Introduction
Chapter I

Introduction

According to report UNICEF 2011, 1.2 billion adolescents stand at the crossroads between childhood and the adult world. Around 243 million of them live in India. As they stand at these crossroads, so do societies at large – the crossroads between losing out on the potential of a generation or nurturing them to transform society. As adolescent grow our community should take responsibility united with all the stakeholders who are responsible for empowerment of adolescent and to make them more prospective youth.

We all adoringly remember our childhood experiences and how we grow from child into adult. The boulevard of becoming an adult is very decisive for adolescence which demands more autonomy and dependency. Adolescence as something beyond a purely physical stage of development seems to be an invention of advanced societies. Many researchers enlighten the age period of adolescent undergo 14 years or 13 years, crossroad of teenage and treated as adults. Adolescent are always asked by his parents to pay more attention to his studies and less to games and friends as it is foundation stage. Adolescence is the phase of shift from being a child to an adult. Just before adulthood, adolescents or teenagers can become perplexing creatures for their parents. It seems that there is no right way to understand them, respond to them or even approach them. At the same time it demands adjustment on many fronts. Everything that a parent does seems to go wrong. Teenage or adolescence generally extends from 12 to 19 years of age and can be broadly categorized into three stages - early adolescence (12 to 14 years), middle adolescence (14 to 17 years) and late adolescence (17 to 19 years). In this segment, will talk about the various stages of development in adolescence and some ways to understand the complex nature of teens.

The word ADOLESCENCE comes from Latin language adolescence which means “to grow to maturity”. Growing to maturity includes: physical growth, attainment of mature structure, the learning of physical characteristic, mental maturation and development of secondary-sex characteristic.
Developmental stages of adolescence could be understood in three specific aspects:

- Physical
- Cognitive
- Psycho-social

**PHYSICAL:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Boys</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increase in height</td>
<td>1. Increase in height</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Development fatty and subcutaneous tissues</td>
<td>2. Development of muscles</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Growth of hair in armpits and pubic area</td>
<td>4. Growth of hair in the armpits, pubic area and appearance of facial hair</td>
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<td>5. Voice becomes shrill</td>
<td>5. Voice break takes place due to lengthening of vocal cord and enlarging of larynx</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Appearance of breast bud</td>
<td>6. Increase in the size of penis</td>
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<td>7. On set of menarche</td>
<td>7. Nocturnal emissions take place</td>
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Figure 1.1 Physiological Development of Adolescents

The commencement of biological growth and development at the time of adolescence is coincides with the onset of puberty, which is defined as the physical transformation of a child into an adult. (Jamie S. and Mary S, 2005) A myriad of biological changes occur during puberty including sexual maturation, increases in height and weight, completion of skeletal growth accompanied by a marked increase in skeletal mass, and changes in body composition. The succession of these events during puberty is consistent among adolescents; however, there may be a great deal of deviation in the age of onset, duration,
and tempo of these events between and within individuals. For this reason, adolescents of the same chronological age can vary greatly in physical appearance. This has direct relevance for the nutrition requirements of adolescents. A 13-year-old male who has nearly completed the linear growth spurt associated with puberty and has experienced significant muscular development will have remarkably different energy and nutrient needs than those of a 13-year-old male who has not yet experienced puberty. Consequently, sexual maturation should be used to assess the extent of biological growth and development and the individual nutritional needs of adolescent’s in. (3)

Cognitive Development

Very noticeable changes in intellectual development take place during adolescence. The adolescent becomes able to think in more abstract and logical terms. The quality of thinking in terms of great ideals also emerges during the period. The three main characteristics of adolescent thought are as follows:

(a) Capacity to combine several factors and find solution to a problem.

(b) Capacity to see that what affect one factor will have on another factor.

(c) Capability to combine and split factors in a probabilistic manner.

However, the above characteristics of adolescent thought may not apply to each and every child. Important variations have often been seen in individuals of the same culture. Although there are marked individual differences in cognitive development among youth, these new capacities allow adolescents to engage in the kind of introspection and mature decision making that was previously beyond their cognitive capacity. Cognitive competence includes such things as the ability to reason effectively, problem solve, think abstractly and reflect, and plan for the future. (4)

Emotional Changes

(Santrock, 2001) Emotional development during adolescence involves establishing a realistic and coherent sense of identity in the context of relating to others and learning to cope with stress and manage emotions, processes that are life-long issues for most people. (5)
As we have examined the commencement of puberty brings physical changes among the adolescents. These changes are often accompanied by emotional tensions. The adolescent is unwrapping to the essentials of society norms, behavior, new social circumstance and expectations which convey them sense of security.

