PART II - EXPERIMENTAL:

In the second part of the report the Rating Model and the Delphi Experiment are described in minute details and the questionnaires are individually analysed. The results of the Social Rating Model are also presented. Samples of questionnaires and computer program listings are also included.

CHAPTER I

LITERATURE SURVEY:

This literature survey was carried out at the A. N. S. Institute of Social Studies, Patna library and at Gauhati University and is, therefore, limited to whatever is available on the subject of Adjustment Psychology. The scope was deliberately broadened by researching in this general area instead of concentrating only on Peer Determinants of Adjustment in Early Adolescence. This approach is important in that the general theories of adjustment also apply largely to the early adolescence. However, all research papers and books on Peer Determinants were thoroughly scanned and the information gleaned is summarised in this survey. To that extent this survey can be considered as exhaustive and extensive within the working constraints of the author.

The period of adolescence though identified since the eighteenth century by German writers such as Goethe and Schiller to express the uneasiness felt by many young people, it was however in nineteenth century that need of adolescence was first discussed especially in Europe and America.
The study of adolescence by developmental psychologists began in 1904 with the publication of G. Stanley Hall's famed two-volume treatise, Adolescence. He discussed the period as a legitimate stage of life. However, the subsequent rate of advance in the study of adolescent years was slow due to certain practical difficulties:

1. Adolescents were already too old to warrant much attention.
2. Adolescents are more mobile and have their own agendas.
3. The predominant view of the adolescent period was one of turbulence and instability, hardly a period likely to be productive of tractable subjects or illuminative basic process.

Gradually attention was put on developmental psychology. The results of animal learning paradigms were applied to the study of children's learning. The psychodynamic propositions were applied into social learning terms. These were based increasingly upon Skinnerian rather than Hullian premises. The revitalisation of the study of intellectual development stimulated by Piagetian concepts propelled this growth.

As the period of adolescence grows out of childhood and proceeds towards adulthood, there is no single theory that deals particularly with adolescent period segregated from the continuous process. Owing to this difficulty we give a brief overview of the adjustment patterns of human beings in general in order to understand
adolescent adjustment in particular. This work is the study of only such aspects of development as have a direct bearing upon adolescent adjustment. Its aim is to bring out the concept of "adjustment" in early adolescence in relation to personality.

The concept of "adjustment" i.e., the individual's struggle to get along or survive in his or her social and physical environments came from the Darwin's biological theory of adaptation. Darwin (1859) maintained that only the organisms which are most fitted to adapt to the hazards of the physical world would survive, and this was called as "survival of the fittest". Darwin stressed on the study of how inherited characteristics are transmitted and modified, and on the study of the nature of the adaptation process and its mechanisms. His study created an interest in the scientific study of adjustment of organism to their environment.

In 1907 Jones Rowland Angell emphasized on the adjustment of organisms to changing environmental conditions and the role of a science of psychology about how people should live.

Later John B. Watson (1924) outlined methodical techniques for the study of the adjustment of organisms. The work of the Russian psychologist Ivan P. Pavlov and some of the works of psychoanalysis of the Freudian movement were remarkable.

The experimental psychology view both successful and unsuccessful adjustment as the joint result of biological and learning processes. However, most psychologists believe that complex
processes intervene between stimulus and emission of response in human beings, wherein lies the difficulties of experimentation. What constitute an adjustment is a matter on which people differ. Various writers have defined adjustment thus:

Poduska (1980) defines adjustment as the ability to select appropriate and effective measures to meet the demands of the environment, while maintaining a healthy attitude towards the circumstances. Tallant (1978) said it is a widely used concept having to do with the equality of human life and must be evaluated relative to an individual. Lehner et al (1960) reported that it is an interaction between an individual and the environment from which stems some of the most significant experiences in one's life or might stimulate a creative achievement. Dutt (1983) expressed that it is an universal, continuous process of interaction by adaptation or by alteration leading to need satisfaction or need reduction. Gaswick and others (1981) viewed that the degree and process of adjustment depends partly upon the person's perception of self image together with perception of the environment as well as perception of others; it also depends upon the social environment and situational factors like, the influence of the family and the social group. The individual's self-concept has great impact on his level of adjustment. These personality theorists have shown that loneliness is related more to negative self-concept and low adjustment.
In one aspect on which most of the psychologists agree, to a great extent is that adjustment is achieving a balance between internal demands and the requirements of the environment, or between internal psychological forces and external conditions.

The experimental study and the field study are the two approaches to research on adjustment, supplementing each other. The field study involves the observation of humans adapting to their natural settings, for instance people in social groups or societies. Field studies are also carried out in the unusual settings of extreme emergency or demand. Bruno Bettelheim in (1960); Baker and Chapman in (1962); Lazarus in (1966) and many others made vivid study of adaptations in extreme psychological stress like prisoners in concentration camp, public disasters in natural calamities; and personal crisis respectively.

