CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

All the characteristics, which constitute the personality of an adolescent, offer it in unique combinations to be explained in terms of individual differences as measured by certain constellations in the personality pattern. Adolescents develop long-lasting problems affecting many areas of their lives, including their social relationships, academic and later professional success, tolerance of frustration, failure, and self-esteem.

Murray (1938) portrayed personality as the hypothetical integrating agent within the individuals that serves to organize and stabilize their behaviour over time. Murray's central theoretical concept "need" represents a force in the brain region, which organizes psychological processes and behaviour. Needs constantly interact with environmental forces to produce behaviour.

Allport (1961) viewed personality as the dynamic organization of those internal psychophysical systems that determine a person's characteristic behaviour and thought. Within the individual, personality is real; it is "what a person really is."
Roger's (1961) most important persona-logical construct is the "concept of self". In his system, important elements in self-concept development are the "need for positive regard", "conditions of worth", and "unconditional positive regard".

Albert Bandura (1971) in his social-learning theory depicted psychological functioning in terms of the continuous reciprocal interaction of behavioural, cognitive, and environmental influences. The reciprocal interplay of behavioural and environmental forces is highlighted as a fluid, dynamic process in which cognitive factors play a central role in the organization and regulation of human activity. Self-regulation is an important feature of social-learning theory. In self-regulation, the major processes of "self-observation", "judgement", and "self-evaluation" are highlighted. In describing self-regulation, Bandura discusses such issues as how it is related, how behaviour is monitored through self-produced consequences, the conditions which sustain self-reward systems, why people punish themselves, and the role of self-evaluation and self-concept in the process of self-regulation.

**Achievement motivation:**

The achievement motive is the inclination of an individual to be concerned with to plan and to endeavor for the successful acquisition of some standard of excellence is circumstances. Where the performance has to be appraised positively or negatively. This standard of excellence may consist of one or more of the following alternatives, such as, competition with others, surpassing one's own previous level of performance, unique accomplishments, and long term involvement in a profession.
The concept of achievement motivation:

There is surprising finding from surveys taken in the United States, Germany and Japan (Quintanilla, 1990). 84% of those who were questioned (What would you do if you won the state lottery? Would you work even if you did not have to?) Said, that they would continue to work. The explanation of this finding is that, for many people, their work is related not only to economic well being but also to emotional security, self esteem and happiness. Individual career can offer a sense of identity and status. Chance to learn new skills and master new challenges. It can bring social rewards, satisfying their needs etc. Those who found the work most suited to their abilities, experiences, sense of personal satisfaction enrolment fulfillment that provides its own reward, need for achievement, something distinct from the income they earn. The single greatest predictors of longevity are work satisfaction (work in America, 1973).

The idea of measuring needs in an individual arose because psychologists believe they would predict behavior. Murary (1938), who first formulated the concept of "need achievement", defined a need as" a construct that stands for a force originally perception, apperception , connection and action organizing in such a way as to transform in an certain direction an existing unsatisfied simulation". Research findings suggest that many different motives are relevant to organizational behavior and processes. One of the most important being is the need for achievement.
The formulation of the achievement motivation construct derives primarily from the work and theory of Murray (1938), and has its antecedents in an earlier psychological studies conducted under a variety of different rubrics, particularly 'success and failure' (Scars, 1942), "ego involvement" (Allport, 1943), “level of aspiration" (Lewinetal, 1944).

Since the early 1950s, achievement motivation theory has been studied intensively by David McClelland and his Colleagues (Atkinson and feather, 1966; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, 1953). They set forth a theory of achievement motivation as part of a more general theory of motives; McClelland has demonstrated that the economic growth of organization and of whole societies can be related to the level of the need for achievement among employees and citizens (McClelland, 1961).

**Definitions of achievements motivation:**

The need for achievement is related to the strength of individuals desire to excel, to do something better than others. This motive has defined as follows. "The desire or tendency to accomplish something difficult to master, manipulate or organized physical objects human being or ideas; to do this as rapidly or as well as possible, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard, to excel one's self; to rival and surpass others; to increase self regard by the successful exercise of the talent." (Murray, 1938).

McClelland (1961) defines n-Ach as 'behaviour towards competition with a standard of excellence', or as a concern with "doing things better, with surpassing standard of excellence". People with high
n-Ach have a great concern to do better, to improve performance, to undertake moderately challenging tasks, to take perform better at challenging tasks take person responsibility, and to seek and utilize concrete feed-back on their performance”. Heckhuasen (1955) defined n-Ach as "the striving to increase to keep as high as possible one's own capacity in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail".

Achievement motivation can also be defined as a disposition to strive for success and / or the capacity to experience pleasure contingent upon success (Atkinson, 1958).

In terms of 'action', n-Ach represent intense prolonged and repealed efforts to accomplish something difficult to work earnestly towards a high and distant goal, to have the determination to win to try to do everything well, to be stimulated, to enjoy competition, to exert will - power to overcome boredom and fatigue.

The definition of achievement motivation overlaps a number of concepts associated with a possible view of human motivation which has received a great deal of recent attention such as masterly, effectiveness, curiosity exploration drive, manipulation drive and the need to know. Achievement motivation can be seen as related to such things as overcoming difficulties, maintaining high standards and improving one's own performance, competing with the level established by others and generally gaining mastery over one's physical and social environment (Nisson, 1954, Hunt, 1965; and Kaga, 1957),
Achievement motivation:
Need for Achievement (n-Ach)

Achievement motivation is a one of the trait or characteristic of college students. Achievement is a concept related with motivation. Achieving a goal or obtained something is rewarding thing for almost everyone. For some people, the achievement of goal takes on a special importance. They enjoy working to achieve something whether it is in school, in work or in community service. When they achieve a goal, they immediately, set a new one. Such people may be said to have a strong need for achievement.

Student with a strong need for achievement are frequently overachievers. That is, they make better grades than their intelligence and ability test scores, would lead one to expect. Need for achievement is a valuable kind of motivation in a society that strongly values individual achievement.

