CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL VIEWS ABOUT PREDICTORS
In order to know the rationale of the present study and the conceptual understanding of the various predictors under study, the theoretical views about the predictors are discussed in the following paragraphs:

2.1 INTELLIGENCE

In Halsey and Friedman's (1979) view, three concepts occur most often in conceptualizing intelligence: (a) the ability to deal with abstract symbols, concepts and relationships, (b) learning or the ability to profit from experience, and (c) the ability to adapt to new situations or problems solving in the broadest sense. However, the available research work indicates that intelligence is not a unitary capacity and that the generality of the function can not be overlooked. The same individual may, for example, deal effectively with verbal concepts and be deficient in handling quantitative aspects and vice-versa.

Terman (1921) conceives of intelligence as the ability to carry on abstract thinking. As a result,
there are a number of items on his test directly measuring the capacity to think abstractly. Research on the relationship between learning and intelligence shows little relationship between simple learning and IQ, but when the material to be learned is complex or abstract, high IQ subjects perform better than low IQ subjects. As compared to this view, which limits intelligence to one mental ability rather than attempting to encompass all mental functioning, Jensen (1969) has proposed two kinds of intelligence, level I and level II. Level I refers to basic associative abilities and would be best measured by a test such as digit span (e.g., remembering a phone number) while level II refers to abstract problem solving or abstract thinking capacity of the individual.

Intelligence, as the ability to learn and profit from past experiences also involves the limitation of perceiving it as a unitary phenomenon. There are many different kinds of learning, and individuals who do well on some kinds of learning do not necessarily do well on others. Guilford (1967) reviewed a number of experiments addressed to this question. The general approach of such research is to determine the rate of learning in several different kinds of learning tasks for a number
of subjects. If there is such a thing as general learning ability, then those subjects who do the best on some learning tasks ought to do well on others also, but this was not the case. Statistically, correlations between learning rates for various tasks were quite small and some time insignificant. Moreover, learning ability does not seem to be related in any direct way to the more complex sorts of problems found on many intelligence tests. Zeaman and House (1966) while reviewing the research on the relationship between learning and intelligence (as measured by performance on standard intelligence tests), concluded that as long as the learning tasks is simple enough, subjects of low intelligence are not proper learners than subjects of higher intelligence, although the results are far from clear. An important exception to this generalization is school learning.

Intelligence is a summation of learning experiences as viewed by Weisman (1968) implying thereby that intelligence tests do not measure an ability or potential as much as they do measure achievement. In a sense, these tests measure our knowledge. One difficulty with such an approach is that it does not fit in with popular notions
of what intelligence is. Most people feel that an intelligence test should be something other than an achievement test, reflecting not so much what a person has learned so far but rather measuring some sort of potential for future achievement. It is easy to imagine an individual who through dint of hard work has learned a great deal but who is not particularly intelligent. It is generally felt that such factors as hard work or motivation although directly related to how much one has learnt but these should not be included as part of intelligence.

Intelligence is the ability to adapt to the environment, particularly to new situations in the environments also encompass certain difficulties. For example, Stern's (1914), the developer of the concept of IQ, definition of intelligence as "general adaptability to the new problems and conditions of life" does not answer what is meant by "adapt". There are some people whom it is generally agreed are not very intelligent and who do not do very well on intelligence tests, yet they adapt very to their environment. Other people, who score very well on intelligence tests and are generally agreed to be quite gifted, make a very poor adjustment to their environment.
Certainly what is a successful adjustment for one individual would be a poor adjustment for some one else.

Identification of component traits of intelligence is based upon a study of the inter-relationship of behaviour as per Anastasi (1979). For example, if each person performs equally well (or equally poor) on all sorts of verbal tests, such as vocabulary verbal, analogies and reading comprehension, a single score could be submitted for the separate scores on all these tests. If performance on these verbal tests shows little or no relation to scores on numerical, mechanical and other type of tests, one can speak of a verbal traits as one of the categories or dimensions in terms of which the individual's intellectual functioning can be described. Viewed in this context, intelligence is an aggregate of relatively - independent aptitudes, such as verbal comprehension, word fluency, skill in numerical computation, perceptual speed and accuracy, associate memory and mechanical reasoning.