The experimental study of adjustment differs from field study in that in experimental study the demands or stresses are produced in the laboratory. Lazarus and Erikson (1952); Block (1957); Herz (1960); Lazarus, Speisman etc. in (1962) and many others using different methods produced disturbed emotional reactions in the laboratory. Because of ethical problems involved in research on human subjects experiments are usually carried out in infrahuman animals on adjustive processes. Human behaviour concerns many more complex factors than the behaviour of lower animals. The results of laboratory experiments with animals show how behaviour may be maintained by a variety of sources of reinforcement.
Unfortunately, personality is such a complex idea and affects such diverse psychological spheres of observation that it cannot be tested by observation. However, these efforts focus our attention on certain kinds of conditions within and outside people that might influence how they feel, think and act.

Each individual adjusts to demands made upon him or cope with situations in certain distinctive stable ways. Personality psychologists emphasize on these consistent ways in which the person reacts. The psychological structures and processes underlying the characteristic behaviour of a person must be imagined. These structures and processes that direct behaviour consist of hypothetical entities such as motives, habits and defences. Psychologists are concerned with the psychological structure of persons, the way this structure develops, variations among different individuals and the conditions producing these variations. The stability and distinctive variation in response is due to the presence of certain stable and permanent psychological properties or traits present in the individual which constitute the psychology of personality. These traits or determinants are known by inferences from its antecedents (causes) and consequences (effects). In short, stable forms of adjustment can be regarded as traits of personality. Hence adjustment and personality are inextricably bound together. The study of the general concepts of personality development, therefore, is useful for an understanding of adolescent adjustment and their intricacies of behaviour.
Although without understanding the nature of an individual's personality we cannot fully understand that person's behaviour, the actual future behaviour of a person is determined by the interaction of both personality structure and the social and physical circumstances to which he or she is exposed.

Out of many definitions, one of the most useful ways of thinking about personality is to consider it in the light of Allport's (1937) definition that personality is "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment".

The idea contained in Allport's definition is that personality trait determine the individuals' behaviour along with the situations to which he is exposed. In 1961 Allport further revised his view and stated that "personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought". Allport's recent revision left out the idea of uniqueness perhaps because of its obstacle to generalisations about people and may exclude personality from scientific study. He added the term "characteristic" perhaps to emphasize the idea of stability. Allport suggests that we not only adjust to the environment, but we also reflect on it.

To consider personality of an individual, that person's unique history must be examined in the light of the general principles about personality organisations and development.
To study the personality it needs observation and speculation. The past antecedent conditions cause or influence the observed behaviours. For example, the type of family relationship that exists between the adolescent and his family plays an important role in determining the type of adjustment he makes to people outside the home. These causal conditions and the behavioural effects of these conditions are considered "empirical variable". The unseen properties within the person caused by causal variables influence the behavioural outcome referred to as "personality variables" which are treated as the personality.

The personality theorist is interested in formulating general laws about behaviour and its underlying structure. But the application of general principles of personality to any particular person is always complicated because internal and external conditions vary from individual to individual and from situation to situation. Therefore, understanding of personality is best achieved by taking the distinctive advantages of both "nomothetic" and "idiographic" approaches.

Since personality can be known only from its directly observable behavioural effects in given situational contexts, behaviour must be observed in order to study an individual's personality.

✓ The three main sources of behavioural information that can be used to infer characteristics of personality are (1) verbal reports, (2) behavioural reactions, and (3) bodily reactions.
Consistency is the basic theme of personality. Lack of consistency would mean that behaviour is entirely determined by the situation rather than by any stable property of the person. Consistency can be examined at several levels: surface behaviour; style and expression; and modes of thinking, coping, and self-defence (Lazarus). Although there is consistency in personality there is also flexibility as well to cope with the environment or situation. The change of stability in personality structure is proved by psychotherapy otherwise the psychiatric person would have been fatalistic about the possibility of treating maladjustment.

Whatever flexibility is there the personality structure involves a progressive increase in stability and organisation with age, in that instance plasticity of adolescence personality is still susceptible to influence and capable of change whereas an old person is less capable of change. When analysis centers upon deeper-lying levels of personality structure and process, there are events about which the person may be unconscious. One view of such a lack of consciousness is the view of Freudian theory, which holds that important features of the mental life may be prevented by defences from becoming conscious and some such evidences are available from the states of amnesia, hypnosis and many neurotic manifestations.

