CHAPTER-1
INTRODUCTION

Human development is subjected to different stages of life, i.e., infancy, childhood, adolescence and adulthood. Adolescence is a period which comes in between childhood and adulthood. This period is often divided into two segments – early adolescence and late adolescence. The early adolescence begins at the age of sixteen and the late adolescence ends at the age of eighteen. Then follows the period of adulthood. Adolescence is an especially unstable as well as a vibrant period of life. The great importance of period of adolescence has been clearly emphasized by philosophers, sociologists, psychologists and educationists. The period of adolescence is characterized by rapid physical, intellectual, emotional and social growth period, of growing up. Physically the boys and girls gradually become adults. Intellectual growth moves towards a more abstract and mature mode of thinking. Intelligence reaches its optimum level. Emotionally, the adolescent grows independent of parents and prepares himself for entering into other relationships that are needed in life. Sex consciousness develops and this influences the emotional as well as the social activities of the individual. Adolescence period is marked by several problems, out of which insecurity in adolescents is one of the serious issues which the investigator has chosen for this research. Bass and Ball (1960) considered adolescence as the transition stage from childhood to maturity, during which new patterns of behaviour have to be developed to meet the demands both of the larger and more diversified likes of his peers and of the adult society which he begins to enter. Hall (1904), Freud (1946) and Sullivan (1954) were of the opinion that period of adolescence is a particularly stormy and tempestuous in contrast to the supposedly quiescent period of late childhood that precedes it. Hall (1904) regarded adolescence as a “period of great stress and strain, storm and strife”. The age of adolescence is marked by manifestations which have caused it to be described as “an age of crisis and insecurities”. It represents the period of time during which a person is subjected to an array of biological transformations and runs into a number of emotional tribulations.
1.1 INSECURITY IN ADOLESCENTS

A normal individual always desires and works hard to lead a happy and secure life. One’s state of mind is one of the most important determinants of happiness in life. Psychologically, feeling of security is the most important state of human existence that an individual longs for. Owing to rapid mechanization, globalization and the pressing ambition of upward mobility, more and more people are being exposed to numerous situations in which they tend to feel insecure. As a consequence, insecurity has now become a core issue of human existence. It is a starkly known fact that the period of adolescence is especially marked by insecurity. The problem of insecurity assumes extraordinary dimensions during this stage of life because it is characterized by stresses and strains, the intensity and frequency of which are neither experienced in the pre-adolescent period nor in the post adolescent period. The problem of insecurity becomes particularly acute during the late phase of adolescence because of heightened needs for self-acceptance, personal identity, independence and social acceptance and because the spectre of formidable realities and responsibilities of adult life start staring in the face and because adolescents are yet cognitively, emotionally and conatively ill-equipped to meet the challenges before him.

The concept of insecurity

Nobody knows when the concept of insecurity was formally formulated in human history. But everyone would agree that insecurity has always been one of the cardinal characteristics of human existence. It would not be wrong to say that insecurity was born along with the birth of human race on this earthly realm. In the twentieth century, the concept of insecurity seems to have been more or less clearly formulated. The roots of the concept of insecurity date back to the opinion of Maslow (1953). Human desires are arranged in ascending hierarchy of needs and the need of safety and security occupies a crucially significant place as shown in the pyramid of hierarchy (figure 1.1).
Maslow (1979) used the term insecurity syndrome to indicate a situation of chronic insecurity covering about fourteen symptoms such as feelings of rejection, absence of belongingness and isolation, alarm attitude towards life, sense of suspiciousness, jealousy and hatred etc.

Insecurity has been defined by Reber (1995) in Dictionary of Psychology as lack of assurance, uncertainty and unprotectedness”.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000), “Insecurity is a lack of confidence about oneself and one's relationship with other people”.

Cambridge Paperback Encyclopedia (2000), “Insecurity as a feeling of inadequacy, lack of self-confidence and inability to cope, as well as general uncertainty and anxiety about one’s goal, ability or relationship, which prevents one to reach a goal, feel thwarted and insecure”.

According to New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy (2002), “Insecurity is either danger that is lack of objective security or an emotion of general unease or nervousness without obvious purpose”.

By way of summing up, it can be said that insecurity denotes feelings of fear and of incompetency in facing the realities of life – realities in the shape of demands and challenges of living. Insecure persons experience waves of helplessness when confronted with difficulties and problems of life.
1.1.1 TYPES OF INSECURITY

The different kinds of insecurity that affect the life are as under:

(i) **Physical insecurity:** Physical insecurity results from unsafe living and unsafe working conditions. It is experienced in the absence of conditions required for protecting body and health from diseases, injury and disability, fire, flood, riot, accident, violence and war.

(ii) **Social insecurity:** This type of insecurity results from lack of practical programmes for providing protection against poverty, old age, disability, unemployment etc.

(iii) **Economic insecurity:** Emotional insecurity results from lack of sufficient money-income, assets, savings, investments, insurance etc. needed for preventing the financial troubles.

(iv) **Emotional or psychological insecurity:** It is a feeling of general unease or nervousness that may be triggered by perceiving oneself to be unloved, inadequate or worthless.

1.1.2 SIGNS OF INSECURITY

Numerous are the signs of insecurity. The common signs that indicate insecurity are as under:

(i) **Defensiveness:** Insecure people tend to be very sensitive to critique and respond with defensiveness. They are not open to hearing about ways they might improve. They disagree with their criticism. They are not comfortable enough to be themselves. They do not seem to realize that it is not possible to please everyone.

(ii) **Allergic to silence:** Insecure people just can’t deal with silence. They fill every void with meaningless chatter and they avoid the company where they can not speak. They enjoy all situations in which they can display their garrulousness.
(iii) **Excessive joking:** Another coping mechanism for insecurity is constant joking. An insecure person uses to cut jokes to seek attention of other persons. He plays the role of excessive joker who does not seem to know the limits of appropriateness. The unfortunate consequence is an uncomfortable environment and insensitivity to others.

(iv) **Self-promoting:** Insecure people tend to talk about themselves constantly, as if they feel like they have to prove themselves. Self-promotion is paramount to over-compensation for doubt.

(v) **Bullying:** Insecure person feels threatened by others especially by a secure person as he can sense his insecurity. In order to hide insecurity, an insecure person becomes quarrelsome to others.

(vi) **Overly authoritative:** Insecure people in positions of power tend to compensate for their lack of confidence by taking out their frustrations on their subordinates. This kind of excessive authoritativeness is an obvious over-compensation for insecurity.

(vii) **Overly competitive:** Competitiveness is part of a healthy emotional makeup, but over-competitiveness is a sign of a problem. Someone who can’t take losing by making a big emotional display lacks confidence. A person who is secure with himself wins or loses with grace.

(viii) **Materialistic:** A very dangerous coping mechanism for insecurity is buying things one can’t afford. A secure person doesn’t need to show off. He doesn’t care what other people think about his possessions.

(ix) **Insecurity in relationships:** Insecure people feel a sense of insecurity in their relationship with others. There is a constant struggle for control and energy in insecure relationships.

(x) **Irrationally jealous:** An insecure person is extremely jealous. This manifests itself in constant questioning, mistrust, and altercations with other persons. A person who is secure with himself and his relationship is able to trust his partner.
Abusive: A person who is insecure with himself is always abusive and destructive.

Insecurity may make individuals feel helpless and hopeless. An insecure individual is a burden, is a parasite on the society. Insecurity brings social deterioration for the person.

1.1.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF INSECURE ADOLESCENTS

Adolescence is an especially unstable as well as a vibrant period of a person’s life. It represents the period of time during which a person is subjected to an array of biological transformations and runs into a number of emotional tribulations. Various characteristics of insecure adolescents are:

(i) They have difficulties in establishing healthy, long lasting relationships.

(ii) Insecure adolescents become victims of fears that impair their freedom of action or choice.

(iii) They scare others away from them by their defensive attitude.

(iv) They are over controlled emotionally; have problems letting others in on their emotions. This can lead others to guess what is going on until the passivity of the insecure person leads to an over-reaction by the others, resulting in conflict or rejection.

(v) They face problems in school when they have the knowledge, skills and abilities to do a task efficiently but are told to do it in a different less effective manner. They get so uptight about the task and are fearful of standing up for what they believe that they get angry, hostile and resentful until they either quit or succeed in submerging their emotions.

(vi) Insecure adolescents get passed over for promotions, advance or honors because they are so quite about what it is they do. This
leads the insecure individual to feel more unaccepted, unappreciated, and under-valued.

(vii) They have problems in meeting people and often can become debilitated socially by chronic shyness.

(viii) They become so inward that they seek to escape into their fantasy life rather than deal with the reality of their lives.

Adolescents who suffer from insecurity often feel that they have no talents or values and therefore, can not believe that others truly love them or want the best for them. Often these adolescents feel that happiness or anything positive is only temporary so they may be constantly on guard that things will again turn sour or go wrong.

