CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION
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ADOLESCENCE

Adolescence is the most important period of human life. Poets have described it as the spring of the life of human being and an important era in the total life span. The term adolescence comes from Latin word ‘adolescere’, which means “to grow” or “to grow to maturity”. Among primitive people and in earlier civilizations, puberty and adolescence coincided. The child was considered as an adult when he was capable of reproduction. As the term “adolescence” is used today, it has a broader meaning. It includes mental, social and emotional maturity as well as physical maturity. Piaget (1969) asserts that psychologically, adolescence is the age when the individual becomes integrated into the society of adults, the age when the child no longer feels that he is below the level of his elders but equal, at least in rights. It also includes very profound intellectual changes. These intellectual transformations typical of the adolescent’s thinking enable him not only to achieve his integration into the social relationship of adults which is in fact the most general characteristic of this period of development.

Adolescence is a period of transition when an individual changes physically and psychologically from a child to an adult. Sorenson (1962) has characterized it as the stage which is much more than one rung up the ladder from childhood. According to Sorenson (1962) it is a built-in necessary transition period for ego development. Hechinger (1963) emphasized that adolescence is a time when the individual is expected to prepare for adulthood by replacing childish attitudes and behaviour patterns with those of an adult type. Carmichael (1968) defined adolescence as that time of life when an immature individual in his teens approaches the culmination of his physical and mental growth. Physiologically an individual becomes an
adolescent with the advent of puberty and the ability to reproduce his kind. Chronologically puberty generally occurs in girls between the twelfth and the fifteenth years with a range of about 2 years on either sides of the figures. For boys puberty tends to occur from 1 to 2 years later than it does for girls.

Eysenck (1972) defines adolescence as the post-puberal period in which individual self responsibility is established. Similarly, Jersild (1963) defines adolescence as a period through which a growing person makes transition from childhood to maturity.

**THE ADOLESCENT YEAR**: Until recently, adolescence was regarded as a period in the life span which begins when the individual becomes sexually mature and ends when he reaches legal maturity at twenty one years of age in our culture. Recent studies of the changes in behaviour throughout adolescence have revealed not only that these changes are more rapid in the early than in the later part of adolescence, but also that the behaviour and attitudes of the individual in the early part of the period are markedly different from those in the later part of the period. As a result, it has become a widespread practice to divide adolescence into two periods - early and late adolescence.

Early adolescence begins when the individual becomes sexually mature. For the average girl, early adolescence begins at thirteen years and for boys approximately a year later. The dividing line between early and late adolescence is placed around seventeen years.

Although older adolescents are strictly speaking "teenagers" until they reach twenty years of age, the label teenager which has become popularly associated with the characteristic pattern of behaviour of young adolescents, is rarely applied to older adolescents. Instead, they are usually referred to "young men" and "young women"
or even "youths" - indicating that society recognizes a maturity of behaviour not found during the early years of adolescence (Majeres, 1976).

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENCE: As is true of every important period during the life span adolescence has also certain characteristics that distinguish it from the period that preceded it and the periods that will follow it. Hurlock (1966) has described following characteristics of adolescence.

(i) Adolescence Is An Important Period: Adolescence is one of the periods when both the immediate effects and long-term effects are important in view of its physical and psychological effects (Tanner, 1971). These give rise to the need for mental adjustments and the necessity for establishing new attitudes, values and interests.

In comparison to childhood, special change is observed in adolescence. This speciality is generally due to sexual maturity. Also adolescence is very special and important age in reference to other developmental stages. For this reason adolescence is called the "Golden age".

(ii) Adolescence Is Transitional Period: Transition does not mean a break with or a change from what has gone before but rather a passage form one stage of development to another. This means that what has happened before will leave its mark on what happens now and in the future. Osterrieth (1969) has explained that the psychic structure of the adolescent has its roots in childhood and many of its characteristics that are generally considered as typical of adolescence appear and are already present during late childhood.

During any transitional period, the status is vague and there is confusion about the roles the individual is expected to play. The adolescent at this time, is nei-
ther a child nor an adult. The ambiguous status of today's adolescents is advantageous in that it gives them time to try out different life styles and decide what patterns of behaviour, values and attitudes meet their needs best (Gunter and Moore, 1975).

(iii) Adolescence Is A Period Of Change: The rate of change in attitudes and behaviour during adolescence parallels the rate of physical change. During early adolescence when physical changes are rapid, changes in attitudes and behaviour are also rapid. As physical changes slow down, do attitudinal and behavioural changes.

Ausubel (1955) points out that adolescence in our culture can be described as a time of transition in the bio-social status of the individual. It is a period during which marked changes occur in duties, responsibilities, privileges and relationship with others under such conditions, changed attitudes towards self, parents, peers and others become inevitable.

There are five almost universal concomitants of the changes that occur during adolescence. The first is heightened emotionality, the intensity of which depends on the rate at which the physical and psychological changes are taking place. Heightened emotionality is generally more pronounced in early than in late adolescence.

Second, the rapid changes that accompany sexual maturing make young adolescents unsure of themselves of their capacities and of their interests.

Third, changes in their bodies, their interests and in the roles the social group expects them to play, create a new problem.

Fourth, as interests and behaviour patterns change so do values.

Fifth, most adolescents are ambivalent about changes. While they want
and demand independence, they often dread the responsibilities that go with independence and question their abilities to cope with these responsibilities.

(iv) The Young Adolescent's Status Is Ambiguous: The young adolescent's status in our modern society is vague and confused. The adolescent at this time is neither a child nor an adult. If adolescents behave like children they are told to "act their age", if they try to act like adults they are often accused of being "too big for their britches" and are reproved for their attempts to act like adults. This ambiguous status presents a dilemma for the teenager. Duvall (1965) asserts that the teen years represent a fundamental dilemma of life to grow and mature, or to stay and be secure. The young person takes two steps ahead and one back through the teen years. This is a decade of dilemmas for parents too. They are torn between their desire to let their teen age sons and daughters grow up, and the urge to keep their beloved children close and safe.

The ambiguous status of the young adolescent in the present day culture can be traced to a number of causes. the affluence of the family which makes it possible for the adolescent to remain a dependent instead of becoming a wage earner; child labour laws which force him into a state of dependency long after his body has become that of an adult; and the need for longer schooling to prepare for the type of work available in the more complex economic structure of today (Lowrey, 1955; Dansereau, 1961; Berger, 1965)

(v) Adolescence Is A Problem Age: While every age has its problems those of adolescence are often especially difficult for boys and girls to cope with. There are two reasons for this. First, throughout childhood, parents or teachers helped him with his problems. Second, because adolescents want to feel that they are independent, they demand the right of coping with their own problems, rebuffing attempts on the part of parents and teachers to help them. Many of the problems that confront a
young adolescent relate to areas of life such as heterosexual relationships in which he has had no previous experience. As a result he often feels at a loss to know how to meet them and because of their inability to cope with problems alone as well as they believe they can, many adolescents find that the solutions do not always come up to their expectations (Bettelheim, 1962; Keniston, 1962; Jennings, 1964; Garrison, 1966; Freud, 1969).

The problems that occupy the time and attention of adolescents are myriad. Roughly they can be divided into two major categories: personal problems and problems characteristic of adolescence. Personal problems of the adolescent are related to his home, school, physical condition, appearance, emotions, social adjustment, vocation (choice, training) and values. The problems characteristics of adolescence are the ambiguous status of the adolescent gives rise to such concerns as achieving greater independence, being misunderstood or judged by unfavourable stereotypes, and having more rights and privileges and fewer responsibilities imposed by parents. Such problems as achieving economic independence, assuming the approved sex role and preparing for family life present special difficulties (Remmers, 1962; Musgrove, 1963; Bailey and Roberston, 1964; Abel and Gingles, 1965; Adams, 1966; Elkind, 1967; Slocum and Bowles, 1968; Friedenberg, 1969).

The number of seriousness of problems at this age vary from individual to individual within the sex groups. If childhood discipline has been too authoritarian, the adolescent is unprepared to make decisions and face responsibilities for his choice. This makes his problems seem greater than they do to the adolescent from a more democratic home who is better prepared to meet his problems (Landis 1954; Garrison, 1966; Musgrove, 1966).

If the adolescent is able to deal with these problems without too much inner turmoil, he will develop self-confidence and feelings of adequacy; if not he will
develop feelings of frustration and inadequacy which may leave permanent psychological scars (Teicher and Jacobs, 1966).

(vi) Adolescence Is Time Of Search For Identity: One of the ways adolescents try to establish themselves as individuals is by the use of status symbols in the form of cars, clothes, and other readily observable material possessions. They hope, in this way, to attract attention to themselves and to be recognized as individuals while at the same time, maintaining their identity with the peer group.

