CHAPTER 1

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1.1 Introduction

The first post independence comprehensive study on the status of ‘education’ in India completed in 1966 gave a major thrust to the idea of all-round development of the child’s personality and intellect. (Kothari 1966). It elaborated on the need for physical, intellectual and spiritual development of the child in equal measure. But even in the current years there is still mere lip service to these ideals. Parents want the child to shine in academics, no matter at what cost. Teachers see children’s examination performance as a measure of their own worth. Schools rate each other on the basis of their student’s performance at board examinations. In other words, academic achievement seems to be the ultimate goal in every one’s mind. In attempts to pursue this goal, all concerned seem to deny the existence of the role of the affective in student’s performance. They appear to assume that intellectual performance is divorced from any feeling or perceptions the student might have. Achieving this goal requires understanding of commitment to the proposition that education is a primary instrument for social and economic advancement of human welfare (Verma, 1990).

Early childhood education in India is subject to two extreme but contrary deficiencies. On the other hand, millions of young children in lower income group, especially rural and girl children, comprising nearly 40% of first grade entrants’ never complete primary school. Even among those who do, poorly qualified teachers, very high students-teacher
ratios, and inadequate teaching materials and outmoded teaching methods result in a low quality of education that often imparts little or no real learning. It is uncommon for students completing six years of primary schooling in village public schools to lack even rudimentary reading and writing skills. At the other end of the social and educational spectrum, children attending urban schools, especially middle and upper class children in private schools, are subjected to extreme competitive pressures from a very early age to acquire basic language skills and memorize vast amounts of information in order to qualify for admission into the best schools. Parents and teachers exert intensive pressures on young children to acquire academic skills at an age when children should be given freedom and encouraged to learn as a natural outcome of their innate curiosity, playfulness and eagerness to experiment.

Moreover, next to home and parents schools and colleges and teachers have the greatest influence on personality development. The principal reasons for the school’s and teacher’s impact are that children attend school during early years of life when the personality pattern is being formed; they spend more time in school than in any other place except the home; educational institutions provide young people with opportunities to achieve their goals; and they give children their first opportunities to assess their strengths and weaknesses realistically. (Banga S.,1980). There are a number of reasons why educational institutions play such a significant role in personality development.

Education is the process through which an individual is developed into individuality and a person into personality. Each person is different from the other and every individual
has some unique potential in some field or the other. Education doesn’t simply refer to
the no. of years and individual spends in a school or college or in any institute. It refers
to the change in behavior, attitude and culture brought about in the individual.

Personality encompasses the relatively enduring characteristics that differentiate people – those behavior that each of unique. According to psychoanalytic theory by Sigmund Freud, in early 1900s that our behavior triggered largely by powerful sources within our personality of which we are not aware of (Cattell, 1950). These hidden forces, shaped by childhood experiences, play an important role in energizing and directing our everyday behavior. Gordon Allport (1937) mentioned both inner qualities and behavior as responsible factors in defining the characteristics of personality. Some psychologists also mentioned both inner process and behavior but emphasize behavior as a major factor in defining personality characteristics. In short, personality means the sum total of characteristics that differentiate people or stability in person’s behavior across different situations.

During the lifespan of an individual, adolescence is a stage highly influenced by so many things around the world. Adolescence is highly influenced by society, socioeconomic status, study habits, emotional maturity, etc. ..., which may disturb or enhance the academic achievement of adolescence in high school period and ultimately the personality.
To estimate the influence of heredity on personality, many twin studies have been conducted, Loehlin (1992) reported the heritability of five major personality traits namely extroversion, agreeableness, consciousness, neuroticism and openness. Genetics accounted for approximately 28-46% of the variability of these traits using one model for estimating heritability. Several empirical studies demonstrated that due to socioeconomic deprivation, personality development is hampered. Langmier (1972) observed that derivational conditions result in hardening of the emotional feeling, insecurity and inferiority.

Previous research suggested that student’s achievement could be influenced by number of factors. These can be classified into four broad categories, personality characteristics, organizational skills, cognitive process and social factors (Hilliard, 2001). A significant area of research in the category of personality characteristics, ability is one of the important variables as is confidence, motivational factors have also been shown to have the effect on students personality. There is a strong relation between personality characteristics and organizational skills (Bhatnagar R.P., 1968). The investigations identified the students preferred learning style is based on the type personality of the students. The pattern of behavior adopted by students in the pursuit of their studies is considered under the caption of their study habits. Study habits reveal students personality. Learner’s learning character is characterized by his study habits. On the whole, some of the factors like personality, intelligence, achievement, socioeconomic status, etc. are associated with the study habit of the students (Kuran, 2008). Many of these studies have focused on the students conventional face to face situations.
Comparatively, little has been done to explore the same issues with regard to the characteristics of the students working in the different situations and environment such as English medium and Marathi medium schools.

Therefore, this study sought to answer questions that include the typical personality characteristics of the English medium and Marathi medium school going students as well as the study habits inculcated among these students considering their home background or socioeconomic status.

1.2 What is Personality?

Personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviors that make a person unique. Almost every day we describe and assess the personalities of the people around us why people behave as they do are similar to what personality psychologists do. Personality research has led to the development of a number of theories that help explain how and why certain personality traits develop. While there are many different theories of personality, the first step is to understand exactly what is meant by the term *personality*. A brief definition would be that personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviors that make a person unique. In addition to this, personality arises from within the individual and remains fairly consistent throughout life. The study of personality have a broad and varied history in psychology, with an abundance of theoretical traditions. The major theories include dispositional (trait) perspective, psychodynamic, humanistic, biological, behaviorist and social learning perspective.
1.2.1 Definitions of personality

It is natural that such a widely used word as “personality” should have a verity of definitions. Allport (1937) concludes that there are at least fifty different meanings of the term. He also reports that ‘personality’ is used in at least four distinct senses in the writings of Cicero. First, a personality is regarded as an assemblage of personal qualities; in this sense it represents what the person is really like. In this interpretation personality pertains to the actor. Second, a personality is regarded as the way person appears to the others, not as he really is. In this sense, personality pertains to the mask. Third, personality is the role a person plays in life; a professional, social, or political role, for example a role is a character in drama. Finally, personality refers to the qualities of distinction and dignity. In this sense it pertains to the star performer. Because of the evaluate connotation of this meaning of the term, we do not find such a definition in the scientific "Personality" can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations. There are some characteristics of personality:

Consistency - There is generally a recognizable order and regularity to behaviors. Essentially, people act in the same ways or similar ways in a variety of situations.

Psychological and physiological - Personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that it is also influenced by biological processes and needs

It impacts behaviors and actions - Personality does not just influence how we move and respond in our environment; it also causes us to act in certain ways.
According to Freud the personality of human being formed by Id, Ego and Superego systems, which may have their own functions, properties, operating principles, components, etc. in shaping the personality Freudian psychological reality begins with the world, full of objects. Among them is a very special object, the organism. The organism is special in that it acts to survive and reproduce, and it is guided toward those ends by its needs -- hunger, thirst, the avoidance of pain, and sex.

Freud didn’t exactly invent the idea of the conscious versus unconscious mind, but he certainly was responsible for making it popular. The conscious mind is what you are aware of at any particular moment, your present perceptions, memories, thoughts, fantasies, feelings, what have you. Working closely with the conscious mind is what Freud called the preconscious, what we might today call “available memory:” anything that can easily be made conscious, the memories you are not at the moment thinking about but can readily bring to mind. Now no-one has a problem with these two layers of mind. But Freud suggested that these are the smallest parts!

The largest part by far is the unconscious. It includes all the things that are not easily available to awareness, including many things that have their origins there, such as our drives or instincts, and things that are put there because we can't bear to look at them, such as the memories and emotions associated with trauma.

According to Freud, the unconscious is the source of our motivations, whether they are simple desires for food or sex, neurotic compulsions, or the motives of an artist or scientist. And yet, we are often driven to deny or resist becoming conscious of these motives, and they are often available to us only in disguised form.
There are few words in English language that have such a fascination for the general public as the term personality. Although the word is used in various senses, most of these popular meanings fall under one of two headings. The first use equates the term to social skills or adroitness. An individual’s personality is assessed by the effectiveness with which he or she is able to elicit positive reaction from a variety of persons under different circumstances. It is in this sense that the teacher who refers to a student as presenting a personality problem is probably indicating that his or her social skill are not adequate to maintain satisfactory relations with fellow students and the teacher. The second use considers the personality of the individual to consist of the most outstanding or salient impression that he or she creates in others. A person may thus be said to have an “aggressive personality” or a submissive personality” or a “fearful personality.” In each case the observer selects an attribute or quality that is highly typical of the subject and that is presumably an important part of the overall impression created in others and the person’s personality is the identified by this term. It is clear that there is an element of evaluation in both usages. Personalities as commonly described are good and bad.