1.1.4 LIFE STRATEGIES OF INSECURE PERSONS

Insecurity pursues various life strategies for overcoming it. Whatever the cause of driving fear in a life, human nature is fairly predictable in the strategies it employs to deal with it. Following are some strategies for overcoming insecurity among adolescents:

a) Self-protection: Since fear is a sense of vulnerability based on a real or supposed threat to something we value highly, it is easy to see how self-protection can be the motivating force in a life of insecurity. Sometimes, particularly in a situation where a child has been abused in some way, this self-protection is an appropriate and legitimate response. However, it's easy for sinful beings to develop self-absorbed habits and thinking patterns that remain years after the abusive situation no longer exists. Self-protection can quickly blind the insecure person to opportunities to reach out and minister to others and even when they want to reach out, insecurity can cripple them and leave them feeling powerless to do so.

b) Self-degradation: Sometimes someone who has been put down for years will develop a very unbiblical view of self. Often the person who has been sexually or emotionally abused comes to the place where they believe that they are different from other people that somehow they deserve to be
treated the way they were treated. Often this type of person won’t even seek relief from the abusive situation because they somehow feel that they don’t deserve anything better.

c) **Self-deprecation**: Here’s a person who constantly puts himself down in the hope that others will disagree and affirm him. Self-deprecation may also be an attempt to lower the standard hoping that if others don’t expect much, maybe they can live up to the standard. Whatever the case, this person is often surprised to realise that self-deprecation is actually a form of selfishness because it puts the attention on self instead of God and others.

d) **Self-promotion**: Sometimes insecurity will lead to the opposite extreme of attention-getting antics and “showing off.” It is amazing to see a child who wants to be accepted by his friends so badly that he will do almost anything even something dangerous in order to gain it. The problem is that this child, along with a lot of adults, derives his value as a person from how others view him. This person is compensating, desperately looking for affirmation and approval.

e) **Self-righteousness**: While it’s simple to understand that our value is not based on what others think of us, it’s not quite as simple to understand how our value is based on what God thinks of us. God’s love for us is the basis for all true security, but so often we think that we have to earn that love. The reason insecurity spends great effort trying to earn God’s love is because it thinks it can earn God’s love.

Insecurity can be highly destructive; especially if one don’t understand it. Many insecure people find scapegoats for their problems, never realizing that they are causing the problems themselves. In this scenario, it is imperative to develop proper and positive attitude among adolescents.
1.1.5 CAUSES OF INSECURITY IN ADOLESCENTS

Excessive competition, rapidly changing cultural and social values, constant exposures to speed in every aspect of life have made the people in general and young generation in specific, live in urgency and emergency. In the present age of unprecedented challenges and changes, individual's life has become confused and insecure. The following causes lead to insecurity in adolescents:

(i) Bringing up in a chaotic, unpredictable, or volatile environment in which they are kept off balance, on guard, or an edge.

(ii) Experiencing a major tragedy or loss in their lives and are having a difficult time in accepting this loss and adjusting to the change.

(iii) Experiencing a major failure in life (e.g. failure in school, losing a friend, lack of acceptance into social or civic groups etc.) that leads them to question their personal competency.

(iv) A poorly developed self-concept with low self-esteem, lacking belief in their personal goodness, skills and abilities.

(v) Never get accepted by the others in their life, so much so that they became chronically shy, retiring and withdrawn in their interactions.

(vi) Unrealistic rules and expectations prescribed for them.

(vii) A poor body image, making them believes that others see them in a negative light. This makes them self-conscious, tense, and anxious in dealing with others.

(viii) Never receiving enough positive reinforcement or feedback from others about their talents and abilities, leaving them unclear as to their skills.

(ix) Receiving very little direction, guidance, or discipline in different phases of their development and thus leaving them unable to cope with the current pressures of life.
Always feeling overshadowed or overlooked by the people who are perceived to be more successful.

The present society is booming with speed, competition, rivalries, economic upheavels, ecological imbalances, materialistic attitudes, parental expectations; own ambitions etc. and thus adolescents today are insecurity prone.

1.1.6 INSECURITY AND ALLIED TERMS

1. **Insecurity**: Insecurity is an emotional instability, feeling of rejection, inferiority, anxiety, isolation, jealousy, hostility, irritability, inconsistency and tendency to accept the most general pessimism or unhappiness.

2. **Anxiety**: The term anxiety is normally defined by a diffuse, vague, very unpleasant feeling of fear.

3. **Stress**: The term stress refers to negative emotional experience with associated behaviour, biochemical and physiological change that are related to perceive acute and chronic problems.

4. **Depression**: The word depression covers a variety of negative moods and behaviours change in normal situation. Frustration and others must be definition of clinical problems.

1.1.7 FACTORS GENERATING INSECURITY

Insecurity depends upon two types of factors:

1. Organismic factors

2. Non-organismic factors

Organismic factors are those which are related to organisms, such as, creativity, intelligence, self-concept, emotional intelligence, self confidence, metacognition etc. No stimulus elicits only pure response, but it is always contaminated by the error component. The errors may be due to any influencing organismic factors. They may include the age, sex etc.
Non-organismic factors are those which are related to environment, for example, home environment, academic achievement, parental encouragement, parental disciplining, teacher’s perceptions, divergent configurations of parental influence etc. The researcher can choose and impose these variables on the subjects to observe the differential effects.

Within the large array of significant influences, emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence are important and dominating factors influencing insecurity. The investigator has selected emotional intelligence and self-concept out of organismic factors and parental influence out of non-organismic factors for studying their effect on insecurity. The investigator could not succeed in finding much work on these variables. Thus the investigator felt motivated to work upon these variables. These variables, i.e., emotional intelligence self-concept and parental influence play a dominating role in determining the level of insecurity which in turn determines the overall success and happiness in life.

1.2 INSECURITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Insecurity is a core issue of human existence which needs special attention during adolescence. The study of factors influencing insecurity have shown emotional intelligence as one of the most important factors in personality development. Singh et al. (2007) studied the mental health status of high and low emotionally intelligent adolescents and observed a significant difference in mental health status indicating better mental health of highly emotional intelligent adolescents.

Emotional intelligence is the product of one’s heredity and its interaction with environmental forces and is one of the potent factors affecting insecurity in adolescents. Many problems may arise from low emotional intelligence. Proficiency in emotional management, conflict resolution, communication and interpersonal skills is essential for children to develop inner self-security to be able to effectively deal with the pressures and obstacles that inevitably arise in their lives. Feeling of security is an important motivational factor supposed to exercise immense influence on behaviour and personality.
of an adolescent. A sense of insecurity tends to make an adolescent emotionally fragile. It is a belief that an insecure person is incompetent to handle emotional perturbations and life’s challenges.

**Emotional intelligence**

Emotional intelligence is a type of intelligence relating to emotional side of life, implying the ability to manage one’s own and others’ emotions, to motivate oneself, to handle interpersonal relationships effectively and to turn negative feelings into positive ones.

The most distant roots of emotional intelligence can be traced back to Thorndike (1920) who kept a special place for social intelligence away from other types of intelligence. His references to social intelligence included three elements - the individual’s attitude towards society, social knowledge such as being well in contemporary issues and general knowledge about society and the individual’s capacity for social adjustment such as interpersonal relations and family bonding. Thorndike’s definition included everything related to human intelligence ranging from social, psychological and economic dimensions. Wechsler (1940) proposed that emotional abilities are essential to determine one’s ability to succeed in life. He found emotional intelligence to be an integral part of an individual’s personality development. Ellis (1962) pointed out that human emotion and thinking are not separate processes, but they significantly overlap and can never be viewed completely apart from each other. According to Spinoza (1997), both the emotion and intellect together contribute to the ultimate cognitive tool. He talked about three levels of cognition, i.e., emotional cognition, intellectual cognition and a kind of intuition. In 1983, Gardner introduced the idea of multiple intelligences which included both interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and intra personal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself).

Payne (1985) introduced the term emotional intelligence in his doctoral thesis entitled: A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence. However, Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the earliest to suggest the name ‘Emotional Intelligence’ as a term which refers to the ability of a person to deal with one’s emotions. The term ‘Emotional
intelligence’ became widely popularized in 1995 after the publication of Goleman’s book, ‘Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ?’ In this book, he collected and often dramatized a lot of information on the brain, emotions and behaviour. Goleman (1998) published another book called “Working with emotional intelligence” and widened the definition of emotional intelligence saying that it consists of 25 skills, abilities and competencies. Thereafter, researches and articles on emotional intelligence began to appear with increasing frequency across a wide range of academic and popular outlets and there have been many definitions about emotional intelligence.

Salovey and Mayer (1990), “Emotional Intelligence is a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action”. Goleman (1995), “Emotional Intelligence refers to the ability to sense, understand, value and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, trust, creativity and influence”.

Goleman (1996), “Emotional intelligence consists of five components: knowing our emotions (self-awareness), managing them, motivating ourselves, recognizing emotions in others (empathy), and handling relationships”.

Bar-On, Reuven’s opinion (1997) “Emotional intelligence is an array of non cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”.

According to Davies et al. (1998), “Emotional intelligence includes four dimensions: appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself; appraisal and recognition of emotion in others; regulation of emotion in oneself and use of emotion to facilitate performance”.

