CHAPTER- 1
INTRODUCTION
CHAPTER- I
INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction
2. Adolescent
3. Biological Views of Adolescence
   3.1 Hall and Recapitulation Theory
   3.2 Arnold Gesell : Spiral growth Patterns
4. Psychoanalytical Views of Adolescence
   4.1 Sigmund Freud
5. Societal Influences on the Adolescent
   5.1 Technological and Social Change
   5.2 Urbanization
   5.3 Materialism and Poverty
   5.4 Mass Communications
   5.5 Social and Emotional Stress
   5.6 Life Events and Stress
6. Maturity
   6.1 Nature of maturity
7. Emotional Maturity
   7.1 Genesis of Emotional Disturbances
8. Social Competence
9. Personality
   9.1 Personality theory’s four components
   9.2 The behavioural view of personality
   9.3 Personality types versus personality trait dimensions
   9.4 Defining the fundamental traits of personality
10. Assessment in Adler’s Theory
CHAPTER - I
INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction:

The most urgent problem of our society today are the problems we have made for ourselves. Miller et al (1971) in recent years have made it clear, that the most perplexing problems faced, are social problems whose solution will require us to change our behaviour and our social institutions. Our World war, urbanization and population explosion. The Family, which is the basic unit of society, has also undergone many changes which in turn has influenced the development of personality.

Personality is shaped by inborn potential as modified by experiences common to the cultural group (Such as sex roles) and by the unique experiences that affect the person as an individual. The psychological position of a person in the family, resulting from his order of birth, affects his self-concept. The direct effect comes from the role the person is expected to play in the home and what different family members expect of him. When children are unable to conform to parental expectations, they often become anxious, resentful and rebellious. These effects and differences are not pronounced in adolescence. Recent studies agree that the only child develops a distinctive personality pattern. This is often called the "only child syndrome". Evidence show that only children are more dominant than those with siblings; however, they more often show superior characteristics and leadership qualities (Guilford and Worcester, 1930). The parents who do not understand the difficulty involved, the fact of being an only child incurs the danger of becoming individualistic and egocentric (Stott, 1939).

Two normal personality syndromes have been found to be characteristic of the only child. The personality syndrome of the overprotected only child includes the characteristic traits of selfishness, self centeredness, lack of cooperation, dependency on parents and teachers, chronic homesickness.
and feelings of inadequacy in social situations, shown in shyness and withdrawal of aggressive attention-seeking behaviour (Allport, 1961; Bossard and Boll, 1966). By contrast, only children whose home environment is more wholesome develop a personality syndrome characterized by self-confidence, slightly above average aggressiveness, independence, responsibility; gregariousness and cooperativeness. Such children not only make good social adjustment but often assume leadership roles among their peers (Bossard and B’oll, 1966).

2. Adolescent:

The word adolescence comes from the Latin verb adolescere, which means “to grow” or “to grow to maturity” (Golinko 1984). It is as a period of growth between childhood and adulthood (deBrun, 1981). There is a general disagreement about when it begins and ends, especially because the period has been prolonged in Western culture. For most people, adolescence is an intermediate stage between being a child and being an adult (Matter, 1984). The transition from one stage to the other gradual and uncertain: the beginning and the end are somewhat blurred and the time span is not the same for every person, but most adolescents eventually become mature adults. In this sense, adolescence is linked to a bridge between childhood and adulthood over which individuals must pass before they are to take their places as mature, responsible, creative adults.

3. Biological Views of Adolescence:

A strictly biological view of adolescence would emphasize this period as one of physical and sexual maturation during which important growth changes take place in the child's body. Any biological definition would outline in detail these physical, sexual and physiological changes; their reasons (when known): and their consequences.

This biological view would also emphasize biogenetic factors as the primary cause of any behavioural and psychological change in the adolescent. Growth and behaviour are under the control of internal maturational forces,
leaving little room for environmental influences. Development occurs in an almost inevitable, universal pattern, regardless of sociocultural environment.

3.1 Hall and Recapitulation Theory:

One of the most influential exponents of a biological theory was G. Stanley Hall (1946-1924), the first Ph.D. in psychology in the United States and the founder of the child-study movement in North America. He was the first to advance a psychology of adolescence in his two-volume treatise on the subject (Hall, 1904). According to Hall, during its development, each human organism relives each of the stages that occurred in human evolutionary development. He outlined four major stages: infancy (first four years), during which the child reenacts the animal stage of development; childhood (five to seven), which corresponds to the cavedwelling and hunting-fishing epoch of human history (Because this is a time the child plays hide and seek, cowboys and Indians and uses toy weapons); youth (eight to twelve), the preadolescent stage of development during which the child recapitulates the life of savagery but is predisposed to learn to read, write, draw, manipulate numbers and to learn languages, manual training, music and other subjects through routine practice and discipline; and puberty (thirteen to twenty-four), the period of adolescence.

Hall described adolescence as the period corresponding to the time when the human race was in a turbulent, transitional stage, a time of great "storm and stress." Like some theorists today, Hall said that puberty is a time of great upset, emotional maladjustment and instability in which the adolescent's moods oscillate between energy and indifference, gravity and depression, or egotism and bashfulness. The end of adolescence marks a new birth in which higher, more completely human traits are born a time corresponding to the beginning of modern civilization.

Hall's views exerted a marked influence upon the study of adolescence for many years (Hall and Lindzay, 1970). Because the theory held that
development was controlled from within, parents were cautioned not to interfere but to let the child pass from one stage to the other. Such a view was comforting to parents who found their children difficult at one stage; they always had the hope that the next stage would be better. One difficulty was that serious, abnormal disturbances at adolescence were sometimes accepted as normal.

Hall's view of adolescence has since been severely criticized on a number of points: (1) his biological, genetic explanation of behaviour allows no room for the role of environment; (2) he felt that behaviour at each stage is universal, unchangeable and predisposed by biological drives a tenet since refuted by cultural anthropologists; (3) he felt parents must be permissive and tolerate socially unacceptable behaviour during the various stage of development; and (4) he point that also has been refuted by demonstrations that adolescence in some cultures is not at all stormy. Even in our culture, current evidence suggests that the rate of emotional disturbance among adolescents does not differ significantly from that of the population at large (Ellis 1979). (See the section on anthropological views). In spite of criticisms of his theory, Hall's influence is still felt in some circles today.

3.2 Arnold Gesell: Spiral growth Patterns:

Gesell (1880-1961) is known for observations of human development from birth to adolescence that he and his staff made at the Yale Clinic Development and later at the Gesell Institute of Child Development. His best-known book on adolescence is Youth: The years from ten to sixteen (Gesell and Ames, 1956).

Gesell was interested mainly in the behavioural manifestations of development and personality. He observed the actions and behaviour of children and youths at different ages and constructed descriptive summaries of growth gradients grouped in stages and cycles of development. In his
summaries he described what he felt were the norms of behaviour in their chronological sequence.

