CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION
"YOUNG PEOPLE EVERYWHERE.....

• Have aspirations and want to participate fully in the lives of their societies.

• Are key agents for social change, economic development and technological innovation.

• Should live under conditions that encourage their imagination, ideals, energy and vision to flourish to the benefit of their societies.

• Are confronted by a paradox: to seek to be integrated into existing society or to serve as a force to transform it.

• Are a social and demographic group at risk with an uncertain future, even though they represent society's greatest hope."

(The United Nations Youth Agenda, 2001)
Youth symbolises zest, enthusiasm and energy. It is the live-wire which if handled with care and given appropriate directions, training and supervision can become a mighty source to act upon (Paul Chowdhry, 1988, p.63)

From the beginning of history human development have been separated into different stages, such as, infancy, childhood, adolescence, young adulthood, middle adulthood and old age. Amongst all these stages, adolescence is the one that stands out the most. This is because of the zest, vigour and enthusiasm to be free and independent which characterises this stage. It has been the age that has inspired poets and has given birth to famous revolutionary and radical leaders. The boundaries of the adolescent period often are fixed at the onset and termination of accelerated physical growth. Rapid changes in height, weight and other body proportions brings about a change in a girl or boy so much so that soon she/he is noted as a woman/man by the society as well as by the individual herself/himself. However, physical maturity cannot be accelerated with the responsibilities of an adult such as marriage, economic independence, vocational and occupational responsibilities, political participation etc. Hence, along with physical maturity it is equally important that through the stage of adolescence an individual develops her/his cognitions, emotions, personality etc. 

1.1 Historical Perspective

Adolescence has always fascinated sages who have sought a better future for mankind-a transformed society-in the socialisation of youth. The co-mingling of idealism, political reality and scientific inquiry at different periods in history produced distinctive viewpoints about adolescent development. Plato and Aristotle made distinguished contributions to the understanding of adolescence. Each recognised a hierarchy of developmental events-differentiated stages of socialisation-and attached special significance to the growth of reasoning during adolescence. During the seventeenth century education of children
became very important and as the figures of authority began to appreciate the unique nature of childhood, the social and moral importance of educating children in special institutions became apparent. It was this view which led to the apparent distinction between childhood and adolescence. In fact the rise of schools in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries helped to sharpen the distinction between childhood and adolescence. The twentieth century opened the stage for new viewpoints on adolescence. The study of human development merged with the natural sciences in late nineteenth century as the theory of evolution gained acceptance. This also led to scientific enquiry in the social sciences and thus led to new syntheses about human development. The excitement of the new sciences contributed further to the study of adolescents which found documentation in the writings of G. Stanley Hall and Sigmund Freud in the earlier twentieth century. Hall and Freud who were contemporaries were profoundly affected and influenced by the post-Darwinian consciousness of evolution and both emphasised the significance of hereditary determinants of personality. They ushered in the era of genetic psychology, giving support to the “storm and stress” (strum and drang) interpretation of adolescence. Hall focused on the relationship between biological and psychological forces during the adolescence, providing a rationale for limited interest in developmental events during infancy and childhood. However, he overestimated the significance of adolescence and underestimated that of childhood. Freud on the other hand, believed that personality growth was nearly complete by the time the child reached her/his puberty, thus neglecting adolescence as an important period in personality formation. But, insights from his psychoanalytic theory have contributed immensely to the therapeutic treatment of adolescent personality deficiencies and also to theoretical concept-utilisations about personality development. A rapprochement between psychoanalysis and the social sciences during the 1940s and 1950s led to revived interest in adolescence. “Neo-Freudians” like Erikson postulated the release of biological propensities, mainly
associated with sexual and cognitive growth, well into adolescence. These new impulses and dimensions of personality when encountered by environmental forces, posed extreme conditions of dilemma. As a consequence, more than Hall's recapitulatory viewpoint, the psychoanalytic viewpoint became synonymous with the assumption of adolescence as a stage of excruciating storm and stress.

1.2 Erikson's eight stages of Man

Adolescence is the time when surge of life reaches its peak. The adolescents' life is or might be full of opportunities to have new experiences, to explore new relationships, to find new resources of inner strength and ability. It is also that stage of life when dreams of love and power have not been disturbed by the realities of life. The adolescents might have been promised a land but they themselves have to find a path and build their settlement in that land, discover their own selves, their potentials and also their limits, their role in the adult world and above all their identity. Eisenberg (1965) had said that adolescence is a distinct developmental stage, which is critical in terms of its impact on a changing society as well as the effect of it on the development of the individual.

From psychodynamic viewpoint, Erikson's work was the first to appreciate the psychosocial nature of identity with the important role played by the community in recognising, supporting and thus helping to shape the adolescents’ ego. A true developmental theorist, he distinguished the identity solutions of "introjections" during infancy and "identifications" in childhood from the process of "identity formation" during adolescence. Erikson said that it was only during adolescence that there were opportunities for identity resolution through a synthesis that incorporated and yet transcended all past identifications to give birth to a new identity, which was based upon yet qualitatively different from the previous identities.

As a part of life-span development approach Erikson proposed an eight stage theory of development that viewed the individual from birth
to death. These stages were characterised by certain physiological as well as developmental and personality accomplishment tasks.

In Erikson’s eight-stage psychosocial theory (1950, 1959, 1968) the nature of development throughout life was dynamic. Development involved the resolution of specific tools which occurred in an epigenetic fashion. According to him, there is not only an intricate balance of both positive and negative aspects of task resolutions but also each stage came about, because a new dimension of social interaction became possible with increasing psychological, physical and cognitive maturity. In the adolescence the task of identity consolidation demanded a reintegration of previous roles into a stable identity. Positive resolution of identity issues was related to positive resolutions in other psychosocial task areas (Archant and Smith, 1990).

Table 1.1 Psychosocial Stages of Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Erikson’s Psychosocial Stages</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Body and Psychosexual Accomplishment</th>
<th>Personality Accomplishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic trust/Mistrust</td>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>Oral-sensory</td>
<td>Trust development in other people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy/Shame, Doubt</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Anal-muscular</td>
<td>Feels mastery over physical functions and also people around the self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative/Guilt</td>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Genital-locomotor</td>
<td>Extra energy for doing things, sexual feels towards parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry/Inferiority</td>
<td>6-12</td>
<td>Latency</td>
<td>Learn skills in interaction within environment, especially in school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity/Role confusion</td>
<td>13-19</td>
<td>Puberty and adolescence</td>
<td>Requestioning of conflicts from the past, expansion of social and sexual interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimacy/Isolation</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>Young adult</td>
<td>Share feelings with another individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generativity/Self-absorption</td>
<td>31-55</td>
<td>Adulthood</td>
<td>Concern with growing family and work productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrity/Despair</td>
<td>56 onwards</td>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>Develop broad perspective of life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3 Identity in adolescence: (Eriksonian viewpoint)

The developments in domains of physical, intellectual, moral, emotional etc. areas are crucial in the adolescents' identity development. This has lasting effects not only on the individual but also on her/his interactions with others in future, both near and far. The convergence of developmental peaks guide the quest of selfhood in the stage of adolescence and the ability to think abstractly enables one to see the world differently, particularly ones place in it.