Personality concerns the most important, most noticeable parts of an individual's psychological life. Personality concerns whether a person is happy or sad, energetic or apathetic, smart or dull. Over the years, many different definitions have been proposed for personality. Most of the definitions refer to a mental system -- a collection of psychological parts including motives, emotions, and thoughts. The definitions vary a bit as to what those parts might be, but they come down to the idea that personality involves a pattern or global operation of mental systems. Here are some definitions
Personality: The sum total of characteristics that differentiate people, or the stability in a person’s behavior across different situations. - Robert S. Fieldman

"Personality is the entire mental organization of a human being at any stage of his development. It embraces every phase of human character: intellect, temperament, skill, morality, and every attitude that has been built up in the course of one's life."

- Warren & Carmichael,

"Personality is the essence of a human being." - Gordon Allport

"An individual's pattern of psychological processes arising from motives, feelings, thoughts, and other major areas of psychological function. Personality is expressed through its influences on the body, in conscious mental life, and through the individual's social behavior." - Mayer, 2005.

“Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation”. R B Cattell, 1970.

“Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect, and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment”. Eysenck 1971.

The close view of the Eysenck’s definition and the meaning of the terms can be explained as below:
‘Character’ denotes a person’s more or less stable or enduring system or organization of conative behavior. (a will)

‘Temperament’ denotes a person more or less stable or enduring organization of affective behavior (Emotions).

‘Intelect denotes’ a person more or less stable or enduring organization of cognitive behavior (Intelligence).

Physique denotes a person more or less stable or enduring organization or bodily configuration and neuro-endocrine endowment.

Personality: The unique psychological qualities of an individual that influence a variety of characteristic behavior patterns (both overt and covert) across different situations and over time (American Psychological Association Glossary of Psychological Terms).

1.3 Factors Making Personality: There are many factors that shape the personality of an individual. They are broadly divided in two parts,

1) Biological factors

2) Psychosocial factors.

1.3.1 Biological Factors

Personality is influenced by biological as well as psychosocial factors. Biological factors include genetic endowment, body chemistry, physique, physical disability, and endocrine glands. Let’s now discuss these factors at length.
(a) Genetic endowment – an individual’s genetic endowment is established for the rest of his life. Each chromosome contains thousands of genes, smaller units through which genetic information is transmitted. These genes, either individually or in combination, produce the particular characteristics of a person. Some of these genes are responsible for the development of systems common to all members of the human species (e.g. the heart, brain, lungs, etc.) while others control the characteristics (e.g. facial features, height, etc.) that make each person unique. Since chromosomes are in pairs, so are genes.

For each genetic characteristic, there are two possible genes, one contributed from each parent. Dominant genes rather than recessive genes determine heritability of personality characteristics. But the influence of dominant genes is not always manifested. Here, it is necessary to distinguish between genotype and phenotype. Genotype is your basic genetic makeup, it cannot be seen. It is determined at the moment of conception and can never change. Your phenotype consists of your actual, manifested characteristics; it is the expression of genotype.

Genetic endowment predisposes an individual to develop in a particular way. Tellegen et al. (1988), in a study of 350 pairs of twins, found that certain traits were more influenced by heredity than others.

(b) Body chemistry – All living beings consist of many types of complex chemicals. Nucleic acids store and transmit the genetic information passed on from cell to cell and from an organism to its offspring. This information consists on instructions for making
proteins. Some proteins regulate the chemical processes that occur within the cells.

Thus, the messages carried by nucleic acids control the structure and the activities of the cells by determining which proteins will be present. The most influential chemicals determining psychophysical systems and functioning of an individual are hormones, proteins like enzymes, Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA) and neurotransmitters.

Enzyme is protein molecule that speeds up chemical reactions in all living things. Without enzymes, these reactions would occur too slowly or not at all, and no life would be possible. The human body has thousands of kinds on enzymes. Each kind does one specific job. Without enzymes a person could not breathe, see, move, or digest food. An enzyme’s structure can easily be destroyed by heat, acids, or alkalis. Many deadly poisons act by damaging important enzymes. Some hereditary diseases are caused by lack of enzymes.

(c) Physique – Physique, or body build, influences personality both directly and indirectly. Children’s body image is influenced by how significant people in their lives feel about them. For example, overweight children are not affected by their obesity until they become aware of the fact that obese people are looked down upon by society. This kind of awareness may result in negative self-concept, and inferiority complex. A person with a proportionate body build, on the contrary, develops positive self-concept and self-respect.

(d) Physical disability – Physical disability adversely affects behavior and personality either directly by lowering the individual’s coping resources or indirectly through the
reaction of the individual and the group to it. Physical disability fosters a negative self-image and tends to lead to self-devaluation. Any kind of physical deviation that is considered undesirable by the peers and society is likely to have an adverse affect on the adolescent’s personality; the adolescent may magnify even a minor deviation out of all proportion.

(e) **Endocrine glands** – Gland is a tissue or organ that produces and releases a useful chemical substance. Glands are located in various places throughout the bodies of human beings and most other animals. The substances released by glands perform various functions. For example, some of these glands help keep the skin moist; others aid digestion; still others regulate the growth and development of the body. They determine the way we think, feel, emote and respond to a situation, especially a stressful one. They help keep the chemical composition of the body within normal range. Hence hormones are called a chemical foundation of personality.

1.3.2 **Psychosocial Factors**

An individual’s familial, school, and social background play an important role in socialization, which in turn greatly contribute to his personality.

i) **Family atmosphere** :

The personality is also determined by structure of family, family atmosphere, and relationships among family members.

(a) **Structure of family** – Structure of family plays an important role in personality development of a child. A well-structured family fosters all-round personality
development. There are three important elements of structured families which are as follows;

(1) Such a family has clearly defined standards and limits, so that the child understands what goals, procedures, and conduct are generally approved.

(2) The roles of both older and younger members of the family are adequately defined, so that the child knows what is expected of each member of the family.

(3) Generally democratic family structure is found to be more conducive to healthy personality development than autocratic family. Such families have consistent child-rearing practices, which are characterized by consistent methods of encouraging desired behaviour and discouraging undesired one.

(b) **Family atmosphere** - The socioeconomic status of family and its emotional, moral and intellectual atmosphere contribute significantly to a child’s personality. Children adopt their parents’ attitude and imitate their behaviour. Emotional atmosphere in family also plays a key role in personality development. Parents’ emotional experience, emotional expression, attitude all are reflected in family atmosphere, which in turn, influences a child’s personality. Positive emotional experiences are favorable to healthy personality development.

(c) **Relationships** – The interpersonal relationship among family members can cause healthy or faulty personality development. The relationship between parents, parent-child relationship and sibling relationship influence child’s personality significantly. Psychologists have found that personality of children having grandparents is healthier than that of children who do not have grandparents.
ii) School atmosphere:

School and related factors are important in child’s personality development due to the following reasons; (1) going to school is inevitable, (2) major period of life is spent in school, (3) this is the period when children’s self-concept is being formed, and (4) school provides an opportunity to assess one’s own potential without parents help. The important factors related to school atmosphere are teacher-pupil relationship, religious affiliation, and socioeconomic status of school.

Teacher-pupil relationship- Teachers are idols for children, especially for primary school going children. Children tend to imitate their teachers. Teachers’ attitude towards students determines the quality of their relationship with students, which in turn, influences students’ personality. Other factors like teacher’s favoritism, teaching methods, class control, professional commitment, and involvement in students also influence students’ personality.

Religious affiliation – Children’s personality is shaped through different co-curricular and extra-curricular programmes conducted and compulsory subjects offered in school. They are directly related to the norms, rituals, traditions and customs of the school, which depend upon the religious affiliation of the school.

iii) Socio-economic status:

Socio-economic status of school depends upon the social class students come from, the government grant the school receives, facilities available and affiliation of the
school. Based on these, four types of schools can broadly be classified; government schools (e.g. those managed by municipal corporation, Zillah Parishad), private granted schools, private non-granted schools, and international schools.