Several explanations, implication and criticism need to be discussed for an understanding of Gesell’s theory. It is essentially a biologically oriented theory, for maturation is mediated by genes and biology that determine the order of appearance of behavioural traits and developmental trends. Thus, abilities and skills appear without the influence of special training or practice.

This concept implies a sort of biological determinism that prevents teachers and parents from doing anything to influence development. Because maturation is regarded as a natural ripening process, it is assumed that time alone will solve most of the minor problems that arise in raising children. Difficulties and deviations will be outgrown, so parents are advised against emotional methods of discipline (Gesell and Ames, 1956).

Gesell did try to allow for individual differences, accepting that each child is born unique, with his or her own “genetic factors or individual constitution and innate maturation sequences” (Gesell and Ames, 1956,). But the emphasized that “acculturation can never transcend maturation” because maturation is of primary importance. In spite of accepting individual differences and the influence of environment of individual development, he nevertheless considered many of the principles, trends and sequences to be universal among humans. This concept partly contradicts the findings of cultural anthropology and social and educational psychology, which emphasize significant, culturally determined individual differences (Gesell and Ames, 1956.).

Gesell tries to emphasize that changes are gradual and overlap, but his description often indicate profound and sudden changes from one age to the next. He emphasized also that development is not only upward but also spiral, characterized by both upward and downward gradients that cause some repartition at different ages. Thus, freckles are evident at
both sixteen and twelve; both the eleven-and fifteen-year-old are rebellious and quarrelsome, whereas the twelve and sixteen-year-old are fairly stable.

One of the chief criticisms of Gesell's work concerns his sample. He drew his conclusions from boys and girls of favourable socioeconomic status, of a high to superior level of school population in New Haven, Connecticut. He contended that such a homogeneous sample would not to sales generalizations. However, even when only physical factors are considered, children differ so greatly in the level and timing of growth that it is difficult to establish norms for any age level. Nevertheless, Gesell's books have been used by thousands of parents and exerted tremendous influence on child-rearing practices during the 1940s and 1950s. The books were considered the “child-development bibles” for many students and teachers during these years.

4. Psychoanalytical Views of Adolescence:

4.1 Sigmund Freud:

Freud (1956-1939) was not much involved with theories on adolescence, for he considered the early years of a child's life to be the formative ones. But he did deal briefly with adolescence in his Three Essays on the Theory of Sexuality (Freud, 1953). He described adolescence as a period of sexual excitement, anxiety and sometime personality disturbance. According to Freud, puberty is the culmination of a series of changes destined to give infantile sexual life its final, normal form. During the period of infancy, when pleasure is linked with oral activities (Oral stage), children employ a sexual object outside their own bodies: their mother's breasts. From this object they derive physical satisfaction, warmth, pleasure and security. While the mother feeds her infant, she also cuddles, caresses, kisses and rocks them.

Gradually children's pleasures become autoerotic; that is they begin to derive pleasure and satisfaction from activities that they can carry on by
themselves. As they give up sucking at their mother's breasts, they find they can still derive pleasure from oral activities in which they can engage without the need of their mother. They learn to feed themselves, for example. Later, much concern and pleasure centers around anal activities and elimination (the anal stage, around age two to three). This period is followed by a developing interest in their own bodies and in the examination of their sex organs during the phallic stage (ages four, five) of development.

During the next stage, which Freud termed the Period of latency (roughly from six years of age to puberty), children's sexual interests are not as intense and they continue to relate to other people who help them and who satisfy their needs for love. Their source of pleasure gradually shifts from self to other persons. They become more interested in cultivating the friendship of others, especially those of the same sex.

At puberty (the genital stage) this process of "object finding" is brought to completion. Along with maturation of the external and internal sexual organs comes a strong desire for resolution of the sexual tension that follows. This resolution demands a love object; therefore, Freud theorizes, adolescents are drawn to a member of the opposite sex who can resolve their tensions.

Freud stresses that the sexual aim of the adolescent is different from that of the child. The child seeks physical pleasure and psychic satisfaction through bodily contact and the stimulation of the erotogenic zones and the pleasure derived becomes an end in itself. But at the onset of adolescence, the sexual aim changes. Now the aim is not only for erotogenic stimulation (which Freud calls fore-pleasure) but also for orgiastic satisfaction. The sexual stimulation of the erotogenic zones of the body is no longer an end in itself but a preparation for the greater satisfaction of orgasm in intercourse.

Fore-pleasure is thus the same pleasure that has already been produced, although on a smaller scale, by the infantile sexual instinct; end-pleasure is something new. The formula for the new function of the
erotogenic zones therefore: they are used to make possible, through the medium of the fore-pleasure which can be derived from them (as it was during infantile life), the production of the greater pleasure of satisfaction. (Freud, 1953,).

Freud also writes of the pleasure of orgasm:

This last pleasure is the highest in intensity, and its mechanism differs from that of the earlier pleasure. It is brought about entirely by discharge; it is wholly a pleasure of satisfaction and with it the tension of the libido is for the time being extinguished (Freud, 1953,).

Freud emphasizes two important elements of the sexual aim at adolescence, and with these some differences between men and women. One element is physical and sensual. In men this aim consists of the desire to produce sexual products, accompanied by physical pleasure. In women the desire for physical satisfaction and the release of sexual tension is still there but without the discharge of physical products. This desire in women is historically more repressed than in men, for the inhibitions to sexuality (shame, disgust and so on) are developed earlier and more intensely in girls than in boys. However, there is a physical element to sexual desire in both men and women.

The second element of the sexual aim at adolescence is psychic; it is the affectionate component, which is more pronounced in females and which is similar to the infant’s expression of sexuality. In other words the adolescent desires emotional satisfaction as well as physical release. This need for affection is especially prevalent in females, but satisfying the need is an important goal of all adolescent sexual striving. Freud would also emphasize that a normal sexual life is assured only when there is a convergence of the affectionate and the sensual currents, both being directed toward the sexual object and sexual aim. The desire for true affection and for the release of sexual tension combined are the underlying normal needs that motivate the individual to seek out a love object.
An important part of the maturing process at adolescence is the loosening of the child's emotional ties with directed toward their parents, with the son being drawn toward his mother and the daughter toward her father. Freus also speaks of a second Oedipal situation at adolescence, when a boy may fall in love with his mother and young girl may fall in love with her father (Freud, 1925). However, a natural and socially reinforced barrier against incest restrains this expression of sexuality, so adolescents seek to loosen their connections with their families. As they overcome and repudiate their incestuous fantasies, adolescents also complete “one of the most painful, psychical achievement of the pubertal period......detachment from parental authority” (Freud, 1953,). This is done by withdrawing their affection from their parents and transferring it to their peers. Blos referred to this emotional loose as the “mourning of separation” (Blos, 1979).

