CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF PREDICTORS

In the present chapter definitions of predictors under consideration are presented briefly so as to get the conceptual understanding of these variables and also to understand the rationale of relationship of these variables with mental health of adolescents.

2.1 LEVEL OF ASPIRATION

2.1.1. MEANING OF LEVEL OF ASPIRATION

Like other psychological phenomena, motivational factors are important in directing individual behaviour consciously and make him strive for to perform certain types of activity in order to achieve a definite goal. Every one aims at reaching a definite goal or excellence in performance and in doing so, he sets a desire for distinction which has an inner structure, known as 'Level of Aspiration.'

Level of aspiration means earnest desire, aims or ambitions. Level of aspiration is a construct which was first used by Lewin (1935) so as to ascertain an individual's 'perceived' goal. One way in which this was accomplished was to measure an individual's reaction to success and failure and to reset his level of anticipation performance to succeeding task.

'Level of aspiration' is a psychological construct which
reflects a cognitive type of motivation of the individual. The word aspire refers to the ambition or desire, a want which has not been fulfilled and man still works for it. Level of aspiration means the goal the individual sets for himself in a task, which has intense personal significance. It is the standard a person expects and hopes to reach in a given performance because he has not yet reached this goal. Level of aspiration is the level of future performance in a familiar task, which an individual knowing his level of past performance in that task, explicitly undertakes to reach.

Aspiration refers to the level of education/occupation for which a person aspires. In general aspiration means the fantasy of the individual regarding future occupation or settlement. It indicates what a person wants to be in his future life irrespective of the limitation imposed by reality. A frat deal of individual variation is found with regard to goal setting behaviour. An individual's level of aspiration thus represents not only his position at a particular moment but it is a measure of his intentional disposition, an important element of his long range behaviour.

Hoppe (1930) conducted an experimental study, analysed the aspirational phenomenon and investigated the various factors which affect goal setting behaviour. He concluded that individual variations are found in level of aspiration. In his view a realistic person always sets a goal on the basis of his past experience keeping in view of his capabilities for doing a particular task. Many other issues are also involved in the study of level of aspiration. The more immediate goals an individual
sets for himself are typically assessed not by means of a projective test but by asking the individual directly for what level of attainment he or she is striving.

Level of aspiration involves the estimation of his ability (whether over, under or realistic) for his future performance on the strength of his past experience (goal discrepancy), his ability and capacity, the efforts that can make towards attaining the goal, thus set by him. The goal setting behaviour as well as the process of attaining the goal are consequences of his past experience whether failure-oriented or success-oriented, level of efforts made by him in that direction and his capacity to pursue the goal. Thus, four main points are distinguished in a typical sequence of events in a level of aspiration situation.

1. Last performance
2. Setting of level of aspiration for the next performance
3. New performance
4. Psychological reaction to the new performance.

The difference between the level of the last performance and that of the new goal is called 'Goal Discrepancy' whereas the difference between the goal level and that of the new performance is called 'Attainment Discrepancy.' The greater the discrepancy, whether goal or attainment, the lesser the chances of attaining the goal and the wider the frustration that the individual may experience. Thus neither the over-estimation, nor the under-estimation what so ever they may be, but it is the realistic estimation in terms of least goal or attainment discrepancy that brings him the highest level of satisfaction as
certaining his reality-oriented personality and consistency between his goal setting behaviour and his ability and efforts to attain the same.

Level of aspiration is not an uni-dimensional but multi-dimensional phenomena. No two individuals are alike in aspiration. Many psychological and environmental factors develop the aspiration of an individual.

According to Hoppe 1930, “Level of aspiration is the degree of that task chosen as a goal for the next action.’

According to Frank (1935), “The level of aspiration is future performance in a familiar task which an individual, knowing his level of past performance in that task explicitly undertakes to achieve.’

According to Boyd (1952), “Level of aspiration means an individual’s ambition in a dynamic situation, it is an individual’s goal or expectation in regard to the goodness of his own future to a given task.”

According to Good (1957), ‘Level of aspiration is the level of performance or the good that a person (or a group) desires or hopes to reach in a specified activity.”

According to Hilgard (1965). “An aspiration is person’s orientation towards a goal. It is setting of goal to be achieved. Success and failure of an individual can be measured through knowledge of goals.”

In the words of Hurlock (1967) aspiration means ‘a longing for what is above one’s achieved level with advancement of it as its end. In other words, aspiration means the goal an individual
sets for himself in a task, which has intense personal significance for him or in which his ego-involved.’

Ali and Akhtar (1973) has used the concept of level of aspiration as a motivational construct to refer to the process of setting a goal by an individual in the activity to be performed. This depends on the individual’s knowledge of past performance in that particular task.”

According to Taneja, R.P. (1989), “Level of aspiration is a standard of achievement that a pupil sets for him/herself.”

According to Bhargava and Shah (1996), “Level of aspiration is the difference between how a person expects or aspires to perform a given task and how actually does he perform.”

In short many researchers have pointed out that level of aspiration is the expected level of achievement of the individual where difference is obtained between person's performance in a task and his estimate of future performance in that task. This concept of level of aspiration is taken in the present measure which is based on Humphrey and Argyle (1962).

2.1.2. DETERMINANTS OF LEVEL OF ASPIRATION

Level of aspiration is usually influenced by two types of factors—environmental and personal. In early childhood, before the child is old enough to know what his abilities, interests and values are, his aspirations are largely shaped by his environment. As he grows older and is more aware of his abilities and interests, personal factors have a greater influence, but many of his aspirations, his values, for example are still
Environmental in origin.

**Environmental Determinants**

(i) *Parental Ambitions*: Parental ambitions influence the level of aspiration of the child. Parents always expect more from the first born, and therefore the level of aspiration may be higher for the first born than that of those born later.

(ii) *Social Expectations*: Society expects more from some people than others. It is generally assumed that one who is successful in a particular area may also be successful in other areas if he wishes.

(iii) *Peer Pressure*: Friends may encourage or discourage a child for anything. If they encourage him, it is possible that he will develop a tendency of high goal setting.

(iv) *Culture*: Cultural traditions are important factors for setting the goal better and rich culture background helps a child in fulfilling high expectations.

(v) *Social Value*: It also varies with the area of achievement. Social rewards and prestige also works as a reinforcer.

(vi) *Competition*: Competitions with siblings and peers in the hope of showing better than others is also an affecting factor for level of aspiration.

(vii) *Group Cohesiveness*: It is also considered as a determinant of goal setting. One does better and sets high goal when he is acting in a group.

**Personal Determinants**

(i) *Wishes*: If one's need to achieve something or he has high
achievement motivation, his level of aspiration for achieving will be higher, and thus his wishes influence the level of aspiration.

(ii) **Personality:** The personality characteristic also determine the kind and strength of his aspirations.

(iii) **Past Experience:** The previous success strengthens one's aspirations whereas failure weakens it.

(iv) **Values and Interest:** Personal values and interest also determine the extent of level of aspiration.

(v) **Sex:** It is generally found that boys have higher aspirations than girls because of their different interests, likings, goals, and expectations of family and society.

(vi) **Socio-Economic Background:** It is noticed that middle and upper groups have higher degree of aspirations than those of lower group.