Intelligence has been defined in a very global terms rather than in terms of a specific ability. For example, "Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think
rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Wechsler, 1944), and "intelligence is the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by - (i) difficulty, (ii) complexity, (iii) abstractness, (iv) economy, (v) adaptiveness to be a goal (vi) social values, (vii) the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces". (Stoddard, 1943). But the main difficulty with them is that many of the terms used are so vague that it would be extremely difficult to demonstrate that any given intelligence test is actually measuring "the global capacity to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment".

With regard to the theoretical viewpoints of intelligence, the Binet-Simon test of intelligence, which was finally developed in 1904, was a composite of many kinds of test items and seemed to measure broad aspects of mental functioning. Binet viewed intelligence as a composite of complex and varied mental functions, the average performance on which indicate the person's level of mental ability.

Based on an extensive series of research studies,
Spearman (1927) concluded that one fundamental general factor underlies all manifestations of intelligence. He called this factor 'g'. According to Spearman, the 'g' factor is involved to some extent in all behaviour of the individual, and some behaviour is heavily dependent on this factor. Some types of activity depend on specific abilities called 'S'. Individual differences in intelligence are due primarily to individual differences in 'g'. According to this theory the mentally retarded child is deficient in the amount of 'g' he possesses.

Thorndike (1926) an American Psychologist, developed Multifactor Theory of Intelligence. Intelligence to him is nothing more than a convenient name for an almost infinite number of actual or potential specific connections between the stimuli and responses. Differences of intelligence among people are due to the number of connections in the neurological system. According to this theory, there is no general intelligence, Thorndike's theory is atomistic theory of intelligence. He distinguished four attributes of intelligence, i.e. level, range, area and speed.

According to Group Factor Structure of Intelligence, intelligence neither consists two factors as proposed by
Spearman nor multifactors as developed by Thorndike. The six primary factors emerged are as follows:

(a) Number Factor \(N\) - Ability to do numerical, calculations rapidly and accurately.

(b) Verbal Factor \(V\) - Found in test involving verbal comprehension.

(c) Space relations \(S\) - Involved in any task in which the subject manipulates an object imaginary in space.

(d) Memory \(M\) - Involving the ability to memorize quickly.

(e) Reasoning \(R\) - Found in tasks that require the subject to discover a rule of principle.

(f) Word fluency \(W\) - Involved whenever the subject is asked to think of isolated words at a rapid rate.

Burt (1949) separated statistically four factors of intellect, namely (i) general factors, common to all
traits (ii) group factors, common to some of the traits (iii) specific factors, limited to each trait whenever it is measured and (iv) Error factors, limited to each trait on each particular occasion it is measured. He proposed a five-level hierarchical model, involving the hierarchical levels at (i) Human mind (ii) Relational level or general factor (iii) Associations (iv) Perceptions (v) Sensations.

Vernon (1950) developed another factor analytic view of the organisation of intelligence. He conducted extensive research and on the basis of empirical data, he proposed hierarchical group factor theory.

Vernon's theory suggests that intelligence test measure an overall Factor 'G' as well as two main types of mental abilities. The major group factors are: (1) Ved: verbal, numerical and education, (2) KM: Practical, mechanical, spatial and physical. These two major factors can be divided into minor group factors such as mechanical, manual and ultimately these minor factors can be further divided into various specific factors.