Mayer and Cobb (2000), "The ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding, and management of emotion".

Stein and Book (2001) defined emotional intelligence as, “set of skills that enables us to make our way in complex world - the personal, social and survival aspect of overall intelligence, elusive common sense and sensitivity that are essential to effective daily functioning”.

Caruso et al. (2002), “Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to process emotion laden information competently and to use it to guide cognitive activities like problem
Mangal (2003), “Emotional Intelligence is one’s unitary ability (related to, but independent of standard intelligence) helpful in knowing, feeling and judging emotions in close cooperation with one’s thinking process to behave in a proper way, for the ultimate realization of the happiness and welfare of the self in tune with others”.

Hein (2003) defines Emotional Intelligence as, “being able to know how to separate healthy feelings from unhealthy ones and how to turn negative feelings, into positive ones.” He believes Emotional Intelligence refers to an individual’s innate potential, with a core formed by four inborn components: emotional sensitivity, emotional memory, emotional learning ability and emotional processing.

Singh (2003) explains that, “Emotional Intelligence consists of psychological dimensions such as emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity which motivate the individual to manage and lead others as well as empathize with them”.

Hein (2005), “Emotional intelligence is the innate potential to feel, use, communicate, recognize, remember, learn from, manage and understand emotions”.

Singh (2006), “Emotional intelligence is the ability and freedom to grow from mistrust to trust, self doubt to competence, self empowerment, following to leading, isolation to synergy and despair to hope”.

Thus, emotional intelligence is an umbrella term that encompasses within its fold a number of abilities for effective emotional goings with oneself and with others.

1.2.1 MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Up to the present day, there are three main models of emotional intelligence:

I. Ability model of emotional intelligence
II. Mixed models of emotional intelligence
III. Trait emotional intelligence model

I. The ability-based model

The ability based model views emotions as useful sources of information that helps the individual to make sense of his social environment and to navigate it effectively. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an
emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. The model proposes that emotional intelligence includes four types of abilities:

a) **Emotional perception:** the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts - including the ability to identify one’s own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

b) **Emotional assimilation:** the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

c) **Emotional understanding:** the ability to comprehend emotional language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

d) **Emotional management:** the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

II. **Mixed models of emotional intelligence**

Mixed models of emotional intelligence are substantially different than the mental ability model. The mental ability model focuses on emotions themselves and their interactions with thought. The mixed models treat mental abilities and a variety of other characteristics such as motivation, states of consciousness and social activity as a single entity (Goleman, 1995 and Bar-On, 1997).

(i) **The Emotional Competencies (Goleman) model**

The model introduced by Goleman focuses on emotional intelligence as a wide array of competencies and skills that determine leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs:

a) **Self-awareness:** the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact
while using feelings to guide decisions.

b) **Self-management:** involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

c) **Social awareness:** the ability to sense, understand, and react to others' emotions in the context of social networks.

d) **Relationship management:** the ability to inspire and influence others while managing conflict.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. Table 1.2 illustrates Goleman’s conceptual model of emotional intelligence and corresponding emotional competencies.

**Table 1.1: Goleman’s Emotional Intelligence Competencies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Competence</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-awareness</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Emotional Awareness: recognizing one's emotions and their effect</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accurate Self-assessment: knowing one's strengths and limits</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-confidence: A strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Self-regulation</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-control: Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check</td>
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<td>Trustworthiness: Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness: Taking responsibility for personal performance</td>
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<td>Adaptability: Flexibility in handling change</td>
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<tr>
<td>Innovation: Being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches and new information</td>
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<tr>
<td>(ii) Bar-On’s Model of Emotional Intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bar-On (2006) developed one of the first measures of emotional intelligence that</td>
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<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Achievement drive: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment: Aligning with the goals of the group or organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Initiative: Readiness to act on opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Optimism: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks</td>
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<tr>
<th>Social Competence</th>
<th>Understanding others: sensing others' feelings and perspectives, taking an active interest in their concerns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing others: Sensing others development needs and bolstering their abilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service orientation: Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Leveraging diversity: Cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people</td>
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<tr>
<td>Political Awareness: Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Empathy</th>
<th>Influence: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication: Listening openly and sending convincing messages</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conflict management: Negotiating and resolving disagreements</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership: Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Change Catalyst: Initiating or managing change</td>
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<tr>
<td>Building bonds: Nurturing instrumental relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collaboration and cooperation: Working with others toward shared goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Team capabilities: creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals</td>
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used the term Emotional Quotient. He defined emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On stated that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesized that those individuals with higher than average emotional quotient are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also noted that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one’s environment are thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life. In his model, Bar-On outlined five components of emotional intelligence which are outlined in table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Bar-On’s Model of Emotional Intelligence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrapersonal (self-awareness and self-expression)</th>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Self-Regard</strong>: To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself</td>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Emotional Self-Awareness</strong>: To be aware of and understand one’s emotions</td>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Assertiveness</strong>: To effectively and constructively express one’s emotions and oneself</td>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Independence</strong>: To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others</td>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Self-Actualization</strong>: To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential</td>
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| Interpersonal (social awareness and interpersonal relationship) |
- **Empathy**: To be aware of and understand how others feel

- **Social Responsibility**: To identify with one’s social group and cooperate with others

- **Interpersonal Relationship**: To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others

### Stress Management (emotional management and regulation)

- **Stress Tolerance**: To effectively and constructively manage emotions

- **Impulse Control**: To effectively and constructively control emotions

### Adaptability (change management)

- **Reality-Testing**: To objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking with external reality

- **Flexibility**: To adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to new situations

- **Problem-Solving**: To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature

### General Mood (self-motivation)

- **Optimism**: To be positive and look at the brighter side of life

- **Happiness**: To feel content with oneself, others and life in general
Petrides et al. (2000, 2004, 2007) proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of emotional intelligence. Trait emotional intelligence is a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality. In lay terms, trait emotional intelligence refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of emotional intelligence encompasses behavioural dispositions and self perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement.

The trait emotional intelligence model is general and subsumes the Goleman and Bar-On models. Petrides et al. (2007) are major critics of the ability-based model arguing that they are based on "psychometrically meaningless" scoring procedures.

Despite the existence of different models of emotional intelligence, there are some similarities between the various conceptions. On a global level, all of the models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the recognition and regulation of one's own emotions and the emotions of others.

1.2.2 BASES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The bases of emotional intelligence are:

(i) Emotional literacy: This involves developing a clear and useful vocabulary for emotional literacy and recognizing, respecting and valuing the inherent wisdom of feelings. It can be improved through monitoring thoughts and feelings, self-observation, paying careful attention to potent feelings etc.

(ii) Emotional fitness: It refers to those qualities that illuminate our personal values, character and feelings. It is based upon a combination of believability and spontaneous sociability - an aspect of emotional intelligence, indicative of one’s ease of talking with strangers and embracing differences with openness instead of rigidity.

(iii) Emotional depth: It is the manifestation of a person’s commitment, drive, initiative, conscience and accountability. It can be developed by inculcating self-awareness, assertiveness, empathy, communication and by referring to role model.
(iv) **Emotional alchemy**: It is a blending of force that can extend one’s creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressures and to fight for the future. It throws light on the range of hidden solutions and untapped opportunities.

1.2.3 **CHARACTERISTICS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

The characteristics of emotional intelligence are:

(i) It is a non-cognitive and non-physical capacity of the organism.

(ii) It is an internal or psychological process, which motivates the organism to perform its activities properly.

(iii) It is nurturable.

(iv) It energizes the organism to accomplish the required task.

(v) Level of emotional intelligence is neither genetically fixed nor does it develop only in early childhood rather it develops throughout life.

1.2.4 **ATTRIBUTES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

Salovey (1990) offered a framework for emotional intelligence through the five personal intelligence characteristics. These attributes are:

(i) **Self-awareness**: Self-awareness means recognizing a feeling as it happens. It is the core stone of Emotional Intelligence. The ability to monitor feelings from moment to moment is crucial to psychological insight and self-understanding. Inability to notice our true feelings leaves us at their mercy. People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a surer sense of how they really feel about personal decisions from whom to marry to what job to take. This is not an easy skill as emotions often appear in disguise. Yet, for all its complexity, self-awareness is the most crucial skill.

(ii) **Self-regulation**: Self-regulation means the ability to manage one’s emotions and impulses. An emotionally self-regulated person can be easily recognized with the following traits - a propensity for reflections and thoughtfulness; comfort with ambiguity and change; and integrity and ability to say no to impulsive urges.

(iii) **Motivation**: Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal is essential for paying attention, for self-motivation and mastery, and for creativity. Emotional self-control,
delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness - underlies accomplishments of every sort. And being able to get into “flow” state enables outstanding performance of all kinds. People who have this skill tend to be highly productive and effective in whatever they undertake.

(iv) **Empathy**: Empathy is the fundamental ‘people skill’ that builds on emotional self-awareness. It means to recognize emotions in others. It is very important today because the world is getting too self-centered, people are getting increasingly attracted towards a materialistic way of life, and the common bonds of friendship and love in the society or family are tottering.