(vii) **Racial Background:** Minority groups aspire higher than majority group. It is just a sort of compensation on the part of minority groups.

For the measurement of level of aspiration a person is asked to fix some amount of work (generally a mechanical task) which he can perform within a given time (generally part of a minute) This behaviour is known as goal setting behaviour. In experiments of level of aspiration which means an immediate goal, almost within reach whatever a subject sets as his momentary goal may be taken as his measure of level of aspiration. Level of aspiration is a cognitive type of motivation in which the person concerned becomes involved in the task
estimate and his own level of achievement. His experiences of success or failure guide him throughout the process to change his goal setting behaviour, facilitating the measurement of level of aspiration. Level of aspiration refers to a level of interest or expectation of accomplishment. Mental health is very much related to level of aspiration. Different effects on aspiration may result from mental health.

Gardner (1940) found that if the performance equals the level of aspiration, the level of aspiration is lately to swing upward conversely, an unattained desire level of performance leads to lowering the level of aspiration. Sears (1946) found that discrepancy scores (between level of success expected and success attained) for successful students were closely grouped in a small positive range, whereas the failure group revealed generally higher discrepancy which is large for those students who have experienced continual failure. So, success perpetuates goal setting and leads to a higher level of aspiration. Failure tends to lower the aspiration level.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

What do happiness, fear, anger, affection, shame, disgust, surprise, lust, sadness, elation and love have in common? These are emotions, which directly affect our day to day life. For long, it has been believed that success at the work place depends on our level of intelligence or intelligence quotient (IQ) as reflected in our academic achievements, exams passed marks obtained, etc. In other words, our intellectual; credentials; doing well in school, holding an engineering degree, or even an advanced computer degree, obtaining high scores on an IQ test, all these
are instances of intelligence of the academic variety. But how bright are we outside the classroom, faced with life's difficult moments? Here, we need a different kind of resourcefulness termed as emotional intelligence (EQ), which is a different way of being smart.

The concept, 'emotional intelligence" refers to how intelligently we can control our emotions. It is a new concept and no one can yet say exactly how much of the variability of emotional life from person to person it accounts for. It can be as powerful and at times more powerful than IQ an old concept.

Emotional intelligence is that which gives a person a competitive edge. Emotional intelligence refers to the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in our ourselves and in our relationships. It is often said that a high IQ may assure us a top position, but it may not make us a top person.

A person’s feelings cannot be observed directly by others but they can be inferred from his overt behaviour. To exhibit emotions is very easy but doing it at the right time, at the right place with the right person and to the right degree is difficult. The management of emotions has given rise to the most talked about term emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence involves the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate thoughts, the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and intellectual growth.

Intelligence": Why it can matter more than IQ." He gave the world a new meaning of emotional intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey (1995) define emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action. Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotions, the ability to access and or generation feelings when they facilitate thoughts; the ability to understand, emotions and emotional knowledge and intellectual growth.

Bar-on, R. (2003) says 'emotional intelligence reflects one's ability to deal with daily environment challenges and helps predict one's success in life, including professional and personal pursuits'.

Cooper and Sawaft (1997) define emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.

Stein and Book (2001) defined 'emotional intelligence as 'set of skills that enables us to make our way in complex world — the personal, social and survival aspect of overall intelligence, elusive common sense, and sensitivity that are essential to affective daily functioning.

Dalip Singh (2003) explains that emotional intelligence consists of psychological dimensions such as emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity, which motivate an individual to manage and lead others as well
as empathize with them.

Cambridge Dictionary, (2005) defines emotional intelligence as the very people feel and react. Thus emotional intelligence is about controlling and channelizing the emotions positively to achieve high self-concept.

Two American psychologists, Peter Salovey of Yale and John Mayer of the University of New Hampshire in 1990 defined emotional intelligence in terms of being able to monitor and regulate one's own and other's feelings and to use feelings to guide thought and action.

2.2.1. COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Self-Awareness: This involves knowing what we are feeling at the moment and using this understanding to guide our decision making, having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence. It also implies observing ourselves and recognizing our feelings; building a vocabulary for feelings and knowing the relationship between thoughts, feelings and reactions.

Self-Regulation: It includes self-acceptance, assertiveness, conflict resolution, communication and personal responsibility, handling your emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand, being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals and recovering well from emotional distress. It involves feeling pride and sensing yourself in a positive light, recognizing your strengths and weaknesses; being able to laugh at yourself; stating your concerns and feelings without anger or passivity.
Motivation: This involves using your priorities to move and guide yourself towards your goals; to help yourself to take the initiative and strive to improve and to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations.

Empathy: Empathy is sensing what people feel, being able to take their perspective and cultivate rapport and attunement with a broad diversity of people; understanding others' feelings and concerns and their perspectives and appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.

Social Skills: Social skills enables handling emotions in relationship well and accurately reading social situations and networks, interacting smoothly using these skills to persuade and lead and negotiating and setting disputes for co-operation and teamwork.

Personal Decision-Making: Examining your actions and knowing their consequences; knowing if thought or feeling is ruling a decision.

Managing Feelings: Monitoring "Self-talk" to catch negative messages such as internal put-downs: realizing what is behind a feeling (e.g., the hurt that underlies anger); finding ways to handle fears and anxieties, anger and sadness.

Handling Stress: Learning the value of exercise guided imagery, relaxation method.

Communications: Talking about feelings effectively; becoming a good listener and question-asker; distinguishing between what someone does or says and your own reactions or judgments about it.
Self-Disclosure: Valuing openness and building trust in a relationship knowing when it is safe to risk talking about your private feelings.

Insight: Identifying patterns in your emotional life and reactions, recognizing similar patterns in others.

Self-Acceptance: Feeling pride and seeing yourself in a positive light recognizing your strengths and weaknesses; being able to laugh at yourself.

Assertiveness: Stating your concerns and feelings without anger or passivity.

Personal Responsibility: Taking responsibility; recognizing the consequences of your decisions and actions, accepting your feelings and moods, following through on commitments (e.g., to studying).

Group Dynamics: Cooperation, knowing when and how to lead, when to follow.

Conflict Resolution: How to fight fair with other kids, with parents, with teachers: the win-win model for negotiating compromise.

Impressive in its scope and depth and staggering in its implications emotional intelligence gives us an entirely new way of looking at the root cause of many of the ills of our families and our society (Goleman, 1995).

2.2.2 DIMENSIONS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

1. Emotional Competency: Constitutes the capacity to tactfully respond to emotional stimuli elicited by various
situations, having high self esteem and optimism, communication, tackling emotional upsets such as frustration, conflicts and inferiority complexes, enjoying emotions doing what succeeds, ability to relate to others, emotional self-control, capacity to avoid emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout, learning to avoid negativity of emotions, handling egoism.

2 **Emotional Maturity:** Constitute evaluating emotions of one-self and others, identifying and expressing feelings, balancing state of heart and mind, adaptability and flexibility, appreciating other’s point of view, developing others, delaying gratification of immediate psychological satisfaction.

3. **Emotional Sensitivity:** Constitutes understanding threshold of emotional arousal, managing the immediate environment, maintaining rapport harmony and comfort with others, letting others feel comfortable in your company. It also involves being honest in interpersonal dealings, interpreting emotional cues truthfully, realizing communicability of emotions, moods and feelings and having an insight into how other evaluate and relate to you.