Four categories of personality theories are put forth on basis of description, (which describe personality structure); dynamics, (to understand the processes by which it works); development, (how it got that way over the life span) and determi-
nants, (the biological and social influence that have shaped it). All these theories of personalities are mostly concerned with human adjustment and effectiveness.

Finally it has been stressed that there is integration of many diverse trends within the person in an organised aim and styles. Adjustment is not merely a particular response of a part of the personality system but is an adjustive reaction of the whole person to demands made upon the individual.

It appears from our discussion that we cannot think of personality without reference to patterns of adjustment and its effectiveness and viceversa.

COPING WITH DEMANDS:

The psychological study of adjustment usually emphasizes on two kinds of demands. One is internal arising from the biological make up of the person. The other is external, some arising from the physical environment and others from social living. The environment also serves as a resource for the person. The psychological impact of external demands depend on the biological and psychological properties of the person and the nature of adjustive commerce that the person is having with the environment. Some adjustive emotional reactions to these pressures of demands is built into the nervous system of the species and did not depend on learning. Such built-in adjustive reactions is inadequate in adult humans. From adolescence onward the adjustive emotional reaction to demands or environmental stimuli is modified through the individual's experience with the world and through learning.
If adjustment were essentially a matter of problem solving, it would entail only intellectual processes and learning since birth. However, this is not the complete picture. In adjustment activity, strong emotions, particularly the stress emotions such as anger, fear, anxiety, guilt and shame are also generated in solving problems. It appears mostly when the environmental demands and opportunities involve high stakes and entail frustration, threat and conflict. Ultimately it leads to products of stress, including ineffective solution to problems of living, irrational and disturbed pattern of behaviour, subjective distress and bodily diseases. It happens more in adolescence because their emotions and other mental conditions are very strong.

**STRESS**

Stress results when there are demands on the person which tax or exceed his adjustment resources. These stresses are of two types - physical and psychological stressors. There are marked variations in experience of an reaction to stress. Wolff, Friedman, et al in (1964) experimentally studied the variation in reaction to stress by assessing the secretion of adrenalin in the blood on two groups of parents exposed to their dying child suffering from leukemia.

Most psychological stressors contain elements of both frustration and threat. There is a line of demarcation between frustration and threat. Frustration means harm has already occurred
to the person and threat means the anticipation of harm. Both frustra-
tion and threat are mixed together in life situations. Frustra-
tion requires corrective action whereas threat requires preventive
action.

CONFLICTS:

Conflict is a concept in adjustment because it makes
threat or frustration inevitable, as it is designed to satisfy one
goal which necessarily threatened or frustrated the other. Con-
flict poses problems especially in adolescence when the needs,
motives or external demands involved are strong. One's ability of
adaptation depend on the way in which threat and frustration resul-
ting from conflict are handled. It is evident that there are three
causes of conflict -

1 Internal needs or motives are in opposition,
2 External demands are incompatible, and
3 An internal need or motive opposes an external demand.

These causes of conflict are strongly reflected in ado-
lescents. Toffler in (1970) stated when the culture is chan-
ging rapidly as seems to be the case today, this sort of conflict
is even more likely. Effective living depends on mastering the
threat and frustration produced by conflict occurring throughout
life.

THREAT APPRAISAL:

The environmental condition and the personality of the
individual can give rise to conditions that lead to threat appraisal, i.e. push a person to appraise a situation as threatening or harmful, or as involving conflict. The more severe a stressor, the more uniform will be the threat reactions in most people. In the milder situations of stress, the resultant harm or threat is found in different degrees and for different reasons depending on the motivational pattern of the individual. Personality traits like the pattern of motivation of the individual and general beliefs about the environment and one's capacity to counteract it are important influence on threat appraisal. These different belief systems are based on life experiences. From what life experiences they originate is an important question.

**ANXIETY**

Anxiety is another important stress emotions. It plays a strategic role in theories of adjustment and maladjustment. It is at the toot of human misery and adjustive failure. Anxiety arises when harm is anticipated, when the harm (or the coping required by it) is ambiguous, and when that harm tends to be symbolic rather than concrete (as in fright) and concerns a central feature of the person's identity or self. Life stress can result in maladjusted behaviour, but it sometimes also mobilizes highly effective forms of adjustment. Ultimately adequacy of efforts to master stressful commerce with the environment bears the chief responsibility for the adequacy of adjustment.
When the stressor is evident to a person he uses all his resources to face it, he is always in trouble unless and until he does something to neutralize it. This coping with the situation is considered as a form of problem solving in which the stakes are the person's well-being. There are two broad classes of coping, direct action and palliation.

**DIRECT ACTION AND PALLIATION**

Direct action is related to behavioural effort of the person to deal with harm, threat or challenge by altering his trouble relationship with the environment. Palliation is directed to reduce, eliminate or tolerate the distress of a stress emotion, once it has been aroused by troubled commerce with the environment.