(v) **Social skill** (or handling relationships): The art of relationship is a skill in managing emotions in others. These are the abilities that contribute to popularity, leadership, and interpersonal effectiveness. People who excel in these skills do well at anything that relies on interacting smoothly with others.

Emotional intelligence is the facet of overall ability that often separates those who reach their full potential in life, and those who don’t. By fostering these character traits in young children, and then reinforcing them in the classroom, parents and teachers can ensure that all children are equipped with the skills they need to navigate their personal and professional realms as adults.

1.2.5 **TRAITS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

The research of psychologists and medical doctors has found thirteen key emotional intelligence traits. These are as follows:

(i) **Emotional energy**: The amount of energy available to cope with frustration, conflict or pressure.

(ii) **Emotional stress**: The amount of inner stress experienced.

(iii) **Optimism**: To consider what is positive or right; to be optimistic.

(iv) **Self-esteem**: To value self and to be self-accepting.

(v) **Commitment to work**: To work hard; to get things done; to take on responsibility.
(vi) **Attention to detail:** To think things through; to concentrate on details; to be thorough; to be careful; to strive to be accurate.

(vii) **Desire for change:** To create changes or improvements in one's environment; to vary one's patterns of behaviour.

(viii) **Courage:** To do what is challenging, or unfamiliar; to risk injury, loss, hardship, or discomfort to reach a desired goal.

(ix) **Self-direction:** To make decisions/goals; to set priorities; to initiate action.

(x) **Assertiveness:** Saying what one thinks. Trying to convince others. Telling others what one wants, needs, requires, or expects.

(xi) **Tolerance:** To be tolerant, patient, accepting and cooperative.

(xii) **Consideration for others:** To be considerate, understanding, helpful, honest and responsible.

(xiii) **Sociability:** To be outgoing and sociable. To seek and to enjoy others' company and conversation.

1.2.6 IMPORTANCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The following points highlight the significance of emotional intelligence:

(i) It plays a pivotal role in designing the required personality, developing the emotional maturity and the ability in the self-adaptation for solving the stress problems and the pressures of life in the competing status of an individual.

(ii) It enables a man to achieve highest pinnacle and deepest reach in his search for self-fulfilment as well as others fulfilment.

(iii) It reinforces the concomitant drive to increase individualism. It enables to express one’s feelings and emotions at the appropriate occasion, with the understanding of the feeling of self and others.

(iv) It gives the introspective before getting to know others.

(v) It enhances the talent of artful leader in utilizing people and in capturing their hearts. It encourages individual competition rather than team spirit.

(vi) It helps in stimulating motivation, improving communication and enhancing
(vii) It impacts positively to the individual’s ability to sustain both moral and physical health.

Thus, emotional intelligence is termed as a unitary ability (related to, but independent of standard intelligence) helpful in knowing, feeling and judging emotions in close cooperation with one’s thinking process to behave in a proper way, for the ultimate realization of the happiness and welfare of the self in tune with others.

1.2.7 EFFECTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The following effects of emotional intelligence on life, education and health can be deduced from the contents of the preceding pages:

**Life**

(i) Emotional Intelligence saves the individual from depression, insecurity, grieving, pessimism etc.

(ii) Success depends on "mature adaptations" including altruism, humor, self-management, and optimism/anticipation.

(iii) Many careers are derailed for reasons related to emotional competencies, including inability to handle interpersonal problems.

(iv) People who accurately perceive others’ emotions are better able to handle changes and build stronger social networks.

(v) Children’s abilities to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with other people are a better predictor of success than intelligent quotient.

(vi) Emotions and reason are intertwined, and both are critical to problem solving.

**Education**

(i) Social and emotional skills create higher achievement.

(ii) Improved emotional skills increase task proficiency.

(iii) Emotional skills reduce disciplinary problems.

(iv) Emotions give a more activated and stimulated brain, which helps to recall things better.
(v) Hostility decreases and pro-social behaviour increases due to emotional intelligence.

(vi) Emotional quotient training increases focus, learning, collaboration and improves classroom relationships.

(vii) Children with highly developed social skills perform better academically than peers who lack these skills.

(viii) Students who are anxious or depressed earn lower grades/lower achievement scores.

(ix) Emotions are crucial to sensory development because they facilitate the storage and recall of information.

(x) Stress and threat cause the brain to downshift and this leads to inhibition of learning.

(xi) Low levels of empathy are associated with poor school achievement.

(xii) Students who believe their teachers support and care about them are more engaged with their work; they value their work more, and have higher academic goals.

(xiii) Teachers can help students lessen their frustrations, prevent behavioural problems, and accelerate learning by providing students with information and skills to make appropriate choices.

(xiv) Adolescents, who feel their teachers are caring, are more likely to participate in class and complete their homework.

(xv) Programs that teach social competency decrease delinquency, alcohol and drug use, and conduct problems.

(xvi) Students who participated in social problem-solving programmes tend to have higher academic achievement.

(xvii) Emotional intelligence is stronger predictor of college academic success than high school grade point average.

**Health**

(i) Optimism is a skill that can be taught. Optimists are more motivated, more successful, have higher levels of achievement, plus significantly better physical and mental health.
(ii) The chronically sad/depressed are two times as likely to contract a major debilitating disease.

(iii) Developing a positive school community significantly decreased delinquency, alcohol and drug use, drop out/non-attendance, and conduct problems.

(iv) Adolescents who feel connected to their school have significantly lower rates of emotional distress, suicidal thoughts and behaviours, violence, substance abuse, and sexual activity.

From the nature of emotional intelligence and its role in emotional goings, it can be comfortably, justifiably and logically inferred that it is essentially related to several dimensions of human existence and particularly to that dimension of it which is constituted by feelings of security and feelings of insecurity in human beings. Good emotional intelligence can certainly contributes to positive feelings of security and mental peace and tranquility. Conversely, poor emotional intelligence straightway implies disability in coping with insecurity in individuals whatever be their age level. Low emotional intelligence can especially affect adolescents who are passing through a turbulent phase of life. However, adolescents with good level of emotional intelligence are in a better position to face the problems deemed peculiar to their age phase. Nobody can question the truth that emotional intelligence has a strong bearing on the problem of security. In case, it happens to be relatively low, it can imply weakness in dealing with problems of life. On the other hand, if the individual is strong in emotional intelligence it can be powerful asset for him in meeting the demands and challenges of life. Thus, it goes without saying that the variable emotional intelligence is unquestionably related to security and insecurity in adolescents. Individuals passing through other phases of life are no exception to it.

1.3 INSECURITY AND SELF-CONCEPT

Within the large array of significant influences, self-concept is an important dominating factor influencing insecurity. Self-concept is a process through which the individual is represented in his or her own awareness and in the setting of those things with which he or she identifies. Adolescents, who have positive and well developed self-concept display good competencies, can recognize their weaknesses and can overcome
them, have a good self of well-being and positive development while the adolescents having low self-concept develop a feeling of insecurity. Singh and Ahmed (2004) concluded that adolescents, who have positive and well developed self-concept display good competencies, can recognize their weaknesses and can overcome them, have a good self of well-being and positive development while the adolescents having low self-concept develop a feeling of insecurity. Any experience which is inconsistent with one’s self-concept may be perceived as a threat, and the more of these experiences there are, the more rigidly self concept is organized to maintain and protect itself. When a person is unable to get rid of perceived inconsistencies, emotional insecurities arise. Insecure people have a poorly developed self-concept with low self-esteem, lacking belief in their personal goodness, skills or abilities.

**Self-concept**

Self-concept is the mental and conceptual understanding and persistent regard that sentient beings hold for their own existence. Self-concept may be defined as the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence. Components of the self-concept include physical, psychological, and social attributes, which can be influenced by the individual's attitudes, habits, beliefs and ideas.

A milestone in human reflection about the non-physical inner self came when Descartes (1644) wrote Principles of Philosophy. Descartes proposed that doubt was a principal tool of disciplined inquiry, yet he could not doubt that he doubted. He reasoned that if he doubted, he was thinking, and therefore he must exist. Thus, existence depends upon perception.

A second milestone in the development of self-concept theory was the writing of Freud (1900) who gave us new understanding of the importance of internal mental processes. While Freud and many of his followers hesitated to make self-concept a primary psychological unit in their theories, Freud's daughter Anna (1946) gave central importance to ego development and self-interpretation.

Self-concept theory has always had a strong influence on the emerging profession of counselling. Lecky (1945) contributed the notion that self-consistency is a primary motivating force in human behaviour. Rainy (1948) introduced measures of self-concept
in counselling interviews and argued that psychotherapy is basically a process of altering the ways that individuals see themselves.

By far the most influential and eloquent voice in self-concept theory was that of Rogers (1947) who introduced an entire system of helping built around the importance of the self. In Rogers' view, the self is the central ingredient in human personality and personal adjustment. Rogers described the self as a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency. He maintained that there is a basic human need for positive regard both from others and from oneself. He also believed that in every person there is a tendency towards self-actualization and development so long as this is permitted and encouraged by an inviting environment (Purkey and Schmidt, 1987).