Erikson (1968) had recognised that there is in each individual an "I", an observing centre of awareness and violation of which can transcend and must survive the psychosocial identity. He conceptualised and defined identity in an interdisciplinary way, saying that biological endowment, personal organisation of experience and cultural milieu all conspire to give meaning, form and continuity to ones unique existence. He saw identity rooted both within the individual as well as within the communal culture (Erikson, 1970). Identity involved conflict and had its own developmental period during adolescence, when biological endowments and intellectual processes must eventually meet societal expectations for a suitable display of adult functioning. Thus, identity depended upon the past and determined the future; while rooted in childhood it served to form a base from which to meet later life tasks (Erikson, 1970). Erikson's (1950) theory of psychosocial development was a major framework for understanding adolescent development, where in identity formation, development and consolidation formed the crux. Erikson said that identity is primarily an unconscious process that unites personality and links the individual to the social world.

Identity is the stable, consistent and reliable sense of who one is and what one stands for in the world. It integrated one's meaning to oneself and one's meaning to others; it provided match between what one regarded as central to oneself and how one was viewed by significant others in one's life. Identity is also a way of preserving the continuity of the self, linking the past and the present. In states of
identity diffusion a person experiences a sense of not knowing who she or he is and feels at the mercy of parts of the self, impulses, memories and traits that do not add up or feel coherently connected to a core self. In its essence, identity becomes a means by which people organise and understand their experience and deeply share their meaning systems with others. At the same time contrasting us with others heightens our sense of what is uniquely individual. Often, we learn who we are by discovering our differences from others, by finding out how we may distinguish ourselves from those we feel most like. Identity, hence is a way of judging ourselves with respect to typology or a set of values that is meaningful to others with whom we identify ourselves.

The process of identity formation and modification takes place throughout the life cycle, beginning just after birth as we gradually become aware that we come to terms with the meaning, that self has expressed in the larger scheme of things. In psychodynamic terms, identity is neither a structure nor a content but a property of the ego that organises experiences. It is an amalgam of constitutional and idiosyncratic libidinal needs, psychological defenses against inner conflict, significant identifications with important others, interest and social roles. Natural talents, intelligence, social class, physical limitations, early deprivations and traumatic experience all render unique hue to the identity formation in an individual.

Erikson showed that although identity is formed through identification with others who come to have meaning to us, identity is greater than the sum of those part identifications. Identity formation is the work of transforming and assembling these identifications into a coherent whole with a center that holds. Here, "the self is gradually modified so that one day one may look back and realise that one has changed inexorably, that one is different from how one used to be and is still essentially the same" (Josselson, 1987). Identity, then is a dynamic fitting together of parts of the personality with the realities of the social world so that a person has a sense both of internal coherence and meaningful relatedness to the real world.
Different identity issues may be salient during early adolescence. Archer and Waterman (1983) reported that most early adolescents are engaged in no ego-identity activity or have to make non-reflective identity commitments. For Marcia (1983) confidence in parental support and sense of industry in early adolescence was a central variable predicting identity consolidation. In contrast, the more important identity issues in later adolescence as Margolis (1981) suggested were autonomy and separation issues which are crucial aspects of individuation during the first year of college. Identity during this period of adolescence involved the negotiations of old academic and social competencies.

However, the principal conflict of adolescence described by Erikson's theory (1968) involves the resolution of seven "part" conflicts. Each reflected one of the four primary conflicts of childhood or one of the three crises of adulthood and a concrete sense of identity, necessitates the successful resolution of all the other conflicts. Gallatin (1975) pointed out that in this manner the individual can come to terms with his/her past and also prepare oneself for the future. Therefore, what happens during adolescence is in many respects determined by what went before. Furthermore, adolescence appears to determine what will follow next too, because the identity crisis incorporates aspects of all the other nuclear conflicts. Hence, identity formation and consolidation comprised a complex set of relationships among the diverse states of the human development cycle (Rothman, 1978). Ego-identity is a complex role-image that summarises ones past, gives meaning to ones present and directs behavior in future (Adams and Gullota, 1983).

Cross-sectional studies involving the ego-identity interview were conducted by Meilman (1979) and Archer (1981). Greatest gain in identity formation occurred during the college years (Waterman, 1982). This is because the college environments provided a diversity of experiences that could serve both to trigger considerations of identity issues and to suggest alternative resolutions for identity concerns.
Longitudinal studies using the inventory of psychological development provided evidences of identity development during college years (Constantinopole, 1960). Feldman and Newcomb (1969) in their study observed that in most cases of change in the context of identity elements, they were accompanied by change in the identity status as well, thus reflecting psychological maturity of subjects. Three main longitudinal studies of Waterman and Goldman (1976), Waterman, Geary and Waterman (1974) and Waterman and Waterman (1971) were carried out on students of technological and liberal arts college. Each of these studies covered the areas of vocational and occupational choice, religious beliefs and political ideology. The result of these studies showed that—firstly, college facilitated identity development in the areas of vocational choices. There were significant increases in the frequency of students in the identity achievement status and decreases in the frequency of students in the moratorium status. In the liberal arts college, there was observed to be decrement in the frequency of the students in the identity diffusion status.

Secondly, with regard to religious beliefs, all the three colleges showed a significant decrease in the frequency for students in the foreclosure status. At the university there was an increase in the frequency of the students in the identity achievement status and at the technological school there was an increase in the frequency of identity diffusions.

Thirdly, it was observed in all the colleges that students demonstrated very little interest in political ideology. Infact, more than half of the participants completed college without having any clear belief in this area and not even attempting to make any commitments either. Besides the above studies, two other longitudinal studies have traced identity development from college years to adulthood. Whitborne and Waterman (1979) used the inventory of psychosocial development, conducted a follow-up with male and female college alumni ten years after they had completed as undergraduates. A significant increase was found for the Eriksonian 5th stage (identity vs.
identity diffusion) of psychosocial development. Marcia (1976) using the ego identity interview followed up on thirty men who had originally been interviewed six years earlier, while they were still in college. Leaving aside moratorium status, the results showed that the identity statuses were fairly stable. Individuals in the foreclosure and identity diffusion statuses were found to be more stable than those in the identity achievement status. Therefore, it showed that changes and consolidation of identity statuses took place in the adolescence which were further strengthened or improved upon in the adult year, but not changed. Though these studies emphasised the identity development in the college years yet recent works have shifted their focus towards high school realising that the last crucial years in the high school contributed more towards the identity development of the adolescents.

Social settings have also been a source of influence in shaping identity formation process. These provide institutionalised situations where individuals can identify with others and imitate roles. The processes of identification and imitation are used to varying degrees by individuals. For example, the identity status literature suggested that some individuals were less likely to explore “options” and more likely to identify and imitate others (Marica, Waterman, Matteson, Archer and Orlofsky, 1993). On the contrary, some other individuals experienced greater awareness of incongruities and distress and hence in turn, sought out information to arrive at a conclusion (Berzonsky, 1989).

The process of identity formation hence generated the faith that individuals experience incongruity and crisis and are able to determine some resolution within the self and with others. As stated by Erikson (1964,1968), Baumeister (1991, a,b) and Parks (1986) identity is an ongoing process which can be either assigned or selected based on the values of individuation, self-determination, social approval, belongings, social responsibility, equity and care for and about others (Adams and Marshall, 1996).
1.4 Marcia's identity status:

In order to determine the usefulness of Erikson's formulation of identity as means of diffracting the late adolescence experience, several researchers (Block, 1961, Gruen, 1960, Bronson, 1959) relied primarily on intrapsychic criteria to anchor the construct, but Marica (1964, 1966) devised a structured interview format which preserved the inherently psychosocial nature of identity formation. This paradigm evolved from Eriskson's view that identity is essentially a kind of contract, which the individual makes with society, commitments which are made following a psychological moratorium or crisis period.