Sometimes when the individual cannot identify the harmful agent then another harmful agent may be construed by him or the responsibility may be shifted from the real source of harm to another object what is called "the scapegoat". This shifting process is a defense mechanism and is known as 'displacement'.

In some situations, persons feel that they cannot prevent or overcome the harmful agent of the threatening situations. Then they have no impulse to attack or avoid the harm and resort to inaction. This inaction because of the absence of alternatives is referred to as apathy, depression and despair. Normally, such apathy eventually give way to renewed efforts to cope.
The palliative modes of coping include somatic-oriented efforts to ease bodily and subjective distress, generally by alcohol or other drugs, and intrapsychic modes of coping typically referred to as defense mechanisms. It originated in one's unconscious mind to deceive himself from the presence of threatening impulses. In this, threat is reduced only in the mind of the individual not in reality. This view was put forward by Freud in 1943\textsuperscript{22}. Goffman (1959)\textsuperscript{23} and Berne (1964)\textsuperscript{24} viewed that these psychological defences may exist in full awareness of the person but it is very hard to evaluate by asking the person. Some of the main defences are identification, displacement, repression, denial, reaction formation, projection and intellectualization. These defence mechanisms do not tell us precisely the conditions under which each defence will occur, but they have one primary function of protecting the person against threat regardless of the source of the threat.

Defences are recognised by noting contradictions between what the person says at one time and another, between verbal statements and actions, or between situational demands and the way the person responds to them. They are inferences from the total pattern of behaviours (including bodily reactions) of the person in a given situation.

Defense varies in degree of success. Defensive self-deception can sometimes be fully accepted or believed in by the person engaged in defensive effort and sometimes only partly accepted; it may succeed some of the time but fail at other times. Com-
pletely successful defense is referred to as "well consolidated" where disturbances of reaction is absent.

A defense may be successful yet be considered maladjustive or negative. Success refers to whether or not the self deception is convincing to the person, whereas its "positive and negative consequences" refer to whether it aids or harms him in transaction with the environment. The product of successful defense is the psychological comfort. It may be achieved at the expense of other failures in getting along which are sometimes evident only later on.

Defenses are often regarded as pathological or maladjustive. It is because of its assertion that psychological ill health is in direct proportion to the frequency with which a person employs defensive as opposed to non defensive solutions to threats. Sometimes defenses can have positive consequences and be healthy. Psychopathology should be linked to the maladjustive consequences of the defense, when there are any. An independent evaluation of defensive or nondefensive coping process is necessary in knowing adjustive and maladjustive consequences. The individuals who defend against threat are vulnerable to any cue.

**STRESS AND BODILY ILLNESS**

Stress leads to most of the bodily illness as well as disturbances in the ways people manage the task of living (maladjustment). Most of abnormal symptoms are stress connected. The link between the psychological problem and bodily illness is called
psychosomatic disorders, stress disorders, diseases of adaptation and psychophysiological disorders. These imply that the problem which begins at the psychological level leads to disturbances in the normal functions of the organs of the body.

It appears that emotional disturbance is the root cause of psychosomatic disturbance (Wright 1961). As emotion is connected with and controlled by the central nervous system and endocrines, so emotion alters their functions. The neural control of emotions are found in the reticular formation of the brain system, the hypothalamus, the limbic system and the cerebral cortex (Wright 1961). The cerebral cortex is responsible for evaluating the significance of events, anticipation of future and choosing between coping alternatives.

The limbic areas of the brain is concerned with regulation of emotional and motivational states in accordance with feedback from the environment. The essential difference between the hypothalamus and limbic areas is that hypothalamus is involved in the integration of emotional expressions whereas limbic system is believed to be critically involved in the experience of emotion and in its integration with environmental inputs.

Hypothalamus integrates the various autonomic and somatic reactions that are noted in emotional states. Autonomic nervous system consists of sympathetic and parasympathetic components. Stimulation of the sympathetic nerves produce widespread reaction in the body. Stimulation of parasympathetic system produces reactions only in respective organ. When we are moved by emotion, the reaction
is not specific to particular bodily organ but tends to spread all over the body involving all autonomic organs.

Though the sympathetic supply is diffused out it has its pattern of innervation as we see reactions of the organs in fear is different from the reactions of anger. Both are sympathetic nervous system reactions. The antagonistic actions of the sympathetic and parasympathetic system make possible of the regulation of the internal milieu of the body. This regulation maintains an optimal level or the homeostosis inspite of various external or internal demands (Wright 1961)\textsuperscript{27}.