(vii) The Young Adolescent Is Unstable: At this age, instability is extreme. From tears to laughter, from self-confidence to self-depreciation, from selfishness to altruism and from enthusiasm to indifference, all are common reactions of young adolescents. One minute the young adolescent is up in the clouds and the next he is in the depths of despair. This instability is very apparent in his social relationship. There are marked fluctuations in his friendship especially with members of the opposite sex and in the qualities he likes or dislikes among others. Instability in aspirations notably in vocational aspirations is so common that planning for the future is very difficult. In general, the young adolescent is an unpredictable person even to himself. This instability is largely the result of feelings of insecurity along with the ambiguous treatment given to him by both parents and teachers (Hess and Goldblatt, 1957).

(viii) Adolescence Is A Time Of Unrealism: Adolescence have a tendency to look at life through rose tinted glasses. They see themselves and others as they would like them to be rather than as they are. This is especially true of adolescent aspirations. These unrealistic aspirations not only for themselves but also for their families and friends, are in part, responsible for the heightened emotionality characteristic of early adolescence (Russian, 1975).

With increased personal and social experiences, and with increased abil-
After the ability to think rationally older adolescents see themselves, their families and friends and life in general in more realistic way. As a result, they suffer less from disappointment and disillusionment than they did when they were younger. This is one of the conditions that contributes to the greater happiness of the older adolescent (Astin, 1977).

(ix) Adolescence Is "Critical" Age: Early adolescence is the time when the individual, sheltered and protected throughout childhood, "breaks the cocoon" and reaches the "border of the unknown external world".

An adolescent who has not, as a child, been prepared for the new roles he will be expected to play, will be tempted to regress to the security of childhood. (Allin, 1957; Norbeck et al., 1962; Adams, 1964). That is what makes early adolescence a "critical" period in the individual's life. Eisenberg (1965) asserts that adolescence is a "critical period" in development in being both a time of rapid and profound change in the organism and time providing the necessary but not sufficient conditions for full maturation in manhood. According to Eisenberg (1965) optimal development in adolescence depends on successful accomplishment of the developmental tasks in infancy and childhood. Thus, clinical experience has indicated that adolescence is likely to be particularly stormy, prolonged and sometimes poorly resolved if it follows a childhood marked by severe deficit.

(x) Unfavourable Social Attitudes Towards Adolescence: The transition from childhood to adulthood is normally a difficult period for the social group as well as for the individual (Kiell, 1959; Goldman, 1962; Eckerson, 1969). Adolescence has been called the "terrible teens" and the label "teen-ager" has become the "journalistic equal of hoodlum, gangster, junior public enemy" (Lane, 1955).

Young adolescents realize that they are subjected, as a group, to condemnation, criticism and general devaluation by adults. They are aware of the stereotype
of a "teen-ager" as a sloppy, irresponsible and unreliable individual who is inclined toward destructiveness and antisocial behaviour. This stereotype has been strengthened by the widespread publicity, given through the mass media, to juvenile gangs, juvenile delinquency, use of drugs, petting, necking and the sexual irregularities of some adolescents today (Goldman, 1962; Berger, 1965; Porter, 1965; Newsweek Report, 1966).

The unfavourable stereotype of the adolescent has had a damaging effect on adults' attitudes and relationship with adolescents as well as on adolescents' attitudes toward themselves and their relationship with adults. This has served to widen the "generation gap" that always exists between adults and young people in every culture (Eckerson, 1969).

Many adolescents view adulthood with a mixed feeling of anticipation and fear. They wonder if they are capable of assuming the responsibilities that go with freedom. Certainly parental anxiety and concern about the adolescents' ability to cope with his problems and to achieve a satisfactory adult status do not build up the adolescents' self-confidence. Instead, they increase his anxiety and lead to even stronger negative feelings about himself and his abilities (Kelly, 1969).

**DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF ADOLESCENCE**: All the developmental tasks of early adolescence are focused on overcoming childish attitudes and behaviour patterns and preparing for adulthood (Havighurst, 1953; Rube, 1956; Dansereau, 1961; Mann, 1965).

There are social expectations for every stage of development. Every cultural group expects its members to master certain essential skills and acquire certain approved patterns of behaviour at various ages during the life span. Havighurst (1972) has labelled them developmental tasks. According to him a developmental task is "a
task" which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness and difficulty with later tasks. Some tasks arise mainly as a result of physical maturation, such as learning to walk; others develop primarily from the cultural pressures of society such as learning to read and still others grow out of the personal values and aspirations of the individual, such as choosing and preparing for a vocation. In most cases the development tasks arise from these three forces working together (Havighurst, 1972). Important Developmental tasks of an adolescence are:

1. achieving new and more mature relations with age mates of both sexes,
2. achieving a masculine or feminine social role,
3. accepting one's physique and using one's body effectively,
4. desiring, accepting and achieving socially responsible behavior,
5. achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults,
6. preparing for an economic career,
7. preparing for marriage and family life, and
8. acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior, developing an ideology.

The developmental tasks of adolescence require a major change in the child's habitual attitudes and patterns of behavior. Consequently, few boys and girls can be expected to master them during the years of early adolescence. This is especially true of the late maturers. The most that can be hoped for is the laying of foundations on which the older adolescent can build the mature attitudes and behavior patterns expected of an adult.

It may be and often is difficult for adolescents to accept their physiques if from earliest childhood. They have a glamourized concept of what they wanted to
look like when they are grown up. It takes time to revise this concept and to learn ways to improve the physique so that it will be more in harmony with the glamorized concept of childhood.

Acceptance of the adult approved sex role is not too difficult for boys. They have been encouraged in this direction since early childhood. But for girls who as children were permitted or even encouraged to play an egalitarian role, learning what the adult approved feminine role is and accepting it is often a major task requiring many years of adjustment.

Because of the antagonism toward members of the opposite sex that often develops during late childhood and puberty, learning new relationships with members of the opposite sex actually means starting from scratch to discover what they are like and how to get along with them. Even developing new, more mature relationships with age mates of the same sex may not be easy.

Achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults would seem for the independence-conscious adolescents, to be an easy developmental task. However, emotional independence is not the same as independence of behaviour. Many adolescents who want to be independent want and need security that emotional dependence on their parents or some adults gives. This is especially true for adolescents whose status in the peer group is insecure or who lack a close tie with a member of the peer group.

Economic independence cannot be achieved until adolescents choose an occupation and prepare for it.

Schools and colleges put emphasis on developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence. Only a few adolescents are able to use these skills and concepts in practical situations. Those who are active in the extracurricular
affairs of their schools and colleges get such practice; but those who are not active in this way, are deprived of this opportunity.

Schools and colleges also try to build values that are in harmony with those held by adults; parents contribute to this; development. Closely related to the problem of developing values in harmony with those of the adult world the adolescent is about to enter is the task of developing socially responsible behaviour. Most adolescents want to be accepted by their peers, but they often gain this acceptance at the expense of behaviour that adults consider socially irresponsible. If, for example, it is the "thing to do" to cheat or to help a friend during examination, the adolescent must choose between adult and peer standards of socially responsible behaviour.

The trend toward earlier marriage has made preparation for marriage one of the most important developmental tasks of the adolescent years. While the gradual relaxing of social taboos on sexual behaviour has gone a long way toward preparing adolescents of today for the sexual aspects of marriage they receive little preparation at home, in school or in college for the other aspects of marriage, and even less preparation for the duties and responsibilities of family life. This lack of preparation is responsible for one of the major pieces of "unfinished business" which the adolescent carries into adulthood.

EMOTION

Emotions play a very important role in an individual's life. Emotional development has a profound influence on effectiveness and happiness of a person. If there had been no emotion in the life of the organism, the life would have been without any aspiration.

Morgan (1965) emphasizing the importance of emotions in life writes that emotions are basic primeval forces of great power and influence designed by nature
to enable the organism to cope with circumstances which demand the utmost effort for survival or success or to add colour and spice to our living. If there had been no emotion in the life of the organism, the life would have been without any aspiration. In absence of emotions social and family life would have ceased and progress would have been checked.

Emotion is that state of the individual which deprives him of his equilibrium. Emotions are both constructive and destructive. Emotions stimulate the energies of the creature and assist in dealing with emergencies. In emotional condition he performs actions which he is incapable of performing in a normal state. But sometimes, though comparatively infrequently, a person is absolutely stupefied and fails to perform even the ordinary activities. Emotion is the intense disturbance of an individual. It is a mental activity which comprehends feelings and motor act, an experience and activity that is directed by the individuals' internal structure. It is temporary, though it disturbs and disbalances the individual while it lasts.