Marcia (1964, 1966) provided validation for measures of overall ego-identity. His approach described four identity positions or styles, which individuals have a tendency to adopt to cope with the transition from adolescence to adulthood. These four identity "statuses" were based on the criteria of crisis and commitment in the areas of occupation and ideology (areas that were specified by Erikson as relevant for the adult role in the Western society). "Crisis" was used to refer to a period of struggle or active questioning in arising at a set of beliefs and a decision regarding occupational plans and belief systems (Rotham, 1978). It is an active selection among meaningful alternatives with questioning of formal choices and beliefs (Orlofsky, 1978). "Commitment" on the other hand referred to the degree of investment in the chosen or selected alternatives regarding occupational plans and belief systems.

The individual identified as having an "identity achievement" style is the one who had experienced crisis and emerged with stable occupational and ideological commitments. He/she has re-evaluated and restored his/her part beliefs and has resolved his/her freedom to act. "Identity diffusion" was identified by lack of commitment regardless of whether a crisis period had occurred or not. The individuals with identity diffusion were known to be undecided and unconcerned about an occupation and uninterested or
undiscriminating with respect to ideological matters. The other two statuses identified by Marica (1966) were “moratorium” and “foreclosure” which were intermediary between achievement and diffusion. Moratorium individuals—who are currently in a crisis period, had either vague or lacked commitments. These are the individuals who are actively struggling to make commitments and have not achieved a clear and satisfying self-definition. Individuals in the foreclosure status i.e. those who have not experienced any overt crisis but already possessed firm and specified, usually parental determined commitments.

These identity statuses were determined by means of a 20-30 minutes semi-structured interview and the inter-judge reliability and construct validity for the statuses had been established in several studies (Marica, 1966; Marica and Friedman, 1970). Early researches on identity statuses were based on small number of subjects only. Attempts have also been made to transpose findings on male identity to female subjects. Given the existing theoretical and empirical writings on female development which stressed the preeminence of interpersonal domain in women’s lives (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Coleman, 1961; Sanford, 1956; Deutsch, 1944), it was necessary that the identity status interviews reflect on interpersonal identity of women. Besides the male subjects had the adaptive status of identity achievement followed by moratorium. Subjects with identity achievement style were fairly stable and capable of establishing and pursuing realistic goals and also cope with sudden shifts in the environment. These subjects tended to have the highest grade point average amongst all the statuses (Cross and Allen, 1970). Achievements and moratoriums had higher overall ego identity (Marica, 1966), performed better on a concept attainment (Marica, 1967), were more reflective in their decision-making styles (Waterman and Waterman, 1974), had a higher level of moral judgement (Podd, 1969), had more internal locus of control (Waterman, Beubal and Waterman, 1970) and more capable of intimate engagement with peers (Orlofsky, Marcia,
Lesser, 1973) than the foreclosures or diffusions. Moratoriums reported the highest anxiety levels (consistent with their currently being in crisis) and were lowest in authoritarianism, foreclosures being the most authoritarian (Marcia, 1967, 1966).

1.5 Berzonsky's identity styles:

Process-oriented conceptualisations of identity statuses preferred (Berzonsky, 1988, 1986; Marica, 1988; Grotevant, 1987), specifically Berzonsky (1988, a) proposed that Marica's (1966) four outcomes status paradigm may reflect differences in the process by which personal decisions were made and the problems were solved. He highlighted three processing orientations namely (a) informative, (b) normative and (c) diffuse/avoidant. According to this view, self-exploring individuals categorised as identity achieved or in moratorium according to Marica's (1966) identity-status paradigm employed an "information-orientation", they actively sought-out, elaborated and utilised self-relevant information when making identity relevant decisions and solving personal problems. When these efforts produced dissonant feedback, information-oriented individuals needed to revise and accommodate relevant self-constructions (Berzonsky, 1970; Kelly, 1955). Individuals who were foreclosure (Marcia, 1966) criteria were hypothesised to use a "normative" orientation; their major concern being to conform to the prescriptions and expectations of significant others (e.g. parents) and reference groups. The orientation was expected to heighten efforts to conserve existing self-constructions. Normative individuals often tended to defend against and distort information and experiences that may have invalidated internalised prescriptions. Finally, individuals in Marica's (1966) identity diffusion status characteristically avoided dealing directly with personal problems and with basic identity questions. This diffuse, "avoidant" orientation included efforts to procrastinate and delay as long as possible.
Research on the identity statuses is consistent with the aforementioned descriptions. For example, a foreclosure has been found to be associated with authoritarianism, rigid belief systems and an intolerance of ambiguity (Berzonsky and Neimeyer, 1988; Schenkel and Marica, 1972; Marcia, 1966, 1967). Slugoski, Marica and Koopman (1984) found that self-exploring individuals, those in a state of moratorium and those who had achieved an identity, displayed significantly greater integrative complexity in social-cognitive reasoning than the individuals who were foreclosed and diffused. Subjects who were foreclosed and diffused had problem considering multiple and conflicting sources of information within a self-determined area and also found that foreclosed individuals were least able to analyse and integrate information from multiple perspectives and that both foreclosed and diffuse subjects excluded relevant information because of a restricted attentional focus. Subjects classified in the achievement and moratorium statuses processed more extensive amounts of information and were more self-confident about their judgments than those in the foreclosed and diffuse statuses (Read, Adams and Dobson, 1984). Studies on personal construct differentiation had indicated that increased cognitive complexity was associated with ongoing (moratorium) self-exploration (Berzonsky, 1989, b; Berzonsky and Neimeyer, 1988). Grotevant and Adams (1984) found that diffuseners were associated with a tendency to avoid coping directly with problems, a reliance on other-directed problem solving strategies (Brezonsky, Trudeau and Brennan, 1988; Grotevant and Adams, 1984) and the possession of fragmented self-theories (Berzonsky, Rice and Neimeyer, 1990).

The available research suggested that the statuses may utilise three different social-cognitive approaches to personal decision-making and problem solving. There orientations comprised the mechanisms by which self-relevant information and experiences were encoded, processed, organised and revised. The process differences were assumed to operate on at least three levels. The most basic components
were the specific "cognitive and behavioral responses" which individuals performed in their daily life. The intermediate levels of "social-cognitive strategies" were organised collections of these behavioral and cognitive units. The most general level of identity style referred to the strategy that an individual typically employs or would prefer to use when negotiating identity-relevant issues, (Berzonsky, 1989,a). Berzonsky (1988,a) suggested that while there may be developmental constraints on strategic competence, at least by late adolescence all three social cognitive strategies were normally available. Individual differences in strategy usage, therefore, would tend to be mainly motivational in nature reflecting stylistic preferences and/or environmental demands, incentives and consequences (Berzonsky, 1989, a). The process orientations were not conceptualised to be independent.

Research on identity styles revealed that self-reported use of a normative style was associated with identity foreclosure and with a tendency to be closed to novel information relevant to "core" areas of the self such as value and belief systems (Berzonsky, 1990; Berzonsky and Sullivan, 1992). Reported use of a diffuse/avoidant style had been found to be correlated positively with diffusion status scores, external control expectancies and debilitating anxiety reactions (Berzonsky, 1989, b) and negatively associated with introspectiveness and openness to personal feelings (Berzonsky, 1990). The relationships between an information oriented style and identity status has been found moderated by identity commitment. Hence, identity commitments may serve to restrict the use of an information orientation. Fullinwider (1991) found that information orientated identity style was associated with individuated family systems, facilitative anxiety reaction and an internal locus of control (Berzonsky, 1989,b) and a number of social cognitive dimensions, including a need for cognition, openness to ideas, a personal identity emphasis and introspectiveness (Berzonsky and Sullivan, 1992; Berzonsky, 1990).
1.6 Gender differences in identity:

Freud had explained male and female differences with the statement "biology is destiny". To explain the sex differences in identity, Marcia and Friedman (1970) hypothesised that there is a lack of social support for women going through identity crisis. While men were encouraged to go through an identity crisis and achieve greater personality differentiation and autonomy, women have been expected to find their identities through marriage and child rearing. The women who struggled to develop their own beliefs and lifestyles, not only faced uncertainty and conflict but also received much less acceptance and guidance than the women who foreclosed on parental values and adopted prescribed roles (Marcia and Friedman, 1970).