Achievement motive is one of the important psychological motives. It concerns with setting goal and achieving them. It concerns with becoming successful in whatever activity one undertakes and avoiding failure. People with strong achievement motive not only like to excel others, but also try to do better than what they did in past. People with a strong achievement motive choose tasks which are neither very easy not very difficult but the one which they are confident of accomplishing through their best efforts.
Achievement motive or need for achievement (N-Ach) refers to an individual's desire for significant accomplishment, mastering of skills, control, or high standers. The term was introduced by the psychologist, David McClelland (1958). David McClelland and his associates' investigations of achievement motivation have particular relevance to the emergence of leadership. McClelland was interested in the possibility of deliberately arousing a motive to achieve in an attempt to explain how individuals express their preferences for particular outcomes- a general problem of motivation. In this 'connection, the need for achievement refers to an individual's preference for success under conditions of competition.

Need for Achievement is related to the difficulty of tasks people choose to undertake. Those with low n-Ach may choose very easy tasks, in order to minimize risk of failure, or highly difficult tasks, such that a failure would not be embarrassing. Those with high n-Ach tend to choose moderately difficult tasks, feeling that they are challenging, but within reach.

n-Ach is one of the important social motives. It refers to the desire to meet standards of excellence, to accomplish difficult tasks and to do better than the others. McClelland claims that the level of achievement motivation differs from one individual to another. People in whom achievement motivation is strong want to excel, accomplish and constantly improve their own performance. Such individuals want to do well in whatever situation they are placed.
Individual differ greatly in their levels of achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is not inborn but learned. Studies have found that children with high n-Ach have parents in occupations that demand individual achievement. However in certain cultures such as Zuni Indians, individual achievements are looked down.

a) N-Ach theoretical description
David C. McClelland's and his associates' investigations of achievement motivation have particular relevance to the emergence of leadership. McClelland was interested in the possibility of deliberately arousing a motive to achieve in an attempt to explain how individuals express their preferences for particular outcomes-a general problem of motivation. In this connection, the need for achievement refers to an individual's preference for success under conditions of competition. The vehicle McClelland employed to establish the presence of an achievement motive was the type of fantasy a person expressed on the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), a series of pictures that subjects were asked to interpret by writing stories about them.

The procedure in McClelland's initial investigation was to arouse in the test audience a concern with their achievement. A control group was used in which arousal was omitted. In the course of this experiment, McClelland discovered through analyzing the stories on the TAT that initial arousal was not necessary. Instead, members of the control group-individuals who had no prior arousal-demonstrated significant differences in their stories,
some writing stones with a high achievement content and some submitting stories with a low achievement content. Using result based on the TAT, McClelland demonstrated that individual in a society can be grouped into high achievers and low achievers based on their scores on what he called "N-Ach".

McClelland and his associates have since extended their work in fantasy analysis t include different age groups, occupational groups, and nationalities in their investigations, of the strength of need for achievement. These investigations have indicated that the N-Ach score increases with a rise in occupational level. Invariably, businessmen, managers, and entrepreneurs are high scores. Other investigations into the characteristics of the high achievers have revealed that accomplishment on the job represents an end in itself; monetary rewards serve as an index of this accomplishment. In addition, these other studies found that the high achievers, though identified as managers, businessmen, and entrepreneurs, are not gamblers/ They will accept risk only to the degree they believe their person contributions will make a difference in the final outcome.

These explorations into the achievement motive seem to turn naturally into the investigation of national differences based on Max Weber's thesis that the industrialization and economic development of the Western nations were related to the Protestant ethic and its corresponding values supporting work and achievement. McClelland and his associated have satisfied themselves that such a relationship, viewed historically through an index of national power consumption, indeed exists.
Differences related to individual, as well as to national, accomplishments depend on the presence or absence of an achievement motive in addition to economic resources or the infusion of financial assistance. High achievers can be viewed as satisfying a need for self-actualization through accomplishments in their job assignments as a result of their particular knowledge, their particular experiences, and the particular environments in which they have lived.

**b) Motivation:**

Psychologist see motives as inner directing forces that arouse an organism and direct its behavior towards a goal. The study of "Motivation1" is concerned with the "Why" of behavior. One of the major aims of psychological research has been to explain which motivates us act in certain ways.

Kleinginna and Kleinginna, (1981) define motivation as, internal state or condition that activates behavior and gives it direction; desire or want that energizes and directs goal-oriented behavior; influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behavior. Franken (1994) provides an additional component in his definition; the arousal, direction, and persistence of behavior.

i) Importance of motivation

Most motivation theorists assume that motivation is involved in the performance of all learned responses; that is, a learned behavior will not occur unless it is energized. The major question among psychologists,
in general, is whether motivation is a primary or secondary influence on behavior. That is, are changes in behavior better explained by principle of environmental ecological influences, perception, memory, cognitive development, emotion, explanatory style, or personality or are concepts unique to motivation more pertinent.

For example, we know that people respond to increasingly complex or novel events (or stimuli) in the environment up to a point and then responses decrease. This inverted-U-shaped curve of behavior is well-known and widely acknowledged (e.g., Yerkes and Dodson, 1908). However, the major issue is one of explaining this phenomenon. Is this a conditioning (is the individual behaves because of past classical or operant conditioning), a motivational process (from an internal state of arousal), or is there some better explanation?

ii) The relationship of motivation and emotion

Emotion (an indefinite subjective sensation experienced as a state of arousal) is different from motivation in that there is not necessarily a goal orientation affiliated with it. Emotions occur as a result of an interaction between perception of environmental stimuli, neural/hormonal responses to these feelings (Kleinginna and Kleinginna, 1981b). Evidence suggests there is a small core of core emotions (perhaps 6 or 8) that are uniquely associated with a specific facial expression (Izard, 1990). This implies that there are a small number of unique biological responses that are genetically hard-wired to specific facial expressions. A further implication is that the process works in reverse;
if you want to change your feelings (i.e., your physiological functioning), you can do so by changing your facial expression. That is, if you are, motivated to change how you feel and your feeling is associated with a specific facial expression, you can change that feeling by purposively changing your facial expression. Since most of us would rather feel happy than otherwise, the most appropriate facial expression would be a simple.

c) Motivational concepts:

i) Reward and reinforcement
A reward, tangible or intangible, is presented after the occurrence of an action (i.e. behavior) with the intent to cause the behavior to occur again. This is done by associating positives the reward immediately, the effect would be greater, and decrease as duration lengthens. Repetitive action-reward combination can cause the action to become habit.