Sternbach in (1966, pp 23-24)\textsuperscript{28} stated a person can live without an autonomic system, but to make up for the lack of internal compensators he would require a very constant and benign external environment with moderate temperature, minimal threat and so forth.

**BIOCHEMICAL CONTROL OF EMOTION**

The nervous system is one of the basis of regulation and control of adjustive behaviour. There is biochemical control as well. Biochemical substances are necessary to control speed and directions of nerve impulses at synapses. These biochemical substances secreted at the nerve endings control the activities of organs and glands. The biochemical control of the adjustive behaviour is seen in the hormones secreted by the endocrine glands. These are particularly relevant in emotional states.
All the endocrine glands are regulated by the 'master gland' the pituitary (Wright 1961). The adrenal gland has different hormones. One of them is corticosteroid. It is responsible for metabolic activities. Thus it plays an important role in enabling the animal to remain mobilized over long periods against chronic stresses when sustaining coping activities are required. Psychologists often assess stress reactions by measuring the amount of corticosteroid and other hormones secreted by the adrenal gland in the blood or excreted in the urine.

The inner part of the adrenal gland known as medulla secretes two hormones, adrenalin and non-adrenalin. They are associated with different emotional reactions, usually adrenalin is with fear and non-adrenalin is associated with anger. There is overlap between the effects of autonomic nervous system activities and those of adrenal hormones. Both of them work in emotional states. Adrenalin seems to prolong many of the reactions set in motion by autonomic nerves. It is experienced that even after adjusted crisis the disturbed bodily state seems to continue for a while even after the danger has passed away i.e. the person remains excited. It is due to hormones in the blood which needs some time to dissipate.

There is relation between the emotions and bodily changes and there is a link to illness also. The brain sends neural influences on to interrelated systems; the endocrine and autonomic nervous system. On the other hand these two systems operate on the internal environment i.e. visceral organs like heart, digestive
tract etc. maintaining a condition of homeostasis. When these are
thrown out of good condition, illness appears to be a consequence.

This way the skeletal muscles are brought into actions
in the adjustment called for by the external environment, for ex-
ample, when we escape or attack danger.

It is quite unclear how much stress is damaging; some
stress is clearly necessary and even advantageous.

It is realized that there is definite distinction be-
 tween the severity of the external demands on the person as judged
by others and the ways in which the individual person appraises
the troubled commerce he is having with the environment. So Seve-
 rity of the stress cannot depend entirely on what is happening
outside the person but must also take into account of factors wi-
thin the person, which determine whether he will feel injured,
threatened, challenged, or satisfied by that adjustment commerce.

The most influential work on adrenal stress physiology
is that of Hans Selye 30. He postulated the theory known as Gen-
real Adaptation Syndrome responsible for universal defensive re-
action of the body to any kind of assault or noxious stimulation.
If maintained too long or too intensely, the G. A. S. also results
in diseases of adaptation or stress disorders; in effect the
defense or the "cure" also become the basis of another disease;
resulting in bodily exhaustion and death, Thus for Selye a stress
disorder comes about because of the severity of body's defensive
response to noxious stimulation, from this point individual diffe-
rences in stress disorders arise from genetic constitutional diffe-
rence in organ vulnerability to the ravages of the G. A. S.
Some researchers are critical on Selye's view, as these adaptation reactions are somewhat dependent on the psychological state of the person.

**ADJUSTIVE FAILURE**

Outcomes of the struggle to adjust may be adjustive failure which is the subject matter of abnormal psychology or healthy personality, namely, successful living. Adjustive failure manifests itself in a wide variety of types and degrees. In 1907, the German psychiatrist Emil Kraepelin devised a classification of adjustive failure. This classification depends on the patterns of "symptoms" troubled people displayed. Gradually a major distinction is made between organic and functional mental disorders.

Organic disorder is impairment in adjustment due to injury to the tissues of the brain or of malfunctioning of the biochemical substances on whose operation these tissues depend. These organic changes may be due to brain damage from injury, different infective diseases, poisons, alcohol, aging and hereditary defects resulting in disturbances in adjustive behaviour. The mental changes depend on the location of the brain tissue damage. Typically, such patients show disturbances of memory, perception and thought, sometimes mild, sometimes severe and incapacitating, as in the organic psychoses.

Functional disorder is a disturbance of adjustment that has not been traced to diseases of the brain, though physiologically oriented clinicians tend to assume that brain damage or
malfunctions as yet undiscovered are implicated causally in all or some forms, for example the psychoses such as schizophrenia. The functional disorders are defined as the disorders of social living stemming from faulty learning or failure to have acquired adequate patterns of coping with life stresses. These are regrouped under the following - psychoses, neurosis, personality disorders, psychosomatic disorders and temporary episode of life crises.