Female identity was considered different in quality from male identity. Where identity in men was metaphorically a straight line, wherein they could twist and turn but moved ever forward, identity in women was a series of concentric circles. They saw their future as a succession of stages in which each stage had a slightly different focus, but all gradually integrated into a whole that made sense. Their experience of who they are and where they are going was multifaceted, there were and would be many things, but not all at the same time. Their commitments were abstract rather than narrow, and had flexible expectations.

Identity in women centered for more on the kind of a person 'to be' than on occupational or ideological choices; where as in men identity was confirmed or denied by objective yardsticks such as degrees received or financial success. Identity substantiation in women was dependent on the responses of important others. In order to feel giving, the woman needed to find someone willing to receive, to feel lovable and have someone to love her. Women valued interpersonal competence for its own sake and getting along well with different kinds of people brings an autonomous sense of satisfaction.

Nurturance is the shared ideal for women. It comprises the core of both affiliate and achievement needs. When they speak of what is
important to them in their lives and careers—whatever they mention always revolves around means of helping other and working with others. Erikson (1968) suggested, with regard to identity development, that there are more important issues than occupation, religion and politics. Specially, he maintained that "womanhood arrives when attractiveness and experience have succeeded in selecting what is to be admitted to the welcome of the inner space". Males, on the other hand, were seen as projecting themselves into outer space, to become accomplished in the "conquest of geographic space and scientific fields or in the dissemination of ideas" (Erikson, 1968).

Erikson (1963) commented that much of woman's identity resides in the kind of man she wishes to be sought by, suggesting that it is the identity choice which precedes intimacy. However, these gender differences were apparently not significant enough for Erikson to alter his eight stage developmental progression. Few studies (Craig-Brag, Adams and Dobson, 1988; Josseslon, 1987; Fitcha and Adams, 1983) had reported that the females issues related to establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships formed the most salient factors that contributed to advance intimacy formation among adolescents. Infact, some researchers had suggested that because much of a woman's life depended on whom she marries, intimacy may precede identity in women. Josselson (1973) opined that identity and intimacy stages were merged in women.

Women who had achieved identities have often accomplished this via a relationship which supported their independence from their parents opened new possibilities for identifications or helped them to consolidate previous ego ideals. To the extent the relationship boosted her sense of identity, the women was more likely to feel greater commitment to it. The table below shows the differences that males and females have in identity status, as shown by several researchers.
Table 1.2  Summary of Empirical Results Regarding Identity Statuses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Males</th>
<th>Male Achievements:</th>
<th>Highest performance on concept performance (a)</th>
<th>Least vulnerable to self-esteem manipulation, reflecting cognitive style with high authority opponent (c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moratoriums:</td>
<td>Most anxious (b), least cooperation with high authority opponent (c)</td>
<td>Impulsive cognitive style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosures:</td>
<td>Most authoritarian (a), unrealistically high goals (a)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diffusions:</td>
<td>Most vulnerable to self-esteem manipulation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. Females</th>
<th>Female Achievements:</th>
<th>Most difficult college majors (e)</th>
<th>Low in self-recognition, high in identity achievement (c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreclosures:</td>
<td>Highest self-esteem (e), most authoritarian (e), lowest anxiety (e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moratoriums:</td>
<td>Least authoritarian (e), most cognitively complex (g), highest anxiety (h)</td>
<td>High in self-recognition (g), highest field dependent (n)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diffusions:</td>
<td>Highest anxiety (e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Marcia (1966), (b) Marcia (1967), (c) Podd et al (1970), (d) Waterman (1972), (e) Marcia and Friedman (1970), (f) Toder and Marcia (1971), (g) Josselson (1972) and (h) Schenkel (1973)

Male foreclosures were close to male diffusions and moratoriums, much like achievements, the female foreclosures were much like achieved and moratoriums similar to diffusions (Josselson, 1973). In marked contrast to the findings reported for males, the results of various studies suggested that foreclosures may be more adaptive status and moratorium a less adaptive one for women. On a number of variables such as: conformity, field dependence, locus of control, difficulty of college major and anxiety, foreclosure women performed more like identity achievement subjects while moratoriums performed like those in diffusion status (Howard, 1975; Toder and Marica, 1973; Schenkel, 1972; Marica and Friedman, 1970). In one study foreclosures were highest in self-esteem and in identity achievement women it was lowest (Marica and Friedman, 1970), though Schenkel and Marcia (1972) could not replicate this finding. Schenkel and Marcia (1972) found achieved and foreclosure status female to have the lowest anxiety scores and diffusion and moratorium status subjects the
The achieved-moratorium similarity was not seen for university males. Schenkel (1975) reported that achieved university female had the highest field independence scores while diffusion status females had the lowest. Toder and Marcia (1973) found achieved and foreclosure females confirming less than the moratorium and diffusion status females. The reversal of relative performance between moratorium and foreclosure status women was again seen. Alishio and Schilling (1984) in their study with thirty-one females and twenty-nine males as subjects observed that male personality processes consistently focussed on occupational issues while females focussed on interpersonal and sexual issues.

The result of these studies had led Marcia (1976) to argue that moratorium status had differing adaptive value for men and women. However, Waterman and Nevid (1977) found on occupation, the status distribution of females as almost identical to that of the males. Furthermore, on religion and politics the differences were of relatively small in magnitude.

Matteson (1977) also supported this finding in his study with Danish subjects. Imbimbo (1975) in his study on fifty-seven female and thirty-nine male college students (seventeen to twenty-five years of age) of divorced families also observed the same pattern and concluded that though no difference between males and females were found in the rating of overall identity status, significantly more females were in achieved identity, within the domains of occupation and attitude towards premarital sex. Raphael (1977) suggested that the differences that were observed in earlier studies were due to methodological problems involving selection of samples from different age groups.

In the Indian context, however the same cannot be said. As Kakkar (1978) in his book “The Inner World” has observed that in India a women’s identity is entirely guided by her relationship with others. He speculated that though surrounded by a strongly male-dominated society, yet girls often here derived their identity from their relations with other females within her family. In a study by Kumari, Singh and
Dubey (1990) on four hundred girls within the age range of ten to sixteen years in the rural India, found that the adolescent girls had very low self-image, which as they suggested was due to the social and cultural norms and taboos. Sharma and Anandlakshmy (1993) in a study on the identity of the adolescent girls from rural and urban background with different socio-economic-status (SES) found that girls from low and middle SES groups went mostly through this phase of adolescence without even experiencing a psychological crisis or striving towards autonomy. Identification with the sex-role and accepting of the socially ascribed roles formed the very base of the so-called "identity" development. However the picture was slightly better in case of the upper SES girls who managed to find some time and--the more pressed factor--opportunity to make attempt to make important decisions regarding her education and career. Sharma and Anandlakshmy's study further observed that girls between sixteen and nineteen years of age (that is in their late adolescence) emerged as "unassertive, responsible and compliant" with parental values and expectations internalised as their own. In comparison to a boy an Indian girl certainly has had much less freedom to develop her own thoughts and accomplish her own activities. Hence, a difference in their identity development with Erikson's model of adolescent development and Marcia's identity status, the Indian adolescent girls were mostly in the foreclosure status with never having had to face a crisis (Sharma and Anandlakshmy, 1993).