"The word emotion has been derived from the Latin word "emovere" means "to move" or "to be put in motion". The word. "Emotion" is used in Psychology to describe a state of excitement in the organism (Sandstrom, 1966). It may be defined as the stirred up condition of the organism involving external and internal changes in the body. It is also used to describe a state of excitement in the organism. Crow and Crow (1965) characterized emotion by inner adjustment conditioned by the functioning of the autonomic nervous system and aroused by the interaction between an external stimulus situation and the inner mental status.

Young (1961) offers the definition of emotion as "An emotion is disturbed state of organism : an emotion includes visceral changes due to increased activity of autonomic nervous system and an emotion originates within the psychological situation". Most writers agree that emotion is a complex state involving heightened per-
ception of an object or situation, widespread bodily changes, an appraisal of felt attraction or repulsion and behaviour organised towards approach or withdrawal (Eysenck et al., 1972).

Emotion is expressed in love and affection, in fear and tears, in jealousy and envy, joy and grief, curiosity, anger etc. It involves feeling of jubilation or depression and impulse to action and awareness of perception. Basically human beings are creatures of feelings or emotions. Our emotions control our behaviour. Emotion in the organism is a dynamic adjustment, that operates for the satisfaction and welfare of the individual. Emotions are aroused by a large number of complex conditions. Emotions can be aroused by certain objects, things or happenings outside; the individual himself or within himself. When the individual's body, pride or self esteem is likely to be damaged or is damaged, negative emotions such as fear or anxiety, anger or hostility, or complex feeling of self contempt occur. The emotions are aroused by happenings or circumstances, enhances the gratification of a person's need or the realisation of goal. The conditions that provoke emotions change with the expanding abilities and interests.

Emotional happening depends both upon the nature of the happening and upon one's own inner state. The same thing or happening may create joy in one and grief in another, all depending on the inner state of the individual.

The other conditions that arouse emotions are the interests and comprehensions. As the individual's interests change and his abilities improve his susceptibility to many emotions, which has been expressed in earlier life decreases. As, for example, the child in his early life is jealous of his real brothers and sisters; but as the child moves out and range of interest increases, there occurs a decrease in the quantum of such jealousy.
ADOLESCENCE: A PERIOD OF "STORM AND STRESS": Adolescence has been thought of as a period of "Storm and Stress" - a time of heightened emotional tension resulting from the physical and glandular changes that are taking place. Adolescence is the period of life when the individual shows signs of development in every respect.

One of the most common dreads of adolescence is its alleged stormy nature. Adults dread adolescence because the storminess of the adolescent makes him hard to live and work with. Adolescents dread it because storminess is embarrassing to them. Just when they are trying to convince themselves and others that they are growing up, they find themselves giving way to emotional outbursts and behaving like temperamental children.

Dread of adolescence has been intensified by the traditional belief that it is characterized by Sturm and Drang, a label which received the scientific stamp of approval from Hall (1904) when he called adolescence a "period of storm and stress". The word "storm" suggests that anger, with its accompanying temper outbursts, is a prominent, if not the dominant, emotion at this age. "Stress" suggests the existence of factors - emotional and physical - which disrupt normal functioning. It implies a generally upset condition which leads to deterioration of both physical and psychological functioning.

The traditional explanation of the storm and stress of adolescence was that it was due to the physical changes that accompany the transformation of the body at this time. Before there was knowledge of the functioning of the endocrine glands the explanation was given in terms of the predominance of one of the body hormones. Intense and irrational fears or "phobias", for example were attributed to a predominance of black bile (Errera, 1962; Berecz, 1968).

Not all the adolescents by any means, go through a period of exagger-
ated storm and stress. Most of them do experience emotional instability from time to time, which is a logical consequence of the necessity of making adjustments to new patterns of behaviour and to new social expectations. For example problems related to romance is moving alone smoothly, adolescents are happy, but they become despondent, when things begin to go wrong. Similarly, with the end of their schooling in sight, adolescents begin to worry about their future.

"Adolescent emotions are often intense, uncontrolled and seemingly irrational. There is generally an improvement in emotional behaviour with each passing year. Gesell et al., (1956) have reported that fourteen year olds, are often irritable, are easily excited, and "explode emotionally instead of trying to control their feelings. Sixteen year olds by contrast, don't believe in worrying. Thus, the "storm and stress" of this period lessens as early adolescence draws to a close. (Macfarlane, Allen and Honzik, 1954; Powell, 1955; Gesell, 1956). That is as the adolescent's field of knowledge widens, the situations that give rise to emotions in him also change.

Emotional development reaches its maturity in adulthood. That is boys and girls are said to have achieved emotional maturity if, by the end of adolescence, they do not 'blow up' emotionally when others are present, but wait for convenient time and place to let off emotional storm in a socially acceptable manner.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EMOTIONS IN ADOLESCENCE

(1) Complexity: By the age a child reaches in adolescence, experiences a number of emotional upheavals and storms. Emotional development becomes complex by the experiences the child gets in his environment. One cannot understand an adolescent by the overt emotional expression, but have to fathom deep to understand the expression. The adolescent learns to conceal true emotional experience.

(2) Development Of Abstract Emotion: Generally children show emotional ex-
pression in relation to concrete objects but adolescents can express their emotional feelings in relation to objects which are abstract or which are not present in concrete form.

(3) Emotional Feelings Are Widened: As the child grows, starts taking account of past and imagines of future and thus becomes more patient and able to tolerate delay. There is great shift in the social sphere of a child. Now the child starts making friendship with class mates. The sphere of child’s social relation increases, starts appreciating elder and younger people and sometimes feels emotionally attached with a hero of his choice who may be a historical figure, politician, heroine or hero and other leader according to whose principle he wants to shape his life.

(4) Bearing Of Tensions: Adolescents develops competencies to bear the tensions in different social situations. The emphasis is on self control. The adolescents feel a kind of inner freedom to feel and experience in an artinate personal way.

(5) Capacity Of Sharing Emotions: The adolescents develop the concern about the feelings of others and an increased capacity for sharing emotional experiences with others. In childhood, children are not able to control their emotions, sharing of emotional experiences reaches it fullest development when an adolescent is able to relate himself to another person in such a way that the satisfaction of the person is just as important as his own. It means adolescent begins to love his neighbours as much as himself.

(6) Loyalties Expand: Emotional development begins from the home environment of the infant and during adolescence it is expanded beyond home and neighbourhood. These loyalties are identified with peers and leaders of various fields.

(7) Realism In Emotional Experiences: The child enters the period of reality in adolescent. An adolescent can perceive and appreciate people around and can
recognise the weakness and strength of ones character.

(8) Reviewing Of Hopes And Aspirations: Adolescence is the period of life when one has high hopes and aspirations for future life. Some adolescents work realistically to achieve their expectations and other do little to realise their hopes, they remain in illusion, and in the world of day dreams and flights of fancy which make them unrealistic.

(9) Tolerance Of Aloneness: The adolescents develop a feeling of aloneness. Sometimes they like to be alone in their homes.

(10) The Adolescent Learns To Externalise His Feelings: In the various situations of external environment, and can project his feelings on others.

(11) Increased Compassion: Compassion is the single quality which enables a man to achieve highest peak and the deepest reach in search for self-fulfilment. Compassion means fellowship of feeling. It denotes an ability to enter into kinship with the feelings and impulses involved in any sort of emotional experience, whether it be joy or sorrow. To be compassionate means that a person is able to enter ones own feelings and appreciate the emotional feelings of others.

(12) Similarity Of Emotions: The emotional patterns of adolescence while similar to those of childhood, differ in the stimuli that give rise to the emotions and in the degree of control the individuals exercise over the expression of their emotions.

HEIGHTENED EMOTIONALITY IN ADOLESCENCE: "Heightened emotionality" is a relative term. It means more than normal emotionality for a given person. The criterion of heightened emotionality therefore includes a comparison of how the person reacts at a particular time with how he normally or usually reacts. When a normally serene (calm) or restrained person experiences heightened emotionality, may
appear, in comparison with others, to be quite calm. In comparison with his usual behaviour, that person is emotionally upset" (Bronson, 1967).

To the psychologist, heightened emotionality extending over a period of time is what fever is to a doctor—a danger signal and like fever, its effect may be far-reaching. For example, the adolescent who is experiencing an unhappy ending to a romance is nervous and tense not only in situations related to the romance but in his home, school and social relationships. His school work suffers, he quarrels with his friends and family and in a general way he makes himself thoroughly obnoxious (offensive, hateful) to everyone.