Moreover, adolescents face lot of depression and even they show more propensity of impulsive urge to take immediate action which perilous for them and could take up to risk taking behavior. The peer group pressure is mainly responsible factor for decision of risk taking behavior among adolescents.

Changes in the Body Image

Due to rapid physiological changes taking place in an adolescent, a consciousness and increased interest about one's own body develops. The body image can bring a sense of fun, pride, shyness or even unhappiness.

Change in Attitudes, Interest and Interpersonal Relationships

The adolescence brings a change in the habitual pattern of behaviour, attitude and personality. There are marked changes in the adolescent’s social interest. Adolescents use new set of values in selection of friends and social grouping. The choice of friends depends more on similar interests and values. The peer group influences the attitudes, values and behavior more than the child's own family. Interest in world affairs, politics and government often develops during this period. Some of the recreational interests during adolescence are sports and games, scholastic and extracurricular activities. There is genuine desire to help others and engaging in benevolent activities like collecting funds for a cause, arranging charity show etc. This also helps the adolescent to learn to adjust in variety of situations. It must be noted that along with these changes adolescence also brings in negative syndrome like being self-centered, showing off, emotional immaturity, stubbornness, irritability, unsatisfactory relationship with the family and other unattractive personality traits. (6)

Adolescent Social Development

The social development of adolescents is best considered in the contexts in which it occurs; that is, relating to peers, family, school, work, and community.
Peer Relationships

(O'Koon, 1997) One of the most evident changes in adolescence is that the hub around which the adolescent's world revolves shifts from the family to the peer group. It is important to note that this decreased frequency of contact with family does not mean that family closeness has assumed less importance for the adolescent. Peer groups serve a number of important functions throughout adolescence, providing a temporary reference point for a developing sense of identity. Through identification with peers, adolescents begin to develop moral judgment and values (Bishop & Inderbitzen, 1995) and to define how they differ from their parents (Micucci, 1998). (Savin-Williams & Berndt, 1990) The nature of adolescents' involvement with peer groups changes over the course of adolescence. Younger adolescents typically have at least one primary peer group with whom they identify whose members are usually similar in many respects, including sex.

Family Relationships

Article from American Psychological Association (pg.94) Families today can take many forms—single parent, shared custody, adoptive, blended, foster, traditional dual parent, to name a few. Regardless of family form, a strong sense of bonding, closeness, and attachment to family have been found to be associated with better emotional development, better school performance, and engagement in fewer high-risk activities, such as drug use (Resnick et al., 1997; Klein, 1997; Perry, 2000).

School

For most adolescents, school is a prominent part of their life. It is here that they relate to and develop relationships with their peers and where they have the opportunity to develop key cognitive skills. For some youth, it is also a source of safety and stability. Some of the same qualities that characterize families of adolescents who do well—a strong sense of attachment, bonding, and belonging, and a feeling of being cared about—also characterize adolescents' positive relationships with their teachers and their schools. One additional factor, adolescent perception of teacher fairness, has also been found to be associated with positive adolescent development. Professionals should be alert to the difficulty that adolescents can have with school transitions and be ready to provide additional support and guidance during these periods. (APA, 2002)
Community

Communities have profound impact on adolescents. Even nature of community has impact on adolescent. Community comprise of factors like socioeconomic distinctiveness of one’s neighborhood, the types of resources accessible, and the service systems within the community (including schools), religious organizations, the media, and the people who live in the community and who contribute to the adolescents development. Some communities are rich in resources that provide support and opportunity for adolescents.

Adolescent Behavioral Development

All of the ways adolescents develop—cognitively, physically, socially, emotionally—prepare them to experiment with new behaviors as they transition from childhood to adulthood. This experimentation in turn helps them to fine-tune their development in these other realms. Risk taking in adolescence is an important way that adolescents shape their identities, try out their new decision-making skills, and develop realistic assessments of themselves, other people, and the world (Ponton, 1997). Such exploratory behaviors are natural in adolescence (Hamburg, 1997), and teens need room to experiment and to experience the results of their own decision making in many different situations (Dryfoos, 1998). However, young people sometimes overestimate their capacities to handle new situations, and these behaviors can pose real threats to their health. To win the approval of peers or to avoid peer rejection, adolescents will sometimes take risks even they themselves judge to be “too risky” (Jaffe, 1998).