Furthermore, studies in the area of female adolescence have been very rare in India, thus, leaving very little scope to discuss whether they differ from the males or not.

A considerable amount of attention has also been directed towards identifying the role of family in the identity development. Of adolescents, Waterman (1982), Offer, Ostrov and Howard (1982); Oshman and Manosevitz (1976); Jessof and Jessor (1974); Jordan (1970) have found in their studies a positive relation between family and adolescents identity development. Emmerich (1978) in his study on
ninth and twelfth graders showed that the boys of the lower grade more often chose the parent-approved alternatives, than either ninth-grade girls or twelfth grade boys. The girl's responses were more or less stable in both the grades. Thus, these studies showed that family did play a significant role in the identity development and identity status of the adolescents.

Kamptner (1988) also found in his study that family relations did enhance identity development both directly as well as indirectly. He suggested that security in the familial relations provided the adolescents with the required support for meaningful exploration and experimentation and in the process enhanced the aspect of adolescents' sociability which ultimately enhanced the identity formation process.

1.7 Cognitive functioning

Adolescence, besides identity development and its consolidation is also marked by development and functioning in areas of cognition, affection etc. The manner in which an individual interprets the events around her/him, acts in relation to expectations of others, understands her/his insights and aspirations to others are all aspects of that individual's cognitive abilities.

Cognitive development theories, prominent among them being Piaget's theory, had brought insights to the gradual growth of cognition in the child through the passing years from birth till adolescence. In the Piagetian system, cognitive development has been seen as a simultaneous function of maturation of the neurological system, interaction with physical world and feedback from social experiences. Since the progression to the operational thought is continuous, its division into stages is also arbitrary. However, such stages help to distinguish the aspects of children's thinking from those of adolescents and adults. Although Piaget focused more on the sequence of developmental changes in intelligence than on age norms, he identified succession of relatively stable stages. Piaget discussed of four stages namely: the sensorimotor stage (from birth- until two/three years of
age), the pre-operational stage (from two-seven years of age), the concrete operational stage (from seven-eleven/twelve years of age) and the formal operational stage (from twelve years onwards—when full cognitive capacity has been attained). During the later stages (i.e. the concrete and formal operational stage) prominence of internalised operations increase, as a consequence a detailed subdivision, which was possible in the previous stages (sensorimotor and preoperational) are not possible. While, in infancy and childhood it was easy to make distinctions between the co-ordination of internal thoughts and external actions, during adolescence, because of increase in internalised operations such distinctions became difficult and almost impossible (Grinder, 1973).

In the formal operational stage, the adolescent was observed to move away from figurative content. The focus then shifted from real known objects to the logically possible wherein the real was recognised as one among many possibilities. The adolescent was no more bound by the immediate reality; rather she/he could follow the form of argument (irrespective of its content), could consider different hypotheses and also contemplate on what would be the consequences if the hypotheses were to become true. Therefore, through this, one can understand the level of adolescents’ cognitive functioning.

**Cognitive Planning**

In recent years planning has become an important construct in understanding the cognitive process. The “Planning, Attention, Simultaneous, Successive” model (PASS) has been able to bring out the importance of planning in cognition. Binet (1909) had said that comprehension, playfulness, invention and judgement are the four words in which lies the essence of intelligence. Hence development of the ability to plan is very important. Wittgenstein (1953) noted that there were so many definitions of “game” that it is difficult to describe what they all have in common. Same also held true for planning. Cognitive scientists have described problem-solving heuristic as
“planning” (Newell and Simon, 1972). Plans and planning have been described as onset of complex conceptual abilities that reflect knowledge, the ability to represent with flexibility and abstract manner, the ability to recognise and/or set goals, strategic skill and skills in monitoring, evaluating and repairing strategies. Five different aspects of planning skills have been the focus of development analyses of planning representation, self-control, strategies, orchestration skills and metacognition.

**Definition of Planning:**

Planning consists of programming, regulation and verification of behaviour (Luria, 1966). Planning is a set of decisions or strategies an individual adopts and modifies to solve a problem and to reach a goal (Das, 1980). Planning refers to a process involved in no routine selection of programs for action, labeled as a supervisory attentional system (Shallice, 1982). These definitions neglected the directive and evaluative role of planning. Planning directs behaviour resisting distractions and overcoming discontinuities. It is characterised by purpose. It is self-generated and occurs in advance of action. It regulates behaviour, probably by using inner speech. However, planning may not always be accessible to introspection, as in the case of perceptual tasks that involve planning. Even in tasks involving higher mental functions requiring judgment and decision-making during a problem-solving situation, an individual may not be able to describe the strategies she/he used for solution (Broadbent, Fitzgerald and Broadbent, 1986).

Early in life a child acquired standards through abstraction of norms, recognition of the deviation from norms and empathy with other. Later on, this process became more complex because the individual’s need for cognitive consistency among beliefs, actions and the perceived demands of reality. Human beings solve problems on the basis for judgements that guide search to the most relevant and promising aspects of the problem space. Newell, Shaw and Simon
(1959) suggested two ubiquitous and powerful heuristic methods, namely means-and-end analysis and planning method. Planning method, allowed the problem solver to construct a solution in general terms, before working out the details. It, thus, indicated that Newell and his associates viewed planning as a problem-solving technique that was used to guide action when the original problem was too difficult. Miller, Galanter and Pribram (1960) defined plan as “any hierarchical process in the organism that can control the order in which a sequence of operations is to be performed”. A plan could involve anything from a rough sketch of a course of action to a detailed specification of each operation. They proposed that most plans were learned either through imitation or through verbal instruction from another person. New plans that were not learned were based either on old plans or “metaplans” and “heuristic plans”. Images and plans are reciprocally related in several ways. A plan can be learned and stored as an image or as a part of it. The accumulated knowledge stored in images was incorporated into plans to provide a basis for guiding behavior; images could therefore form a part of plan. Changes in an image were brought about only by executing plans for gathering, storing or transforming information.

Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth (1979) proposed an “opportunistic model of planning”. They defined planning as the “predetermination of a course of action aimed at achieving some goal and like Newell viewed planning as a part of the problem-solving process. For Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth, planning represented the first stage of a two stage problem-solving process. Control being the second state, consisted of monitoring and guiding the execution of the plans to a successful conclusion” (Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth, 1979). Scholnick and Friedman (1987) suggested that the planning process included such functions as (a) framing a representation of the problem, (b) choosing a goal; (c) deciding to plan, (d) formulating a plan, (e) executing and monitoring the plan, and (f) learning from the plan.

24
In recent years a comprehensive model of cognitive processing has been advanced with planning as a central concept (Das, 1993, 1984a,b, 1980; Naglieri and Das, 1990; Das and Heemsbergen, 1983). The planning, attention-arousal, simultaneous and successive (PASS) cognitive processing model is described as a modern theory of ability that is based on Luria's (1966,1970,1973a,1980) analyses. Luria described human cognitive processes within a framework of three functional units. The function of the first unit was the regulation of cortical arousal and attention, the second unit coded information using simultaneous and successive processes and the third unit provided for planning, self-monitoring and structuring of cognitive activities. The first functional unit of the brain is responsible for the appropriate level of arousal or cortical tone and "directive and selective attention" (Luria, 1973, a). The second unit for the reception, coding and storage of information arising from the external and partial internal environment through sensory receptors. The third functional unit of the brain located in the prefrontal areas of the frontal lobe where planning processes take place, provide for the programming, regulation and verification of behaviors and are responsible for behaviors such as asking questions, solving problems and self-monitoring (Luria, 1973,a).