Subsequent theorists refer to the process of individuation, which involves a differentiation of an individual's behaviour, feeling, judgments and thoughts from those of parents. At the same time, the parent-child relationship moves toward growing cooperation, equality and mutuality as the child becomes an autonomous person within the family context (Mazor and Enright, 1988).

Freud assumes that object-choice during adolescence must find its way to the opposite sex. There is a need to establish heterosexual friendships as one moves always from the homosexual attachments of childhood. Freud sees no harm in sentimental friendships with others of one's own sex, provided there is no permanent inversion or reversal of the sexual role and choice of the sexual object. Although reversal of sexual roles and sexual objects is frequent, Freud regards the reversal as a deviation from normal sexual life to be avoided if possible (Freud, 1953).
5. Societal Influences on the Adolescent:

The society in which adolescents grow up has an important influence on their development, relationships, adjustments, and problems. The expectations of the society mold their personalities, influence their roles and guide their futures. Social conditions help create or solve their problems or influence the adjustments they must make in solving them. The structure and functions of the society either help them fulfill their needs or create new problems by stimulating further tension and frustration. Because adolescents are social beings who are part of a larger society, there is a need to understand this social order and some of the ways it influences them.

A truly comprehensive examination of the many facets of U.S. society and the numerous ways they influence adolescents would require volumes. Instead discussion is confined to seven important influences on today’s adolescents: technological and social change, urbanization, materialism and poverty, mass communications, social and emotional stress, family disorganization and life events and stress.

5.1 Technological and Social Change:

The adolescent of today lives in a society undergoing intensive and rapid technological change. Probably no other society has so revered technological innovation or placed less restraint upon it than modern U.S. culture. Since the turn of the century, it has witnessed unprecedented advances: the introduction of electricity, radio, television, the automobile, airplane, atomic energy, rocketry, computers, lasers, and robots. Each new invention stimulates in turn a series of additional technological changes.

In every culture, technological innovation becomes the stimulus and the motor for social change as well. Consider the automobile as a modern example. The development of the motor car changed patterns of work and residence, making it possible for people to live dozens of miles from their
jobs. Whole patterns of family living changed, with the family becoming more mobile and its members more separated. The automobile made possible the regional consolidation of schools, with adolescents attending with hundreds of others from a wide geographic area. The automobile transformed the rural United States into a sprawling complex of turnpikes and freeways. It was instrumental in encouraging urban blight as middle-class families retreated to the suburbs, leaving the minority poor to inhabit the largest cities. Thus each new technological invention has consequences for social living. A series of technological inventions necessitates an increasing number of social adjustments.

For the most, these changes have been unplanned and unguided. Social transformations have occurred as a haphazard result of technological progress. It difficult to guide, predict, or alter the future directions of these changes. The growth of the megalopolis, the sprawling urban complex of cities reaching out to touch each other has obliterated the countryside and polluted the environment. Not only has the physical environment become completely altered and almost unmanageable, but the social climate has suffered as well. The faster the city grows, the more difficult it is for people to exert any control over their physical environment or their social order. These rapid technological and social changes have profound effects upon the adolescent. Five of these effects will be discussed here.

The past grows increasingly distant from the present. The more rapid and drastic are the social changes, the more different are standards and patterns of life from those of previous years. This makes the adolescent feel that anything old is also outmoded and irrelevant, so that it ought not to be allowed to extort much influence over today’s life.

The future grows more remote, uncertain and unpredictable, so the adolescent feels less secure about tomorrow. When standards, customs, mores, social structures, conditions and functions are changing rapidly, it becomes hard to predict what life will be like in the years to come and
more difficult to prepare for that future. The adolescent is pushed into living more in the present than in the future. "Why worry about tomorrow? I can't know what tomorrow will bring. All I can do is to live day by day."

Rapid change weakens the roles and functions of the family. Fewer sons and daughters follow their parents occupations, for example. Also, education has become largely nonfamilial. Emotional ties are loosened by geographic mobility. Fewer interpersonal contacts result in a decrease or affective interchange-socialization and emotional and morale-building functions. As a result the nuclear family is less able to fulfill its affective functions and disintegrates under the strain, as documented by the high divorce rate and the growing number of one-parent families.

Cultural confusion with shifting belief, attitudes, values, mores and standards results in stress, conflict and personality disturbance in the lives of young people. In a world of pluralistic standards, changing customs and uncertain values, it becomes difficult for adolescents to know how to live and what to believe. Uncertainly and conflict create disturbing internal stress. When everyone in a culture accepts the same ideas and values, adolescents find it easier and more secure to know and accept the status quo; but when their are confronted with changing, conflicting ideas and values, they feel forced to shift about, trying to find meaning for themselves.

One result of change is a spiritual vacuum in which adolescents have difficulty finding identity. They ask: "can I commit my life to anything? is there anything in human culture today worth saving, worth committing myself to?" Among some of the young, this pain comes close to being a mass neurosis: a lack of faith in self, an emptiness of spirit a lack of order and direction. As one youth expressed it longingly, "The answer must be out there somewhere."

Increasing technological and social complexity have increased the period of adolescent dependency. It is more difficult for adolescents to graduate from high school and get well-paying jobs. "High-tech" positions
require special training. The national commission on excellence in education (1983) suggests that if American adolescents are to grow up being competitive with their peers in other technological nations, they will have to spend more days and years in school, spend more hours doing homework, and tackle more complex information.

The need for education has increased and requires more years of preparation, so the period of dependency upon parents has lengthened. Since 1969, the proportion of young people in the United States between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine living at home has increased by 25 percent (Goleman 1980). The result has been delayed independence and maturity (Chance 1988).

5.2 Urbanization:

As people leave their farms and move to the cities in increasing numbers, their lives are drastically altered. For one thing, the sheer size of the city makes personal, close relationships more difficult. Neighbors remain strangers. Affective needs may not be met. The individual feels isolated and alone in a city with millions of people.

There are urban high schools today with student enrollments exceeding five thousand. How can the adolescent in the educational complex find identity or any sense of belonging (Garbarino, 1980)?

Urbanization creates impersonalization in the family also. Home school and work may be separated by great distances. One or both parents may commute into the city to work, leaving at dawn, returning at dusk. Adolescents ride the school bus to the consolidated high school, seldom seeing their parents during daylight hours, at least in the winter. It becomes harder for family members together or to relate to each other personality when they seldom see one another or spend much time together. One result may be a household of stranger who live together but do not really know one another.
Urbanization also creates a host of social problems: overcrowding, poverty, slums, gangs, delinquency, and other problems that go with city life. Cities have a way of altering the lives of people, imposing stresses, strain, temptations and problems on the children and youths growing up within their confines. Not every effect of city life is negative. Sometimes the city may offer superior educational opportunities, recreational facilities, or cultural influences. But as more and more cities become dangerous and depersonalizing, the social disadvantages of living there increasingly outweigh the advantages.