Government schools are fully managed by government. Generally, children from lower socio-economic class join these schools. Students are given free education, and also get facilities like free-of-cost uniforms, books, etc.

Granted private schools receive salary grant and other grants from government. Such schools take nominal fees. In such schools, there are limitations as to such facilities as library, computers, laboratory equipments, etc. provided to students. Some schools capitalize on their ‘brand name’ and take donations for school expansion and development. Generally, children from middle class take education in such schools.

Non-grant private schools charge heavy fees, since they do not get government grants. Generally, children from upper class study in these schools.

International schools charge fees in foreign currency, which when converted in Indian rupees comes out to be very high. Such schools have air-conditioned classrooms, well-equipped laboratories, rich libraries, computer and Internet facilities, and modern audio-visual teaching aids. Upper class children study in these schools.
Children’s personality is influenced by school facilities; social class of peers; educational qualification, social class and teaching skills of teachers. We find remarkable differences in self-confidence, attitude, self-reliance, social competence, mastery over language and general knowledge of students studying in government schools, granted private schools, non-granted private schools, and international schools.

1.4 Measurement of Personality:

Here we have tried to understand the meaning of personality. We have also discussed the impact of biological and psychosocial factors on personality. Psychologists attempts to devise quantitative measures of personality have resulted into an emergence of a variety of measurement techniques, which can be broadly classified into three categories namely,

A) Observational techniques;

i) Interview ii) Rating scale, iii) Situational tests.

B) Self report techniques/ Questionnaires;

i) MMPI ii) 16 PF.

C) Projective techniques;

i) TAT ii) Rorschach Inkblot iii) Rosenzweig picture Frustration Study iv) Draw-a-Person Test v) Sentence Completion Test.

1.4.1 Observational techniques:

Observational techniques measure personality on the basis of observation of an individual’s behavior.
i) **Interview**- Interview is one of the oldest techniques of measuring personality. In an interview, interviewer asks certain questions to explore the desired information about an interviewee, who then answers these questions.

ii) **Rating scales**- Rating scales refer to a scientific scale, which is used to record their impressions about an individual by people who have had an opportunity to observe the individual over a period of time. Rating scales may be used by supervisors to rate subordinates, by teachers to rate student, and by interviewers panel to rate the aspirant candidates for a given job or course. There are two kinds of ratings scale; relative scales and absolute scales.

iii) **Situational test**: Situational test is a recently developed technique. It is a kind of observational technique. It refers to observation of specific characteristics of an individual while he is active in a particular situation. Situational tests are conducted in two types of settings; natural setting (office, home, social gathering, etc.) and simulated or artificial setting. Situational stress test best exemplifies this technique. This test measures how effectively a personal can perform even under a highly demanding or stressful situation.

1.4.2 **Self-Report Techniques/Questionnaires**:

Self-report techniques go beyond the observable behaviour and explore an individual’s psychological characteristics, like interest, abilities, aptitudes, etc. In this technique, the individual who is being assessed furnishes information about himself. Self-report technique thus refers to a set of psychological instruments used to assess an individual’s personality on the basis of the information provided by him. Questionnaires are a form of self-report technique.
Questionnaires:

Questionnaires are also referred to as psychological tests or inventories. A questionnaire consists of a number of questions or statements that are in printed form. The answers given by the person also are verbal in nature. In other words, questionnaire is a kind of verbal test of personality.

Questionnaires are classified in two ways; on the basis of nature of answers obtained, and on the basis of method of obtaining answers. As far as nature of answers is concerned, there are two types of questionnaires; closed and open-ended.

Closed questionnaires provide limited options to choose from, the person is instructed to choose the one he thinks appropriate. For example-

Do you make friends easily? Yes / No
Are you tired most of the time? Yes / No

Open-ended questionnaires do not provide fixed options for answers, but they expect descriptive answers from the person. For example – What is your opinion about the aggression and violence the children and youth are exposed to in movies? Do you think that women should take up an IT career? And so on.

As far as method of obtaining answers in concerned, questionnaires can be classified into three types; face-to-face, mail, and on-line questionnaires.

Face-to-face questionnaire is administered in a situation in which the test administrator and the person being assessed are face-to-face. One advantage of this questionnaire is that it can be administered to a number of persons at a time and sample mortality is very low.
Mail questionnaires are sent to respondents by post usually along with a reply envelope for which postage is prepaid; the respondents then return the duly completed questionnaires by post. One advantage of mail questionnaires is that they consume less money, time and human resources and can be administered to any person at any place. The major limitation is that all of the mailed questionnaires are not necessarily returned, and all of the returned ones may not be complete; generally, only 70% of mailed questionnaires are returned duly completed.

On-line questionnaires can be downloaded from Internet or Website. These days, many personality questionnaires are readily available on different sites; however, their reliability, validity and other psychometric details need to be checked by the user.

i) **Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) :**

Hathaway and McKinley (1940) devised MMPI for psychiatric diagnosis. MMPI later was revised in 1989 and came to be known as MMPI-2.

The MMPI consists of a series of 567 items to which a person responds “true”, “false” or “cannot say”. The questions cover a variety of issues, ranging from mood (“I feel useless at times”), to opinions (“People should try to understand their dreams”), to physical and psychological health (“I have strange and peculiar thoughts”). There is no right or wrong answer. The test yields scores on three validity scales and ten clinical scales help identify ten different forms of abnormal behaviour, based on which a personality profile can be obtained.

In India, Mallick and Joshi have developed a similar test, which is known as Jodhpur Multiphasic Personality Inventory (JMPI).
ii)  **16 Personality Factor (PF) Questionnaire** –

Developed by Raymond Cattell (1949), the 16 PF gives us a broad picture of normal personality. The test in its original form contains sixteen personality dimensions. Cattell and Cattell revised the test in 1995. The revised edition measures 23 factors. As with the MMPI, a personality profile can be drawn and interpreted on the basis of previous research.

1.4.3 **Projective Techniques:**

Projective test consists of a standardized set of ambiguous or neutral stimuli – inkblots or pictures, which have no definite meaning but can be interpreted in various ways. The subject is instructed to interpret freely what he “sees” in them.

(i) **The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)** – This test devised by Murray (1938), is composed of three series of ten pictures, each picture representing a different situation. The subject is asked to make up a story about each picture, describing the situation, the events that led up to it, how the characters felt, and what the outcome will be. The examiner evaluates both the formal characteristics and the content of these stories, and then tries to discover the characteristic thought patterns of the subject.

(ii) **Rorschach Inkblot**– The Rorschach technique, one of the oldest projective methods, is composed of a series of inkblots. Some are black and some are coloured. They also vary in form, shading and complexity. The subject observes the cards in the prescribed order and describes what he “sees” in each card. His description often gives information about the personality structure, which is not brought out by clinical interviews or self-report measures.
(iii) **Rosenzweig, Picture Frustration (PF) Study** – This test developed by Rosenzweig, focuses mainly on frustration and aggression. It presents a series of cartoons in which one person causes frustration to another or calls attention to a frustrating condition. The subject’s responses are analyzed on the basis of type and direction of aggression.

(iv) **Draw-a-Person Test** – In this test, the examinee is presented with a blank sheet, a pencil and an eraser. He is asked to draw a picture of a man or woman. Then he is asked to draw another picture of opposite sex member. Finally, he is asked to make up a story about the person as if he (or she) were a character in a novel or a play. Match over used this test for personality assessment from the psychodynamic perspective. She provided different interpretations for different aspects of the subject’s drawings. For example, omission of facial features means that person is evasive about seriously conflicting interpersonal relationship.

(v) **Sentence Completion Test** - In this test, number of stems consisting of a few words beginning a sentence are presented. The subject’s task is to complete the sentence by providing an ending. The type of the ending provided by the subject throws light on his attitudes, motivation, and conflict. For example, Sack’s Sentence Completion Test consists of a series of 60 items. Subject’s responses can be scored and interpretations can be provided in five areas; attitude toward family members, sexual attitude, interpersonal relationships, self-concept, and goal.
1.5 Theories of Personality:

Personality theories are attempts at understanding both the characteristics of our personality characteristics and the way these characteristics develop and impact our life. The Theories of personality in general can be classified into following categories:

A) Type Approach:- The viewpoint of Hippocrates, Kretreschner, Sheldon and Jung belong to this category.