Luria (1975) suggested that the first step in the development of planning is the emergence of self-control, the tool of which is parental directives, which organise the child's actions and slows them down. During the process of incorporation, the child becomes able to use the content directives of his/her parents as means of thinking through problems and solving them. Thus, the child moves from being self-controlled to planful. Luria suggested this change being due to two reasons, namely; socialisation where the parents and significant others provide the contents of the plan and the individual learns to be planful, and; secondly due to acquisition of language. Vygotsky (1962) had also stressed the crucial role of language in planning, emphasising that language is used to represent a problem, a goal and the potential means of attaining it. Vygotsky also suggested that parents not only
provide the tools for but also provide information about where planning is appropriate. They are, in fact, the source of strategy and metacognitive information of the use of various planning strategies. Not only parents but also peers influence the kind of plans that an individual learns. Cocking and Copple (1987) noted that children often are influenced by each other’s plans. Goodnow (1987) observed that when plans involve people and their activities, which most often are, since our plans involve various social and day-to-day activities that has other people in them, one has to keep an eye on the social rules and regulations that “underlie the right and proper ways to treat people”.

Training forms a crucial factor in improving the planing strategy of individuals. Studies conducted by the Berkley Staff, Cox and Swain (1981) and Cox, Swain and Hartsough (1982) have proved that training of students in choosing the right strategies for solving various kinds of problems does have its own effect on the performance, particularly in making decisions and solving problems. For instance, in the study conducted by the Berkeley Staff, it was found that trained students were better able to trace the best strategic course of action, starting from problem presentation to its solution in comparison to the controlled subjects (Covington, 1987).

Most of the models of planning have assumed that planning is dependent on a subset of cognitive abilities that change with development and that environmental factors may interact with development cognitive process to produce changes in these abilities that are involved in the children’s planning. Researches have established that relationships do exist between parent child-rearing practices and various aspects of children’s cognitive development.

Vygotsky (1978) had conceptualised that the source of child’s planning functions are within the social interactions with other people, especially parents, who are more competent than the child. Therefore, the speech and communication skill between parent and child gathers much importance in the learning of planning strategies for the children. (McGillicuddy DeLisi, DeLisi and Flaugher, 1987) in a study showed
that even with a speech problem a child can learn various planning strategies as well as a normal child, if the parents can communicate in the right way to the child. Also parental beliefs about the development of planning ability in their children have a relation with the actual development in the child (McGillicuddy DeLisi, 1984). Goodnow (1984) and other researchers have also proved through their studies that parents’ life-experiences and other socio-cultural factors revealed to relate with the development of planning in children. In a study by Klaczynski and Reese (1991) they tried to find out whether the social context leads to differences among individuals in their “action orientations”-individual’s values, control beliefs, goal orientation and most importantly the decision-making perspective. They observed that the planning strategies of college preparatory students are different from the sophomores and high school students. While the college preparatory students had a “career preparation” orientation the vocational students had an “adult preparation” orientation. Therefore, the developmental tasks which the students were facing (i.e. the context) does influence their “action-orientation”. In a further study Klaczynski (1994) supported the earlier finding-that individuals develop their problem solving strategies to meet the demands of the changing social contexts of the life course.

Hence, planning, though cognitive in nature, has social aspects in it and the same factors such as age, socioeconomic status, parents and significant others (including peers) which influence the identity formation and consolidation in the adolescents may to some extent influence their selection and consolidation of the planning strategies they adopt.

The PASS model of cognitive processes is described schematically in the following page:

As shown in this figure, planning process is closely connected to attention on the one hand and to simultaneous and successive planning on the other. Planning processes are needed to assess an individual’s informational skills in making decisions about how to solve
a problem; execute an approach etc. Planning processes are also involved when a person is asked to decide how to perform a test. For instance, writing a composition involves generation of a plan, organisation and when it is presented, examination of the preliminary product and modification of the plan so that the final result is consistent with what the goal is. Planning processes, according to Das and his associates allow the person to guide the course of activity and to utilise attentional, simultaneous and successive processes, as well as the base of knowledge, in order to achieve the goal.

Das, Kar and Parrila (1996) defined planning within the PASS model's framework as a functional unit. They stated that "planning is an intra-psychological process that is mediated by some symbolic or sign system". Planning is believed to be a self-organising, reflective process that requires motivation and metacognition to a great extent. Human planning is mostly verbally mediated, since, the most powerful symbolic system amongst human being is language. When individuals get engaged in planning, they form a mental representation of the situation and actions with the help of words prior to actually doing something.

Planning, a mediational process is "uniquely human" and is categorised as "higher cognitive function" (Vygotsky, 1986). Higher cognitive functions are derivates of inter-psychological processes that a child participates in during her/his development. Planning has a social origin, because we learn most of our plans from other more capable planners. Furthermore, the decision to plan in certain situations and not in others may already be socially determined and individual differences in engaging in planning may reflect social norms and accumulated knowledge about the appropriateness of planning within that given context (Goodnow, 1987).

Leontjev (1978, 1979) suggested three levels of planning, namely activity planning, action planning and operation planning. Das et.al (1996) were of the view that a good way to conceptualise planning and its relation to such concepts as problem solving and strategies, was to
Figure 1.1 The PASS Model of Cognitive Processes

INPUT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Concurrent</th>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Concurrent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

KNOWLEDGE BASE

FIRST FUNCTIONAL UNIT

AROUSAL ATTENTION

ME | CON | PER | ME | CON | PER
| MON | CEP | TUA | ORY | CEP | TUA

BRAIN STEM

SECOND FUNCTIONAL UNIT

OCCIPITAL, PARITAL AND TEMPORAL POSTERIOR

MEMORY

CONCEPTUAL | PERCEPTUAL

SIMULTANEOUS AND SUCCESSIVE

THIRD FUNCTIONAL UNIT

PLANNING

ME | CON | PER
| MON | CEP | TUA

FRONTAL

29
consider how planning relates to these three levels of analysis. At the level of activity, planning is conceptualised as a method of realising or aiming towards one's general life goals and motives, such as self-fulfillment, education, career development etc. thus, meaning that activity planning is future oriented. Action planning, the second level of analysis, is equivalent to problem solving. While activity planning can be best understood as movement towards realising one's general life goals, action planning aims at achieving a particular goal or solving a particular problem. It involves forming a mental representation of the problem, the constraints of planning, both external and internal, the goal and the course of action to be taken. It can also be an opportunistic process, or “planning-in-action”. However, the main feature of action planning is that it emerges as a response to a given situation or stimuli and is therefore oriented towards the present as well as the future.

The operation planning is equivalent to strategies and tactics and consists of working towards the solution of a problem in accordance with the purpose of meeting the environmental conditions. The main feature of this level of planning is that it satisfies the specific conditions that are associated with a specific task and hence oriented towards the present. Operation planning involves forming a representation of the task and condition, choosing the possible operations to be undertaken and then executing these steps towards the fulfillment of already present goal. Hence, planning and plan are generic terms that can refer to any of the three levels of analysis, where as problem solving refers to the action or operation level of analysis.