Most investigators of adolescent emotions agree that adolescence is a period of heightened emotionality. Josselyn (1959) states that the normal adolescent is inevitably a mixed up person, but not at all in the sense of being a psychologically sick person. Elkind (1967) asserts that any emotion can be heightened in the sense that the person experiences it, whether it be a form of anger, jealousy, fear or happiness, in a stronger and more persistent manner than is usual for him. An adolescent may experience deep depression in a moment of self criticism or experience great self-admiration when he excels in some task that is important to him and the peer group.

Heightened emotionality is never hidden. Though it may not always be readily recognised, it is expressed in some kind of behaviour. Gesell et al., (1956) has labelled periods of heightened emotionality as times of "disequilibrium" when insecurities, tensions and indecisions are readily recognized. There are times when the individual is "out of focus". When his behaviour causes more problems for others than is normal and when he is less happy and less adjusted than usual. However, no two individuals express their disequilibrium in exactly the same way, instead each has his own characteristic method of expression.
PREDISPOSING CAUSES OF HEIGHTENED EMOTIONALITY

During the period of adjustment, the adolescent may have strong feelings of insecurity and uncertainty, which predispose him to heightened emotionality. Since these feelings are mainly a product of environmental and social factors, one can safely conclude that heightened emotionality during adolescence is more often attributable to social factors than to glandular changes, as was formerly believed. The most common conditions that predispose the adolescent to heightened emotionality are stated below (Dunbar, 1958; Gallagher and Harris, 1964; Sattler, 1965; Bronson, 1967; Cole and Hall, 1970).

1. Adjustments To New Environments: As the adolescent leaves the world of childhood, radical changes may take place in his pattern of life. Since he is often unprepared for his own roles, he experiences strong and unusual feelings of inadequacy.

2. Social Expectations Of More Mature Behaviour: When the adolescent begins to look like an adult, he is expected to act accordingly. Constant pressure to live up to social expectations often causes a generalised state of anxiety.

3. Unrealistic Aspirations: Childhood aspirations are often unrealistic and when the adolescent fails to attain them, he develops feelings of inadequacy. If he projects the blame for his failure on others, he adds feeling of martyrdom to his feeling of inadequacy.

4. Social Adjustments To The Other Sex: Learning what to talk about, how to behave correctly in social situations and how to be popular with members of the other sex is perplexing to an adolescent. While learning, he often experiences intense nervous tension and general emotional excitement.

In adolescence there is attraction towards the member of opposite sex,
but the adolescent is not able to understand the correct social behaviour how to make friendship with the members of opposite sex. These problems create emotional tensions in him.

5. School Problems: When the adolescent begins to recognize the importance of education to vocational success, emotional tension often replaces the "why worry" attitude of children.

The school failure causes heightened emotionality so much that many adolescents commit suicide, leave home and sometimes give up education.

6. Vocational Problems: The most pressing problem for Indian adolescent is the future vocation after schooling. What to do after leaving school, worry over the prospects of getting and holding a job, and dread of the demanding life of the work world build up tension and worry.

7. Obstacles To Doing What He Wants To Do: Financial limitations or family restrictions which prevent the adolescent from doing what his friends do often lead to emotional upsets.

8. Unfavorable Family Relationships: Too little parental discipline, too little independence for the adolescents level of development and lack of parental understanding of adolescent interests lead to family friction and contribute to emotional tension.

9. Conflicts With Friends And Family Members: Adolescents come in conflict with their friends and family members who fail to understand them. Too strict discipline, restriction on movements and lack of understanding their interests or point of views are the chief sources of emotional disturbances.
10. Religious Conflicts: Every child is trained in a special setting of religious belief and values. The child, without questioning the authenticity of the teachings of his parents, obeys them but with the advancing age, he critically examines the beliefs and starts questioning the teachings of his parents. This leads to conflicts in his mind.

The Indian society is divided into several sub-groups. Each following its own religious beliefs. One caste hates the other. The adolescent is very sensitive to the feelings to hatred, partiality, and nepotism in the society.

There is a great gulf between the values and teachings preached by the school and their actual practice in the society. The adolescent is disturbed by all these actions.

COMMON EMOTIONAL PATTERNS IN ADOLESCENCE

The emotional patterns of the adolescent years are much the same as those of childhood. They differ from childish emotions, in the type of stimuli that give rise to these emotions and in the form of expression they take.

There is a similarity between childhood and adolescent emotions in that at both ages the dominant emotions tend to be unpleasant, mainly fear and anger in their various forms—grief, jealousy, and envy. The pleasant emotions—joy, affection, happiness, or curiosity—occur less frequently and with less intensity, especially during the early years of adolescence.

Social factors are largely responsible for the dominance of the unpleasant emotions, for the form of expression each emotion takes and for the kind of stimulus that gives rise to the emotion. Social factors are important in determining what the adolescent will respond to emotionally. Some of the common emotions during adolescence are:
1. **Anger**: Anger is a learned response to environmental stimuli. It is social in nature. The adolescent is made angry when he is teased, ridiculed, criticized, or "lectured". when he feels that he or his friends are unfairly treated or punished by parents and teachers; when privileges he considers fair are refused; when he is treated like a child; when people impose upon him, or when people are bossy and sarcastic. In addition, he becomes angry when things do not go right; when he is unable to accomplish what he sets out to do, when he is interrupted at times; when he is busy and preoccupied, or when his private property is encroached upon by parents or siblings. (Gesell, et al., 1956; Jersild, 1963).

2. **Fear**: Fear is an important negative emotion. Conditioning, imitation and memories of unpleasant experiences play important roles in arousing fears. No systematic work can be done on fears. Some categories of objects which may cause fear may be either by fear of material objects as snakes, dogs, strange noise, lions, elephants, aeroplanes or by social relationship. Fears decrease with the advancing age of the child in number and intensity. By the time the child has reached adolescence, he has learned from experience that many of the things he formerly feared are not dangerous or harmful. As a result his former fears vanish. In place of fears of childhood come new fears related to his more mature experiences, such as fears of being alone in the dark, being out alone at night, being in social situations when larger numbers are present or when he is with strangers, and fears of school and school subjects (Angelino, et al., 1956).

3. **Love and affection**: The emotion of love is very important in adolescents and is related to sexual impulse. The emotion of love and affection develop from very infancy in the life of organism. In infancy love and affection develop in concrete objects of environment-inanimate and animate, but in adolescence emotions of love and affection is associated with people and only occasionally with pets. The adolescents
become very closely attached with one another because of intense feeling of love.

The adolescent's affections are concentrated on people with whom he has a pleasurable relationship and who have made him feel secure and loved. As a general rule, the affectional relationship with members of the family is less strong among adolescents than it is in childhood, owing to the strained family relationships that typically exist at this time. (Jersild, 1963; Bossard and Boll, 1966)

The number of people for whom the adolescent has a strong affection is small. As a result, his emotional reaction toward these few individuals is strong (Keisler, 1961).

4. Worry: Worry is a form of fear that comes from imaginary rather than real causes. The young adolescent works himself up into a state of fear about what might happen, though he may have little reason for believing that these happenings are possible or even probable. (Gesell et al., 1956; Paivio and Lambert, 1959; Pressey et al., 1959, Crow and Crow, 1965).

Worry may be considered as an emotional reaction to "borrowed trouble", the trouble may come but it has not up to the present. An adolescent worries about an examination, about adequacy to make a speech before a group, or whether for a job. Because it is the "things to do". to worry during adolescence, social pressure tend to increase the frequency and intensity of worry. Since worries are influenced by values and values change with age, the worries of young adolescents are different from those of older adolescents. As adolescents grow older, their outlook on life is more like that of an adult. The adolescent who is worried about some thing generally talks about worries to their friends or teachers or may write to a news paper or magazine columnist. The major reason for verbalizing worry is to gain sympathy, understanding and help. The adolescents generlly have the following types of worries.
1. School work
2. Examination and test
3. School problems as favouritism by the teacher, unreasonable homework, lack of ability to concentrate, worry of failure and inadequacies related to their sex role.
4. Home worries, lack of understanding between adolescents and parents, illness of parents, difficulty in marriage, friends, health, problem of money, personality weakness.

As since boys and girls have different interest and values, there are sex differences in worries. Boys worry more about their abilities and vocations. They also worry more about where and how to get the money they need for their social lives. As appearance and social acceptance are more important to girls their worries focus on these problems. Girls also verbalise their worries more than boys (Gesell, et al., 1956; Jersild, 1963; Garai, 1970)

According to Sakellariou (1983) the adolescent appears worried about studies and future between the age of 12 and 14 years. Between 15 to 17 years he is worried about studies, future, love affairs and poverty. Between 18 to 22 years he is worried about marriage. It is generally seen that boys are comparatively more worried than girls in respect of earning money and acquiring more qualifications. This worry is deeply related to this capability. The boys mostly think all the time whether they will be able to earn sufficient money or not.