B) Trait Approach:- Theories like Allport’s theory and Cattel’s theory of personality are based on the trait approach.

C) Type-Trait Approach:- Theories like Eysenck’s Theory of personality can be put under this category.


E) Humanistic Approach: Theories like Carl Roger’s Self Theory and Maslow’s self actualization theory.

F) Learning Approach: Dollard and Miller’s Learning theory and Bandura and Walter’s Theory social learning.

It is beyond the scope to discuss all the theories of personality based on different approach. But representatively few theories such as theory of Type Approach, Trait approach, Type-Trait approach, Humanistic approach; Psychoanalytical approach and Learning approach need to be discussed in detail.
1.5.1 Type Approach:

Type approach advocate that human personality can be classified into a few clearly defined types and each person can be put in one or the other type depending upon his behavioral characteristics, somatic structure, blood types, fluid in the blood, or personality traits. Many more scholars and psychologists including Hippocrates, tried to divide person into certain types depending upon their specific criterion.

a) Hippocrates Classification:

According to Hippocrates, the human body consists of four types of humours of fluids-blood, yellow bile, phlegm (mucus) and black bile. The predominance of one of these four types of fluids in one’s body gives him unique temperamental characteristics leading to a particular type of personality summarized in following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominance of fluid type in the body</th>
<th>Personality</th>
<th>Temperamental Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>Sanguine</td>
<td>Light hearted, optimistic, happy, hopeful and accommodating,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yellow bile</td>
<td>Choleric</td>
<td>Irritable, angry but passionate and strong with active imagination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phlegm</td>
<td>phlegmatic</td>
<td>Cold, Calm, slow or sluggish, indifferent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black bile</td>
<td>Melancholic</td>
<td>Bad tempered, dejected, sad, depressed, pessimistic, deplorable and self-involved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b) Kretschmer’s Classification:

Kretschmer classified all human beings into certain biological types according to physical structure and has allotted define personality characteristics associated with each physical make up as given in following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality types</th>
<th>Personality characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pyknic (having fat bodies)</td>
<td>Sociable, jolly, easygoing and good natured.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletic (balanced body)</td>
<td>Energetic, optimistic, adjustable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leptomatic (lean and thin)</td>
<td>Unsociable, reserved, shy, sensitive and pessimistic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) Jung’s Classification:

He divided all human beings basically two distinct types-Introvert and Extrovert, according to their social participation and the interest they take in social activities. Later on, he further sharpened his Two-fold division by giving sub types. In this process, he took into consideration the four psychological functions- thinking, feeling, sensation and intuition, in relation to his previous extrovert and introvert types.

d) Fridman and Rosenman’s Classification:

This classification of personality type is given by Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman. It classifies the people into two personality type, type A, and type B, on the basis of their personality traits and then points out which type of people are more prone to heart ailments particularly coronary heart disease.
A- Type Personality:

Emotionally unstable, tense, worried, irritating, competitive, high achieving motive, moody, indifferent, active and restless, aggressive, crazy, perfectionist, idealist, rigid, much worried about punctuality and rules, hasty, jealous, dissatisfied with the self and others, suspicious, sensitive insecure, believer in action and not in fate and fortune, etc.

B- Type Personality:

Emotionally stable, tension-free, happy and jolly, average achieving motive, insensitive, patient, self-satisfied, calm and quite flexible, tolerant, realist, optimist, having faith and trust in one’s self and others, adjusted to one’s self and others, believer in the philosophy of fate and fortune, sincere nut not too serious about the execution and result of the work etc.

1.5.2 Trait Approach - Gordon Allport’s Trait Theory

In 1936, Psychologist Gordon Allport found that one English-language dictionary alone contained more than 4,000 words describing different personality traits. He categorized these traits into three levels:

a) Cardinal Traits:

Traits that dominate an individual’s whole life, often to the point that the person becomes known specifically for these traits, people with such personalities often become so known for these traits that their names are often synonymous with these qualities. Consider the origin and meaning of the following descriptive terms: Freudian,
Machiavellian, narcissism, Don Juan, Christ-like, etc. Allport suggested that cardinal traits are rare and tend to develop later in life.

b) **Central Traits:**

These are the general characteristics that form the basic foundations of personality. These central traits, while not as dominating as cardinal traits, are the major characteristics you might use to describe another person. Terms such as *intelligent, honest, shy* and *anxious* are considered central traits.

c) **Secondary Traits:**

These are the traits that are sometimes related to attitudes or preferences and often appear only in certain situations or under specific circumstances. Some examples would be getting anxious when speaking to a group or impatient while waiting in line.

**Trait Approach - Cattell’s Theory**

The most recent advanced theory of personality based on the trait approach has been developed by Cattell (1973), a British-born American researcher. He has defined a trait as a structure of the personality inferred from behavior. In the different situations and described four types of traits.

**Types of Traits**

1. **Common Traits:** The traits found widely distributed in general population like honesty, aggression and co-operation.

2. **Unique Traits:** Traits unique to a person such as temperamental traits, emotional reactions.

3. **Surface Traits:** These can be recognized by manifestation of behavior like curiosity, dependability, and tactfulness.
4. **Source Traits**: These are the underlying structures or sources that determine behavior such as dominance, submission emotionality, etc.

**Factor Analysis**

The theory propagated by Cattell attributes certain specific dimensions to personality so that the human behaviour related to a particular situation can be predicted. Cattell has adopted factor analysis as a technique for this work.

1. Cattell began by attempting to make a complete list of all possible human behaviours. In 1946, he compiled a list of over 17000 traits and by eliminating similarities and synonyms reduced the list to 171 dictionary words related with personality and called these traits-elements.

2. His next step was to ascertain how they are related. He found that each trait element has high correlation with some traits and low with others. In this way, he identified some 35 specific groups and called them surface traits.

3. He further analyzed these surface traits in terms of their interrelations and eliminated those which were overlapping. The removal of such overlapping gave him the desired basic dimensions which he called source traits i.e. the real structural influence underlying personality.

4. After obtaining the source traits which are 16 in number he tried to use them to predict behavior employing what is called the specification equation.
The 16 basic or source traits dimensions (arrived at through the process of factor analysis) were named as factors. Cattell regarded these factors as the building blocks of personality.

**Table 1.2 Basic Trait Dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbols</th>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>Name of the factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Reserved (detached, critical, aloof, stiff)</td>
<td>v/s Outgoing (warm hearted, easy going, participating).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Less intelligent (concrete thinking)</td>
<td>v/s More intelligent (abstract thinking, bright).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Affected by feeling (emotionally less stable, easily upset, changeable)</td>
<td>v/s Emotionally stable (mature, faces reality, calm).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Submissive (mild, easily led, docile, accommodating)</td>
<td>v/s Dominant (aggressive, stubborn, competitive).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Serious (sober, taciturn)</td>
<td>v/s Happy-go-Lucky (enthusiastic).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Expedient (disregards rules)</td>
<td>v/s Conscientious (persistent, moralistic, staid).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Timid (shy, fear, threat, sensitive)</td>
<td>v/s venture some (uninhibited, socially bold).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Tough-minded (self-reliant, realistic)</td>
<td>v/s Tender-hearted (sensitive, clinging, overprotected).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Trusting (accepting conditions)</td>
<td>v/s suspicous (hard to fool).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Practical (down-to-earth, concerns)</td>
<td>v/s Imaginative (bohemian, absentminded).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Forthright (unpretentious, genuine but socially clumsy)</td>
<td>v/s shrewd (socially aware, astute).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Self-assured (secure, placid, complacent)</td>
<td>v/s Apprehensive (self-critical, insecure, worrying, troubled).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Conservative (respecting traditional ideas).</td>
<td>v/s Experimenting (liberal, free thinking).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Group-dependent (a “joiner” and sound follower)</td>
<td>v/s Self-sufficient (resourceful, prefers own decisions).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Uncontrolled (careless of social rules, follows own urges)</td>
<td>v/s Controlled (socially precise, exercising will power, compulsive).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Relaxed (tranquil unfrustrated, composed)</td>
<td>v/s Tense (frustrated, driven over wrought).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cattell made use of his 16 factors or basic dimensions in the measurement of personality by devising a personality inventory known as Cattell’s sixteen personality factors inventory (16 PF) consisting of suitable, multiple choice questions like:

I generally prefer persons who are:

1. Somewhat reserved.
2. Somewhat outgoing.
3. Moderate.

**Evaluation of Cattell’s Theory**

The trait theory of Cattell, thus tried to describe and predict the behaviour of individuals on the basis of their personality traits (the fundamental building blocks of human personality). Basically, Cattell’s work as a whole, involves the identification of basic dimensions of personality (by applying factor analysis techniques to the observable behaviour, i.e. traits) and then developing instruments to measure these dimensions.