5.3 Materialism and Poverty:

Today's youth have grown up in a time of affluence unprecedented in the history of the world, with the majority of adolescents sharing in the benefits of this prosperity and a minority, by comparison, becoming poorer than ever. Money is at hand because parents seem to offer an ample supply or adolescents are able to earn part of it themselves. One-half of young men and one-third of young women who work part-time earn more than $50 a week. Most of these earnings are "fun money" with little contributed toward family expenses or saved for future education. The biggest expense of males if for automobiles (Otto, 1988). The affluence of today's generation has a number of consequences.

Today's youths constitute a huge consumers market. Business caters directly to them; clothes, cosmetics, automobiles, records, stereos, skis, snowmobiles, motorcycles, magazines, grooming aids; sports equipment, cigarettes and thousands of other items are given the hard sell to attract the dollars of increasing numbers of youths.

A major segment of the youth culture has become a status-conscious, resting culture. Today's youth have become concerned about self-how best to get a good job and satisfy their material needs (Otto, 1988; Yankelovich, 1981). The emphasis is on earning a big salary and winning the struggle
for status, position and material advancement (Balswick and Balswick, 1980; Rubenstein 1981). In his discussion with students across the country, Loeb found many youths whose immediate goal in life was to earn over $50,000 a year. There were some whose goal was to earn over six figures (Loeb 1988).

5.4 Mass Communications:

The mass media are partly responsible for creating the generation of consuming adolescents described. Today's child has been surrounded as no other generation before, by messages on signs, billboards, in newspapers, magazines, radio and television, urging the purchase of the newest anti-perspirant breakfast food, or shaving cream.

In 1984, 98 percent of U.S. households had television and home radios. Thirteen percent of all households had videocassette recorders (VCRs). Some 7.6 million VCRs alone were sold in 1984, bringing the number in U.S. homes to 17 million (Doan 1985). Adolescents can now record television programs and rent movies for home use. Some experts worry that rental movies will expose more youths to violent and sexually explicit films. Others contend that the hours spent in front of yet another video attraction will cut further into study and exercise time.

The mass media have also created an age of instant news: television viewers share in the experiences of starving Africans, terrorist bombings and massive earthquakes. Today's youth have not just heard about killing: they have seen and reacted to it in the nightly news. They have been bombarded with sensory information that affects the realm of emotion and feeling as well as cognitive perception. The affects the realm of emotion and feeling, as well as cognitive perception. The insistent beat of global communication not only transforms the mind but also motivates the will and stirs the emotions to action.
As a result some youths are skeptical about what they are told. They have learned to beloved what they see happening rather than naively to accept what they are told is true. They have learned to see through false promises to distinguish thought from action and sham, pretense and hypocrisy from sincerity and true concern.

5.5 Social and Emotional Stress:

Today's adolescents have been exposed year after year to physical violence and disturbances in the world: the murder or attempted assassination of national leaders, the bombing of embassies, terrorism on a global scale and war in over a dozen countries. It includes constant threat of nuclear war.

National studies reveal that many children and youth are afraid of the nuclear threat. When asked, "What does the word 'nuclear' bring to mind?" one high school student replied: "Danger, death sadness, explosion, cancer, children, waste, bombs, pollution, terrible" (Yudkin, 1984,). Children report nightmares in which everyone is being blown up except themselves, leaving them alone and helpless. When students from 130 high schools across the country were surveyed, more than one-third believed that "nuclear or biological annihilation will probably be the fate of all mankind within my lifetime" (Yudkin 1984,).

The most disturbing change in recent years relates to mortality factors. When young people die, they die violent deaths. Among adolescents aged 15 to 24 who die, 77 percent die violently. Death from accidents, suicides and homicides has passed disease as the leading cause of death for youth (Diegmueller, 1987). Young people are the only age group in the United States that have not enjoyed improved health status over the past 30 years. Death by communicable disease has decreased appreciably, but the rise in violent deaths has more than offset the reduction in deaths due to disease.
An analysis of the extent and variety of adolescent victimization as reported in newspapers in Great Britain revealed the causes of physical injury, death and mental hurt. (Falchikov, 1986).

The FBI Uniform Crime Reports for 1986 (Diegmueller, 1987) indicate that one-half of all homicides and suicides occur in the 15 to 24 year-old age group. From 1950 to 1980, homicides increased threefold and suicides increased more than fourfold for this age group. Yet, most violent deaths among young people occur on highways. Two-thirds of their violent deaths involve car wrecks.

There is a link between alcohol and adolescent suicides, homicides and fatal accidents (Diegmueller, 1987). In some areas, the percentage of teen suicides who had been drinking prior to their deaths increased from 13 percent in the period 1968 to 1972 to 46 percent a decade later (Otto, 1988). The equation becomes even more deadly when firearms are involved. The most common method of teen suicide among those with significant alcohol content is use of a firearm. Homicides, suicides, automobile accidents, firearms and alcohol are pernicious threats to our nation's youth. They represent the most serious forms of problem behaviour when found in combination.

From a psychological point of view, stress creates upset and insecurity; continued stress can result in disturbed behaviour. Not all behaviour of adolescents is disturbed, nor all youths have emotional problems, but widespread mental illness, alcoholism, drug abuse, vandalism, suicide, homicide and various other forms of acting out behaviour among youths indicate that many have psychological problems. Psychiatrist Miller (1974) suggests that social stresses are partly responsible for adolescent problems.

The Spartan exposed their young to physical stress in order to toughen their society. This was a conscious decision, but eventually so much was demanded that by killing its young the society destroyed itself. Social stress applied to youth may produce similar effects in the Western
world. Because of this it is very difficult for parents and other adults to know how much an adolescent's behaviour is a function of family interaction and how much depends on stress in society-at-large... This has been called a permissive society... Society might more appropriately be considered confused and anxiety-ridden.

Miller goes on to suggest that young people need release from the tension created by these social pressures, primarily through goal-directed, constructive outlet. If constructive outlets are not provided youths react with rage and anger—or with withdrawal. Some express their rage through vandalism or heated protest. Others withdraw and become drop-outs. In both cases the causes are the same: too much exposure to too much stress over too long a time.

Whether or not is a unique attitude, today's youths find it hard to accept reassurances of a secure future. It is not surprising that they sometimes participate in meaningless and sometimes destructive violence against public in situations and buildings or in drug parties that turn off everyday sights and sounds. Such self-destructive behaviour is symbolic of a sense of uselessness and despair.

5.6 Life Events and Stress:

There are other events in an adolescent's life besides social violence and family disruption that create stress: failure in school, being arrested by the police, getting into drugs or alcohol, losing a job, breaking up with a close girlfriend or boyfriend, getting pregnant, getting badly hurt or risk, or moving to a new home. Most youths face one or more of these problems during their adolescence or have close friends who do (Johnson, 1986). A family member dying is rated as most stressful, followed by parents getting divorced or separated. Problems at school, with the police, with drugs, at work, with girlfriends or boyfriends, or with health are also ranked high on the scale. Another study, with college undergraduates, revealed that death,
illness, or accident or a loved one, followed by ill health, disappointments in friendships or love affairs and being cut off from others were among the most disturbing events in life (Tolor, 1983).

