

The social world of an adolescent of comprises of his home, school, friends and neighborhoods but as the adolescence grew up his social world becomes more and more wide and complex. If only he acquires necessary social skills and sensitivities essential for the in formation of healthy interpersonal relationship, he can lead an active and successful social life, family relationship and good learning behaviour in
his/her years. A world where, people can effectively handle their relationship with others specialty family would be a better place to live.

Social intelligence helps him or her develop social world. Social intelligence terms out to be especially important in crisis situation adolescence as a period of growth in which identify formats is addressed (Muss, R. 1996). Social intelligence has a significant influence on many area of adolescent development, but now a day adolescence exhibit a low level of social intelligence. The rapid growth of population and the advancement of science and technology have made the social structure and social live more complex than ever before. Today’s adolescent are not getting ample opportunities for learning necessary competencies for effective social interaction. In a world where relations with the society and even family relationships are being shrunken in to a divided form, where adolescence’s social interaction, family relationship limits to his/her parents, social intelligence and family relationship can hardly develop.

The investigator’s previous experience as a teacher also pointed out the ardent need for enhancing social intelligence of students. Students were found to possess low level of social skills Adler et al. (1992) demonstrated that boys who have extremely poor social and interpersonal skills often have difficult social lives and low perceived popularity. Girls who are perceived as popular are viewed as prosaically, socially visible and using social aggressive strategies the establish and maintain a popular status in this study same types of question current generation adolescence grow the period very strongly growth they can’t understand what is social intelligence can play role, but here Thondike (1920) says social intelligence very important plays role in this period because. “Social intelligence is ability to understand and manage other people and engage in adoptive social interaction here. Some many important questions is boys and girls difference or same social intelligence and what is play role social intelligence in family relationship, here question are family and dived family adolescence student are difference social intelligence? When adolescent doing study
that time medium (Gujarati and English) both are same or different? In social intelligence medium boys and girls adolescent students better as compare Gujarati mediums students. So these questions here try to finding. In this study upper question try to finding upper questions given as well as possible good result and that result will be useful parents, teacher, and society counselor. Student and many people.

The social set up like the joint family system prevalent during early days contributed to the social and emotional development of young. Hence in these days, a content oriented curriculum was not a mother of concern. But now the situation has changed. The society follows a divided family system within with both the parents are busily engaged in their careers. The number of broken families is also increasing these days. In such a situation, it is sole responsibility of our education system to make provisions for the overall development of adolescent. Educational institution should help adolescent to develop an insight to human relationships, attitudes and habits conducive for the all round development of their personalities. Family is first institution to connect with us. So family is construction of personality and culture. Family gave adolescent purification. Family is small institute of society. The structure of family relationships influence economic behaviour and attitudes family is the environment where the adolescent learned to use there facilities and understand and cope with physical world. Now generation are changing much family become small, that time family relationship can not continues. So family relationship is important this study is useful to many family that how plays to role family relationship in adolescent student. Now many family leaves a village for vocational and many other reason. They are go to city so that time family are dived that influence adolescent mental health this study try to searching joint family plays better role as compare divided family. Attitude of family to day by day generation going very fast many people say “Small family happy family” that time birth order is important plays role when the children grow up and who will comply with them that time many family thinking one or two child is enough so here is important question birth order. So here
question are first born boys are good (living with joint/ divided family) family relationship as compare. Second born adolescent student, others question Gujarati medium and English medium boys and girls different family relationship? Here is in this study some of type hypothesis question make and try finding and solution upper question that result useful for family counseling center people society will understand how are play role family relationship in adolescent student. Learning is part of life during adolescences period most complicate behaviour because many changing in their body if adolescents can not attention their study during class room so that they can not easily learning and their learning behaviour will low and if adolescent good attention, motivation, flexibility attitude toward learning good so their learning behaviour very good and he / she are success in their education. According to carl Rogers (1983) Learning is a powerful incentive for many employees to sick to certain organizations. Learning has a significant impact on individual behaviour as it influences abilities, role perceptions and motivation. Along with its role in individual behaviour learning is essential for knowledge management. Knowledge management enhances an organizations capacity to acquire share and knowledge in ways that improve. It is survival and success. So that definition indicates learning play in good role in life according to card. Rogers definitions if good learning behaviour people can improve, knowledge and success. So in this study try to searching what types learning behaviour current generations. So at the time of many people says English medium boys and girls are good knowledge. Learning behaviour, skill many more and they will easily success. In this study try to finding what will be English medium and Guajarati medium (mother tongue) boys and girls. First born and second born which types of learning behaviour, and family relationship are play significance role in adolescent student during their study time ? So many types of questions in this study try to finding and that result will helps society, teacher, counselor and people basically learning behaviour results are useful education field.
So all of the above mentioned factor channeled the investigator to carry out the present study focusing on the enhancement of social intelligence, family relationship and learning behaviour an essential ingredient for the survival of human species.

