CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

“Environment is the sum total of all conditions and influences that affect the development and life of organisms” – Ambaust.

“The space we live in, the air we breathe, the food we eat, the water we drink and other resources we need, all these we draw from our environment” – Dikshit (1984).

“Environment is representative of physical components of earth, where man is an important factor influencing his environment” – Gouche (1984).

The term ‘environment’ in the present context does not merely mean the ‘surroundings’. It includes all living and non-living objects, happenings and forces, both natural and man-made which influence life of an organism, relationship of organism to the environment. Environment is a continuum extending from the medium in which one lives to the distant objects like the sun or moon, and possibly even beyond. All aspects of this continuum influence an organism and vice-versa.

According to Wood Worth “Environment covers all the outside factors that have acted on the individual since he began life. Environment is every thing that influences the individual except the genes”.

According to Doughlos and Holland "environment is a word which describes in the aggregate, all external forces, influences and conditions which affect the life, nature, behaviour and the growth, development and maturation of living organism".

Park (1980) defined environment as "the sum total of conditions which surround man at a given point in space and time. Environment is also defined as the physical surrounding of man, of which he is a part and on which he is dependent for his activities like physiological functioning, production and consumption. His physical environment stretches from air, water and land to natural resources like energy carriers, soil and plants, animals and ecosystem. Whatever is present around the living beings and above the land, on the surface of the earth and under the earth is environment, in its broader sense".

From these definitions, it is clear that environment consists of inseparable whole system constituted by physical, chemical, biological and social elements which are inter-related in many respects.

Since the term environment includes all the aspects of human life, it is very much important to understand the term in a correct sense and thus behave in a proper way to lead a better life by conserving the environment.

1.2 Environmental Awareness in Ancient India

India was a cradle of civilization in the ancient world. An interesting feature of all ancient civilization was that its inhabitants
realised the tremendous value of water in human life. Each of these civilizations were located on the banks of a river (s) or within a convenient distance from the sea. This was to ensure a perennial supply of water for day-to-day activities.

It is indeed astonishing to realize that at the dawn of civilisation, the humans understood the significance and importance of water. Apart from cooking, personal cleanliness and hygiene, water was vital for cultivation and irrigation of crops. In early ages, water was a major mode of transport; with further progress and development water again became an invaluable source of food as well as trade and commerce.

According to ancient Hindu beliefs, the universe, the cosmic world comprises five basic elements — kshiti (earth), apah (water), teja (light/heat), marut (air) and vyoma (ether/space).

According to the *RigVeda*, all life on this planet has evolved from apah (water). Water is usually acknowledged as the basic need of all living creatures upon the face of this earth. There are copious references in Vedic literature about medicinal properties of water, uses of water, last but not the least the importance of conservation and preservation of water. Pure water is termed as ‘divyajal’ due to its following properties: Sheetam (cold to touch), Suchihi (clean), Shivam (replete with useful minerals and trace of useful elements), Istham (transparent), Vimalam Lahu Shadgunam (its acid-base balance should not exceed normal limits).
**Water Conservation**

The Indus Valley Civilization, that flourished along banks of the river Indus and other parts of western and northern India about 5,000 years ago, had one of the most sophisticated urban water supply and sewage systems in the world. The fact that this civilization was well acquainted with hygiene and sanitation is evident from the covered drains running beneath the streets of the ruins at both Mohenjodaro and Harappa. Yet another excellent example is the well-planned city of Dholavira, in Gujarat.

Though nature has blessed the Indian landmass with a large number of perennial rivers, unlimited rainfall in some areas, yet the pragmatism and prudence of the ancient seers, scholars and learned individuals led them to ponder over the issue of water conservation.

One of the oldest water harvesting systems is found about 130 km from Pune, along a place known as Naneghat, situated in the Western Ghats. A large number of tanks were cut in the rocks to provide drinking water to tradesmen who used to travel along this ancient trade route. Each fort in the area had its own water harvesting and storage system in the form of rock-cut cisterns, ponds, tanks and wells that can be seen in use even today.

In ancient times, houses in the western parts of Rajasthan were constructed in such a way that each had a rooftop water harvesting
system. Though scanty, rainwater from these rooftops was directed into underground tanks. This system can be seen in use even today in all the forts, palaces and dwelling houses of the region.

Earthen pipes and tunnels, (placed underground) to maintain the flow of water besides transporting it to distant places, are still functional at places like Burhanpur (Madhya Pradesh), Golconda (Andhra Pradesh), Bijapur in Karnataka, and Aurangabad in Maharashtra.

**Water Purification**

Purification of ground water in the dug wells is dealt with at length in *Brihat-Samhita* written and compiled by Varahamihira. He suggested an infusion be made from a mixture of powdered herbs namely *Anjan*, *Bhadramustha*, *Khas* (vetiver), *Amla* (*emblica officinalis*, gooseberry) and *Nirmali* (*bhui amla / kataka*) in water, which in measured quantities was to be added to water in the wells for purification. Detailed practical guidance for water purification is given in the famous treatise of Indian physician, Sushruta. Sushruta disclosed that muddy water could be purified with herbs and naturally occurring substances; *Nirmali* seeds, roots of *Kamal* (lotus/water lily), rhizomes of algae and stones, *Gomed* (garnet) *Moti* (pearl) *Sphatik* (quartz crystal) were used. He recommended the disinfection of contaminated water by exposing it to the sun or immersing red hot iron or hot sand in it.
The ancient Indian custom of storing drinking water in brass vessels for good health has now been proved scientifically by researchers. Microbiologists affirm that water stored in brass containers can help combat many water-borne diseases and should be used in developing countries rather than their cheaper counterparts i.e. plastic containers.

The scientific principle involved in this is the fact that any metal or alloy tends to disrupt biological systems. The element acts by interfering with the membranes and enzymes of cells; for bacteria, this can mean death. Pots made of brass, (an alloy of copper and zinc), shed copper particles into the water that they contain. But the miniscule amount that circulates into the water, while destroying the bacteria cannot harm human beings.

1.3 Environmental Problem

Some of the notable problem of environment can be identified as

*Types of Environmental Pollution*

Pollution of the environment can be of the following types – (a) air pollution, (b) water pollution, (c) soil pollution, (d) noise pollution and (e) radio active pollution.

*(a) Air Pollution*

“Air pollution is defined as the release of poisonous gases or foreign materials into the atmosphere, which are harmful to man, plants, animals and buildings”.

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Source of Air Pollution

The major source of air pollution are the automobile exhaust, power plants, industries and natural pollutants like the pollen, fungal spores, gases from volcanic eruptions, etc.

Effects of Air Pollution

The consequences of air pollution leads to deadly diseases, the green house effect, photochemical smog, acid rain and ozone layer depletion.

Water Pollution

"Water pollution is defined as the addition of substances like sewage, radioactive substances and garbage into water which tend to degrade its quality or reduce its utility and constitutes to various health hazards".

Source of Water Pollution

The major sources of water pollution are the sewage, industrial effluents, agricultural discharges and other wastes.

Effects of Water Pollution

The consequence of water pollution leads to deadly diseases like cancer, lung and kidney diseases, loss of memory, eye diseases, cholera, etc.

Soil Pollution

"The soil pollution is defined as the addition of insecticides, fungicides, herbicides, various other chemicals and garbage on soil that further make the soil unfit for plant growth, animal and human use".
**Sources of Soil Pollution**

The major sources of soil pollution are the metal wastes, plastic, persistent organic compounds, biocides, pesticides, artificial fertilizers, garbage and other wastes dumped into the soil. Soil erosion is also a cause for soil pollution.

**Effects of Soil Pollution**

The soil pollutants show their impact on the food chain. The pesticide and other chemical pollutant are associated with vegetation. When herbivores feed on them, pesticides get into their systems, in turn when these herbivores are fed by carnivores; it enters these animals and cause health hazards related to reproductive capacity or even embryonic mortality. When man feeds on the above said herbivores, it may lead to the softening of brain, cerebral hemorrhage, hypertension, cancer, malformation of sex hormones, etc.

**Noise Pollution**

"Noise pollution is defined as an unwanted and undesirable high intensity sound released into the atmosphere causing discomfort and leading to health hazard".

**Sources of Noise Pollution**

The major sources of noise pollution are the high frequency sirens in factories, movement of automobiles, trains, aircraft, burning crackers, working of heavy machinery and loud speakers used in festivals, political and religious gatherings. Gadgets used at home like the television, music
systems, air conditioners, grinder, etc., will also contribute to noise pollution.