6. Maturity:

The concept of maturity has not received a great deal of explicit attention in the literature. Delineation of libidinal development has been yielded the important formulation of the “Genital level” and “object-interest (Freud, 1924)”. Recent emphasis on the conflict between the regressive, dependents, versus the progressive, productive forces in the personality has directed interest toward the more detailed nature of maturity.

6.1 Nature of maturity:

1. One of the most obvious pathways of development, long emphasized by Sigmund Freud and Franz Alexander, is from the parasitic dependence of the fetus to the relative independence of parent, with parental capacity for responsibility for spouse and child.

2. Intimately bound-up with the organism's development from parasitism on the mother to relative independence from the parents is its increased capacity for responsibility and productivity and its decreased receptive needs. Children learn to control their hostilities, their sexuality and other impulses, and to develop the orientations of maturity largely through the incentive of being loved.

3. Third characteristic of maturity is relative freedom from the well-known constellation of inferiority, egotism and competitiveness.

4. Another aspect of maturity consists in the conditioning and the training necessary for socialization and domestication.

5. Hostile aggressiveness, using the term to include all sorts of anger, hate cruelty and belligerency, is always a sign of emotional irritation or threat.
6. Another important attribute of maturity is a firm sense of reality.

7. Another characteristic of maturity is flexibility and adaptability.

7. Emotional Maturity:

Maturity is the stage attained by the process of growth and development and body change resulting from heredity rather than learning. The term maturity is used to describe behaviour or physical changes which occurs as a direct result of genetic action and which emerges as the human grows older. Gesell (1961) proposed a theory that nearly all development is controlled by motivation and so is independent of practice or experience. It is still thought by some psychologists that the development of much behaviour may be maturational (Hurlock 1968).

1. Development normally proceeds in an orderly sequence.

2. Development can be viewed in terms of stages, each having its own characteristics.

3. Each new stage of development builds on and is limited by previous development, and in turn, provides the foundation for the stages that follow.

4. The pathway from infancy to maturity involves increasing differentiation, integration and complexity of structure and behaviour.

5. There are both similarities and differences in the development of individuals.

6. Development may be normal or depending on the quality and interaction of genetic and environmental factors.

The terms growth, development, maturation and learning all refer to the physical, mental, social, intellectual, emotional and moral changes which a person experiences as he advances through life. Maturation refers to the changes-quantitative or qualitative - which result from the natural unfolding
of inherited tendencies or the actualization of innate potentialities. Maturation and learning are not mutually exclusive processes but are inextricably connected and dependent upon each other (Kolesmik 1970). The developmental level of the individual is the resultant of interaction of maturation (heredity) and learning (environment) over a period of time and be expressed in form of this equation (Ruch 1970):

\[
\text{developmental Level} = \text{Maturation} \times \text{Learning} \times \text{Time}
\]

The principles of development which follow are sources of knowledge about human behaviour. Development is continuous, development is complex, development is unified, developmental patterns vary. The relative effects of nature (heredity) and nurture (environment) on a person's development is a matter which has interested psychologists for years. Human development is the product of the interaction of human's inherited potentialities and his environment. Culture as well as biological and psychological forces give rise to several developmental tasks which a person should achieve at a certain stage of his development (Binger, 1978, Stott, 1972).

Maturation refers to the growth of an organism that is determined primarily by genetic factors and occurs more or less independently of learning. These built in maturational processes provide the potentials for the orderly progression of development, but these potentials can be realized only under favourable environmental conditions. Although a person's a growth will be shaped in different ways in different cultures, certain characteristic trends can be seen in any society, primitive or advanced. These trends lead the individual toward responsible self-direction and the ability to participate in and contribute to society. There are 3 popular views of healthy development (Coleman 1976).

1. Adequate frame of reference - accurate reality. Possibility and value assumptions concerning oneself and one's worlds.

2. Essential competencies, the mastery of needed physical, intellectual, emotional and social competencies.

4. Personal growth and self-actualization-trends toward the development of one's potentials and self-fulfillment as a Peron.

There are 7 psychological conditions that foster healthy development (Gesell 1956, Piaget 1970) to be wanted, to be born healthy, to live in a healthy environment, to satisfaction of basic needs, to continuous loving care, to appropriate treatment for psychological and behavioural problems and difficulties, to acquire the intellectual, emotional and social skills necessary to cope effectively in our society. The emotional warmth and acceptance, parental affection are positive and contributive factors in the development of such personality traits as self-esteem, self-reliance, independence, self-control and self-regulation (Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1967).

The concept of emotional maturity has not received a great deal of explicit attention in the psychological literature. The major characteristics of emotional maturity are relative freedom from the well-known constellation of inferiority, egotism and competitiveness another aspects of emotional maturity consists in the processes of socialization and collateralization, hostile attitudes and aggressiveness are related to emotional maturity and emotional development, another important attributes of emotional maturity are firm sense of reality, flexibility and adaptability.

In the present circumstances, children, youth, and adults all are facing problems and difficulties in life and work. These conditions are giving rise to several psychosomatic problems such as anxiety, tension, conflicts, pressures, frustrations, strains and stresses and emotional upsets and disturbances. So the study of emotional development deals with an interplay of biological, psychosocial and sociocultural forces. Actually, emotional maturity is not only the effective determinant of personality but it also helps to control the growth and development of the person. The concept 'mature
emotional behaviour at any stage of development reflects the fruits of normal emotional development.

According to Smitson (1974) emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra-personally. Kaplan and Baran (1976) elaborated the characteristics of an emotionally mature person: he has the capacity to withstand delay in satisfaction of needs, he has the ability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration, he has belief in long term slamming and is capable of delaying or revising his expectations in terms of demands of situations. An emotionally mature person has the capacity to make effective adjustment with himself, with family members, with peers in school or college, with fellows at work, in life and society.

Hollingsworth (1958) mentioned some characteristics of emotionally mature person as follows:

1. He is capable of responding in gradation or degree of emotional responses.
2. He is capable to delay his responses as controlled with the impulsiveness.
3. He is capable of handling self-pity. According to Bernard (1959) who described some criteria of mature emotional behaviour:
   i. Inhibition of direct expression of negative emotions.
   ii. Cultivation of positive, up building emotions.
   iii. Development of higher tolerance for dis-agreeable circumstances.
   iv. Increasing satisfaction from socially approved responses.
   v. Freedom from unreasonable fears.
   vi. Understanding in according with limitations.
   vii. Increasing dependence of action.
   viii. Awareness of ability and achievement of others.
ix. Ability to err without feeling disgraced.

x. Ability to carry victory and prestige with grace.

xi. Ability to delay the gratification of impulses.

xii. The enjoyment of day-to-day living.