According to Goleman (1998) IQ accounts for only about 20 percent of a person's success in life. The balance can be attributed to emotional intelligence or EQ.
Emotional intelligence may have started out as an academic catch phrase, but it is fast becoming the psychological mantra of organizational development in recent times. EQ includes traits like self-awareness, social deftness, and the ability to defer gratification, to be optimistic in the face of adversity, to channel strong emotions and show empathy towards others. Of these traits, self-awareness is perhaps the most important emotional competency, the cornerstone of building personal success in life. A deficit in self-awareness can have debilitating effects, both in your personal relationships and at the workplace.

There is no gain saying that an environment of distrust, manipulation, corruption, negative feelings and low morale can prove to be disastrous at the workplace. Moreover, the rapidly increasing of violent crime, industrial strikes, marital strife, teenage drug abuse, low morals, a decline in national character and other ills can be attributed to the lack of EQ. Psychological research has demonstrated that it is possible to improve levels
of emotional intelligence in such situations and equip people
with the necessary emotional competence to deal with them.
There is much about emotional intelligence' which is plain
commonsense. Thus, it is apparent that the ability to control
anger or develop empathy is likely to be a better indicator of
future success than the kind of abstract intelligence measured
through IQ tests and put into practice by academicians
throughout the world.

Thus, emotional intelligence constitutes three
psychological dimensions emotional competency, emotional
maturity and emotional sensitivity - which motivate an
individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle
tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour.

It is shown as below:

\[ 	ext{Emotional Intelligence} \]

\[ \text{Emotional Competency} \]

\[ \text{Emotional Maturity} \]

\[ \text{Emotional Sensitivity} \]

In general we can define emotional intelligence as
accumulation of all cognitive, non-cognitive and non physical
capabilities, competencies and skill a person has, that help him
to deal with the demands and pressures of every day life.
Emotional intelligence is the ability to understand emotions and their causes, the capability to effectively regulate these emotions in oneself and in others and most importantly being able to use the emotions as a source of information for problem solving, being creative and dealing with social situations. In simple terms we can say that EQ can be defined as knowing what feels good, what feels bad and how to get from bad to good.

**Characteristics of emotional intelligence are:**

i) It is a non-cognitive and non-physical capacity of organism

ii) It is an internal or psychological process, which motivates the organism to perform its activities properly.

iii) It is nurturable.

iv) It energizes the organism to accomplish the required tasks.

v) Level of emotional intelligence is neither genetically fixed nor does it develop only in early childhood and develop throughout life.

**2.2.3. WHAT EXACTLY IS EQ?**

In simple terms, emotional quotient which is used interchangeably with emotional intelligence, can be defined as knowing what feels good, what feels bad, and how to get from bad to good. The proponents of EQ argue that it is never too late to make changes in your life, or help others do the same or create a culture which is more caring, giving, supportive and enriching.
Research and experience clearly demonstrate that while some aspects of your personality are fixed, you may choose the way you want to act these out. In other words, you do not choose your characteristics or many of the events in your life, but you do choose how to react to them. The good news about emotional intelligence is that, unlike IQ, it can be improved throughout life. In the normal course of a lifetime, emotional intelligence tends to increase as you learn to be more aware of your moods, to effectively handle distressing emotions, to listen and empathise. In short, as you become more mature, the process of becoming more intelligent about your emotions and your relationships increases. It was confirmed that emotional intelligence developed with increasing age and experience as a person progressed from childhood to adulthood. Men and women are equal in their ability to increase emotional intelligence. While women tend to be stronger in competencies based on empathy and social skills, men do better in those based on self-regulation but both men and old women could improve to the same extent, regardless of where they started on a given competence.

Finally the level of intelligence is not fixed genetically, nor does it develop only in early childhood. Unlike IQ, which does not change much after adolescence, emotional intelligence is largely learned and continues to develop throughout life; as you learn from your experiences, your competence keeps growing.
2.2.4 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EQ) AND GENERAL INTELLIGENCE (IQ).

1. Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of an individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment. Where as emotional intelligence is the capacity or ability to understand ones own emotions, the emotions of others and act appropriately based on these emotions.

2. IQ refers to the cognitive aspect of the organism. To measures the intelligence quotient, there is a specific mathematical formula, i.e. MA/CA x 100. But there is no specific mathematical formula like general intelligence to find out the level of emotional intelligence till today, since EQ delineates to the non-cognitive and non physical aspects of the organism.

3. Intelligence refers to the cognitive abilities of the organism. However, emotional intelligence refers to the non-cognitive and non-physical capacities of the organism. So, emotional intelligence is nurturable and general intelligence is inherited and not nurturable.

4. Level of general intelligence is genetically fixed, where as emotional intelligence is neither genetically fixed nor does it develops only in early childhood but develop throughout life.

According to Goleman(1995), IQ accounts for only about 20 percent of a person's success in life. The remaining 80 percent depend largely on person's emotional intelligence i.e.,
EQ. Emotional intelligence is significant for every sphere of life in general, and teaching learning situation in particular. In general it is necessary for the individual and others in the workplace, to understand their emotions and their workers to get the quality productivity. In particular parents, teachers, supervisor, administrators, head of the institutions and others in the teaching-learning situations need to know and understand their emotions and also their children's for getting outstanding results in their respective areas.

People - who know and manage their own feelings well and who read and deal effectively with other people's feeling are at an advantage in any domain of life. People with well-developed emotional skills are, more likely to be content and effective in their lives, mastering the habits of mind that foster their own productiveness. People, who cannot marshal some control over their emotional life, fight inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused work and clear thought. No doubt, impressive in its scope and depth staggering in its implications, emotional intelligence gives us an entirely new way of looking at the root cause of many or the ills of our families and our society.

2.2.5 CONSEQUENCES OF LOW AND HIGH EQ

If EQ matters, then it is important to know the consequences of having low or high EQ. It is understood that EQ is a matter of degree and that it may not have anything to do with IQ. In the following the impact of having a low or high EQ will be examined.

Low EQ is likely to lead to general unhappiness as seen in the feelings of:
High EQ is associated with feelings of general happiness. When you have a high EQ, you are more likely to recognise both the source of your negative feelings, and have the confidence to take corrective actions, thus increasing long-term happiness. You will set your own standards by closely examining your own values and beliefs. You will lead your life according to your own norms, rather than be governed by society's norms. The more a society truly values individual freedom, and respects individual needs and feelings, the easier this will be. Finally, the higher your EQ, the more you will assume responsibility for your happiness, and the less you will depend on society.

**A high EQ leads to positive feelings such as:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Appreciation</th>
<th>Friendship</th>
<th>Self-control</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Freedom</td>
<td>Fulfillment</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace</td>
<td>Desire</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Contentment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Elation</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>Balance</td>
</tr>
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Research on EQ has revealed that people high on EQ are happier, healthier and more successful in their relationships. They strike a balance between emotion and reason, are aware of
their own feelings, are empathic and compassionate towards others and also show signs of high self-esteem.