**Effects of Noise Pollution**

The consequences of noise pollution leads to partial or permanent deafness, annoyance, loss in working efficiency, psychological and physiological disorders, high blood pressure, cardiac disturbances, peptic ulcer, etc.

**Radio Active Pollution**

"Radio active pollution is defined as the contamination of air, water and land due to fallout from nuclear explosions and emissions from industrial use of nuclear energy, which causes many harmful effects on individuals, population, communities and ecosystem".

**Sources of Radio-Active Pollution**

The major sources of radio active pollution are due to the blast of atom bomb, exhausts of atomic power stations, nuclear explosions and emissions from industrial use of nuclear energy, etc.

**Effects of Radio Active Pollution**

Radio active substances enter the human body directly through penetration and also through the food chain causing various diseases and disorders like skin cancer, sterility, defective eyesight, damage to WBCs, bone marrow, etc.

**Land Air And Water**: pollution of land and water has affected plants, animals and human beings. The quality of soil is deteriorating resulting in the loss of agricultural land.
The loss is estimated to be about five to seven million hectares of land each year. Soil erosion, as a result of wind and/or water, costs the world dearly. The recurring floods have their own peculiar casualties like deforestation, silt in the river bed, inadequate and improper drainage, loss of human life and property. The vast oceans, after being turned into dumping grounds for all nuclear wastes, have poisoned and polluted the whole natural environment.

**Population Growth**: population growth means more people to eat and breathe, and putting an excessive pressure on land and forest, and ultimately disturbing the ecological balance.

Our growing population is putting pressure on land, leading to poor quality of productivity, deforestation (the loss of forest land so necessary for ecological balance and extinction of wild life leading to imbalance in the ecological order, loss of wild life heritage and ultimately dwindling of several species. The growing population is not only a problem for the natural environment; it is a problem for any other aspect of environment, like social, economic, political etc.

**Urbanization**: Urbanization is no less a source of pollution, and therefore, a threat to the environment. Urbanization means maddening race of people from villages to the cities.

The net result of urbanization is dirt, disease and disasters. In a state of growing urbanization, environmental problem like sanitation, ill-heath, housing, water-supply and electricity keep expanding. On the other
hand the environmental degradation is caused in the rural life due to indiscriminate collection of firewood, overgrazing and depletion of other natural resources.

**Industrialization**: Industrialization coupled with the development of the means of transport and communication has not only polluted the environment, but also has led to the shrinking of the natural resources. Both ways, the loss is really heavy. Increasing level of heat fluxes, carbon dioxide and particulate, radioactive nuclear wastes and the like create environment hazards. On the other hand, the consumption of conventional source of energy leads to the loss of natural resources. Leading to a world without caring for future generations.

**Deforestation**

"Destruction of large areas of forests due to industrialization, urbanization, mining and agricultural activities contributes to deforestation".

Forests play a vital role in sustaining human and animal life and the nation’s economy. Forests provide oxygen and rain without which life is not possible on earth. They maintain a healthy gaseous balance in the atmosphere and are great moderators of climate. Trees provide drugs, spices, fruits, fibers, gums, resins, latex, etc.

Human activities have tremendous impact on modern forests. Since agriculture began about 11,000 years ago, large areas of forests have been cleared for farming and other human requirements. During the 1800’s
and 1900's larger areas of forests have been eliminated because of agricultural activities. Scientists estimate that as many as 20 million hectares of tropical rainforests are destroyed each year. In the late 1940's tropical rainforests covered about 16 million square kilometers of the earth's land. In the late 1980's they covered only about 10 million square kilometers. The destruction of forests leads to the habitat loss of many living creatures. Countless species of animals and plants have been wiped out due to deforestation.

**Desertification**

"Desertification is a process by which fertile areas become barren land due to the climatic changes or due to the mismanagement of land by human beings".

Desertification leads to many bad effects like the removal of vegetal cover, brings about changes in climatic conditions and it leads to soil erosion. In extreme cases it leads to the destruction of lands ability to support life. Scientists estimate that people destroy millions of acres of land yearly. Overgrazing by live stocks, mining activities, improper farming methods, and destruction of forests and vegetations. **Impact of Human Activities on Environment**

Human beings are the major cause for the degradation of environment. It is through pollution, deforestation, desertification, industrialization, urbanization and population explosion, they have exploited the environment.
**Population Explosion**

Over population is the major cause for all sorts of problems existing on the earth. As human population increases, their consumption level also increases. It is rather difficult to attain and maintain environmental balance. Population explosion increases large human demands which leads to the damaging of natural resources like land, water, and air upon which all life depends. The steadily mounting pressure of human needs on non-renewable and biological resources, results in the lessening of millions of hectares of forest, tons of top soil salinity. Over grazing of grass and plants on lands and Ground water is used faster than it can be replaced.

1.4 **Awareness about Environmental Protection**

In the past two decades, environmental degradation / deterioration has attracted the attention of decision makers, scientists and even laymen in many parts of the world. They are becoming increasingly conscious of issues such as famines, droughts, floods, scarcity of fuel, firewood and fodder, pollution of air and water, problems of hazardous chemicals and radiation, depletion of natural resources, extinction of wildlife and dangers to flora and fauna. People are now aware of the need to protect the natural resources like air, water, soil and plant life that constitute the natural capital on which man depends.

Environmental issues are perennial because of the absence of their solutions to them. Unless environmental issues are solved or not taken
care of, the coming generations may find earth not worth living. The need of the planet and the needs of the person have become one.

There is no denying the fact that environment has to be protected and conserved to make future life possible. Man's needs are increasing and accordingly the environment is also being altered, indeed, nature's capacity is too accommodating and regenerative yet there is a limit to nature's capacity, especially when pressure of exploding population and technology keep mounting. What is required is the sustenance, conservation and improvement of the changing and fragile environment.

The World Commission on Environment and Development (the Brundtland Commission) submitted its report entitled 'Our common future' in the year 1987. This report highlighted and popularised the concept of 'sustainable development'. Sustainable development has been defined on meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the need of future generations. All developmental activities involves some amount of environmental degradation. What is required is to take into account the damage to environment as a result of development, and strike a balance between development and environmental protection. The aim should be to achieve sustainable levels of people's welfare and development. The primary concern is how many people can ultimately be supported by environment and at what level of quality of life.
The mainstream greens scholars like Carr, Brown, Dala, Schumacher, lay stress on "sustainability" of environment together with development.

The emphasis of the mainstream green' are not on pollution, but on (1) energy and its resources may be renewed, and be kept renewing, (2) the waste be changed into raw-material, raw-material into waste, waste into raw- material: recycling of waste into raw-material; (3) gross national product and its growth targets need not be sought, but what should be sought is the satisfaction of real human needs'. The greens say that growth means cancer, a cancer that threatens to spread worldwide, and destroy all life. They accept industry if it is on small scale and is for purpose of self-sufficiency. They advocate extensive decentralization.

The concept of sustainable development is more about environment and less about development; more about stability and less about change; more about restricting one's wants and less about the continuing material development more about the non-exploitative attitude towards environment and less about harnessing it; more about small communities and less about the larger ones. It is not a concept of development with environment, but is environment without growth.

Indeed, ecological degradation should stop. But why should the pace of development stop?

A disciplined uses of environmental benefits go a long way for all round development.
Scholars and activists assert that environmental degradation can be controlled and reversed only by ensuring that the parties causing the damage should be made accountable for their action and that they should participate in improving environmental conditions. What is needed is a set of norms, which bring the demands of development and the compulsion of environment closer to each other.

1.5 Role of Teacher in Improving the Environment

Role of teacher in improving the environment is outlined as under:

- **Awareness**: The teacher should feel that there is an urgent need to educate about environment. The teacher can convince the society about the urgency of environmental education anywhere teacher himself is adequately aware of it.

- **Efforts for Improvement**: The teacher may make every possible effort to improve the environment while being asked to play an active role in it.

- **Art Campaigns**: The teacher may arrange art campaign on environmental education. Art campaigns would bring environmental awareness. Local shopkeepers may be requested to post these on their windows, thus providing relevance for the children between school and community. The local science fair is also used provided a proper orientation such as “ideas to land pollution” is given.

