CHAPTER I

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction:

The role of education is not only important in the development of culture and society but also in the development of individual’s personality, self-confidence and Interpersonal Behaviour. During recent years, changes have occurred in the pattern of culture, society and individual personalities. Education is a process, which draws out the best in the child with the aim of producing well-balanced personalities – culturally refined, emotionally stable, ethically sound, mentally alert, morally upright, physically strong, socially efficient, spiritually mature, vocationally self-sufficient and internationally liberal. The personality is composed of traits, or special qualities of behaviour, which characterize the individual’s unique adjustment to life as shown in his behaviour and thought. The traits are organized and integrate into a meaningful pattern. The ‘core’ or centre of gravity of the personality pattern is the individual’s concept of himself / or herself as a person as related to the world in which he lives. The quality of his behaviour, expressed in the way he adjusts to people and things in his environment, is related largely by his self - concept. Personality is not a specific quality of a person but a quality of his behaviour. How he behaves depends upon how he feels about himself, about other people and about his relationship with them. These feelings makeup his self- concept what he thinks about himself as a person. A person’s self – concept is the fundamental love of his entire personality and determines the quality of behaviour. Education should contribute not only to knowledge or information but also to physical efficiency, mental alertness and the development of certain qualities like perseverance, team spirit, leadership, follower ship, obedience to rules, moderation in victory and balance in defeat and the development of self-control, endurance, courage, self-concept, comradeship, confidence etc. National Cadet Corps (N.C.C.) gives a good opportunity to develop the above mentioned physical and psychological qualities. N.C.C. is a good platform for the youth to develop their personality. N.C.C. National Cadet Corps (N.C.C.) is a Tri service Organization comprising the Army, Navy and Air force,
engaged in grooming the youth into disciplined and patriotic citizens. The National Cadet Corps came into existence on 16th July 1948 under the N.C.C. Act XXXI of 1948 under the Ministry of Defence. A cadet can continue in N.C.C. for two years as a junior cadet and three years as a senior cadet. Each year of training consists of 150 periods and 120 periods for junior and senior division cadets respectively. Institutional training consists of service subjects, social subjects and subjects related to adventure activities and subjects promoting national integration. During training years, cadets get opportunity to attend various types of N.C.C. camps. At the end of two years of training, the cadets can appear for the certificate examinations. N.C.C. plays a very dominant role in inculcating social ethos in the youth of the country. It undertakes various social service activities like aid to the administration in times of calamities, preservation of environment and ecology, blood donation campaigns, literacy programs and construction and cleanliness drives. N.C.C. trains the cadets to become responsive individuals, sensitive to the needs of the community. This active participation teaches dignity of labour and ignites the creative instinct that lies latent in the youth. This is achieved through the scientifically planned N.C.C. curriculum. It aims at developing a new work of ethos characterized by hard work, sincerity of purpose and the ideals of selfless service with a secular outlook.

1.2 What is N.C.C. (National Cadet Corps):

The National Cadet Corps is the Indian Military cadet corps with its head Quarters at New Delhi. It is Open to School and college students on Voluntary Basis. The National Cadets are from high schools, colleges and Universities all over India. The Cadets are given basis military training in small arms and parades. The officers and cadets have no liability for active military service once they complete their course but are given preference over normal candidates during selections based on the achievement in the corps.

1.2.1 Aim of N.C.C. :

1. To develop qualities of character, courage, comradeship, discipline, leadership, secular outlook, spirit of adventure and sportsmanship and the ideals of selfless service among the youth to make them useful citizen.
2. To create a human resource of organised trained and motivated youth to provide leadership in all walks of life including the Armed Forces and be always available for the service of the nation.

1.2.2 History of N.C.C.:

The N.C.C. in India was formed with the National Cadet Corps Act of 1948. It was raised on 15 July 1948 the National Cadet Corps can be considered as a successor of the University Officers Training Corps (UOTS) which was established by the British in 1942. During World War II, the UOTC never come up to the expectations set by the British. This led to the idea that some better schemes should be formed, which could train more young men in a better way, even during peace times. A committee headed by Pandit H. N. Kunzru recommended organization to be established in school and colleges at a national level. The National Cadet Corps Act was accepted by the Governor General and on 15 July 1948 the National cadet corps came into existence.

During the 1965 and 1971 wars with Pakistan, N.C.C. cadets were the second line of defence. They organized camps to assist the ordinance factories, supplying arms and ammunition to the front, an also were used as petrol parties to capture the enemy paratroopers. The N.C.C. cadets also worked hand in hand with the Civil Defence authorities and actively took part in rescue work and traffic control. After the 1965 and 1971 Indo-Pak wars the N.C.C. syllabus was revised. Rather than just being the second line of defence, N.C.C. syllabus laid a greater stress on developing qualities of leadership and Officer-like qualities.

The military training which the N.C.C. cadets received was reduced and greater importance was given to other areas like social service and youth-management.
1.2.3 N.C.C. Organisation :

The National Cadet Corps is headed by a Director General, an Army Officer of the rank of Lieutenant General, who is responsible for the functioning of the National cadet corps in the country through the National Cadet Corps Headquarters situated at Delhi. At the state level, the country has been divided into 17 Directorates covering all States and Union Territories. Each of the State National Cadet Corps Directorate Headquarters controls two fourteen Group Headquarters. While Directorates are commanded by Brigadiers or their equivalents the groups are commanded by Colonels or equivalents from the Air Force and the Navy, N.C.C. Units are commanded by Major /Lieutenant Colonel or their equivalents.

1.3 What is Personality?

Almost every day we describe and assess the personalities of the people around us. Whether we realize it or not, these daily musings on how and why people behave as they do are similar to what personality psychologists do.
While our informal assessments of personality tend to focus more on individuals, personality psychologists instead use conceptions of personality that can apply to everyone. Personality research has led to the development of a number of theories that help explain how and why certain personality traits develop.

Personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviours that make a person unique. Almost every day we describe and assess the personalities of the people around us why people behave as they do are similar to what personality psychologists do. Personality research has led to the development of a number of theories that help explain how and why certain personality traits develop. While there are many different theories of personality, the first step is to understand exactly what is meant by the term personality. A brief definition would be that personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviours that make a person unique. In addition to this, personality arises from within the individual and remains fairly consistent throughout life. The studies of personality have a broad and varied history in psychology, with an abundance of theoretical traditions. The major theories include dispositional (trait) perspective, psychodynamic, humanistic, biological, behaviourist and social learning perspective.

### 1.3.1 Definitions of Personality:

While there are many different theories of personality, the first step is to understand exactly what is meant by the term personality. The word personality itself stems from the Latin word persona, which referred to a theatrical mask worn by performers in order to either project different roles or disguise their identities.

A brief definition would be that personality is made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviours that make a person unique. In addition to this, personality arises from within the individual and remains consistent throughout life.

It is natural that such a widely used word as “personality” should have a verity of definitions. Allport (1937) concludes that there are at least fifty different meanings of the term. He also reports that ‘personality’ is used in at least four distinct senses in the writings of Cicero. First, a personality is regarded as an assemblage of personal qualities; in this sense it represents what the person is really like. In this
interpretation, personality pertains to the actor. Second, a personality is regarded as the way person appears to the others, not as he really is. In this sense, personality pertains to the mask. Third, personality is the role a person plays in life; a professional, social, or political role, for example a role is a character in drama. Finally, personality refers to the qualities of distinction and dignity. In this sense it pertains to the star performer. Because of the evaluate connotation of this meaning of the term, we do not find such a definition in the scientific "Personality" can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations. There are some characteristics of personality:

Consistency - There is generally a recognizable order and regularity to behaviours. Essentially, people act in the same ways or similar ways in a variety of situations.

Psychological and physiological - Personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that biological processes and needs also influence it

It influences behaviours and actions - Personality does not just influence how we move and respond in our environment; it also causes us to act in certain ways.

According to Freud the personality of human being formed by Id, Ego and Superego systems, which may have their own functions, properties, operating principles, components, etc. in shaping the personality Freudian psychological reality begins with the world, full of objects. Among them is a very special object, the organism. The organism is special in that it acts to survive and reproduce, and it is guided toward those ends by its needs -- hunger, thirst, the avoidance of pain, and sex.