5. Curiosity: "For most adolescents the chief source of new interests is their own and their friends" Sexual maturation. Few reach adolescence with so complete a knowledge of the physiology and psychology of sex that their is nothing new to stimulate their curiosity. Aside from interest in sex, the adolescent is also curious about scien-
6. Frustrations: Frustration is a response to interference with the satisfaction of some need. They may result from deprivation arising out of the environment or from the individual's inability to reach a goal because of personal inadequacy. Frustrations are accompanied by feelings of helplessness; this gives rise to anger which may be either mild or excessive. Among the most common frustrations are sex-inappropriate or unattractive physique, poor health which limits participation in peer group activities, insufficient money to take part in peer group interests, personality traits that interfere with social acceptance and lack of ability to reach self-established goals, most of these obstacles to achievement originate within the adolescents themselves. Conflicts with parents, lack of social techniques and conflicts with family standards—all environmental in origin are less frequent sources of frustration (Lowrey, 1955; Davis, 1958; Jersild, 1963).

Most of the frustrations are accompanied by some degree of anger, other reactions such as aggression, displacement of anger, withdrawal, regression and constructive behaviour or reexamination of goals are common. (Block and Martin, 1955; Lowrey, 1955; Zuk, 1956; Davis, 1958; Lawson and Marx, 1958).

7. Jealousy: Jealousy is social in outlook. It is born of anger. The basis of jealousy is unhappiness. Jealousy occurs when a person feels insecure or afraid that his status in the group or in the affections of a significant person is threatened. The stimulus of jealousy is always social in origin. It can be aroused by any situation involving people for whom the individual has a deep feeling of affection or whose attention and
acceptance he craves. Thus, in jealousy two emotional elements i.e., fear and anger are strong. Whether fear of loss of status is stronger than anger will depend on the situation. Jealousy stimuli in adolescence are quite individualized. They depend largely on what makes a person feel insecure and the degree of insecurity depends on the value the person places on relationships with certain people. As the adolescent grows older, more threats to security come in relationships outside the home than within it. Thus, in late adolescence sibling jealousy is less common than peer group.

The high value placed on social acceptance is at the basis of much of the jealousy the adolescent experiences outside the home. He becomes jealous of classmates who are more popular than he. The less secure he feels in social relationship with the peer group the more likely he is to be jealous of those whose social acceptance seems assured.

The curve -"Jealous Reactions"- normally has two peaks, the first occurring during the preschool years and the second in adolescence. Among girls, jealousy tends to be stronger during the preschool years, and among boys in adolescence. (Macfarlane, et.al., 1954).

Adolescent jealousy generally reaches a peak during the years when dating becomes important. If dating is a new experience and the adolescent feels unsure of his ability to deal with the problems it gives rise to jealousy.

**JEALOUS BEHAVIOUR**

Jealousy is a complex emotion, partaking both fear and anger in which an individual feels threatened at the perceived claim of another person over his source of affection, security or status. Jealousy arises in a special kind of competitive situation, in which some restriction prevails in the availability of a desired object or relationship and in which possession seems to exist on an exclusive basis.
Jealousy denotes a suspicion or fear of rivalry or unfaithfulness; an affective state frequently compounded of the anticipation of grief, or grief itself, over the loss of a loved object, enmity toward the rival and a certain amount of self-criticism. Jealousy may be present, to some degree in everyone.

Jealousy occurs when a person feels insecure or afraid that his status in the group or in the affections of a significant person is threatened. The stimulus of jealousy is always social in origin. It can be aroused by any situation involving people feeling of affection or whose attention and acceptance he craves. Thus, in jealousy, two emotional elements—fear and anger—are strong. Whether fear of loss of status is stronger than anger will depend on the situation.

Jealousy is a universal phenomenon affecting all human beings—children and adults alike. Jealousy is commonly thought of as an infantile emotion. It arises due to non-fulfilment of desires. Complex feelings and impulses are usually involved in jealousy. The basis of jealousy is unhappiness. Hurlock (1978) thinks that jealousy is a normal response to actual, supposed or threatened loss of affection. Freud (1955) described jealousy of abnormal intensity as existing in three layers: the first being "competitive jealousy" which occurs when the love object is viewed as turning toward rival. It is usually more pronounced than warranted, being based on the unconscious conflicts of early life rooted in the oedipus complex and sibling rivalry. It is generally experienced bisexually. The jealousy man suffers because of the unfaithfulness of the women he loves, from a hatred of his rival and, at the same time experiences pain because of his unconscious love for the rival and his hostility against the woman who is unconsciously his competitor. Freud’s second layer, that of "projected jealousy", involves the defence mechanism of projection: the subject projects his own unfaithful impulses onto his love object. The third layer, "delusional jealousy", involves the projection of homosexual impulses onto the love object.
Eidelberg (1954) differentiated envy from jealousy; he viewed the latter as specifically involving conflicts over sharing a loved in a triangular situation. For example, the little boy is jealous (not envious) when he realizes that his mother prefers his father as a bedmate. He makes a partial identification with his mother and in that way experiences her pleasure in having his father as a partner, but at the same time, he suffers the painful recognition of his exclusion.

Envy is similar to jealousy in that it is an emotion directed toward an individual. It differs from jealousy in one major respect, however. It is not the individual per se who stimulates envy, but the material possessions of that individual. Envy is, in reality, covetousness.

Jealous Behaviour in "Early Childhood": Early childhood is a time when emotions are more common and more intense than usual. It is a time of disequilibrium when the child is out of focus in the sense that he is easily aroused to emotional outbursts and, as a result, is difficult to live with and guide. This is true of the major part of early childhood; it is especially true of the ages 2 1/2 to 3 1/2 and 5 1/2 to 6 1/2 (Ames, and Illg, 1964).

Among young children, jealousy is invariably aroused when parents or those who have taken care of the child seemingly shift their interest and attention to some one else, especially a new arrival in the family. Most often jealousy begins between the ages of two and five years, with the birth of a younger sibling. Telling the child ahead of time of the anticipated arrival of the sibling does not necessarily avoid jealousy (Jersild, 1960; Reevy, 1961).

The young child may also be jealous of an older sibling who is granted more privileges than he, a situation which he frequently interprets as parental favoritism, or he may be jealous of a sibling who because of poor health, must be
given more attention than he. The child is far less likely to be jealous of children outside the home than of his siblings, because his contacts with outsiders are limited and occur at times when the mother or some loved adult is not likely to be present.

Young children are however, often jealous of their father. They develop a proprietary attitude toward the mother because of her constant association with them, and they resent her affection for their father (Sears et al. 1957; Koch, 1960; Bossard and Boll, 1966).

In early childhood jealousy expresses itself in much the same way as anger does expect that it is usually directed against another person, the individual who the child believes he usurped seize wrongfully his place in the affections of the loved one. Sometimes jealousy causes the child to revert to such infantile forms of behaviour as thumb sucking, bed wetting, general naughtiness, or bidding for attention by refusing to eat or by pretending to be ill or afraid. Jealousy is more common among girls than among boys (Macfarlane et al., 1954; Garrison, 1959; Bossard and Boll, 1966).

First born children display jealousy more often and more violently that do their later born siblings. It is more common is small families of two or three children than in larger ones. Jealousy is more frequent among children whose age difference falls between eighteen and forty-two months than when the difference is less or more. (Sears et al., 1957; Koch, 1960; Bossard and Boll, 1966).

**Jealous Behaviour In "Late Childhood"** : Sibling jealousy does not die out when the child enters school. Sometimes in fact, it is intensified because the child feels that, during his absence from home, the younger child has the whole of his mother's attention while he is among unfriendly strangers. The school child may if he has experienced jealousy at home transfer his jealousy to his classmates, especially toward those
who are popular or who excel in studies or sports (Bonney, 1955; Jersild, 1960; Breckenridge and Vincent, 1965)

The older children may show his jealousy directly through quarrelling, telling tales, ridiculing, teasing, bullying, making disparaging comments or instigating quarrels. He may express his jealousy indirectly by ignoring the child of whom he is jealous by sarcastic comments, by engaging in daydreams of the "Martyr" type or by lying and cheating. As childhood progress, indirect expressions of jealousy are more common than direct expressions (Gesell et al., 1956; Garrison, 1959; Bossard and Boll, 1966).

Jealous Behaviour in "Early Adolescence": Although jealousy is commonly thought of as an infantile emotion, it appears in an intense and well camouflaged form during early adolescence. The young adolescent is interested in members of the opposite sex on en masse and craves popularity with them. Those who attain this desired goal arouse jealous reaction in those who are overlooked or scorned by members of the opposite sex.