Several theories have been proposed as to why adolescents employ in risky behaviors (e.g., Arnett & Balle-Jensen, 1993; Gibbons & Gerrard, 1995; Jessar, 1991). One theory stresses the need for excitement, fun, and novel, intense sensations that override the potential dangers involved in a particular activity (Arnett & Balle-Jensen, 1993). Another theory stresses that many of these risk behaviors occur in a group context and involve peer acceptance and status in the group (Jessor, 1991). A third theory emphasizes that adolescent risk taking is a form of modeling and romanticizing adult behavior (Gibbons & Gerrard, 1995).
IDENTITY CRISIS AMONG ADOLESCENT:

Identity

Identity crisis word is coined by Erikson in his theory “theory of personality”. But Identity crisis is a term used in colloquial speech in simple word for adolescent, turmoil in a person's life “who am I “and variety of tumult in adolescent mind. Several authors attested that adolescents in search of their true selves experience different possible selves, which do not determine who they really are (Berger, 1998; Berk, 2001; Feldman, 2003; Rice, 2001). (20)

James Marcia built on this work in the mid-1960's he explicate Identity as "sense." an "attitude." a "resolution." and so on. According to him another way of construing identity: as a self-structure - an internal, Self-constructed, dynamic organization of drives, abilities, beliefs and individual history. The better developed this structure is the more conscious individuals appear to be of their own exclusivity and similarity to others and of their own strengths and weaknesses in making their own approach in the world. The less developed this structure is the more confused individuals seem about their own distinctiveness from others and the more they have to rely on external sources to weigh up themselves. The identity structure is dynamic not static. Essentials are continually being added and discarded. Over a period of time the entire gestalt may shift. Although the content of individual identities may be interesting the most crucial area for study is the underlying process: the patterning of more or less disparate parts into a flexible unity. (21)

Identity crisis is a term used in colloquial speech to refer to a time of great turmoil in a person's life in which they struggle with understanding that they are:

Marcia's Identity Statuses:

James Marcia refined and extended Erikson's work on identity. In Marcia's model, identity involves the adoption of 1) a sexual orientation, 2) a set of values and ideals and 3) a vocational direction. A well-developed identity gives on a sense of one's strengths, weaknesses, and individual uniqueness. A person with a less well-developed identity is not able to define his or her personal strengths and weaknesses, and does not have a well articulated sense of self.
To better understand the identity formation process, Marcia conducted interviews with young people. He asked whether the participants in his study (1) had established a commitment to an occupation and ideology and (2) had experienced, or were presently experiencing, a decision making period (adolescent identity crisis). Marcia developed a framework for thinking about identity in terms of four identity statuses.\(^{(20)}\)

**Foreclosure:**

These people have made commitments to an occupational future, but have not experienced an identity crisis. They have conformed to the expectations of others concerning their future. For example, an individual may have allowed a parent to decide what career they will pursue. These individuals have not explored a range of options (experience an "identity crisis").\(^{(20)}\) In terms of family patterns of interaction, foreclosed adolescents have reported their families as very close and child-centered; in a study of adolescent females, when the mother is too close, involved, and protective of her daughter, the daughter mirrors parental values rather than exploring other possibilities (e.g., Perosa, Perosa, & Tam, 1996).\(^{(22)}\) Less reported conflict in families has also been associated with the foreclosed identity status (e.g., Willemsen & Waterman, 1991).\(^{(23)}\) Foreclosed adolescents have evidenced patterns of severe anxious attachment in the face of family separation threat more frequently than any other identity status (Kroger, 1985).\(^{(24)}\) Observational research has found parents who discourage the expression of individual opinions among family members have adolescents demonstrating low levels of identity exploration (e.g., Grotevant & Cooper, 1985).\(^{(25)}\) Youths who remain foreclosed during late adolescence have shown more anxious or detached attachment profiles relative to other identity statuses (e.g., Kroger, 1995).\(^{(26)}\)

**Diffusion:**

The young person has not made a commitment, and may or may not have experienced an identity crisis. He or she appears to have given up any attempt to make the commitments needed for developing a clear sense of identity as Marcia defines the term.\(^{(20)}\)

Diffuse individuals have shown low levels of autonomy, self-esteem, and identity (e.g., Cramer, 1997; Marcia, 1966).\(^{(27)}\) Having no firm identity-defining commitments or interest in making them, diffusions seem content to "go where the wind blows" or wherever circumstances push them; they have demonstrated the lowest sense of personal
iterative continuity over time (e.g., Berzonsky, Rice, & Neimeyer, 1991). (28) This social cognitive style is marked by procrastination and defensive avoidance of issues, as well as reliance on an external locus of control. Diffusions have demonstrated preconventional, conventional, or generally low levels of moral reasoning (e.g., Podd, 1972; Skoe & Marcia, 1991). (29) In terms of interpersonal relationships, diffusions have reported distant or rejecting caretakers or low level of attachment to parents (e.g., for males, Campbell, Adams, & Dobson, 1984; for females, Josselson, 1987). (30) In addition, communication patterns have often been inconsistent. Memories of diffusions regarding their families have carried themes of a wistful quality, wishing for strong adults to care and set guidelines (e.g., Josselson, 1987). (30)