Freud didn't exactly invent the idea of the conscious versus unconscious mind, but he certainly was responsible for making it popular. The conscious mind is what you are aware of at any particular moment, your present perceptions, memories, thoughts, fantasies, feelings, what have you. Working closely with the conscious mind is what Freud called the preconscious, what we might today call "available memory:" anything that can easily be made conscious, the memories you are not at the moment thinking about but can readily bring to mind. Now no-one has a problem with these two layers of mind. But Freud suggested that these are the smallest parts!
The largest part by far is the unconscious. It includes all the things that are not easily available to awareness, including many things that have their origins there, such as our drives or instincts, and things that are put there because we can't bear to look at them, such as the memories and emotions associated with trauma.

According to Freud, the unconscious is the source of our motivations, whether they are simple desires for food or sex, neurotic compulsions, or the motives of an artist or scientist. And yet, we are often driven to deny or resist becoming conscious of these motives, and they are often available to us only in disguised form.

There are few words in English language that have such a fascination for the general public as the term personality. Although the word is used in various senses, most of these popular meanings fall under one of two headings. The first use equates the term to social skills or adroitness. An individual’s personality is assessed by the effectiveness with which he or she is able to elicit positive reaction from a variety of persons under different circumstances. It is in this sense that the teacher who refers to a student as presenting a personality problem is probably indicating that his or her social skill are not adequate to maintain satisfactory relations with fellow students and the teacher. The second use considers the personality of the individual to consist of the most outstanding or salient impression that he or she creates in others. A person may thus be said to have an “aggressive personality” or a submissive personality” or a “fearful personality.” In each case the observer selects an attribute or quality that is highly typical of the subject and that is presumably an important part of the overall impression created in others and the person’s personality is the identified by this term. It is clear that there is an element of evaluation in both usages. Personalities as commonly described are good and bad.

Personality concerns the most important, most noticeable parts of an individual's psychological life. Personality concerns whether a person is happy or sad, energetic or apathetic, smart or dull. Over the years, many different definitions have been proposed for personality. Most of the definitions refer to a mental system -- a collection of psychological parts including motives, emotions, and thoughts. The definitions vary a bit as to what those parts might be, but they come down to the idea that personality involves a pattern or global operation of mental systems. Here are some definitions
Personality: The sum total of characteristics that differentiate people or the stability in a person’s behaviour across different situations. (Robert S. Fieldman)

"Personality is the entire mental organization of a human being at any stage of his development. It embraces every phase of human character: intellect, temperament, skill, morality, and every attitude that has been built up in the course of one's life."

(Warren & Carmichael)

"An individual's pattern of psychological processes arising from motives, feelings, thoughts, and other major areas of psychological function. Personality is expressed through its influences on the body, in conscious mental life, and through the individual's social behaviour."
(Mayer, 2005)

“Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation”. (R B Cattell, 1970)

“Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect, and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment”. (Eysenck 1971)

"Personality refers to individuals' characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behaviour, together with the psychological mechanisms -- hidden or not -- behind those patterns. This definition means that among their colleagues in other subfields of psychology, those psychologists who study personality have a unique mandate: to explain whole persons." (Funder, D. C., 1997)

"Although no single definition is acceptable to all personality theorists, we can say that personality is a pattern of relatively permanent traits and unique characteristics that give both consistency and individuality to a person's behaviour."(Feist and Feist, 2009)
1.4 Factors Making Personality:

Many factors shape the personality of an individual. These are broadly divided in two parts,

1) Biological factors, 2) Psychosocial factors, 3) Psychological Factors.

1.4.1 Biological Factors:

The biological perspective on personality emphasizes the internal physiological and genetic factors that influence personality. It focuses on why or how personality traits manifest through biology and investigates the links between personality, DNA, and processes in the brain. This research can include the investigation of anatomical, chemical, or genetic influences and is primarily accomplished through correlating personality traits with scientific data from experimental methods such as brain imaging and molecular genetics.

A) Temperament:

In psychology, "temperament" refers to the personality tendencies that we show at birth (and that are therefore biologically determined). For example, Thomas and Chess (1977) found that babies could be categorized into one of three temperaments: easy, difficult, or slow to warm up. After birth, environmental factors (such as family interactions) and maturation interact with a child's temperament to shape their personality (Carter et al., 2008).

B) Genetics and Personality:

The field of behavioural genetics focuses on the relationship between genes and behaviour and has given psychologists a glimpse of the link between genetics and personality. A large part of the evidence collected linking genetics and the environment to personality comes from twin studies, which compare levels of similarity in personality between genetically identical twins.

In the field of behavioural genetics, the Minnesota Study of Twins Reared Apart, a well-known study of the genetic basis for personality conducted research with twins from 1979 to 1999. In studying 350 pairs of twins, including pairs of identical and fraternal twins reared together and apart, researchers found that identical twins, whether
raised together or apart, have very similar personalities (Bouchard, 1994; Bouchard, Lykken, McGue, Segal, & Tellegen, 1990; Segal, 2012).

Many personality studies today investigate the activation and expression of genes and how they relate to personality. How DNA interacts with the environment determines what part of the DNA code is actually activated within an individual in other words, which genes will be expressed. These small changes in individuals' DNA help determine each person's uniqueness their distinct looks, abilities, brain functioning, and other characteristics that all work together to form a cohesive personality.

C) The Brain and Personality:

The biological approach to personality has also identified areas and pathways within the brain that are associated with the development of personality. A number of theorists, such as Hans Eysenck, Gordon Allport, and Raymond Cattell, believe that personality traits can be traced back to brain structures and neural mechanisms, such as dopamine and serotonin pathways. Researchers using a biological perspective will seek to understand how hormones, neurotransmitters, and different areas of the brain all interact to affect personality.

1.4.2 Psychosocial Factors:

An individual’s familial, school, and social background play an important role in socialization, which in turn greatly contribute to his personality.

i) Family Atmosphere:

Personality is also determined by structure of family, family atmosphere, and relationships among family members.

(a) Structure of family Structure of family plays an important role in personality development of a child. A well-structured family fosters all-round personality development. There are three important elements of structured families which are as follows;

(1) Such a family has clearly defined standards and limits, so that the child understands what goals, procedures, and conduct are generally approved.

(2) The roles of both older and younger members of the family are adequately defined, so that the child knows what is expected of each member of the family.
(3) Generally democratic family structure is found to be more conducive to healthy personality development than autocratic family such families have consistent child-rearing practices, which are characterized by consistent methods of encouraging desired behaviour and discouraging undesired one.

(b) Family atmosphere – The socioeconomic status of family and its emotional, moral and intellectual atmosphere contribute significantly to a child’s personality. Children adopt their parents’ attitude and imitate their behaviour. Emotional atmosphere in family also plays a key role in personality development. Parents’ emotional experience, emotional expression, attitude all are reflected in family atmosphere, which in turn, influences a child’s personality. Positive emotional experiences are favourable to healthy personality development.

(c) Relationships – The interpersonal relationship among family members can cause healthy or faulty personality development. The relationship between parents, parent-child relationship and sibling relationship influence child’s personality significantly. Psychologists have found that personality of children having grandparents is healthier than that of children who do not have grandparents.

ii) School Atmosphere:

School and related factors are important in child’s personality development due to the following reasons; (1) going to school is inevitable, (2) major period of life is spent in school, (3) this is the period when children’s self-concept is being formed, and (4) school provides an opportunity to assess one’s own potential without parents help. The important factors related to school atmosphere are teacher-pupil relationship, religious affiliation, and socioeconomic status of school.

Teacher-pupil relationship- Teachers are idols for children, especially for primary school going children. Children tend to imitate their teachers. Teachers’ attitude towards students determines the quality of their relationship with students, which in turn, influences students’ personality. Other factors like teacher’s favouritism, teaching methods, class control, professional commitment, and involvement in students also influence students’ personality.