While most self-concept theorists continued to write and conduct research during the 1970's and 1980's, general interest in self-concept declined. Fortunately, there is a new awareness on the part of both the public and professionals that self-concept cannot be ignored if we are to successfully address such nagging problems as drug and alcohol abuse, drop-out rates, dysfunctional families, and other concerns. In addition to this growing awareness, new ways are being developed to strengthen self-concepts. Research by cognitive theorists (McAdam, 1986; Ryan et al., 1986) are demonstrating that negative self-talk leads to irrational thinking regarding oneself and the world.

Rogers (1951) defined self-concept as, "An organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is compared of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities, the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment, the value qualities which are perceived as association with experiences and objects, and the goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence".

Fromm (1956) was as beautifully clear as anyone when he described self-concept as "life being aware of itself".

Self-concept has been referred by Lowe (1961) as, "one's attitude towards self". Pederson (1965), "Self-concept is an organized configuration of perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views as a part of characteristics of himself".

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According to Pandit (1969), “Self-concept is the nucleus world around which the entire personality structure revolves in its homeostatic process of maintaining consistency and stability within the individual”.

Cronbach (1977) remarked, “Self-concept is a central aspect of emotional development. As the person becomes acquainted with himself, his views form a system of interrelated ideas about what he can do and about how others regard him. These ideas are loaded with emotions”.

Saraswat and Gaur (1981) described self-concept as, “The self-concept is the individual’s way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling and behaving”.

In the words of Cushman et al. (1982) “Self-concept is an empirically verifiable construct that provides a theoretical representation of the conceptual forms through which individual actors understand and cope with the world. The construct self-concept thus allows the exploration of the link between thought and action”.

Goldenson (1984), “Self-concept is individual’s conception and evaluation of himself including his values, abilities, goals and personal worth”.

Dictionary of Education (1989) has termed self-concept as, “The picture or image, a person has of himself”.

Hattie (1992), “Self-concept has typically been defined in terms of the cognitive appraisal one makes of the expectations, descriptions and prescriptions that one holds about one’s self”.

Stephanie (1995) operationally defined, “self-concept as an attitude towards one’s self reflecting both a description and an evaluation of one’s own behaviour and attributes”.

Merriam - Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (2001) described self-concept as, “The mental image of one has of one self”.

Thus, self-concept stands for beliefs and convictions about one’s personality characteristics, abilities and capabilities, values and ideals.

1.3.1 THEORIES OF SELF-CONCEPT

Theories of self-concept in one way or another, try to describe the basic nature and components of self-concept. There are different types of self-concept theories:
(I) Self-perception theory

Introduced by psychologist Bem (1965), the theory suggests that people infer their own attitudes, opinions, and other internal states partly by observing their behaviour and the circumstances in which that behaviour occurs. According to the theory, introspection is a poor guide to one's internal states, because internal cues are weak and ambiguous, and a person is in the same position as an outside observer, who relies on outward behaviour in interpreting another's internal states. Furthermore, the theory suggests that a person induces attitudes without assessing internal cognition and mood states. He reasons his own overt behaviours rationally in the same way he attempts to explain others’ behaviours.

Common sense holds that feelings precede and cause various kinds of behaviours: individuals frown because they feel angry, sit slumped in their chairs because they feel depressed. Self-perception theory argues that common sense has the sequence of events exactly backwards: First we act, and the acting creates the feeling. We feel angry because we scowl, depressed because we sit slumped. In effect, feelings are the perceptions of our actions and the contexts in which they are performed.

People appear to differ in how strongly they respond to their own bodily reactions and behaviours. Some people are very responsive, and feel happy when induced to smile, angry when induced to frown. Others, however, are relatively unaffected by their bodies and behaviours, and instead their emotions are determined by social expectations.

(II) Self-verification theory

This theory was developed by Swann (1983). This theory holds that people form self-views so that they can understand and predict the responses of others and know how to act towards them. Self-verification is a social psychological theory that asserts people want to be known and understood by others according to their firmly held beliefs and feelings about themselves, that is self-views. Self-concept plays an important role in understanding the world, providing a sense of coherence, and guiding action. People become motivated to maintain it through self-verification strivings. Such strivings provide stability to people’s lives, making their experiences more coherent, orderly and comprehensible. Self-verification processes are also adaptive for groups, groups of
diverse backgrounds. They make people predictable to one another, thus, serve to facilitate social interaction.

Self-verification theory evolved from two key themes in the literature. First, this theory emanated from the tradition of symbolic interaction. From this perspective, individuals tend to construct their identity from feedback and information they derive from the environment. The treatment they receive from other individuals, for example, shapes this identity.

Second, self-verification theory emerged from other models that highlight the need to maintain self consistency. That is, individuals feel uneasy when their behaviours diverge from their attitudes. They also feel anxious or uneasy when they receive feedback that contradicts some of their perceptions of themselves. They like their identity and concept of themselves to be consistent rather than contradictory.

Summing up, according to self-verification theory, individuals continuously strive to construct, refine, and defend their identity of themselves. These identities include many characteristics, such as their roles in life, their strengths, their values, their limitations, their beliefs, their reputation and so forth.

(III) Self-determination theory

The theory was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). Self-determination theory is a macro theory of human motivation and personality, concerning peoples’ inherent growth tendencies and their innate psychological needs. It is concerned with the motivation behind the choices that people make without any external influence and interference. The theory focuses on the degree to which an individual’s behaviour is self-motivated and self-determined.

Intrinsic motivation refers to initiating an activity for its own sake because it is interesting and satisfying in itself, as opposed to doing an activity to obtain an external goal (extrinsic motivation).

Self-determination theory purports three basic psychological needs that must be satisfied to foster well being and health. These needs are said to be universal and innate and include the need for competence, need for autonomy and the need for relatedness. Competence refers to being effective in dealing with the environment a person finds themselves in. Autonomy is the universal urge to be causal agents of our own life and act
in harmony with our integrated self. Relatedness is the universal want to interact, be connected to and experience caring for others. These three psychological needs motivate the self to initiate behaviour and specify nutriments that are essential for psychological health and well-being of an individual.

(IV) **Self-discrepancy theory**

The theory was developed by Higgins (1987). Self-discrepancy theory is the theory that when a person's self-concept is dissimilar to the ideal self, it leads to discomfort, which can lead to either changing the circumstances concerned altering the concept of the ideal self to cohere with the individual's actions or consequent psychological problems. A self-discrepancy theory states that people compare themselves to internalized standards called self-guides. These different representations of the self can be contradictory and result in emotional discomfort. Self-discrepancy is the gap between two of these self-representations. Self-discrepancy theory states that people are motivated to reduce the gap in order to remove disparity in self-guides. This theory provides a platform for understanding how different types of discrepancies between representations of the self are related to different kinds of emotional vulnerabilities. The theory initiated the importance of considering two different standpoints, or vantage points, in which the self is perceived - one's own personal standpoint and the standpoint of some significant other. Significant others may comprise of parents, siblings, spouses or friends. The "other" standpoint is what the self perceives their significant other's standpoint to be. A standpoint on the self is defined as a point of view from which one can be judged in terms of attitudes or values.

Self-discrepancy theory identifies three domains of the self: the actual self, which includes the attributes that people believe they actually possess; the ideal self, which contains the attributes that people would like to possess, and the ought self, which contains the attributes that people believe they ought to possess. The ideal-self typically represents an individual’s hopes, aspirations and wishes for oneself, whereas the ought-self represents beliefs about the duties, obligations, and responsibilities of the self.

(V) **Self-affirmation theory**

The theory of self-affirmation is a psychological theory that was first proposed by Steele (1988) with the premise that people are motivated to maintain the integrity of the
self. According to self-affirmation theory, individuals do not strive to perceive themselves favourably in every facet of their lives. They merely attempt to maintain a global perception of themselves as positive, that is, to demonstrate integrity. Self-affirmation theory implies that individuals primarily strive to maintain a positive perception of themselves - a perception that positive feedback reinforces.

A critical insight into the nature of above stated theories of self-concept would hardly leave any doubt that an individual's self-concept is primarily a product of environmental forces to which he consciously or unconsciously responds or reacts.

1.3.2 ASSUMPTIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT

Many of the successes and failures that people experience in many areas of life are closely related to the ways that they have learned to view themselves and their relationships with others. Various assumptions of self-concept are as follows:

(i) **Self-concept is learned**: No one is born with a self-concept. It gradually emerges in the early months of life and is shaped and reshaped through repeated perceived experiences, particularly with significant others. Self-concept is a social product developed through experience. Because of previous experiences and present perceptions, individuals may perceive themselves in ways different from the ways others see them. Individuals perceive different aspects of themselves at different times with varying degrees of clarity.

(ii) **Self-concept is organized**: Most researchers agree that self-concept has a generally stable quality that is characterized by orderliness and harmony. Each person maintains countless perceptions regarding their personal existence, and each perception is orchestrated with all the others. It is stable and organized quality of self-concept that gives consistency to the personality. Self-concept requires consistency, stability, and tends to resist change. If self-concept changed readily, the individual would lack a consistent and dependable personality.