Structure of intellect (SOI) was developed by Guilford (1967). The model is a three way classification
of intellectual abilities namely operations, contents and products. According to Guilford, each dimension of intellect is sufficiently distinct which may be detached by factor analysis. The kind of classification on the basis of operations gives five major groups of intellectual abilities: (1) cognition (2) memory (3) divergent thinking (4) convergent thinking and (5) evaluation. A second way of classifying the intellectual factor is according to the kind of material or content involved. The factor known thus far involve four kinds of material content. The content may be (1) Figural, (2) Symbolic (3) Semantic (4) Behavioural. When a certain operation is applied to certain kind of content, as many as six general kinds of products may be involved. There is enough evidence available to suggest that, regardless of the combinations of operations and contents, the same six types of products may be found associated. The six types of products are: (1) Units (2) classes (3) relations (4) systems (5) transformations and (6) implication on the basis of factor analysis. These are the only fundamental kinds of products. The three kinds of classifications of the factors can be represented by means of a single model which is called the structure of intellect model.
Different models of structure of abilities based upon factor analysis have been suggested by different researchers. In Gustafsson's (1984) view, one line of demarcation goes between models which postulates a general factor of intelligence - (e.g. Spearman 1904, Vernon 1950) and models which do not allow a general intellectual factor (e.g. Thurstone 1938, Cattell 1971); and another line of demarcation goes between hierarchical model (Burt 1949) and models which treat all the dimensions as being of equal generality (e.g. Guilford 1967). Jenson (1969) has distinguished level I intelligence (simple associative learning) from level II intelligence (conceptuability). Level I is best measured by memory span and rote learning, whereas level II involves cognitive transformation and is close to IQ.

From above, it is clear that it is difficult to arrive to any conclusive evidence in favour of any particular models, therefore, debate as to what intelligence is, continues. However, for the purpose of present study, intelligence has been operationally, defined as "the ability to deal with numbers, analogies, opposites and synonyms, to make categories, to draw inferences. Its
measurement (verbal) is the total score on Jalota (1972) Group Test of General Mental Ability.

2.2 CREATIVITY:

Due to the tendency to emphasise interests by a wider area of disciplines to investigate the creative process and due to the complex nature of the creative experience there is no single accepted definition of creativity (Hallman 1963). The first view of the tendency to assign different meanings to creativity has been reported by Winacke (1960), Ghilin (1963), and Yamamoto (1964). The second view, regarding the complexity of creative experience, it is manifested by numerous definitions which Rhodes (1961) condensed into four roughly discriminating categories: person, process, press and product. Kneller (1965) observed that (a) creativity through the approach of person may be considered in terms of physiology, temperament, personal attitudes habits and values of the person who creates, (b) explaining it by way of mental processes involving motivation, perception, learning, thinking and communicating the way act of creativity calls into play, (c) press implies understanding of creativity by focussing attention on environmental and
cultural influences, and (d) products of creativity include elements such as theories, inventions, paintings, carvings, poems and the like.

There are numerous references in the research literature which are in support of one or the other category mentioned above. A detailed description of these has been systematically organized by Gakhar (1975).

Personalological approach considers creativity as related to unique cognitive factors (Guilford, 1950, 1964; De Hann and Havighurst, 1961) and also dependent upon certain non-cognitive factors (Barron, 1955; Hammer, 1961; Getzels and Jackson, 1962; Cropley, 1965; Raina, 1970; Cronbach, 1968; Gakhar 1973, 1975; Gupta, 1979).

Creativity as a process has been considered by Spearman (1930), Kubie (1958), Bartlet (1959), Vinacke (1960), Ghiselin (1963), Mednick (1962), Yamamoto (1964), Torrance (1965), Rogers (1976), Kant (1976), Brown (1977) and Gordon (1982). Wallas (1926) suggests that the creative process can be divided into four stages; preparation, incubation, illumination and verification. The Wallas steps towards creative accomplishment are valid, but it is also necessary to recognize the hierarchical levels.
of creativity which from the lowest to the highest are: expressive creativity, technical creativity, inventive creativity, innovative creativity and emergentive creativity. Mansfield and Busse's (1981) Model of creative process in scientific fields involves five steps; (a) selection of the problem that is important and potentially solvable, (b) extended effort to solve the problem, (c) setting constraints to the solution of the problem, (d) changing the constraints through a restructuring process, and (e) verification and elaboration of results.