Religious affiliation Children’s personality is shaped through different co-curricular and extra-curricular programme conducted and compulsory subjects offered in
school. They are directly related to the norms, rituals, traditions and customs of the school, which depend upon the religious affiliation of the school.

iii) Socio-economic status:

Socio-economic status of school depends upon the social class students come from, the government grant the school receives, facilities available and affiliation of the school. Based on these, four types of schools can broadly be classified: government schools (e.g. those managed by municipal corporation, Zillah Parishad), private granted schools, private non-granted schools, and international schools.

Government schools are fully managed by government. Generally, children from lower socio-economic class join these schools. Students are given free education, and also get facilities like free-of-cost uniforms, books, etc.

Granted private schools receive salary grant and other grants from government. Such schools take nominal fees. In such schools, there are limitations as to such facilities as library, computers, laboratory equipment’s, etc. provided to students. Some schools capitalize on their ‘brand name’ and take donations for school expansion and development. Generally, children from middle class take education in such schools.

Non-grant private schools charge heavy fees, since they do not get government grants. Generally, children from upper class study in these schools.

International schools charge fees in foreign currency, which when converted in Indian rupees comes out to be very high. Such schools have air-conditioned classrooms, well-equipped laboratories, rich libraries, computer and Internet facilities, and modern audio-visual teaching aids. Upper class children study in these schools.

Children’s personality is influenced by school facilities; social class of peers; educational qualification, social class and teaching skills of teachers. We find remarkable differences in self-confidence, attitude, self-reliance, social competence, mastery over language and general knowledge of students studying in government schools, granted private schools, non-granted private schools, and international schools.
1.5 Measurement of Personality:

Here we have tried to understand the meaning of personality. We have also discussed the impact of biological and psychosocial factors on personality. Psychologists’ attempts to devise quantitative measures of personality have resulted into an emergence of a variety of measurement techniques, which can be broadly classified into three categories.

1.5.1 Observational techniques:

Observational techniques measure personality based on observation of an individual’s behaviour.

i) **Interview**- Interview is one of the oldest techniques of measuring personality. In an interview, interviewer asks certain questions to explore the desired information about an interviewee, who then answers these questions.

ii) **Rating scales**- Rating scale refer to a scientific scale, which is used to record their impressions about an individual by people who have had an opportunity to observe the individual over a period. Supervisors to rate subordinates, by teachers to rate student, and by interviewers panel to rate the aspirant candidates for a given job or course may use rating scales. There are two kinds of ratings scale; relative scales and absolute scales.

iii) **Situational test**: Situational test is a recently developed technique. It is a kind of observational technique. It refers to observation of specific characteristics of an individual while he is active in a particular situation. Situational tests are conducted in two types of settings; natural setting (office, home, social gathering, etc.) and simulated or artificial setting. Situational stress test best exemplifies this technique. This test measures how effectively a personal can perform even under a highly demanding or stressful situation.
1.5.2 Self-Report Techniques/Questionnaires:

**Self-report techniques:**

Self-report techniques go beyond the observable behaviour and explore an individual’s psychological characteristics, like interest, abilities, aptitudes, etc. In this technique, the individual who is being assessed furnishes information about himself. Self-report technique thus refers to a set of psychological instruments used to assess an individual’s personality on the basis of the information provided by him. Questionnaires are a form of self-report technique.

**Questionnaires:**

Questionnaires are also referred to as psychological tests or inventories. A questionnaire consists of a number of questions or statements that are in printed form. The answers given by the person also are verbal in nature. In other words, questionnaire is a kind of verbal test of personality.

Questionnaires are classified in two ways; based on nature of answers obtained, and on the basis of method of obtaining answers. As far as nature of answers is concerned, there are two types of questionnaires; closed and open-ended.

As far as method of obtaining answers in concerned, questionnaires can be classified into three types; face-to-face, mail, and on-line questionnaires.

Face-to-face questionnaire is administered in a situation in which the test administrator and the person being assessed are face-to-face. One advantage of this questionnaire is that it can be administered to a number of persons at a time and sample mortality is very low.

Mail questionnaires are sent to respondents by post usually along with a reply envelope for which postage is prepaid; the respondents then return the duly completed questionnaires by post. One advantage of mail questionnaires is that they consume less money, time and human resources and can be administered to any person at any place. The major limitation is that all of the mailed questionnaires are not necessarily returned, and all of the returned ones may not be complete; generally, only 70% of mailed questionnaires are returned duly completed.
1.5.3 Projective Techniques:

Projective test consists of a standardized set of ambiguous or neutral stimuli – inkblots or pictures, which have no definite meaning but can be interpreted in various ways. The subject is instructed to interpret freely what he “sees” in them.

(i) **The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)** – This test devised by Murray (1938), is composed of three series of ten pictures, each picture representing a different situation. The subject is asked to make up a story about each picture, describing the situation, the events that led up to it, how the characters felt, and what the outcome will be. The examiner evaluates both the formal characteristics and the content of these stories, and then tries to discover the characteristic thought patterns of the subject.

(ii) **Rorschach Inkblot** - the Rorschach technique, one of the oldest projective methods, is composed of a series of inkblots. Some are black and some are coloured. They also vary in form, shading and complexity. The subject observes the cards in the prescribed order and describes what he “sees” in each card. His description often gives information about the personality structure, which is not brought out by clinical interviews or self-report measures.

(iii) **Rosenzweig, Picture Frustration (PF) Study** – This test developed by Rosenzweig, focuses mainly on frustration and aggression. It presents a series of cartoons in which one person causes frustration to another or calls attention to a frustrating condition. The subject’s responses are analysed on the basis of type and direction of aggression.

(iv) **Draw-a-Person Test** – In this test, the examinee is presented with a blank sheet, a pencil and an eraser. He is asked to draw a picture of a man or woman. Then he is asked to draw another picture of opposite sex member. Finally, he is asked to make up a story about the person as if he (or she) were a character in a novel or a play. Match over used this test for personality assessment from the psychodynamic perspective. She provided different interpretations for different aspects of the subject’s drawings. For example, omission of facial features means that person is evasive about seriously conflicting interpersonal relationship.

(v) **Sentence Completion Test** - In this test, number of stems consisting of a few words beginning a sentence are presented. The subject’s task is to complete the
sentence by providing an ending. The type of the ending provided by the subject throws light on his attitudes, motivation, and conflict. For example, Sack’s Sentence Completion Test consists of a series of 60 items. Subject’s responses can be scored and interpretations can be provided in five areas; attitude toward family members, sexual attitude, interpersonal relationships, self-concept, and goal.

1.6. Theories of Personality:

Personality theories are attempts at understanding both the characteristics of our personality characteristics and the way these characteristics develop and impact our life. The Theories of personality in general can be classified into following categories:

A) Type Approach:- The viewpoint of Hippocrates, Kretreschner, Sheldon and Jung belong to this category.
B) Trait Approach:- Theories like Allport’s theory and Cattel’s theory of personality are based on the trait approach.
C) Type-Trait Approach:- Theories like Eysenck’s Theory of personality can be put under this category.
E) Humanistic Approach: Theories like Carl Roger’s Self-Theory and Maslow’s self-actualization theory.
F) Learning Approach: Dollard and Miller’s Learning theory and Bandura and Walter’s Theory social learning.