Rewards can also be organized as extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are external to the person; for example, praise or money. Intrinsic rewards are internal to the person; for example, satisfaction or accomplishment.

Some authors distinguish between two forms of intrinsic motivation; one based on enjoyment, the other on obligation. In this context, obligation refers to motivation based on what an individual thinks ought to be done. For instance, a feeling of responsibility for a mission may lead to help others beyond what is easily observable, rewarded, or fun.
A reinforcer is different from reward, in that reinforcement is intended to create a measured increased in the rate of a desirable behavior following the addition of something to the environment.

ii) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation is when people engage in an activity, such as a hobby, without obvious external incentives. Intrinsic motivation has been studied by educational psychologists since the 1970s, and numerous studies have found it to be associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students. There is currently no universal theory to explain the origin or elements of intrinsic motivation, and most explanations combine elements of Fritz Heider's attribution theory, Bandura's work on self-efficacy and other studies relating to locus of control and goal orientation. Though it is that the students are more likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

i) Attribute their educational results to internal factors that they can control (e.g. the amount of effort they put in),

ii) Believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals (i.e. the results are not determined by luck),

iii) Are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades.
Note that the idea of reward for achievement is absent from this model of intrinsic motivation, since rewards are an extrinsic factor. In Knowledge-sharing communities and organizations, people often cite altruistic reasons for their participation, including contributing to a common good, a moral obligation to the group, membership or 'giving back'. In work environments, money may provide a more powerful extrinsic factor than the intrinsic motivation provided by an enjoyable workplace.

The most obvious form of motivation is coercion, where the avoidance of pain or other negative consequences has an immediate effect. Extreme use of coercion is considered slavery. While coercion is considered morally reprehensible in many philosophies, it is widely practiced on prisoners, students in mandatory schooling, within the nuclear family unit (on children), and in the form of conscription. Critics of modern capitalism charge that without social safety networks, wage slavery is inevitable. Successful coercion sometimes can take priority over other types of motivation. Self-coercion is rarely substantially negative (typically only negative in the sense that is avoids a positive, such as forgoing an expensive dinner or a period of relaxation), however it is interesting in that it illustrates how lower levels of motivation may be sometimes tweaked to satisfy higher ones.

iv) Self-control

The self-control of motivation is increasingly understood as a subset of emotional intelligence; a person may be highly intelligent according to a more conservative definition, yet unmotivated to dedicate this intelligence to certain tasks. Victor Vroom's "Expectancy Theory"
provides an account of when people will decide whether to exert self control to pursue a particular goal.

Drives and desires can be described as a deficiency or need that activates behavior that is aimed at a goal or an incentive. These are thought to originate within the individual and may not require external stimuli to encourage the behavior. Basic drives could be sparked by deficiencies such as hunger, which motivates a person to seek food; whereas more subtle drives might be the desire for praise and approval, which motivates a person to behave in a manner pleasing to others.

By contrast, the role of extrinsic rewards and stimuli can be seen in the example of training animals by giving them treats when they perform a trick correctly. The treat motivates the animals to perform the trick consistently, even later when the treat is removed from the process.

**d) Motivational Theories:**

1. Drive Reduction Theory

Woodworm (1918) has given the idea that we dislike the feeling of discomfort to such an extent that we are driven to reduce the feeling and therefore become motivated in a particular way. This theory accounts for very basic activities, such as, eating, drinking, sleeping etc.

It can also account for more complex activities such as comforting someone (because we have something to say to them) or apologizing to a friend after an argument.
1. Cognitive dissonance theory

Suggested by Icon Festinger, this occurs when an individual experiences some degree of discomfort resulting from an incompatibility between two cognitions. For example, a consumer may seek to reassure himself regarding a purchase, feeling, in retrospect, that another decision may have been preferable.

Another example of cognitive dissonance is when a belief and a behavior are in conflict. A person may believe smoking is bad for one's health and yet continues to smoke.

2. Optimum level of Arousal Theory

Routtenberg, (1968) have a view that there are wide ranging levels of individual differences- those with low levels (near boredom) prefer to lead safe, secure, predictable lives, whereas, those with high levels (near excitement) are constantly changing, often unhappy, and always looking for possible opportunities and alternatives.

3. Need Achievement Theory

David McClelland's achievement motivation theory envisions that a person has a need for three things, but differs in degree in degrees to which the various needs influences their behavior: Need for achievement, Need for power and Need for affiliation. In his theory, he stated that achievement-motivated people have certain characteristics they are as follows:
1-A person with high n-Ach likes to take personal responsibility.

2-A person with high n-Ach likes to take moderate risks.

3-A person with high n-Ach wants to know the result of his efforts.

4-A high n-Ach person tends to persists in the face of adversity.

5-A high n-Ach person tends to be innovative.

6-The high n-Ach person usually demonstrates some interpersonal competence.

7-A high n-Ach motivated individual is oriented towards the future.

4. Interests Theory

Holland codes are used in the assessment of interests as in Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI; Holland, 1985). One way to look at interests is that if a person has a strong interest in one of the 6 Holland areas, then obtaining outcomes in that area will be strongly reinforcing relative to obtaining outcomes in areas of weak interest.