According to Torrance (1962) creative process consists of identifying problems, developing hypotheses as to the causes of the problems, finding out new solutions, application of those solution which involve improvement of product and usual uses and finally communicating the results. According to him verbal creativity can be measured in terms of fluency, flexibility and originality.

There is an element uniqueness or novelty in creative products. In some definitions of creativity (Stein, 1953; Rogers, 1962) novelty has been viewed in tangible products, but certain others (Stewart, 1950, Guilford, 1964) hold that it can also be present in the
intangible products. Thurstone (1952) too argues that it does not make any difference whether the society regards an idea as novel or not.


It is not always possible to include a particular definition within one particular category inspite of the above broadly different categories of definitions. This is mainly on account of overlapping of one category of definitions with the other. Further creative process without having reference to person, press and product is equally ambiguous. Torrance (1965), while accepting the 'process' definition of creativity, has rightly raised
the question; what kind of person one must be in order to engage most successfully in the process and what kind of product results from the process? Thus at least five components of creativity have been stressed - the act, the object, the process, the person and the environment. Hallman (1963) explains these elements of creativity when he writes: (a) it is a whole act, a unitary instance of behaviour; (b) it terminates in the production of objects or forms of living, which are distinctive; (c) it evolves out of certain mental process; (d) it covaries with specific personality transformation; and (e) it occurs within a particular kind of environment.

Mansfield and Busse (1981) review of major theories gives the description of creative process. Psychoanalytic theories of Kris (1952) and Kubie (1953) emphasize the importance of pre-conscious processes. These processes are believed to occur when the ego, with its emphasis on logical, rational thought, temporarily loosens its control of the thinking processes so that an unorganized, drive-oriented type of thinking can occur. Gestalt psychologists (e.g. Kohler, 1969) employ the term "productive thinking" and "problem solving" to refer to what others
might call creative thinking. The structural features of the problem itself set up stresses and strains in the thinker. By following up these stresses and strains, the thinker is led to a restructuring of the problem. Successive restructurings occur until a emergence.

Associationist theories involve the common assumption that creativity results from novel or unusual associations (Koestler 1964, and Gruber 1974). Medmick (1967) defined the creative process as "the forming of associative elements into new combinations which either meet specified requirements or are in some way useful". The degree of creativity depends on the relative remoteness of the elements used to form the new combination. When asked to respond to a stimulus word, highly creative people are likely to give remote or uncommon responses; whereas less creative people tend to give only common stereotyped responses.

Koestler (1964) developed a "bisociation" theory of creativity. In bisociation, two independent matrices of ideas come into contact, but this occurs only
subconsciously through a regression to the pre-conscious thinking processes stressed by psychoanalytic theorists.

Hadamard (1945) theory combines psychoanalytic as well as associationist ideas. He proposes the same steps of the creative process as proposed by Wallas earlier; preparation, incubation, illumination and verification. The initial preparation period is conscious, systematic and logical but sets in motion some unconscious thinking processes that are essential to the incubation and illumination phases. The unconscious mind produces a vast number of associations among which only the potentially fruitful ideas, selected by the unconscious mind for their beauty or elegance, are allowed to reach consciousness in the phase of illumination. The last step of the creative process, verification of the value of the idea and establishing its implications, is essentially conscious.

Gruber's (1974) theory draws on the associationist and Gestalt positions as well as on Piaget's theory of cognitive development. In his view, creative accomplishments are fueled by conscious, purposeful actions. Creative thought is preceded by a period of persistent search and
enquiry. After such a period, idea discovery can occur. Discovery results not from a single association but from a succession of small changes or restructurings.