THE HEALTHY PERSONALITY:

The opposite of adjustive failure is successful living of healthy personality. Views on healthy personality have been put forward by different authors.

One group of average or ordinary persons called homoclites is characterised by benign, relatively unconflict-laden attitude and the absence of strong ambition and dissatisfaction. Grinker's study on this group of homoclites are one version of the healthy personality.

Another group study on Mercury astronauts regarded mental health as the ability to function effectively under certain kinds of stress (George E. Ruff, 1964, and Ruff and Korchin 1964). They said nothing about how the astronauts fare on such things as altruism and love, spontaneity, spiritual experience, intimacy, creativity and resistance to conformity, the latter being some of the qualities emphasised by other writers (e.g. Maslow 1954).

Different authors like Silber and his associates (1961) Coelho and his associates (1963) carried out research work on
an adolescent group of students on the concept of competence as health of their adjustive efforts of anticipating and handling the transition from high school to college.

Later studies of youthful rebellion offer still another view of healthy adaptation not as benign conformity and the absence of struggle but as creative striving and even rebelliousness against social evils.

Kenniston (1965)\textsuperscript{37} identified one rebellion group as uncommitted; again in 1968\textsuperscript{38} he distinguished the other group as committed. The uncommitted group has poor relationship with their parents and society and reject parental values. They have been also referred to as "obsolete youth" (Bettelheim 1969)\textsuperscript{39} and as disillusioned, despairing without a social identity (Adler 1970)\textsuperscript{40}.

On the other hand the committed rebellious youths maintain positive relationship with their parents and respect their values while rejecting social injustice and have an idealism about improving the lot of mankind.

According to Smith (1961)\textsuperscript{41} most of the views about mental health cannot be agreed upon because some psychologists try to introduce and emphasise his own values and preferences. Jahoda (1955)\textsuperscript{42} gave greater weight to the cognitive values of accurate perception and self knowledge. Allport (1960)\textsuperscript{43} emphasised moral values, meaningful commitment and social responsibility.
Some writers view mental health as a collection of unrelated traits. Jahoda (1958) has suggested that mental health possesses some distinguishing characteristics.

Smith (1961) remarks that mental health should not be studied as an entity but as a rubric, a topic heading within which there are a number of desirable and undesirable traits, each of which contribute to successful living.

Whereas Erikson (1963) says that the psychological integration and health is an unified or integrated system of mental health because he regards the resolution of each earlier stage as crucial to the healthy resolution of the later ones. The state of health for him includes a unified state of traits. Therefore, Erikson's view on mental health is ego identity. One's sense of identity begins to become established as childhood comes to an end during puberty and as youth begins. During this time adolescents are "primarily concerned with attempts at consolidating their social roles", finding themselves as biological and social beings.

Erikson's egoconcept is that individuals with a well developed ego identity know who they are and where they are going and have an inner assurance that they will be recognised and accepted by those who count.

In whatever way we ultimately view health and illness a large component of valuation exists in it. The values we adopt about illness and health are always embedded in the culture in
which we live and this tends to vary from culture to culture and from time to time which is referred to as cultural relativism.

There are social class differences in outlook toward health and psychopathology, with middle class persons and professionals treating health as the opposite of being crazy or insane. People often ask whether some societies are healthier or more sick than others.

For adequate understanding of mental health we are to consider opportunities for full realization of human potentialities and the environmental conditions in different societies, in different places and in different persons. We need a relative standard of health as well as an ideal standard. Some people can withstand the extremely traumatizing or stressful conditions of life. It is fortunate that the person's past and present factors contribute to be highly resourceful and resilient in the face of life stress.

Having described and classified adaptive success and failures we now seek explanations through two interdependent ways:

First, theory about mechanisms or processes involved in the diverse patterns of adjustment.

Second, identification of the causal factors or conditions in people's lives that account for such patterns.

In the late 19th century psychologists using the guiding philosophy of natural science began to search for the biological and social causation of mental illness. The three main theoretical models of failure and success in use today are, (1) the medical-biological explanations, (2) the sociogenic model, and (3) the psychogenic model, wherein one supplements the other.
The medical biological model sees the root cause of adjustment failure as diseases of the body's tissues, mainly the brain. Such diseases are usually due to injury, infection, stress induced disruption of hormonal activities and so forth. One of the most important assumptions of the medical biological model is that hereditary or genetic factors are implicated in many mental illnesses.

Kallmann (1956) has claimed to have demonstrated a strong genetic influence in mental illnesses. It is highly probable that genes play a crucial part in determining a disposition to abnormal behaviour of many varieties. Most of the geneticists believe that some factors are inherited which predispose an individual to be particularly vulnerable to damaging life experiences. It was supported by Meehl (1962).