5. Need Hierarchy Theory

Abraham Maslow's 'hierarchy of human needs theory' is the most widely discussed theory of motivation.
The theory can be summarized as thus:

a- Human beings have wants and desires which influence their behaviour; only unsatisfied needs can 'influence behaviour', satisfied needs cannot.

b- Since needs are many, they are arranged in order of importance, from the basic to the complex.

c- The person advances to the next level of needs only after the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.

d- The further the progress up the hierarchy, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health a person will show.

The needs, listed from basic (lowest, earliest) to most complex (highest, latest) are -

1- Physiological

2- Safety and security

3- Social

4- Self esteem

5- Self actualization

6- Self Transcendence
6. **Herzberg's two-factor theory**

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, concludes that certain factors in the workplace result in job-satisfaction, but if absent, lead to dissatisfaction.

He distinguished between:

a- Motivators:-( e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, and

b- Hygiene factors; (e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) that do not motivate if present, but, if absent, result in demotivation.

The name Hygiene factors is used because, like hygiene, the presence will not make you healthier, but absence can cause health deterioration. The theory is sometimes called the "Motivator-Hygiene Theory."

7. **Alderfer's ERG theory**

Clayton Alderfer, expanding, on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, created the ERG theory (existence, relatedness and growth). Physiological and safety, the lower order needs, are placed in the existence category, while love and self-esteem needs are placed in the relatedness category. The growth category contains our self-actualization and self-esteem needs.
8. **Self-determination theory**

Self-determination theory, developed by Edward Dec and Richard Ryan, focuses on the importance of intrinsic motivation in driving human behavior. Like Maslow's hierarchical theory and others that built on it, SDT posits a natural tendency toward growth and development. Unlike these other theories, however, SDT does not include any sort of "autopilot" for achievement, but instead requires active encouragement from the environment. The primary factors that encourage motivation and development are autonomy, competence feedback, and relatedness.

9. **Goal-setting theory**

Goal-setting theory is based on the notion that individual sometimes have a drive to reach a clearly defined end state. Often, this end state is a reward in itself. A goal's efficiency is affected by three features; proximity, difficulty and specificity. An ideal goal should present a situation where the time between the initiation of behavior and the end state is close.

This explains why some children are more motivated to learn how to ride a bike than mastering algebra. A goal should be moderate, not too hard or too easy to complete. In both cases, most people are not optimally motivated, as many want a challenge (which assumes some kind of insecurity of success.) At the same time people want to feel that there is a substantial probability that they will succeed. Specificity concerns the description of the goal in their class. The goal should be objectively defined and intelligible for the individual. A classic example of a poorly specified goal is to get the high test possible grade. Most children have no idea how much effort they need to reach that goal. For further reading, see Locke and Latham (2002).
ADJUSTMENT

Adjustment generally refers to the modification to compensate for to meet special conditions. In the dictionary the term adjustment means to fit, make suitable, adapt, arrange, modify, harmonize or make correspondence. Whenever we make an adjustment between two things adapt or modify one of both or both to correspond to each other. For example wearing of clothes according to the requirement of the seasons is an example of adjustment. We modify our self according to seasons because we cannot modify the seasons. Before understanding the adjustment as a process it is necessary to examine some of the definitions of adjustment given by the researchers.

Adjustment is the establishment of a satisfactory relationship as representing harmony, conformance, adaptation or the like (Webster, 1951).

Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs (Shaffer, 1961).

Adjustment is a continuous process in which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between himself and his environment (Gates and Jersild, 1948).

Gates and Jersild (1948) mentioned that adjustment is a harmonious relationship between and individual and his environment. In view of all these facts it could be stated that adjustment is a condition or state in which the individual behaviour conforms to the demands of the
culture or society to which he belongs and he feels that his own needs have been or will be fulfilled. In this concern Arkoff (1968) had given an extensive definition of adjustment. According to Arkoff adjustment is the interaction between a person and his environment. How one adjusts in a particular situation depends upon one’s characteristics as also the circumstances of the situation. In other words, both personal and environmental factors work side by side in adjustment. An individual is adjusted if he is adjusted to himself and to his environment.

Examination of various definitions of adjustment reveals that adjustment can be interoperated as both process and the outcome of that process in the form of some attainment or achievement. When a poor child studies under the street light because he has no lighting arrangement at home he is said to be in the process of adjustment what he attain in terms of success in his examination or the fulfilment of his ambition or pride in his achievement is nothing but the results of his adjustment to his self and his environment. In other words when adjustment is perceived as an achievement it means how the effectiveness with which an individual can function in changed circumstances and is, at such, related to his adequacy and regarded as an achievement that is accomplished as badly or well (Lazarus, 1976).

In some of the definitions of adjustment it was stated that the process of adjustment is continuous. If one thinks in the right direction the one observes that the process of adjustment starts at one’s birth and goes on without stop till one’s death. In other words adjustment is something that is constantly achieved and re-achieved by us. Apparently, it appears that adjustment is a one way process but in reality it is not.
It is a two way process and it involves not only the process of fitting oneself in to available circumstances but also the process of changing circumstances to fit one’s needs. Related to this White (1956) commented excellently. White writes that the concept of adjustment implies a constant interaction between the person and his environment, each making demands on the other. Sometimes adjustment is accomplished when the person yields and accepts conditions which are beyond his power to change. Sometimes it is achieved when the environment yields to the persons activities. In most cases adjustment is a compromise between these two extremes and mal adjustment is a failure to achieve a satisfactory compromise.

Researchers have made several attempts to measure the relationship between adjustment and other factors. For example the relationship between adequacy and social adjustment and adequacy of personal adjustment, has been investigated in a large number of studies. In Moreno’s study it was observed that how choice status or high rejection status is evidence that the adjustment of the subject is not good. A large number of studies search the relationship between the socio metric status of the individuals and adjustment. In these studies it was observed that the subjects low in social status make more unfavourable responses than the subjects high in social status (Baron, 1951).