The most outstanding mark of emotional maturity, according to Cole (1960) is ability to tolerate tension and stress, persisting the capacity for fun and recreation, enjoying play and responsibility with proper balance. According to Mckinney (1959) the characteristics of an emotionally mature person are activity, appreciation of attitudes and behaviour of others, tendency to adopt the views, habits and hobbies of other and capacity to delay his own responses and gratification of needs. Seoul (1954) emphasized that if the emotional development of the individual is relatively complete, his adaptability is high, his regressive tendencies are low and his vulnerability is minimal. Therefore, the emotionally mature is not one who necessarily has resolved all conditions that aroused anxiety and possibility but it is continuously in process of seeing himself in clearer perspective, continually involved in a struggle to gain healthy integration of feeling, action and thought. Guilford (1958) proposed a matrix of temperamental factors with dimensions and areas of emotional maturity; general, emotional and social.

7.1 Genesis of Emotional Disturbances:

Dependence on his mother, the ambitions for prestige and success which imbied the rivalry with his father and the depreciatory attitude toward him, the failure to identify with other men, the whole constellation continued on, still potent, although, for the most part, unconscious, automatic and resistant to conscious efforts to change. The rest of his personality developed adequately in the direction of those attitudes, feelings and ways of functioning which we are beginning to recognize as mature.
The genesis of emotional disturbances can be reduced with some over simplification to the following steps:

1. Childhood emotional influences interact with the infant's congenital endowment and developmental forces, the child being most formative up to the age about six.

2. These influences facilitate, retard or warp the development and cause emotional patterns which persist, mostly unconsciously, in later life.

3. These "unclear patterns" contain certain vulnerable emotional points; everyone has specific emotional vulnerabilities.

4. The environment exerts certain demands, pressure and frustrations.

5. The individual endeavours to harmonize the conflicting impulses within himself and to adjust himself to his environment.

6. In general, the more mature the individual is, the more stably and flexibly he adjusts, but when the pressure impinge upon his emotional vulnerabilities, he react with mobilization for fight or flight.

7. The fear and the flight and the danger and hostile aggression tend to be handled as they were in childhood, with partial return to childhood forms of satisfaction, thinking and behaviour.

8. These regressive reactions constitute and produce symptoms which can be grouped as about:

   (i) Inner (a) Psychosomatic, (b) neurotic, (c) psychotic, and (ii) Acting out (a) masochistic, (b) destructive social behaviour, (c) Criminal.

9. The ego react secondarily to the tensions and the symptoms over a range, from denying to exploiting them.

   There are 7 specific interrelated trends toward personal maturity:

1. Dependence to self-direction.

2. Pleasure to reality
3. Ignorance to knowledge.
4. Incompetence to competence.
5. Diffuse to differential activity.
6. Amoral to moral,
7. Self-centered to other centered.

There are 6 general principles of development (Colmen, 1976):

8. Social Competence:

Social competence is an important ingredient of modern civilization; and is the essential attribute of the members of a progressive onward moving society. The cultural purity and society of India provide enough opportunities to Indian children for the acquisition of high order social competence, through rich and varied interpersonal interactions.

Social competency is characterized by the potency dimension of social measurements. As one of the components of the social behaviour, it is acquired through social interaction and cultural integration in different socio-cultural settings. The success of an individual in the society depends largely upon the extent to which he has acquired the richness and potency of social competence desirable for his self-actualization, growth and development. For a successful interpersonal interaction, a high order social competence is an essential disposition of an individual.

Social competence has been defined as the social and interpersonal skill (Eisler, 1976) of an individual in effectively meeting a person-situation interaction or successfully dealing with 'an individual environmental factors'. Goldfriend and D'Zurilla (1967) considered it as the effectiveness or adequacy which an individuals is capable of responding to the various problematic situations which confront him. White (1963) developed the concept of social competence to depict a person's transaction with the social environment,
and enable him to acquire successful experiences of others that may produce desirable effects.

It is a collection of specific social behaviour such as differential self-concept, consolidation of identity, habits of personal maintenance and care consistent with common peer group standards, differentiations of feelings and implications, positive and affectionate personal relationships, appropriate regulations of antisocial tendencies, curiosity and active exploration of the environment, control of attention as a function of situational or task requirements, perceptual skills, fine motor dexterity, language skills, memory flexibility in the application of information processing, strategies, quantitative and rational concepts, understanding and skills, general knowledge of health, social environment, consumer behaviour, etc., competence motivation, problem-solving skills, some positive attitudes toward learning and educational experiences (Alterson and Messick, 1974). Argyle (1967) postulated social competence as a function of goals of performance, selective perception of cues, control process, mother responses, feedback and timing of response. Arson and Smith (1962) have remarked that the individual, the external events, and the process of external reinforcement function in the acquisition process of social competence as its determinants. Beliefs about one's own competence matter much so far as, his level of performance is concerned. A feeling of incompatibility at a task has an adverse effect on social performance. Lamb Michael E. et. al. (1988) evaluated social competence of Swedish pre-schoolers and found that the high socioeconomic status, high quality home care and easy temperament facilitated personality maturity and have significant effect on grand parents.

9. Personality:

The human personality is one of the most baffling of psychological phenomena discussed and argued about at least since the time of the ancient Greeks. That is because the concept gets murkier the more we
think about it. What we so casually refer to as personality is such a complex phenomenon that the English language has at least 18,000 words to describe the myriad traits that comprise it. The characteristics that define personality are based on all the intricate processes covered in this chapter:

The riddle of personality has been approached over the centuries by philosophers, poets physicians and religious leaders. But only in the last century have scientists confronted the challenge

The entire science of psychology can be viewed as an attempt to create a comprehensive theory of personality in other words a set of general principles that will explain why people are a like in some ways and very different in others. But some psychologists have been especially interested in seeking these general principles. They have developed a number of theories that try to explain which personality traits are most important the likeliest patterns of relationships among traits, the manner in which these patterns become established in individuals and (at least by implication) how they can be changed.

Personality can best be defined as the total pattern of characteristic ways of thinking feeling and behaving that constitute the individuals distinctive method of relating to the environment. There are four key words in the definition.

(1) Characteristic (2) Distinctive (3) relating (4) Pattern

To be considered a part of personality a way of thinking feeling or behaving must have some continuity over time and circumstance. It must be characteristic of the individual. We do not call a man bed tempered of he "blows up" only once in ten years. We say that a bad tempered is part of his personality only if he shows it often and in many different circumstances.

The way of thinking feeling or behaving must also be distinctive that is it must distinguish the individuals from other individuals. This eliminates such common American traits as eating with a knife and fork, placing
adjectives before rather than after nouns and carrying a drivers license all of which are more or less the same for every American and do not distinguish one person from others.