Two fundamentally different approaches to the study of creativity have been given by Mansfield and Busse (1987). First, creativity is considered in terms of test performance. The divergent thinking tests developed by Torrance (1962) and Guilford (1967) and others to measure divergent thinking abilities have often been used as measures of creativity. Divergent thinking tests use problems that allow many possible solutions. Researchers who use tests to measure creativity assume that the abilities being tested are essential to real life creativity and persons with high test scores have high potential for creative accomplishments. Secondly, real life creativity may be measured directly in terms of products such as poems, symphonies, book, inventions and scientific theories. Jackson and Messick (1967) have proposed that creative products are characterized by four features: novelty, value, transformation and condensation. A creative product must be novel, possess some value or appropriateness and characterized by properties of transformation and
In the present study creativity has been operationally defined as "the process of sensing gaps or disturbing, missing elements; forming ideas or hypotheses concerning them, testing these hypotheses; and communicating the results, possibly modifying and retesting the hypotheses". (Torrance, 1965). Its measure is the total of scores on Creative Activity Check List by Torrance (1962).

2.3 VALUES

Values play an important role in various aspects of individual life including his attitude towards the profession he enters into. They are socially approved desires or goals, conceptions or standards by which things are composed, approved or disapproved and are internalized in individuals through the process of conditioning, socialization and preferences. As potent determinants of human behaviour, they make human behaviour patterned and help to make sense of discrete pieces of human behaviour which otherwise do not have any connection. Value refers to attitudes, preferences, life style, normative frameworks, symbolic universe, belief systems and the whole net work of meaning men give to life.
The values are most commonly defined in terms of sentiments and emotions, likes and dislikes etc. In the most elementary sense, value means whatever is actually liked, prized, esteemed, desired, approved or enjoying a desired object or activity." A value is always an experience never a thing or object (Parker, 1957). Value in some sense are subjective, in that they depend upon a relationship between an observer and that which is being evaluated.

Objective definitions of values emphasize that values are independent of the valuer and they reside in the object and not in the subject. Joad (1942) says, "value seem to reside in the objects just as truly as do colour, smell, temperature, size and shape". Gruber (194) also opine that there is something in the object which makes us to form a judgement of it.

Relational definitions of values, as different from both the subjective as well as the objective views, consider values in terms of relationship between a valuing human being and his environment. Thus the value may be called as the relational concept." (Sanyal, 1962).

Murphy, Murphy and Newcomb (1937), while submitting their psychological view point write, "A value is simply
the maintenance of a set towards the attainment of a goal."
In other words value is a motivation which sustains an
individual's efforts to achieve a particular goal". Anything
that individual avoids, escapes, rejects is of a negative
value. According to Margenau (1959) value is the measure
of satisfaction of human wants." He speaks of two kinds of
values, factual and normative. Factual values are observable
preferences at given time and normative values are ratings
which people give to value object.

Within the sociological framework Kane (1967) defines,
"Values as ideals, beliefs or norms which a society or the
large majority of a society's members hold." Values thus
are socially approved desires and goals that are internalized
through the process of conditioning, learning or socialization
and that become subjective preferences, standards and
aspirations.

A value is a preference as well as the conception of the
preferable. According to Kluckohn a value is a "conception
of the desirable" and not something "merely desired." A
conception of the desirable seems to be nothing more than a
special kind of preference - a preference for one mode of
behaviour over an opposite mode, or a preference for one
end state over other end state. A value is a conception of
something that is personally or socially preferable. When
a person speaks about his values, it can not be assumed
that he necessarily intends to apply them differently to young and old, men and women, rich and poor and so on.

Values are, "standards and principles for judging worth. They are criteria by which we judge things (people, objects, ideas, actions and situations) to be good, worthwhile, desirable; or on the other hand, bad worthless despicable; or, of course, somewhere in between these extremes. We may apply our values consciously or they may function unconsciously as a part of the influence of our frame of reference, without our being aware of the standards implied by our decisions." Person's values serve as "the criteria or standard in terms of which evaluations are made."