- **Visits**: (i) Picnics – Students may attend picnic at places, which are surrounded by thick forests to have first hand experience of the neat and clean environment with cool and fresh air as compared to other place. (ii) Slums: – Students may also be advised to go to the slums so as to witness the environmental conditions prevailing there and effect on the life
of the people living there. (iii) Flora and Fauna– Students may also be taken to various places for study of flora and fauna. They may also try to understand ecological problems and realize its impact on human life. (iv) Places of Heavy Rush – Students should also be asked to observe the heavy rush of traffic on the roads causing fuel smoke polluting the environment to find solutions.

- **Curriculum** : The environment education as a topic may be included in the curriculum and the teacher may be made to accept it. Using every opportunity to teach this. Environmental education may also be incorporated in various subjects like history, geography, civics, economics, languages, literature and music etc.,

- **Articles** : The teacher may ask students to write articles on “pollution” and its control and other aspects of environmental education. They may also take part in essay competitions.

- **Skits and Dramas** : The teacher may arrange skits and dramas on various aspects of environmental education.

- **Films and Videocassettes** : Short films and videocassettes on environment should be shown to the students and the general public. Also some video cassettes displaying the ruthless felling of trees, conversion of land, agricultural into basins. Rivers being polluted by waste water, pollution of air, water and noise and their prevention may be shown to the students and the general public.

- **Other Co-curricular Activities** : The teacher may organize various other co-curricular activities like seminars, essay writing competitions, poetical recitation contests, exhibitions, NSS, Gardening, Floriculture and community cooking etc., to
understand and experience pollution free environment. Students of a particular may adopt a village or two or more schools and the activities of NSS may be organized. He should also organize eco-clubs, which could help people in case of flood, earthquake and epidemics.

- **Related Literature**: The teacher may prepare related literature for school library so as to increase the knowledge of students. Teacher may also ask students to prepare album and seek the co-operation of other institutions such as community, family, club and state etc., to awaken in the minds of the students a sense of healthy environment by involving direct and indirect methods.

- **Environmental Pollutants**: The teacher may teach students about environmental pollutants and the techniques of preventing pollution. This process may be practical so that the students may use them in practical life.

- **Contact with Institutions**: The teacher may obtain information regarding pollution and could improve environment by establishing contact through correspondence with institution like society for clean environment Mumbai; Central Public Health Engineering Institute, Mumbai, Central Labour Institute, Nagapur, The Ministry of Environment and Forests, Delhi. The ministry of Environment and forests has been conducting a National Environment Awareness Campaign (NEA) every year since the year 1986 for creating environment awareness at the National Level. The Ministry having two themes has also conducted NEA campaign (1994-95) : (i) Joint Forest Management and (ii) Eco-development.
1.6 Some Measures taken by Indian Government to Check Environmental Pollution

1) **Environmental Courts**: Special courts are being set up to ensure speedy justice for the poor against factories that pollute the Environment.

2) **Environment Friendly Products**: The government is setting stringent standards for all products in the market. Those, which meet these standards of production and performance will be given the label of excellence like the ISI mark.

3) **Unleading Of Petrol**: Refineries are being persuaded to make their petrol lead free. Indian petrol has the highest lead content, which creates major pollution through automobiles.

4) **Ban On Harmful Pesticides**: Eight chemical pesticides, of which DDT, BHC, Aldrin and Malathion, the main culprits have been isolated. There are now plans to replace them with safe biopesticides.

5) **National Waste Management Council**: The main task is to convert 40 million tonnes of flyash, that lie as a mountain near thermal power plants into bricks, city garbage into energy and sewage into fertilizer.

6) **Public Liability Insurance**: This makes it mandatory for all companies to take out a public liability insurance to be paid in 48 hours.
7) **Pollution By Motor Vehicles**: Anti-pollution measures against motor vehicles are being strictly enforced. Vehicles not adhering to the standards prescribed are fined heavily and may even be asked to be off the road.

8) **Hotel Near Sea Shore**: Action has been taken against a large number of hotels which encroach beaches in flagrant violation of laws.

9) **National River Action Plan**: The proposal is to set up a National river authority which will plan policy for water use and waste management at the national level.

10) **Solar Energy Commission**: Since the energy sector is responsible for a major portion of pollution the idea is to create decentralized energy at the village level, instead of multiplying the mainstream producer.

11) **No Smoking In Public Places**: A ban is proposed on smoking in public places. The Delhi government has taken a lead in this direction.

1.7 **National and International Efforts**

In India, the environmental awareness gained importance since 1970s after the UN sponsored a conference on environment in Stockholm (1972). Indian government took many environment friendly activities. Ministry of environment and forest was established and laws were enacted on environment protection in the year 1986.

The objective of India's National Environment Policy, here, are worth stating.
1) Conserve and develop safe, healthy, productive, and aesthetically satisfying environment;

2) Upgrade, develop and manage rural and urban settlement to enhance the quality of life;

3) Plan development on sound ecological principles with environmental impact. Assessing and incorporating appropriate environmental safeguards;

4) Promote environmental safety-technologies, recycling of resources and utilization of wastes;

5) Conserve the biotic diversity in the country by creating nature reserves and sanctuaries for specific habitats such as mountains, rain forests, pastures, deserts, wet lands, lakes, beaches, mangroves, estuaries, lagoons and island;

6) Safeguard the environment within the national maritime Exclusive Economic Zone;

7) Evolve environmental norms and establish effective mechanism for monitoring surveillance and collection and dissemination of information;

8) Preserve science landscapes, as well as historic and cultural monuments and their environs;

9) Promote environmental education at all level and create public awareness;

10) Encourage research in environmental science and technological and social investigation to conserve and improve the environment and

11) Develop adequate manpower within the country, of ecologists, environmental scientists, planners and managers of the highest
quality and recognize their work as an important component of national development.

1.8 National and International Commitment to The Protection of Environment

The growing awareness about environmental protection has resulted in new measures across the world. The late Prime minister Mrs. Indira Gandhi was the only Head of Government, attending the 1972 Stockholm conference, which was called by the “U.N. Conference on Human environment”. The Rio Conference 20 years later was called by the “U.N. Conference on Environment and Development”. It was Mrs. Gandhi who first pointed out that poverty was the greatest polluter and unless it was eliminated through national and international efforts it was futile to talk about protecting the planet from environmental disaster. UNDP, the World Bank and other institutions of the U.N. system are now advocating the elimination of poverty as the central task in sustainable development. Indeed environmental and development polices are seen as complementing each other. The conflict between the requirement of long-term environmental interests and the immediate compulsions of development is certainly be resolved. But any world order cannot be sustainable if three-fourths of its population continues to live in poverty. Environmental rights and developmental rights together constitute the democratic and human rights of all the people of the world.
The Montreal convention and the conventions on climate change; bio-diversity and forest adopted at Rio are important landmarks in the world movement for sustainable development and environmental protection. India has accepted these conventions and is taking systematic measures to implement them. An environmental action programme funded by U.N.D.P. is under implementation. There are 31 schemes for industrial pollution control approved by the World Bank, involving US. $ 105 million.

On the anvil are common effluent plants for small industries located in a cluster, the big plants being looked after individually. Seventeen grossly polluting industries have been identified for environment control within a time schedule. For certain categories of industries, prior environment clearance is compulsory before they can be set up. In regard to transport pollution apart from conversation measures, pollution free engines are being designed, some of which have already been introduced two-wheelers, three-wheelers and some popular cars. A National Forestry Plan has been in progress.

Environmental Brigades, Afforestation Brigades and Ecological task Force have been organized by Non-governmental organizations (NGOs.) India's wild life conservation projects have met with remarkable success. India has a protected network of 75 national parks and 421 wild life sanctuaries. The Tiger project has been a great success.
India also has elaborate laws relating to the prevention of pollution of water, soil and air and a system of environmental audit of most industrial projects. While this is voluntary for most countries, India has a mandatory rule in this regard. India is also engaged in serious and systematic efforts to develop alternative and renewable sources of energy like solar, wind and wave energy which are environment friendly.

Emphasis is laid on solar energy on which some significant technological progress has been made. India is taking all these measures partially with international assistance.

1.9 Personality

The study of personality seeks to discover the reason for a wide range of human behaviours, to account for their occurrence, and to assess their roles in the total person (Gordon, 1963). When the demographic and situational factors are capable of influencing the individual’s satisfaction in either way, one's personality will certainly play a vital role in determining the dissatisfaction. As rightly pointed out by Vroom (1964) any study of self-concept should include both sets of variables namely work role and personality variables.