2.2.6. SOME MYTHS ABOUT EQ

There are certain widespread myths about emotional intelligence. It is important to dispel some of the most common ones. First, emotional intelligence does not mean merely 'being nice'. At strategic moments such intelligence may in fact demand not 'being nice', and instead bluntly confronting someone with an uncomfortable but consequential truth they have been avoiding. Second, emotional intelligence does not mean giving free rein to feeling - 'letting it all hang out'. Rather, it involves managing feelings so that these are expressed appropriately and effectively, enabling people to work together smoothly towards common goals. Third, women are not necessarily 'smarter' than men when it comes to emotional intelligence, nor are men 'superior' to women. Each one has a personal profile of strength and weaknesses in these capacities. For instance, some may be highly empathic but lack certain abilities to handle distress: some may be quite aware of the subtlest shift in another's moods, yet be inept socially.

It is true that men and women as groups tend to have a shared, gender-specific profile of strong and weak points. Analysis of emotional intelligence in thousands of men and women revealed that women, on average, were more aware of their emotions, showed more empathy and were more adept interpersonally. Men, on the other hand, were more self-confident and optimistic, adapted more easily and handled stress better.
In general, there are far more similarities than differences. Some men are empathic as the most interpersonally sensitive women, while some women are as able to withstand stress as the most emotionally resilient men. Indeed, as far as the overall ratings for men and women are concerned, their strengths and weaknesses average out, so that there are no sex differences in total emotional intelligence.

Adolescence has been regarded as one of the most important periods of life in all the societies of the world, may it be primitive or modern. This is the period which has stirred up an amount of anxiety in the minds of parents and rightly has it also exercised a great stress and strain on the adolescents themselves. Emotional pressure is increasing day by day. Parents have no time to spend and guide their children. Adolescents are frequently troubled with their daily problems, because they do not have the capacity and training to solve problems. Educational system also provides no direction in this field. It is because of this, educationists and psychologists have focussed their attention on the study of problems of adolescence.

2.3 SELF-CONCEPT

Self-concept is best conceived as a system of attitudes towards oneself. Just as a person, as a result of experiences, forms attitudes which he organises into a self-consistent system and defends against threats and attacks, so the person also forms attitudes towards himself. Self-concept consists of all the perceptions, feelings, attitudes, aspirations and values of oneself concerning oneself.
Self-concept means how the individual perceives his environment in relation to himself. An individual's adjustment, academic achievement and general behaviour are among the departmental features which are subject to the influence of self-concept. Self includes spiritual, material and social aspects. Mental faculties and inclination comprised the spiritual self. Material possession constituted the material self. The esteem and regard that a person perceives in others, have for him formed the social self.

Self-concept is the keystone of personality. One cannot imagine a person without self. Self is the essence of personality. Favorable self-concept coincides with favourable personality development. Important characteristics such as emotional stability, self-assertion and self-confidence favour self-concept. Much of the contemporary theoretical work about self-concept derives from James (1890). According to him' self' has one of the three meanings - a dynamic process, a system of awareness and interrelated process and awareness. Accordingly, the first meaning incorporated the cognitive process such as perceiving, interpreting, thinking and remembering. The second denoted the objectified form of awareness an individual gives to his feelings, evaluations and beliefs about himself. The third gives the body of awareness in terms of its effect upon what is perceived of, how this perception is interpreted and thus of human behaviour learning.

Allport (1961) like James (1890) articulated on the interrelatedness of the self as both object and process with a
measure of clarity.

Allport (1961) calls the ego, or self as the appropriate functions of the personality. For Allport, the term self and ego should be descriptive adjectives to indicate the appropriate functions of the personality.

Freud (1943) gives the ego a central place in his theory of personality structure. In counter distinction to James (1890) and Allport (1961), Freud (1943) pays little attention to the self-image. Rather, for him the ego is a functional agent or executive of the personality which makes rational choice and controls action in the healthy person. In contrast to Freud's (1943) conception of the ego as a system of processes, Mead's (1934) self is an object of awareness. Mead claims that the person responds to himself with certain feelings and attitudes as others respond to him. He becomes self-conscious (aware) by the way people react to him as an object. Further, various selves can be differentiated by the specific set of responses in different social settings. Home attitudes expressed toward him create a home self; school attitudes expressed by teachers and classroom experience create a school self; and social attitudes expressed by peers and others in social settings create a social self.

Self-concept according to Lewin (1936), is expressed by a life space region, which determines present belief about the self. The term "life space" is a psychological concept to be distinguished from physical space. It includes the individual's universe of personal experience as a space in which he moves. Goals, evaluations, ideas, perceptions of significant objects, future plans and events, all form a part of the life space of the
person. Life space can be considered a complex internal mechanism, which produces behaviour. If one is to predict behaviour, one must know the life space of the person at the time the behaviour is to be predicted.

Lundholm (1940), another self-psychologist distinguishes between a subjective-self and an objective-self. No mention of the functional, motivational or process dynamics of the self is explicitly stated. The subjective self is mainly what a person comes to think about himself. He views the subjective-self as alterable from the experiences one has in interaction with others in the pursuit of various tasks. This theory is similar to Mead's (1934) in that the self is primarily an object of awareness.

Sherif and Cantril (1947) vaguely assert that the self is an object and the ego is a process. They conceive of the ego as a constellation of attitudes that include personal identity, values, possessions and feelings of worth. They imply that when the ego becomes involved in a given task it will energise and direct the person's behaviour. For instance, if self-esteem is at stake, the ego attitudes are aroused and tend to motivate the person to work much harder.

Symonds (1951) incorporates the psychoanalytic theory of Freud and the social philosophy of Mead (1934) and thus sees the ego as a group of processes and the self as the manner in which the individual reacts to himself. While ego and self are distinct aspects of personality, there is considerable interaction between them.

Cattell (1950) considers "the self" the principal organizing influence exerted upon man which gives stability and order to
human behaviour. He differentiates between the concept of self (awareness) and sentiment of self. The sentiment of self-regard is the most important influence in man.

Cattell (1950) states that sentiments are the "major acquired dynamic trait structures which cause their possessors to pay attention to certain objects, or class of objects and to feel and read in a certain way with regard to them".

Murphy (1947) attributes the defensive mechanisms to the ego processes. The major activities of the ego are to defend and/or enhance the self-complex. Wolman (1950) defines self-concept as the individual's appraisal or evaluation of himself. Unlike Symonds (1951), who cautions that a person's unconscious self-evaluations may distort his self-concept, Rogers (1951) believes in the discontinuity which is the major significance in order to understand self-concept theory. People behave in terms or the ways in which they see themselves a conscious activity. Rogers (1951) allows for the probability of an unconscious reservoir, but implies that only when information about self and the environment is "admissible to awareness" then it influences behaviour. He states: "As long as the self-Gestalt is firmly organized and no contradictory material is even dimly perceived, then positive self-feelings may exist, the self may be seen as worthy and acceptable, and conscious tension is minimal. Behaviour is consistent with the organized hypotheses and concepts of the self-structure. The consistency between behaviour and self-concepts indicates that dual role of self- self as object and self as process.

Hilgard (1949) thinks that behaviour is not a product of
the self, but rather a complex of psychological processes aroused by proximal and distal stimuli of which a person is largely unaware. Like Chein (1944), he accords weightage to forces or factors outside the self.