When interest in one member of the opposite sex appears the individual who loses the loved one to another is an intensively jealous as the child whose position as center of attention in the family is suddenly usurped by the new arrival. Young adolescents are also jealous of peers who have more privileges and more independence or who are more successful in schoolwork or athletics than they (Gesell et al., 1956).

Instead of making bodily attacks upon those of whom he is jealous, the adolescent makes verbal attacks. These attacks are generally in such a subtle form that it is often difficult to recognize them as such. The most common forms of verbal attacks consist of sarcastic comments, ridiculing the individual preferably in the pres-
ence of his parents or friends, and making derogatory comments about the person behind his back.

Regression to infantile forms of behaviour is far less common among adolescents than among children. Girls sometimes, however, do whine and cry when their feelings are hurt or when they feel that they have been neglected. Emotionally immature boys rarely engage in this infantile type of behaviour, though they may make bodily attacks upon the individual who has aroused their jealousy just as they did when they were children.

**Jealous Behaviour in "Late Adolescence"**: Interest in members of the opposite sex in general changes to an interest in one individual of the opposite sex. With this shift of interest comes a proprietary interest in that individual accompanied by a feeling of uncertainty about individual feelings. Under such conditions, jealousy is inevitable (Pressey and Kuhlen, 1957).

Both boys and girls experience jealousy in their heterosexual relationships at this age. In the case of girls, however, the jealousy is likely to be more intense than in the case of boys because it is they who must play the passive role and not take aggressive steps to hold onto what they want as boys do (Pressey and Kuhlen, 1957; Jersild, 1963).

Any suspicion of a waning of interest on the part of the loved one or an unexplained lateness for a date or a last minute cancelling of a date will give rise to suspicions on the girls part that invariably include the possibility of another girl for whom the boy has developed a romantic attachment. When jealousy is aroused, it usually expresses itself in verbal fighting (Pressey and Kuhlen, 1957; Jersild, 1963).

**FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH JEALOUS BEHAVIOUR**

Many factors such as ordinal position, sex, motivational state of the ado-
adolescent jealous behaviour. From the above discussion of the jealous behaviour in various stages of life span it has been seen that jealous behaviour is observed from the childhood and continuous till adolescence.

ORDINAL POSITION

A very important thing that happens at the time of conception is the establishment of the new child's ordinal position among siblings. One's position in a sequence of siblings is called the ordinal position or birth order. While this may change within a year or two after birth, the child's ordinal position remains fairly static from then on. Shifting from the "baby of the family" position to a middle-born or later born's position may be upsetting and may have a long-lasting effect on the developmental pattern of the child.

There is evidence to conclude that it is not ordinal position per se that leaves its mark on the individual's personality and patterns of behaviour but rather circumstances in life related to this position—such as the role the individual plays in a family and the treatment he or she receives from significant family members and their attitudes. Since roles, attitudes and treatments are far more likely to persist than to change, the individual constantly receives reinforcements which, in time, result in firmly established habits.

Researches show that first borns tend to be more conscientious and have higher levels of self-esteem than later borns. First borns are also characterized as being more sensitive and studious than second borns who are more placid, more easygoing and less studious than their older siblings. In case of mental ability, the first borns exhibit superiority in intelligence levels over siblings born later. The higher levels of achievement attained by first borns may be due to their experiencing greater parental expectations and pressure for success (Altus 1966; Rothbart, 1967; Burton,
The first borns conform more than later borns in a low achievement arousal situation and conform less than later borns in a high achievement arousal situation. Thus, interpretations that first borns conform more because they are affiliated and resist conformity pressures because of high achievement needs are complementary, not opposed (Schacter, 1959; Rhine, 1968). First born children display jealousy more often and more violently than do their later born siblings. It is more common in small families of two or three children than in large ones. Jealousy is more frequent among children whose age difference falls between eighteen and forty two months than when the difference is less or more (Sears et al., 1957; Koch, 1960; Bossard and Boll, 1966).

Relatively few longitudinal studies have been made of the effects of different ordinal positions. But a few studies of older children, adolescents and adults of different ordinal positions give clues to us how ordinal position may become a persistent factor in determining the kind of personal and social adjustment the individual will make throughout the life span. Because of overprotectiveness and parental concern about their physical welfare, first borns tend to be more cautious and take fewer risk than do siblings of other ordinal positions (Nisbet, 1968). Oberlander (1970) asserts that first borns are more disciplined and inner-directed for their higher intellectual achievement. The parents of first borns are usually not only young and eager to romp with their children but they also spend considerable time talking to them and sharing activities, some that tends to strengthen bonds of attachment (Schooler, 1972; Bronson, 1974).

First borns are usually punished more severely and rewarded more generously than later borns, thus creating an imbalance. And because the parents are eager to succeed and see clear cut results, the first born is sometimes forced to succeed and strive for approval. (Adams and Phillips, 1973).
Because of opportunities they are given and because of the special treatment they receive, first borns have been found to outnumber later borns in leadership roles as early as elementary school (Neetz, 1974). Bigner (1974) contends that a second born child plays a "satellite" role in many of his interactions with the older, since the first born may act as the natural leader of the siblings in the family constellation. How ordinal position will affect the individual will depend on a number of conditions, the two most important of which are the sex of the individual and how individual feels about the roles he is expected to play. Some individuals enjoy the roles they are expected to play as a result of their ordinal position while others do not for example, a first born adolescent may resent the pressures of parents to live up to their expectations or having to act as a model for younger siblings. On the other hand, the first born may derive personal satisfaction from serving as a role model for younger siblings. There is evidence that first borns tend to be writer and to be higher achiever than their later born siblings (Zajonc 1975, 1976; Zajonc and Markus, 1975). There is little or no evidence, on the other hand, that this is due to hereditary difference but rather to environmental conditions that foster the child's intellectual development. First borns are not only given more intellectual stimulations than later borns but they are also given more opportunities to develop their intellectual abilities in schools and colleges (Altus, 1966; Skovholt et al., 1973 and Zajonc and Markus, 1975).

Forer (1976) asserts that place of an individual in the family strongly influences the way he copes with the people and the world. According to him much of a child's development depends upon interaction with siblings. All members of a family force on one another certain patterns of behaviour as they interact in meeting their needs. It is in this way that the ordinal position in the family leaves an indelible stamp on a persons life style.

Zajonc (1976) has pointed out that parents and psychologist have always
regarded first born children as different and special and, as a result have given them, greater intellectual stimulation and opportunities to develop their intellectual capacities than their later born siblings have had.

Hurlock (1985) presents some common characteristics associated with three ordinal positions first borns, middle borns and last borns. These are given here below.

SOME COMMON CHARACTERISTICS ASSOCIATED WITH ORDINAL POSITION

First Borns

(i) Behave in a mature way because of association with adults and because they are expected to assume responsibilities.

(ii) Resent having to serve as models for younger siblings and having to assume some of their care.

(iii) Tend to conform to group wishes and pressures and to be suggestible as a carryover of conformity to parental wishes.

(iv) Have feelings of insecurity and resentment as a result of having been displaced as the center of attention by a second-born sibling.

(iv) Lack dominance and aggressiveness as a result of parental overprotectiveness.

(vi) Develop leadership abilities as a result of having to assume responsibilities in the home. But these are often counteracted by tendencies to be "bossy".

(vii) Usually are high achievers or overachievers because of parental pres-
sures and expectations and a desire to win back parental approval if they feel they are being replaced by younger siblings.

(viii) Are often unhappy because of insecurity arising from displacement by younger siblings and resentment at having more duties and responsibilities than younger siblings.

Middle Borns

(i) Learn to be independent and adventuresome as a result of greater freedom.

(ii) Become resentful or try to emulate the other's behaviour when compared unfavourably with an older sibling.

(iii) Resent privileges older siblings are granted.

(iv) Act up and break rules to attract parental attention to themselves and take it away from older or younger siblings.

(v) Develop a tendency to "boss", ridicule, tease, or even attack younger siblings who get more parental attention.

(vi) Develop the habit of being underachievers as a result of fewer parental expectations and less pressure to achieve.

(vii) Have fewer responsibilities than firstborns which they often interpret as meaning they are inferior. This then discourages the development of leadership qualities.

(viii) Are plagued by feelings or parental neglect. This then encourages feelings of inadequacy and inferiority which, in turn, encourage development of be-
(ix) Turn to outsiders for peer companionship - but this often leads to better social adjustments than those made by firstborns.

**Last Borns**

(i) Tend to be willful and demanding as a result of less strict discipline and "spoiling" by family members.

(ii) Have fewer resentments and greater feelings of security as a result of never being displaced by younger siblings.

(iii) Are usually protected by parents from physical or verbal attacks by older siblings and this encourages dependency and irresponsibility.

(iv) Tend to underachieve because of fewer parental expectations and demands.