There are many definitions of personality as it covers a varied and complex domain. In order to know the nature of personality some important definitions are discussed hereunder:

In general some define personality as “one’s social stimulus value”. Others define it as, “the sum total of innate dispositions, impulses,
appetites, instincts, tendencies and habits”. Another type of definition says that “personality is more than the sum of its parts and that more than is its pattern or organization”. Some people define personality as “an individual's characteristic pattern of adjustment’.

According to Cattel (1950), “Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation”.

Guilford (1954) says that an individual's personality is “an integrated pattern of traits”. He defined personality, as “an individual's personality is unique pattern of traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another”.

Koul’s (1974), definition on personality is that “it is an organization and integration of a large number of habits”.

Crown (1979), defined – personality as the organized system of potentialities for behaviour.

Madhu Raj (1996) and John Belling Ham (2004) defined personality as a psychological term that refers to the predictable and unique indicators of the way an individual might respond to the environment. A personal reference that usually connotes acceptability and likeability.

Each of the primary factors measured by the 16 PF has an alphabetic designation (A to Q4) and a brief title, which the practitioner will most commonly use.
The study was confined only to the personality factors like Factor-A (Reserved vs. Outgoing), Factor-B (Concrete-thinking vs. Abstract-thinking), Factor-C (Affected by Feelings vs. Emotionally Stable), Factor-E (Submissive vs. Dominant), Factor-F (Sober vs. Enthusiastic), Factor-G (Expedient vs. Conscientious), Factor-H (Shy vs. Bold), Factor-I (Tough-minded vs. Tender-minded), Factor-L (Trusting vs. Suspicious), Factor-M (Practical vs. Imaginative), Factor-N (Forthright vs. Shrewd), Factor-O (Self-assured vs. Apprehensive), Factor-Q₁ (Conservative vs. Experimenting), Factor-Q₂ (Group-oriented vs. Self-sufficient), Factor-Q₃ (Undisciplined Self-conflict vs. Following Self-image) and Factor-Q₄ (Relaxed vs. Tense).

1.10 Relationship between personality and job satisfaction

Researchers have found correlations across assessments of job satisfaction as people change jobs and organizations (Gerhart, 1987; Gupta 1992). Schneider and Dachler (1978) noted that job satisfaction seemed very stable over time, and they speculated that it might be the product of personality traits. Staw and Ross (1985) further explored the satisfaction stability idea by studying the job satisfaction of people who change types of jobs or employers and found that the job satisfaction of these individuals was correlated across jobs and organizations. They concluded that job satisfaction was caused in part by underlying personality.
Some people are predisposed to like their jobs, whereas others are predisposed not to like them. Newton and Keenan (1991) found evidence that personality, as well as the job environment is important. They found similar consistency in job satisfaction over time and that engineers who changed jobs increased their satisfaction.

**Dormann and Zaph (2001),** conducted a meta analysis showing that job satisfaction was far more stable over time, when people remained on the same job than when they changed jobs, thus, although personality may have contributed to satisfaction, job conditions were also important. Staw et al (1986), studied people's job satisfaction over a span of decades and found that personality assessed in adolescents predicted job satisfaction up to 50 years later.

**Furnham et al (2002),** in two studies investigated the relationships between personality traits and aspects of job satisfaction. They found that in both the studies personality accounted for a small percentage of the total variance both in importance ratings and in levels of job satisfaction. They concluded that personality does not have a strong or consistent influence either on what individuals perceive as important in their work environment or on their levels of job satisfaction. Lounsbury et al (2009) found that business majors scored higher for conscientiousness, emotional stability, extraversion, assertiveness, and toughmindedness, but they scored lower on agreeableness and openness. All of the traits
except for agreeableness and toughmindedness correlated significantly and positively with life satisfaction.

Lounsbury et al (2003), research revealed three personality traits consistently related to career satisfaction: emotional resilience, optimism, and work drive in initial and holdout samples as well as occupational groups. Personality traits correlated with career satisfaction included the Big Five traits of conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness and other, narrower traits, such as assertiveness, customer service orientation, and human managerial relations orientation. A study by Acuna, et al (2009), analysed the relationships between personality, team processes, task characteristics, product quality and satisfaction in software development teams. They found that the teams with the highest job satisfaction were precisely the ones whose members scored highest for the personality factors agreeableness and conscientiousness. Lounsbury et al (2007), examined personality traits in relation to job satisfaction and career satisfaction for 1059 information technology (IT) professionals. As hypothesized, eight traits were significantly related to both job and career satisfaction: Assertiveness, Emotional Resilience, Extraversion, Openness, Teamwork Disposition, Customer Service Orientation, Optimism, and Work Drive. Career satisfaction correlations were of generally higher magnitude than corresponding job satisfaction correlations. Judge et al (2000) conducted a longterm study on childhood and again in adulthood and found people who scored high in esteem and efficacy, and low in
neuroticism, and showed an internal locus of control, showed significantly higher job satisfaction in their middle adult years than did people who scored in the opposite direction. Thus, personality factors measured in childhood showed a direct relationship to job satisfaction measured some 30 years later. Results revealed that core self-evaluations measured in childhood and in early adulthood were linked to job satisfaction measured in middle adulthood.

Furthermore, job complexity mediated part of the relationship between both assessments of core self-evaluations and job satisfaction.

**Self Concept**

What is self concept? How we think about or evaluate ourselves. It includes:

- Physical
- Moral
- Personal
- Family
- Social situation

Dimensions

Self-concept is influenced by our sense of identity. Two things have powerful effects on our self-concept:

a) the opinions and judgements other people make of us

b) social comparisons - perceptions of the ways in which you are similar to and different from other people.

These will, in turn, influence a very important part of our self-concept: our self-esteem.

What is self-esteem? If people perceive themselves to be intelligent, competent and well adjusted then their self esteem is said to be high; if
their self-perception is that of being unintelligent, incompetent and poorly adjusted than their self esteem is said to be low.

Gergen (1965) study on self-esteem, showed how it is affected by the reactions of others. Asked subjects to talk about themselves as openly and honestly as possible.

Half subjects treated in a positive way, half in a negative way by a clinical psychologist. Other subjects in a control condition treated neutrally. It was found that self-esteem increased as talk progressed if in positive condition, decreased in negative condition and stayed the same in the control condition.

What is wrong with this study ethically?

Bergin (1962) showed that we do not believe people who widely disagree with our selfevaluations (for example if you think you are a really hard worker but your parents suggest that you are incredibly lazy then you will ignore them and think they are stupid!)

Morse and Gergen (1970) showed that in uncertain or anxiety arousing situations our selfesteem may change rapidly. Subjects were waiting for a job interview in a waiting room.

They sat with another candidate (a confederate of the experimenter) in one of two conditions:

A) Mr Clean - dressed in smart suit, carrying a briefcase opened to reveal a slide rule and books.
B) Mr Dirty - dressed in an old T-shirt and jeans, slouched over a cheap sex novel.

Self-esteem of subjects with Mr Dirty increased whilst those with Mr Clean decreased!

No mention was made of how this affected subjects' performance in interview. Level of self-esteem affects performance at numerous tasks though (Coopersmith 1967) so could expect Mr Dirty subjects to perform better than Mr Clean.

Even though self-esteem might fluctuate, there are times when people continue to believe good things about themselves even when evidence to the contrary exists. This is known as the perseverance effect. Ross et al (1975) showed that people who believed they had socially desirable characteristics continued in this belief even when the experimenters tried to get them to believe the opposite. Does the same thing happen with bad things if there is low self-esteem? Maybe not perhaps with very low self-esteem all people believe about themselves might be bad.

Where does the self-concept come from? Cooley suggested that feedback from others is crucial. How accurate are we in our personal perception? Are some people more accurate than others? Evidence for this is mixed and inconclusive. Question of accuracy in personal perception has been researched, despite two major problems:
1. Different aspects of social environment cause different people to attend to different things so it might be a waste of time to talk about accuracy in social perception.

2. To know that one person is more accurate than another means that one has to develop objective criteria: who decides what is accurate?

All this research probably goes back to Charles Darwin, who said that facial expressions are innate and had evolved from facial movements that once served specific functions for that species (for example expression of disgust evolved from the expression used when vomiting!).

This claim led to the hypothesis that people should be accurate in recognising emotional expression in other people - since everybody should exhibit the same expressions for the same emotions. Early studies did not find this (review by Ekman et al 1972) because too many expressions were used. Ekman et al (1969) and Izard (1972) found strong and consistent evidence that people perceive emotional expression accurately but only for a very limited number of emotions and only if those emotions are unambiguously displayed. Ekman restricts his studies to 6 emotions.