**Moratorium:**

Individuals in moratorium are actively exploring alternative commitments, but have not yet made a decision. They are experiencing an identity crisis, but appear to be moving forward toward identity formation, making commitments. In research by Berzonsky and Kuk (2000), (31) the more self-exploration that students had engaged in (those in both identity-achieved and moratorium identity statuses), the more prepared they were to undertake tasks in a self-directed manner without needing to look to others for reassurance and emotional support. Moratorium individuals have also shown a greater disposition to adaptive regression than those in other identity statuses (e.g., Bilsker & Marcia, 1991). (20)

**Achievement:**

The adolescents has experienced an identity crisis or identity characteristic and has made commitments necessary for building a sense of identity as described above. Identity Achievements are individuals who have experienced a decision-making period and are pursuing self-chosen occupation and ideological goals. Identity-achieved individuals have shown such personality features as the high levels of achievement motivation and self-esteem (along with moratoriums; e.g., Orlofsky, 1978) (32) and low neuroticism and high conscientiousness and extrovertedness (e.g., Clancy & Dollinger, 1993). (33)

**Social and cultural identity**

Social and cultural identity is influenced by crisis discussed above. Adolescence is a stage of growth and development. Growth is related with increase expansion and development is related with new competence and augmentation of personal resources. Individual achieve
this identity by their affiliation. At this stage adolescent move toward their own road and their own techniques with maturation and growth. But he/she finds difficulty in confronting this path and unfortunately leads to crisis. They may encounter certain degree of disorganization and confusion.

Family is the first set which we fit in to and an important affiliation in social and cultural identity. Each has their own influence on identity through the interaction that takes place between the family members and with the individual person. "Information regarding possible identities of possible selves comes from various contexts that surround adolescents and temporal commitments are tested and practiced in interaction with others. (Goossens, L. (2008). Dynamics of perceived parenting and identity formation in late adolescence. Journal of Adolescence, 31(2), 165-184.)"

Identity achieved individuals have shown the greatest willingness to reveal themselves to others (e.g., Adams, Abraham, & Markstrom, 1987), and have also shown the most secure patterns of attachment to their families (e.g., Kroger, 1985) Families of both identity-achieved and moratorium adolescents have emphasized both individuality and connectedness in family relationships (e.g. Campbell, Adams, & Dobson, 1984).

**Family:**

The family is perceived as a unit of two or more persons united by the ties of marriage, blood, adoption or consensual unions, generally constituting a single household, and interacting and communicating with each other. It is considered the basic unit of society, to meet the needs of the individuals and those of other societal institutions. It determines the development of individuals, in that it is a major source of nurturance, emotional bonding and socialization. Enriching family life can, therefore, best enhance human development. (India Report on CRC, GOI, 2000, page 7.)

**A family is defined by the Civil Procedure Code, 1908, in order XXXII-A6 as follows:**

a) (i) A man and his wife living together,

(ii) Any child or children, being issue of theirs; or of such man or such wife;

(iii) Any child or children being maintained by such man and wife;
b) a man not having a wife or not living together with his wife, any child or children, being issue of his, and any child or children, being maintained by him; c) a woman not having a husband or not living together with her husband, any child or children being issue of hers, and any child or children being maintained by her; d) a man or woman and his or her brother, sister, ancestor or lineal descendant living with him or her; and e) any combination of one or more of the groups specified in (a), (b), (c) or (d) of this rule.\(^{36}\)

3. Families in a large and culturally diverse country such as India are fairly well developed, strong and based on a range of kin-extensions. They have a plurality of forms that varies with class, ethnicity and individual choices. This picture is in consonance with the flexible definition of family in the CRC, which includes kinship and community arrangements. The normative family composition types in India are the extended/joint family and elementary/ nuclear family. In many rural areas, the traditional joint family system is still very strong, where a child grows in the company of his/her own siblings, cousins and grandparents. The term “joint family” is used more commonly than “extended family” in India. The elementary or nuclear family comprises couples and their unmarried children, and is generally financially independent of other families. This structure appears to be becoming the norm in most urban areas. A variation of an elementary/ nuclear family is the supplemented nuclear family, which comprises a nuclear family with single. Family is one who gives support and guidance without rewards.