Though these first two elements are essential, they are not the whole story. For example a women might always wear a ring that is a family heirloom and the only one of its kinds in the world. Wearing the ring is therefore both characteristic and distinctive. But this would hardly be considered part of her personality (unless perhaps she attached some deep significance to the ring regarding it as a symbol of self-esteem and social acceptance) To be a part of personality, a trait must play a part in how a person goes about relating to the world, especially to other people. It is because of this element of relating that personality traits are often thought of as positive or negative. A positive trait, such as friendliness helps the individuals relate to people and events in a constructive manner. A negative characteristics such as fear of social contacts, may produce anxiety, failure and loneliness.

Of the multitude of possible personality traits all of us possess some but not others. It is the particular pattern of characteristics we possess and display - the sum total and organization - that is the final element in the definition of personality.

9.1 Personality theory's four components:

Many general theories of personality have been proposed over the years. They differ in many respects but they all have four elements in common (Maddi, 1972):

1. Every theory is based on some fundamental viewpoint toward the basic quality of human nature. It assumes that there is a core of personality composed of tendencies and traits common to all of us. Different theories take different views of this common core, as well see, but all of them take for granted that it exists and is a force in shaping personality. In
general for example most theories of personality assume that all human beings possess the kinds of motives described in the previous chapter for power over others, for friendships and loving relationships, and for hostility in the face of frustration. (2) Every theory maintains that the tendencies and traits that make up the common core of personality are channeled in various directions in different individuals by the process of development - all the experiences we encounter from our childhood relationships with our partners to those throughout the rest of our lives. Thus various theories agree that personality is the product of both nature (the common core that is part of our heritage) and nurture (the effect of individual development). As an example, while affiliation with others is a basic motive that cuts across cultures the Japanese show a stronger desire to maintain close ties with family members than do Europeans or Americans the results of values bred by the culture and early experience.

2. Every theory is concerned with what are called peripheral traits, that is all the distinctive way in which people relate to the environment. The peripheral traits are viewed as the inevitable result of the way individual development has acted on the common core of personality. Consider for example a peripheral trait such as alienation - that is the absence of social interactions. In a large urban area, where people routinely interact with many others such day, an individual who manages to structure a life of solitude would appear quite alienated and withdrawn. But in a small and remote village, where people routinely live their entire lives only with a small number of kin and fellow villagers, alienation would be irrelevant as a peripheral trait. (4) Finally, every theory is concerned with the task of identifying and defining the inner processes or dynamics, by which the peripheral traits are laid down and maintained. As we shall soon see, for example, the processes of conditioning and identification with significant figures are among those playing an important role in establishing personality traits.
9.2 The behavioural view of personality:

Humanistic theories hold that the core of personality is the urge to grow in a constructive way. Freud's psycho-analytic theory holds that the core is conflict. Another prominent group of theories take still another's view. These are the behavioural theories, which rejects. Freud's notion of the primitive drives of the id and do not necessarily take any stand at all on the question. So vital to the humanistic approach, of whether human nature is basically good or evil. Instead behavioural theories regard personality as largely composed of habits that is to say, of habitual ways of responding to the situations that arise in one's life. Depending on what responses we have learned to display to events in the environment, we may either cope successfully or become helpless and troubled by anxiety or depression.

One of the earliest behaviour theories of personality was developed in the 1940s by John Dollard and Neal miller who attempted to use learning theory to explain some of the murkier psychoanalytic concepts of Sigmund Freud. Dollard and miller proposed that to understand an individual's behaviour - whether normal or not it was necessary to focus on four factors: cue (stimulus), response, drive, and reinforcement (Dollard and miller, 1950) consider a concrete case: Suppose a friend always becomes hostile and sarcastic when ever you beat him at tennis. The cue for him is your sharp game, and his response is aggression. The drive could be an urge for power, and the reinforcement for his behaviour the look of pain on your face, Or the drive could be a need for attention, and the reinforcement the feel of your consoling arm around his shoulder. The central point for Dollard and miller was that what we call personality is learned in the same way as any other conditioned behaviour.

The radical behaviourism of B.F. Skinner rejects the existence of internal processes and maintains that we can understand personality only by applying the laws of operant conditioning.
Social learning theories hold that the core of personality is the habitual ways we have learned to respond to events in the environment. The theories originally stressed classical and operant conditioning and reinforcement through rewards or punishments. Many of today’s social learning theorists take a more standards, self-reinforcement and self-punishment.

A prominent social learning theorist is Albert Bandura, whose concept of reciprocal interaction, regards human beings as highly active processors of information who are constantly interacting with the environment.

9.3 Personality types versus personality trait dimensions:

Early descriptions of personality focused on attempts to “type” people by their physical characteristics. Ancient Greek physicians believed that there were four types of personalities, each related to different fluids inside the body. Sanguine people had a rich flow of blood, making them happy, warmhearted and optimistic. Melancholy people had an excess of black bile, which accounted for their moodiness. Choleric, or bad-tempered, persons had an excess of yellow bile. And phlegmatic persons were slowed down and made listless by an excess of phlegm.

Although personality differences cannot be explained so simply, related theories have persisted into modern times, as discussed in the psychology in Action box, “Do physical characteristics reflect personality? "In general, efforts to describe personality through type theory in terms of types that are qualitatively different from each other have not been widely accepted. While we might speak casually about a person as “the athletic type”, or “the managerial type” it is generally thought that all such types are made up of clusters of traits—that is, more specifically, underlying characteristics that define an individuals behaviour and that, as well soon see, can be measured. In trait theory, personality characteristics are rarely seen as all-or-nothing attributes. They are present in different individuals in various degrees and blends (Mussen et al., 1990).
Unlike type theories traits assume that each individual may very along many dimensions—for instance, sociability, dependency, aggressiveness—at the same time. Put another way: "The complexity of human behaviour makes it difficult to fit individuals neatly into a few simple categories...For most personality characteristics, people fit as some point on a continuous distribution of that characteristic rather than into the either-or categories provided by type concepts" (Feshbach and Weiner, 1986).

9.4 Defining the fundamental traits of personality:

In his pioneering work, Gordon Allport focused much of his carrier on developing a better understanding of personality by identifying and measuring a series of fundamental human traits (Allport, 1961). These were of three kinds, which he called dispositions. Coloring an individual's entire life style are cardinal dispositions—for example the desire for money or power. Most of us, Allport believed, are without such overriding motives. Rather, we can better be identified by our central dispositions, or consistent tendencies. These are the kind of qualities—for example, "serious," "kindly," "honest"—that you might recite if you were fixing up a friend with a date. Finally, Allport identified secondary dispositions, which may surface in specific situations but which are not usually characteristic of an individual's behaviour. For example, in front of girls a normally gregarious adolescent might become a shrinking violet.