**Ekman's Six universal Emotions:**

i) Happiness ii) sorrow iii) anger iv) disgust v) fear vi)surprise

Ekman and Friesen (1975) showed these pictures to people from different cultures (for example US, Brazil, Japan, Argentina) and found high levels of agreement.
All well and good for perception of emotion, what about perception of personality traits? Not so good. One of the most common ways that social psychologists have assessed this is to compare personality test filled in by one person with one filled in on their behalf by another person. Another method has been to compare ratings with those of a clinical psychologist. Vernon (1933) tried out another method by asking 48 male students to fill out personality and intelligence questionnaires. They were asked to rate themselves, friends and strangers on these. No consistent results to speak of. Some people rated themselves most accurately, others friends, others strangers.

Cronbach (1955) criticises this and other such studies saying that such an approach throws greater light on how subjects perceive people to be rather than who they really are. Who the hell knows who people “really are” anyway? Is all this research into accuracy of personality perception pointless? Probably!

Perhaps it requires to look at all of this in a slightly different way and look at how people work out what is going on in a social situation by attributing causes.

1.11 The Development of the Self-Concept in Psychological Theory

The Pre-psychoanalytical Period

The term ‘self concept’ is only of twentieth-century origin. Writings on the individuality of the behaving organism up to this century
concerned themselves with a very imprecisely defined and vague Self which was equated with such metaphysical concepts as 'soul', 'will' and 'spirit'. Thus, most pre-twentieth-century discussion of self was embedded in a morass of philosophy and religious dogma, with self regarded as some non-physical incumbent of a physical body. Such views are apparent in Homeric writings and Plato's *Phaedo*. Aristotle and his contemporaries in fourth century B.C. speculated on the nature of soul, but it was within the ambit of Christianity that the distinction between body and soul was most marked and promoted. When the physical body died, its tenant, the soul, mind or person physical body died, its tenant, the soul, mind or person, vacated it to continue an existence in Heaven. However, this sort of account restricts the self to unscientific speculation in theological and philosophic terms. It was not until the seventeenth century in Western Europe, a relatively stimulating intellectual era, that the dawning of a new dualism occurred different from the existing dichotomy; this was a dualism of consciousness and content which has developed into an acceptable distinction between the concept of self and the self concept. Descartes (1596-1650) made the original contribution. His *cogito ergo sum* (I think, therefore I am) emphasised the centrality of the self in consciousness. Locke and Hume developed this notion and introduced the other side of the equation in emphasizing the content of sensory experience. Locke (1960) conceived of man as a 'thinking intelligent being that has reason and reflection and can consider self as
itself. Hume (1928), too, argued in favour of sense-based identity, claiming 'for my part when I enter most intimately into what I call myself I always stumble on some particular perception or other . . ., I never can catch myself at any time without a perception and never can observe anything but the perception.

Across the Channel, Kant (1934), in his *Critique of Pure Reason*, developed this dualism further by specifying the distinction between the self as subject and self as object. Schopenhauer (1948) also elaborated on this dualism of the subject-object labeling these aspects as the Knower and Known respectively. Some attempt was made in the nineteenth century by the phrenologists to isolate the physical location of self and Viney (1969) quotes a delightful description of the physical organ of self-esteem taken from an English publication of 1815.

Gall first found this organ in a beggar: in examining the head of this person, he observed in the midst of the upper posterior part of the head an elevation which he had not before observed in so high a degree: he asked him the cause of his mental state . . . We have a great number of proofs as to this organ, and can establish its existence. Proud persons, and those who alienated by pride, imagine themselves to be emperors, kings, ministers, generals, etc. possesses it in a high degree.

However humorous such an account is, like the derivations of philosophic analysis, it was speculative and unscientific, though by the
nineteenth century philosophical analysis produced that notion of a global self which was differentiated into subject and object. This differentiation was a ready-made seedbed for more rigorous investigation and theorizing by psychology when it developed towards the end of the nineteenth century.

William James (1890) was the first psychologist to elaborate in a most cogent fashion on this necessary subject-objection distinction. The chapter on Self in his monumental work *The Principles of Psychology* (1890) was one of the longest in that two-volume book, and his contributions to theorizing about the self-concept cannot be overestimated. He gave it deeper coverage than any of his predecessors, and his writing marks the change between older and newer ways of thinking about it. He was strikingly objective in his treatment of the problem and hurled stinging criticism at earlier philosophic notions. Altogether, wrote Jame (1890) soul is an out birth of that sort of philosophizing whose great maxim, according to Hodgson, is: Whatever you are totally ignorant of, assert to be the explanation of everything else.

**The Encounter with Behaviourism**

Although, as we have already noted, James had amplified in psychological terms the philosophic dualism of I and Me at the turn of the century, apart from a few theorists, most psychologists avoided the self and its multitude of hyphenated elaborations until the middle of this
century as though such constructs were ‘unclean’ and would contaminate them. The reason for this lay in the ascendance and dominance of the Behaviourist rationale during the second, third and fourth decades of this century as propounded by Watson, Thorndike, Hull and Skinner. Behaviourism, with its overriding emphasis on the scientific method as a cardinal tenet of its faith, directed psychology to a rigorous study of only those aspects of behaviour which were observable and measurable, there is stimuli and responses defined operationally. Armchair theorizing, introspection and subjectivity were denigrated and attacked as unscientific and impossible to validate. If theoretical concepts were not capable of being tested, then, argued the Behaviourists, there was no place for them within the ambit of psychology. Only by adopting a rigorous behaviourist stance, it was maintained, could psychology cease to be the handmaiden of philosophy and range itself respectably alongside other sciences. Anything to do with ‘mind’ or mental events such as purpose, expectations, thoughts and sensation had to be banished from the lexicon of psychology; no interpretation the organism might make of stimuli was acceptable.

This rigid dogma placed self-concept study under considerable pressure since self-referent constructs necessarily imply a central focus on internal experience, subjective interpretation and self-report. As a result of this methodological clash, in which the Behaviourists won the early battles, a relative neglect of psychological study of the self-concept
occurred. Behaviourism was very attractive, it must be faced, with its offering of reliable, replicable, statistical results relating overt measurable stimuli, responses and reinforcement together under controlled experimental conditions, contrasting so starkly with the ambiguities of self terminology, and dearth of empirical evidence on the self. Only a few brave souls continued to discuss the 'self' during the first half of this century.

But eventually even purists among the behaviourists were compelled to modify their rigorous tenets of faith. Firstly, it became obvious that such an approach seriously limited the possible range of psychological study, and it was appearing rather incredible that major concerns of individuals such as hopes, expectations, beliefs, thoughts, which provide man with his most distinctive human behaviour, were ruled out of order, and as a corollary, so too was any comprehensive account of human behaviour. Secondly evidence began to accumulate which could not be explained without recourse to internal processes. For example animals could learn and retain information without reinforcement being applied (Blodgett, 1929). A retreat from the hard-line position commenced in the late 1930s and both Hull and Tolman were led to postulate the hypothetical construct of the intervening variable that interpolates itself between stimulus and response. These intervening variables are used to explain internal states that prompt behaviour. This admitting of the importance of events internal to the organism that were not observable.
enables, as a corollary, a more respectable place to be found for the phenomenal self concept within the admit of psychological study. No longer was it tainted with the flavour of scientific obscenity. Other developments noted by Wylie (1961) which helped to carry self constructs back into the mainstream of psychology were firstly the increasing importance attached to ego development and function by neo-Freudians (for example Hartmann 1958; Erikson 1963), coupled with the needs of clinical psychology for a less restrictive theorizing than the Behaviourists could provide to account for findings and to promote investigations in that field. Secondly, the infusion of phenomenological theory and method with Lewin, Snygg and Combs, and Rogers as its champions into the lifeblood of psychology has firmly established the self-concept as an important construct in the study of human behaviour. During the last 20 years a deluge of experimentation and theorizing on the self-concept has flooded the pages of psychological journals.

Behaviourism and phenomenological self-theory do pose two different and distinct models of man and a methodology associated with each model, which all suggests that acceptance of one orientation implies the exclusion of the other. But to make self-theory and Behaviourism mutually exclusive is erroneous. Both approaches are necessary in order to understand in full the complexity of human behaviour, and in fact they support each other. Self-concept theory and research indicates that attitudes to self influence behaviour and provide insights into individual
perceptions, needs and goals. What self-concept theory lacks is an explanation of how changes in self-concept, perception and behaviour can occur. This is where Behaviourist theory and principles can be employed and integrated with self-concept theory. For example, a diet of positive reinforcement contingencies is the best way to provide a person previously a failure with feelings of success which will lead to increasing self esteem and alter his perception of himself, of others and of the environment. Thus, behaviour modification and self-conception are closely related processes.