Sarabin (1952) regards self as a cognitive structure, consisting of various aspects of an individual's being. One may have conception of his body (the somatic self), of his sense organs and musculature. Since all these are based on experience, consequently Sarabin (1952) speaks of them as 'empirical selves' using the term 'self and 'ego' synonymously.

According to Watson (1959) self may be defined as person's feelings, ideas and attitudes about one's self. By way of formal definition, self-concept is the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origin, abilities, resources, attitudes, values and feelings which culminate as directing force in behaviour. According to him what a person does or how he behaves is determined by his self concept. Self-concept gives meaning to behaviour.

Shoebin (1962), defines self as "a relatively stable organization of values that mediates and focuses behaviour", on account of which it exercises a profound influence on every day life. He argues: "In any case, self-involved behaviour seems close to impossible to explain the basis of a tension reduction model, and the postulation of self-involvement seems necessary to account for the pursuit of long-range goals so typical of human motivation". Since hardly any mention of 'ego' is made by him, it should be presumed that he considers 'self both as object and doer.
According to Labernne, and Green (1969), "Self-concept is the person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and sources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behaviour".

In 'Dictionary of Education' by Good (1973), self-concept is defined as "The individual's perception of himself as a person, which include his abilities, appearance, performances in his job and other phases of daily living."

'Saraswat and Gaur (1981) described self-concept as 'the individual's way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling and behaving.

According to Chadha (1985). "Self-concept means one's own image in one's own eyes and it is very important in decision implementation."

According to 'Dictionary of Education', by Taneja (1989), "self-concept refers to the picture or image a person has of himself."

Singh H.M. (1990) defines self-concepts as the study of self' where the person's experience makes him realize his feelings and capabilities.

According to Franken (1994) 'Self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behaviour. It is the self concept that gives rise to possible selves, it is the possible selves that create the motivation for behaviour."

According to Clayton E. Tucker-Ladd (1996), 'Self-concept refers to one's organisation and nature of beliefs about one's self.
According to Kenneth and Irwin (2001), 'Self-concept is the basic understanding of how we define ourselves and the resources of information we use: reflected appraises, social comparison and self-observation.

So, an individual's self-conception is his view of himself. It is derived from taking the role of others in social interaction. Self-conception is equivalent to the self if the latter is defined, as the individual as perceived by that individual in a socially determined frame of reference. A self conception consists, in addition to (a) a view of identity, or (b) notions of one's interests and aversions (i.e. his attitudes towards objects, cognitively, effectively and evaluatively, (c) a conception of one's goals and his successes in achieving them, (d) a picture, sometimes quite sketchy, of the ideological ('world view') frame of reference through which he views himself and other objects, and (e) some kind of evaluation.

2.3.1 DIMENSIONS (OR ASPECTS) OF SELF

(1) The Basic Self-concept: It relates to what the person thinks he is. This is the individual's perception of his abilities and his status. This is the perception of the roles as to be played in the world. This is the individual's concept of the kind of person he thinks he is. This concept is influenced by his physical self, his personal appearance, dress and grooming, by his abilities and disposition, his values, beliefs, and aspirations. The self-concept is enhanced when there is intellectual ability to meet problems. The slow reader, for example, may find difficulty in learning, thus causing negative self-concept to operate
in learning situations. Even for the person with intellectual abilities and good learning habits, the self-concept has its ups and downs.

(2) The Transitory Perception of Self: The individual’s self-image may at one time be compulsive, compensatory, and unrealistic and at other time insightful and practical. The self-perception which the individual holds at any given point of time may be determined by some “inner-directed” mood or by some "other directed" influence. Many individuals do not recognize their transitory nature. They are optimistic or pessimistic, elated or depressed, satisfied or dissatisfied in all-or-none sort of way. They are sometimes able to switch rapidly from one extreme to other. Since there is some tendency for the individual to reflect more on his problems than on his accomplishments, the transitory perception of self is largely negative.

(3) The Social Self: Social self is how the person thinks other perceive him. "To see yourself as others see you" may or may not be valid. At one time, when in an optimistic mood, the adolescent perceives that others people see him in good light. when depressed, he perceives that others depreciate him. When others think him stupid, or socially inapt, there is a tendency for him to amplify his feelings of insecurity: "How could anyone like me?" More positive views on the part of others may enhance his perception of his social self some what, but they play lesser role when he is down.
(4) **The Ideal Self:** It is what the person would like to be. The concept of the ideal self, the kind of person the adolescent hopes to be, involves relating levels of aspiration to levels of ability. It also involves opportunities for self-realization.

When the ideal self is set at an unrealistic level, frustration is increased. When it is set below one's level of ability, motivation may become lacking. The adolescent's level of aspiration tends to go up with success and down with failure. This up-down movement is more exaggerated than that usually found in adults. The ideal self of the adult has evolved slowly through experience. Lacking such experience, the adolescent, depends a great deal on identification with some one else as the ideal - an older brother or sister, a parent, or a teacher. This ideal person may stimulate either emulation or resentment, sometimes both.

(5) **The Real Self:** The real self is what the person actually is. Large discrepancies between any two, aspects (dimensions) of the self spell out a maladjusted personality, showing little insight into oneself and having no self-confidence. The concept of one's self is shaped by reward and punishment, praise and blame, and by the feelings of accomplishment that come with solving a problem. During pre-adolescence, both parents and peers influence the self concept. This situation changes gradually Until the young person's self-evaluation is determined more by what his age-mates think of him. Later, cliques and other organizations provide a climate of influence. Finally, the adolescent discovers that the self
must be determined. Individually, he has to learn the hard way that achieving identity is a long and arduous process. He learns that such identity comes through thinking, feeling and decision-making. It thrives on social interaction. And in the end, the question, "Who am I?" still remains.

2.3.2. MEASUREMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT

Observations projective techniques and self-reporting lists and inventories are some of the main methods used for measuring self-concept. Of these, self-reporting technique maintains its unique and important position because it has the single advantage or knowing exactly what the individual feels about himself. No one ever can take over the experiences of another person. Therefore, the best way to know what the person feels about himself is to ask the person himself. For this sentence completion, adjective check lists and inventories have been used. Sometimes projective techniques are employed for assessing real self. For certain types of self-assessment, Q-technique has been observed to be a very useful method.

In self-reporting, the social desirability variable tends to affect self-descriptions; an individual is more inclined to mark adjectives which have more social appeal and higher social prestige, adjectives which are socially undesirable and negative are not easily marked. The influence of social desirability variable may operate at conscious or unconscious level. However, since the operative self-concept is of greater consequence, this fact has to be admitted and the self-reports as given by the individual have to be accepted for study.
It is true that we cannot see the self-concept, we can observe behaviour. In this instance, and when dealing with all psychological constructs, one infers the nature of the self concept from observable behaviour over a period of time. The behaviour is known to be symptomatic of the problem; therefore, if a person continues to behave in a particular manner, we may infer a linking mechanism from his behaviour.