In the context of the PASS theory planning, like the two information coding processes and attention, can be measured by tests that are perceptual, minestic (memory) or conceptual. Visual search involves the perceptual level and matching numbers is a composition of both perceptual and memory abilities, while crack-the-code and planned composition are the two planning tasks that involve conceptual planning.
Newcomer and Barenbaum (1991) have proved in their study that poor writers do have planning and organisational difficulties. Ashman and Das (1980) also have shown that lack of planning in compositions can be related to deficiencies in simple planning tasks. A study on eighth grade Canadian school children (both girls and boys) Mishra (1992) showed that good writers performed significantly better than poor writers on all the three planning tasks. Good writers were also significantly better than poor writers on all planned composition variables of expression, organisation, wording, mechanics and individuality. Therefore, good writers are not only better than poor writers on cognitive tests of planning but also in their use of planning and organisational skills in writing.

Because planning plays such an important role in the modern society, it can be assumed that essential components of planning are learned in the process of socialisation. When children grow older, they learn to plan more and more effectively and also to internalise the essential components of planning. In order to understand the development of planning it may be useful to find out which features of the environment are recognised and internalised at each developmental stage.

Thus, planning is an important variable of cognitive functioning and observing it in adolescents is a challenge which can help to bring about a better understanding of not only how the adolescents plan but also on their cognitive functioning. Another equally crucial and a time tested variable of understanding cognitive functioning is the academic performance. Through the years researches have taken academic achievement and academic performance as a criterion of observing the influence of different social and affective variables and often it has been taken as the manifestation of the individual’s intellectual/cognitive ability. Academic performance was defined by Carter (1953) as “the knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, usually determined by the test scores or/and by marks assigned by teachers”. In the present study too, academic performance was taken to
understand the adolescents' cognitive functioning in relation to the
skills developed for performing in the school subjects.

Thus, cognitive planning and academic performance was taken
as the domains of cognitive functioning in the present study and was
assumed to give a good understanding of the adolescents' functioning
in this area. While the former focused on the internal processing of the
cognitive functioning the later was a manifestation of that process.

1.8 Affective Functioning

The affective functioning aimed to understand the adolescents'
feeling component, i.e. how they felt about themselves, their life and
their moods. Affection in general relates to emotions or feelings of an
individual. During adolescence, when the individual is going through
rapid changes in their physique, cognitive ability, personality, etc. the
emotional or affective component tends to become very fragile. It is
because of this that often we observe the adolescents to have extreme
mood swings, outbursts of anger and love, confusions in knowing their
self-worth etc. It is also probably because of this fragile condition of the
affective state that the depression, anxiety disorders, eating disorders,
manic depressive illness and other mental health problems are
commonly observed among the adolescents. However, it is to be noted
that lack of understanding of what the adolescents are going through
by their significant others (parents, teachers, peers, siblings etc.) make
them more prone to succumb to such severe mental health problems.
Hence, an adequate understanding of their affective functioning can
but only is a positive step towards understanding the adolescents. In
the present study the affective functioning of adolescents were gauged
with the help of such factors as self-esteem, life satisfaction and
positive and negative affect.

A diverse array of classic and contemporarily psychological
theories has converged to believe that people have a strong and
persistent need for self-esteem (Steele, 1988; Tesser and Cambell,
1983; Synder, Stephan and Rosenberg, 1976; Becker, 1962; Allport,
1961, etc.). From William James' 'Principles of Psychology' to the recent times, a multitude of conceptual analyses and empirical studies have existed which attempted to understand self-esteem and relate it to explain various forms of behaviour. This is because self-esteem has been touted as the antidote of poverty, drug use and underachievement and lauded as the royal road to financial success, health and personal fulfillment. Theorists have attempted to define self-esteem that have ranged from 'emphasis on primitive libidinal impulses' (Kernberg, 1975), 'feeling of existential security in a meaningful universe (Soloman, Greenberg and Pyszczynski, 1991), 'feeling of affection for oneself, no different than the feelings of affection one has for others' (Brown and Dutton, 1995) etc.

Historically, the initial assumption regarding self-esteem was that there is an actual self which is globally evaluated. However, Higgins (1996) contemplated to suggest that there are three distinct actual selves and based on these there probably could be three distinct conceptualisations of self-esteem. These are (a) a global appraisal of instrumental functioning based on representations of actual-self attributes leading to positive or negative consequences—"instrumental self-esteem", (b) a global appraisal of expectancies for the self based on positive and negative dispositions in relation to various activities—"expectant self-esteem", (c) a global evaluation of current state based on its congruent or discrepant relation to some desired end-state—"monitored self-esteem".

Self-esteem has often been described as an attitude, specially an attitude towards oneself (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965). Like all attitudes, self-esteem also has cognitive and affective components. A difference can be made between the self-concept (i.e. beliefs about the self) and self-esteem (i.e. evaluation of the self in the light of those beliefs). Although self-esteem is often based on self-relevant cognitions, yet not all cognitions about the self are relevant to the individual's self-esteem. Each individual has many self-beliefs. There may be believes that the individual is extremely good/bad at a certain task, but that
may have no corresponding increase/decrease in her/his self-esteem. Marsh’s (1986) study showed that though specific self-views/belief and self-esteem are strongly related yet they are not equal. This is probably because self-esteem is often shaped by the manner in which the individuals frame their specific self-beliefs.

Brown (1993) persuasively argued that self-esteem is fundamentally based in affective processes, specifically positive and negative feelings about oneself. He was of the view that people do not just think about favourable/unfavorable self-relevant thoughts, they ‘feel’ good/bad about themselves. Furthermore, there is a fierce desire to ‘feel’ good rather than ‘feel’ bad about oneself.

As for the underlying motive that demands the need for self-esteem many explanations have been provided. The most widely acknowledged explanation is that high self-esteem promotes positive affect by buffering the individual against stress and other negative emotions and also by enhancing personal adjustment. On the other hand, low self-esteem has been associated with depression, anxiety and maladjustment. Research findings have rendered support that people with low self-esteem experience negative emotions more frequently than those with high self-esteem (Taylor and Brown, 1988; Leary, 1983; Cutrona, 1982). Besides high self-esteem appeared to buffer people against feelings of anxiety, enhance their coping ability and also promote physical health (Baumeister, 1993; Greenberg, Soloman, Pyszczynski, Rosenblatt, Burling, Lyon, Simons, and Pinel, 1992; Taylor and Brown, 1988).

A social explanation for the self-esteem motive has emphasised the role of high self-esteem in goal achievement. This motive has developed probably because high self-esteem enhanced an individuals’ willingness to strive towards desired goals and to persist in the face of obstacles and setbacks (Kernis, 1995; Greenwald, 1980; Bandura, 1977). Tedeschi and Norman (1985) suggested that individuals seek self-esteem because it is associated with feelings of control over one’s environment.
A third set of explanation suggested that the motive for seeking self-esteem was for its own sake. Steele (1988), Epstein (1973) and many other writers have assumed the existence of a self-system which maintains a sense of integrity or adequacy. However, this explanation failed to answer many questions, for example, why certain events pose threats to self-integrity and others do not? Why the motives to behave in ways that will enhance the self-esteem exist at all? etc.

Research in self-esteem have ranged from finding the cause behind the need for self-esteem in individual the relation between self-concept, identity, self-evaluation and self-esteem, role of family, peers, school and society in self-esteem, difference in self-esteem of females and males and self-esteem with relation to one’s group identity. Irrespective of the human behaviour to which self-esteem was related it has been persistent found that self-esteem is a crucial aspect of human affection, particularly among the adolescents.