(v) Experience good social relationships outside the home and are generally popular but infrequently leaders because of lack of willingness to assume responsibilities.

(vi) Tend to be happy because of attention and "spoiling" from family members during early childhood.

One of the most common forms of jealousy is an older child's attitude toward a new born baby in the family. A probable cause for this jealousy is the amount of maternal attention required for the care of a new infant. The mother in this situation becomes a combination nurse, laundry woman, cook, mother and wife, leaving considerably less time to talk and play with the immediately older child. A decrease in child centeredness as a result of pregnancy and the birth of a new infant was noted by
Baldwin (1947) in his serial ratings of forty-six mothers at the Fels Research Institute.

The older children has real reason to feel that the love of and attention from his mother are being threatened by the new comer on the family scence. Sometimes children view the birth of a new baby as a threat to themselves. Often when mothers and fathers are tired from the increased activities of caring for a new baby the children feel that they are no longer loved. Normal responses to these feelings include acting like a baby and periods of jealous behaviour (Barnett et al., 1998).

The usual verbal preparations made by parents before the new baby is born have been found of little use in preventing the development of jealousy (Sewall, 1930). Words are of little consequence in the child’s life when maternal actions change so noticeably. Sewall (1930) also found that the probability of jealous responses decreased as the family size was increased. Children in large families must preforce share the attention and affection of parents. The addition of one new member makes less difference in a large family than in case of a family with only one child. Family size influences the frequency and intensity of jealousy and envy. Jealousy is more common in small families where there are only two or three children than in larger families, where none of the children can receive much attention from their parents. (Hurlock, 1985).

The birth of a younger sibling frequently evokes signs of jealousy. The jealousy is likely to be more intense in a first born child who, for a time, has been an only child. Jealousy toward a younger sibling is frequently expressed in aggressive ways, such as biting, compressing the child’s nostrils, removing his covers or making noise when he is asleep. A jealous child sometimes reverts to earlier infantile habits. For example, when a new baby arrives, an older child who for some time has achieved bladder control at right time may revert to bed wetting or frequently call his parents at night to take him to the toilet. He may seek extra help and attention in connection with
eating, dressing and other activities. Apparently as a bid for attention, he may exhibit fears that were never displayed before and that in effect represents a plea for sympathy and attention.

Among 110 children whose development had been followed since early infancy by Thomas and his associates (1961) there were eighteen who had acquired a younger sibling. Over half of the children seemed to be disturbed by this event, but in several cases the reactions were mild and transient. Children’s reactions to a new sibling seemed to be influenced by a number of circumstances - whether they were first born children, their age when the new baby came (children under 18 months seemed less disturbed when a baby was born than older children), and prior relationship existing between them and their parents.

Findings indicate that first born children had more problems in general and more scholastic and personality problems and rivalry were common among them. First borns are generally successful in life (Schacter, 1959). Habit disorders were common among first borns, whereas food and sleep problems were seen in last born, children. Last borns also had scholastic problems and problems related to family environments. Middle born children were considered most normal (Sharma, 1987). First born children display jealousy more often and more violently than their later born siblings Koch (1956) found that there was a tendency of first borns to be more responsive and intellectually aware of their surroundings than were younger siblings.

Sibling rivalry refers to a marked change in a child’s affect and / or behaviour that occurs in response to the birth of a sibling. The feelings and behaviour that characterize sibling rivalry include increased negative affect with predominant feelings of jealousy, anger and rejection, lack of positive regard for the siblings, marked competition for parental affection and attention and regression to earlier stages of development. Carter, 1992). Generally not only the birth of sibling change the child’s
behaviour but also many other circumstances affect the bond between the children in the same family. Sibling rivalry has long been recognized as one of the primary features of sibling relationship. Its significance is highlighted in a recent study (Dunn & Kendrick, 1982) of 40 first born children whose mother gave birth to a younger sibling when the first born were between 18 and 43 months old. The investigators report that "By the time the first born children were 6 years old their discussion of their feelings about the sibling and their views on what kind of person the siblings was were dominated by descriptions of fighting and aggression". Sociologists who study family violence report that sibling violence is the most frequent type and that fifty-three of every hundred children attack a brother or sister in a year by kicking, biting, punching, hitting with objects, or "beating up" (Straus, et al., 1980). McKeever (1983) observed that in families with a handicapped child and other normal children, sibling rivalry and hostility might be exacerbated and these negative emotions might lead to fear and guilt in the normal children. These children were likely to experience considerable on going stress. Factors influencing sibling response include size of sibskips and ordinal position, sex and age of healthy child, socio-economic status and disease characteristics. These studies reiterate a point established in a large and diverse literature that rivalry, hostility and aggressive actions are basic features of sibling relations. Neubauer (1983) discusses the role of sibling position and influence of envy and jealousy on the sibling relationship focusing on how these factors are subject to continuous changes during the developmental phases and lead to changes of defenses and symptoms that may influence personality organization and character formation.

Dunn (1984) has found that children as young as 16 months are extremely sophisticated in their understanding of one another. Bers and Rodin (1984) observed that jealousy was a common response to comparison failure situations. Older siblings revealed more comparison jealousy in areas of greater importance to
themselves, whereas younger siblings did not show this differentiation as clearly. Ramamurti et al. (1986) assessed sibling rivalry in four groups of 15 sibling dyads (aged 0-4 yrs). In an eight weeks intervention the mother involved an older sibling in caring for and handling the younger sibling. Results show an initial higher incidence of sibling rivalry in dyads; however, intervention substantially reduced rivalry in all cases. Brim (1958) found that the child shows marked gains in sex-role development by having an older sibling of the same sex in home.

SEX

Sex differences to a greater extent effect the jealous behaviour. Sex differences in emotions come mainly from social pressure to express emotions in sex appropriate ways. A very important developmental task relating to sexuality adolescents must master in learning to play approved sex roles. Sex role typing or learning to play socially approved sex roles is easier for boys than for girls. First, since early childhood boys have been made aware of sexually appropriate behaviour and have been encouraged, prodded or even shamed into conforming to the approved standards. Second, boys discover with each passing year that the male role carries far more prestige than the female role. Girls by contrast, often reach adolescence with blurred concepts of the female role, though their concepts of the male role are clearer, they were permitted to look, act and feel much as boys without constant proddings to be “feminine”. Even when they learn what society expects of them, their motivation to mold their behaviour in accordance with the traditional female role is weak because they relaise that this role is far less prestigious than the male role and even less prestigious than the role they played as children. Deutsch and Gilbert (1976) assert that as a result of training and pressures from peers, especially peers of the opposite sex many adolescent girls are "pulled toward opposite goals, a situation ripe for conflict". If adolescent girls rebel against the traditional female role, they may be rejected not only by members of the opposite sex but also by other girls. Before early
adolescence is over most girls accept, often reluctantly the stereotype of the female role as a model for their own behaviour and pretend to be completely "feminine" even though they prefer an egalitarian role that combines features of both the male and the female roles. Because temper tantrums are considered more sex-appropriate for boys than for girls, boys throughout early childhood have more tantrums and more violent tantrums than girls. On the other hand, fear, jealousy, and affection are considered less sex-appropriate for boys than for girls, and thus girls express these emotions more strongly than boys (Garai and Scheinfeld, 1968; Crooks, 1969).

According to some psychologists the feeling of jealousy is found to be more in girls than in boys. It is due to different treatment meted out to girls than to boys. According to present social traditions the girls are given less freedom than boys. In this respect, the parents, too, have an eye of partiality. Consequently, the boys tries to show himself superior to the girls in every respect. This attitude of his is likely to affect the girl. Praveenlal et al. (1988) found that more girls than boys had a history of sibling rivalry.

The curve of jealous reactions normally has two peaks, the first occurring during the preschool years and the second in adolescence. Among girls, jealousy tends to be stronger during the preschool years and among boys, in adolescence. (Macfarlane et al., 1954). Jealousy is more common among girls than among boys (Macfarlane et al., 1954; Carrison, 1959; Bossard and Boll, 1966).

Adolescent jealousy generally reaches a peak during the years when dating becomes important. Dating is a new experience and the adolescent feels unsure of his ability to deal with the problems it gives rise to. In addition, the high social value placed on popularity with members of the opposite sex makes the adolescent jealous of peers who achieve greater success in this area than he. For example, a girl is likely to be extremely jealous of an agemate who dates boys, regarded as the big wheels of
the class or who starts to go steady sooner than she. Boys show less jealousy in dating situations than girls. Emotionally immature adolescent girls may whine or cry when their jealousy is aroused, while immature boys may physically attack their rivals (Gesell and Ames, 1956; Pressey and Kuhlen, 1957; Jersild, 1963).