In addition to the personal adjustment a number of other personality characteristics have been investigated as correlates of socio metric status. In present study anxiety was one of the factors of which effect on the adjustment was examined while considering the personality variables the researchers found that high anxiety affect the adjustment.
To get adjusted in life on has to be versatile individual for a simple reason that every individual has to face varied social situations which require different skills for satisfactory adjustment. Psychologists have pointed out and mentioned the characteristics of well adjusted person which denotes that these skills need to be developed and one has to learn to keep controls on the emotions. At the first place an individual must be aware of his own strengths and limitations. He must respect himself and others also. It is necessary that he should have an adequate level of aspiration, if the aspiration is very high which cannot be achieved even by hard work then the adjustment is likely to be hampered.

To be adjusted satisfactorily it is necessary that the basic needs of the individual must be satisfied. Often it is seen that people develop critical or fault finding attitude, in fact one should learn to appreciate the goodness in objects, persons or activity. As far as possible the observation should be scientific and objective not critical or punitive. There should be flexibility in behaviour. Rigidity is likely to result in maladjustment. The individual must have the capacity to deal with others circumstances, in other words, he must have courage to resist and fight odds. If the person is having a realistic perception of the world then there is possibility of satisfactory adjustment. In addition to this an individual must have a feeling of ease with his surroundings. Of course it’s very difficult to develop a balanced philosophy of life but specially after maturation or during the late age one can have the established norms which could be treated as a balanced philosophy of life. No doubt one has to make special efforts in order to be well adjusted and successful in life.
After studying the nature of adjustment and the factors that are related to successful adjustment it is necessary to consider theoretical prepositions related to adjustments. It is necessary because some people adjust to their environment successfully; many others could not it means that there are some factors that help in satisfactory adjustment and other factors that hinder the satisfactory adjustment. In order to understand that, it is necessary to examine some of the theories of models of adjustment.

One of the most famous views is related to psychoanalytic theory. It was Sigmund Freud (1938) who proposed this view. According to Freud human psyche consist of three layers , the conscious, the subconscious and the unconscious. It is the unconscious that holds the key to our behaviour, it is this unconscious level which decides the individual adjustment and mal adjustment to his self and his environment. It contains all the repressed wishes, desires, feelings, drives and motives many of which are related to sex and aggression. According to Freud man wants to seek pleasure and avoid pain or anything which is not in keeping with his pleasure loving nature. A person’s behaviour remains normal and in harmony with himself and his environment to the extent that his ego is able to maintain the balance between the evil designs of his id and the moral ethical standard dictated by his super ego. Freud suggested that adjustment or mal adjustment should not be viewed only in terms of what the individual may be undergoing at present and what happened to him in his earlier childhood is even more important.

Adler disagreed with the views expressed by Freud. He proposed that there is an inherent strong urge in all human beings to seek power and attain superiority.
However, as a child one is helpless and dependent which makes one feel inferior and in order to make up for the feeling of inferiority one takes recourse in compensatory behaviour. Here there is a need of adjustment.

**Moral Model**

This is one of the oldest view points about adjustment or mal adjustment. According to this view adjustment should be judged in terms of morality. Those who follow the norms are adjusted and those who violet or do not follow the norms are mal adjusted. This view is not scientifically correct but in olden days it was respected much.

**The Medico Biological Model**

According to this model genetic physiological and biochemical’s factors are responsible for a person being adjusted or mal adjusted to his self and his environment. Mal adjustment according to this model is the result of diseases in the tissues of the body, especially in the brain. Such disease can be the result of heredity or damage acquired during the course of a person’s life by injury, infection or hormonal disruptions arising from stress among other things. This model is still extant and enjoys credibility for rooting out the causes of adjustive failure in terms of genetic influence, biochemical defect hypothesis, and disease in the tissues of the body.
**Erich Fromm’s Views**

Fromm emphasized the need of security and felt that as a child one may feel the necessity for belonging to offset the fear of isolation and aloneness. The individual in his childhood may desire to live in his family, belonging to the members of the family and provided with love affection security. When he attains maturity he is impelled by an inner craving for freedom as a result he tries to escape from the very bonds which provided him the security he needed. In this kind of situation he may be confronted with the inner conflict of being dependent for the satisfaction of his needs. If the crisis dissolved the individual is satisfied and adequately adjusted but if the conflict retains then there is possibility of maladjustment.

**The Socio Genic Or Cultural Model**

This model proposed that the society in general and culture in particular affects one’s ways of behaving to such an extent that behaviour takes the shape of adaptive or non-adaptive behaviour turning one into an adjusted or mal adjusted personality. The society and culture to which one belongs does not only influence or shape ones behaviour but also sets his standard for its adherents to behave in the way he desires. Individuals, who behave in the manner that society desires, are labeled as normal and adjusted individuals, while deviation from social norms and violation of role expectancy is regarded as a sign of mal adjusted and abnormality.
The Social Psychological or Behaviourist Model

According to this model behaviour is not inherited. Competencies required for successful living are largely acquired or learnt through social experience by the individual himself. The environmental influences provided by the cultural and social institutions are important but in the interaction of one’s psychological self with ones physical as well as social environment which plays a decisive role in determining adaptive success or failure. Behaviour whether normal or abnormal is learnt by obeying the same set of learning principles or laws. Generally every type of behaviour is learnt or acquired as an after effect of its consequences. The behaviour once acquired if reinforced may be learnt by the individual as normal as a result one may learn to consider responses which are labeled normal as abnormal. Not only the normal or abnormal behaviour is learnt but labeling of behaviour as normal or abnormal is also learnt. In short, the behaviourist model proposes that adjustment or mal adjustment is acquired not inherent. Societal influence on the individual and vice-versa should be taken into consideration for understanding adjustment or mal adjustment of the individual with the self or environment.