It is beyond the scope to discuss all the theories of personality based on different approach. But representatively few theories such as theory of Type Approach, Trait approach, Type-Trait approach, Humanistic approach; Psychoanalitical approach and Learning approach need to be discussed in detail.
1.6.1 Type Approach:

Type approach advocate that human personality can be classified into a few clearly defined types and each person can be put in one or the other type depending upon his behavioural characteristics, somatic structure, blood types, fluid in the blood, or personality traits. Many more scholars and psychologists including Hippocrates, tried to divide person into certain types depending upon their specific criterion.

a) Hippocrates Classification:

According to Hippocrates, the human body consists of four types of humours of fluids—blood, yellow bile, phlegm (mucus) and black bile. The predominance of one of these four types of fluids in one’s body gives him unique temperamental characteristics leading to a particular type of personality summarized in following table:

**Table No. 1.1 temperamental characteristics leading to a particular type of personality summarized**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominance of fluid type in the body</th>
<th>Personality</th>
<th>Temperamental Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>Sanguine</td>
<td>Light hearted, optimistic, happy, hopeful and accommodating,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yellow bile</td>
<td>Choleric</td>
<td>Irritable, angry but passionate and strong with active imagination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phlegm</td>
<td>phlegmatic</td>
<td>Cold, Calm, slow or sluggish, indifferent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black bile</td>
<td>Melancholic</td>
<td>Bad tempered, dejected, sad, depressed, pessimistic, deplorable and self-involved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Kretschmer’s Classification:

Kretschmer classified all human beings into certain biological types according to physical structure and has allotted define personality characteristics associated with each physical make up as given in following table.
Table No. 1.2 Personality characteristics and Physical Make up

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality types</th>
<th>Personality characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pyknic (having fat bodies)</td>
<td>Sociable, jolly, easygoing and good natured.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletic (balanced body)</td>
<td>Energetic, optimistic, adjustable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leptomatic (lean and thin)</td>
<td>Unsociable, reserved, shy, sensitive and pessimistic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) **Jung’s Classification:**

He divided all human beings two distinct types-Introvert and Extrovert, according to their social participation and the interest they take in social activities. Later on, he further sharpened his Two-fold division by giving sub types. In this process, he took into consideration the four psychological functions- thinking, feeling, sensation and intuition, in relation to his previous extrovert and introvert types.

d) **Fridman and Rosenman’s Classification:**

Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman give this classification of personality type. It classifies the people into two personality type, type A, and type B, on the basis of their personality traits and then points out which type of people are more prone to heart ailments particularly coronary heart disease.

**A- Type Personality:**

Emotionally unstable, tense, worried, irritating, competitive, high achieving motive, moody, indifferent, active and restless, aggressive, crazy, perfectionist, idealist, rigid, much worried about punctuality and rules, hasty, jealous, dissatisfied with the self and others, suspicious, sensitive insecure, believer in action and not in fate and fortune, etc.

**B- Type Personality:**

Emotionally stable, tension-free, happy and jolly, average achieving motive, insensitive, patient, self-satisfied, calm and quite flexible, tolerant, realist, optimist, having faith and trust in one’s self and others, adjusted to one’s self and others, believer
in the philosophy of faith and fortune, sincere nut not too serious about the execution and result of the work etc.

1.6.2 Trait Approach –

a) Gordon Allport’s Trait Theory:

In 1936, Psychologist Gordon Allport found that one English-language dictionary alone contained more than 4,000 words describing different personality traits. He categorized these traits into three levels:

i) Cardinal Traits:

Traits that dominate an individual’s whole life, often to the point that the person becomes known specifically for these traits, people with such personalities often become so known for these traits that their names are often synonymous with these qualities. Consider the origin and meaning of the following descriptive terms: Freudian, Machiavellian, narcissism, Don Juan, Christ-like, etc. Allport suggested that cardinal traits are rare and tend to develop later in life.

ii) Central Traits:

These are the general characteristics that form the basic foundations of personality. These central traits, while not as dominating as cardinal traits, are the major characteristics you might use to describe another person. Terms such as intelligent, honest, shy and anxious are considered central traits.

iii) Secondary Traits:

These are the traits that are sometimes related to attitudes or preferences and often appear only in certain situations or under specific circumstances. Some examples would be getting anxious when speaking to a group or impatient while waiting in line.

b) Cattell’s trait Theory:

Cattell (1973), a British-born American researcher, has developed the most recent advanced theory of personality based on the trait approach. He has defined a trait as a
structure of the personality inferred from behaviour. In the different situations and described four types of traits.

Types of Traits:

1. **Common Traits:** The traits found widely distributed in general population like honesty, aggression and co-operation.

2. **Unique Traits:** Traits unique to a person such as temperamental traits, emotional reactions.

3. **Surface Traits:** These can be recognized by manifestation of behaviour like curiosity, dependability, and tactfulness.

4. **Source Traits:** These are the underlying structures or sources that determine behaviour such as dominance, submission emotionality, etc.

1.6.3 Type-Trait Approach-

   a) **Eysenck’s 3- Dimensions of Personality**

   i) **Introversion/Extraversion:**

   Introversion involves directing attention on inner experiences, while extraversion relates to focusing attention outward on other people and the environment. Therefore, a person high in introversion might be quiet and reserved, while an individual high in extraversion might be sociable and outgoing.

   ii) **Neuroticism/Emotional Stability:**

   This dimension of Eysenck’s trait theory is related to moodiness versus even-temperatedness. Neuroticism refers to an individual’s tendency to become upset or emotional, while stability refers to the tendency to remain emotionally constant.

   iii) **Psychoticism:**

   Later, after studying individuals suffering from mental illness, Eysenck added a personality dimension he called Psychoticism to his trait theory. Individuals who are high on this trait tend to have difficulty dealing with reality and may be antisocial, hostile, non-empathetic and manipulative.
1.6.4 Psycho-Analytical Approach – Freud:

This approach for understanding and knowing about personality belongs to the
school of psychoanalysis. The famous psychologist Freud is said to be profounder this
school thought. The ideas and thoughts propagated by Freud in his new psychoanalytic
approach is as below:

1. Basic instincts are the basic guiding factors of human behaviour. These are Life
   and Death. The Life instinct provides a burning desire and positive urge to
   remain alive and lead the life in a satisfactory way; whereas the death instincts
   build up a negative attitude towards life and guides one’s behaviour towards
   destruction, revolt, aggression or detachment and suicidal tendencies.

2. Human behaviour is by all means centred on the sex needs. The adjustment or
   maladjustment in one’s life mostly depends upon the degree of the gratification
   of one’s sex needs.

3. Mind or Psyche plays quite a significant role in directing one’s behaviour.
   According to Freud, human mind or psyche can be divided into three
   compartments in the form of conscious, semi-conscious and unconscious. These
   three divisions of human mind are responsible for three types of human
   behaviour, namely conscious, semi-conscious and unconscious. The unconscious
   behaviour being 9/10 part of the total behaviour, always dominates the total
   behavioural aspects and personality make up on an individual.

4. Freud put up the idea that the anatomy of our personality is built around the three
   unified and interrelating systems- id, ego and superego occupying their position
   in sequence in the human mind.

a) Individual Approach of Adler:

Adler while opposing the Freud’s sex cantered approach argued that sex is not
the life energy or the centre of all human activities. Actually, power motive is the centre
urge. Human beings are motivated by the urge to be important or powerful. All of us
strive towards superiority but each strives in a different way. He named it as ‘style of
life’. Therefore what kind of personality one possesses can be understood by studying
his style of life, i.e. goals of life he has set for himself and way of striving for achieving
these goals? In this way he gives birth to an individual approach in the study of
personality pattern and maintains that there are no definite personality types or classes.
Each individual is a unique pattern in him because everybody has definite goals and style of living.

b) Erik Erikson’s theory of Psychosocial Development:

Erik Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology. Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud’s theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson’s theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan.

1.6.5 Humanistic Approach –

a) Carl Roger’s Self-Theory:

Carl Ransom Rogers’, an American psychologist, in 1947 propounded a new theory of personality called the ‘self-theory’ quite distinct from the earlier theories of personality. He stressed the importance of an individual’s self for determining the process of his growth, development and appropriate adjustment to his environment.

There are two basic systems underlying his personality theory the organism and self. Rogers considers them as systems operating in one’s phenomenon logical field (a world of subjective experience, the personal and separate reality of each individual). The organism is an individual’s entire frame of reference. It represents the totality of his experience both conscious and unconscious. The second system, the ‘self’ is the accepted, aware part of experience. The self as a system of one’s phenomenal field can perhaps be best understood in terms of our concept of me or, me.

Human beings have inherited the tendency to develop their self in the process of interpersonal and social experiences, which they acquire in the environment. In other words, our inner world (in the form of our natural impulses) interacts with our total range of experience to form the concept of our self.

We are in a continuous process of building the concept of our self in this manner. The concept of self thus developed may differ from person to person as they are based purely on one’s own personal experiences. The concept of self-are sometimes based more on personal needs than on reality, and at other times as Rogers believes, we develop an ideal self, i.e. the kind of person we would like to be.
Once a connected self is formed, the individual strives to maintain it by regulating his behaviour. Whatever is consistent with the concept of his self is readily accepted and maintained at the conscious level while that which threatens that image may be totally ignored or buried deep in the unconscious.