While summarizing various definitions, Verma (1972) writes, "(a) value is a conception of desirableness of an object or activity for the well being of an individual, (b) motivational property of a value lies in the goal (c) values can be organized in a hierarchy in the personality of an individual, (d) value influences individual's behaviour, his dislikes goals and all his activities and (e) values have social, personal and psychological characteristics". The existing evidence (Khan and Sham, 1981) seems to suggest that there is some correlation between measures of attitude and measure of values. As strong determiners of behaviour, teachers value pattern is likely to affect his attitude towards teaching.
Theories of Value Development:

Three psychological theories deal extensively with the development of human values. They are cognitive developmental theory, social learning theory and psychoanalytic theory and psychoanalytic theory (Ryan, 1985).

1. Cognitive Developmental Theory:

Piaget (1965) pioneered cognitive developmental approach. According to this theory human learner is a stimulus seeking entity rather than a creature who learns entirely through conditioning. Human beings have innate capacities of influencing the kind of interactive experiences they have and determining the reciprocal effects of experience upon people and their future development. In fact each person is a self-organizing being.

Piaget has laid the foundation for understanding the developmental phases in moral judgement of the child. His main areas of research were (a) how children act upon rules and laws; (b) how children judge bad acts and lies; (c) how children look upon punishment and justice. Piaget formulated his theory in stages of moral development. First Stage is called "Heteronomous Morality." It is an intellectually immature morality, affected by one-sided affectionate respect of adults. The heteronomous morality of the child shows immature structure which is egocentric and static. Second Stage is known as "Autonomous Morality" or morality in cooperation. With the intellectual development the child
becomes able to acquire independence in his/her moral judgements. The child acquires the ability to take roles and the submission under the authority of adults is changed into a mutual respect and equality in social cooperation. Here morality is no longer based on rules decided by authorities which can not be changed. Rules are regarded as a system expressing mutual rights and obligations for equals.

The theory of Kohlberg (1958) is perhaps the best known cognitive developmental theory of moral development. Kohlberg's theory has been undergoing changes over years, but its best form is described in following six stages of moral thinking.

Stage (i):

Heteronomous Morality or Punishment and Obedience Orientation - The child reasons out on the basis of being rewarded for being good or being punished for bad.

Stage (ii):

Naively Egoistic Orientation or Instrumental Relativist Orientation - The person at this stage thinks about moral issues from a rather selfish perspective and is therefore dominated by pleasure principle.

Stage (iii):

Mental Interpersonal Expectation, Relationships, and Interpersonal Conformity or Good Boy-Nice Girl Orientation - The opinion of the majority or stereotypic view is the correct way.
Stage (iv):

Social Systems and Conscience or The Law and Order Orientation—Authority and respect for social order become dominant here.

Stage (v):

Contractual-Legalistic Orientation or Social Contract and Individual Right Stage—The moral responsibility is seen from the perspective of a social contract such as the Bills of rights. Here the person is concerned with the rights of the individual and is concerned with those procedures where the process is follows.

Stage (vi):

Universal Ethical Principles or Orientation towards the Decisions of Conscience and Self Chosen Ethical Principles—Here an individual habitually reasons according to his/her own conscience and according to self chosen principles.

2. Social Learning Theory:

This theory is derived from behaviourism of John Watson (1930). According to this view the human nature is like a blank slate on which society writes the experience of the individual. Moral behaviour and values are acquired by the same kind of processes as any other behaviour is learned. The types of behaviours or values learned by the individual depend upon kind of experiences he/she was condition to, and what rewards and punishments he/she has received. There are two ways of learning moral behaviours or values.
The first is direct teaching and the second is through modeling or imitation.

3. Psychoanalytic Theory

The founder of psychoanalytic theory was Sigmund Freud (1949), the Viennese medical doctor. According to psychoanalytic theory the human nature is driven by irrational impulses which must be controlled. The agents of the society particularly parents must intervene in the early period to introduce restraints and to conform behavior for the goodness of the individual and the society. This theory is rooted in a total view of personality. Self restraint and discipline are the major sources of moral development in youth. In the psychoanalytic theory the feeling aspect is emphasized.