Behaviourism did have beneficial effects for the study of the self. Investigators began to study more clearly defined aspects of the global self which could be operationally defined; for instance, self esteem or evaluation is the extent to which a person feels positive or negative about certain specified characteristics of himself. It became possible to postulate hypotheses capable of being tested, using such specific and measurable delineations of the self, e.g. persons with negative self evaluation are likely to report more frequently than those with positive self evaluation that they feel inferior to others. Such predictions can be tested using appropriate sampling procedures and statistical techniques. Thus, the study of the self in its various manifestations became more precise, experimental and systematic as a result of the injection of the Behaviourist approach into the mainstream of psychological methodology.
The criticism by the Behaviourists that self-concept theory could not be and was not capable of being validated experimentally was erroneous even in the early days of self-concept theory. By the year 1915 Cogan and his colleagues, prior to the development of Behaviourism, had studied the relationship between self ratings and ratings given by others, with the conclusion that agreement on desirable traits was far greater than on undesirable traits. Todd (1916) studied the descriptions that various ethnic groups, e.g. Kaffirs, and Maoris, included in their self pictures. Other early empirical studies were conducted in Germany where Stern (1922) examined the delinquent self-concept, and in Japan where Kubo (1933) assessed self-concepts by adjectival checklists. Thus, the collection of evidence concerning the self-concept, rather than mere speculation, began earlier than Behaviourists would have us believe.

**The Self Concept and Symbolic Interactionism**

The relationship between an individual and his fellow men had been, until the writings of James and Freud, an assumption that individuals existing prior to the relationship met and entered into the relationship. But a new view pointed clearly to the human infant's long period of dependency on adults with the consequent opportunities of learning society's standards and values. This view linked to the inclusion of self-conception into sociological theory produced a new approach to the individual-society relationship.
Symbolic interactionism involves three basic premises. Firstly, humans respond to the environment on the basis of the meanings that elements of the environment have for them as individuals. Secondly, such meanings are a product of social interaction, and thirdly these societal/cultural meanings are modified through individual interpretation within the ambit of this shared interaction. Self and others form an inseparable unit since society, constructed out of the sum of the behaviours of the human composing that society, then places social limits on individual behaviour. While it is possible to separate self and society analytically, the interactionist assumption is that a full understanding of one demands a full understanding of the other, in terms of a mutually interdependent relationship. Cooley and Mead provided the basic ideas.

(a) C. H. Cooley

Cooley's original view was that individuals are prior to society, but he soon modified his beliefs and laid a heavier emphasis on society to the extent that 'self and society are twin born... and the notion of a separate and independent ego is an illusion. Individual acts and social pressures mutually modify each other. A further shift in emphasis was to come later when Mead argued that self actually arises from social conditions. Cooley (1902) defined the self as 'that which is designated in common speech by the pronouns of the first person singular, "I", "me", "mine" and "myself". He noted that what is labeled by an individual as self evokes stronger
emotions than what is tagged as ‘non-self’, and that it is only through subjective feelings that self can be identified.

It can be demonstrated experimentally that a major perspective if the self-concept is the ‘other self’, or how you think others think of you. The content of the ‘self as others see you’ and the self as you believe you are, have been shown repeatedly (for example Sheerer, 1949; Burs, 1975) to be very similar. It was Cooley who first pointed out the importance of subjectively interpreted feedback from others as a main source of data about the self. In the year 1902, Cooley introduced the theory of the ‘looking-glass self’, reasoning that one's self concept is significantly influenced by what the individual believes others think of him. The looking glass reflects the imagined evaluations of others about one.

There must be few people who have never been placed in a situation where they have been acutely conscious of their existence and appearance, in essence an extremely heightened sense of self. A person who faces an ‘audience’ of any sort, or who has to interact with others may fidget, sense tenseness, have ‘butterflies in the tummy’ and perspire. This is more concern with ‘what are they thinking of me’? ‘How do I look’? ‘What sort of impression am I making’?, than with the real concerns of the interaction. This concentration with imagining how one is evaluated can have quite a serious effect on the performance of such groups as teachers, actors, interviewers and the like. When Cooley coined his phrase, ‘the looking-glass self’ he had this connection between self
awareness and the imagined opinions of others about one in mind. His analysis went as follows (Cooley, 1902):

As we see our face, figure, and dress in the glass, and are interested in them because they are ours, and pleased or otherwise with them according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be; so in imagination we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance, manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on, and are variously affected by it. A self-idea of this sort seems to have three principal elements; the imagination of our appearance to the other person; the imagination of his judgment of that appearance; and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or mortification. The comparison with a looking-glass hardly suggests the second element, the imagined judgment, which is quite essential.

This looking-glass self arises out of symbolic interaction between an individual and his various primary groups. Such a group characterized by face-to-face association, relative permanence and a high degree of intimacy between a small numbers of members produces an integration of individuality and group. The face-to-face relationships within the group serve to produce feedback for the individual to evaluate and relate to his own person. Hence, a trial-and-error learning process by which values, attitudes, roles and identities are learned forms the self-concept.
Cooley (1902) provides an account of how self-feeling is developed in relation to the individual's interpretation of physical and social reality. The objects within this reality include the physical body opinions, purposes, possessions, ambitions, in fact any idea or system of ideas drawn from the communicative life that the mind cherishes as its own. This account does tend to neglect those aspects of a person felt to be an integral part but not likely to be cherished, for example a handicap, or failure. He saw the objects appropriated by self-feeling as social in two senses. Firstly, their meaning was furnished by the common language and culture. Secondly, self-conceptions and their associated evaluations were derived from the person's subjective construction of the judgments that significant others held regarding his actions and attributes. Self and society mutually define each other, acting as points of reference one for the other, so that 'self and society and twin born' (Cooley, 1902)

(b) G. H. Mead

Mead elaborated on James' social self in a development of Cooley's theory and produced a more extensive theory of self-development. Like Cooley he saw no other birthplace for self than society. The self of any individual develops as a result of his relations to the processes of social activity and experience and to other individuals within those processes. For Mead (1934) the self-concept as an object arises in social interaction as an outgrowth of the individual's concern about how others react to him. So that he can anticipate other people's reactions in order to behave
appropriately, the individual learns to interpret the environment as the others do. The incorporation of such estimates as to how this 'generalised other' would respond provides the major origin of internal regulation that eventually comes to guide and maintain behaviour, even if external forces are no longer present. In this way the community exercises control over the behaviour of each individual, as it is in the form of the generalized other that the social process and culture pattern are assimilated into the individual. Self then is a social structure arising out of social experience. Once formed it can provide social experience for itself. But, more importantly, Mead saw language as the connection between self and society. Since man has the symbol of language, it is indifferent whether meaning is communicated between two individuals or between an individual and self. In this latter situation the individual is putting himself in the place of the other and can take, the attitudes of another and act towards him as others act. By combining many instances of this the individual integrates the attitudes of others towards himself into the 'generalised other'. In this way Mead claims that the problem of how an individual can be an object to himself has been solved. He differentiated between 'Me' and 'I' by giving them different contexts in which to operate. In situations of group membership, status, roles and interaction with others the emphasis is on 'Me'. In situations where a person is distinguishing himself from others by his unique capacities or asserting himself against a situation, then the 'I' is emphasised as he realizes
himself in the process of preserving the self. Mead insisted throughout his writings that whatever we mean by self it clearly belongs to the reflexive mode where the agent is the object of his own activities.

But the 'I-Me' dichotomy specified by Mead is different in one major way from James' initial formulation. Mead's 'I' is the impulsive tendency, the unorganized, undisciplined, undifferentiated activity of the individual (almost a parallel to the Freudian id). Every behaviour commences as an 'I', but develops and ends as a 'Me' as it comes under the influence of societal constraints. 'I' provides the propulsion; 'Me' provides direction. The development of self is thus based on the emergence of 'Me'. Mead characterizes this emergence in children through two stages. Firstly, play, a spontaneous activity, enables the development of elementary role taking. Game, on the other hand, results from an internalization of the roles of others, as the self assumes the generalized attitude of a member of the group to which the self belongs.