Family is the oldest socializing institution and important of all where man regulates and integrates his behavior as he endeavors to gratify his vital needs. Moreover to understand influence of family on the child, it is important to understand family functioning and family environment. Various research established the concept that family relationship has been good, not only during adolescence but also during the earlier, formative years, the adolescent will develop into a well adjusted individual (Woolf, 1963).\(^{37}\) One of the important roles of family is presumed to be the socialization of the child. Badani and Goswami (1973)\(^{38}\) studied the social adjustment in relation to some organic and environmental variables. Their study found that comparatively the female group was significantly socially better adjusted than the male. They also concluded that the students falling into various socio-economic strata did not differ significantly in their social adjustment. Lay perspectives on this developmental period.
The families in common and parents in particular, have often been judged to be the most important support system available to the child. The strongest factor in molding a child’s personality is his relationship with his parents (Mohanraj and Latha 2005)\(^{(39)}\). The family in its most common forms is a lifelong commitment between man and women who feed, shelter and nurture their children until they reach maturity. It is a primary socialization context and is, therefore, considered to be a very important factor influencing child development (Ozcinar 2006).\(^{(40)}\)

Overall family functioning is broader concept which encompasses parent child relationship, family interaction pattern, and family environment. Adolescent develop values and culture through socialization and family interaction.

Family environment continues to be of crucial importance throughout adolescence and young adulthood (Van Wel 2000)\(^{(41)}\). Because of the important role of psychological functioning for youngsters’ daily lives and their further social adaptation, it is apparently relevant to study the effect of the family environment on the emotional adjustment of adolescents (Mc Farlane et al. 1994)\(^{(42)}\). Family cohesion and supportive relationships between family members are associated with adolescent psychological adaptation and lower depression (Herman et al. 2007)\(^{(43)}\).

Research concerning level of family conflict suggests that a conflictual family environment is associated with adolescents’ insecurity and psychological distress, as well as aggressive behavior and conduct disorder (Wissink et al. 2006)\(^{(44)}\). Body of research undoubtedly elucidate that adolescence stage is where well-being decreases and psychological problems increase. One aspect of the family that has been steadily found to affect the emotional adjustment of adolescents is the quality and stability of their parent’s marriage (Amato and Keith 1991a)\(^{(45)}\). Numerous studies have shown that youngsters growing up in families with a happy, harmonious parental marriage experience fewer problems and a higher well-being than those from divorced or martially distressed families (Spruijit and De Goede 1997)\(^{(46)}\).

Families of delinquent or uncontrollable adolescents are characterized by poorer family relationships and less social connectedness. In general, these families are lower on cohesion and independence and higher on conflict and control (Fox et al., 1983)\(^{(47)}\). The family environment also affects the academic achievement, which is the product of
maturational forces within the adolescent and the experiences provided by the environment (Bernard, 1971). (48)

Family is fundamental in development of achievement motivation and engagement in skill-based learning. It is potentially very important to find that family environment adopts a more pro-active approach in achievement motivation.

Family cultural traits and demographic traits, in combination with specific characteristic of child, influence parents general and child specific beliefs, which in turn influence parent's general and child-specific behavior and practices, which, in turn, influence children self beliefs, motivation and interest patterns, and actual behavior.

**Achievement Motivation:**

Achievement motivation is studied by many psychologists. The word motive derived from the Latin word MOVERE, meaning "to move". The basic of achievement motivation is to achieve, that is a motive to achieve success in life. Achievement motivation is the aspiration for specific doings with interest in particular filed. Aspiration could be for sports, school works, and social activities or in any other field of interest.

Achievement motivation can best be understood by groping the meanings of "achievement" and "motivation" discretely. Achievement typically stresses the importance of accomplishment and attainment with effort involved (Mandel & Marcus, 1988). (49) Achievement can also be described as energy that is used to overcome challenges and persevere to conquer a goal. Motivation relates to an individual's reason for engaging in an activity, the degree to which an individual pursues the activity, and the persistence of the individual (Graham & Weiner, 1996). (50)

Achievement Motivation can be defined as a concern for excellence in performance as reflected in competition with the standards set by others or over unique accomplishment or long time involvement (McClelland, 1953). (51) There has been extensive research on the influences on students' achievement motivation.