For the purpose of present study, values have been defined as dominant interests, things in which people are interested, they want and desire to be or become and feel obligatory, worship and enjoy (Allport, 1951). Six types of values as measured by the Indian adaptation (Kulshrestha, 1970) of Allport, Vernon and Lindzey Test (1960) namely, theoretical, economic aesthetic, social political and religious values have been considered under this variable.

2.4 PERSONALITY:

Understanding the nature of personality is not an easy task as human personality is a complex phenomena and it can be interpreted differently.
According to Murphy (1947), "Personality is structured organism environment field, each aspect of which stands in dynamic relation to each other aspect. There is organization within the organism and organization within the environment, but it is the cross organization of the two that is investigated in personality research."

Some definitions look at personality of an individual, giving weightage to his unique qualities and characteristics. For example, according to Vernon (1957), "We mean by it simply, what sort of man is so and so, what is the like? ... While a man's intelligence, his bodily strength and skills are certainly part of his personality, yet the term refers chiefly to his emotional and social qualities, together, with his drives, sentiments, and interests."

Stagner (1948) is more concerned about the person's inner system and defined personality as an inner system of beliefs, expectancies, desires and values. Cattell (1956) equates personality with the individual aspects of behaviour. He directs his attention to the behaviour of the individual and maintains that it should have predictive power. He defines personality "... is that which
permits to a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.... Personality is concerned with all the behaviour of the individual both overt and under the skin." Eysenck - accepted this definition in his (1960) work, the structure of human personality. Eysenck's own definition of personality is an analysis of behaviour as he believes in the continuity of behaviour. Eysenck (1960) defines personality "as more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character temperament, intellect and physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment". He distinguished four sectors of personality: (a) Cognitive Sector (intelligence), (b) Cnative Sector (character), (c) An affective Sector (temperament) and (d) Somatic Sector (constitution).

In the words of Hall and Lindzey (1964), "Personality consists concretely of a set of values or descriptive terms which are used to describe the individual being studied according to the variable or dimensions which occupy a central position within the particular theory described." In the words of Thorpe and Schmullar (1965), "An adequate definition of personality needs to emphasize the point that the individual is a human being emeshed in a social order and symbolic culture which influences
According to Allport (1966), "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his characteristic behaviour and thought." 'Dynamic organization' emphasizes the fact that personality is constantly developing and changing; although at the same time there is an organization or system that binds together and relates the various components of personality. The term "Psychophysical" reminds that personality is neither exclusively mental nor exclusively physical. The 'Organisation' entails the operation of both body and mind, inextricably fused into a personal unity. The word 'determine' makes clear that personality is made up of determining tendencies that play an active role in individual's behaviour. "Personality is something and does something. It is what lies behind specific acts and within the individual". This definition reflects that man's personality is organized which is constantly evolving and changing. Man is both brain and body with the help of which he does something which makes him different from others. Therefore, every human being is unique in time, place, person and adjustment quality.
There are three main approaches to the study of Personality:

1) Conflicting approach given by Freud (1949)
2) Fulfilment approach given by Rogers (1962)
3) The Behavioural approach given by Adler (1924)

(i) The Conflict approach - assumes that personality is shaped by a constant conflict between internal forces. According to this approach, life is a compromise between these forces.

(ii) Fulfilment approach - to personality assumes that a single force impels people to strive constantly for fulfilment and an understanding of their environment. Life is not a compromise but a continual struggle for fulfilment and/or perfection.

(iii) The Behavioural approach - in general suggests that behaviour, and therefore, personality is the result of external influences such as reinforcement and punishment.