Another domain which has gradually found importance as a criterion of subjective-well-being in individuals and one’s affective research interests have focused on the psychological mechanism and correlates of happiness (i.e. subjective-well-being) within specific groups and at the individual level (Diener, 2000; Lu and Shih, 1997; Argyle, 1987 etc.). There has been particular interest in how people experience their lives in positive ways (DeNeve and Cooper, 1998). All these researches have revealed a number of consistent findings. Amongst them one is that subjective well-being is composed of two separate but related components, namely-affect (i.e. positive and negative emotions) and life satisfaction (Headey and Wearing, 1992; Argyle, Martin and Crossland, 1989). Life satisfaction in very general terms can be defined as the individuals’ cognitive appraisal of their overall quality of life.

Shin and Johnson (1978) defined life satisfaction as person’s overall evaluation of their quality of life based upon self-selected standards. Huebner (1991) referred to life satisfaction as a general evaluation of a persons’ life that is over and above judgments about the
specific domains in one's life (e.g. family, friends, community, self). Numerous studies have investigated the correlates of well-being, wherein life satisfaction was a major variable, amongst adults. Diener (1984) and other researchers found that demographic variables (gender, education, income) had very modest contributions to the adults' general well-being. This made investigators look for internal personality characteristics and found that these had accounted for greater proportions of variance than the previously chosen demographic variables. Emmons and Diener (1985, b) in their study found that individuals who were satisfied with their lives were high in self-esteem, extraversion and internal locus of control. They also had low anxiety and lesser tendency to criticise others.

Although the majority of life satisfaction research has been around the adult samples, research has recently begun assessing the construct among adolescents as well (Gilman, Huebner and Laughlin, 2000; Gullone and Cummins, 1999; Wilkinson and Walford, 1998; Cummins, 1997). This has been because very little is known of how students at the level of adolescence view their overall quality of life (Gilman et.al. 2000; Bender 1977). Such research is also meaningful considering that the presence of relevant harmful behaviour (like drug use, youth violence, etc. Dryfoos, 1990) and negative stressors such as peer conflicts, independence from parents, future educational/career/vocational options etc. (Weissberg, Barton and Shriver, 1997) may contribute to substantial declines in perceived quality of life for many adolescents (Arnett, 1999; Danish, 1998; Collins, 1991).

Research evidences have suggested that a number of positive and negative outcomes are associated with child/adolescent satisfaction reports. Dissatisfaction with life has been linked to a variety of social-emotional difficulties including depression (Lewinson, Redner and Seely, 1991), anxiety (Huebner and Alderman, 1993), negative peer interactions (Valois, Zulling, Huebner, and Drane, 2001). On other hand, high life satisfaction have been observed to be associated with a variety of positive outcomes like, self-esteem (Harter, 1999), self-
concept (Gilman and Huebner, 1997, Terry and Huebner, 1995), self mastery (Rosenfield, 1992). Furthermore, school going adolescents who reported higher overall life satisfaction also reported less dissatisfaction with their school performance (Gilman et.al. 2002), higher satisfaction with their family life (Dew and Huebner, 1994) as well as with their friends (Greenspoon and Saklofske, 2001) in comparison to adolescences who experienced lower overall life satisfaction.

Thus, assessing the adolescents' life satisfaction across a variety of domains could help researchers to design strategies. These will help in understanding the causes underlying their satisfaction or dissatisfaction and promote better well-being for the adolescents, particularly for those who remain dissatisfied with their lives.

Another important dimension in understanding an individual's affective functioning is their mood. Feelings permeate peoples' daily lives and how an individual reacts to a situation, takes a decision or solve a problem may depend largely on her/his present state of mood or affect. Often we have heard “I am in a terrible mood, just do not talk to me now”, or “I'm feeling great, if someone asks me to give my best possession I won't think twice before giving it away.” These statements reflect the two extremes of mood-former being negative while the later was positive. Many researchers have proved it convincingly that even moderate amount of fluctuations in positive feelings systematically affected cognitive processing. For example, while positive affect improved creative problem solving (Estrada, Young and Isen, 1994; Greene and Noice, 1988; Isen, Daubman and Nowicki, 1987 etc.), facilitated recall of neutral and positive items (Isen, Shalker, Clark and Karp, 1978; Nasby and Yando, 1982), and was also found that it systematically changed strategies used in decision making tasks (Estrada, Isen and Young, 1997; Rosenzweig and Young, 1991; Isen, Nygren and Ashby, 1988; Isen and Geva, 1987).

Two dominant dimensions have consistently emerged from the studies of affective structure, across all cultures (Watson, Clark and Tellegen, 1988)-these are the positive affect and negative affect. Positive
affect reflected the extent to which “a person feels enthusiastic, active and alert” and negative affect “is a general dimensions of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement” (Watson et al. 1988). High positive affect is characterised by high energy, full concentration and pleasurable engagement while low positive affect is characterised by sadness and lethargy. On the other hand, a high negative affect connotes aversive mood states like anger, contempt, disgust, fear, nervousness, guilt etc. and a low negative affect reflect a state of calmness and serenity. Tellegen (1985) linked positive affect and negative affect to psychological and psychodynamic constructs. He also suggested that low positive affect and high negative affect were major contributors of depression and anxiety.

Research findings have indicated that the two mood factors related to different variables. Negative affect (and not positive affect) was found to be related to self-reported stress and poor coping (Clark and Watson, 1986; Wills, 1986; Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer and Lazarus, 1981), health complaints (Watson and Pannebaker, 1989; Tessler and Mechanic, 1978) and frequency of unpleasant events (Warr, Barter and Brownbridge, 1983; Stone, 1981). In contrast, positive affect (and not negative affect) has been found to relate to social activity, satisfaction and to the frequency of pleasant events (Watson, 1988; Clark and Watson, 1988; 1986; Beiser, 1974).

The present study thus makes an attempt to study the positive and negative affective states of adolescents along with their life satisfaction and self-esteem, under the umbrella of affective functioning.

1.9 **Significance of the study**

Adolescents make up to be one of the largest populations of any society and also the most fragile and demanding ones. They are the ones in whom future of a society depends upon. Yet it is this very age group which had been thought to be the same as childhood till a few decades back, as can be seen in the historical perspective.
Understanding the developmental process of adolescence helps the individuals going through this phase as well as the significant others who happen to be in near proximity of an adolescent and are often in a position to influence the adolescent(s). The present study attempts to understand the identity processing i.e. the style preferred to utilise when solving identity relevant issues, of adolescents (females and males) in the Indian urban school context, where the adolescents are found to attend mainly three types of schools. It also attempts to understand the relation between this processing style and the adolescents cognitive and affective functioning. An effort is also made to explore the extent to which identity style can predict adolescents' cognitive and affective functioning. This study makes use of constructs which have been measured and related with identity status and style (self-esteem, academic performance) as well as with recent constructs such as cognitive planning, life satisfaction and positive and negative affect. Therefore, the study will help to know identity style's relation with variables that manifest both cognitive and affective functioning of the adolescents, using constructs that have been tested over time as well as new ones, particularly, in the India scenario. Lastly, but not the least, this study also will bring out the variations in identity style, cognitive and affective functioning across the three different types of school attended by the adolescents, two grades and gender. Hence attempt has been made to bring out a holistic understanding of the urban school going adolescents in India.
Figure 1.2 Conceptual Framework of the Study

School Type
- Municipality run government school.
- Kendriya Vidyalas
- Public School

Gender
- Female
- Male

Grade
- Ninth
- Eleventh

Identity Styles
- Informative identity style
- Normative identity style
- Avoidant/Diffuse Identity style
- Commitment

Cognitive Functioning
- Cognitive Planning
- Academic Performance

Affective Functioning
- Self-esteem
- Life satisfaction
- Positive affect negative affect