1.7 Definition of Research important words.

1) Adolescence:
Adolescence is period of fast growth between childhood to adulthood age between 13 to 18 including physical, psychological, cognitive and social development.

2) Adolescent
In the described study the adolescents are considered between 13 to 18 years of age.

3) Social intelligence
Social intelligence is ability understood his/her self and well with others. Judgment in social world and awareness of attention, action and perception.

4) Family Relationship
Family relationship connection by biological with children, adolescents and parents who are living one house.

5) Learning behaviour
Learning behaviour means the conditions which affects while learning like attention, motivation, flexibility, attitude towards learning, relation with others friends above indicate the education skills of him/her and through it can be said about his/her achievement in future.

6) Age
We can consider age as the development from birth to till now.

7) Sex
The identification of sex can be utilize by development of their physical appearance.
In boys the recognition of his physical and girls the recognition of her physical appearance can be consider a sex.

8) Types of family

The difference is associated of family in which adolescents are living. The difference can be analyzed as either joint family or divided family.

* Joint family

Joint family can be consider in which family is living together since a long time from one dynasty to another dynasty. Fathers, mothers, uncle, aunty, grand father and grand mother are a part of joint family.

* Divided family

Divided family can be called in which there is only on dynasty living together they are mothers fathers and their child.

9) Birth order

Birth order can be consider in which they are born in order to their brothers and sisters is called birth order.

* First birth order

First birth order is given to the first child of their parents.

* Second birth order

Second birth order is given to the second child of their parents.

10) Medium

Language which is used by adolescents is considered as their medium of communication.
* Gujarati Medium

Adolescent who used to study in school which is of Gujarati medium can be considered as Gujarati school here mother tongue is Gujarati.

* English medium

Adolescent who used to study in English medium are recognized as the school of English medium.

1.8 Research complied

In chapter-1 Introduction, adolescence, theories of adolescence, stage. In the life span, adolescence is transitional period, problem solving tips for adolescence, Intelligence theories of intelligence, what is social intelligence, the psycho metric view of social intelligence, theories and model of social intelligence, social intelligence and adolescent, personality as social intelligence (SI), SI and emotional intelligence, social intelligence in life. Tasks developments of SI, what are they key elements of social intelligence. Suggestion for adolescents How can they improve their social intelligence family, family structure, birth order and family, types of family, family relationship, family function, why are healthy family relationships important and what are healthy family relationship some tips for parent of adolescents How to build good family relationship with their adolescents, some tips for adolescents how build good family relationship ? What is learning behaviour, nature and meaning of learning, adolescent behaviour and learning, how people learn, principle of learning, mental process related to learning, learning theory, types of learning, leaning styles, learning disabilities, parents suggestion of adolescents how to improve your child, Adolescents learning behaviour, suggestion for adolescent How to improve their learning behaviour. Chapter summary significance of present study. Chapter summary will be included.
In **Chapter-2** Introduction, studies on social intelligence, studies on family relationship, studies on learning behaviour will be included.

In **Chapter-3** Introduction, problem of Research, objective of Research, research hypothesis, research variable, research design, participated of the research, research tools, statistic techniques, the data collection will be included.

In **Chapter-4** Introduction, date analysis, result discussion and Interpretation of social intelligence, family relationship and learning behaviour and it’s graphical representation. Also will be describe.

In **Chapter-5** Introduction, conclusions, recommendations and limitation of the research and in the last references will be included.

The review of the related literature will be discussed in the next chapter named review of relevant literature.

**1.9 Chapter summary**

In this chapter Adolescence, Meaning and definition of adolescence, adolescence development, theories of adolescence, adolescence is transitional period, problem of adolescent suggestion for parents of adolescents students. Intelligence, Definition of intelligence, theories of intelligence. What is social intelligence definition of social intelligence; social intelligence and adolescent are included.

In the present chapter family, family relationship, family function, what is learning style and brief introduction about adolescence, medium are also included.
CHAPTER – 2
THE REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction
2.2 Review on Social intelligence studies
2.3 Reviews on Family Relationship Studies
2.4 Review on Learning Behaviour Studies
2.5 Chapter Summary