However, Cattell’s theory, as claimed by some, cannot be said to suggest that traits alone account for behavior and that other motivational variables concerning a situation have nothing to do with it. In fact, for the prediction and measurement of one’s personality, Cattell has taken clearly in the account the motivational variables like urges (innate tendencies to react to goals in specific way), sentiments, attitude states (the individual’s moods) and the roles (the way one is presenting oneself) relevant to the situations and thereby his theory enjoys a good standing among the contemporary theories of personality.
His theory has given equal importance to the role of both heredity and environment in the growth and development of personality and thus is able to demonstrate strong interaction between biological genetic factors and the environmental influence for prediction of human behavior.

1.5.3 Type-Trait Approach- Eysenck’s 3- Dimensions of Personality

Introversion/Extraversion:

Introversion involves directing attention on inner experiences, while extraversion relates to focusing attention outward on other people and the environment. So, a person high in introversion might be quiet and reserved, while an individual high in extraversion might be sociable and outgoing.

Neuroticism/Emotional Stability

This dimension of Eysenck’s trait theory is related to moodiness versus even-temperedness. Neuroticism refers to an individual’s tendency to become upset or emotional, while stability refers to the tendency to remain emotionally constant.

Psychoticism

Later, after studying individuals suffering from mental illness, Eysenck added a personality dimension he called psychoticism to his trait theory. Individuals who are high on this trait tend to have difficulty dealing with reality and may be antisocial, hostile, non-empathetic and manipulative.
1.5.4 Psycho-Analytical Approach - Freud

This approach for understanding and knowing about personality belongs to the school of psychoanalysis. The famous psychologist Freud is said to be profounder this school thought. The ideas and thoughts propagated by Freud in his new psychoanalytic approach is as below:

1. Basic instincts are the basic guiding factors of human behaviour. These are Life and Death. The Life instinct provides a burning desire and positive urge to remain alive and lead the life in a satisfactory way; whereas the death instincts build up a negative attitude towards life and guides one’s behaviour towards destruction, revolt, aggression or detachment and suicidal tendencies.

2. Human behaviour is by all means centred on the sex needs. The adjustment or maladjustment in one’s life mostly depends upon the degree of the gratification of one’s sex needs.

3. Mind or Psyche plays quite a significant role in directing one’s behaviour. According to Freud, human mind or psyche can be divided into three compartments in the form of conscious, semi-conscious and unconscious. These three divisions of human mind are responsible for three types of human behaviour, namely conscious, semi-conscious and unconscious. The unconscious behaviour being 9/10 part of the total behaviour, always dominates the total behavioural aspects and personality make up on an individual.

4. Freud put up the idea that the anatomy of our personality is built around the three unified and interrelating systems- id, ego and superego occupying their position in sequence in the human mind.
a) **Individual Approach of Adler**

Adler while opposing the Freud’s sex centered approach argued that sex is not the life energy or the center of all human activities. Actually, power motive is the centre urge. Human beings are motivated by the urge to be important or powerful. All of us strive towards superiority but each strives in a different way. He named it as ‘style of life’. Therefore what kind of personality one possesses can be understood by studying his style of life, i.e. goals of life he has set for himself and way of striving for achieving these goals. In this way he gives birth to an individual approach in the study of personality pattern and maintains that there are no definite personality types or classes. Each individual is a unique pattern in him because everybody has definite goals and style of living.

b) **Erik Erikson’s theory of Psychosocial Development**

Erik Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology. Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud’s theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson’s theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan.

The Table 1.1 gives summarizing approach to Erikson's stages of psychosocial development are as below.
**Table 1.4**

**Erikson's stages of Psychosocial Development**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE</th>
<th>BASIC CONFLICT</th>
<th>IMPORTANT EVENTS</th>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Infancy (birth to 18 months)</td>
<td>Trust vs. Mistrust</td>
<td>Feeding</td>
<td>Children develop a sense of trust when caregivers provide reliability, care, and affection. A lack of this will lead to mistrust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Childhood (2 to 3 years)</td>
<td>Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt</td>
<td>Toilet Training</td>
<td>Children need to develop a sense of personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence. Success leads to feelings of autonomy, failure results in feelings of shame and doubt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preschool (3 to 5 years)</td>
<td>Initiative vs. Guilt</td>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Children need to begin asserting control and power over the environment. Success in this stage leads to a sense of purpose. Children who try to exert too much power experience disapproval, resulting in a sense of guilt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Age (6 to 11 years)</td>
<td>Industry vs. Inferiority</td>
<td>School</td>
<td>Children need to cope with new social and academic demands. Success leads to a sense of competence, while failure results in feelings of inferiority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescence (12 to 18 years)</td>
<td>Identity vs. Role Confusion</td>
<td>Social Relationships</td>
<td>Teens need to develop a sense of self and personal identity. Success leads to an ability to stay true to yourself, while failure leads to role confusion and a weak sense of self.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Adulthood (19 to 40 years)</td>
<td>Intimacy vs. Isolation</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Young adults need to form intimate, loving relationships with other people. Success leads to strong relationships, while failure results in loneliness and isolation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Adulthood (40 to 65 years)</td>
<td>Generativity vs. Stagnation</td>
<td>Work and Parenthood</td>
<td>Adults need to create or nurture things that will outlast them, often by having children or creating a positive change that benefits other people. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in shallow involvement in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity (65 to death)</td>
<td>Ego Integrity vs. Despair</td>
<td>Reflection on Life</td>
<td>Older adults need to look back on life and feel a sense of fulfillment. Success at this stage leads to feelings of wisdom, while failure results in regret, bitterness, and despair.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.5.5 Humanistic Approach –

a) Carl Roger’s Self Theory

Carl Ransom Rogers’, an American psychologist, in 1947 propounded a new theory of personality called the ‘self theory’ quite distinct from the earlier theories of personality. He stressed the importance of an individual’s self for determining the process of his growth, development and appropriate adjustment to his environment.

There are two basic systems underlying his personality theory—the organism and self. Rogers considers them as systems operating in one’s phenomenological field (a world of subjective experience, the personal and separate reality of each individual). The organism is an individual’s entire frame of reference. It represents the totality of his experience—both conscious and unconscious. The second system, the ‘self’ is the accepted, aware part of experience. The self as a system of one’s phenomenal field can perhaps be best understood in terms of our concept of I, me or myself.

Human beings have inherited the tendency to develop their self in the process of interpersonal and social experiences which they acquire in the environment. In other words, our inner world (in the form of our natural impulses) interacts with our total range of experience to form the concept of our self.

We are in a continuous process of building the concept of our self in this manner. The concept of self thus developed may differ from person to person as they are based purely on one’s own personal experiences. The concept of self are sometimes based more on personal needs than on reality, and at other times as Rogers believes, we develop an ideal self, i.e. the kind of person we would like to be.
Once a connected self is formed, the individual strives to maintain it by regulating his behaviour. Whatever is consistent with the concept of his self is readily accepted and maintained at the conscious level while that which threatens that image may be totally ignored or buried deep in the unconscious.

b) Maslow’s Theory of Personality

According to Maslow human behavior is motivated by a set of basic needs. Which needs are most active in driving behavior depends on two principles: 1) a need which is satisfied is no longer active: the higher the satisfaction, the less the activity. (2) needs can be ordered in a hierarchy, such that from all the non-satisfied needs, the one which is lowest in the hierarchy will be the most active. A lower need is more "urgent" in the sense that it must be satisfied before a higher need can take over control.