(iii) **Self-concept is dynamic**: The world and the things in it are not just perceived; they are perceived in relation to one's self-concept. Self-concept
development is a continuous process. In the healthy personality there is constant assimilation of new ideas and expulsion of old ideas throughout life. Individuals strive to behave in ways that are in keeping with their self-concepts, no matter how helpful or hurtful to oneself or others.

Thus, self-concept consists of one’s self perceptions that are formed through interpretations of one’s environment. They are influenced especially by evaluations by significant others, reinforcement, and attributions for one’s own behaviour.

1.3.3 COMPONENTS OF SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept is a product of all the beliefs and evaluations one has about oneself and includes one’s behavioural tendencies. It has broadly two main components: a descriptive element and an evaluative element. The descriptive component is that which is concerned with one’s beliefs about oneself, and is often referred to as self-image. The evaluative component is that which takes the belief from objective to subjective. Beliefs may be incorrect, yet still be a part of one’s self-concept. Self-concept can be classified into following components:

(i) **Perceptual Component**: The perceptual component is the image the person has of the appearance of his body and of the impressions he makes on others. It is often called the physical self-concept.

(ii) **Conceptual Component**: The conceptual component is the person’s conception of his distinctive characteristics, his abilities and disabilities his background, his origin and his future. It is often called the psychological self-concept.

(iii) **Attitudinal Component**: The attitudinal component refers to feelings a person has about himself, his attitudes about his present status and future prospectus, his feelings about his worthiness and his attitudes of self-esteem, self-reproach, pride and shame.

(iv) **Evaluative Component**: Self-evaluation can occur with regard to specific identities which an individual holds, or with regard to an overall evaluation of self. People tend to make self-evaluations on the basis of two broad criteria:
their sense of competence or efficacy, and their sense of virtue or moral worth.

Thus, there are three types of self; the actual self, which includes the attributes that people believe they actually possess; the ideal self, which contains the attributes that people would like to possess, and the ought self, which contains the attributes that people believe they ought to possess.

1.3.4 DOMAINS OF SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept reflects how an adolescent evaluates himself or herself in domains (areas) in which he or she considers success important. An adolescent can make targeted self-evaluations in a number of different domains. Following domains make up an adolescent’s self-concept:

(i) **Scholastic Competence**: It is defined as a multidimensional construct composed of the skills, attitudes and behaviours of an adolescent that contribute to scholastic success.

(ii) **Athletic Competence**: It means competence in physical activities. Participation in physical activities in order to promote normal growth, physical development and psychological health.

(iii) **Physical Appearance**: It is a major factor in the development of personality, because people form opinions by what they see in a person physically, and respond to that person accordingly.

(iv) **Peer Acceptance**: The degree to which a child or adolescent is socially accepted by peers; the level of peer popularity and the ease with which a child or adolescent can initiate and maintain satisfactory peer relationships.

(v) **Close Friendships**: The term connotes a relationship which involves mutual knowledge, esteem and affection and respect along with a degree of rendering services to friends in times of need or crisis.

(vi) **Romantic Relationships**: It involves in its full expression the reciprocal response of the total being of one individual to the total being of another individual.
(vii) **Job Competence:** Job competence is seen as constituted by a specific set of attributes such as knowledge and skills or competence used in performing particular work.

(viii) **Conduct/Morality:** Conduct is a personal behaviour, a way of acting and showing one’s behaviour. Morality means a code of conduct which is held to be authoritative in matters of right and wrong.

There are 6 major subtypes, namely physical, i.e., an individual's view of their body, health, physical appearance and strength; social, i.e., an individual's sense of worth in social interactions, temperamental, i.e., an individual's view of their prevailing emotional state or predominance of a particular kind of emotional reaction; educational, i.e., an individual's view of themselves in relation to school, teachers and extracurricular activities; moral, i.e., an individual's estimation of their moral worth; right or wrong activities; and intellectual, i.e., an individual's awareness of their intelligence and capacity of problem solving and judgments.

1.3.5 **PARAMETERS OF SELF-CONCEPT**

An adolescent's self-concept is dynamic, and causality is complex. Following are its principal parameters:

(i) **Positive or high self-concept:** A positive self-concept represents strong self-approval. Such people like themselves, are self-confident and self-assured. People with positive self-concepts do not necessarily think of themselves as perfect or as better than others, but they are satisfied with themselves the way they are. A positive self-concept is reflected by certain behaviours, like, having healthy relationships with people of all ages, not just one's peers; having confidence-taking on a challenge; completing tasks; setting goals and meeting them; being able to handle defeat and disappointments reasonably well.

(ii) **Negative or low self-concept:** A negative self-concept indicates strong self-rejection. Such persons do not like themselves. People with negative self-concepts tend to expect failure in what they do. They may also set goals for themselves that are too high, which only proves to themselves that they are
failures when those goals cannot be reached. Or they set goals so low that their abilities are not challenged, and they feel little success when they reach those easy goals. Negative self-concept is having ideas about oneself that one is just not quite good enough. The person having negative self concept question his abilities, capabilities, worth, intelligence or appearance.

Having a positive self-concept has been linked to positive social and emotional development. In contrast, having a negative self-concept during adolescence has been associated with maladaptive behaviours, depression and insecurity.

1.3.6 SIGNS OF NEGATIVE SELF-CONCEPT IN ADOLESCENTS

Several signs may indicate that an adolescent has a negative self-concept. The main ones are the following:

(i) Doing poorly in school;
(ii) Having few friends;
(iii) Putting down oneself and others;
(iv) Rejecting compliments;
(v) Teasing others;
(vi) Showing excessive amounts of anger;
(vii) Being excessively jealous;
(viii) Appearing conceited; or
(ix) Hesitating to try new things.

1.3.7 REASONS FOR NEGATIVE SELF-CONCEPT

Following are the reasons for the development of negative self-concept:

(i) Humans are driven mainly by sexual drive and aggressive drive. Libido mainly consisted of the id, ego and the superego. The id works on the pleasure principle that demands the immediate gratification of all impulses and engages in primary process thinking commonly known as wish fulfillment. Parts of the id spills into the ego which tries to gratify the ids’ demands in a socially accepted way, it works on the reality principle and engages in secondary process thinking. The superego is the storehouse of rules and regulations a
person learns from his/her parents and society. They are the absolute moral standards. When the person is dominated mainly by the superego, the ego tries constantly to find a balance between the ongoing conflicts between the id and the superego. One side a person wants to fulfill their desires and on the other side has moral and social obligations. Since the superego is dominating, it pressurizes the individual to comply, if the individual fails to comply, he/she faces a lot of guilt. This guilt often leads to a negative self-concept.

(ii) Next view is regarding hierarchy of needs. Generally people satisfy their basic and lower order needs like food and shelter, but they do not fulfill their need for love, security and belongingness. They lack these needs and thus, stun their personal growth. The lack of these needs often lead to frustration and thus lead to a negative self-concept.

(iii) There are a series of psychosocial developmental stages. At each stage individuals are faced with conflict or crises. How they deal with the crises can have an effect on their development. When dealt with positively can lead to a positive self-concept and if not dealt with can lead to a negative self-concept.

(iv) Behaviorism states that reinforcement and conditioning play a dominant role in shaping a person’s behaviour. Behaviours are learnt through experiences in the environment. When a person behaves in an unacceptable manner, depending on the feedback or response of the people around him/her, that behaviour is punished or reinforced. This has a negative impact on the person.

(v) An important reason for the formation of negative self-concept is the person’s perception of him/her self. Thoughts and feelings affect and shape our behaviour and emotions. Feelings lead to thoughts and thoughts lead to behaviours. Individuals consistently talk to one self in two ways, either motivating one self or consistently judging or criticizing ones own selves. When the inner self, inner voices are too harsh in judging every move, it creates pressure on individual and if one don’t behave in accordance with ones own expectations, one feel guilty. These thoughts and feelings often lead to our negative self concept.
Another reason is the biological factor. Biologically, a negative self-concept can be explained in terms of chemical imbalances, i.e., sometimes when our hormones are not in balance they can produce discomfort that can lead to a negative self concept.

Humans are social beings. Each society forms its own sets of regulations which become the base of our behaviour. It is the society that makes us what we are and it is through social comparison that we feel “accepted”; hence, we are obligated to obey the social norms. Unfortunately we humans are hedonistic in nature; we find it difficult to follow the social norms all the time. When we do not follow the norms, the society puts us under pressure. This pressure sometimes leads to a negative self-concept.

To sum up, self-concept whether positive or negative, is the product of different factors operating together.

1.3.8 IMPORTANCE OF POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT

Positive self-concept as well as negative self-concept influence significant areas of human development and achievement.