In this way the individual comes to respond to himself and develop self-attitudes consistent with those expressed by others in his world. He values himself as they value him; he demeans himself to the extent that they reject, ignore or demean him. The end result is the conclusion Cooley had already argued in a very similar theory, that the individual will conceive of himself as having the characteristics and values that others attribute to him.

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Mead's writings suggest that the self is composed of numerous 'elementary selves' which mirror aspects of the structure of the social process. A reflection of the entire social process is contained in the structure of a complete self. Mead's analysis of the elementary self as a means whereby self is enabled to fit social order is in reality the notion of social identity. Each person has many social identities which provide a major link between self and society, for example a person can be a son, father, husband, wage-earner, etc.

So as Cooley had done before him, Mead emphatically expressed the inseparability of Self and Society with the latter as the mechanism through which the person receives his statement of account, with its credits and debits. To Mead, 'no man is an island' and psychology showed repeated acceptance of the fact that society gives shape and meaning to individual self-conceptualization.

**Goffman and Presentation of Self**

Goffman (1959; 1967) offers an extension of symbolic interactionism into a dramaturgical metaphor, claiming that the individual puts on a 'show' for others by managing the impressions he gives others about himself. He scrutinizes dispassionately the techniques used daily by each of us in order to create our individual identities.

Goffman (1959) explains the generation of self through social interaction as follows:
In analysing the self, then we are drawn from its possessor, from the person who will profit or lose most by it, for he and his body merely provide the peg on which something of a collaborative manufacture will be hung for a time. And the means for producing and maintaining selves do not reside inside the peg; in fact, these means are often bolted down in social establishments. There will be a back region with its fixed props. There will be a team of persons whose activity on stage in conjunction with available props will constitute the scene from which the performed character's self will emerge, and another team, the audience, whose interpretive activity will be necessary for this emergence. The self is a produce of all these arrangements, and in all of its parts bears the marks of this genesis.

Goffman's dramaturgical analysis of society offers a useful way of examining society in which men are not trying to do but to be. The task of image projection is seen as part of the socialization process. These social identities are used as the basis of behaviour in specific contexts, providing cues for others to facilitate the task of communicating to others just 'who' he is at that particular time and place. While Mead presents the development of self in society with a stable and continued presentation of self, Goffman presents short-term selves focusing now in this role and now in that in the management of impression and of personal front. For Mead self and society are twinborn; with Goffman self and society interact in short episodes in which the script is followed to the end, but when the
'play' is over the individual sheds one costume and dresses himself up in another. It is not a con game; it is the adaptation of self to different roles to facilitate social processes wherein each knows what the others are performing. However, this self-presentation involves the totality of the person and provides such an all - embracing concept of self that self comes to mean the total person rather than solely an objective 'Me'. Moreover, Goffman's analysis presents a rather sordid, cynical view of human interaction characterized by duplicity, hypocrisy and opportunism. So despite the seminal ideas propagated by the symbolic interactionists, a critical review would suggest that they failed to produce a consensual and operational definition of their core concept, the self. They also tended to ignore the affective and unconscious elements in their explanation of human behaviour. But their message is clear as far as self-concept formation and its relation to subjectively interpreted environmental reality is concerned. If we fail to organise our feelings and behaviour into compatibility with the normative order then society disintegrates. Each person must develop considerable skill in reading the symbolic cues which give meaning and definition to the situation so that the correct social identity is chosen. The construction of self through learning in the early years within primary groups and later within secondary groups allows for the presentation of the self with its specific identity matching the specific context. In this sense then social order and self are inseparable; the self learned within social order and self are
inseparable; the self learned within social order and social order preserved by the interaction of appropriate aspects of self by the participants. Social reality and self-integrity demand that we orchestrate our identity with the situation.

1.12 Concept of Study Habits

Study Habits have been described in different ways. According to Sorenson ‘Effective methods of study consist basically in applying those fundamental principles which underline efficiency.’

For William H. Armstrong “Study is the total of all the habits determined purposes and enforced practices that the individual uses in order to learn that study is hard work. No easy substitute is available” According to him “Study is a matter of governing will of accepting a right purpose and of concentrating one’s energies towards its achievement”

Webster defines study as “an act or process of acquiring by one’s own effort knowledge of some subject” Thomas Risk expands this general concept to apply it more specifically to college situation. “Study is planned effort on the part of the learner in solving a problem, in getting knowledge or understanding, or in acquiring certain abilities.”

“Habit is an accomplished form of behaviour in which things are done quickly, accurately and automatically with little voluntary attention”

Hence, acquisition of some habits promotes personal efficiency and their formation may be facilitated by some of the principles of learning.
“A well formed habit furnishes its own source of motivation. Habits are more or less routine ways of acting or responding more important than ways a acting is that they constitute a form of motive. Habits can become motives for future conducted and make for economy of action”

In total, study means “Students way of studying, whether systematic or unsystematic, efficient or inefficient etc”

Another definition given by Carter V. Good is that a basic lectures involved in the application of mind to problem or subject; the characteristic pattern which an individual follows in learning about things and people is study habit “Study skill is any special ability used in study, such as reading outlining, summarizing or locating material”.

Study can be interpreted as a planned programme of subject mastery. Any application of energy directed towards the learning of new materials, the solution of a problem. The discovery of new relationship or similar purposeful activity can be considered to be study. It is necessary for students to develop special habits and skills. Since well-formed habit furnishes its own source of motivation, habits are more or less routine ways of acting or responding more important than ways of acting is that they constitute a form of motive. Habits can and do become motivation for future conducts and makes for economy of action.

Although many far-reaching reforms have been formulated and implemented in our education system, practically no thought has been given to developing Study Habits in students. “One of the greatest defects
of the Indian Educational Education System is the lack of training in effective methods of study”

A student is expected to know how to study properly. This is one of the most important abilities, which a student should acquire during his college days. The most important requisite for effective Study Habits is a good system of study. In order to evolve a good system of study the individual should involve two fundamental abilities, namely regularity of work and the persistence till the end.

1.13 Good Study – Habits

Good Study Habits rests on attitudes towards work and on a sense of responsibility and these attitudes are built during one’s living. Developing good Study Habits could be taken up from the very early age. Some of the crucial requirements of study are:

1. Interest in learning.
2. Self discipline in studying
3. A good memory
4. Skill in assimilation.

These fundamentals of study are closely related. Students should be helped to cultivate good Study Habits and Skills and have a stimulating intellectual life. If they form good study habits it can be easier. What they have to do for enjoying study is;

1. Set up a definite time for study. Study at the same time every day.

Have self-discipline. The procedure for improving self-discipline and
the tips for this are many. Time schedule for study helps to assume allotment of sufficient time for study and regularity in studying.

2. Improve physical conditions for study. Poor physical surroundings are often a factor for poor concentration.

3. Before starting study, it is necessary to sharpen the pencil, keep ready various kinds of material and the like.

4. Take down notes of important points of study. Catch words and catch sentences that help remember longer what has been studied and also comprehend better.

5. It is necessary to write down a few questions to see whether it is possible to answer them. This is a kind of review and often results in clear understanding and more permanent retention. This enables fixing responses at an automatic level to ensure immediate recall.

6. There are many things to remember to study effectively like. Look – hear-say method; Pause and Short Stretches for Study, whole method and mixed method. Rest period are necessary for good study.

7. There should be some reward for study. The law of effect is involved here. Learning activity is strengthened or weakened as satisfaction or annoyances attend its exercise.

Wrong types of connections may be established if satisfaction attends undesirable types of behaviour. Rewards are good incentives for better study. This has a place in the reinforcement of learning. Students
mind becomes alert if they follow this procedure. In fact if they study at the same time each day, go to study as soon as they prepare their material for study, take notes important points of their study, and write down questions or discuss with the group. Then study becomes so simple for them and they will get so good at it is just like eating a cake.

1.14 Poor Study Habits

All too often, students perform poorly in school simply because they lack good study habits. In many cases, students don't know where to begin, do not fully understand the material, are not motivated by it, or feel that there was too much work given to them with too little time to complete or study it. If their studying skills do not improve, these students will continue to test poorly and not perform to their fullest potential.