**Figure 1.1 Maslow’s Need Hierarchy**
1. **The physiological needs.**

   These include the needs we have for oxygen, water, protein, salt, sugar, calcium, and other minerals and vitamins. They also include the need to maintain a pH balance (getting too acidic or base will kill you) and temperature (98.6 or near to it). Also, there’s the need to be active, to rest, to sleep, to get rid of wastes (CO2, sweat, urine, and faeces).

2. **The safety and security needs.**

   When the physiological needs are largely taken care of, this second layer of needs comes into play. You will become increasingly interested in finding safe circumstances, stability, and protection.

3. **Psychological Needs.**

   When physiological needs and safety needs are, by and large, taken care of, a third layer starts to show up. You begin to feel the need for friends or affectionate relationships in general, even a sense of community. Looked at negatively, you become increasing susceptible to loneliness and social anxieties.

4. **The esteem needs.**

   Next, we begin to look for a little self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, fame, glory, recognition, attention, reputation, appreciation, dignity, even dominance. The higher form involves the need for self-respect, including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom. The negative version of these needs is low self-esteem and inferiority complexes.
Maslow sees all these needs as essentially survival needs. Even love and esteem are needed for the maintenance of health. He says we all have these needs built in to us genetically, like instincts. In fact, he calls them instinctoid – instinct-like – needs.

5. Self-actualization

The last level is a bit different. Maslow has used a variety of terms to refer to this level: He has called it growth motivation (in contrast to deficit motivation), being needs (or B-needs, in contrast to D-needs), and self-actualization. Now, in keeping with his theory up to this point, if you want to be truly self-actualizing, you need to have your lower needs taken care of, at least to a considerable extent. When lower needs are unmet, you can’t fully devote yourself to fulfilling your potentials.

There were several flaws or imperfections Maslow discovered along the way as well: First, they often suffered considerable anxiety and guilt – but realistic anxiety and guilt, rather than misplaced or neurotic versions. Some of them were absentminded and overly kind. And finally, some of them had unexpected moments of ruthlessness, surgical coldness, and loss of humor.

1.5.6 Learning Approach –

a) Dollard and Miller’s Theory of Personality

John Dollard and Neil Miller (1950) in the Institute of Human Relations at Yale University put forth their theory of personality. The theory tries to describe the development of personality, ‘simple drives to a complex function’ from a learning theory angle. It emphasizes that what we consider as personality is learned.
Dollard and Miller’s theory stressed the development of a personality on the basis of responses and behavior learnt through the process of motivation and reward. This theory of personality did not really ascribe any static structure to personality and emphasized, instead, habit formation through learning as a key factor in the development of personality.

b) Social Learning Theory - Albert Bandura

Albert Bandura (1997) as one of the most prominent social learning theorists has extend and modify traditional learning theory by developing principles of social gathering.

People learn through observing others’ behavior, attitudes, and outcomes of those behaviors. “Most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action.” Social learning theory explains human behavior in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences.

Bandura’s Social Learning Theory posits that people learn from one another, via observation, imitation, and modeling. The theory has often been called a bridge between behaviorist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation.
1.6 MODERN TRENDS IN PERSONALITY STUDIES

a) Sex differences.

Despite the physical differences between males and females, the finding of behavioral differences between the sexes is controversial. Behaviors associated with sex roles depend heavily on the social and cultural context, and studies of stereotypic male and female roles are therefore understandably ambiguous. Yet some findings indicate small but consistent differences. While there are no differences in measured IQ, it regarded as a culture-bound assessment; females do better than males on verbal tasks. Girls generally begin to speak earlier than boys and have fewer language problems in school and in the course of maturation. Males generally exhibit greater skill in understanding spatial relations and in solving problems that involve mathematical reasoning. Beginning at the toddler stage, the activity level of males is generally higher than that of females. A related finding is that boys are more likely to be irritable and aggressive than girls and more often behave like bullies. Men usually outscore women in antisocial personality disorders, which consist of persistent lying, stealing, vandalism, and fighting, although these differences do not appear until after about the age of three.

b) Aggression.

Humans are perhaps the only species of animal that does not have an internal inhibition against slaughtering other members of the species. It has been theorized that man, like other animals, is motivated by an aggressive drive, which has significant survival value, but lacks internal inhibitions against killing his fellow men. Inhibitions, therefore, must be imposed externally by society. Social learning theorists emphasize the
decisive effects of situations in triggering and controlling aggression. They account for the poor predictability of aggressive behaviour in man by noting that the environmental context is generally unpredictable. Yet research has shown that an aggressive act is most likely to be produced by a person with a history of aggressive behaviour.

c) Genetic aspects.

While social learning theorists emphasize the active shaping of personality by external social influences, experimental evidence has accumulated that genetic factors play a prominent role, if not in the transmission of specific behaviour patterns, then in the readiness of people to respond to environmental pressures in particular ways. In observations of animals, it is common place to find in different breeds of dogs wide divergences in behaviour that are attributed to genetic differences: some are friendly, others aggressive; some are timid, others bold. There can be again wide variations within a given breed. Among human infants observed in a neonatal nursery, there are also clearly observable differences in activity, passivity, fussiness, cuddliness, and responsiveness. These patterns, which some authorities say may be genetically influenced, shape the ways in which the infant will interact with the environment and can be considered an expression of personality.

The study of the genetic aspects of personality is a relatively new undertaking. Almost all populations studied have been from industrialized Western nations whose rearing environments are more nearly alike than different. It is known that the more homogeneous the environment, the stronger the genetic contribution will appear. As with
the psychology of traits, cross-cultural studies are required to test the validity of the
claims of behaviour genetics.

d) Cognitive controls and styles.

Combinations of several cognitive controls within a person have been referred to
as cognitive style, of which there can be numerous variations.

Cognitive control studies explore constraints within a person that limit the
influence of both environment and motivation, and as such they are expressions of
personality. In the 1940s and '50s several studies explored the extent to which personal
needs or drives determine what one perceives. In one study, children from rich and poor
families were asked to adjust a circle of light to the size of several coins of increasing
value and to the size of cardboard disks. All of the children overestimated the size of the
coins, although not of the neutral disks, but the poor children overestimated the sizes
more than did the rich children. The assumption that needs influences such judgments
have been widely held. Even Shakespeare, in *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, noted, "Or in
the night, imagining some fear, / how easy is a bush supposed a bear." But there are
limits to the distorting power of drives, and the experimental demonstration of the
influence of motives has been difficult to confirm, perhaps because the formal
components of cognition--the workings, for example, of attention, judgment, or
perception--and individual difference in their expression have been neglected by
personologists. Investigators of cognitive controls examine the psychological limits on
the distorting effects of needs and of external reality. For example, in estimating the size
of a disk, some people are more exact than others, and the extent to which a need can
distort size judgments will consequently be limited by the perceiver's preference for strict or relaxed standards of comparison.

The American psychologists George S. Klein (1970) and Herman Witkin in the 1940s and '50s were able to show that several cognitive controls were relatively stable over a class of situations and intentions. For example, the psychologists found a stable tendency in some people to blur distinctions between successively appearing stimuli so that elements tended to lose their individuality (leveling) and an equally stable tendency in other individuals to highlight differences (sharpening). This organizing principle is apparent in judgments of the size of a series of objects, as well as in memory, where it may manifest itself in a blurring of elements in the recall of a story.

Another much studied cognitive control is called field dependence-field independence. It pertains to the extent to which people are influenced by inner (field-independent) or environmental (field-dependent) cues in orienting themselves in space and the extent to which they make fine differentiations in the environment. The more field-independent people are, the greater is their ability to articulate a field. There are no general intellectual capacity differences between field-dependent and field-independent people, but there is a tendency for field-dependent people to favour careers that include working with other people, such as teaching or social work. Field-independent people are more often found in careers that involve abstract issues such as mathematics. Cultural differences have also been found. Some Eskimo live and hunt in an environment with little variation, and a high degree of articulation of the field (field independence) would favour survival; some farmers of Sierra Leone, however, who
inhabit an area of lush vegetation and many varieties of shape, require less differentiation of the field.

1.7 Study habit:

Almost all psychologists agree that the physical and material aspect that imbibes in students a sense of dedication to learning which we may call it as a study habit can also be an important outcome of academic climate. When the environmental conditions are radically altered, significant changes occur in developing good study habit among the students, which cumulatively brings an academic achievement.