**b) Maslow’s Theory of Personality:**

According to Maslow, human behaviour is motivated by a set of basic needs. Which needs are most active in driving behaviour depends on two principles: 1) a need, which is satisfied, is no longer active: the higher the satisfaction, the less the activity. (2) A needs can be ordered in a hierarchy, such that from all the non-satisfied needs, the one, which is lowest in the hierarchy, will be the most active. A lower need is more "urgent" in the sense that it must be satisfied before a higher need can take over control.

1. **The physiological needs:** These include the needs we have for oxygen, water, protein, salt, sugar, calcium, and other minerals and vitamins.

2. **The safety and security needs:** When the physiological needs are largely taken care of, this second layer of needs comes into play. You will become increasingly interested in finding safe circumstances, stability, and protection.

3. **Psychological Needs:** When physiological needs and safety needs are, by and large, taken care of, a third layer starts to show up. You begin to feel the need for friends or affectionate relationships in general, even a sense of community. Looked at negatively, you become increasingly susceptible to loneliness and social anxieties.

4. **The esteem needs:** Next, we begin to look for a little self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, fame, glory, recognition, attention, reputation, appreciation, dignity, even dominance. The higher form involves the need for self-respect, including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom. The negative version of these needs is low self-esteem and inferiority complexes.

Maslow sees all these needs as essentially survival needs. Even love and esteem are needed for the maintenance of health. He says we all have these needs built in to us genetically, like instincts. In fact, he calls them instinctual–instinct-like–needs.
5. **Self-actualisation:** The last level is a bit different. Maslow has used a variety of terms to refer to this level: He has called it growth motivation (in contrast to deficit motivation), being needs (or B-needs, in contrast to D-needs), and self-actualization. Now, in keeping with his theory up to this point, if you want to be truly self-actualizing, you need to have your lower needs taken care of, at least to a considerable extent. When lower needs are unmet, you can’t fully devote yourself to fulfilling your potentials.

There were several flaws or imperfections Maslow discovered along the very as well: First, they often suffered considerable anxiety and guilt but realistic anxiety and guilt, rather than misplaced or neurotic versions. Some of them were absentminded and overly kind. Finally, some of them had unexpected moments of ruthlessness, surgical coldness, and loss of humour.

![Figure 1.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy](image)

**Figure 1.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy**

- **Self-actualization needs:** to find self-fulfillment and realize one's potential
- **Esteem needs:** to achieve, be competent, gain approval, and excel
- **Belonging and love needs:** to affiliate with others, be accepted, and give and receive affection
- **Safety needs:** to feel secure and safe, to seek pleasure and avoid pain
- **Physiological needs:** hunger, thirst, and maintenance of homeostasis
1.6.6 Learning Approach –

a) Dollard and Miller’s Theory of Personality:

John Dollard and Neil Miller (1950) in the Institute of Human Relations at Yale University put forth their theory of personality. The theory tries to describe the development of personality, ‘simple drives to a complex function’ from a learning theory angle. It emphasizes that what we consider as personality is learned.

Dollard and Miller’s theory stressed the development of a personality on the basis of responses and behaviour learnt through the process of motivation and reward. This theory of personality did not really ascribe any static structure to personality and emphasized, instead, habit formation through learning as a key factor in the development of personality.

b) Social Learning Theory - Albert Bandura:

Albert Bandura (1997) as one of the most prominent social learning theorists has extend and modify traditional learning theory by developing principles of social gathering.

People learn through observing others’ behaviour, attitudes, and outcomes of those behaviours. “Most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action.” Social learning theory explains human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental influences.

Bandura’s Social Learning Theory posits that people learn from one another, via observation, imitation, and modelling. The theory has often been called a bridge between behaviourist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation.
1.6.7 “Big Five” Personality Dimensions:

“Big Five" Personality Dimensions:

Personality researchers have proposed that there are five basic dimensions of personality. Many contemporary personality psychologists believe that there are five basic dimensions of personality, often referred to as the "Big 5" personality traits. Previous trait theorist had suggested a various number of possible traits, including Gordon Allport's list of 4,000 personality traits, Raymond Cattell's 16 personality factors and Hans Eysenck's three-factor theory.

However, many researchers felt that Cattell's theory was too complex and Eysenck's was too limited in scope. As a result, the five-factor theory emerged to describe the basic traits that serve as the building blocks of personality.

What Are the Big Five Dimensions of Personality?

Today, many researchers believe that they are five core personality traits. Evidence of this theory has been growing over the past 50 years, beginning with the research of D. W. Fiske (1949) and later expanded upon by other researchers including Norman (1967), Smith (1967), Goldberg (1981), and McCrae & Costa (1987).

The "big five" are broad categories of personality traits. While there is a significant body of literature supporting this five-factor model of personality, researchers don't always agree on the exact labels for each dimension. However, these five categories are usually described as follows:

1. Extraversion: This trait includes characteristics such as excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness and high amounts of emotional expressiveness.
2. Agreeableness: This personality dimension includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection, and other pro social behaviours.
3. Conscientiousness: Common features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviours. Those high in conscientiousness tend to be organized and mindful of details.
4. Neuroticism: Individuals high in this trait tend to experience emotional instability, anxiety, moodiness, irritability, and sadness.
5. **Openness**: This trait features characteristics such as imagination and insight, and those high in this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests.

It is important to note that each of the five personality factors represents a range between two extremes. For example, extraversion represents a continuum between extreme extraversion and extreme introversion. In the real world, most people lie somewhere in between the two polar ends of each dimension.

**Big 5 Personality Research:**

McCrae and his colleagues have also found that the big five traits are also remarkably universal. One study that looked at people from more than 50 different cultures found that the five dimensions could be accurately used to describe personality.

Based on this research, many psychologists now believe that the five personality dimensions are not only universal; they also have biological origins. Psychology David Buss has proposed that an evolutionary explanation for these five core personality traits, suggesting that these personality traits represent the most important qualities that shape our social landscape.

**Final Thoughts:**

Always remember that behaviour involves an interaction between a person's underlying personality and situational variables. The situation that a person finds himself or herself in plays a major role in how the person reacts. However, in most cases, people offer responses that are consistent with their underlying personality traits.

These dimensions represent broad areas of personality. Research has demonstrated that these groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are sociable tend to be talkative. However, these traits do not always occur together. Personality is a complex and varied and each person may display behaviours across several of these dimensions.

The big five are traditionally thought of as being comprised of the five personality traits, openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. **Hint:**
an easy way to remember them is to remember the word OCEAN. You will notice that
the first letter of each word when listed in the order above creates the word ocean.

These five personality traits have been subjected to rigorous testing over the past
several decades. The research continues to support the notion that each of these five
personality traits can account for the infinite number of unique aspects that comprise
human personality.

The big five model indicates that we all possess each of these characteristics to
some degree. Some of us are higher and lower in certain areas than others, but
essentially, we all possess some degree of each. Even though the big five posits that we
share only five common personality traits, the possible combinations, or personality
types, are endless when you consider the varying degrees of each trait.

So, we have identified each of the big five personality traits, but what do they mean?
Let's take a look at each one individually.

The Big Five:

Openness refers to traits such as how inclined someone is to conform to societal
or cultural norms, how concretely or abstractly they think about things, and how open or
resistant someone is to change. A person who is a creative thinker and always looking
for ways to do things better would likely score high on measures of openness.

Conscientiousness: Has to do with a person's degree of organization, level of discipline,
and how prone he or she is to taking risks. The college student who never misses a class
and has a 4.0 GPA would probably prove to have a high degree of conscientiousness as
measured on a personality assessment.

Extraversion: Is a personality characteristic that describes things like how social a
person is, or how warm and loving they tend to be. Extraverts are people who would
typically prefer to go out to a party with lots of friends as opposed to stay in and watch a
movie with one or two friends.
**Agreeableness:** Takes into account how kind, dependable, and cooperative a person is. People who score high on scales of agreeableness are typically more interested in doing things for the common good as opposed to fulfilling their own self-interests.