Methods of Adjustment

In order to lead a healthy happy and satisfying life one has to learn the various ways of adjustment. The first one being coping with ones environment as effectively as possible. The individual has to safeguard his self against turning into a mal adjusted and abnormal personality. Psychologist have suggested different ways or methods which could be grouped into two categories, the former is called as direct method latter is called as indirect methods. In the direct methods increasing trials or
improving efforts is an important one. The second one refers to adopting compromising means. At times one has to withdraw and to be submissive and finally he has to make proper choice and decisions. There are indirect methods of achieving adjustment; infact indirect methods are those methods which a person tries to seek temporary adjustment to protect himself for the time being against a psychological danger. These are purely psyche or a mental device that is why they are called as defence or mental mechanisms. In these indirect methods all the defence mechanisms suggested by Freud are incorporated.

**Emotional Intelligence**

What Is Emotion?

In its most literal sense, the Oxford English Dictionary defines emotion as "any agitation or disturbance of mind, feeling, passion; any vehement or excited mental state." Goleman take emotion to refer to a feeling and its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and range of propensities to act. There are hundreds of emotions, along with their blends, variations, mutations, and nuances. Indeed, there are many more subtleties of emotion than we have words for.

Researchers continue to argue over precisely which emotions can be considered primary The blue, red, and yellow of feeling from which all blends come or even if there are such primary emotions at all. Some theorists propose basic families, though not all agree on them. The main candidates and some of the members of their families:
• Anger: fury, outrage, resentment, wrath, exasperation, indignation, vexation, acrimony, animosity, annoyance, irritability, hostility, and, perhaps at the extreme, pathological hatred and violence
• Sadness & grief, sorrow, cheerlessness, gloom, melancholy, self-pity, loneliness, dejection, despair, and, when pathological, severe depression
• Fear anxiety, apprehension, nervousness, concern, consternation, misgiving, wariness, qualm, edginess, dread, fright, terror; as a psychopathology, phobia and panic.
• Enjoyment: happiness, joy, relief, contentment, bliss, delight, amusement, pride, sensual pleasure, thrill, rapture, gratification, satisfaction, euphoria, whimsy, ecstasy, and at the far edge, mania
• Love: acceptance, friendliness, trust, kindness, affinity, devotion, adoration, infatuation, agape
• Surprise: shock, astonishment, amazement, wonder
• Disgust.- contempt, disdain, scorn, abhorrence, aversion, distaste, revulsion
• Shame: guilt, embarrassment, chagrin, remorse, humiliation, regret, mortification and contrition.

To be sure, this list does not resolve every question about how to categorize emotion. For example, what about blends such as jealousy, a variant of anger that also melds sadness and fear? And what of the virtues, such as hope and faith, courage and forgiveness, certainty and equanimity? Or some of the classic vices, feelings such as doubt, complacency, sloth, and torpor or boredom? There are no clear answers; the scientific debate on how to classify emotions continues.
The argument for there being a handful of core emotions hinges to some extent on the discovery by Paul Ekman, at the University of California at San Francisco, that specific facial expressions for four of them (fear, anger, sadness, enjoyment) are recognized by people in cultures around the world, in-duding preliterate peoples presumably untainted by exposure to cinema or television suggesting their universality. Ekman showed facial photos portraying expressions with technical precision to people in cultures as remote as the Fore of New Guinea, an isolated Stone Age tribe in the remote highlands, and found people everywhere recognized the same basic emotions. This universality of facial expressions for emotion was probably first noted by Darwin, who saw it as evidence the forces of evolution had stamped these signals in our central nervous system.

In seeking basic principles, Golemen follow Ekman and others in thinking of emotions in terms of families or dimensions, taking the main families anger, sadness, fear, enjoyment, love, shame, and so on as cases in point for the endless nuances of our emotional life. Each of these families has a basic emotional nucleus at its core, with its relatives rippling out from there in countless mutations. In the outer ripples are moods, which, technically speaking, are more muted and last far longer than an emotional (while it's relatively rare to be in the full heat of anger a day, for example, it is not that rare to be in a grumpy, irritable mood, in which shorter bouts of anger are easily triggered). Beyond moods are temperaments, the readiness to evoke a given emotion or mood that makes people melancholy, timid, or cheery. And still beyond such emotional dispositions are the outright disorders of emotion such as
clinical depression or unremitting anxiety, in which some one feels perpetually trapped in a toxic state.

THE NATURE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In recent years a growing group of psychologists has come to similar conclusions, agreeing with Gardner chat the old concepts of IQ revolved around a narrow band of linguistic and math skills, and chat doing well on IQ tests was most directly a predictor of success in the classroom or as a professor but less and less so as life's paths diverged from academe. These psychologists Stemberg and Salovey among them have taken a wider view of intelligence, trying to reinvent it in terms of what it takes to lead life successfully, and that line of enquiry leads back to an appreciation of just how crucial "personal" or emotional intelligence is.

Salvoes subsumes Gardner's personal intelligences in his basic definition of emotional intelligence, expanding these abilities into five main domains

1. Knowing one's emotions. Self-awareness recognizing a feeling as happens is the keystone of emotional intelligence. The ability to monitor feelings from moment 10 moments is crucial to psychological insight and self understanding. An inability to notice our true feelings leaves us at their mercy. People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a surer sense of how they really feel about personal decisions from whom to marry to what job to take.
2. Managing emotions. Handling feelings so they are appropriate is an ability that builds on self-awareness. The capacity to soothe oneself, to shake off rampant anxiety, gloom, or irritability and the consequences of failure at this basic emotional skill. People who are poor in this ability are constantly battling feelings of distress, while those who excel in it can bounce back far more quickly from life's setbacks and upsets.

3. Motivating oneself Marshalling emotions in the service of a goal is essential for paying attention, for self-motivation and mastery, and for creativity. Emotional self-control delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness underlies accomplishment of every sort, and being able to get into the "flow" state enables outstanding performance of all kinds. People who have this skill tend to be more highly productive and effective in whatever they undertake.