Another psychologists who spent many years in the search for our basic personality traits is Raymond B. Cattell, who wanted to go beyond classifying traits and sought to learn how varied traits fit together to help define the human personality (Cattell, 1965, 1973). Cattell started his quest by trying to identify surface traits, or the most visible aspects of personality—like friendliness, rudeness, or kindness. Through records of life histories, behavioural observations, - questionnaires, and objective tests of the kind described in the next section, Cattell amassed data about these traits for
large numbers of individuals. He found that surface traits appeared in clusters around a single, basic trait. He referred to such underlying aspects of personality as source traits. As described in figure 11-9 Cattell concluded that 16 basic source traits lie behind most of the observable differences in human behaviour. Closer to our own day, a number of analyses of Cattell's and similar data have consistently suggested that five major factors—referred to as the “Big Five” - underlie the human personality (Goldberg, 1981; Digman and Inouye, 1986). These are summarized in Figure 10.

Personality psychologists have disagreed over the number of factors required to encompass all of the important dimensions of the human personality, some arguing that five is too few, others that even further refinement is possible (McAdams, 1990). For example, one notable effort to depict the human personality was undertaken by Hans Eysenck, a British psychologist who proposed that many variations in human behaviour can be explained by two key dimensions (Eysenck, 1981). One of these is extroversion-introversion, which is among the “Big five” just summarized, and echoes the typology proposed by Jung. The second is stability-instability.

However logical and neat they seem, all trait theories are beset by a nagging question: How consistent are our personality characteristics over time and across different life situations?

10. Assessment in Adler’s Theory:

Like Freud, Adler developed his theory through observation of his patients—what they told him and how they behaved during treatment sessions. Adler’s approach to his patients was more relaxed and informal than Freud’s. Whereas Freud’s Patients lay on a couch while he sat behind them, Adler and his patients faced each other, seated in comfortable chairs. The sessions were more like chats between two friends than like the formal relationships maintained by Freud.
Adler assessed the personalities of his patients by observing everything about them: the way they walked and sat, their manner of shaking hands even their choice of which chair to sit in. He believed that the manner in which we use our bodies indicates something of our style of life. Even the position in which we sleep was revealing to Adler. A person who sleeps flat on his or her back is seen as wanting to seem bigger than he or she is. Sleeping on one's stomach reveals a stubborn and negative personality.

10.1 The Influence of Birth Order:

Adler posited birth order as one of the major social influences in childhood from which the individual creates a style of life. Even though siblings have the same parents and live in the same house, they do not have identical social environments. The facts of being older or younger than one's siblings and of being exposed to parental attitudes that have changed as a result of the arrival of more children create different conditions of childhood that greatly influence one's personality, as Adler would often amaze lecture audiences and dinner guests by telling accurately what a person's order of birth was on the basis of his or her behaviour. He focused on three different positions: the first-born child, the second-born, the youngest.

10.2 The First-Born Child:

The first-born child itself in a unique and in many ways enviable situation. Usually the parents are extremely happy at the birth of their first child and devote a great deal of time and attention to the new baby. The first-born thus receives the full and undivided attention of the parents.

As a result, the first-born often has a happy, secure existence-until the second child appears. What a shock it must be. No longer the focus of instant and constant attention, no longer receiving the undivided love and care of its parents. The child is, in Adler's term, "dethroned" at this time. Adler had experienced this himself; when he was 2, his younger brother
was born. The constant love the first-born received for the period of its reign must now be shared. The child must often submit to outrange of waiting until after the newborn has been attended to and must be quiet at times so as not to awaken the new baby.

No one could expect the first-born to suffer such a drastic displacement without putting up a fight. He or she must try to recapture his or her former position of power. All first-borns feel the shock of their changed position in the family, but those who have been excessively pampered will, of course, feel a greater loss. Also, the extent of the loss depends on the age of the first-born at the time the rival appears. In general, the older a first-born is when the next child appears, the less sense of dethronement he or she experience. An 8-year-old, for example, will be less bothered by the birth of a sibling than will a 2-year-old.

The battle to regain his or her former supremacy is lost from the beginning; things will never be as they once were, no matter how hard the first-born tries. But the child tries anyway and becomes, for a time, a behaviour problem, breaking rules and objects being stubborn, or refusing to eat or to go to bed. He or she is striking out in anger. Of course, the parents will probably strike back, and their weapons are far more powerful. When the first-born is punishment as more evidence of a changed position and many easily grow to hate the new child. The newborn is, after all, the cause of the problem.

How could such a situation not affect one's outlook on life? Adler found that oldest children are often oriented toward the past, locked in nostalgia and pessimistic about the future. Having learned the advantages of power at one time, they remain concerned with it all their lives. To some degree they can exercise power over the younger siblings. At the same time, however, they are usually more subject to the power of the parents than are the younger children; that is, more is expected of them.

As a result of all this, first-borns take an interest in the maintenance of order and authority. Adler found that they become very good organizers.
conscientious and scrupulous as to detail and authoritarian and conservative in attitude. Incidentally—or perhaps not so incidentally—Freud was first-born. In fact, Adler referred to him as a "typical eldest son." The first-born may also grow up to feel very insecure and hostile toward other. Adler found that perverts, criminals, and neurotics were often first-born.

10.3 The Second-born Child:

What lies in store for the second-born, the one who's caused such a commotion? This child too has a unique situation. For one thing, he or she never experiences the powerful and focal position once occupied by the first-born. Therefore, even if a younger sibling should appear, the second-born does not experience the keen sense of dethronement felt by the first-born. Furthermore, the parents may have changed by the time the second child arrives. A second baby is not the novelty the first was, and the parents may be less concerned and anxious about their behaviour in rearing the second one; they may take a more relaxed approach to the second child.

The second-born has, from the very beginning, a pacesetter in the older sibling. The second child is not alone as a child but always has the example of the older sibling's behaviour as a model or a threat to compete with. Adler was a second-born child who had competitive relationship with his older brother all of his life. Even when he became a successful and famous analyst, he still felt overshadowed by this brother, who has a wealthy businessman. For as long as he lived, Adler never overcame the rivalry with his older brother (Whose name, incidentally, was Sigmund). Clearly, the concept of birth order was developed, initially, on the basis of personal experience.

Competition with the first-born child the second-born on, often stimulating a faster development than the first-born exhibited. The second child is motivated to catch up to and surpass the older sibling, a goal that usually speeds language and motor development. For example, the second child usually begins speaking at an earlier age than the older child did. Not
having experienced power, the second-born is not so concerned with it as
the first-born is and is more optimistic about the future. The second child is
likely to be highly competitive and ambitious, as Adler himself was.

However, there are a number of other outcomes that may arise from
the relationship between the first-born and the second-born. Suppose, for
example, the older sibling excels in sports or in scholarship or in everything.
The second-born may sense that he or she can never surpass the older
one and so may give up trying.

In this case, competitiveness would not become part of his or her
style of life. Of course, as they grow older, it might turn out that the younger
child is smarter, better looking, or superior in some other way to the first,
who them may again become a behaviour problem

* * * * *