**Neuroticism:** Is a personality characteristic that describes how nervous or anxious a person tends to be, as well as, the degree of self-confidence and self-contentment he or she possess. Individuals who score high on levels of neuroticism will often be preoccupied with the 'what ifs' of life. They tend be worrisome and preoccupied with things that might not be within their control.

### 1.7 Self-confidence:

Confidence is a word, which we frequently use, in everyday language yet rarely do we stop and think what it means.

Confidence is that feeling by which the mind embarks in great and honourable courses with a sure hope and trust in itself.  

(Marcus T. Cicero)

The self-help sections of bookshops are packed these days with volumes on confidence and so it is easy to believe that this is a new-fangled idea the product of our self-obsessed age. However, as the quote from the great Roman politician and philosopher shows, the idea of confidence, and its importance, has a long pedigree. As confidence is so central to what we achieve in life, inevitably it has been a key term used by people involved in outward or action-oriented activities such as sport, enterprise, business and public speaking. Indeed mental preparation to enhance an athlete’s confidence is at the heart of the growing discipline of sports psychology.

#### 1.7.1 What is self-confidence?

Confidence is a word, which we frequently use, in everyday language yet rarely do we stop and think what it means. Most dictionary definitions of confidence focus on two related ideas:

- Confidence is about being certain of your own abilities
- Confidence is about having trust in people, plans or the future.
Confidence is thus not simply a feeling that things will go well but also a judgment on our own or others abilities. Since confidence involves the belief that things will turn out well, confidence may sometimes be used interchangeably with optimism. As confidence is a multi-dimensional concept it is not a term much used by psychologists. Indeed the academics who are most likely to use the term are economists. Confidence is a key concept in economics, as confidence is needed for investment and the operation of markets.

Instead of confidence, psychologists are more likely to use terms which may still be difficult to define but which are more focused and so more amenable to measurement. The most commonly used terms by psychologists are self-esteem, self-efficacy and optimism.

**Self-esteem:**

Millions of words have been written about self-esteem and many critics believe it is a slippery concept. However, there is general agreement that there are two broad ways to define, and measure, self-esteem. One is to see it as the evaluation a person makes of their capabilities. The other is to see self-esteem as the essentially emotional feeling an individual has about their self-worth. We put self-esteem under the spotlight in the next sections. However, it is worth saying here that self-esteem has some importance in life but that the claims made for it have been exaggerated. More importantly, what practitioners have done in the name of self-esteem, particularly in the USA; appear to be undermining young people? Well-being and we must be careful not to repeat these mistakes.

Psychologists use other, related concepts to describe the emotional judgment a person makes about themselves such as self-acceptance, self-worth or self-respect and have huge and heated debates about the precise meaning of the terms. One vital difference in the underlying ideas, no matter what nomenclature psychologist’s use, is whether the positive feeling about the self is linked to abilities or simply to a sense that at heart you are a worthwhile person.

**Self-efficacy:**

Self-efficacy is the term that psychologists use to describe the belief a person has that they can reach their goals. Unlike self-esteem, which is more of a global judgment
on the self, and its worth, self-efficacy specifically isolates the way an individual assesses their competence in relation to achievements, goals and life events. Self-efficacy expert, Albert Bandura from Stanford University argues that 'ordinary realities are strewn with impediments, adversities, setbacks, frustrations and inequities.' He therefore claims that people need 'a robust sense of efficacy' to keep trying.'

Research on self-esteem suggests that parents (through genes and parenting style) have the biggest influence on a young person’s self-esteem. However, Bandura and others argue that schools have a huge part to play in developing young people’s feelings of self-efficacy.

**Optimism:**

In everyday life we usually use the word optimism to mean feeling positive about life. Often we refer to someone who is optimistic as seeing the glass as half-full, rather than half-empty'.

In psychology, there are two main ways to define optimism. Scheier and Carver, the authors of the popular optimism measure the Life Orientation Test - for example, define optimism as 'the global generalized tendency to believe that one will generally experience good versus bad outcomes in life.' In everyday language, this means 'looking on the bright side of life.' In such a definition, pessimism is the tendency to believe 'if something will go wrong for me, it will'. The other main way to define optimism is to use the concept of 'explanatory style'. This is the approach taken by Professor Martin Seligman author of Learned Optimism and co-author of The Optimistic Child. He argues that each of us has our own explanatory style, a way of thinking about the causes of things that happen in our lives. Optimists are those who see adversities as temporary and restricted to one domain of life while pessimists often see problems as permanent and pervasive.

**1.7.2 The six sources of self-confidence:**

The confidence an individual feels during a particular activity or situation is generally derived from one or more of the following six elements:

1. **Performance accomplishments:** Are the strongest contributor to sport confidence. When you perform any skill successfully, you will generate confidence and be willing to
attempt something slightly more difficult. Skill learning should be organized into a series of tasks that progress gradually and allow you to master each step before progressing on to the next. Personal success breeds confidence, while repeated personal failure diminishes it.

2. **Being involved with the success of others**: Can also significantly bolster your confidence, especially if you believe that the performer you are involved with (e.g. a team-mate) closely matches your own qualities or abilities. In effect, it evokes the reaction: "if they can do it, I can do it".

3. **Verbal persuasion**: Is a means of attempting to change the attitudes and behaviour of those around us, and this includes changing their self-confidence. In sport, coaches often try to boost confidence by convincing athletes that the challenge ahead is within their capabilities: "I know you are a great player so keep your head up and play hard". An athlete might reinforce this by repeating the message over and over to him or herself as a form of self-persuasion. A tip here is to avoid stating what you want in the negative; so, rather than "I really don't want to come off second best" try "I really want to win this one". Accordingly, your mind will not need to consider what is not required in order to arrive at what is.

4. **Imagery experiences**: Have to do with athletes recreating multi-sensory images of successful performance in their mind. Through creating such mental representations, mastery of a particular task or set of circumstances is far more likely. What you see is what you get.

5. **Physiological states**: Can reduce feelings of confidence through phenomena such as muscular tension, palpitations and butterflies in the stomach. The bodily sensations associated with competition need to be perceived as being facilitative to performance and this can be achieved through the application of appropriate stress management interventions such as the "five breath technique" and "thought-stopping".

6. **Emotional states**: Are the final source of self-confidence and relates to how you control the emotions associated with competition, such as excitement and anxiety. Very often, the importance of the occasion creates self-doubt, which is why it is essential to control your thoughts and emotions.
1.7.3 Self-confidence and Student Learning:

Self-confidence and student learning are linked. Students who have high self-esteem and are confident perform better academically and retain learning more easily. Family, teachers, friends and the environment all play active roles in influencing whether or not a student has positive self-esteem and or lacks confidence. It is vital that encouraging and nurturing people and activities to build their self-confidence from an early age surround a student.

1. Teachers Instilling Self-Confidence in Their Students:

A teacher's role in instilling self-confidence in their students is paramount, as students tend to believe what their teachers think of them. When a teacher holds each of her students in high regard and believes that all of them are capable of performing at a high academic standard, students begin to believe that themselves. Teachers who think all their students are competent create a self-fulfilling prophecy that all students are capable of achieving academic success.

Teachers need to create classroom environments that foster confidence-building skills such as allowing students to partake in a talent show, or a presentation on a special skill they have. If students are given opportunities to show their positive side, this builds self-confidence.

2. Parental Impact of Student Self-confidence:

Parents have an immense impact on student self-confidence: The home environment influences students' self-concept and understanding of the world. If parents and families have provided a warm and loving environment for their child by encouraging independence, fostering learning daily, and telling the child how special they are, chances are that a child will not lack self-confidence.

Parents/families can help their children build self-confidence by reading books about confident people with them and discussing traits that make them confident. Parents/families can also have discussion time. Discussion time should be set aside from other activities and should be focused on what is going on with the child at school and how do they feel about themselves. Parent/families can get a good understanding on
how their children feel about themselves from these discussions. If a child responds positively continue these discussions as their feelings can change. However, if the child responds negatively it is time to intervene and build their self-confidence by encouraging them to pick up a hobby such as a sport or fencing?