Some students have problems getting started. Begin to study early, with one or two hours per day. Then, slowly build your study time and quality as you approach the exam or test. Make a list of the material you have and separate it by priority. Do what you feel is most important first and save what you feel is least important until the end. Using this method of studying, you ensure that you finish more significant work in case some unexpected interruption occurs. Also, keep an organized notebook filled with useful information. Review your notebook during study halls, between classes, and at home. Finally, take planned breaks while studying to give your mind a rest and let the information sink in.
In other instances it seems that there is just too much to study and not enough time in which to study effectively and remember the materials. Preview the reading, notes, etc., and organize your information into categories, outlines, hierarchies, and charts. One of these charts is known as a Venn diagram. It can be used for comparing and contrasting by drawing a circle for each item you are studying. Each circle overlaps another, indicating the similarities between each item. The remaining space of each circle indicates the differences. Another technique to separate a topic is called a "spider" or 'webbing' graph. This diagram consists of a main idea or subject. Branches or "legs" connect subjects to the main idea. For example, if you were researching the Civil War in the United States, the center of your graph would be "The Civil War." Some subjects connected to the main idea could be Battles, Slavery, Union, etc. Then, you can get even more specific by adding more branches to these ideas. This will help organize your information, and by writing out a chart, you will probably remember more than if you were just reading.

Some students simply do not understand the information that they are to study. First of all, list what one needs to study for the test or exam. Ask your teacher what areas you should be concentrated most on. One might even ask fellow classmates who perform better on test how they approach studying. Make up ones own mini-tests and trade them with another student, so as to quiz each other. Team-studying can prove to be very beneficial. Finally, make flash-cards to study such things as
If one finds that you still have trouble in a class, you can always ask the teacher for extra help. This may require going to him or her in the morning or after school. Additionally, check out the school or community for tutors; often cost is minimal, and some people even tutor for free. Above all, do not feel embarrassed to ask for help.

If one has honestly tried all of the above suggestions and still have trouble with your studies, then maybe check with your guidance counselor about a course with a different ability level. Or, you may need to be tested to determine if there is a problem that may be affecting studies that one is not aware of. Quite often, simple solutions can go a long way in helping develop good study habits.

### 1.15 Importance of Study Habits

Scholastic achievement depends upon many factors like heredity, environment, Socio-economic status of parents, personal facts like aspiration level, good status of parents, good Study Habits are most important in influencing scholastic achievement.

Study Habits play a very important role in the life of a student. Success of failure of each student depends upon ones own study habits, of course, study is an art and as such it requires practice. Some students study more but they fail to achieve more. Others study less but achieve more. Success of each student definitely depends upon ability, intelligent
and efforts of students. No doubt, regular study habits being their own rewards in the shape of feelings of conscious virtual or sense of achievement of success.

The Study Habits are influenced by attitudes, personality traits, levels of aspiration, teaching methods adopted and material they are to learn. So it is the study of teachers to develop good study habits among students. Such habits are the best equipments with which they can live and less their lives with confidence. If the habits are developed in the young age they will definitely cherish joy of its fruits in the rest of their lives. But the problem is when and how to develop the study habits among student. If study habits among are developed study habits in their infancy, they cannot learn because they are still immature. In later lives, it is also useless; because grown up children are already habituated to certain things. So they find it difficult it modify their habits and behaviour. Therefore, it is better to develop study habits in the secondary school students. It is the proper time and age to cultivate study habits. At this age students are quite mature. They are able to know what is good and what is bad. They can avoid bad things and learn good things with help of teachers. This is one of the important reasons why the investigator selected the subject of the study habits of secondary schools student.

It is the experience of teachers that many students fail to do good work because they do not know how to study. It is therefore quite essential to develop good Study Habits among students.
1.16 Developing Effective Study Habits

Study can be interpreted as a planned program of subject matter mastery. It is essential to learning and fundamental to school life. Its chief purposes are (1) to acquire knowledge and habits which will be useful in meeting new situations, interpreting ideas, making judgments, and creating new ideas, and in the general enrichment of life (2) to perfect skills; (3) to develop attitudes. The term practice refers to the repetition of an activity in order to perfect perform once. Study usually is associated with reading and reference work, but it also is related to the solution of problems arising in daily life activities. For example, before a mechanic can repair an automobile he must study the extent and nature of the difficulty or the damage. He does this by first-hand investigation of the situation. He arrives at a decision concerning what needs to be done after he has studied the problem. Successful achievement in any activity is based upon study, interpretation, and application.

1.17 Development and Appreciate of the Study Habits

Take responsibility for yourself

Responsibility is recognition that in order to succeed you can make decisions about your priorities, your time, and your resources

Center yourself around your values and principles

Do not let friends and acquaintances dictate what you consider important
Put first things first

Follow up on the priorities you have set for yourself, and do not let others, or other interests, distract you from your goals.

Discover your key productivity periods and places

Morning, afternoon, evening; study spaces where you can be the most focused and productive. Prioritize these for your most difficult study challenges.

Consider oneself in a win-win situation

Win by doing once best and contributing ones best to a class, whether for self or fellow students, and even for the teachers and instructors. If one is content with the performance, a grade becomes an external check on the performance, which may not coincide with ones internally arrived at benefits.

First understand others, then attempt to be understood

When there is an issue with an instructor, for example a questionable grade, an assignment deadline extension, put oneself in the instructor’s place. Now ask how one can best make ones argument in a given situation.

Look for better solutions to problems

For example, if one does not understand the course material, do not just re-read the material. Try something else! Consult the professor, a tutor, an academic advisor, a classmate, a study group, or school’s study skills center.
Do you avoid studying like the plague? Do you find it hard to concentrate on your homework? Do you get to class and not remember anything of what you have studied the night before? If so, here are some tips to help make your study time more worthwhile:

- Set aside a specific time to study. Many kids find it easiest to come home, have something to eat, then study right away, but if you have other activities at that time you will need to find what works for you.

- Study every day. If you do not have assignments to do, take a few minutes to review topics that you find hardest. This may sound like a drag, but it's good to get into the habit of doing it every day.

- Create your own study space. If you do not have a desk in your room, or if the dining room table does not give you enough peace, consider going to the local library or taking up a corner of the basement.

- Do not do other things while you are studying. This includes watching TV, fixing a snack, and talking on the phone. Some people claim they can study better with music playing. That is a matter of personal preference. If it is just quiet background music that does not make you want to play the drums on your books, it's probably not too distracting.

- If you have a lot of reading to do to prepare for a test, try taking notes as you go along. Otherwise, you'll find your mind wandering.
Homework should not take up all of your spare time. If you find one teacher is giving out hours of homework all the time, it could be that he/she doesn't realize it takes so long. Talk to your teacher, or to another teacher you can approach and alert them to the amount of time your homework is taking up.

1.19 Objectives of the Study

General Objectives

The following are the general objectives of the study:

1. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of secondary teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample;

2. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of secondary teacher trainees on their environmental awareness among male teacher trainees;

3. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of secondary teacher trainees on their environmental awareness among female teacher trainees;

4. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of secondary teacher trainees on their environmental awareness among urban teacher trainees; and

5. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of secondary teacher trainees on their environmental awareness among rural teacher trainees.
**Specific Objectives**

The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

**Entire Sample**

1. To study the effect of personality factors of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.

2. To study the effect of self-concept of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.

3. To study the effect of study habits of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.

4. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and self-concept of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.

5. To study the interaction effect of self-concept and study habits of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.

6. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and study habits of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.

7. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of teacher trainees on their environmental awareness on the entire sample.
Male Teacher Trainees

8. To study the effect of personality factors of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

9. To study the effect of self-concept of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

10. To study the effect of study habits of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

11. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and self-concept of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

12. To study the interaction effect of self-concept and study habits of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

13. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and study habits of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

14. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of male teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

Female Teacher Trainees

15. To study the effect of personality factors of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

16. To study the effect of self-concept of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

17. To study the effect of study habits of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
18. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and self-concept of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
19. To study the interaction effect of self-concept and study habits of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
20. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and study habits of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
21. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of female teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

Urban Teacher Trainees

22. To study the effect of personality factors of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
23. To study the effect of self-concept of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
24. To study the effect of study habits of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
25. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and self-concept of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
26. To study the interaction effect of self-concept and study habits of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
27. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and study habits of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.
28. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of urban teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

*Rural Teacher Trainees*

29. To study the effect of personality factors of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

30. To study the effect of self-concept of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

31. To study the effect of study habits of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

32. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and self-concept of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

33. To study the interaction effect of self-concept and study habits of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

34. To study the interaction effect of personality factor and study habits of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.

35. To study the interaction effect of personality factor, self-concept and study habits of rural teacher trainees on their environmental awareness.