In order to obtain information more efficiently, psychometrists have developed a variety of tests to elicit the behaviour pattern. Most of these tests require a person to give, information about himself, and this may be somewhat limited. However, no one has the continuity of exposure and so continuous an opportunity to observe and evaluate his inner life and thought as the person himself. In order to exploit an individual's likes and dislikes, interests, and attitudes, the obvious approach is to ask him about them. Rogers (1951) states: "The best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself." While the advantage of self-reports is the provision of an "inside view" based on the person's knowledge and experience about himself, there are some definite limitations. This method is weak from the standpoint of possessing external validity. Self-reports can be easily falsed unless the goodwill of the subject is obtained. Some subjects cannot view accurate evaluations of themselves because of emotional blacks or defences. Also, results may be affected by mood fluctuations or by conditions at the time and place of the testing.
The relative status of a person's self-concept is usually determined through the use of one or more of the following techniques:

- Introspective self-reflections in personal family, social and school or work settings.
- Consequence between descriptions of current self-concept and ideal self concept.
- Configurance between subjective self-report and action and the objective reports of clinically trained observers.
- Non-introspective references derived from projective techniques and clinical interviews.
- Measurement of self-concept is a tricky job for an observer. Each person can have a true picture of his ownself while its measurement by another can only be done by way of interference. Also a person may hold certain non-existing nations of himself or some unconscious attitudes of self which are not in conformity with his conscious opinion of himself. Furthermore, a person being conscious of another's assessing him, may not project his trueself.

In order to assess the self-concept of the individual; researchers have used varying techniques such as observing actual behaviour, conducting interviews, and objective tests.

From the above, it is clear that self-concept plays a major role in the life of a child if it is thought of as a set of expectations and anticipations plus evaluations. There is relationship between the child's experiences and formation and
establishment of his self-concept. Child anticipates a number of areas in which he will not do well and will not gain acceptance and daily anticipation may be, confirmed. In other areas, child expects to do well and his performance permits him to feel adequate and accepted. As child has a continuing number of similar experiences, he will develop a relatively fixed view of his capacities and expectations in both academic and interpersonal situation. In a sense we have a view of the adult child who may give up easily in some activities and persist in others. Thus experience and interactions are affecting the self-concept of the individual.

2.3.3. IMPORTANCE OF SELF CONCEPT

Everybody tries to establish some purpose for his being and appraises himself in terms of his capabilities in coping with his surroundings and feels satisfied only if his self-concept is adequate to his perception of needs; neither extra positive nor extra negative self-concept is helpful to have adequate self-assessment. But still it is positive self-concept which may prove to be most promising in the development of intellectual and creative abilities. Understanding the self thus playing a better role in society which is significantly relative to the role of others, may help in better adjustment of the individual which further leads to the development of a good personality.

An average man who lacks self-concept in depth looks out upon the world through glasses which are discoloured by the quality of his own unconscious self-image. Without self knowledge in depth we can have dreams, but no art.

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Heredity does not play any role in the development of self-concept. Self-concept develops in person as a result of his interaction with environment. It is a life long process and develops continuously in a social setting. As a child grows and develops, he learns more and more about himself. As he extends his area of exploration, his self-concept will change according to how he satisfies his needs. If his learning and consequently adaptability enable him to cope with the world, he will feel capable and more confident. If he is too weak or insecure he does not satisfy these needs i.e. the needs for knowledge, achievement, creativity, competence. If he does not satisfy these needs comparably with his age-group, he may alter his motivational pattern and in this way his whole life style is changed.

Child's self-concept is generally modified by his parents, friends, teachers or other persons whom he interacts, his intellectual ability, his creative level, his achievements, cognitive styles, ethnic background, religion, languages spoken in home, urban/rural environment and the opportunities which he/she is getting in life. The better his ideas of himself are formed relative to what society expects, the more adjustable is his behaviour.

It has been observed by psychologists that the success with which the individual adjusts to the problem of adult's life is bound to have effect on his concept of self.

It is the concept of self which personifies the child as a whole. The self-concept is the child's way of looking at himself. It also signifies his way of thinking, feeling, and behaving.
2.4. HOME ENVIRONMENT

Environment is the circumstances or conditions that surrounds one. The totality of the conditions and circumstances affect the growth and development of a child. Young children experience their world as an environment of relationships and these relationships affect virtually all aspects of their development – intellectual, social, emotional, physical, behavioural and moral. The dictionary, meaning of the word environment is a surrounding external condition, influencing development or growth of the people, animals or plants, living or working.

Boring (1955) feels that a person’s environment consists of the sum total of his stimulation which he receives from his conception until his death.

According to Wordworth and Margnis (1948), “Environment covers all the outside factors that acted on the individual since he begins life”.

According to Boring, Longfield and Weld (1961), “The environment is everything that affects the individual except his genes.”

Webster’s New Encyclopedia Dictionary (1989) describes environment as an aggregate of all the external conditions and influences affecting the life and development of an organism.

Environment can be classified as physical, social and cultural. Physical environment is the external conditional effects which affects the life and development of the life on the earth and geographical climate plays an important role as developing
physique of human beings. Social and cultural environment of home contributes significantly in the development of personality. The child comes in the close contact with his parents and other members of the family. The mother of a child is considered the first teacher to shape his behaviour. All this consists home environment.

The family is the oldest and the most important of all the institutions that man has devised to regulate and integrate his behaviour as he strives to satisfy his basic needs. The family is the social institution through which our social heritage is transmitted. Much of what we used to call heredity is actually the influence of the family in interpreting people, customs, attitudes and associating them to individual and group reaction, way of thinking, ways of doing, ways of acting etc. Home is that institution where children are regarded as a sacred trust by the guardians, where there is a proper climate for the child to develop good ideas, habits, mode of thinking and behaviour. All the physical, mental, emotional developments of individual takes place in the family.


According to Encyclopedia Britanica (1978), “The family is everywhere identifiable as a social group characterized by common residence, economic co-operation and reproduction. Included in the personnel which make it up are adults of both sexes at least two of whom maintain a socially approved sexual relationship one or more off spring or adopted children.”
Goldstein (1989) has rightly said, “Family is the cradle in which the future is born and a necessary in which new democratic social order is being fashioned. The family is related to the past through traditions but it is also related to the future through social responsibility and traits.”

A person’s success depends upon his home environment. If his home environment is good then he must be well adjusted is his society’s environment.

Feldman (1982) observed that even if the individual has an exceptional level of talent, this talent will not develop if the individual’s environmental circumstances do not foster and stimulate the growth of talent.

According to Stephens (1958), “A child living in a favorable environment for a long time become bright, if on the other hand, a child lives longer in an unfavorable environment he falls behind the natural norms.”

Moos and Moos (1986) have defined family environment as the degree of commitment, help and support family members provide for one another.

According to Tiwari (1998), “Family environment is the most important agent that influences the child relationship with the family.”

In the views of Mishra (1989), “Home environment or parent child rearing practices consists of characteristics of permissiveness, willingness to devote time to the child, parental guidance, parental aspiration for achievement, provision for child’s intellectual needs, effective reward, instrumental
companionship, prescription, physical punishment, principal
discipline, neglect, deprivation of privileges, protectiveness, •
power achievement, demands, indulgence conformity, independence, dependence, emotional and verbal responsibility, involvement with the child physical and temporal environment, avoidance of restriction and punishment provision of appropriate play materials etc."

According to Webster (1971), "Home is the abiding place of the affection. It is the social units or centre formed by a family living together."

The word 'Home' connotes warmth, safety and emotional dependence. It expresses the idea of a fixed place and residence shared by a number of persons.