1.7.1 Definition of Study Habits

Tuckman (2003) defined study skills as “the learning and motivation strategies that enable a student to be successful”. Chadha (2006) states that, independent learning skill was required for those secondary students going on to college and also into the ever changing workplace. Weiner, in 1995, (as cited by Tuckman) emphasized “the student takes responsibility” method of teaching in which the student realized how their efforts affected their test grade.

Good (1973) defined the term Study Habit as “the student’s way of study whether systematic, efficient or inefficient, etc.” Good Study Habits are perceived to be the determinants of the academic performance that is why efforts are made to develop an improved study habits in students.

Study habits refer to the activities carried out by learners during the learning process of improving learning. Study habits are intended to elicit and guide one's cognitive processes during learning. According to Patel (1976) study habits include
home environment & planning of work, reading & note taking habits, planning of subjects, habits of concentration, preparation for examination, general habits & attitudes, school environment.

The simplest indicator of study habits must surely be based on estimates of the number of hours worked by a student in a typical week. Thoday (1957) reported a "fairly clear relationship between examination results and the amount of work done", but later studies failed to confirm this finding (Malleson, 1963; Cooper and Foy, 1969):

Working on the assumption that students would find difficulty in reporting their activities accurately, Entwistle and Entwistle (1970) provided a specially designed grid from which "hours worked" could be derived. Using this grid method, consistently significant relationships with degree results have subsequently been reported (Entwistle and Percy, 1973).

However it is clear that quality, as well as quantity, of studying is important. Long hours of obsessive, but ineffective, work will rarely lead to academic success. Obsessiveness is, in fact, one of the symptoms of study difficulties associated with psychiatric disturbances which has been described in clinical investigations (Malleson, 1963; Ryle, 1969).

Another pattern of study behaviour which involves unconscious conflict has been described by Blaine and McArthur (1971). Here the student has a desperate need for autonomy in his studying, rejecting pressures to conform to conventional academic requirements.
1.7.2 Effective Study Habits

Effective study habits must be practiced in order for you to improve. It is not enough to simply "think about" studying; you have to actually do it, and in the process use information from what you do to get better. This is the central idea of this page. All that follows depends on this single concept. There is a saying that goes like this: "Practice doesn't make perfect; perfect practice makes perfect." Following are the points that need to be remembered for adopting the good study habit.

The value of a schedule

Before you even begin to think about the process of studying, you must develop a schedule. If you don't have a schedule or plan for studying, then you will not have any way of allocating your valuable time when the unexpected comes up. A good, well thought out schedule can be a lifesaver. It's up to you to learn how developing a schedule that meets your needs, revise it if necessary and most important, and follow it.

A schedule saves time

All schedules should be made with the idea that they can be revised. A good schedule keeps you from wandering off course. A good schedule, if properly managed, assigns time where time is needed, but you've got to want to do it!
Making every hour count

A schedule should take into account every class, laboratory, lecture, social event, and other work in which you engage. There are givens such as classes and so on that has to be incorporated. You must focus on the other "free time" available and how you will use it. Make a weekly schedule and block off the 24 hour day in one hour increments. Indicate times for classes, labs, lectures, social, and work time. Also block off a period for sleeping each day with what is left over; plan, time for study. This gives you a rough road map of the time available. Of course, you can revise your schedule as circumstances warrant.

When to study

The problem of when to study is critical. A good rule of thumb is that studying should be carried out only when you are rested, alert, and have planned for it. Last minute studying just before a class is usually a waste of time.

Studying for lecture courses

If your study period is before the lecture class, be sure you have read all the assignments and made notes on what you don't understand. If the study period is after the lecture class, review the notes you took during class while the information is still fresh.
Studying for recitation courses

For classes that require recitation, such as foreign language, is sure to schedule a study period just before the class. Use the time to practice. Sometimes, practice with others can help sharpen your skills in a before-class study period.

Making and revising a schedule

Don't be afraid to revise your schedule. Schedules are really plans for how you intend to use your time. If your schedule doesn't work, revise it. You must understand that your schedule is to help you develop good study habits. Once you have developed them, schedule building becomes easier.

1.7.3 The Process of Study

How to use your time: Time is the most valuable resource a student has. It is also one of the most wasted of resources. The schedule you develop should guide you in how to allocate the available time in the most productive manner. Sticking to your schedule can be tough. Don't dribble away valuable time. Avoiding study is the easiest thing in the world. It's up to you to follow the schedule you prepared. A good deal of your success in high school or college depends on this simple truth.

Where to study: You can study anywhere. Obviously, some places are better than others. Libraries, study lounges or private rooms are best. Above all, the place you choose to study should not be distracting. Distractions can build up, and the first thing
you know, you're out of time and out of luck. Make choosing a good physical environment a part of your study habits.

### 1.7.4 Strategies

**Thinking skills**: Everybody has thinking skills, but few use them effectively. Effective thinking skills cannot be studied, but must be built up over a period of time. Good thinkers see possibilities where others see only dead-end. If you're not a good thinker, start now by developing habits that make you ask yourself questions as you read. Talk to other students who you feel are good thinkers. Ask them what it is they do when they think critically or creatively. Often times, you can pick up valuable insights to help you become a better thinker.

**The SQ3R method**: The SQ3R method has been a proven way to sharpen study skills. SQ3R stands for Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review. Take a moment now and write SQ3R down. It is a good slogan to commit to memory to carry out an effective study strategy.

**Survey** - Get the best overall picture of what you're going to study BEFORE you study it in detail. It's like looking at a road map before going on a trip. If you don't know the territory, studying a map is the best way to begin.

**Question** - ask questions for learning. The important things to learn are usually answers to questions. Questions should lead to emphasis on the what, why, how, when, who and where of study content. Ask yourself questions as you read or study. As you answer them, you will help to make sense of the material and remember it more easily because
the process will make an impression on you. Those things that make impressions are
more meaningful, and therefore more easily remembered. Don't be afraid to write your
questions in the margins of textbooks, on lecture notes, or wherever it makes sense.

**Read** - Reading is NOT running your eyes over a textbook. When you read, read
actively. Read to answer questions you have asked yourself or question the instructor or
author has asked. Always be alert to bold or italicized print. The authors intend that this
material receive special emphasis. Also, when you read, be sure to read everything,
including tables, graphs and illustrations. Often times tables, graphs and illustrations can
convey an idea more powerfully than written text.

**Recite** - When you recite, you stop reading periodically to recall what you have read.
Try to recall main headings, important ideas of concepts presented in bold or italicized
type, and what graphs charts or illustrations indicate. Try to develop an overall concept
of what you have read in your own words and thoughts. Try to connect things you have
just read to things you already know. When you do this periodically, the chances are you
will remember much more and be able to recall material for papers, essays and objective
tests.

**Review** - A review is a survey of what you have covered. It is a review of what you are
supposed to accomplish, not what you are going to do. Rereading is an important part of
the review process. Reread with the idea that you are measuring what you have gained
from the process. During review, it's a good time to go over notes you have taken to help
clarify points you may have missed or don't understand. The best time to review is when
you have just finished studying something. Don't wait until just before an examination to
begin the review process. Before an examination, do a final review. If you manage your time, the final review can be thought of as a "fine-tuning" of your knowledge of the material. Thousands of high school and college students have followed the SQ3R steps to achieve higher grades with less stress.

Reading

A primary means by which you acquire information is through reading. In college you're expected to do much more reading than in high school. Don't assume just because you've "read" the assignments that is the end of it. You must learn to read with a purpose. In studying, you may read the same assignment three or four times, each time with a different purpose. You must know before you begin reading what your purpose is, and read accordingly.

Getting the main idea: Getting the main idea in reading is central to effective studying, you must learn what the author's central idea is, and understand it in your own way. Every paragraph contains a main idea. Main ideas are perfect for outlining textbooks. Make it a habit to find the main idea in each paragraph you read.

Extracting Important Details: Extracting important details means that you locate in your reading the basis for main ideas. There is usually one important detail associated with every main idea. The more important details you can identify, the easier it will be to review for examinations because you have made a link between an idea and information that supports it. The more links you can make between details and ideas, as well as ideas themselves, the more powerful will be the efforts of your study.
Don't Read Aloud to Yourself: Generally, reading aloud to yourself does not help you study more effectively. If you move your lips while you read, you're not reading efficiently. If you read aloud or move your lips while you're reading, you are reading slowly, so stop moving your lips. Try putting a finger over your lips. Your finger will remind you not to move your lips. Make an effort to read faster and retain more - after a while, you'll be surprised how little effort it will take.