3. **Self-Confidence Affects Student Learning:**

   Student confidence can affect learning: Students who have a high level of self-confidence perform better academically. Students who believe they are competent learners thrive under challenging conditions and see it as a way to become better students. Having self-confidence allows students to share ideas with their peers more easily than those who lack confidence.

   Students who lack self-confidence might benefit from workshops in their school, library, Internet, or anyplace that offers a chance for them to improve their self-image, and as a result, boost their learning.

1.7.4 **Self-Confidence and Self-Worth; Needing the Approval of Others:**

   Self-confidence means you have a positive view of your own abilities and you are not limited by negative thinking which is unrealistic. In other words, you have a sense of what, you can achieve, and a belief in your ability to do so. Of course, this does not mean that your talents and abilities are unlimited, because we all have different strengths. Importantly, we also have different expectations of what we can do - and expectation is perhaps the greatest factor controlling what we achieve in life. The key factor here can be summed up as realism: if you are realistic about what you can achieve and your abilities, then you are more likely to be confident, since your experience tends to back up your beliefs about yourself.

   Self-confidence also implies that setbacks will not leave you feeling helpless. It's an inevitable part of life that we attempt things we cannot achieve or complete: in fact, it's part of the process of growth for normal human beings, a part of the process of acquiring the skills and abilities needed to achieve our objectives and then set ourselves slightly more difficult ones. That is what personal growth is all about.
Another aspect to self-confidence lays in the word "self". If you depend on others for approval, for reinforcement of your positive qualities, then your self-esteem is likely to be weaker than someone who has a fundamentally sound view of his or her own abilities. Self-acceptance is crucial in developing good self-confidence; and self-criticism is a quick route to a loss of self-confidence. Depending on others for reassurance of one's worth is risky because it can potentially be withdrawn at any time. This may mean that you tend to avoid taking risks that might lead to people being critical, seeing you as a failure, or disapproving of you. Indeed, the loss of approval can be devastating to someone whose self-confidence depends on what other people think.

It's clear that self-confidence is a quality that extends through a person's life, but if you think about this for a moment, it's also true that we all have areas where we don't necessarily feel so self-confident. Some people are good at sports and some are more academic. Some art naturally social, some are more withdrawn.

1.7.5 How do children become self-confident?

Mostly, it depends on the parents' attitudes to the child, especially in the earliest years. The key word here is acceptance. When parents are accepting of a child as it is, without trying to make it into the person whom they want it to be, the child learns that it is OK to be him or herself, and that his thoughts, feelings and behaviours are acceptable; this leads to the development of self-confidence. By contrast, criticism, disapproval, being overprotective, or discouraging the child's attempts to explore the world around him or her lead to feelings of inadequacy, inferiority and above all a lack of self-confidence.

It's also important to understand how the influence of others can affect a person's self-confidence. If someone learns to focus on what others think - family, parents, and friends - rather than on their own opinions, that person's confidence may become dependent on the expectations or influences of others. This is especially true of adolescents and college students, who need lots of positive reinforcement about their developing sense of self.
1.8 Interpersonal Behaviour:

Behavioural style reflects a pervasive and enduring set of interpersonal behaviours. Rather than focusing on the innermost workings of one’s personality or on one’s values or beliefs, behavioural style focuses on how one act – that is, on what one says and does. Does a person ask questions or issue commands? Decide issues quickly or analyse the facts in detail before making decisions? Confront difficult situations directly or avoid them? Allow policies to govern or adapt policies to fit changing conditions? People have been fascinated with one another’s behavioural differences over the ages. Beginning with the early astrologers, theorists have attempted to identify these behavioural styles. In ancient Greece, for example, the physician, Hippocrates, identified four temperaments – Sanguine, Phlegmatic, Melancholic, and Choleric; and in 1921, famed psychologist, Carl Jung, who was the first individual known to scientifically study personal styles, described them as Intuition, Thinker, Feeler, and Sensor. Since then, psychologists have produced many different models of behavioural differences, some with numerous possible personality blends. Sometimes the various styles have been given abstract behavioural science names, and others have been named after birds, animals or even colours.

However, a common model that has been used throughout the centuries has focused on the grouping of human interactive behaviour into four some what distinct categories. Blending the thoughts of several scholars, these behavioural styles may be referred to as: Analyser, Director, Socializes and Relater. No one of these behavioural styles is necessarily better or worse than any other, and one’s personal behavioural style has been in existence from early childhood – a function of both heredity and early environment. Research by the authors indicates that all four styles are generally found in the populations of industrialized countries, although not necessarily evenly. Each person has a dominant behavioural style that is reflected in how that individual works, interacts and communicates with others. This behavioural style is readily observed in other people, and is often difficult, or perhaps even impossible, to correctly identify in oneself.

Therefore, observation of an individual is the key to understanding a person’s behavioural style, and the best way to identify one’s own behavioural style is to receive feedback from other patterns of responding in a relationship can be persistent and difficult to break, even if one wants to, suggesting the resilience of the mental processes.
that mediate the transference phenomenon. We assume that the behavioural patterns one engages in with a significant other are stored in memory, and can thus be activated when the significant-other representation is activated in transference. A slight variation of our research paradigm, based on the fundamental social-psychological concept of “behavioural confirmation”, was used to assess the recurrence of behavioural patterns that are associated with a significant other with a new person in transference. In the context of a positive or a negative transference (or no transference), participants had an unstructured telephone conversation with another entirely naïve individual. Independent blind judges then rated the naïve new person’s contribution to the conversation, isolated from the participant’s own.

In the context of a positive transference, the new person (the participant in the role of “target”) appeared to engage in interpersonal (conversational) behaviour revealing more positive affect than in a negative transference, which did not occur in the yoked control condition. Transference thus produces behavioural confirmation effects: The participant’s own responses somehow provoked affectively congruence behaviour from the naïve new person. Presumably, this happens without awareness, again suggesting the subtle and powerful role transference can play in colouring everyday encounters and guiding them toward long-established patterns of interaction. This finding extends transference from intrapersonal processes to real interactions and actual behaviour, giving more credence to the idea that variability in interpersonal behaviour can be explained using significant-other representation and transference. Indeed, idiosyncrasies in a relationship should play out in behavioural aspects of transference as well, and this remains to be examined.

1.8.1 Identity Styles and Interpersonal Behaviours:

Previous research on the relation between identity and interpersonal behaviour primarily looked at only one specific type of interpersonal behaviour, such as pro-social behaviour or antisocial behaviour In this study, we examined associations between the identity styles and a broad set of interpersonal behaviours encompassing both adaptive (i.e., pro-social), and potentially disruptive (i.e., aggressive), interpersonal behaviours.
1.8.2 Pro-social Behaviour:

We expected the three identity styles to be differentially related to pro-social behaviour. Pro-social behaviour refers to voluntary and socially acceptable behaviours that result in benefits for others. We expected the information-oriented style to relate positively to pro-social behaviour. Previous research found that adolescents and emerging adults in the achievement status—who are known to typically rely on information-oriented identity processing—rely strongly on interpersonal connections, display high levels of moral reasoning (i.e., post conventional reasoning; Podd, 1972), and engage in more pro-social behaviours. We also expected a positive relation between the normative style and pro-social behaviour. Those who use a normative style focus on the normative expectations of significant others, thereby assigning high importance to socially accepted behaviour. Consistent with this reasoning, it has been shown that adolescents in the foreclosure status exhibit high frequencies of pro-social behaviour. In contrast, we expected the diffuse-avoidant style to relate negatively to pro-social behaviour. Diffuse-avoidant styles have been described as hedonistic and self-centred, and such a self-absorbed orientation may limit their inclination to engage in pro-social behaviour. Consistent with this reasoning, research found that individuals in the diffusion status tended to exhibit low frequencies of pro-social behaviour.