Home environment refers to the climate prevailing in the home which varies from culture to culture, society to society and family to family. It can be defined as the aggregate of all those physical and psychological conditions that determine growth and development, affects the various spheres of one's life 'self-confidence, intelligence, personality, learning ability, adjustment, behaviour, life-style, emotions, habits etc. Behavioural problems and maladjustment among children are largely a consequence of unfavourable home environment. Congenial and healthy environment helps in the formation of good habits, development of over all personality of the child and thus helps in proper adjustment.

New Webster's Dictionary (1971) discusses that environment includes all the physical, social or cultural factors and conditions influencing the existence or development of
According to Haronian and Sugarman (1967), “Family environment has been persistently indicated as a major influence on creativity of child. The conditions under which the child grows in the family are vital to the growth of his creativity.”

According to Newman and New man (1981); “Family environment is the first and perhaps the most enduring, context personality development of child.”

According to Makstroth (1989), “Home is a microcosm where children can experience their effectiveness and power to make a difference through problem solving, service and co-operation when parents engender respect for the range of people’s needs and life-styles children develop a sense of purpose and use their ability to benefit people of the world as well as themselves.”

Family with its physical, intellectual and emotional aspects shapes a child’s life in his journey toward self-fulfillment. Individual differences owe their origin mostly (barring genetic factors) to a number of variables created by home which may hinder or help the progressive growth of a child.

Each family is unique and no one set of rules will work in every family, but there are certain things that families have in common. These are:

**Appreciation** – Perhaps one of the greatest needs we have is to feel appreciated for who we are and what we try to do.
Some families have the habit of noticing the efforts of family members and expressing appreciation for each other quite frequently.

**Kindness** – It consists of doing simple, unselfish things for others in the family that could be called ‘love gifts’. Things like listening with patience, helping with a task when someone in the family is busy, avoiding an angry reply, giving a small surprise gift or preparing favorite meal are some of the examples.

**Communication** – Families talk openly with each other. They listen to each other and have an attitude of respect for each other’s feeling and opinions.

**Values and standards** – Parents in families have definite values and they communicate these values clearly to their children.

**Strictness and permission** – In families parents are the authority figures in the home, but reasons for rules are explained and children have input into the family’s rules.

**Problem solving** – Families have conflicts but they tend to face and resolve them with an expectation that they can work things out. They face problems openly and try to be flexible and creative in finding solution.

**Traditions** – Traditions give a sense of shared experiences and meaning that strengthen family bonds.

**Fun and laugher** – family jokes and playful attitude can preserve a sense of humour in difficult situations.
Recent family interaction researches reveal that the family crises that occur during adolescence involve the necessity of replacing the hierarchical parent child relationship with an egalitarian parent-adolescent one. The problematic consequences of adolescence are avoided only if the adolescent’s efforts at establishing more equal parent-adolescent relationship are accepted by his parents. (Alexander, 1973; Mortouel., 1976).

Two types of family systems now prevail in India; the joint family and the nuclear family. The nuclear family is becoming more popular in urban areas, bringing with it problems concerning childcare and protection. The child’s relationship at home goes a long way in giving desirable or undesirable directions to his environment. The success of an individual in school or in college depends to a large extent on the family environment.

For the healthy family system relative openness is an important but the balance between openness and closeness of the family system is necessary for individual family, individualization and socialization process.

A child needs to have a meaningful congruent inner life, which helps him to build up a positive view about himself. To be an optimistic child, one needs to have a home, which is full of warmth. A home may lack physical amenities, where as a home rich in physical amenities by lacking in warmth, concern and affection, may produce an individual devoid of any coping strategies for facing the reality of life.

The family is the social institution through which our social heritage is transmitted. With in the social structure we have primary and secondary groups. The primary groups are natural,
face-to-face groups in which we find ourselves a natural part. The secondary groups are those of which we become a part continuously and in which we are assigned a role.

Attitudes, approvals, disapprovals, ideals, and personality are formed by the primary group, contacts of which the family is the most typical. Skills, technical proficiency and special activities come with the role in secondary group contact. Modern society has reduced the primary group contacts and increased the secondary.

If the family environment is disruptive then the adolescent may develop weak character. Congenial environment of the home brings out and develops the innate tendencies of the adolescent. If these tendencies do not have a natural outlet they turn into complexes and the adolescent becomes maladjusted. The secure atmosphere of the family provides self-confidence and develops a positive outlook of life in the adolescents, which help to develop a confident and well-balanced personality. Love, affection and security are the basic psychological needs of adolescents, which are amply fulfilled by the family. A well-knit family provides the right type of atmosphere for the growth and development of adolescent, on which a sound edifice of future adjustment of adolescents is to be built.

The family is the major environmental influence and remains such throughout the life. It is in the family, the child either learns to trust people or to be fearful and uncertain to others. It is in the home where child first experiences the meaning of love and hate. It is here that he comes to experience the give and take of family life. In the family he has the
opportunity to take on responsibilities. The customs and beliefs of our society are first handed down within the family. The family gives him his first object for identification and provides the situation for the eventual development of ego-identity. The family usually teaches well what is punished and what is encouraged, what is valued and what is ignored. Certainly the religion, ethnic group and educational attitude all dictate certain rituals, habits and attitudes, while the child may eventually be freed to choose which attitude he will accept and adopt for himself, he is originally influenced by his early exposure at home.

Witmer (1952) believes that it is through the family that the main components of a child's personality develop. The struggle between feelings of trust and mistrust is first worked out in relation to the parents, and it is by family members that the autonomy and initiative characteristics of our society are encouraged or denied.

The extent and quality of the ability to relate intimately to another person and to oneself drives in large measure from the kind of relations that are obtained within the family.

It is through the family, too, that the child gets his first sense of what is allowed and what is forbidden, what is valued and what is despised in the society, and in the selection of the society of which he is a part.

On the other hand, a maladjusted individual is one, who fails to adjust positively to his environment. Maladjustment at home can hinder the progress of child in school, e.g. strict parents do not let their children grow up properly in a natural
way. There are parents who want to fulfill their own ambitions through the avenues of their children and thus make them ill adjusted or misfits in life.

The most powerful factor in the development of the child is, the happiness, peace and stability of the home in which he spends his early years.

The mother and the father unquestionably have the greatest influences on the personality development of the child. Child is dependent on parents not only for food and shelter but also for protection, approval and affection. The child whose home environment fosters a concept of himself as an inferior person will develop such personality traits as shyness, self depression, timidity, hesitancy to speak or to try anything new for fear of failure and a tendency to let others take advantage of him, which make him cowardice.

In broader sense, we can say that it is not only the parents but the other members of family like grand parents, uncles, aunts, brothers, sisters or cousins etc. also influence the personality development of the child in one way or the other.

The child’s experiences within the family eventually develop for him a sense of acceptance or rejection by the primary group. This rejection may have various defects in the child’s personality.

Symonds (1951) states that when parents reject a child, he is unlikely to be aggressive, attention-getting, hostile, hyperactive and jealous or rebellious. The child develops a variety of attention-getting mechanism.
Parents can also hinder the development of their children by giving them more attention than is necessary for healthy development. This 'smoother' love prevents the child from assuming responsibility.