Besides these factors, environment too has a strong link with hereditary to produce mental disorder. Hereditary and environment conditions are in continuous interplay in the productions of every physical or psychological trait.

The sociogenic approach looks to the sociocultural history of the person and his current life stress in order to understand the pattern of adjustment. This approach includes both sociology and psychology. It also focuses on the significance for adjustment of the ways in which social institutions and culture affect large groups.
Spiro (1959) maintained that the incidence of psychopathology in any society is a function, not merely of the strains produced by its culture, but also of the institutional means which its cultural heritage provides for the resolution of strain. The socio-cultural variables as family and community organization, rapid sociocultural changes, migration, population pressure, and political events are undoubtedly related to the etiology of mental illness.

Hollingshead and Redlich (1958) studied the problem of relationship between social class and maladjustment; and found a definite association between social class and mental illness. Lower class define their problems physically and externally and feel powerless to change the situation. In contrast the higher class tended to see their difficulties more psychologically i.e., as related to interpersonal and intrapersonal defects. They, therefore, readily seek and obtain professional help.

Although a substantial relationship exists between cultural factors, social class and maladjustment, the sociogenic model of mental illness is seriously incomplete. Its main lack is that it treats people as members of large social groups and ignores the great individual variation among them.

The other approach is psychogenic model for adjustive failure. It is concerned on the individual, such as the individual's social history, the way the individual has been reared, the influence to which they were subjected in growing up and the special experiences that have shaped psychological development. The psycho-
genic model includes three categories for its study.

First, correlational and experimental research is designed to find factors in early life or in the child's present family environment that are especially important in shaping personality characteristics.

Second, research approach makes use of retrospective life history data based on interviews and societal records. This was extensively studied by Eysenck, Eysenck (1959) and Watt (1970). The third approach is the longitudinal research which requires the study of given individuals over time.

THE CRUCIAL STAGE :

Although an adaptive crisis can occur at any time in a person's life as a result of events, the years between 12 and 15 or 16 of early adolescence are a period of crucial adjustments. As it is a time at which the growing child experiences a similar course of biological and psychological development and faces many difficult problems with limited experience and often with limited social support, such disturbances of adjustments are more common.

Adolescence now is though not regarded as a "storm and stress" but it definitely is a disturbed period of life. Freud and his followers, in early twentieth century put forward the reasons of adolescent's turbulent behaviour as due to physiological changes and to coping with the transition to full adult sexuality.

Bandura in 1964 expressed that this turmoil is more apparent than real. He summarised that by the time boys reached adolescence they had already internalised their parents' values and standards of behaviour. He indicated that human sexuality is more
profoundly influenced by social conditioning than by any physiological imperatives. Adolescents hardly need any parental control as by that time they were encouraged to be independent. The findings of Bandura's research was criticized because it dealt only with boys and that too from a homogeneous environment.

Most psychology researchers wrongly estimate the adolescents capability to cope with emotional demands. The over or under estimation of the situation is caused by the fact that the same adult mental health measuring standard is also used in the case of adolescents. However Lazarus says that the presence of many new and difficult problems and an intense emotional response to them indicate the presence of adjutive crisis common at this stage. If the crisis is not resolved, it may result in maladjustment.

**ADOLESCENT PEER RELATIONSHIP**

The importance of peer relationship during adolescence is a significant aspect of adjustment. Peer relationships ease the transition from one stage of life to another.

When the family or kinship unit by itself, cannot assure full attainment of social status on the part of its members the adolescents tend to coalesce in peer groups for development of identity, attainment of personal autonomy, and effective transition into the adult world. (S. N. Eisenstadt, 1956). Initially the group is the unisexual clique.

In the process of managing and experiencing life circumstances, the growing children feel isolated and helpless, a situa-
tion that Fromm (1941) saw as a distinctively human. At that period when there is reemergency of dependency, pronounced feeling of insecurity and a strong inherent need to express his individuality, the need for friends similar to adolescent himself is very great. These friends help him to survive in his social physical environment. Much if not most of his personal inadequacies and psychological deficiencies that hamper adjustment can be improved through good interpersonal peer relations.

Cole and Hall stated adolescence friendship is made on the basis of factors of propinquity and common membership in various groups which is why their friends are limited. He said friendships are made on the basis of similar and dissimilar traits and also where weaknesses and strength of the two friends complement each other. K. D. McGuire and J. R. Weisz stated that previous research on friendship has involved measures that actually gauge their popularity but authors in their study attempted to distinguish behavioural correlates of friendships from correlates of popularity.

Berndt, Thomas (1982) studied the features and effects of friendship in early adolescence and found that the early adolescent friendships have been assumed to be especially intense and significant for psychological development. Intimacy of friendship increases in the early adolescence.