Educators have recognized that there is a link between self-concept and performance in school. Students with a strong self-concept tend to have good grades and take an active role in school. They are able to accept challenges and enjoy new learning experiences. Students with a negative self-concept tend to have both attitude and behavior problems. They may be unwilling to try new things, because they believe they will fail anyway, or they may not work up to their potential. Some educators feel that a positive self-concept is so important that children need to be taught to like themselves before they are taught academic skills such as reading, writing, and mathematics.

Self-concept also affects a child's relationship with others, especially family members. People who like themselves will generally like others, while people who dislike themselves tend to be critical of others. Children with positive self-concepts may find it easier to get along with friends, classmates, and teachers. By feeling good about themselves children can make others feel good also. Children with poor self-concepts
may find it difficult to make or keep friends because of their negative attitudes and behaviour.

Self-concept also affects the quality of family life. When self-concept is positive among family members, they tend to support rather than criticize each other which leads to a satisfying family life.

Thus, self-concept plays an important part in overall well being of individuals. In the judgment of various authorities, the development of self is more crucially important in adolescence than any other period in the life span. The adolescent who has a reasonably well developed self-concept can benefit and develop his potential to match with pace in competitive world while adolescents having low self-concept perceive themselves as inadequate and insecure, and are unable to maintain relationships in the social environment.

1.4 INSECURITY AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

Insecurity can be a significant problem in life, and it takes root when an adolescent’s attachment bond fails to provide the child with sufficient structure, recognition, understanding, safety, and mutual accord. The parents play a vital role in the overall development of adolescents. The parents have a powerful effect on the behaviour of their children. The adolescents show a feeling of trust and security in their parents by sharing confidence with them while the adolescents who don’t have a healthy identification with their parents develop a sense of insecurity. Adolescents who perceive themselves as accepted feel more secured than the adolescents who perceive themselves as rejected or unwanted by their parents. The nature of close affectional bonds leaves as impact on human development across the life span. Kaur (1993) conducted a study on 200 adolescents and found that there exists a significant relationship between security-insecurity and parental attitude.

Parental influence

Parental influence is the influence that parents exercise and exert to bring up their children according to the modes and mores of society and according to their own ideals of earthly life.
Parson and Bales (1955) state that, “Parents influence their children by defining their behaviour to early stages and later on children influence their parents and these influences may change substantially with the passage of time. It is the interaction effect that makes it so difficult to identify the variables of child training that are associated with given patterns of child behaviour as a product of parental behaviour.”

According to Jersild (1957), “The adolescent’s relationship with his parents may be viewed as a 3 act drama. In first act, young adolescent continues, as in earlier childhood needs his parents, he is dependent on parents and influenced by them. He begins to become more keenly aware than he was before, of his parents as persons. Increasingly, he is absorbed in the larger world outside home. He begins, in a psychological sense, to leave home to move into this larger world in which he eventually must reside as a self-directing adult.”

Dinklmeyer and Mickay (1967) “The family is major environmental influence and remains so throughout the life. It is the most pervasive of all influences.”

Cattle (1968) “Good parents produce good students. This means parents play a key role in providing guidance to inspire the children to do fruitful activities related to education.”

Thompson (1969) writes, “Parents provide reasonably acceptable models by their own behaviour, approval and disapproval used in an intelligent and consistent manner to reflect the personal social values of the home and the larger community, opportunities for the child to participate in the activities of various agencies and institutions designed to transmit social values (school, church, youth groups and the like).”

Coleman (1973) remarks, “The family carries responsibility for the welfare of its member from cradle to grave”

Bloom (1989) says, “The climate of the family may be regarded as providing network of forces and factors which surround, engulf and play on the individual.”

Thus, parental influence means capacity or power of parents to produce effects on adolescents through environment. Divergent configurations of parental influence mean different shapes or aspects of parental influence as perceived by the adolescents.
1.4.1 PARENTAL FACTORS INFLUENCING ADOLESCENTS

There are three principal parental factors that pattern the personality development of children. These factors are parents’ attitude, parents’ personality and parents’ behaviour. These parental factors influence the development of adolescents in the following way:

(i) **Parents’ attitude:** Some parents feel that they must restrict and control the behaviour of their children in order that their growth may be desirable from all points of view. Opposed to this stand, some parents think that their major role in the development of children is to guide and set a proper example for their emulation. These two separate stands lead to the formulation of two types of parental attitude. One pertains to authoritarian tendency and the other is democratic tendency.

(ii) **Parents’ personality:** Parents’ personality has its inevitable impact on the development of children. This means that parents’ attitudes, character, traits and values of life have their undeniable impact on the developing children. Personality of parents exerts greater influence on their children than their child rearing practices.

(iii) **Parents’ behaviour:** Warmth of the relationship existing between parents and children is of vital importance for the development of children. Parental behaviour is not only important in the individual’s development but also important for the future life. The main types of parental behaviour are accepting parental behaviour and rejecting parental behaviour.

Thus, parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific variables that work individually and together to influence child outcomes.

1.4.2 PARENTING STYLES

Parenting style captures two important elements of parenting: parental responsiveness and parental demandingness (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). Parental responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children’s special needs and demands (Baumrind, 1991). Parental demandingness refers
to the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys (Baumrind, 1991).

Psychologist Baumrind (1991) identifies three types of parents: authoritarian, permissive and authoritative. Authoritarian parents lay down hard-and-fast rules and expect their children to always do as they are told. Permissive parents have very few rules or regulations and give their children too much freedom are most likely to have the most difficult time as parents. Their children are at risk for a range of negative behavioural and emotional consequences. However, authoritative parents, set limits that are clear and come with explanations, tend to struggle less with their adolescents. Various other parenting styles are:

(i) **Accepting and democratic:** Parents’ accept child’s uniqueness and provide love, respect and feeling of equality to their children. Adolescents feel security of love and acceptance, and experience own strength by conquering difficulties.

(ii) **Over-indulgent:** Parents shower the adolescent with presents, privileges and services, with little regard for the child’s actual needs. Child feels bored and indifferent. He loses initiative and spontaneity and expects everything to come to him.

(iii) **Over-submissive:** Parents’ submit to adolescent’s demands, temper and impulsiveness. This makes children the boss and parents become a slave or servant.

(iv) **Over-coercive:** Parents are overly strict and give constant direction, endless instructions to adolescents. This kind of supervision results in verbal refusal, daydreaming, forgetting etc.

(v) **Perfectionistic:** Parents set very high standards for adolescents. They accept child only when performance is exceptional. There is excessive striving and preoccupation with performance on the behalf of the adolescents but they cannot meet standards, feels unworthy and also may give up.

(vi) **Excessively responsible:** Parents may heap excessive household, childcare or companionship responsibilities on the adolescent because of economic
circumstances, personal problems, death or illness of a parent. Adolescent may carry out burden resentfully.

(vii) **Neglecting:** Parents are frequently absent or busily pre-occupied with work, poverty, wealth, alcoholism, divorce or illness. Adolescents lack ability to form close relationships and never has the feeling that someone cares about him, is on his side.

(viii) **Rejecting:** Parents deny the acceptance of adolescents and treat them as a nuisance or a burden. Parents may have also been rejected as children and it could result from forced marriage or deformed child.

(ix) **Punitive:** This is often combined with over-coercion and perfectionism. Physical punishment is often considered necessary for discipline or training. Parents may vent personal hostility and aggression on child. Adolescent feels injustice, helplessness and longs for retaliation.

(x) **Hypochondriacal:** This is characterized with anxious, fearful, sick-room atmosphere. Adolescents may be kept home a lot from school for minor problems and they are excused from chores and school work. Adolescents exaggerate symptoms for benefits and gain sympathy and indulgence from parents.

(xi) **Sexually stimulating:** Parent may be seductive. Adolescent is forced into secrecy and made to feel guilty by provoking a premature preoccupation with sex. This often results in confusion and hostility.

Thus, divergent configurations of parental influence means different shapes or aspects of parental influence as perceived by the adolescents like accepting, over-indulgent, over-submissive, over-coercive, perfectionistic, excessively responsible, neglecting, rejecting, punitive etc. Out of which the investigator has selected accepting parental influence and rejecting parental influence for the present study.

(i) **Accepting parental influence:** It is exemplified by parents who, in their relations with their children, are basically reasonable, friendly, affectionate, approving and emotionally warm.
(ii) Rejecting parental influence: It is exemplified by parents who, in their relations with their sons or daughters, are consistently hostile, unaffectionate, disapproving and emotionally distant.

Parental Acceptance

Parental acceptance of children is perceived to be one of the essential elements underlying the whole gamut of the parent-child relationship. An accepting parent is one who accepts the child as a significant member of the family and who cares and loves him always functioning, as far as possible, positively for him and in his best interests as these may happen to be conceived by him. The loving and accepting parents provide a healthy atmosphere for the child to develop his capabilities into proper channels. They help him to exercise his potentials to the maximum so that the child becomes a productive member of the society in which he is to live. Accepting parents give due importance to the child in home, trust him and develop a warm emotional relationship with him. This, in turn, helps the child to develop a basic trust in the parents, in other people and most of all, in his own self. Such early acceptance by parents brings a sense of security, self-acceptance and self-esteem in the child.