It is the basic ingredients necessary for one's success in life. Psychological research has identified multiple factors which play an important role in predicting adolescents' achievement motivation.
Academic achievement motivation is used to mean the pupil's need or drive towards the achievement of success in academic work (Amalaha, 1975; Moen and Doyle, 1977). It is assumed that people differ in their need to achieve in situations that call for excellence. Gesinde (2000) argues that the urge to achieve varies from one individual to the other.

**Intrinsic motivation:**

Intrinsic motivation is defined as internal motive or drive—it is an inherent and satisfactorily, an activity which is associated with fun or challenge. It is with personal pleasure or interest not with any environmental pressure. The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behavior, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward (White, 1959).

In humans, intrinsic motivation is not the only form of motivation, or even of volitional activity, but it is a pervasive and important one. From birth onward, humans, in their healthiest states, are active, inquisitive, curious, and playful creatures, displaying a ubiquitous readiness to learn and explore, and they do not require extraneous incentives to do so. This natural motivational tendency is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development because it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills. The inclinations to take interest in novelty, to actively assimilate, and to creatively apply our skills is not limited to childhood, but is a significant feature of human nature that affects performance, persistence, and well-being across life's epochs (Ryan & LaGuardia, in press).

When adolescent want to skilled at intrinsic motivation in academic, they are more endure with struggle, pressure and develop the problem solving skills, and trust that they can succeed in life.

Vallerand (1997) differentiates the three types of intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation to know refers to the desire to perform an activity “for the pleasure and satisfaction that one experiences while learning, exploring, or trying to understand something new” (p. 280).
Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to external drives that influence the performance of an activity—in essence, driving our efforts by factors outside of ourselves, such as achieving a reward or preventing punishment. Extrinsic motivators provide pressure to either obtain something or avoid harmful feedback. Extrinsically motivated students are more likely to hold performance goals that are focused on wanting to look competent to others or on avoiding failure. Students with extrinsically motivated goals have been found to be less likely to seek help and persist in the face of challenge.\(^{(57)}\)

Extrinsic motivation refers to one's participation in an activity that is tied to the presence or absence of external rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000)\(^{(58)}\). One common criticism of the use of extrinsic rewards is that they decrease intrinsic motivation to achieve because students shift their focus away from the material to be learned and instead concentrate solely on the reward (Cameron & Pierce, 1996)\(^{(9)}\). In fact, some researchers have found that once students have been exposed to an extrinsic reward (e.g., a token economy) for an extended period, the termination of extrinsic rewards results in decreased student motivation (Sax & Kohn, 1996)\(^{(60)}\).

For any academic challenges, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation coincides. For instance, students enjoy doing activities with independency and autonomy but also want good reward. So to support this parents and educators should gaze for ways to knock into student's intrinsic motivation.

With aforementioned definitional issues with us, let us now move to what is destined by a theory of motivation. There are a number of approaches to the study of motivation, each containing a number of specific related theories.

Psychologists construe theory to construct motivational augmentation. Theories lay emphasis on the role of stable dispositions in explaining the variability among individuals in the behavioral patterns. For example, consider Clark Hull's drive theory of motivation (Hull, 1943, 1951). Although this conception no longer has great impact in psychology, it was the most influential approach in the decades from 140 to 1960. In its simplest form, the theory states that behaviour is a function of drive multiplied by habit.\(^{(61)}\)

David McClelland believes that the need for achievement is a distinct human motive that can be distinguished from other needs. One characteristic of achievement motivated people
is that they see to be more concerned with personal achievement than with the rewards of success. He believes that they do not reject rewards but the rewards are not essential as the accomplishment itself (Argyris, 2010). David McClelland is most prominent for unfolding three types of motivational need, which he identified in his 1961 book, The Achieving Society (Argyris, 2010).

- achievement motivation (n-ach)
- authority/power motivation (n-pow)
- affiliation motivation (n-affil)

**Need for power:**

This need is indicated by a person's desire to control and influence the behavior of others. A person with desire for power likes to compete with others when the situation is favorable for such domination.

**Need for affiliation:**

Here, the person has a need/desire for affection and wants to establish friendly relationships. A person with high need for affiliation seeks to establish and maintain friendships and dose emotional relationships with others.

**Need for achievement:**

Here, the person desires to succeed in competitive situations. He desires to prove his superiority over others. Such person sets reasonably difficult but potentially achievable goals for himself. He accepts moderate degree of risk.