Taking Notes: Like reading, note-taking is a skill which must be learned and refined. Almost invariably, note taking, or the lack of it, is a constant deficiency in the study methods of many high school and college students. Learning the ingredients of good note taking is rather easy; applying them to your own situation depends on how serious you are in becoming a successful student.

Where to Keep Notes: You must learn to keep notes logically and legibly. Remember, if you can't read your own writing a few days after taking notes, they are of little use. By all accounts, the best place to keep notes is in a loose-leaf notebook. Use dividers to separate the different classes you take. Make it a habit of using your notebook to record ALL your notes. If you're caught without your notebook and need to take notes, always have a supply of loose-leaf paper with you. Insert your note papers into the notebook as soon as you can. Be sure to buy a good notebook, as it will get a lot of wear and tear.

Outlining Textbooks: First of all, don't underline. Use a highlighter. Experience has shown that text passages highlighted are more easily remembered than the same passages underlined. In outlining a text, don't just read along and highlight what seem to important words. That technique rarely works. The act of outlining works much better.
Surveying, Questioning, Listening: Taking accurate and concise lecture notes is essential. Develop the habit of taking notes using appropriate methods described earlier in the SQ3R technique. For example, when you listen to a lecture, formulate questions as you listen. Your main job in taking lecture notes is to be a good listener. To be a good listener, you must learn to focus and concentrate on the main points of the lecture. Get them down, and then later reorganize them in your own words. Once you have done this, you have set the stage for successful reviewing and revising.

Reviewing and Revising: As you prepare for examinations, tests, or other assessments, you should spend time reviewing and revising your lecture notes. Begin the process by reviewing your notes right after a lecture. If you wait too long, you may discover that the notes just don't make sense. Don't hesitate to revise your notes based on the review process.

The study habits of the students can be measured by giving them various tests or inventory comprising of various questions based on the student’s practices of study, daily schedule, reading skill, etc. In the study habit inventory following points have been considered.

1.7.5 Aspects of Study Habits

The study habit is a very important characteristic of all human beings who are ‘being educated’ and ‘are educated. As much study habit is important for higher academic achievement of students as much it is important for their fruitful use of leisure time. It has very long reaching effects deep into the life of individuals, and by cumulative and interactive effects in the society. Study habit inventory was designed to measure the
study habits of students at the post secondary level. In this inventory, the study habits have been considered to be constituted of nine different kinds of study behaviours. These are:

i) **Comprehension**. There are certain specific behaviours with respect to a student’s study behaviour which are geared to better comprehension, for example, before reading a lesson intensively the student may try to catch on what the lesson is about. By so doing he may actually try to establish a mental set for studying a particular content. Similarly, he may try to relate the materials learned in one subject with those learned to another so that he may subsume the new learning with the previous knowledge.

ii) **Concentration**: Concentration is a very important predictor of effective study habits. Some students are capable of concentrating easily and for long, some others take time to concentrate, but once they concentrate, they can continue for long, while still some others find it difficult to concentrate at all. Some may read only when they are in a mood to do so. Others may require stimulations through tea, coffee, smoking etc. for concentration.

iii) **Task Orientation**: If a student who has to study a series of subjects and has to develop different levels of cognition, the task orientation is an important component of the study habits. For example, some students study different subjects according to the fixed routine—daily, weekly or monthly. Certain students fix the time target for
completing certain academic tasks. Students’ orientation and behaviours towards accomplishment of the tasks in a pre-decided time frame is task orientation.

iv) Set: By study sets we mean the physical and situational characteristics which a student adopts for study. For example, some students read only in the night; some students learn more when they read lying on the bed, whereas some others may as well sleep if they read lying on the bed.

v) Interaction: Although both teaching and learning in our colleges have remained monoaction and almost the private affair of the individual teachers or students respectively, there are enough evidences to conclude that interaction of a student with his teacher or parents or his friends contributes positively towards better learning. Thus interaction is a significant component of study habit. For example, when a student does not understand while studying he may go to some of his friends for a discussion. Amongst the postgraduate students in certain universities, a common practice is to form small groups of three or four students who study together.

vi) Drilling: Drilling means practicing a particular learning again and again. While drilling is a common practice at school level, it is a very important component of good study habits amongst students of science and technology. Since drilling is almost essential in case of learning of Mathematics, Chemistry, Engineering and Drawing etc. these students may revise the topics and tasks already learned more than once.
vii) **Supports:** Study in any particular discipline gets a sound back-up from a broader study base. A student’s habit of studying different types of books other than textbooks, or newspapers and magazines may be helpful in the learning of his subjects.

viii) **Recording:** At higher levels any good teacher hardly teaches on the basis of a single book. For good performance of the students, it is also necessary to read a number of books; recording in the form of text, class notes or preparing ones’ own study notes are hence very important. Some students prepare their own notes on the basis of class lectures which form the basis for their own independent study. Many students depend only on the class notes dictated by the teacher.

ix) **Language:** Language capability is an important predictor of effective study habits. For example, where the medium of instruction is English, it is important to see with what facility and ease does a student read books in English. This affects his concentration, comprehension and duration of study.

1.8 **Socio Economic status**

Socio economics status is one of the most important variables in social science studies/research. Socioeconomic status as the word suggests is the status of the person governed by one’s social and economic factors. Status according Young (1942) is the function of interaction and it results from acceptance by the self and others of the role of the person plays in the interaction.

It plays a significant role in planning and execution of developmental programmers and there, there is a need for the development of a valid and reliable instrument for the measurement of SES. Chaplin (1928) says socioeconomic status is the portion that an
individual or family occupies with reference to prevailing students of cultural precessions effective income, material precession and participation in group activity of the community.

Socio-economic status of a family belongs in the milieu to which the family belongs, in respect of defined variables *viz.*, Physical assets, social participation, cast, economic status, education, political influence, *etc.*

SES is considered as an indicator of economic and social position (Stawarski and Boesel, 1988) Australian Bureau of statistics (1994) while assessing the SES of aborigines and Indigenous people defined SES as the level (status) of social and economic position of people in society and are reflected by various indicators. Socio comes from the word ‘social’ and refers to people and the ways (level) they fit into the community in which they live. It reflects how well they are educated, have jobs etc. Several indicators of one’s social status, *viz.*, education, health, contact with criminal justice system, employment/unemployment, housing access to services, water, sewerage etc, and of economic position, *viz.*, income, ownership, assets level, holdings etc. have been outlined (Australian Bureau of statistics, 1994). The variables/components traditionally used to assess one’s social standing are education, occupation and income; however additional indicators which are considered important are employment status, possessions and even the presence of reading material at home U. S. Department of defense, 1986). Powers (1981) has reported that the single best indicator of one’s socio-economic position is the occupation. Duncan, Daly, McDonough and Williams (2002)
have reported that commonly used indicators of SES are income, wealth social standing/prestige and material or social deprivation.

The basic classifications of society in present time appear to be based on vocation, income, home and location as well as education. Furthermore, the society is remarkably divided into two broad levels: one urban, who live in city and rural; who live in villages. The distinction is accentuated on account of lack of coordination between the rural and urban areas. Numerous researchers have shown Seven significant relative of distinction.

Almost all family researchers agree that optimal child development requires children to be immersed in an environment that offers both supporting and nurturing responsiveness (warmth and love) and firm guidance and demandingness (control and discipline) environment.

Thus family exists as the most important agency in the process of socialization of the child. Healthy parental attitude increases the quality academic performance and hence the help in grooming the personality of a child.

Thus, the review clearly outline the frequently used indicators of SES as education, income, wealth, employment on unemployment, housing, access to services, profession, presence of reading material at home, race, social class. Social standing or prestige, material/social deprivation, network etc. Income, education, material possessions, etc. are ever changing and not static over the years, the so called rigid cast system has also become “somewhat” flexible in the sense that rate of inter-caste marriages has increased. The salaries of employees have increased enormously, literacy rate has improved the
material possessions which used to determine the status have changed e.g. in villages the bullocks and bullock carts were considered prestigious. Now tractors and farm implements have replaced them.

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