The accepting parents not only want the child but in many ways they plan for him. They do not find child care a trying or difficult job. Parental acceptance is expressed in different ways depending upon emotional maturity of the parents and the development of an independent individual and all that they can do to achieve this goal. In homes where there is free flow of love, there is good adjustment without undue attention of members of the family. The policy is one of freedom in which parents respect the individuality of each other. Emotionally the parents tend to be objective, but above average in affection and rapport.

Parental stimuli profoundly influence the adolescents’ mind. When parents are able to manage personal stress, communicate through emotion, share joy and experience no difficulty in forgiving, the adolescent feels comfortably secured. Accepting parental influence shapes adolescents’ abilities to:

- feel safe,
• develop meaningful connections with others,
• explore the world,
• deal with stress,
• balance emotions,
• experience comfort and security,
• make sense of their lives, and
• create positive memories and expectations of relationships.

Traits such as co-operation, honesty, good social relationships, good physique, good control over emotions and feelings of security are largely the outcome of the influences exercised by parents on their children.

Parental Rejection

Parental rejection is the antithesis of the positive relationship between parents and their children. Parental rejection does not always mean external rejection. It may imply actions of parents such as dominance, excessive demands and conspicuous hostility. In the family, an impression tends to be created that the child is unwanted or is proceeding on lines not conducive to his healthy development. Parents may start feeling that their child is unworthy of their love and care and nothing more than a burden for them. Parental rejection weakens normal feelings of security, undermines the child’s self-concept and creates the feelings of helplessness and frustrations which may permanently disable the child in his adjustment to life.

According to Symonds (1939), worry overtakes those children who are denied parental affection. They create nuisance in school and become back benchers. They develop anti-social elements. Most of the adolescents who are emotionally disturbed become delinquent and fail at school. Acceptance (positive) or rejective (negative) behaviour of parents is the backbone of development of different traits of personality. This is deemed to be related to the present as well as to the future life of the adolescent.

According to Sears et al. (1957), “Deprivation of love interferes with physical, mental and emotional growth of the child. In addition to the influence on the personal life, the rejected child also lacks concentration in school and becomes indifferent to school work (Bergum, 1940). He also tends to become antagonistic towards the society
and may lack the qualities which enable people to live together in harmony (Bowlby, 1957).

There can no doubt about the close relationship between parental influence and insecurity of children and adolescents. Parents are the persons with whom the child begins his life and in whose associations and direct face-to-face relations he grows and develops into a personality. All the aspects of his life: cognitive, affective and conative are profoundly influenced and shaped by the home environment. For the growing individual, this environment is primarily what parents make it to be. Since human qualities and characteristics are largely an environmental product, it necessarily follows that there must be a close relationship between insecurity and parental influence whatever be its pattern or configuration. Insecurity can be a significant problem in life, and it takes root when an adolescent’s attachment bond fails to provide the child with sufficient structure, recognition, understanding, safety, and mutual accord. These insecurities may lead to:

(i) **Tune out and turn off:** If the parent is unavailable and self-absorbed, children get lost in their own inner world, avoiding any close, emotional connections. As adults, they may become physically and emotionally distant in relationships.

(ii) **Remain insecure:** If parents are intrusive adolescents tend to become anxious and fearful.

(iii) **Become disorganized, aggressive and angry:** When adolescents’ early needs for emotional closeness go unfulfilled, problems are sure to follow.

(iv) **Develop slowly:** The unfulfilment of the early needs tends to create physical and mental health problems, and social and learning disabilities.

From whatever has been said in the immediate preceding pages of this work, the conclusion is inevitably seems to follow that parents have powerful effects on the behaviour of the children. Adolescents who perceive themselves as accepted feel more secured than the adolescents who perceive themselves as rejected or unwanted by their parents. The nature of close affectional bonds leaves as impact on human development across the life span.
In the end, we can conclude that, in this modern age, where the parents are too busy to give due attention, adolescent often feels rejected or neglected. This inculcates feeling of insecurity in them which makes them aimless, destructive and drifting. Families, in their structure and function, influence virtually all facets of the youth's psychological and social functioning. This influence may be associated with both positive and negative characteristics of adolescent behaviour and development. Although family influences are not the only source of problems in adolescence, they co vary with these other sources in affecting the incidence of problem behaviour; at the same time family of origin influences can protect youth from the occurrence of problem behaviours.

1.5 EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM

While it requires hardly any extraordinary intellectual exertion to be convinced about the relation of adolescent insecurity with such variables as emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence, there is no clear evidence regarding the exact nature of the relation in question. Insecurity is a core issue of human existence which needs special attention during adolescence and the study of factors influencing insecurity will help in developing balanced personality among adolescents. Surprisingly the study of research literature so far accomplished and accumulated in black and white shows that the realm of insecurity in adolescents in our country has remained almost wholly untouched by earlier investigators. A diligent, cognitive incursion into the realms of relevant international abstracts - psychological, sociological and anthropological has also brought to light that there is no clear cut empirical evidence regarding the relationship of adolescent insecurity with emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence. The perusal of the other related studies which have not been published so far also leads to the same conclusions. In view of this factual situation, investigations are certainly needed to discover the nature of insecurity faced by adolescents in India and also about the relationship of insecurity with relevant non organismic and organismic variables.

The study is important from social point of view also. It is the duty of the adolescent to perpetuate his race and develop some usefulness in himself as well as in others. The burden of his family, society and community lies on his shoulders. Only a secure person can perform his duty in a healthy way. A secure individual is a symbol of
progress. A sense of security is described as a state of emotional, psychological and social wellness confirmed by satisfying interpersonal relationship, effective behaviour, coping a positive self-concept and emotional stability. An insecure individual, on the other hand, is burden, is a parasite on the society. Insecurity brings social deterioration for the person. Therefore, massive efforts are needed to help the teacher, school and community to help such pupils learn how to live in productive, socially accepted ways.

The said facts pertaining to the relationship between adolescents’ insecurity and other three principal variables along with the high importance of the problem of the study prompted motivated and inspired this investigator to undertake this research work. The present problem of the study was chiselled out of the vast unexplored field of insecurity in adolescents.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
The problem under investigation is worded as under:
INSECURITY AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN RELATION TO THEIR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, SELF-CONCEPT AND DIVERGENT CONFIGURATIONS OF PARENTAL INFLUENCE.

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT STUDY
The present investigation has been undertaken with the view to fulfill the following objectives:
1) To study insecurity among adolescents.
2) To find out sex differences among adolescents with respect to insecurity, emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence.
3) To find out locale differences among the adolescents with respect to insecurity, emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence.
4) To find out the difference between adolescents with high emotional intelligence and adolescents with low emotional intelligence on the variable of insecurity.
5) To find out the difference between adolescents with high self-concept and adolescents with low self-concept on the variable of insecurity.
6) To find out the difference between adolescents with accepting parental influence and adolescents with rejecting parental influence on the variable of insecurity.

7) To find the relationship of insecurity among adolescents with their emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence.

8) To find the conjoint predictive efficiency of emotional intelligence, self-concept and parental influence on insecurity of adolescents.

1.8 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS USED

The operational definitions of the different terms used in the study are given below:

Insecurity: Insecurity is an emotional instability, feeling of rejection, inferiority, anxiety, isolation, jealousy, hostility, irritability, inconsistency and tendency to accept the most general pessimism or unhappiness.

Emotional Intelligence:
Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and managing our emotions well.

Self-concept:
Self-concept is the global perception of one’s own self and the perception of his personality which is a sum total of all physical, social, emotional and intellectual abilities of an individual.

Parental Influence:
Parental influence means capacity or power of parents to produce effects on adolescents through environment.

Divergent configurations of Parental Influence:
Divergent configurations of parental influence mean different shapes or aspects of parental influence as perceived by the adolescents, out of which the investigator has selected accepting parental influence and rejecting parental influence for the present study.

Accepting Parental Influence:
Accepting parental influence is exemplified by parents who, in their relations with their children, are basically reasonable, friendly, affectionate, approving and emotionally warm.
Rejecting Parental Influence:

Rejecting parental influence is exemplified by parents who, in their relations with their sons or daughters, are consistently hostile, unaffectionate, disapproving and emotionally distant.

1.9 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following were the delimitations and constraints of the study:

1. The present study is delimited to adolescents studying in 10th class only.
2. The study is restricted to 250 boys and 250 girls of Govt. / Govt. aided schools of Punjab.
3. The study is delimited to the variables of insecurity, emotional intelligence, self-concept and divergent configurations of parental influence.
4. The study is confined to the schools of four districts of Punjab selected randomly.

1.10 SCHEME OF THE CHAPTERS

In the present study, material was organized and divided into five chapters. The first chapter contains introduction of different variables under study. The second chapter has been devoted to the review of related studies and hypotheses on which the present study has been advanced. The third chapter deals with the methodology employed for designing the study, sampling, data collection and using statistical techniques etc. Analysis and interpretation of the data has been given in the fourth chapter and the fifth chapter includes summary, conclusions, educational implications and suggestions for further research. At the end, the bibliography is given.