Atkinson theorized that orientation results from achieving success and avoiding failure. The motive to achieve success is determined by three things: (1) the need to succeed or need achievement (nAch); (2) the person's estimate of the likelihood of success in performing the particular task; and (3) the incentive for success—that is, how much the person wants to succeed in that particular task. The motive to avoid failure is determined by three similar considerations: (1) the need to avoid failure which, like the need to achieve success; (2) the person's estimate of the likelihood of failure at the particular task; and (3) the incentive value of failure at that task, that is, how unpleasant it would be to fail (Atkinson, 1966).
Tendency to undertake an activity is defined as “the product of motive, expectancy, and incentive” (J. W. Atkinson & Feather, 1966, p. 328). There are two components to this tendency. The first is the tendency to achieve success (Ts). The second is the tendency to avoid failure (T-f). Tendency to achieve success is defined as the product of (a) the motive or need to achieve success (Ms), (b) the strength of expectancy (or subjective probability) that success will be the consequence of a particular activity (Ps), and (c) the incentive value of success at that particular activity (Is):\\(^{(51)}\\)

\[ Ts = Ms \times Ps \times Is \]

**Self-Determination Theory of Motivation (Deci & Ryan – 1985):**

SDT is a meta-theory that attempts to account for two views of causality regarding human behavior: (a) the view that humans act with agency and intrinsic motivation, and (b) the view that their actions can be determined or influenced by external factors. SDT provides a framework to integrate observed cases of both phenomena:

The primary agenda of self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985b; Ryan & Deci, 2000b)\(^{(58)}\) has been to provide an account of the seemingly discrepant viewpoints characterized, on the one hand, by the humanistic, psychoanalytic, and developmental theories that employ an organismic metatheory and, on the other hand, by the behavioral, cognitive, and post-modern theories that do not. In other words, recognizing that there is compelling evidence in favor of human tendencies toward active engagement and development and that there is, as well, manifold indication of fragmentation and conditioned responses, SDT provides a framework that integrates the phenomena illuminated by these discrepant viewpoints. (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 5)\(^{(64)}\)

**Expectancy–value theory:** Eccles et al. (1983) proposed an expectancy–value model of achievement performance and choice and studied it initially in the mathematics achievement domain. Eccles et al. (1983) defined and measured expectancies for success as children’s beliefs about how well they will do on upcoming tasks, either in the immediate or longer term future. Ability beliefs are defined as the individual’s perception of his or her current competence at a given activity. Ability beliefs thus are distinguished conceptually from expectancies for success, with ability beliefs focused on present ability and expectancies focused on the future. However, empirically these constructs are highly related (see Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Eccles et al., 1993; this issue is discussed in more
Expectancy Value Theory - Expectancy Value (EV) Theory holds that an individual will expend effort on a task to the degree that she 1) feels confident or has an expectation that she can be successful at the task if she applies herself to it, and 2) values the task and its associated rewards.\(^{(65)}\)

**Self-Determination Theory.** The self-determination theory is a popular theory that focuses on students' interest in learning and the value they place on education (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991)\(^{(67)}\). Intentional and motivated behaviors are a large part of the self-determination theory. Intentional behaviors are defined as behaviors controlled by some interpersonal factor. Intentional behaviors are typically controlled by external forces such as rewards or expectations. This theory holds that people have an inherent motivation to learn. It makes a strong connection between a desire to learn and an individual's intrinsic motivation to perform a task. Tasks that pique interests are likely to motivate in meaningful and lasting ways.

**Attribution Theory.** Attribution theory focuses on how people explain the behavior of themselves and others (Weiner, 1985)\(^{(68)}\). The application of attribution theory to motivation relates to how people understand successes and failures. Ability, effort, task difficulty/ease, and luck are four attribution variables often used for understanding the way an individual explains successes and failures. Weiner (1979)\(^{(69)}\) suggested that these four common factors could be classified into three different dimensions: locus, stability/instability, and controllable/uncontrollable. Locus comprises factors that are internal (e.g., effort or ability) or external to the person (e.g., luck or difficulty level of task). Stability comprises factors that are stable (e.g., ability) or unstable (e.g., luck) over time. Controllability includes features that are controllable by the individual (e.g., effort) and uncontrollable by the individual (e.g., difficulty level of task). These attributions relate to an individual's motivation. An individual that believes he is not smart enough (internal, stable, uncontrollable) to pass calculus probably has little motivation to work hard in that class.
Family Environment and Achievement Motivation:

Several studies in past decade have scanned the relationship between the family environment and achievement motivation. Shaver and Walls' (1998) study of Title I students found that outcomes in mathematics and reading achievement for students of all socioeconomic levels were significantly affected by parent/family involvement, although students from higher socioeconomic families experienced the greatest improvement.