The young adolescent is interested in members of the opposite sex en masse and craves popularity with them. Those who attain this desired goal arouse jealous reactions in those who are overlooked or scorned by members of the opposite sex. When interest in one member of the opposite sex appears, the individual who loses the loved one to another is as intensely jealousy as the child whose position as center of attention in the family is suddenly usurped by the new arrival.

Both boys and girls experience jealousy in their heterosexual relationships at this age. In the case of girls however, the jealousy is likely to be more intense than in the case of boys because it is they who must play the passive role and not take aggressive steps to hold onto what they want as boys do. Peretti et al. (1997) studied the influence of jealousy on male and female college daters, particularly the effect of jealousy on the jealous dating partners. The results indicate the effect of jealousy on the male and female dating partners. Jealousy tended to be associated with feelings of loss of affection, rejection, insecurity, anxiety, semantics, insincerity, inadequacy, low self esteem, suspiciousness and rivalry.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement is more than mere independent action. Achievement indicates not merely the execution of a task without assistance but is also trying to perform well to demonstrate ones competence in the task. Thus, an emphasis on evaluation of performance against some standard of excellence is a characteristic feature of achievement behaviour. According to Atkinson (1958) and McClelland (1961), need for achievement refers to a relatively stable acquired disposition to strive for success and
to evaluate the success against a standard of excellence. A person who has a high need for achievement sees problems and obstacles as challenges to be met. Individuals are expected to go ahead and their level of aspirations are raised. They develop a need for success. It is also expected from them that they will not fail so a need to avoid failure also develops in them. Hence, need of achievement incorporates two contrasting personality predispositions:

(i) a need for success and
(ii) a need to avoid failure.

The individuals with a predispositions towards a need for success are realistic and like the challenge of outperforming others. The individuals, in whom the need to avoid failure greatly exceeds the need to achieve, resist all activities in which their competence might be evaluated.

Motivation is a dynamic and purposive process. It is a positive process. Motivation refers to internal states of the organism that lead to the instigation, persistence, energy and direction of behaviour. Motivation is said to be direction or steering in that it leads to goal-directed behaviour. Studies have demonstrated that organisms are more active, the more they are motivated. "Motivation is an affective-conative factor which operates in determining the direction of an end or goal consciously apprehended or unconscious (James Drever, 1968). In view of Atkinson (1964) the term motivation refers to the arousal of a tendency to act, to produce one or more effects. Maslow (1954) proposed a hierarchical set of five basic needs: (1) Physiological (2) Safety (3) Love and belongingness (4) Self-esteem and (5) self actualization. The higher needs can be satisfied only after the lower needs are satisfied. Gourevitch and Feffer (1962) distinguish four stages in the development of motivation, each characterized by its own type of reinforcement.

1) In the first stage, reinforcement is concrete and bodily; it is direct gratification
of physiological state.

2) In the second stage, reinforcement is concrete but external, involving tangible rewards such as prizes or intangible rewards like affection or belongingness to a group.

3) The third level involves abstract but external reinforcement like esteem of others, being well thought of by others etc..

4) The final level involves active concern for self actualization, reinforced by abstract and internal reinforcer such as self-respect.

Concept of achievement motivation was developed by McClelland (1953) and refers to the motive to achieve some standard of accomplishment or proficiency. Achievement motivation is determined by socialization practices which emphasize early training in independence.

Heckhausen (1967) and Atkinson and Raynor (1978) have summarized much of the achievement motivation research. Human beings differ from one another in the strength of achievement motive. It is this difference in the strength of motivation to achieve that is important in understanding the differences. According to Brown (1961), in the state of motivated behaviour the person works more than his normal state or its conduction is better because of the evocated and energized state.

Winterbottom (1953) studied the achievement related ideas in the stories told by her subjects who were boys aged eight to ten. She then prepared a questionnaire to find out whether any socialization processes were associated with the scores in need for achievement. She interviewed the mothers of the boys using three questionnaires. She found that the mothers of high-achievement children demanded independent behaviour in them at an earlier age than do the mothers of low achievement
children. She also found that there were rewards for the fulfilment of these demands for independent accomplishment. High achievement children had been more frequently and intensely rewarded for acceptance of restrictions than the low achievement children. Thus, the results of this study give considerable support to the independence training and achievement hypothesis.

Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) explicitly advanced the hypothesis that independence or self-reliance training, when not associated with direct achievement training, is not a sufficient cause of high achievement motivation. After determining the high and low scores they observed and measured the parent's interactions with their children when they were participating in several experimental tasks. They found that the parents of high achievement boys and higher aspirations and expectations and set higher standards for their son's performances than the parents of low achievement boys. They found that both the fathers as well as the mothers of those with high achievement scores had high aspirations for their sons and their concern over their success was greater than those of the fathers and mothers of the low scorers.

Studies were made to study to find the relation between the type of information processing and achievement motivation. The sample consisted of 82 students of M. A. Psychology (42 males and 40 females). The results show a significant positive correlation between integrated functioning of both the hemispheres and achievement motivation and a significant negative correlation with anxiety (Suresh, 1990). Also a study was conducted on a sample of 446 tribal and non-tribal high school students to examine the effect of family (single or joint family) and the ordinal position of the child (first order middle order and last order). It was hypothesized that the children from single families and the first order children would stand high on achievement motivation than their counterparts. By and large the results failed to support the hypothesis of the study as no significant impact of family type and birth order was
found (Bakhteyar Fatmi, 1990).

It has been observed that children with high achievement motivation express more jealousy as compared to their counterparts with low achievement motivation. As children with high motivation have a high level of self-esteem and they cannot see any other person achieving a higher position than them. If any person has shown higher achievements than them, they become jealous with that person and due to this jealousy they may harm or tease him.

Development of achievement motive is affected by a number of variables in home, school and society. Home plays an important role in the early training of children for the development of attitudes and motives. Parental expectation and guidance to the child develop need for high achievement in life.

The society and its social philosophy is an important variable in developing achievement motive. There are communities which are achievement-oriented. There are other societies which believe in fate and leave everything to God.

The child normally enters school at the age of 5 years. Before coming to school the child has gathered many experiences which become an integral part of his personality and form his attitude towards life but even then the school can help a lot to sharpen already acquired experiences and develop positive attitudes in children. The teacher can play a very crucial role in the development of achievement motive.

**REWARD**

The term "reward" means any form of appreciation for an attainment. Reward plays three important roles in teaching children to behave in a socially approved way.

1) They have an educational value. If an act is approved, children know that it is
good, just as punishment tells children that their behaviour is bad.

2) Rewards serve as motivations to repeat socially approved behaviour.

3) Rewards serve to reinforce socially approved behaviour and absence of rewards weakens the desire to repeat this behaviour.

Rewards, in the form of praise or an occasional special treat for meeting a difficult situation successfully, have a strong educational value in that they tell the child that what he has done is right; furthermore, they offer him a strong motivation to repeat such behaviour. (Duboss 1952; Jones, 1954; Clifford, 1959). To have this motivating value rewards must be appropriate for the child's age and level of development. Although young children like material rewards whether it be a penny, bubble gum, or a new toy, the older child is more motivated by verbal rewards such as "That's fine" or "Good boy" or "Good girl" (Witryol et al., 1965).

**Reward serve two purposes**: They are educational, informing the adolescent that his behaviour has won social approval and is "good" behaviour; and they are ego bolstering, stimulating the adolescent to continue to act in that way. According to the evidence, rewards do not have bad effects; on the contrary, they provide a strong motivation to conform to society's expectations. As such they are, as Vincent and Martin (1961) have emphasized, a potent instrument in disciplining. To shape behaviour however, rewards must be developmentally appropriate. The greatest reward for most adolescents is praise. Far too often, the comments of parents and teachers are critical: a kind word is a pleasant relief from constant nagging. Not only is praise egobolstering but it has great educational value. It tells the adolescent that his act was so acceptable that it was worth commenting. The strength of the praise must be regulated according to the acceptability of the act. Indiscriminate use of lavish praise reduces its educational value because the adolescent does not learn to judge the rela-
A study by Heathers (1953) concluded that dependent behaviour resulted from material over concern; the mother actually encouraged dependency behaviour. Gavalas and Briggs (1966) reported that dependency persists when the parents reward dependent behaviour and fail to reward competent, achievement-oriented behaviour in the child. Jealous behaviour is vital to consider in this respect as comprising some basic emotions leading the behaviour of individuals in a particular direction desirable or undesirable. In this reference it is reasoned that jealous behaviour can be provoked by rewarding one and depriving other on a task. However, this field of relationship between reward and jealous behaviour still requires lights to throw on it, specially in reference to ordinal position, sex and achievement motivation of adolescents.