4. Recognizing emotions in others. Empathy, another ability that builds on emotional self awareness, is the Fundamental "people skill." The root of empathy, the social cost of being emotionally tone deaf, and the reasons empathy kindles atomism. People who are empathic are more attuned to the subtle social signals that indicate what others need or want. This makes them better at callings such as the caring professions, teaching, sales, and management.

5. Handling relationships. The art of relationships is, in large part, skill in managing emotions in others, social competence and incompetence, and the specific skills involved. These are the abilities that under gird popularity, leadership, and interpersonal effectiveness People who excel in these skills do well at anything that relies on interacting smoothly with others; they are social stars.
Of course, people differ in their abilities in each of these domains; some of us may be quite adept at handling, say, our own anxiety, but relatively inept at soothing someone else's upsets. The underlying basis for our level of ability is no doubt, neural, but as we will see, the brain is remarkably plastic, constantly learning. Lapses in emotional skills can be remedied: to a great extent each of these domains represents a body of habit and response that, with the right effort, can be improved on.

IQ and emotional intelligence are not opposing competencies, but rather separate ones. We all mix intellect and emotional acuity; people with a high IQ but low emotional intelligence (or low IQ and high emotional intelligence) are, despite the stereotypes, relatively rare. Indeed, there is a slight correlation between IQ and some aspects of emotional intelligence though small enough to make clear these are largely independent entities.

Unlike the familiar tests for IQ, there is, as yet, no single paper and pencil test that yields an "emotional intelligence score" and there may never be one. Although there is ample research on each of its components, some of them, such as empathy, are best tested by sampling a person's actual ability at the task for example, by having them read a person's feelings from a video of their facial expressions. Still, using a measure for what he calls "ego resilience" which is quite similar to emotional intelligence (it includes the main social and emotional competences), Jack Block, a psychologist at the University of California at Berkeley, has made a comparison of two theoretical pure types: people high in IQ versus people high in emotional aptitudes. The differences are telling.
The high-IQ pure type (that is, setting aside emotional intelligence) is almost a caricature of the intellectual, adept in the realm of mind but inept in the personal world. The profiles differ slightly for men and women. The high-IQ male is typified no surprise by a wide range of intellectual interests and abilities. He is ambitious and productive, predictable and dogged, and untroubled by concerns about himself. He also tends to be critical and condescending, fastidious and inhibited, uneasy with sexuality and sensual experience, un-expressive and detached, and emotionally bland and cold.

By contrast, men who are high in emotional intelligence are socially poised, outgoing and cheerful, not prone to fearfulness or worried rumination. They have a notable capacity for commitment to people or causes, for taking responsibility, and for having an ethical outlook; they are sympathetic and caring in their relationships. Their emotional life is rich, but appropriate; they are comfortable with themselves, others, and the social universe they live in.

Purely high-IQ women have the expected intellectual confidence, are fluent in expressing their thoughts, value intellectual matters, and have a wide range of intellectual and aesthetic interests. They also tend to be introspective, prone to anxiety, rumination, and guilt, and hesitate to express their anger openly (though they do so indirectly).

Emotionally intelligent women, by contrast, tend to be assertive and express their feelings directly, and to feel positive about the themselves; life holds meaning for them. Like the men, they are outgoing and gregarious, and express their Feelings appropriately (rather than, say, in outbursts they later regret); they adapt well to stress.
Their social poise leis them easily reach out to new people; they are comfortable enough with themselves to be playful, spontaneous, and open to sensual experience. Unlike the women purely high in IQ, they rarely feel anxious or guilty, or sink into rumination.

These portraits, of course, are extremes all of us mix IQ and emotional intelligence in varying degrees. But they offer an instructive look at what each of these dimensions adds separately to a person's qualities. To the degree a person has both cognitive and emotional intelligence, these pictures merge Still of the two, emotional intelligence adds far more of the qualities that make us more fully human.

The roots of Emotional Intelligence

Even though the term emotional intelligence has received considerable attention recently, earlier psychologists and philosophers had already laid down the foundation. Current models of emotional intelligence are the result of the deficiencies of understanding the term intelligence. According to Spinoza (1977), both the emotion and intellect together contribute to the ultimate cognitive tool. He talked about three levels of cognition, i.e., emotional cognition, intellectual cognition and a kind of intuition. Aristotle (1984) also stresses on what reason dictates when one gets angry with the right person to the proper extent at the right time. Ellis (1962) points out that human emotion and thinking are not separate processes, but that they significantly overlap and can never be viewed completely apart from each other. To quote Mowrer (1960) "The emotions are of quite extraordinary importance in the total economy of living organisms and do not deserve being put into opposition with intelligence. The emotions are it seems, themselves a higher order of intelligence (Salovey, P. elal. 2001).
Thorndike (1920) kept a special place for social intelligence away from other types of intelligence and defined it as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls - to act wisely in human relations" He found that social intelligence was a complex of several abilities. His references to social intelligence included three elements - the individual's attitudes towards society; social knowledge such as being well in contemporary issues and general knowledge about society; and the individual's capacity for social adjustment such as interpersonal relations and family bonding. However, it may be clarified that Thorndike's definition included almost everything related to human intelligence ranging from social psychological, economic and emotional affective and non-affective. His contentions are of great scientific help to the modern researchers trying to establish the construct validity of emotional intelligence.

There is an old term in clinical psychology that tends to relate to the current Science. It is alexithymia coined by Sifneos (1973). However, the origins can be traced back to the clinical reports by Ruesch (1948), Maclean (1949), Horney and Kelman (1952). Ruesch (1948) and Maclean's (1949) clinical reports were based on their observation among the patients suffering from psychosomatic diseases. Horney and Kelman's (1952) reports were based on psychiatric patients who were often engaged in alcohol abuse or other compulsive behaviour. Their behaviour was not guided by personal values, feelings, and wishes. Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that the construct of alexithymia neglects positive feelings, mixed emotions or neutral states and instead focuses on negative emotions. They also claim that the relationship between ego-threatening feelings or feelings of all types and alexithymia are not clear.
Wechsler (1940) defined intelligence as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment. Furthermore, he proposed that non-intellective abilities, i.e., emotional abilities are essential to determine one's ability to succeed in life. He found emotional intelligence to be an integrated part of an individual's personality development. In fact, a greater part of the world, still believes that the academic achievements matter much for success in life.