As Paley, Conger, and Harold (2000) remark, children establish their first social relations with parental figures and the nature of those parent–child relationships and the context in which they are sustained may determine the social skills and social relations the child will develop with others later in life. Consistent with this, Henry et al. (1996) found that adolescents having parents who engage in positive reasoning to solve problems, and who described their families as high in cohesiveness, are more likely to report higher levels of perspective taking when trying to understand another individual’s feelings or emotional state. Authors wrap up from their findings that the family nurture adolescent empathy development in myriad ways; it not only endow with the training ground for empathy skill, but also employed a precedent for the use of an empathic response which the adolescent can then draw upon in the course of interactions with peers and other adults such as teachers. Some recent studies suggest that family risk factors, such as weak affective cohesion and low parental support, are more strongly related to aggressive behavior in girls than in boys (Blum, Ireland, & Blum, 2003; Flood-Page, Campbell, Harrington, & Miller, 2000).

According to Hammer (2003) the home environment is as important variable to know about school activity. Important factors include parental involvement in their children's education, how much parents read to young children, how much TV children are allowed to watch and how often students change schools. Achievement gap is not only about what goes on once students get into the classroom. It's also about what happens to them before and after school. Parents and teachers have a crucial role to play to make sure that every child becomes a high achiever. Parental influence has been identified as an important factor affecting student achievement. Results indicate that parent education and encouragement are strongly related to improved student achievement (Wang, Wildman, & Calhoun, 1996).
Studies of Paul (1996)\(^{(73)}\) revealed that there is significant degree of conflict with less cohesion and organization in the emotionally disturbed families. Families of successful students showed high achievement orientation and organization in the family regardless of social class (Paul, 1988). Steven (1990) showed a concomitant relationship between family environment and school outcome variables. The results of Whitehead and Deborah (1991)\(^{(73)}\) study indicated that best predictor of grade point average was the intellectual cultural orientation of the family environment. In India, several investigations have assessed the differential effects of family interactions on psychiatric disorders\(^{(73)}\). Preet (1992) studies of family environment of psychiatric patients in comparison to a control group resulted in significant differences in the psychiatric group and the control group.\(^{(74)}\) A study by Nihiral et al., (1985) has revealed significant influences of changes in home environment on social adjustment in adolescent\(^{(75)}\).

Eccles, wigfield, and schiefele, (1998), they muse that achievement behavior coincides with educational, vocational, and leisure choices would be most directly related to individual’s expectations for ascend in life, success and value individual embed to the various alternative they see as accessible.\(^{(76)}\)

Researchers in sociology, psychology, and other fields have documented the association of such factors as family structure family size, parent’s involvement, parent’s occupation, community characteristic, and dramatic changes in the family’s economic resources with children’s academic motivation and achievement.\(^{(Laosa,1999;Magnuson,2003;Marjorobanks, 2002;Teachman,Pasch,& Carver, 1997; Yegung, Linver,& Brooks-Gunn, 2002)}\) on the whole, these studies show that children growing up in this family environment with more financial, time, social, and intellectual resources excel academically in school, and earn higher degrees. For instance parents with higher education are more likely to believe in children education and intellectuality and which facilitate as stimulating material in home.\(^{(Debaryshe, 1995; Marjoribanks, 2002; Schneider & Coleman, 1993)}\)\(^{(76)}\)

**Adolescent and achievement motivation:**

Adolescent is age not only start with biological changes but psychological changes too, many researcher mark this age as “storm and stress”. Adolescence is important period of life. It is very crucial stage for adolescent to acumen this period. There is lot identity crisis, self concept issue and self determination problem, even many more. It is a transition
period where behavior is characterized by instability, unpredictability and change - a time when actions and emotions are often more extreme, more intense and more unpredictable, and are elicited with less provocation than ever before (77). Academic achievement at this period can have significant implications on employment or career opportunities, understanding adolescents’ motivation is essential to ensuring students accomplish their prospective in school.

Many studies have devoted dimensions related to achievement motivation in adolescents. Variables which contribute to achievement motivation are family, school, peer group and their self motivation to achieve their goals in life. Several motivational constructs have been studied, in particular self-efficacy beliefs related to specific disciplines, attitude towards school, school anxiety, goal orientation, and causal attributions regarding achievement. Several studies focus on self-efficacy beliefs defined as individual’s judgments about ones competence to carry out in specific tasks in definite situations (Bandura, 1997). They illustrate that adolescents’ beliefs about their competence affect achievement. These beliefs have even been considered as better predictors than real competence regarding achievement, especially for adolescents (Schunk & Pajares, 2005). (78)
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