Traditionally, pro-social behaviour has been conceptualized as a global construct, that is, as the personal tendency to exhibit a number of pro-social behaviours across contexts and motives. Recent research, however, pays more attention to motives behind behaviours, for instance, the distinction between self-oriented and other-oriented helping. Self-oriented helping is defined as an egoistic type of helping behaviour enacted for the sake of others’ approval and appreciation. The helping behaviour is not a goal in itself, but a means to enhance one’s own self-esteem. Therefore, it is related strongly to no altruistic egoistic helping behaviours. Other-oriented helping is defined as a helping behaviour that is performed while paying attention to the other’s needs and inclinations and not with the expectation of receiving external rewards or avoiding externally produced aversive stimuli or punishments. Other-oriented helping can thus be seen as a task orientation rather than an ego orientation, and is more closely related to altruistic helping behaviours (Roth, 2008).
Research has indicated that the distinction between both helping behaviours is useful. For instance, self-oriented helping related positively to feelings of internal compulsion to perform pro-social behaviour. In contrast, other-oriented helping related positively to more mature and autonomous motives for performing pro-social behaviour. Because of the distinction between both helping behaviours, we expected the three identity styles to relate differentially to self-oriented and other-oriented helping. More specifically, we expected the information-oriented style to be related primarily to the other-oriented type of helping. Individuals using an information-oriented style tend to function generally in an autonomous manner, that is, they perceive their behaviour as being freely chosen, they explore their identity options in a more autonomous way, and have an open and unbiased outlook on life.

It was expected that the openness associated with an information-oriented style would translate into opportunities to pay attention to the needs of others without being concerned about the judgment of others. In contrast, we expected the normative style to be related primarily to the self-oriented type of helping. Individuals using the normative style tend to function generally in a controlled manner that is, they perceive their behaviour as being influenced by external forces and demands or internalized imperatives, explore identity options in a more controlled way, and have a closed-minded and defensive attitude towards others. The controlled type of functioning associated with a normative style is thought to increase the likelihood of self-worth concerns and ego involvement.

Therefore, we expect normative individuals only to help others to the extent that the helping behaviour serves their ego. We hypothesized a positive relation between the diffuse-avoidant style and self-oriented helping. Diffuse-avoidant individuals are thought to be oriented toward hedonistic cues, such as popularity and reputation as a means to compensate for the emptiness and lack of direction in their identity. Therefore, it seems plausible that these individuals will only help others if this contributes to their reputation and popularity, and if this helps to impress others. Consistent with this reasoning, it was found that emerging adults in the diffusion status only help others when they can benefit from public recognition.
1.8.3 Antisocial Behaviour:

We expected the identity styles to be differentially related to antisocial behaviours. Antisocial behaviour refers to behaviour that violates important norms or laws. A subtype of antisocial behaviour is aggressive behaviour, which refers to behaviour intended to harm and which is perceived as hurtful by the victim. In this study, we focused (1) on physical aggression, such as fighting (Ma et al., 1996), and (2) on relational aggression, which is a form of aggression that involves manipulation and attempts to damage other people’s relationships. Thus, we concentrated on two forms of antisocial behaviour, that is, an overt and manifest type of aggression and a relatively more covert and insidious form of aggression. We expected the information-oriented style to relate negatively to both physical and relational aggression.

The use of an information-oriented style is thought to result in a responsible and constructive social orientation, and research has indeed shown negative relations between this identity style and manifestations of aggression. We expected that a normative style may relate positively to relational aggression. It has been argued that normative individuals have a low tolerance for social information that is discrepant with their self-structures. To avoid such discrepant social information, normative individuals might attempt to control others in such a way that other people do and say those things that are consistent with normative individuals’ preferences and beliefs.

It is not likely, however, that normative individuals manipulate and control others overtly, that is, by using physical aggression because they are highly concerned with interpersonal rules and sanctions. The social norms and conventions endorsed by these individuals may thus reduce the risk of physical aggression. However, they may use a more subtle and insidious way of manipulating others, such as relational aggression. We expected the diffuse-avoidant style to relate positively to both physical and relational aggression. Individuals using a diffuse-avoidant style are at risk of developing an identity that is experienced as empty and void. This emptiness can result in self-destructive behaviours associated with harmful risk behaviours. In line with the frustration aggression hypothesis, it could thus be argued that aggressive behaviours represent a derivative mechanism to compensate for a sense of emptiness. Consistent with this line of reasoning, research found that individuals with a less mature level of identity might be prone to antisocial behaviour, such as aggression and delinquency also
established a positive association between the diffuse-avoidant style and antisocial behaviour. Given the hypothesized associations between identity styles and interpersonal behaviours, it was also deemed important to investigate underlying mechanisms that possibly link the three identity styles to their specific interpersonal outcomes. Deeper understanding is gained when such processes partially explaining these relations are captured. Although evaluating vicariate relations between variables can lend insight into whether a hypothesized relation holds, it cannot address.

Questions of why and how the relation holds. Investigating third variables permits the investigation of such questions. It might be useful to know whether the use of a particular identity style leads to, for example, more pro-social behaviour through its influence on other socio-cognitive or affective variables. Of course, several variables can be considered to play an intervening role in the relation between identity styles and interpersonal behaviours. In this study, we addressed empathy as an intervening process. Empathy relates closely to the degree of open-mindedness that differentiates mainly between the information-oriented style and the normative style. Empathy also relates closely to the degree of thorough processing of information, in this case with regard to other person’s perspective and emotions that differentiates mainly between the information-oriented style and the diffuse-avoidant style. In the following section, we discuss further that it is both theoretically and empirically plausible that empathy may play an intervening role in the associations between identity styles and interpersonal behaviours.

1.8.4 The Intervening Role of Empathy:

Empathy refers to both cognitive and affective reactions of an individual to the observed experience and emotional state of others. In line with previous research, this study combines two dimensions of empathy, that is, perspective taking and empathic concern. Perspective taking is a cognitive dimension of empathy and refers to the tendency to adopt spontaneously the psychological point of view of others. Empathic concern is an affective dimension of empathy that refers to other-oriented feelings of concern for someone in need. Similar to identity formation and interpersonal behaviours, these two dimensions of empathy become more important and develop toward higher levels of maturity during adolescence and emerging adulthood.
It has been argued that identity development is related to empathy development. Higher levels of identity development are thought to relate to highly developed empathic skills, such as non-egocentric thinking and internalized moral controls.

We expected the normative style to relate negatively to empathy. Previous research found that individuals in the foreclosure status were less likely to integrate information from multiple perspectives and more likely to view others in a stereotyped and biased fashion. Individuals using the normative style are rigid and closed in their functioning, and, above all, strive to avoid situations and information that may threaten their beliefs. Given that normative individuals want to protect themselves from having to deal with dissonance-inducing emotional experiences, they are unlikely to display genuine types of empathy. To the extent that they do experience other people’s emotional problems and distress, they are likely to feel nervous, tense, and distressed because this represents a threat to their self-view. In line with previous research, we also expected the diffuse avoidant style to relate negatively to empathy. Individuals using a diffuse-avoidant identity style operate in a predominantly emotion-focused way with limited concern about rational considerations and long-term logical implications. They perceive their actions as being influenced by factors over which they have limited intentional control, and, as a consequence, often feel overwhelmed and unable to regulate experiences effectively.

Numerous studies have also documented the important implications of empathy for interpersonal behaviour and social development. Based on the literature on empathy and social functioning, we expected empathy to relate positively to pro-social behaviour and to other-oriented helping and negatively to self-oriented helping, physical aggression, and relational aggression. Both empathic concern and perspective taking appear to be important pro-social behaviour motivators.

Driven by empathic concern and perspective taking, individuals would attempt to alleviate negative emotions in others in an altruistic and other oriented fashion. Empathy has also been shown to decrease the probability of different types of antisocial behaviour, such as physical, verbal, and relational aggression. In sum, the general aim of this study was to evaluate the possible intervening role of empathy in associations between identity styles and interpersonal behaviour. Specifically, the following three models were compared: (1) a direct effects model (model A) including the identity styles
as predictors of the interpersonal behaviours; (2) a full mediation model (model B) in which the identity styles and the interpersonal behaviours are indirectly related through empathy; and (3) a partial mediation model (model C) including both direct and indirect paths. Because it will always be difficult to find variables that fully predict outcomes (Preacher & Hayes, 2004), we expect empathy to partially mediate the relation between identity styles and interpersonal behaviour.