Gardner (1993) talked about multiple intelligence including intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence. He conceptualized intrapersonal intelligence as an ability to understand one's own emotions and interpersonal intelligence as an ability to know other's emotions and intentions. So, these concepts are very much in emotional intelligence. Sternberg (1988) talked about triarchic theory of intelligence that consists of componential intelligence, experiential intelligence and contextual intelligence much overlapping with emotional intelligence because it manages our ability to handle everyday life affairs in an efficient and practical way The central idea is our capacity to make adjustments to various contexts with a proper selection of contexts so that we can improve our environment in a better way to cater our needs.

The term emotional intelligence was first used in U.S.A. in 1985 by a student while writing his doctoral dissertation. In 1995, Goleman wrote a book 'Emotional Intelligence'. In this book he compiled a lot of interesting information on brain, emotions and behaviour and defined emotional intelligence as the capacity to reason with emotion in four areas: to perceive emotion, to integrate it in thoughts, to understand and to manage it.
Bar-on (1997) said that 'emotional intelligence' reflects one's ability to deal with daily environment challenges and helps predict one's success in life, including professional and personal pursuit's.

Mayer and Cobb (2000) defined 'emotional intelligence' as the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding and management of emotions. Models of Emotional Intelligence

There are different types of models of emotional intelligence - Mixed (1997), Goleman (1995) and AbBfty Model (1997).

**Mixed Model**

The mixed model describes a compound conception of intelligence that includes mental abilities disposition and tact. Bar-on (1997) defined mixed model of emotional intelligence: Emotional Intelligence' is an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures'. The Bar-on approach to non cognitive intelligence is related to the 'non-intellect' components of intelligence. The concept of non-cognitive intelligence which is measured by emotional Quotient brings new depth to the understanding of intelligence and increases our ability to assess emotional intelligence. As such non-cognitive intelligence is an important factor in determining one’s ability to succeed in life and it also directly influences ones general emotional wellbeing. These abilities and skills which are related to life and success are identified under five broad areas which are intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood.
• **Intrapersonal skills:** It includes Emotional self awareness, Assertiveness, Self-regard and Self-actualization.

• **Interpersonal skills:** It includes Problem solving, Reality testing and Flexibility.

• **Stress management and general mood:** It includes Stress tolerance, Impulse control, Optimism and Happiness.

**Goleman's (1995) mixed model of Emotional Intelligence.**

According to Goleman, 'Emotional Intelligence' refers to the abilities which include self-control, zeal and persistence and the ability to motivate oneself. The abilities and skills which constitute emotional intelligence are divided into four broad areas.

- **Knowing one's emotions** - Recognizing a feeling; monitoring feelings from moment to moment
- **Managing emotions**- Handling feelings; ability to soothe oneself.
- **Motivating oneself** – Directing emotions, delaying gratification and stifling impulsiveness.
- **Recognizing emotions in others**- Empathizing with emotions of others.

**Ability Model**

The ability model of emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 1997) is the first model that passed on the concept of emotional intelligence. It focuses on the interplay of emotions and intelligence. Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions accurately, appraise and express emotions, the ability to understand emotions, emotional knowledge and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. These emotional competences
of emotional intelligence are shown in four branches given below arranged from basic psychological processes low-higher integrated processes.

**Perception, appraisal and expression of emotion**

The lowest branch concerns the accuracy with which individuals can identify emotions and emotional content. People differ in terms of their ability to accurately express emotions. Appraisal and expressing the emotions of others is the ability to accurately determine the emotion of other people and the ability to accurately communicate these feelings. Related to the appraisal and expression of emotion in others is the concept of empathy, the ability to understand and experience another person's feelings or emotions (Mehrabian and Epstein, Wispe; 1972, 1986). Empathy is an important skill which enables people to provide useful social support and maintain positive interpersonal relationships (Barson. Thoits; 1987, 1986).

**Emotional facilitation of thinking**

Emotional facilitation of thinking concerns erosions acting on intelligence. It describes emotional events that assist intellectual processing. It involves evaluating the same opportunities and problems in varying mood states and a broad range of options will be brought to mind and considered. Emotions from start signal the important changes in the individual and environment. As an individual matures, emotions shape and improve thinking by directing a person's attention to important changes.
Understanding and analyzing emotions; employing emotional knowledge

Understanding and analyzing emotions; employing emotional knowledge is the ability to understand emotions and to use emotional knowledge. Consequences of mood and emotion also vary among individuals. Some people have a rudimentary understanding of how they are influenced by feelings and use this knowledge in functional ways, for example, a home buyer in a positive mood sees a house, he likes but forestalls making a final decision until he returns to the house in a couple of days. This buyer possesses an understanding of how their appraisal of the house may be coloured by their good mood. On the other hand, people are oblivious to the effects of feelings. An individual having a hard day at work comes home in a bad mood and gets into argument with his spouse and children. He never realizes how this bad mood is contributing to the disagreement.

- Management of emotions

Management of emotions concerns the conscious regulation of emotions to enhance emotional and intellectual growth. Emotional reactions must be tolerated when they occur independently. The emotional insight and energy provided by experience may be applied to the reasoning process and may both motivate it and provide a means, for example, to elicit others anger in opposition to injustice. As the individual matures, there also emerges consistency reflective or meta-experience of mood and emotion. The meta-experience of mood appears to be related to important phenomenon such as how clear, typical and influential one's mood is. The meta-experience of mood appears to be related to important phenomenon such as how long one dwells on traumatic expenses.