Casler (1961) found some reasons of maladjusted families as lack of praise, respect, appreciation, reward, independence and play-opportunities. Family environment refers to all sorts of moral and ethical values and emotional, social and intellectual climate set up by the family members to contribute to the whole-some development trend prevailing in the family."

Basically, family environment comes under the heading of external environment. It can be defined as the aggregate of all those physical and psychological conditions that determine the growth and development of the child.

Gordon (1968) has identified three sets of family factors that influence both intellectual functioning and personality development in children, viz. demographic factors, cognitive factors, and emotional factors. Demographic factors include income, social class, ethnicity, and quality of housing; cognitive factors included educational aspirations parents have for their children,

The most pervasive social influences on an individual's education, which applies from birth, is family outlook; its effect on the gifted can be both different and more powerful because the stakes are much higher.

A modest family background could have a more profound effect on potential high achievers than on those of average
ability. This is because they are more likely to change their educational environments, and thus, have to operate in a somewhat different social setting.

2.4.1. TYPES OF HOME ENVIRONMENT

Basically, three types of environment reveals in the Indian family.

a) Authoritarian, dominant and over-protective.

b) Democratic, permissive and accepting

c) Laisse/fair cum submission to child

a) **Authoritarian, Dominant and Over-protective**

In this environment, the parents dominate and direct the child on all fronts. The parents decide on all issues of child’s life. They make personal criticisms, assume all responsibility, initiate all activities, define goals, impose them on child and maintain wide social distance from children. In families with this environment discipline assumes a predominant and pervasive role.

b) **Democratic, Permissive and Accepting**

In this environment, the parents are more permissive, more understanding of the child’s needs and capacities, more lenient and less punitive. The family members share close relationships with children, ask for their contributions and encourage group initiative. Here, parents give time, thought and effort instead of material things. Family members accept the child’s early ideas and ambitions instead of foisting his own upon him.
c) **Laissez-fair cum Submission**

This type of environment is in contrast to the authoritarian set-up. The parent operates as observer in the family, makes no attempt to regulate or orient his/her ideas. They allow complete freedom to the child. No clear goals are established and no restrictions are imposed.

Drews and Trahan (1957) found that dominating mothers tend to foster high achievement in their children.

Morrow' and Wilson (1961) reported that parents of high achievers of elementary, high school and college age tend to use more precise and approval, show more interest and understanding.

**2.5. URBAN-RURAL DIFFERENCES**

According to Webster's New Dictionary or Education (1981), domicile is the actual dwelling place that is one's permanent or principal home or the place of residence of an individual or family. Here domicile refers to urban/rural differences of the students.

The main distinction between rural and urban setting may be that in rural setting we get primary products. e.g. sugar cane, wheat etc. where in urban setting we get secondary products, i.e. sugar, oil etc. In other words, urban denotes a distinct quality of human community, a special mode of existence or way of life which is the characteristic of the city. Thus, the students who study in urban schools and colleges are considered to be urban students, whereas a society or community may be classified as rural which has less
population, less social differentiation, slower rates of social change; agriculture as a major occupation. The students who are studying in rural schools and colleges are considered to be belonging to rural group.

The role of urban and rural environment in accelerating the acquisition of concepts is of paramount importance. Good environment accelerates activities and leads to better outcome. What has generally been found is that children, rural parents, and rural communities have low level of educational aspirations and expectations. Rural children have been shown to be more shy, anxious and introvert in personality than their urban counterparts.

2.6 SEX DIFFERENCES

There exist differences in men and women. Men are sturdy while women are delicate. Men are physically larger and more masculine than women. Women seem to be constitutionally stronger than men and perhaps to form intimate relationships.

So, it is expected that sex differences may affect the mental health of students.

2.7 ADOLESCENCE AND ADOLESCENT

The word ‘adolescence comes from the Greek word’ adolescere which means to grow to maturity Psychologists have given a number of definition of adolescence from time to time.

According to Jersild (1957), “Adolescent the span of years’ during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood mentally, emotionally, socially and physically.”

Piaget (1950) describes adolescence as the age of great
ideal and the beginning of theories as well as the time of simple adaptation to reality.

According to Freud (1953) at puberty, the beginning of adolescence both boys and girls show definite right of stress. An important development of this period is the child's growing independence from his parents. As a result of this independence a certain amount of affection is freed to go in search of new love objects outside the family.

Cole and Hall (1954) differentiated between the youth period and puberty and found that those two periods begin at almost the same time, but youth period lasts for about eight years and involves not only the puberty changes in the body but also development in intellectual capacity, interests, attitudes and adjustment.

Jones and Jones (1957) define adolescence as the transitional period between puberty and adulthood.

Gassell (1956) believes that there are predetermined stages of maturation. Like Hall, Gassel sees adolescence as a transitional period between childhood and adulthood a time of 'storm and stress' but believes that even though this may be time of stress and anxiety, deep, organic forces within the individual usually protect the growing self and help it to mature, so that the individual eventually does mature and finds himself.

According to Meissner (1965) the adolescent years represent a crucial period in the formation of 'identity' and in the development of values, ideals and attitudes and these are profoundly influenced by the relations that obtain between the
adolescent and his parents.

Hurlock (1967) while defining youth period suggested that changes that occur in youth period lead to the goal of maturity; to the youth getting 'matured' means having rights and privileges of an adult.

Dreyfus (1976) emphasises that the changes the young person goes through during adolescence do not take place only inside his head. The development of the adolescent self is very much related to and influenced by the individual’s physical development during this time.

In Webster's Universal International Dictionary (1997) the terms adolescence, puberty, puberseence and youth are frequently used interchangeably to refer to the period between childhood and maturity.

According to Mohan (1976) An adolescent has been identified and defined to be an individual falling into the age range of 15-25 years. Sometimes identified by such words as teenager youth or even a person yet to take up any job or family responsibility seriously (Longman’s Dictionary of Psychology and Psychiatry (1984) defines adolescence as the period of transition from childhood dependence and immaturity to a greater maturity and independence of adulthood.

According to Davis (1985), adolescence, the developmental period between childhood and adulthood spans the years from 12 to 13 to the early 20’s. It is a complex period of human growth that leaves many parents teachers and counsellors perplexed’ and startled by the rapid changes in mood and
behaviour.

Chauhan (1987) states that chronologically adolescence comes through in between the years 12 to the early 20's. The onset of adolescence varies from culture to culture depending on the socio-economic conditions of the country.

According to Purohit and Mehta (2002), "adolescence is a period of growing up. It is the period of transition between childhood and adulthood. It is the period of life between the boundaries of puberty and maturity, the period during which maturity is being attained. This is the stage when the road is paved for adulthood and the adolescent identify is found to be developed and crystallized. So adolescents are persons with specific qualities and characteristics who have a participatory and responsible role to play, task to performed, skills to develop at that particular time of life. The degree or extent to which an adolescent experiences such responsible participation will determine and maximize his human development.'

Instead of limiting the adolescent period of the time when the individual reaches sexual maturity, it is now extended until the individual is expected to be intellectually, emotionally and socially mature. Adolescence is a period of formatting attitude emerging and developing vocational interest and striving towards economic independence. Psychologically adolescent is a marginal situation, which involves psychological disturbances and problems of adjustment. The need for help and guidance by the adults may therefore become imperative in such a situation.