Freud's (1949) approach to personality is called psychoanalytic theory. The method of therapy based on Freud's theory is called psychoanalyses. Freud stated
that there are three levels of consciousness. The first is conscious behaviour, the thoughts, feelings and actions of which people are aware; the second preconscious behaviour is mental activity that people can become aware only if they attend to it closely; the third level the unconscious, is mental activity that people are unaware of and cannot become aware of except through certain techniques. According to Freud's theory, the primary structural elements of personality are the id, ego and super ego and these three forces reside in the unconscious. Each accounts for a different aspect of functioning. The id is the source of a person's instinctual energy. It works on the pleasure principle which assumes that people try to maximize immediate gratification. Freud's considered much of a person's instinctual energy to be sexual and the rest as aggressive. The second major component of functioning is the ego whereas the id. seeks to maximize pleasure and to obtain gratification, the ego (which grows out of the id.) seeks to satisfy the individuals instinctual needs in accordance with reality. It works on the reality principle. Whereas the id. is demanding, unrealistic and works by the pleasure principle the ego is patient, reasonable, and works by the reality
principle. Superego, is the moral self. When id, ego and super ego are not in harmonious relationship or are out of balance anxiety develops.

According to Rogers (1962) people try to express their capabilities, potential, and talents to the fullest extent possible. In other words fulfilment is the motivating force of personality development. Rogers suggests that an inborn tendency in people directs them towards actualizing their inherited nature, and thus fulfilling potential. Rogers (1962) makes two basic assumptions about behaviour. He assumes that behaviour is goal directed and worthwhile. He also assumes that because people are innately good they will almost always choose adaptive, self-actualizing behaviours.

Rogers' (1962) theory of personality is structured around the concept of self. SELF - the main structural component of Roger's theory of personality. A group of perceptions that characterize an individual and his or his relationship to others and to other aspects of his or her life. Rogers' theory assumes that individuals are constantly engaged in the process of fulfilling their potential, or actualizing the true self. Rogers suggests
that each person has a concept not only of self but also of an ideal self. Ideal self is that self a person would ideally like to be when correspondence exists between the self, a person is generally happy. In contrast, a great discrepancy between the real self and ideal self often results in feelings of unhappiness and dissatisfaction. Rogers' basic principle is that people have a tendency to maximize self concept through self actualization. Self actualization for Rogers, the continuous growth of the self towards the ideal self.

Rogers (1962) stresses that each person must evaluate his or her situation from a personal (internal) frame of reference, not from the (external) framework of others, unhappiness is the result of too great a discrepancy between the real and ideal selves, but the individual can reduce or eliminate that discrepancy. Thus each person's happiness lies within his or her conception of self.

Rogers' and Freud's theories of personality make fundamentally different assumptions about human nature and how it is expressed in behaviour or personality.

Adler (1924) believed that people are basically
good and that their core tendency is to strive toward superiority or perfection. Whereas Rogers stressed fulfilment through self-actualization. Adler stressed fulfilment through striving toward specific goals. Some goals are fictional and unlikely to be reached. Adler spoke of fictional. Fictional - a goal state that is impossible to realize but acts as one of the energizers of behaviour (Adler, 1924). According to Adler, people are motivated, or energized, to strive for superiority and ultimately perfection, by feeling of inferiority; when people experience a sense of imperfection they seek to improve themselves. Thus feelings of inferiority are not a negative factor; they compel people to strive for superiority and thereby express their core tendencies.

A crucial aspect of Adler's theory is the idea that people are inherently social being. Adler recognized that from birth on, people interact with parents, family and society. These innate social qualities temper people's drives for superiority. Feelings and goals are superiority in different areas of life. Some people may seek to be superior artists, whereas others may seek to be superior social advocates or home-makers. Each person develops
a unique style of life in which attitudes and behaviours express a specific approach to achieving superiority. Because humans are social beings, they will seek goals and values that are basically social in nature.

Both Adler and Rogers assume that humans can and will fulfil themselves whenever possible. Whereas Rogers stresses self-actualization, Adler emphasizes an innate social need motivated by feelings of inferiority to strive toward perfection and superiority.