They try to achieve the mutually satisfying outcome of equality. The stability of friendship is often more intimate in girls than in boys. The feature of early adolescent friendships
appear to be determined partly by biological, social and cognitive changes during this period of life. Few other features were marked that friendship is made independent of influence of parents, girls like to converse amongst acquainted friends whereas boys have no hesitation to include new friends.

Though it is said to be discontinuities of socialization from adolescent stage to adulthood, Frederick, Elkin and William Westly (1955) commented that young people are well integrated into adult society and accept of their parent's dicta.

Gary Schwartz and Don Merten (1967) expressed that the existence of adolescent subculture group helps in understanding the evaluative standards, world views and life styles of youth culture. It also said that it is a partial rather than a total or comprehensive way of life. Bettelheim and Bruno (1950) forwarded the view that the peer groups of adolescents are more influential in the formation of character than is the entire age group.

Since all of the peer group know and react to each other, reputation ratings by the entire group has been used as the most stable measure of moral and social peer reputation. Though family influence is important factor in character formation, on the contrary, particularly in the case of some children from chaotic, unloving families, it seems probable that the peer group might have been used, under the skillful guidance of interested adults as a treatment agency to change their character.
Ladd and eden (1979)63; White and Watt (1973)64 showed in their study that the development of peer acceptance is partly a function of skillful social behaviours among peers.

**DIFFERENT FACTORS THAT GO INTO THE FORMATION OF ADOLESCENT PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOUR**

Self-evaluation and social comparison are both important in construction of adolescent personality development. The tendency to evaluate the self and the yearning to transform dissatisfactory features of the self are considered normal characteristics of the adolescent period, (Douvan and Gold, 1966)65. Similarly social comparison with peers is typical of adolescents for whom the peer group provided a source of norms and values for appropriate appearance, behaviour and social activities (Amesbel, Montemeyer, and Svajian 197766; Coleman 1980)67.

Aggression and social withdrawal represent fundamental dimensions of adult rated deviant behaviour in children (Achenbach and Edelbrock, 197868; Guay, 197969). However, the need for research in children's perceptions of aggression and withdrawal in their peers is compelling because of the increasing use of peers as assessors of childhood deviance (e.g. Ledingham, 198170; Weintraub, Prinz, and Neale 197871). Existing peer assessment instruments and adult rating measures are equivalent in their focus on the dimensions of childhood aggression and withdrawal. This implies the meaning of these dimensions for and adult raters are equivalent. However, the terms aggression and withdrawal are not so well defined for children as they are for adults (Ledingham, 198172;
Mitchell, 1956; Ruberstein, Fisher and Iker, 1975). Young children are able to discriminate socially unacceptable from socially desirable behaviour in general but may be less capable of using additional criteria to identify more specific types of deviant behaviour in their peers.

Alastair J. Younger and Alex E. Schwartzman and Jane E. Ledingham (1985) reported that with increasing age, aggression and withdrawal become increasingly distinct categories underlying children's ratings though aggression appears to represent a well defined category of deviant behaviours for children at all ages.

Lynn F. Miller (1985) in his article Individual Differences in Attitudinal vs Normative Determination of Behaviour predicted that individuals who are both aware of their own attitudes and unconcerned about the opinions of others would display high attitude behaviour correspondence. In contrast individual with other combination of these traits were expected to display high norm behaviour correspondence. Barenbom; Carl (1977) in their article Developmental Changes in the Interpersonal Cognitive System from Middle childhood to Adolescence found that interpersonal products of the concrete operational period are themselves organized and integrated during adolescence and are result of this process is the formation of an implicit personality theory.

Piotrokowski, Chaya S, and Katz, Mitchell H. (1982) in the article "Indirect Socialization of Children. The effects of Mother's Jobs on Academic Behaviour" showed that parents enco-
Uraged in their children these behaviours they view as adaptive in their own occupational settings.

Leahe, Rolf (1962) studied the stability of antisocial and delinquent child behaviour. He reviewed that children who initially display high rates of antisocial behaviour are more likely to persist in this behaviour than children who initially show lower rates of antisocial behaviour.

The social structure of adolescent peer groups demands that members should conform to group standards. Therefore, the basic consensus of values which result is a major factor in the formation of adolescent peer group. The group would be a cohesive entity capable of controlling the behaviour of those in it in the interest of the dominant majority.

In the next few pages the author presents the framework of a conceptual model using an Integrated Systems Approach and finally develops a Rating Model for peer evaluation. The use of the Delphi Technique in converging onto the Determinants of Peer Evaluation is also shown by presenting actual results from the various experiments conducted.
FIG 1.2 AN INTEGRATED SYSTEMS APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOUR