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CHAPTER-1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preamble
In the modern scientific and technical world, education plays a vital role. The educational advancement of a country shows its pace of development. In other sense, educational system reflects the development of the country. The increase in enrolment of the high schools or higher education shows the demand for advance education the paramount aim of education is to prepare persons who are physically fit, mentally developed, emotionally stable and of a well developed personality. In other words, its aim is to prepare such citizens who may lead a self dependent life satisfying to their self and beneficial to society and nation.

Human have a capacity for change across the entire life span there are important growth change across the life span from birth to death, many individuals retain a great capacity for change and the consequences of the events of early childhood are continually transformed by late experiences, making the course of human development more open than many have believed.

Always man is interested with the environment. Which is surrounding him. Man finds requirements, basic or going on requirements from the environment. That is why we can say that man’s behavior is determined by the physical environment conditions. Man is responding the changes which may come to his way. In stage of a man is influenced by the environmental factors.

In the early decades of this century developmental psychology was primarily a descriptive, normative discipline. In it nature and nurture are the basic elements to study. In the history of developmental psychology containing debate was going on about the nature-nurture controversy because this controversy pertains to a debate about where the sources of development lie for e.g. in born (or hereditary) mechanism or in acquired (or learned) processor. The terms associated with nature are perforation, perforation’s nativism and innateness and terms associated with nurture are learning, conditioning experience and socialization. Each one has one’s own beliefs.

Peters refers to two general categories of influence in the emergence of developmental psychology in the nineteenth century. The first, a quite practical social influence, consisted of pressure applied by educational administrators and social planners concerned with the large scale education of a growing population of children. Such a development served to focus institutional attention on the practical issues of ontogenesis. The second category of influence was the theory of evaltition, in so far as
it focused some attention on the scientific analysis of progress and suggested a certain measure of continuity, both between human and animal, and between adult and child.

In the modern world, the child is the first priority, and longest lasting, context for development compared with other species, human children develop slowly, requiring years of support and teaching before they ready to be independent. Families are pervasive, and parents are universally important in children’s lives. The attachments children form with parents and siblings usually last a lifetime, and they serve as models for relationships in the wider world of neighborhood and school. Within the family, children experience their first social conflict discipline by parents and arguments with siblings provide important lessons in compliance and cooperation and opportunities to learn how to influence the behavior of others. Finally, within the family, children learn the language, skills and social and moral values of their culture, and also the atmosphere, the experiences of childhood plays a very important role to built a personality and increases the self-esteem.

In the life of a child, family, school, friends and other relatives are plays very important role and among the first function of the family, socialization has been greatest interest to child development socialization begins in earnest during the second year, once children are first able to comply with parental directives.

When the child is enter the period of adolescence, some traits are increase more. In which some certain psychological and emotional gap between parents and the adolescent girls or boys. The generation gap creates misunderstanding and lack of attachment between the parents and the children and the children loose their self-esteem and they are not achieve what they are expected. Only when we understand the reason of such kind of failure to achieve what they can, we can, help them to boost up their academic achievement, one such important factor which seems to emerge out from the various studies done so far is the typical personality organization of such a student.

Therefore, the concept of personality, academic achievement, self-esteem and adolescence discussions are more relevant and fruitful. The present special research problem is an attempt to unearth the unique personality patterns of such under achievers. In brief, we explain the role of personality in academic achievement and self-esteem of adolescence.

1.2 Concept of Personality

To, answer this question we have to explore the meanings of the ‘Personality’ because it turns out that there are several. One particularly instructive way to sort out these meanings and to think through their implications is to examine the world’s history once upon a time, personality was something everyone had. When the word first
appeared in English in the 14th century, it meant the quality of being a person, as distinct from an inanimate thing. Personality referred to the capacities - such as consciousness and rational thought - that were believed to give humans a special place in creation (Williams, 1976). In this theological sense, then personality refers to our shared humanity.

Personality refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. The study of personality focuses on two broad areas: one is understanding individual differences in particular personality characteristics, such as sociability or irritability. The other is understanding how the various parts of a person come together as a whole.

In time, however this sense of personality as personhood, gave way to one that has a more modern feel to it. Over a period of centuries, personality come to refer less to the human capacities that we share and that distinguish us from animals, and more to the characteristic that give each one of us our individuality. In this sense, personality implies a focus on the individual human being: the ‘Person.’ Interestingly, however, the word ‘Person’ did not originally refer to the individual in the way we tend to use it today. Instead ‘Person’ come, via French, from the Latin word ‘Persona’ which referred to the mask worn by an actor to portray a particular character. In this theatrical sense personality has to do with the role or character that the person plays in life’s drama. The person’s individuality, in this sense, is a matter of the roles or characters that he or she assumes;

It is unlikely, on the other hand, that you would, mention many of the psychological characteristics that we excluded from our definition of personality, such as current mood states, specific attitudes, or particular habits. Imagine how you would feel if someone responded to a request to describe who she is by stating that she feels worried, thinks that Britney spears, is a fine singer, and brushes her teeth five times a day. She isn’t really giving you a good sense of who she is as a person and seems to be referring to incidental details of her life.

No term is more frequently used regarding personality than the word trait. It means a characteristic, a trend, a way of response an attribute, an aspect. It means each of the various components or segments of the individual consider in a greater or lesser degree of separation from other traits. In this context, there are probably as many definitions of personality tend to emphasize, the uniqueness of qualities and attributes of each person, the characteristics that make each person different from others.

So, personality includes the behavior patterns, a person shows across situations or the psychological characteristics of the person that lead to those behavior patterns.
1.2.1 What is Personality?

The word personality is derived from Greek word ‘Persona.’ At first this word was used for the mask worn by the actors in Roman and Greek drama.

Personality is the total quality of an individual’s behavior as it shown on his habits of thinking, in his attitude, interests, his manner of acting and his personal philosophy of life. Personality is more than the sum total of an individual’s traits and characteristics.

When psychologists define personality, they tend to refer to qualities within a person, characteristics of a person’s behavior, or both. In a now famous definition, psychologist Gordon Allport (1937) mentioned both inner qualities.

“Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.”

In a more recent definition, psychologist Walter Mischel (1976) mentioned both inner processes and behavior but emphasized behavior. Personality, he wrote, consists of;

“The distinctive patterns of behavior that characterize each individual’s adaptation to the situations of his or life.”

According to Allport “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological system that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.”

It is reasonably assumed that personality functions as a basis for all types of behavior. The person may or not be co-operative, may have more or less competitiveness, possesses positive or negative leadership qualities or may be emotionally stable or anxious. It all depends upon his personal make-up, Singer (1972) had also opined similarly, since personality determined by genetic factors but modified by environmental experience, a strong possibility exists that personality influences activity preferences as well as gets modified by activity experiences. The personality mould is formed early in life but can be changed by later experiences partly, if not completely.

As personality is reflective of the entire behavioral dimensions of individual, it has strong bearing on some variables also. Man’s personality is the total picture of behavior, which is made up of many components, some of which are objective and therefore, easily studied and measured. And some are subjective and cannot be measured easily. These objective components are physique, speed, strength and movement. The subjective components include motives, feeling, ideas, attitudes, character, will power etc. Personality according to Eysenck (1968).
“It’s a stable and enduring organization of person’s character, temperaments, intellect and physique, which explains about the physiological differences between introverts and extroverts in the light of concept of weak and strong nervous system.”

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

According to Salvatore Maddi (2006) “Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonatities and differences in psychological behavior (thoughts, feelings, and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment.”

In the words of Fred Luthans, (2008) Personality should be including both the person and the role Floyd, Ruch has given such as definition. According to him human personality includes :

(a) External appearance and behavior or social stimulus value.
(b) Inner awareness of self as permanent organizing force.
(c) The particular pattern or organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer.

1.2.2 Features or Ideas Relating to Personality

Regardless of how personality is defined, certain ideas are generally accepted among psychologists. There are :

• Personality represents the whole person’ concept. It includes perception, learning, motivation and more. Personality seems to be a case when the whole is greater than the sum of parts. Personality always creates the synergistic effect.
• Personality emphasizes the person-situation interaction.
• Personality is a very diverse and complete psychological concept.
• Personality often implies social or interpersonal skills.
• Even though it is a stable pattern of characteristics and behaviours, personality is constantly developing and changing.
• The personality is a major influence on tendencies to behave. It helps to explain why specific behavior occurs.
• Personality is an organized whole, otherwise the individual would have no meaning.

• Personality appears to be organized into patterns. These are to some degree observable and measurable.

• Although there is a biological basis to personality, the specific development is a product of social and cultural environments.

• Personality has superficial aspects, such as attitudes towards being a team leader and a deeper core. Such as sentiments about authority or the protestant work ethic.

• Personality involves both common and unique characteristics. Every person is different from every other person in some respects. While being similar in other respects.

• Personality is possessed, by every person.

• Personality is partially inborn and partially acquired.

• Personality is influenced by internal, external adjustment processes. It is dynamic rather than static.

• Personality can be described by characteristic behavior traits or constellations of related traits.

• Personality predisposes an individual to certain behavioral patterns.

• Personality provides defenses and outlets for the self-concept and acquitted motives.

1.2.3 Determinants of Personality

Several factors influence shaping of our personality. Although the list has no end, psychologists agree that there are four general categories of influencing factors.

1. Constitutional Determinants

These are inborn traits which the individual inherits. Heredity endowment and genetic structures influence behavior, learning and motivation. Age, brain, biofeedback and physical stature act as potentials for a variety of different personality characteristics.

2. Group Membership Determinants

These factors make a more significant contribution to personality than biological factors. Each culture expects and trains, its members to behave in the ways that are acceptable to the group. People are also influenced by the beliefs and values of family education, religion within any culture. Affinitive groups influence our attitudes,
values and other personality characteristics. Social learning has a lasting influence on their ways of viewing life.

3. Role Determinants

Each person has to play a number of different roles at different times. The roles that an individual plays to fulfill a given position are determined by the group within which the position exists. Thus, social roles of people influence their personality.

4. Situational Determinants

The environment has a strong effect on personality formation. Learned modifications in behavior are not passed on to children, they must be acquired by them through their own personal experience through interaction with their environment.

1.2.4 Personality Development

Development refers to a progressive series of changes that occur in orderly predictable as a result of maturation and experience. The human being is never static from conception to death change is constantly taking place in his physical and psychological capacities. A study of personality is important because it provides means of predicting human behavior.

(i) Physical Development

It involves all those changes occurring in a person’s body, like changes in height, weight, in the brain, heart and other structures and processes and in skeletal, muscular and neurological features that affect motor skills.

(ii) Cognitive Development

It involves all those changes that occur in the mental activity including sensation, perception, memory, though reasoning and language.

(iii) Psychological Development

It includes all those changes that concern a person’s personality, emotion and relationship with others.

1.2.5 Process of Personality Development

(a) Growth

The increase in size that occurs with changing age called growth.

(b) Maturation

Maturation is the unfolding of genetically prescribed patterns of behavior or biological potentials. Such changes are relatively independent of the environment like the infant’s motor development like grasping, sitting, crawling etc.
Both growth and maturation involve biological changes while growth refers to the increase in the individual’s cells and tissues. Maturation concerns the development of organs and limbs to become functional.

(c) Learning

It is more or less a permanent modification in behavior that results from the individual’s experience in the environment. It differs from maturation. Which occur without any specific experience or practice?

1.2.6 Classification of Personality

(a) The Four Temperament Types of Hippocrates

The four temperaments or four humors can be traced back reliably to Ancient Greek medicine and philosophy, notably in the work of Hippocrates. Who is the father of medicine and in Plato’s ideas about character and personality? In Greek medicine around 2,500 years ago it was believed that in order to maintain health, people needed an even balance of the four body fluids, blood, phlegm, yellow bile and black bile. These four body fluids were linked to certain organs and illnesses and also represented the four temperaments or four humors of personality.

In the ideal personality, the complementary characteristics or warm-cool and dry-moist were exquisitely balanced. In four less ideal types, one of the four qualities was dominant over all the others. In the remaining four types, one pair of qualities dominated the complimentary pair, for example, warm and moist dominated cool and dry. These latter four were the temperamental categories Galen named ‘Sanguine’, ‘Melancholic’, ‘Choleric’ and ‘Phlegmatic’ after the bodily humors.
Nicholas Culpeper (1616-1653) disregarded the idea of fluids as defining human behavior and Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), Rudolf Steiner (1861-1925), Alfred Adler (1879-1937), Drich Adickers (1866-1925), Eduard Spranger (1914), Ernest Kretschmer (1920) and Erich Fromm (1947) all theorized on the four temperaments and greatly shaped our modern theories of temperament. Hans Eysenck (1916-1947) was one of the first psychologists to analyze personality difference using a psychostatistical method (factor analysis) and his research led him to believe that temperament is biologically based. The factors he proposed in his dimensions of personality were Neuroticism (N) which was the tendency to experience negative emotions, and second was Extroversion (E) which was the tendency to enjoy positive events, especially social ones. By pairing the two dimensions, Eysenck noted how the results were similar to the four ancient temperaments.

(b) Sheldon’s Types

William Sheldon divided people into three types according to body built.

(1) Endomorph - soft, fat and round, sociable and relaxed.
(2) Mesomorph - Heavy and muscular, physically active and noisy.
(3) Ectomorph - Tall, thin and flat chested, self-conscious, shy and reserved.

(c) Kretschmer’s Types

(1) Pyknic Type - Fat body, large head, chest and abdomen, sociable, jolly, easy-going and good-natured.
(2) Athletic Type - Strong body, firm muscles, wide chest and shoulders, energetic, optimistic, challenging, sportive.
(3) Asthenic Type - Lean and tall body, reserved, shy sensitive, pessimistic.
(4) Dysplastic Type - Undeveloped and disproportionate body personality also undeveloped and imbalanced.
On the basis of sociability Dr. Karl G. Jung classified people into two main groups namely extroverts and introverts.

1.2.7 Traits or Factors

Trait is an aspect of personality, i.e. a reasonable characteristic of a person. For example, patience, honesty, perseverance, thoroughness, initiative etc.

Groups of personality traits are known as personality factors or dimensions of personality. These factors are follows:

1) Psychological Factors

It includes motives, interests, attitudes, will and character, intellectual capacities as intelligence reasoning attention, perception and imagination.

(2) The Environmental or Social Factors.

(3) The Physiological Factors

It includes the physique of the individual - his size, strength, looks and constitution.

1.2.8 Role of Heredity in Personality

One of the oldest issues in psychology is nature vs. nature. Most of the acquisition of personality after birth. Studies on twins have shown that personality is more affected by environment than any other area of human functioning. Some investigators have shown the genes influence on personality development. Studies on temperament, which includes mood, activity level and emotion, have also shown the influence of gene on personality selective breeding can heighten or diminish the characteristics like emotionality over successive generations. Twin studies of human also have shown a genetic influence on personality.

Studies also have shown that we do not inherit genes for dominance, sociability and so forth. Eysenck proposed that traits related to introversion-extroversion type dimensions are linked to inherited characteristics of reticular formation. The part of the brain that influences an individual’s level of arousal. He believes that introvert inherit more of the characteristics to be aroused than do extrovert. As a result introvert tends to avoid extreme excitement and seek out calm, quite condition, shy, away from the activation caused by social interaction. Thus heredity and nervous system influence the personality development.

1.2.9 Theories of Personality

Psychologists and theorists have continued to work on various theories of personality in spite of their basic difference on what personality is as a result, a number of personality theories are developed some of these theories are briefly discussed below:
1.2.9.1 Psychoanalytic Theory (1856-1939)

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) developed the best-known theory of personality focused upon internal growth or psycho dynamic. Some other psychologists such as Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Karen Horney, and Eric Fromm, etc., have also made additional contributions. Freud assumes that human personality is composed of three interrelated, but often conflicting psychoanalytic concepts.

(A) Structure of Personality

Freud constructed a model of personality with three interlocking parts.

(i) Id

(ii) Ego

(iii) Super Ego
(i) **Id**

The Id most primitive part can be thought as a storehouse of biological based urges. The urge to eat, drink, eliminate and to be sexually stimulated, etc. The sexual energy that underlines these urges is called ‘libido.’ The Id operates according to self. The Id would satisfy the fundamental urges immediately and reflectively as they arise without regard to rules, the realities of life and morals of any kind. All biological needs are essential for survival except sex.

(ii) **Ego (Reality Principle)**

The Id is usually managed by ego. It consists of elaborate ways of behaving and thinking which constitute the creative function of the Person. The ego delays satisfying the Id, and channelises the behavior into more socially acceptable outlet. It keeps working for a living, getting along with people and generally adjusting to the realities of life.

(iii) **Super Ego (Moral Principle)**

The super ego corresponds closely to what we call conscience (what we find inside). It consists of mainly prohibition learned from parents and other authorities. It condemns certain activities of ego, which are to satisfy the Id.

According to Freud, the entire Id is unconscious. The ego and super ego include material at all three levels of consciousness.

(B) **Psychosexual Stages of Development**

Freud emphasized on biological development and on sexual development. In his theory of child development, Freud described a succession of stages revolving under body zones. He called mouth, arms and genital zones (Excitable Zones).

According to Freud, all human beings pass through a series of five stages:

(a) Oral Stage (From Birth to One Year)
(b) Anal Stage (1-3 Years)
(c) Phallic Stage (3-6 Years)
(d) Latency Period (6-12 Years)
(e) The Genital Period (During Adolescence)

(a) **Oral Stage**

The infants obtain sexual pleasure, first by sucking and later by biting. Feeding and contact with mother will help to make the mouth the focus of pleasure during first year.
(b) **Anal Stage**

The anal stage occurs when parents are training the child in toileting. Psychoanalytic theory holds that the first part of the anal stage involves pleasure from expulsion of faces.

(c) **Phalic Stage**

The pleasure is obtained by funding the gentiles.

The child develops sexual feelings towards parent of opposite sex Freud called these thought and feelings as oedipus complex and electra complex in boys and girls respectively.

The boys try to identify themselves with father and try to become father. In this process, the boys take on their father’s behavior pattern, irrespective of whether it is right or wrong. Thus the boys develop super-ego. In the same way the girls through identification with mother develop super-ego.

(d) **Latency Period**


(e) **Genital Period**

Young people begin experiencing romantic infatuation and emotional upheavals.

Problems encountered at any one stage either of deprivation or over indulgence many produce fixation at the stage. A person fixated at oral stage, may lead to excessive oral behavior like eating, smoking and drinking. A person fixated at anal stage may be abnormally concerned with cleanliness and orderliness (obsessive compulsive neuroses).

For Freud the first six years are critical for personality development what happens to individual in the later life is fashioned during the child’s first six years.

(C) **Topographical Description of Psyche or Levels of Consciousness**

Mind is a function of body; it does not exist apart from the body. It is the sum total of the various mental processes or activities. Mental processes can be conscious. Unconsciousness or preconscious.

(a) **Conscious**

As per Freud, the conscious part of the mind consists of those mental activities of which we are aware, such as thoughts feelings, and sensations. It functions only when the individual is awake. It directs the individual as he behaves in a rationale way.
(b) Unconscious

It is by far the largest part of the mind. It includes our repressed desires, our fears and phobias, for which we do not know the reason and many others. Material stored in the unconscious has a powerful influence on our thoughts or feelings (unconscious motivation)

(c) Preconscious or Subconscious

It is the part of the mind in which ideas and reactions are stored and partially forgotten. It also prevents certain unacceptable, disturbing unconscious memories from reaching the conscious mind. Material from the subconscious can be brought to the conscious, if the concentrates on recall.

1.2.9.2 Neo-freudian Theories

First to be considered are a loose group of theorists, most of them European immigrants to the USA following world war II, who took psychoanalytic thought in more accessible and socially - engaged directions. Erich Fromm, for example, wedded Freudian thinking about the formation of character with sociological and political ideas about human freedom and the good society. In his work, he proposed that people’s need extend beyond the Freudian drives to include loving relatedness to theory and a sense of identity. He further argued that many social and political arrangements distort or fail to satisfy our basic needs, and that people often go along with their own oppression out of a fear of freedom and the insecurity it brings.
Fromm wrote popular books extending psychoanalytic ideas into the study of society and harassed them to the cause of progressive reform. In similar fashion, Karen Horney wrote a number of widely-read books - some of them verging on self-help manuals - that gave a larger role to social forces in mental life than Freud tended to allow. Both authors argued that social conflict - conflict between people or between people and their wider social environments - was as important for personality development and behavior as the intrapsychic conflict that Freud emphasized. Many of Horney’s most significant contributions involved challenged to Freud’s questionable views on female sexuality and development, including forceful critiques of the concept of penis envy. Rather than envying and feeling inferior to men on anatomical grounds. She argued, many women suffer more from an over-emphasis on love and a general lack of confidence. Homey offered revisionist accounts of several other Fredian concepts viewing needs for security and warmth as closer to the truth of human motivation than Freud’s instinctual drives. Similarly, she attributed human misery to helplessness, isolation and neurotic needs for approval, achievement, and power rather than to compromise between wishes and super-ego prohibitions. Although she retained the core psychoanalytic commitment to the centrality of unconscious processes and conflict, it is clear that she and her fellow ne-freudians have traveled a considerable theoretical distance from the master.

1.2.9.2.1 Ego Psychology

Ego psychology was another primarily American development in psycho-analytic theory. Its main theoretical emphasis was on the functioning of the ego, a structure often described by Freud as at the mercy of the drives and responsible for the irrationality that repression and other defense mechanisms often generated. Ego psychologists such as Heinz Hartmann, Robert White and George Klein gave a stronger role to the ego, presenting it as a source of psychological strength and potentially mature defense, and seeing in it a capacity to adapt to the demands of the outside world rather than merely resolving the mind’s inner tensions. In addition to their emphasis on the adaptive capacities of the ego, some of the ego’s functions were relatively independent of psychic conflict, comprising the ego’s conflict-free sphere.’ The ego even had its own intrinsic drive towards competent mastery to tasks, rather than simply finding ways to channel sexual and aggressive impulse in socially acceptable and prudent ways, as Freud has proposed.

As their name suggests many ego psychologists were in fact, psychologists. This may not seem so surprising, but it has to be understood that at the time most psycho-analyst were medical doctors. This was especially the case in the USA, whose main psychoanalytic association uncharacteristically should not be restricted to those with
medical training. The presence of psychologists in their ranks led. The ego psychologists to be more open to mainstream academic psychology than other schools of psychoanalysts. Consequently, ego psychologists made some of the first attempts to submit. Psychoanalytic hypotheses to systematic empirical tests. They also conducted psychological research in the trait psychology tradition by studying individual differences in ‘cognitive style’ klein, for example, proposed that how people typically perceive their environment was as important for understanding their behavior as their drives, defenses, and super-ego structures. He found that people differ systemically in their attentiveness to the detail of their environment, some seeing it in a relatively diffuse and impressionistic way and others focusing on the detail, sometimes at the expense of perceiving its broader context. The ego psychologists, in short, brought to psychoanalysis a greater appreciation of cognition, of adaptation to the environment, and of the need for empirical, psychological investigation.

1.2.9.3 Interpersonal Theory of Harry Stack Sullivan (1892-1949)

Harry Stack Sullivan is a US psychiatrist who developed a theory of psychiatry based on interpersonal relationships. He believed that anxiety and other psychiatric symptoms arise in fundamental conflicts between the individual and his human environment and that personality development also takes place by a series of interactions with other people. According to him personality is a pure entity, “an illusion”, which can not be observed or studied apart from interpersonal situations; it is not the person. The organization of personality consists of interpersonal rather than intraphysic events. Personality manifests itself in the person’s behavior in relation to other individuals. People do not need to be present. They may be illusionary or not-existent figures. Perceiving, recalling, thinking, imaging and all other psychological processes are interpersonal in nature.

Sullivan emphasized that society is the actual creator of people’s personalities. The human being does not exist as a simple personality; its personality can only exist in relation to others. A person’s formative period of development is important to the
personality. If one lives in an unstable environment his or her personality will be maladjusted. Life consists of interwoven tensions from the beginning up to the later stage of existence. As a person matures, he or she learns through dynamism to reduce tensions using the self-system, personification and cognitive experiences.

Dynamism is used by Sullivan to refer to a typical pattern of behavior. It may relate to either to specific zones of the body or to tensions and how it interacts with the environment. Most dynamisms serve the purpose of satisfying the basic needs of the organisms. There are different types of dynamisms: Malevolence, Intimacy, lust and self-system.

Malevolence is the disjunctive dynamism of evil and hatred, defined as a feeling of living among one’s enemies. There children who become malevolent have much difficulty giving and receiving tenderness or being intimate with other people. Intimacy, on the other hand, is the conjunctive dynamism marked by a closed personal relationship between two people of equal status. It facilitates interpersonal development while decreasing both anxiety and loneliness. In contrast to both malevolence and intimacy, lust is an isolating dynamism. It is a self-centered need that can be satisfied in the absence of an intimate interpersonal relationship. Lust is based solely on sexual gratification and requires no other person for its satisfaction. Lastly is the self-system. It is the most inclusive of all dynamisms is the self-system or the pattern of behavior that protects us against anxiety and maintains our interpersonal security. The self-system is a conjunctive dynamism but because its primary purpose is to protect the self from anxiety, it tends to stifle the personality change. One security operation is the dissociation which includes all those experiences that we block from awareness.

1.2.9.3.1 Personifications

Another concept introduced by Sullivan is personification. One of the structures of personality. He believed that people acquire certain images of self and other throughout the developmental stages. Subjective perceptions are referred to as personifications. There are three categories. Bad mother, good mother, me. personifications and eidetic personifications.

The bad-mother personification grows out of infant’s experiences with a nipple that does not satisfy their hunger needs. Later on, infants acquire a good-mother personification as they become mature enough to recognize the tender and cooperative behavior of the mothering one. Later on, these two personifications combine to form a complex and contrasting image of a real mother.

The me personification is acquired by children during infancy. There are three types bad-me which grows from experiences of punishment and disapproval, the good-me
result from experiences with reward and approval and the not-me, which allows a person to dissociate the experiences related to anxiety.

The last type is the eidetic personification which takes about imaginary playmates that the preschool-aged children often have. These imaginary friends enable children to have a safe, secure relationship with another person, even though the person is imaginary.

1.2.9.3.2 Developmental Epochs

Another similarity between Sullivan’s theory and that of Freud’s is the belief that childhood experiences determine, to a large degree, the adult personality. Sullivan also recognized three levels of cognition ways of perceiving things, prototaxic, parataxic and syntaxic. It refers to the experiences that are urological and nearly impossible to accurately communicate to others. Lastly syntaxes consist of experiences that can be accurately communicated to others children become capable of syntaxes language at about 12-18 months of age when words begin to have the same meaning for them that they do for others.

He also saw interpersonal development as taking place over seven stages from infancy to mature adulthood. Personality changes can take place at any time but are more likely to occur during transitions between stages. These are infancy, childhood, Juvenile era, preadolescence, Early adolescence, late adolescence and adulthood.

Sullivan asserted the importance and its effect on human development. His personality theory emphasized that interaction is the foundation of personality. From birth to the later stages, one is always in contact with other personalities, the interaction may take place with a living person or a fictional character and can even operate in dreams and images.

Sullivan’s Developmental Epochs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infancy 0-1 Year</th>
<th>From birth to about age one, the child begins the process of developing, but Sullivan did not emphasize the younger years to near the importance as Freud.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Childhood 1 to 5 Year</td>
<td>The development of Speech and improved communication is key in this stage of development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvenile 6 to 8 Year</td>
<td>The main focus as a juvenile is the need for playmates and the beginning of healthy socialization.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Preadolescence 9 to 12 Year

During this stage, the child’s ability to form a close relationship with a peer is the major focus. This relationship will later assist the child in feeling worthy and likable, without this ability, forming the intimate relationships in late adolescence and adulthood will be difficult.

### Early Adolescence

The onset of puberty changes this need for friendship to a need for friendship to a need for sexual expression. Self worth will often become synonymous with sexual attractiveness and acceptance by opposite sex peers.

### Late Adolescence 18 to 22 or 23

The need for friendship and need for sexual expression get combined during late adolescence. In this stage a long term relationship becomes the primary focus. Conflicts between parental control and self-expression are common place and the overuse of selective inattention in previous stages can result in a skewed perception of the self and the world.

### Adulthood Ages 23 on

The struggles of adulthood include financial security, career and family. With success during previous stages, especially those in the adolescent years, adult relationships and much needed socialization become more easier to attain without a solid background, into personal conflicts that result in anxiety become more common place.

### 1.2.9.4 Theory of Arnold Buss and Robert Plomin

Arnold Buss (1924) and Robert Plomin (1948), both working at the university of colorado at the time, took a different approach. If some aspect of behavior or personality is supposed to have a genetic, inborn basis, we should find it more clearly in infants than in adults.

So Buss and Plomin decided to study infants plus since identical twins have the same genetic inheritance, we should see them sharing any genetically based aspects of personality. If we compare identical twins with fraternal twins (who are simply brothers or sisters, genetically speaking), we can pick out things that are more likely genetic from things that are more likely due to the learning babies do in their first few months.
Buss and Plomin asked mothers of twin babies to fill out questionnaires about their babies behavior and personality. Some babies are identical and others fraternal using statistical techniques similar to factor analysis, they separated out which descriptions were more likely genetic from which were more likely learned. They found four dimensions of temperament.

(i) Emotionality - Impassiveness

How emotional and excitable were the babies? Some were given to emotional outbursts of distress, fear and anger-others were not. This was their strongest temperament dimension.

(ii) Sociability - Detachment

How much did the babies enjoy or avoid, contact and interaction with people? Some babies are 'people people' others are 'loners.'

(iii) Activity-Lethargy

How vigorous, how active, how energetic were the babies? Just like adults some babies are always on the move, fidgety busy and some are not.

(4) Impulsivity - Deliberateness

How quickly did the babies 'change gears' move from one interest to another? Some people quickly act upon their urges, others are more careful and deliberate.

The last one is the eakest of the four, and in the original research showed up only in boys. That doesn’t mean girls can’t be impulsive or deliberate - only that they seemed to learn their style, while boys seem to come one way or the other straight from the womb. But their later research found the dimension in girls as well, just not quite so strongly. It is interesting that impulse problems such as hyperactivity and attention deficit are more common among boys than girls, as if to show that, while girls can be taught to sit still and pay attention, some boys cannot.

1.2.9.5 R.D. Laing’s Theory of Family Therapy (1927-1989)
R. D. Laing, was a British psychoanalyst, social phenomenologist, radical psychiatrist and existential philosopher. He is often associated with the anti-psychiatry movement although, like many of his contemporaries also critical of psychiatry. He made a significant contribution to the ethics of psychology.

Laing’s theory has been generally characterized as existential or social phenomenology, but his theory is very consistent with a systemic orientation and communication theory. Laing’s impact on the field of family therapy has been largely overlooke, though many of his ideas resonate with the current state of the field.

Major influences from psychiatry include Harry Stack Sullivan, who developed interpersonal psychiatry that is a forerunner of current family therapy theory. Laing was also very much linked with those that were early researchers and theory developers for the family therapy such as Gregory Bateson and Don D. Jackson. A consistent reference of Laing to the double bind theory, as well as reference from Bateson and Jackson too many of Laing’s ideas helps to establish further this linkage.

Laing focused intently and uncompromisingly on the existential context of person rather than solely on intrapsychic phenomena. His constant focus on the interpersonal aspects of experience gave rise to an emphasis on family relations. This emphasis on family relationships can be seen countless times through Laing’s writings. Laing in his presentation of ideas often used experiences from his own family.

Many of the early family therapists cite Laing as a resource and hold him in high esteem. Laing openly cites the Bateson groups as influencing his work. Laing state I’ve been working with families and continue to be involved with different sorts of family systems and social systems, which further indicates his connectedness with the field of family therapy, however neglected by the mainstream of the field.

**1.2.9.6 Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy of Ellis (1913-2007)**

Albert Ellis, the father of cognitive-behavioral therapy and founder of Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT), discovered that people’s beliefs strongly affected their emotional functioning. In particular certain irrational beliefs made people feel depressed, anxious or angry and led to self-defeating behaviors.
When Ellis presented his theory in the mid-1950’s (Ellis, 1962), the role of cognition in emotional disturbance had not been fully addressed by the field of psychology. Ellis developed REB theory and therapy in reaction to what he saw as the inadequate techniques of psychoanalysis and behaviorism. He attributed the deficiency in the two camps’ techniques to their conceptualization of personality and emotional disturbance. Ellis felt that by ignoring the role thinking played in emotional disturbance both psychoanalytic and behavior theory failed to explain how humans originally became disturbed and how they remained disturbed.

The world ‘belief’ means a conviction in the truth, actuality, or validity of something. So a belief is a thought with an emotional component (conviction) and a factual component (truth, actuality or validity). Beliefs can be either positive or negative. Having a belief is not necessarily a bad thing, however, when one believes in something that is false, a negative belief tend, to become what Ellis called on ‘irrational’ belief. Irrational beliefs are not friendly to happiness and contentment and are definitely unhelpful for getting one’s basic desires for love and approval, comfort and achievement as success meant.

- **Core Irrational Beliefs**

- **Demandingness or Absolutism** - Inflexible, dogmatic extreme beliefs signaled by words such as should, must, have to and need to.

- **Demand for love and Approval** - from nearly everyone one finds important. • **Demand for Comfort** - or nearly no frustration or discomfort.

When someone hold one of these irrational beliefs, they also tend to hold one or a combination of the following irrational beliefs.

- **Awfulization** - refers to 100% disaster zing beliefs signaled by such words as disaster, horrible or awful, and catastrophe.

- **Low Frustration Tolerance** - beliefs signaled by words such as intolerable, can’t stand it, and too hard.

- **Global - Rating** - Beliefs in which you condemn or blame your entire selfhood or someone else’s basic value in some important way Global rating is signaled by such words as loser, worthless, useless, idiot, stupid.

**1.2.9.6.1 ABCDE Model of Emotional Disturbance**

Albert Ellis thought people developed irrational beliefs in response to preferential goals being blocked. He set this up in an ABCDE model. A stands for Activating event or adversity. This is any event. It is just a fact ‘B’ refers to one’s irrational belief about the event at ‘A’. That belief then leads to ‘C’ the emotional and
behavioral consequences. ‘D’ stands for disputes or arguments against irrational beliefs. E stands for New effect or the new, more effective emotions and behaviors that result from more reasonable thinking about the original event.

1.2.9.6.2 Disputing Irrational Beliefs

It is important to use vigor or energy when disputing irrational beliefs. Disputing irrational beliefs into rational ones.

1.2.9.7 Cognitive Therapy of Aaron Beck

Albert Ellis is the grant father of cognitive-style therapies, Beck is the father. The influence of the two gentlemen on psychotherapy cannot be ignored.

Aaron Beck is still active as a professor at the university of Pennsylvania. He is also the director of the centre for the Treatment and Prevention of Suicide, and the President of Beck Institute for cognitive therapy and Research in Philaddphia, of which Dr. Judith Beck is the director.

Beck developed a form of therapy he called CT (Cognitive Therapy) - also known as CBT or cognitive behavioral therapy which has a number of commonalities with Albert Ellis’s RET.

Cognitive therapy is based on the idea that many psychological problems ultimately derive from cognitive ‘error’, especially regarding one’s self one’s world, and one’s future. In conversational style, the therapist helps the patient explore and develop better approaches to life’s problems. Among the original thinking errors Beck discovered were over generalization, minimization of positives, and maximization of negatives.

Originally, BEck applied his methods to depression and suicidal thoughts, but he and his students have since expanded their range to include anxiety disorders, personality disorders, and even schizophrenia.
1.2.9.8 Theory of Kurt Goldstein (1878-1965)

(i) Biography Theory

Kurt Goldstein was born on 6 November, 1878 in Kattowic upper silesia, Poland. Which formed at that time a part of Germany. After attending the local public school, he went to the humanistic Gymnasium in Breslau. At the universities of Breslau and Heidelberg, he studied medicine under carl wernick, who stimulated his interest in aphasia, graduating M.D. in 1903. He then became a prst-doctoral assistant at the Frankfurt neurological institute, where he praticed comparative neurology in the neuropathogical laboratory under Ludwing Edinger. In 1906, he moved to konigsberg, where he worked in psychiatry and neurology, and became acquainted with the wizburg school of exprimental psychology. Which emphasizes imageless thought.

In 1914, Goldstein returned to Frankfurt as Edinger’s first assistant. He soon established his own institute for research on the after-effects of Brain Injury. His very productive collaboration with Adhemar Glb, an exprimntal psychologist whose strong point was visual perception, also started here. Goldstein succeeded Edinger in the neurology chair at Frankfurt. In 1930, he left Frankfurt for Berlin, where he became director of a large neuropsychiatric clinic and a professor of the university in the department of Neurology and Psychiatry.

In 1933, Goldstein was denounced to the Nazis by an assistant and charged with leftist sympathis and jewishness. Together with Eva Rothman, a former student who was to become his wife, he suffer many places. In 1965, Goldstein suffered a stroke with right hemiplegia and global aphasia. He died on September 19, three weeks post onset, levaing over 200 publications, mostly in German and English and Spanning six decades. They include work on the relationship between ciramscribed cottical injuries
and sensory and motor defects, problems of perceptual disturbance and agnosia, cerebellar function and its relation to tonus, localization on the cerebral cortex and the problem of aphasia.

(ii) Theory of Aphasia

Background - Chaos

There are different opinions in the late 19th century Bismarck era in Germany. In line with different political thinking, there was a sharp division between localizers of the Fritsch and Hitzing creed, and antilocalizers who followed Goltz.

Localization held the field in the 19th century, but the antilocalizationists raised their heads again in the 20th century, with Kurt Goldstein as one of their main representatives. The alternative Goltzian view reemerged, stressing compensation, adaptation cooperation, and the activity of the organism as a whole rather than boundaries, order and regularity of brain functions.

(iii) The Language Module

Goldstein thought that it is a disturbance of the language module, the ‘spruced’, which gives rise to true aphasia. Goldstein reclassified aphasic phenomena using the following main criteria.

1. Disturbance of peripheral language mechanisms or of the instrumentalities of speech - pure motor and sensory aphasia. Inner speech and the periphery are intact but interrupted from each other.

2. Disturbance of the central language system or inner speech - central aphasia. The ‘sprachfeld’ itself is disturbed.

3. Disturbance of non-linguistic cognitive abilities. Either the conceptual field itself or its, connected to the sparachfeld is disturbed.

(iv) The Organismic Approach

The basic idea behind this approach is that an organism does not consist of eyes, legs, a brain etc. but that an organism with eyes, legs, etc. when anything happens to a part it affects the whole which reacts in its entirely to the changes situation.

(v) Single case study

Goldstein’s breach with the classical reduction of schematic psychological functions to specific brain centers led him away from an easy and rigid classification of patients into aphasic syndromes. He recognized the danger of examining the patients through the filter of one’s particular brain-and-language diagram and of neglecting to ask a wider variety of questions including the right ones for the patient and for a more adequate theory. This together, with his organismic approach - for all the esoteric
subjectivism it may contain-led him to pay close attention to the individual patient in very many performance and situations.

1.2.9.9 The attachment theory of John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth

Attachment theory is the joint work of Bowlby and many Ainsworth (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). Drawing on concepts from ethology, cybernetics, information processing, developmental psychology, and psychoanalysts, John Bowlby formulated the basic tenets of the theory Mary Ainsworth’s innovative methodology not only made it possible to test some of Bowlby’s ideas empirically but also helped expand the theory itself and is responsible for some of the new directions it is now taking. Ainsworth contributed the concept of the attachment figure as a secure base from which an infant can explore the world. In addition, she formulated the concept of maternal sensitivity to infant signals and its role in the development of infant–mother attachment patterns.

The ideas now guiding attachment theory have a long developmental history. Although Bowlby and Ainsworth independently of each other during their early careers, both were influenced by Freud and other psychoanalytic thinkers - directly in Bowlby’s case, indirectly in Ainsworth’s.

1.2.9.10 Theory of Henry Murray (1893-1988)
Henry Murray’s theory was strongly influenced by Freud’s psychoanalytic theory. However, for Murray the id includes impulses that are acceptable to the self and society. The super-ego is an internalized subsystem that acts within the idealized picture of the self. It is a set of personal ambitions that the individual aspires for.

The first principle in Murray’s personology, which is the study of personality, is that personality is rooted in the brain. The individual’s cerebral physiology guides and governs every aspect of personality. Everything on which personality depends exists in the brain, including feeling states, conscious and unconscious memories, beliefs attitudes, fears and values.

The second principle involves the idea of tension reduction. Murray agreed with Freud and other thoughts that people act to reduce psychological personology and psychological tension, but this does not mean we strive for a tension free state. It is the process of acting to reduce tension that is satisfying, according to Murray, rather than the attainment of a condition free of all tension. Murray believed that a tension free existence is itself a source of distress we need excitement, activity and movement of all which involve increasing not decreasing tension. We generate tension in order to have the satisfaction of reducing it. Murray believed the idea state of human nature involves having a certain level of tension to reduce.

A third principle is that an individual’s personality continues to develop over time and is constructed of all the events that occur during the course of that person’s life. Therefore, the study of a person’s past is of great. Importance Murray emphasized. The uniqueness of each person while recongnizing similarities among all people. As he saw it, an individual human being is like no other person, like some other people, and like every other person.

He also theorized different stages of personality these are 1) childhood, adolescence and young adulthood 2) Middle years 3) senescence (final era) during the first stage, new structural compositions emerge and multiply. The middle years by marked by conservative decompositions of the already emerged structures and functions. During the final stage, senescence, the capacity to form new compositions and decompositions phases while the atrophy of existing forms functions increases within each period, there are numerous smaller programs of cerebral and experiential events that run the guidance of genetically controlled maturational processes.

When the effects of infantile experiences upon later behavior are clear and extensive, the individual is said to have a complex. Murray also mentioned five complexes. He also categorized different type of

Murray also used the word press : the press is an environmental force that interacts with needs to determine behavior. He also talked about ‘thema’ and ‘needs’. Thema is
an interactive behavioral unit. It involves the interaction between the press and the need that is operating. The needs explain the motivation and direction of behavior he created 20 needs of people. He also made the thematic apperception test.

Murray believed that human behavior may be understood through the processes of satisfying motives and needs. Personality can be described generally in terms of these needs and the ways they interact with environmental forces.

1.2.9.11 Theory of Eysenck on personality dimension (1916-1967)

Eysenck proposes that the study of personality has two interlocking aspects the first aspect is taxonomic or descriptive which focuses on the units to be used in summarizing the ways in which individuals differ. The second aspects is concerned with casual elements, and it is here that Eysenck makes one of this distinctive contributions. He recognizes that critical role played by learning and environmental forces. He also stated that the effect of a given situation varies for different individuals. Eysenck’s approach to personality is virtually unique in that it specifies a casual chain in which a biological substrate is responsible for individual differences on fundamental dimensions of personality. Behavior results from a person’s positions on these dimensions, combined with the circumstances to which he or she is exposed. That is behavior typically reflects an interaction of person tendencies and environmental forces.

Eysenck’s model of personality includes three basic typological dimensions : 1) Introversion versus extroversion 2) Neuroticism versus stability and 3) Psychoticism versus impulse control. He concludes that his three factors consistency emerge from factor analytic studies of personality questionnaires. Both Eysenck and advocates of Big-five model includes extroversion and Neuroticism as basic dimensions. Eysenck
accounts for the discrepancy between his model and the Big-Five by arguing that the Big-Five dimensions of agreeableness and conscientiousness are traits at the third level that combine as part of his type of psychoticism. He regards the fifth of Big Five dimensions that is openness to experience and culture as a cognitive dimension that does not fit with his own temperament dimensions. He regards all three dimensions as essentially normally distributed within the population following figure illustrates the relationship between his three types and their defining traits.

Trait making up the type concept of

a) Neuroticism b) Extroversion and C) Psychoticism.

This figure demonstrates Eysenck’s belief that a model of personality must be hierarchical. He proposes hierarchy containing for levels. At the bottom level are specific responses. At the second level are habitual responses, which include frequent or recurring behaviour. The third level is that of traits, which are defined in terms of intercorrelated. Sets of habitual responses. A person who is sociable for example talks before people, enjoys talking with people like to go to parties and so on. At the highest level of generality are types, which is turned are defined as Intercorrelated sets of traits for example the psychoticism type assumes the traits of aggressive, impulsive and antisocial. Eysenck identifies the three types using factor analysis. In factor analysis a term of trait is that a primary factor and a type is second order factor. Eysenck’s trait, corresponds to cattel’s source trait, and Eysenck’s type corresponds to cattel’s second order factor. Eysenck proposes that PEN structure individual differences in temperament or the non-cognitive domain of personality. He acknowledges intelligence as a separate characteristic that structures individual differences within the cognitive domain.
A) The description of temperament: Extroversion, Neuroticism

Eysenck places his model in historical perspective by describing how two of the major personality types, extroversion and Neuroticism, can be traced back through four humors by the Greek writers Hippocrates and Galen; the classical theory of humors was first described by Hippocrates. Building on earlier work by Empedocles and the pythagoreans Hippocrates described four humors (Blood, Phylegm, black bile and yello bile).

These humors in turn were reflections of four cosmic elements (earth, water, air and fire) each of which had a particular quality (cold for air, heat for fire, moist for water and dry for earth.) Hippocrates proposed that the way in which these humors were combined determined an individual's health and character.

B) Carl Jung (1875-1961)

The final contribution in the evolution of Eysenck’s descriptive taxanomy comes from Carl Jung (1921). In 1921 Jung had proposed that introversion - extroversion is a basic attitude pair, where the introvert is oriented toward the outside world. In addition, the extrovert is sociable, changeable and carefree furthermore Jung maintained that introversion and extroversion were likely lead to different forms of mental illness in the face of stress. Introverts are susceptible to psych sthenia, a syndrome associated with nervousness. Free floating anxiety, phobia or obsessive - compulsive neurosis, extraverts by contrast, are most likely to develop hysterical disorders - physical symptoms for which no organic basic exists.

Jung’s model also included an implicit contrast between neuroticism and normality such that his full model includes two independent dimensions of introversion versus extroversion and neuroticism versus normality. This model corresponds to Eysenck’s two dimension personality space. In which introversion - extroversion and neuroticism - stability serve as the defining axes. Eysenck’s two dimensional model provided by Hippocrates, Galen, Kant and Jung.

Eysenck has developed a series of self-report questionnaires to measure these two dimensions. The earliest of these was the M (Maudsley personality Inventory, 1959)
This was replaced by the EPI 1965 (Eysenck personality Inventory) and later by the EPA 1975 (Eysenck personality Questionnaire) and EPQ-R.

In the EPQ manual, Eysenck, provides the following description of the typical extrovert and Introvert.

The typical extrovert is sociable, like parties has many friends, need to have people to talk to and does not like reading or studying by himself. He craves excitement and is generally an impulsive individual. He is found of practical jokes, always has a ready answer and generally likes change: he is carefree, easy-going, optimistic and likes to 'laugh and be merry'. He prefers to keep moving and doing things, tends to be aggressive and lose his temper easily. Altogether his feelings are not kept under tight control, and he is not always, a reliable person.

The typical introvert is a quite retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books than people, he is reserved and distant except to intimate friend. He tends to plan ahead. 'looks before he leaps' and distrust the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement. Takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness and likes a well-order mode of life. He keeps his feelings under close control, seldom behaves in an aggressive manner, and does not lose his temper easily. He is reliable somewhat pessimistic, and places great value on ethical standard (H.J. Eysenck and Eysenck 1975).

C) Eysenck Describes

The typical high N score is being an anxious, worrying individual, moody and frequently depressed. He is likely to sleep badly, and to suffer from various psychosomatic disorders. He is overly emotional, reacting too strongly to all sorts of stimuli, and finds it difficult to get back on an even keep after each emotionally arousing experience. His strong emotional reactions interface with his proper adjustment, making him react in irrational, sometimes rigid way. If the high N individual has to be described in one word, one might say that he is a worrier, his main characteristic is a constant preoccupation with things that might go wrong and a strong emotional reaction of anxiety to these thoughts. The stable individual on the other hand tends to respond emotionally only slowly and generally weakly, and to return to baseline quickly after emotional arousal, he is usually calm, even-tempered, controlled and unworried (H.J. Eysenck and Eysenck 1975) of an individual is a function of interaction between constitutional characteristic and experienced environment.

In more recent years, Eysneck has expanded his two dimensional descriptive model by adding a third descriptive dimension of psychoticism.
The psychoticism dimension assumes the continuum from normal behavior to criminal and psychopathic behavior to schizophrenic and other psychotic states in which contact is lost with reality and there is severally disordered cognitions, affect and behavior.

His psychoticism dimension provides a useful dimension in describing unsocialized, unusual and poorly controlled behavior - In nondinical individuals. Eysenck proposes that the person with high score on psychoticism (p) is best understood as having inherited a vulnerability to develop psychotic disorders in the face of developmental stress.

A high score, then may be described as being solitary not caring for people, he is often troublesome, not fitting in anywhere. He may be cruel and inhumane, lacking in feeling and empathy, and altogether insensitive. He is hostile to others, even his own kith and kin, and aggressive, even to loved ones. He has a liking for odd and unusual things, and a disregard for danger. he likes to make fools of other people, and to upset them.

This is a description of adult high P score as far as children are concerned, we obtain a fairly congruent picture of an odd, isolated troublesome child, glacial and lacking in human feelings for his fellow-being and for animals, aggressive and hostile, even to near and dear ones. Such children try to make up for lack of feeling by indulging in sensation-seeking 'arousal jags' without thinking of the dangers involved. Socialization is a concept which is relatively alien to both adults and children, empathy, feelings of guilt, sensitivity to other people are notions which are strange and unfamiliar to them. (H. J. Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975)

Eysenck's description of neuroticism has remained relatively stable across time, but he has modified his description of extroversion. Extroversion originally was conceptualized in terms of the combination of the traits of sociability and impulsivity (S.B.G. Eysenck and Eysenck 1963). With the introduction in the EPQ of a scale for psychoticism, however, the trait of impulsivity was shifted to contribute to psychoticism. In the process of making this shift, another component of impulsivity called venturesome was articulated and this became a component trait for extraversion. Venturesomeness is an interest in dangerous and thrilling activities. It is common with sensation-sectional trait that contributes to extroversion.

1. It is based on a hierarchical description of the temperamental component of personality in terms of specific traits plus the three more general typological dimensions of psychoticism, extroversion and neuroticism.

2. Eysenck provides casual explanation for observed differences on the three typologies.
According to his bio-social model, observed behavior is a function of the interaction between the biological factors and the environment to which an individual is exposed.

3. Eysenck's model is structured in a manner that affords experimental test of derivative hypothesis.

1.2.9.12 Kernberg's theory of Borderline personality (1928-1981)

Kernberg's theory is based on borderline personality. Kernberg describes the three level of personality organization.

Diagram B: Kernberg's Dimensional Model

I. The Neurotic Level

In Kernberg's view, the healthiest level of personality organization is called the neurotic level of organization. People whose personalities are organized at the neurotic level have 1) Intact reality testing, 2) consistent sense of self and of other people, and 3) generally rely on mature defense. Mechanisms when stressed. People with a neurotic level of personality organization have a good sense of reality, so they can distinguish between what is real from what is not. For instance, they don't hear voices that are not there or believe other people are trying to harm them when this is not the case. They have a good sense of their own strengths and weaknesses. They know what their values are. They have a pretty consistent sense of purpose, direction and life goals. They are able to deeply commit to and about, other people and view other people accurately, taking into account both their strengths and weaknesses. They
know what their values are. They have a pretty consistent sense of purpose, direction and life goals. They are able to deeply commit to and care about other people and view other people accurately, taking into account both their strengths and weakness. They successfully cope with stress in an effective and adaptive manner.

II. The Psychotic level

At the opposite end of the personality organization dimension are severally disorganized personalities. People with this level of personality organization have 1) severely compromised reality testing, 2) an inconsistent sense of self and others, 3) utilize immature defenses. Because their reality testing is compromised these people might hear or see things that are not really there or have delusions such as being convinced that they have special powers. They may believe they receive special messages through the television. They don't have a clear sense of themselves and the boundary. As such, they have great difficulty distinguishing between experiences and perceptions that originate within their own mind, from those that originate in the real world. Their ability to cope with stress is extremely poor and they do not function well in society.

III. The borderline level

Along the middle of this dimension are personalities organized at the borderline level. At this level, reality testing is generally intact. However, people with a borderline level of personality organization have a fragmented sense of self and others. Because they possess a fragmented sense of self is the most significant and defining feature of the borderline level and results in severe and repetitive problems with interpersonal relationships.

In addition, people with a borderline level of personality organization tend to rely on primitive defense mechanisms. Therefore, they don't manage stressful situations very well. One of the main primitive personality organization is called 'splitting'. This defense mechanism is characterized by a tendency to view the world and other people in a polarized manner, as 'all good' or 'all bad' flipping back and forth between these two extremes based on moment-to-moment perceptions.

It is important to bear in mind that in Kernberg's model the term 'borderline' is used in its original psychodynamic sense to describe the middle ground (or the borderline) between neurotic and psychotic personality organization. It should not be confused with our modern use of the word 'borderline' that references the DSM diagnosis of borderline personality disorder. In kernberg's model, the term borderline disorder is a much broader term that includes any severe personality disorder such as borderline narcissitic. Antisocial, schizoid and schizotypal personality disorders.
Healthy people might have trouble visualizing what it is like to live with this 'borderline' level of personality organization - healthy people understand that who they are is not determined by a particular action, in a particular moment in time. They know that if they behave poorly one minute, this one bad behavior in this one moment of time, does not define who they are. People with a fragmented sense of self are not so fortunate. If they just did something 'bad' they literally become a bad person. When this occurs, they can no longer access any of their good qualities. This is a terribly painful state to endure.

The same pattern of polarization holds true of their experience of other people. Based on whatever their current emotional state is at the time.

1.2.9.13 McDougall and behaviorism (1871-1938)

In the early 20th century British-born American psychologist William McDougall popularized a theory of instinct based on the idea that behavior has internet purpose, in the sense that it is aimed at the attainment of a goal. This purposiveness was the expression of a subjectively experienced urge that stemmed from an emotional source of present at birth and hence constituted an instinct. Thus, each qualitatively distinct emotional state supported a separate instinct, such as hunger, thirst, fear, aggressiveness, sexual desire, parental affection, and so on. With the publication of McDougall's book an introduction to social psychology (1908) his purposive psychology caught on to such an extent that explanation in terms of instance became a fashion in the social sciences, including economics. However, emotions proved to be more shifting sand than bedrock for the foundation of instinct.

In 1919 there emerged an anti-instinct revolt which opened with the publication of the paper 'Are there any instincts?' by American Psychologist knight Dunlap. Dunlap's answer to the question proposed by his paper was negative. In it he attacked McDougall for appealing to subjective purposiveness, which was beyond the reach of observation and hence scientific validation. Other behaviorist critics brought negative
evidence to bear on claims of innateness, in line with their assumption that all behavior, apart from the simplest reflexes, is moulded. By experience by and large the friends of instinct were outdo in debate with the behaviourists, who insisted on the priority of hard facts and experiments over what they regarded as vaguer conjecture. However, as McDougall's influence waned during the 1930, a new champion for the cause of instinct - what came to be known as classical ethology - emerged in continental Europe.

1.2.10 Personality Assessment

To assess the personality is very difficult but some methods are used for evaluation and measurement of personality traits.

I. Observational methods (Interview)

II. Personality inventories (Paper-pencil tests)

III. Projective Techniques

I. Interviews

Interview is one of the oldest ways of evaluating personality traits. It is face-to-face contact.

a) Types - (Two different settings)

The employment interviews in which they interviewer attempt to determine suitability of the person for employment.

Counseling interview

It is used to solve the problem of a person.

b) Other types

1) Guided or structures interview

In this the interviewer will have a set of question. It goes according to the question and elicits answers.

2) Unguided or unstructured

The interviewer will ask questions depending upon the purpose of the interview.

3) Stress interview

The interviewer includes stress and sees how the interviewer responds.

4) Counseling interviewer

In this the clinician tries to get a wide range of the personal feelings and attitudes by getting him or her to talk about personal experiences. The
interviewer record not only what clients talk about but they talk about them from observation, the clinician attempts to construct the picture of person's major motives, the sources of conflict and area of poor adjustment.

A) Inventories

The most popular techniques are paper-pencil test in the form of questionnarie or inventory. It can be given to a large group of people. The psychologists have constructed a number of inventories.

I. MMPI

II. EPI

III. BAI

IV. CPI and so on

Questionnaire consists of questions or simple statements marked 'yes' or 'no', 'true' or 'false'. These questionnaires were first during World War I to help emotionally unstable army-men.

To quote few examples of statements

I consider myself a very nervous person.

I frequently feel moody and depressed.

The questionnaires can assess whether the individual is an extrovert and neurotic or normal etc.

I. Minnesota multiphasic personality inventory (MMPI)

The original MMPI has 566 statements or items for people to answer themselves. The items can be answered as true or false or can not say. It includes statements such as

"I enjoy books and magazines"

"Do you frequently feel sad?"

"In public places I sometime see people whispering about me?"

Sometimes MMPI is used in diagnosing certain psychological problems. It is also used to assess the personality trait of people who are not disturbed. It is the most widely used test both for clinical and research purposes.

This test has been revised by NIMHANS and Mysore University. Prof. B. Krishnan revised the Mysore University questionnaire. This revised questionnaire has 100 questions only.
II. **Cattels' personality inventory (CPI)**

It is called 16 personality factors questionnaire (16 P.F.). Cattel and his associates used 4500 adjective applicable to human behaviour. Later they used 170 adjective such as cool-warm, trusty-suspicious, affected-emotionally stable, shy-bold, practical imagination etc.

**California Psychological inventory (CPI)**

This scale measures some evidence of genetic contribution to a large number of traits. It shows high correlation on monozygote twins than dizygote twins. For example achievement, intellectual efficiency etc.

III. **Projective Techniques**

The basic idea of these tests is that the way people respond to vague situations. It is often a projection of their own feelings and motives. They are intended to provide expression to unconscious impulses and other aspects of personality in which the test taker himself or herself not aware. The following tests are used -

a) **Rorschach Ink Blot Test**

b) **Thematic apperception Test (TAT)**

c) **Children apperception Test (CAT)**

d) **Sentence completion test**

e) **Word association test**

The description of the test are here,

a) **Rorschach Inkblot test** -

Herman Rorschach, a Swiss psychologist developed. This test which is a practical tool applied to study the unconscious factors of behavior and personality. It is based on the principle that every performance of a person is an expression of his total personality. In this, the subject is responding to ink blots.

The test consists of 10 cards. Some of the blots are coloured and some are in black and white. The subject is instructed to look at the inkblots one at a time and report everything seen on the inkblot card.

5 --> black and white

4 --> red and black

3 --> multi-colored

The first phase adapts free association and the second phase is inquiry. The responses are interpreted and analyzed as per significance of response.
The subject responses may be scored in terms of three categories.

Location
Does the response involve the entire inkblot or some small part?

Determinants
Is the subject responding to the shape, color or texture of the blot?

Content
What does the response represents?

b) Thematic apperception Test (TAT)

American psychologist Murray developed TAT during year 1930. It involves pictures of actual scenes rather than inkblots. It consists of 30 pictures from which the psychologist usually chooses a set for each person, which seems likely to elicit particularly relevant material. In TAT, a person is asked to make up a story about what is happening, what went before, what is going to happen and what the people identify themselves with one of the characters in the pictures and reveal their perception. The system of scoring and interpretation takes into account of hero of the story, conflicts of the hero, theme content, style of the story subjects, attitude towards authority and sex, emotional expressions and conclusion of the story etc.

c) Children apperception test (CAT)

Bellock and Bellock designed it CAT is used on children who have behavior and adjustment problems.

d) Sentence completion test

In this there are sentences, which are incomplete, and the individuals have to complete the sentence. For example,

My mother.....

When I am at a party.....

My friends......

On the basic of response given by the subject, the personality is analyzed.

e) Word association test

In this test there are number of selected words from which the examiner will present a series of words. One at a time to the subject and ask him to respond as quickly as possible with the first word that comes to his mind and the tone of feelings of his response may reveal things about his mind controlled and uncontrolled word association tests are available.
1.2.11 Issues and controversies in personality theory and research

The study of personality involves much more than the 'grand theories'. In fact many psychologists have become disenchanted with sweeping efforts to capture 'The whole person. In a single theory and have turned, instead, to focused. Research on specific issues in personality. To fill out our picture of personality psychology, we will consider two of these issues.

(A) GENES AND PERSONALITY

One is perhaps the oldest issue in psychology: nature versus nurture. Most of the theories considered so far emphasize the acquisition of personality after birth, consistent with this emphasis, a recent view of genetic research noted that "investigators who have studied..... Twins are unanimous in concluding that personality is more affected by environment than any other area of human functioning". Nonetheless some investigators have asked whether genetic endowment might not also play an influential role. The answer seems to be a cautious yes, but we are still trying to learn how much. Genes influence personality and the specific ways in which they make their mark.

a) Studies of temperament

One line of research concerns temperament the aspect of personality that includes mood, activity level and emotion. and the variability each studies with animals have shown that selective breeding can heighten or diminish characteristics like emotionality over successive generations twin studies with humans also seem to show a genetic influence.

B) THE PERSON - SITUATION CONTROVERSY

Another major issue in personality research is called the person situation controversy. It counters on one key question: to what extent is our behavior caused by characteristics inside of us and to what extent by characteristics of the situation in which we find ourselves? To examine this question. Let us focus on a key principle: when we think about people's behavior we often tend to reduce complex reality to a few simple generalities.

1.2.11 Importance of personality

Personality means characteristics and appearance of a person - pattern of thought, feeling, behavior, communication ability and physical features. A child inherits many personality traits from its parents. Personality of a person takes its basic formation in the beginning period of childhood. Its experiences in the family and the society are very crucial. Friends teachers and the environment of school have their own positive or negative impact. Adults need to be very careful while rearing a child because deep
scars on the psychology of a child may have permanent marks. To develop positive thinking in the child parents must relate to each other in a positive way.

With the help of good training a child or an adult can learn communication skills, different subjects, driving or computer operating similarly a training in personality development enhances the general as well as unique traits of a person. A teacher of personality development helps a person to get positive thought pattern, gain confidence, improve behavior, learn better communication and develop a healthy physique. So the importance of personality development in modern world is very important for everyone.

1.3 Self - Esteem

Self - Esteem is a way one feels about on self including the degree to which one possesses self-respect and self-acceptance. In order to an attitude of self-approved, a feeling of self worth is an important ingredient of mental health and loss of self-esteem and feeling of worthiness are common depressive symptoms.

Self-esteem is affected by a variety of influence ranging from formative childhood experiences in relation to our parents to our own standards or ideal self. For instance, individuals with high self esteem generally were brought up by parents who were very accepting of them expressed a lot of affection, and established firm but reasonable rules - all of which fosters a positive self-image.

Individuals with low self-esteem usually were brought up by parents who relied on parenting styles that were overly strict, overly permissive or inconsistent. Also, self-esteem is significantly influenced by our experiences of success and failure.

Self-esteem is the personal evaluation of ourselves and the resulting feeling of worth associated with our self concept so self-esteem is one of the most important aspects of the self-concept. So, I would like to discuss about self-concept.

1.3.1 Self-concept

During the process of growth and development every human individual acquires the awareness of his 'self'. He experiences his identify as some what different from that of others. The 'self' is a composite of several psychological states, impressions and feelings It includes impressions one has of his body. The image of his physical apperance and other tangible properties of his person. It further includes the conception 'one' has of himself of his traits and abilities, his tolls, including the possibilities of his future as well. One's attitudes and beliefs about himself, the convictions one has and the values one holds also form part of it. Jouard Landsman suggests that a person's self-concept comparisons of all the beliefs 'one' has about himself. All the assumptions 'one' has about his strenghts and weakness, including the
possibilities of his growth form part of one's self-concept along with the explicit
description of his habitual patterns of behavior and experiences. It is a fact that
human, nature is not fixed. Man has freedom of choice. Hence the self-concept is
much more prescriptive rather than descriptive. It is a matter of conviction and
commitment, it has powerful influence on one's actions. It is in this perspective that
combs and snugs suggests that every human being has a need to enhance his
phenomenological self. This need to enhance one's phenomenological self determines
his behavior.

The process of 'self-development' is a continuing and developing one. By the time one
reaches maturity, many of his view and attitudes regarding himself become
established. The striving for sel discovery and self fulfillment begins when one is a
little baby. By childhood, with the growth in the ability to remember. The past and to
anticipate the future through imagination. The self further grows. During adolescence
there emerges the sense of 'ones' own will. The individual assors his derives even
though they clash with the wished of others. During this period one acquires the
tendency to think for himself and to reach his own conclusions.

A person's attitudes regarding himself are influenced deeply by the attitudes others
have shown towards him in early stages of life. The way he is accpeted by others
influence his ability to accept himself gradually one acquires the conceptions of 'self
acceptance' and 'self rejection'. One with the sense of self-acceptance perceives
himself as a comfortable person. Retaining the ability to change, he is realistic about
himself, he asserts and makes free use of his endowments. He feels that he has the
right to live and to use his capacities and to develop his interests without constantatly
having to apologize or to feel guilty to be what he is. He has a good deal of
spontaneity. He allows himself the right to feel his own emotions, to enjoy things, to
feel gladness, anger fear, tenderness and love. He does not blame himself for having
the capacity to be angry or afraid.

On the other hand a self-ejecting persons is one who is not comfortable with himself.
He tends to blame himself. He has low self-worth a law regard for his right to be
himself. He may show contempt on himself. The self rejecting attitude may also
display by lack of freedom to try one's abilities. There is tendency to pretend or to
show off. Some time one's rigid attitude and abounding behavior lacking spontaneity
may also show self-rejection.

1.3.2 The nature of self

The nature of self is also persistent and prevalent in human thinking that questions
about its nature have been raised from time to time, we have the time honored
statement of Descartes 'I think' therefore, I am and the statement of F.H. Broadly
though not so well known but nonetheless significant. Besides that which at any moment is experiences, you have also the thing to which that experience belongs'. But we have to confirm ourselves to the nature of the social self.

G. Murphy says that the self is the individual as known to the individual, it is the way in which one perceives oneself. It is the center of anybody’s experience thoughts, emotions, attitudes, knowledge and sentiments. Even the most unselfish person may be described as having made the quality of selfness as a dominant part of his self image.

William James the American psychologist drew attention to the social components of the self. In the widest possible sense of man’s self is the sum total of all that he can call his, not only his body and his psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and works, his land bank account. All these thing give him the same emotions. If they wax and prosper, he feels triumphant, if they dwindle and die away, he feels cast-down not necessarily in the same degree, but in much the same way for all. Because of our gregariousness. James goes on to say a man has as many social values as there are individuals who recognize him as there are distinct groups of persons about whose opinions he cares. He generally shows a different groups’ The social nature of self came to be emphasized.

Baldwin stressed that the self is a product of social interaction. A man is a social outcome rather than a social unit, and therefore the main task of social psychology is to trace the growth and development of the individual in his constant interaction with his social environment. The social environment includes language, art, play, inventions and the like all of, which are necessary for the growth of the self.

Colley recognized that the personality of the individual is markedly influenced by his conception of his role in the social group, it is a social product emerging from the give and rake relation with others, and all the ideas, persons and activities with which the individual identifies himself are included in the self. Cooley coined the term ‘looking glass self’ by which he meant that the individual’s behavior is the reflection of 1) What he imagines he appears to be to other people 2) what he thinks judgement of the other person is regarding such appearance and 3) a result self feeling, such as pride or humiliation. Our self esteems depend on interaction with others, and we are socialized by a feeling for judgment of us help by others.

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 judgement of that appearance and some sort of self-feeling, such as pride or humiliation.

Margaret Mead on anthropologist emphasized the importance of role taking in the development of the self in children. The child identifies himself with his brothers,
sisters, parents, postman hawker and the like. He acts out their rote learns a large number of words, habits, attitudes and behavior of others and gradually a good part of them as his own. These become a part of his personality through experiences of different roles he develops his own general role, his self-image she takes over the concepts of ‘me’ and ‘I’ from William James argues that through experiences of different roles the child acquires the ‘me’ and becomes an object to himself in addition to the ‘I’ which is the subject, the actor in him making his personality unique and dynamic.

1.3.3 Self-Consistency

The characteristic tendency toward self consistency is best understood in relation to Carl Rogers (1980) view of phenomenal self. The self-concept develops in response to what Rogers calls conditions of worth that is instead of growing up in an atmosphere of unconditioned acceptance most of us feel we are loved and accepted only if we meet certain expectations and approvals. Whatever is acceptable to our parents and other significant persons in our lives becomes incorporated into our self-concept. In turn, over self-concept functions as a filter through which everything we see or hear passes.

When we experience something that is consistent with our self-concept but is not confirmed by our sensory reactions, we perceive and label our such experiences in a distorted fashion, as if they were part of us.

Experiences that are not consisted with our learned self concept are perceived as too threatening and are not even recognized as self experiences. Consequently they are not accurately perceived or labeled but are kept from awareness, either in part or in whole.

1.3.4 Core characteristics of the self-concept

Critics of the notion of self-concept complain that traditional psychology regards the self concept as a straight jacket, which once acquired during our formative year resists further efforts, at change. A more appropriate approach, they contend, would be to view the self concept as a loosely fitting garment that is continually being altered with experience. Actually there is some truth to both views.

Once established, the core of the self concept exhibits a high degree of stability, as seen in the consistent ways we perceive our selves over time peripheral aspects of the self can and often do, change rather quickly. But the core of the self which comprises those aspects of ourselves we regard as very important to us tends to perpetuate itself. Essentially the self concept functions as a filter through which everything we see or
hear passes. It thereby exerts a selective, circular influence on our experience, so that we tend to perceive, judge and act in ways that are consistent with our self-concept.

1.3.5 What is self-esteem?

One of the most important aspects of the self-concept is our self-esteem—the personal evaluation of ourselves and the resulting feeling of worth associated with our self-concept.

Self-esteem exerts a powerful influence on people’s expectations, their judgments about themselves and others, and their behavior. People with high self-esteem are willing to test the validity of their inferences about themselves. Having a high level of self-acceptance, they tend to be accepting of others, including those with different opinions than themselves and enjoy satisfying relationships with other people. They also expect to do well in accomplishing their tasks, try hard, and tend to be successful in their careers. They are inclined to attribute their success to their abilities and to make due allowance for circumstances in interpreting their failure. As a result, people with high self-esteem generally enjoy a great deal of self-confidence and have a realistic assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. In contrast, people with low self-esteem are generally less willing to put their own self-assessment further. Moreover, they tend to expect the worst, exert less effort or tasks especially, challenging, demanding ones, and achieve less success in their careers. Having low self-esteem, they are inclined to be overly sensitive toward social rejection, often cutting others down to size by constant criticism, and thereby alienating themselves. In turn, the preoccupation with rejection, imagined or real, further lowers their self-esteem, setting the stage for a vicious cycle of negative relationships.

Self-esteem can be defined in numerous ways. Most commonly, self-esteem is defined on the basis of two psychological processes: evaluation of affect (Mruck, 2006). Evaluation accentuates, the role of cognition, while affect emphasizes the role of feelings as they pertain to self-esteem. As such, Mruck (2006) defines four basic ways that self-esteem is defined: 1) as a certain attitude, 2) based on discrepancy, 3) as a psychological response a person holds toward himself or herself, and 4) as a function of personality. In the attitudinal definition, it involves positive or negative cognitive, behavioral, and emotional reactions. When people base their self-esteem on discrepancy, they are measuring the difference between what they see as their ideal self and their perceived self. The closer these two percepts are, the higher their self-esteem is thought to be. The psychological response a person holds towards himself or herself is described as feeling-based, rather than attitudinal alone. Finally, in the function of personality definition, self-esteem is viewed as part of a system that is
concerned with motivation or self-regulation or both. While there are numerous different definitions for self-esteem.

Self-esteem is an evaluative dimension of self-knowledge (Baumiester, 1999). It is how one feels about oneself and values him or her. It can be also be expressed as an extent to which one prizes, values, approves or like oneself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Brown & Dutton (1995) define self-esteem in terms of feelings of affection for oneself, similar to the feelings of affection one has for others. Adding another dimension to it, Rosenberg (1979) states that it is not simply how good a person thinks he/she is with regard to some quality, but how good he/she wants to be that counts. Taking a similar position Coppersmith (1967) also suggested that self-esteem reflects evaluation of several aspects of the self; each measured against the background of an individual’s personal aspirations. In the sense self-esteem is a very important attribute of human personality forming the basis of one’s well-being and success in life. William James (1890) referred to it as an elementary endowment of human nature.

According to Maslow (1954), all people have a need or desire of stable firmly based, sense of self-regard or self-respect and they need esteem from themselves and from others. He classified esteem need in two categories.

I. The first set of esteem need include the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery, for competence, self confidence and degree of independence and for freedom.

II. The second category includes toward the desire for prestige, status, recognition, attention, dignity and appreciation all of which are characteristics of esteem based on the person.

Walz (1999) defined that appreciating oneself and acknowledging self-worth, self-control and competence with a corresponding positive attitude and high self-evaluation.

In this way, I can say that self-esteem can be an important part of success. Too little self-esteem can leave people feeling defeated or depressed. It can also lead people to make bas choices, fall into destructive relationships, or fail live up to their full potential.

1.3.6 Components of self-esteem

According to one definition (Braden, 1969), there are three key components of self-esteem.

1. Self-esteem is an essential human need that is vital for survival and normal, healthy development.
2. Self-esteem arises automatically from within based upon a person’s beliefs and consciousness.

3. Self-esteem occurs in conjunction with a person’s thoughts, behaviors, feelings, and actions.

1.3.7 Theories of self-esteem by Abraham Maslow & Alfred Adler

The need for self-esteem plays an important role in psychologist Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, which depicts self-esteem as one of the basic human motivations. Maslow suggested that people need both esteem from other people as well as inner self-respect. Both of these needs must be fulfilled in order for an individual to grow as a person and achieve self-actualization.

It is important to note that self-esteem is a concept distinct from self-efficiency, which involves the belief in future actions, performance, or abilities.

The another theory of self-esteem is Adler’s theory of self-esteem. Self-esteem is a key idea for the contemporize world and Adler’s three concepts (inferiority, compensation and belongingness) are very relevant to what is almost universal search for self-esteem.

He was concerned with a person’s feelings of inferiority and self-esteem. Adler is recognised as one of the great motivational theorists, he considered it quite normal to have feelings of inferiority.

i) Inferiority Complex - A positive or negative influence

The experience of a child who sees a world around him or her which is greater than them, naturally can feel inferior, and feelings of inferiority can become a positive spur to the achievement of one’s goals. However these feelings could become a great burden to the discouraged individual and create neurotic or psychotic difficulties and could lead to the complex which Adler so graphically described and which could become disabling, producing low self-esteem. So a person’s self-esteem would then be gauged in their perceptions or world view according to how they used feelings of inferiority to a positive or negative end. For the neurotic individual these disabling feelings could move from a felt minus to a felt plus through psychotherapy, counseling and coaching one of the central features of Adlerian therapy is the encouragement of the individual to overcome feelings of inferiority and thus to achieve improved self-esteem.

ii) Compensation brings self-esteem with itself

Creativity of the individual leads to compensatory activity (Adler’s idea of compensation) which has positive results and can lead to improved self-esteem.
Compensation brings self-esteem with itself Adler called this the moving from below to above. He recognized that the individual in a constant state of flux. For example, the case of the American Cyclist who suffers from cancer and won the Tour de France several times, how the person can achieve great results, by striving to overcome a disability or inferiority. People from the same family background can react in different ways to the discouragement of their circumstances one achieving and developing self-esteem and the other becoming neurotic and trapped in feelings of inferiority.

iii) An explanation of the idea of Belongingness

Finally Adler’s idea of Belongingness for Adler Psychological health and self-esteem were intimately bound up with feelings of belonging to the wider whole of community or society.

The origins of these feelings will begin in the family where there will be a positive sense of belonging or sadly, the healthful feeling of belongingness and related feelings of self-esteem can be established in later life. This leads to the individual seeking to contribute to the wider whole of the community, playing his or her part in the life of society as a whole, and through doing so acquiting improved self-esteem.

Adler’s concepts of inferiority, compensation and belongingness speak to our modern search for self-esteem, with a directness and simplicity which make them accessible and relevant. He was supremely optimistic and his therapy of encouragement was always intended to help the neurotic individual move from a felt minus to a felt plus. His insights have been absorbed into the main stream of therapeutic practice, and while often unacknowledged, his contribution to therapeutic theory and practice, has been immense.

1.3.8 Characteristics associated with self-esteem

Characteristics of self-esteem include varying levels of confidence, attitudes towards the future, and the general health of relationships with other people. These behaviors and personality traits can be quite different depending on whether a person’s self-esteem is high or low. Accepted theories of self-esteem claim that it stems from a need to gain acceptance that begins early in life. Some one who grows up in dysfunctional environment tends to develop negative characteristics of self-esteem that often cause various problems through life. Mentally and emotionally healthy early years thus translate into characteristics of good self-esteem.

Levels of self-confidence are among the most readily recognizable characteristics of self-esteem people with healthy levels of self-esteem have solid beliefs in their own opinions and thoughts and they also recognize that their points of view have value
even when they differ from others. This kind of confidence allows them to make their own life choices without the need for other’s approval. Higher levels of self-esteem also give people the ability to like themselves for who they are in the present without wishing for changes in either the past or future. A lack of personal responsibility can be a common trait among people without the confidence to trust in their own abilities and decision-making skills.

A lack of apprehension or negativity is another one of the prominent characteristics of self-esteem low self-esteem often leads people to feel they are not in control of their immediate futures, and they frequently second-guess their decisions and voice criticism about themselves. They also often feel that other’s lives and circumstances are much better than their own, even when, reality, this is not necessarily true. Many claim that they can avoid suffering disappointment. Those with more positive characteristics of self-esteem tend to feel more optimistic and satisfies with their lives in general.

The ability to forge healthy relationships with others is heavily dependent on self-esteem. People who are able to readily love themselves are those who are also able to love others without co-dependence or other traits of poor self-esteem. A bad self image can often lead to frequent conflict with others, trouble with communication, and problems with intimacy. Good relationships can generally result from positive self-esteem traits such as learning from mistakes and recognizing the needs of both parties in a relationship.

The other nine common characteristics of high self-esteem are as under.

**A) Believe in themselves**

People who have high self-esteem have confidence in their own abilities. They recognize what they are good at are confident that they are able to improve where necessary and unlike people with low self-esteem, believe that they deserve to do better. The effect of this is that they are often ambitious in their careers as they consistently strive for improvement and personal success. They don’t waste time indulging in negative self-talk. They take responsibility for their own actions and they don’t look to others to make decisions for them. They do not need the approval of others to feel good about whom they are.

**B) Know that they want or need**

People with high self-esteem generally have clear ideas about what they want or need and they are able to communicate these needs and wants to others. Feel worthy of love and, approval. They approve of themselves and are not desperate for other people's approval. They truly are capable of loving others unconditionally. They don’t
have an inner need to change anyone else. They accept responsibility for their lives and the decisions they make. They know their values and roles and what’s really important to them.

C) Effective Communication Skills -

It's common for people with high self-esteem to be good communicators. This includes having good listening skills which leave them open to taking advice, being open to change and new ideas.

D) Drive to succeed

Not surprisingly people with high self-esteem have the drive to succeed. They are generally more flexible and find it easier to overcome challenges and disappointments along the way. They don’t worry that mistakes and even when they do make mistakes, they have the inner resources to learn from mistakes and then move on.

E) Comfortable with change

People with high self-esteem are comfortable with change; they enthusiastically seek out new opportunities and are open to embracing new ideas. Getting out of their comfort zones is not uncomfortable for them. They are also happy to learn new skills to support them with any new challenges.

F) Enjoy healthy relationships

With their good communication skills and their enthusiasm to succeed, people with high self-esteem generally enjoy good healthy relationships and they are able to accept constructive criticism, without letting it dent their confidence. Because of their confidence they are rarely competitive with others because they are comfortable with their own abilities and accept others where they are at. They don’t put others down to build themselves up and they tend to be forgiving towards others.

G) Goal-oriented

They are very focused on self-improvement and success and are often good at planning and setting goals as well as achieving them. They have a sense of purpose and direction and confidently go for it.

H) Able to laugh at their self

We all do silly things and life happens. They don’t fret and worry about it - they just laugh it off. They understand that laughter is the best medicine. They love life and tend to be optimistic and positive about the direction of their life.
I) Taking care of themselves physically, emotionally, mentally and spiritually

They take care of themselves physically by exercising and eating well. Emotionally by clearing negative emotions. Mentally by reading, learning new things. Spiritually by meditating on the Bible, being in silence, or praying.

1.3.9 Development of self-esteem

i) Early childhood

Although self-esteem is forming it is not measurable before the age of five or six because up until this time the two functions of self-esteem competence and worthiness, operate independently of each other.

ii) Middle childhood

Between the ages of five and eight self-esteem becomes increasingly defined. Children begin to make judgments about their self-worth and competence in five areas. Physical appearance social acceptance in five areas. Physical appearance social acceptance, scholastic ability, athletic and artistic skills and behavior. These areas make up the child’s global view of his/her self. Self-esteem emerges at this point in childhood because the child is able to intimate behavior with competence, evaluate his or her accomplishments in terms of their worthiness and experience a process or attitude between the two. As a child’s age increases so to do their social contacts, life experience and the expectations placed upon them. The child develops an increasing awareness of those things they are good at and those they are not good at. inevitably self-esteem begins to effect behavior as the individual attempts to maintain and protect their sense of self worth against the challenges, problems and experiences of life. Self-esteem acts as a filter through which we judge our performances. In this way it determines how we approach future tasks.

iii) Adulthood

By adulthood self-esteem has changed from a mostly reactive phenomenon to one that can be consciously acted upon to either increase or decrease feeling of self-worth. As adults we are confirmed by many situations that affect the levels of self-esteem. Epstein has extensively researched those situations that most typically affect self-esteem in adulthood. These are success failure experiences where individuals either deal successfully or unsuccessfully with a situation and acceptance rejection situations which are interpersonal in nature. Romantic relationships, peer relationships, and relationships with family members are typical contexts which can effect self-esteem.
1.3.10 Factors influencing the development of self-esteem

Like many aspects of development, self-esteem is a product of two interacting forces often described as nature and nurture. Children’s biological strengths and weaknesses (nature) influence their developing self-esteem, but so too do their interactions with family and the social environment (nurture).

Parents have little or no control over the impact of nature on the development of children’s self-esteem. First, children’s basic temperament influences how they will experience any given situation. For instance, youth born with easy-going temperaments tend to take thing in stride, do not respond with great emotion to stressful circumstances and tend to have more patience when dealing with challenging situations in comparison with peers born with more emotionally volatile temperaments.

Difficult and stressful early life experiences including childhood illness, sustained hospitalization, household moves, family changes death in the family, and abuse can limit or overwhelm children’s development and affect the evolution of their beliefs and descriptions of themselves. Children’s early relationships and interactions with caregivers, peers, and teachers also has a large effect on how children see themselves and how they cope with challenging situations.

The impossibly stressful, difficult to control experiences that come with the territory experiences that come with the territory of being alive certainly shape and influence children’s developing self-esteem, but they do not wholly determine it. Self-esteem is very much a social process in that how people come to see themselves in heavily influenced by how others see and treat them. Though self-esteem refers to a self-judgment, this judgment is easily influenced by the way children are treated by others and whether or not they have a positive experience of themselves while interacting with others. Therefore, parents play a vital role in helping children to develop a positive self-esteem since parents are the ‘others’ that children interact with most frequently. There are no people in the world more important to young children than their parents. Parents exert this influence over children’s self-esteem by paying attention to how they communicate, express love and attention, encourage children to take on challenges, foster independence, and encourage socialization.

1.3.11 Importance of self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to a person’s beliefs about their own worth and value. It also has to do with the feelings people experience that follow from their sense of worthiness or unworthiness. Self-esteem is important because it heavily influences people’s choices and decisions. In other words, self-esteem serves a motivational function by making it more or less likely that people will take care of themselves with high self-esteem are
also people who are motivated to take care of themselves and to persistently strive towards the fulfillment of personal goals and aspirations. People with lower self-esteem don’t tend to regard themselves as worthy of happy outcomes or capable of achieving them and so tend to let important things slide and to be less persistent and resident in terms of overcoming adversity. They may have the same kinds of goals as people with higher self-esteem to pursue them to their conclusion.

Self-esteem is a somewhat abstract concept, it’s hard for someone who doesn’t already have it know what it would be like to have it. One way for people who have lower self-esteem to being appreciate what is would be like to have higher self-esteem is to consider how they may feel about things in their lives that they value. When children believe they are valuable and important, they take good care of themselves. They make good decisions about themselves which enhance their value rather than break it down.

The importance of self-esteem can be seen when the person look at the relationship between healthy self-esteem and other psychological traits self-esteem and personality are closely related. Healthy self-esteem is related with openness, Honesty, Acceptance cooperativeness, independence creativity, rationality, flexibility and willingness to admit mistakes.

In this way, self-esteem is very important factor in everyone’s life. It is important aspect of psychological functioning (Crocker & Major, 1989). Self-esteem is associated with depression, Anxiety Motivation and general satisfaction with one’s life (Harter, 1986; Rosenberg, 1986). Children and adolescents who lack self-esteem may be more dependent on their parents and have lower academic and vocational goals. Hence it is not surprising that parents and clinicians want to foster self-esteem in young people.

1.4 Academic Achievement

The word is becoming more and more competitive. Quality performance has become the key factor for personal progress. Parents desire that their children climb the ladder of performance to as high level as possible. This desire for a high level achievement puts a lot of pressure on students, teachers, and general the educational system itself. In fact, it appears as if the whole system of education revolves round the academic achievement of students through various other outcomes are also expected from the system. Thus, a lot of time and effort of the schools are used for helping students to achieve better in their scholastic endeavors.

Academic achievement is not un-dimensional function. It is a multi-dimensional function, because of these rationales:
Some of the students are intelligent and even then they fail.
Some of the students read more and they fail.
Some of the students read less and they pass.
Students of the same class get I, II and III division whereas the teacher remains the same.

But this should not happen.

So these things show that scholastic achievement is a multi dimensional function.

In general findings were that there exists a significant difference in the degree of scholastic achievement between groups of well adjusted and poorly adjusted higher secondary students. More especially students who have high scholastic achievement had a more adequate level of personality adjustment than did the students who had poor scholastic achievement.

In other words, academic achievement is considered as a key criterion to judge one’s total potentialities and capabilities. Therefore it is more pressing for the individuals to have high academic achievement. The term achievement refers to the degree or the level of success attained in some specific school tasks especially scholastic performance. In this sense, academic achievement means the attained ability to perform school tasks which can be general or specific to a given subject matter. Academic achievements could be defined as self-perception and self-evaluation of one’s objective academic success. Academic achievement generally indicates the learning outcomes of student. Achievement of those learning outcomes requires a series of planned and organized experiences.

Achievement refers to accomplishment. It signifies successfully carved out performance by an individual or a group as assessed after completion of a task whether it is academic, manual or social. Academic achievement refers to the degree or level of success or that or proficiency - attained in some specific are concerning scholastic or academic work. In general, it refers to scores obtained in the annual examination. It is measured and assessed by achievement tests and compared to the set norms to evaluate an individual performance. Academic achievement is the core of wider term ‘educational growth’ which means growth in all aspects. An achievement is a status of level of person’s. Learning and ability to apply what he has learnt. It is reflected in test scores, marks or grades attained in different examination. This determines the status of student with respect to attained skills or knowledge as compared to other students in the subject in which they have received instructions in school. Academic achievement means the amount of knowledge gained by the students in different subjects of study. It encourages the students to work hard and
learn more. Also it helps the teachers to know whether their teaching methods are effective or not and helps them to bring improvements accordingly. Thus, academic achievement helps both the teachers and students to know where they stand. Different educationists have their own viewpoint in regard to academic achievement.

Achievement motivation is relatively a new concept in the world of motivation. It is now widely used and heared in the area of education achievement motivation refers to the tendency to strive for success or the attainment of desired end. Achievement motivation is conceived as a talent disposition which is manifested in overt striving only when the individual perceives performance, as instrumental to a sense of personal accomplishment individuals high in achievement motivation are at their best when they can maintain a high level of involvement in ensuring the excellence of activities under their coordination or control. However they do relatively less well when required to manage excessive tasks or to function in highly stressful environments. So when I discuss briefly about academic achievement motivation, first to know about what is motivation?

1.4.1 Motivation

Motivation is one of the basic factors upon which the quality of a person's work depends. It may be in the form of appreciation, incentives, rewards or penalties. Most policy makers agree that in the field of education, improving the teacher's work place in the best ways to improve education system. Motivation is the force that drives towards an action communication skills are much helpful in motivation and it takes place within a culture, and it shows an organizational behavior model. The concept of motivation is of great importance in understanding human behavior as well as in changing it. Mccelland published his book. The 'Achievement Motivae' in 1953. Mccelland identified the achievement motive and developed a method for measuring it.

1.4.2 What is Motivation?

Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal oriented behaviors. Motivation is called causes us to act, whether it is getting a glass of water to reduce thirst or reading a book to gain knowledge.

It involves the biological, emotional, social and cognitive forces that activate behavior. In everyday usage, the term motivation is frequently used to describe why a person does something.

The term motivation refers to factors that activate, direct and sustain goal directed behavior. Motives are the ways of behavior the needs or wants that drives behavior
and explain what we do. We don't actually observe a motive, rather, we infer that one exists based on the behavior we observe.

Anyone who has ever had a goal probably immediately realizes that simply having the desire to accomplish something is not enough. Achieving such a goal requires the ability to persist through obstacles and endurance to keep going in spite of difficulties.

1.4.3 Components of Motivation

Anyone who has ever had a goal probably immediately realizes that simply having the desire to accomplish something is not enough. Achieving such a goal requires the ability to persist through obstacles and endurance to keep going in spite of difficulties.

There are three major components to motivation activation, persistence and intensity activation involves the decision to initiate a behavior.

Persistence is the continued effort toward a goal even though obstacles may exist, such as taking more courses in order to earn a degree although it requires a significant investment of time, energy and resources.

Finally, intensity can be seen in the concentration and vigor that goes into pursuing a goal.

1.4.4 Theories of Motivation

Psychologists have proposed a number of different theories to explain motivation.

(i) Instincts

The instinct theory of motivation suggests that behaviors are motivated by instincts, which are fixed and inborn patterns of behavior. Psychologists including William James, Sigmund Freud and William McDougal have proposed a number of basic human drives that motivate behavior.

(ii) Drives and Needs

Many of our behaviors, such as eating, drinking and sleeping, are motivated by biology. We have a biological need for food, water and sleep, therefore we eat, drink and sleep. Drive theory suggests that people have basic biological drives and that our behaviors are motivated by the need to fulfill these drives.

(iii) Arousal Levels

The arousal theory of motivation suggests that people are motivated to engage in behaviors that help them maintain their optimal level of arousal. A person with low arousal needs might pursue relaxing activities, while those with high arousal needs might be motivated to engage in exciting, thrill-seeking behaviors.
1.4.5 What is academic achievement?

The word ‘Academic Achievement’ is a very broad term which generally indicates the learning outcomes of students. Achievement of those learning outcomes requires a series of planned and organized experiences and hence learning is called a process. In this process of achievement of change in behavior, one cannot say that all students react at the same level of change during the same span of time. The level of achievement reached by the students in schools is called Academic achievement of the students.

The carnegie council of adolescent development (1989) estimated that about one quarter of the adolescent population is at risk of academic failure and other problem behaviors, with another quarter considered ‘moderately’ at risk. School failure and the almost inevitable unemployment or underemployments that follow are among the most serious of these problems. School-failure is thus a real problem. As such it has attracted the attention of researchers in psychology, sociology and education. They have identified numerous factors that are associated with academic success or failure. These range from individual aspects of learning, such as behavior problems or cognitive deficiencies, to family factors such as parenting techniques, to social issues such as poverty and cultural differences.

According to Steinberger (1993)
‘Academic achievement encompasses student’s ability and performance. It is intricately related to cognitive development. It is the quality and quantity of a student’s work.’

According to Mangal (2000)
‘Academic achievement motivation is relatively a new concept in the world of motivation’.

Sunita Sharma pointed out that
‘Achievement motivation refers to the tendency to strive for success or the attainment of desired end.’

Webster defined achievement as
‘Quality and quantity of a student’s work.’

According to Atkinson and Feather (1966)
‘Achievement motivation is conceived as a talent disposition which is manifested in overt striving only when the individual perceives performance as instrumental to a sense of personal accomplishment.’
‘Achievement motivation refers to the inner force, desire or need for excellence not so much for the sake of social recognition as to attain an inner, feeling of personal accomplishment.’

- McClelland, 1976

Motivation is seen as a main factor that plays a very important role in determining students achievement. Parental attitudes are one of the significant factors in achievement motivation of a child. When parents are involved in schooling, Children show improved grades, test scores, academic success and positive attitude towards school, high self-esteem and participation (Christenon, Hurley, Sheridan & Fenstermacher, 2001). There is evidence that parental behavior and the parent’s school involvement have a crucial impact on a children’s motivation (Erden & Uredi, 2008; Fontaine,1998; Goottfried, Fleming & Gottfried, 1994; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Meece, 1994; Repinski & shonk, 2002, Wentzel, 1998).

Some psychologists defined, Academic Achievement as knowledge attitude or skill developed in the school subject usually designed by teacher or by test scores or by marks assigned by teacher or by both’ consequently academic achievement could be defined as self perception and self evaluation of one’s objective success.

1.4.6 Intellectual Factors of Achievement :-

1.4.6.1 Intelligence-

Academic prediction has always occupied a central place in education. In past few decades several researches had been done in this area Un-numbered intellectual and non-intellectual factors have been studied as predictors of scholastic - Achievements. Intelligence, attitude and school records of student’s previous achievement have figured most in those researcher as the intellectual factors.

1.4.6.2 Achievement scores on tests and other non-intellectual factors

In many research studies marks achieved by the students in tests, semesters and objective test of achievement have been used for predicting the scholastic Achievement of the students in the different level of teaching.

Among the non-intellectual factors which have been considered responsible for students scholastic - Achievements are: Home, environment, socio-economic status, Educational status and the occupational patterns of the parents, health condition of the student and their interest etc.

1.4.7 Factors that many affect student’s academic achievement-

Academic Achievement refers to the level of successor proficiency attained in the specific area concerning academic work and some factors may affect student’s
academic achievement directly or indirectly. Here are some of the factors that may affect a student’s academic achievement.

(a) The support and availability of the parents, their financial situation and standard of living.

(b) The geographical location of the educational institution.

(c) The percentage of students in a school whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction.

(d) The diversity of student profiles in the same class.

(e) The grouping together, in certain schools, of students with severe learning difficulties or with problems associated with psychosocial integration in special education classes.

(f) The various practices pertaining to the student admission requirements, some educational institutions admit students indiscriminately, whereas other select them on the basis of previous academic achievements or their results on aptitude tests.

1.4.8 Achievement Motivation theory by McClelland (1961), Atkinson (1968), and David Eliot (1996).

Academic Achievement Motivation is a very broad subject. It is the outcome of education and some psychologist express their ideas of achievement.

David McClelland believes that the need for achievement is a distinct human motive that can be distinguished from other needs one characteristic of achievement motivated people is that they see to be more concerned with personal achievement that with the rewards of success. He believes that they do not reject rewards but the rewards are not essential as the accomplishment.

Atkinson theorized that orientation result from achieving success and avoiding failure. The motive to achieve success is determined by three things: 1) The Need to succeed or need achievement 2) The Person’s estimate of the likelihood of success in performing the particular task and 3) The Incentive for success- that is, how much the person wants to succeed in that particular task. The motive to avoid failure is determined by three similar considerations. 1) The need to avoid failure which, like the need to achieve success. 2) The person’s estimate of the likelihood of failure at the particular task and 3) The incentive value of failure at that task, that is, how unpleasant it would be to fail.

Both McClelland and Atkinson’s achievement and motivation theory was based on a personality characteristic that manifested as a dispositional need to improve and
perform well according to a certain standard of excellence in order to assess people’s need for achievement they used a projective instrument called at Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT) that elicits unconscious processes. In this instrument people are asked to write a story describing the thoughts, emotions and behaviors of a person in an ambiguous picture or drawing. The stories are then coded for achievement-related content including indicators of competition, accomplishments and commitment to achieve. This technique, labeled the picture story Exercise (PSE), was used in numerous studies that tested the relations with various indicators of performance.

After Atkinson and McClelland’s theory of using the TAT and the picture story Exercise (PSE), many researchers such as David Elliot believed that was not only an achievement instrument. They also believed that the approach was rather controversial due to its stereotype promoting implication that people from certain groups were inherently such as, Davis Elliot realized that a more complete description of the achievement motive would require supplementing the positive affective, such as love withdrawal - for falling to meet parent’s expectations.

Achievement Motivation - also refereed to as the need for achievement, is an important determinant of aspiration, effort and persistence when an individual expects his performance will be evaluated in relation to some standard of excellence such behavior is called achievement-oriented.

Motivation - to achieve is investigates when an individual knows that he is responsible for the outcome of some venture, when he anticipates explicit knowledge of results that will define his success or failure and when there is some degree of risk. The goal of achievement oriented activity is to succeed, to perform well in relation to a standard of excellence or in comparison with others who are competitors.

Achievement - Achievement imagery in fantasy takes the forms of thoughts about performing some task well, of sometimes being blocked, of trying various means of achieving, and of experiencing joy or sadness cotangent upon the outcome of the effort. The particular diagnostic slogans of achievement motivation were identified by experimental fact. The results of validating experiments have been replicated other social groups and societies. Together these experimental findings specify what is counted I an imaginative protocol to yield Achievement source, an assessment of the strength of achievement motivation. (McCleean et al. 1953).
1.4.9 Importance of Academic Achievement

Academic Achievement is refers to the inner force, desire or need for excellence not osmic for the ace of social recognition as to attain an inner feeling of personal accomplishment (McCleland, 196). It is an important determinant of an individual’s aspiration, effort and persistence when he expects that his performance will be evaluated in relation to some standard of excellence (Atkinson, 1974). Motivation is seen as a main factor that pays a very important role in determining students achievement.

The definition of a successful student is changing over the year, youth knowledge nowadays must be broaden much more than just reading, writing and arithmetic in order to succeed. That leads to the fact that the concepts of academic success are varies from researcher to researcher.

Academic success as the term that refers to those successful students who have ability and endeavor to manage the demand of both in society and academic to have a desire to be successful and to be considered as socially proficient, intrinsically motivated and goal oriented.

Generally, academic success can be simply defined as student self-motivation, self-efficiency and his power to cope with the study environment so, Academic Achievement is very important and essential for student.

1.5 Adolescence

In the Modern scientific and technical world, education plays a vital role. The educational advancement of a country shows its pace of development. In other sense, educational system reflects the development of the country. The Increase I enrolment of the high schools or higher education shows the demand for advance education. The paramount aim of education is to prepare persons who are physically fit, mentally developed, emotionally stable and of a well-developed personality. In other words, its aim is to prepare such citizens who may lead a self-dependent life satisfying to their self and beneficial to society and nation with this view in mind our nation is spending a lot of money on the education of its students. But the students face a lots of problems in the period of Adolescence.

Adolescence is the intermediary stage of growth between childhood and adulthood. It represents the period of time during which a person is subjected to an array of biological transformations and runs into a number of emotional tribulations. The ages, which are termed to be part of adolescence, vary by ethnicity and extend from the preteens to nineteen years. According to the World Health Organization (WHO),
adolescence encompasses the epoch of life between 10 and 20 years of age. Adolescence is an especially unstable as well as a vibrant period of any person’s life.

Adolescent psychology deals with the issues related with adolescence. Numerous psychologists all over the world now recognize this as a distinct phenomenon. This has led to the establishment of separate class of specialized psychologists to deal with the issues of the adolescence. The American psychological Association has a special segment to assist them psychological issues of adolescents may include maturity in body, which leads to a curiosity about sexual activities, sometimes leading to teenage pregnancy. Apart from that, their is a tendency to experiment with drug and alcohol use.

In some cases, cerebral problems such as schizophrenia, eating disorders and depression may also arise during adolescence the emotional insecurity among some adolescents may also tend to cause instances of crime among youth. It is often seen that searching for a distinctive identity is one of the problems that adolescent face. It is also common for individuals to express their desire to be more like their role models such as athletes, rock or pop stars, and film and television performers.

Relationship with peers plays an important role in analyzing adolescent psychology. It is seen that 90% of adolescents associate themselves with a peer group. Adolescents receiving support from their peers are less probable to full into depression or face anxiety. It is also seen that depressed individuals find it difficult to make friends by his friends and companions. Adolescent psychology has gained importance in the recent part due to increased cases being reported about adolescent depression and anxiety.

Adolescence, the transitional stage of development between childhood and adulthood, represents the period of time during which a person experiences a variety of biological changes and encounters a number of emotional issues. The ages which are considered to be part of adolescence vary by culture and ranges from preteens to 19 years. According to the World Health Organization(WHO), adolescence covers the period of life between 10 and 20 years of age. Adolescence is often divided by psychologists into there distinct phases: early, mid and late adolescence.

1.5.1 What is Adolescence?

Adolescence can be a specifically turbulent as well as a dynamic period of one’s life. It has been identified as a period in which young people develop abstract thinking abilities become more aware of their sexuality develop a clearer sense of psychological identity, and increase their independence from parents G. Stanley Hall demoted this period as one of ‘storm and stress’ and according to him, conflict at this developmental stage is normal and not unusual.
Margaret mead, on the other hand attributed the behavior of adolescents to their culture and upbringing, as the majority of problems associated with adolescence in western society are not present in other cultures.

1.5.1.1 Meaning of Adolescence

Adolescence word derive from Latin Word ‘Adolescere’ which meant ‘to grow’, ‘to mature’. In other words, we can also call it ‘teen age.’ This age covered the age from 12 to 19. Adolescence is a transitional stage of physical and mental human development that occurs between childhood and adulthood. This is a phase of life when human is leaving childhood but has not yet acquired adulthood. This transition involves biological, social and psychological changes.

1.5.1.2 Definitions of Adolescence

The English term Adolescence has been derived from Latin word Adolescere. It means to attain adolescence. Adolescence includes physical and mental developments. In psychological definition of Adolescence, it is a post childhood stage in which a person starts being aware about his own responsibilities According to standards of the United Nations of Development Fund (UNFPA), any person between the age group of 10 to 19 is considered to be an adolescent. The Individual is considered a child until he is sexually mature he is then called an ‘adolescent’.

Dorothy roger defines adolescence as “a process rather than a period process of achieving the attitudes and belief needed for effective participation in the society”. According to the definition given by Dorothy, adolescence is not a separate periods but a continuous process of growth.

According to Anderson “Adolescence extends from puberty to the attainment of full height and weight and cessation of growth. It is the period in which the person moves out the home circle and becomes physically and mentally independent.

Erikson a famous psychoanalyst who developed a very comprehensive theory of human development defined adolescence as “a period of rapid change physical physiological, psychological and social, a time when all sameness and continuities relied upon eerier are more less questioned again.”

Hall (1963) described adolescence as a period both of upheaval suffering passion and rebellion against adult authority and of physical, intellectual and social change.

1.5.2 Development characteristics of the Adolescence

Adolescence age is considered as a transitional phase, a “status passage” between childhood and adulthood. Adolescence can be divided into two stages” puberty (approximately between the years 12-18), and after puberty (about 18-21 years). The
meaning of adolescence has changed during the last century as education, social relationships and the importance of peer relations have undergone a considerable change over a period of generations. Professional training and schooling often last up into the age of twenty and the pressure of achievement of family standards has become stronger. Employment in adolescence is an exceptional case: schoolwork and education fills the life of teenagers (Chishilm & Hurrelemann, 1995).

When adulthood is characterized by autonomy and self-determination, adolescence is the preparation for adult status (Hurrelmann & Losel, 1990). In the adolescent phase, individuals have many different psychological and social developmental tasks to fulfill. They strive for a separation from parents and family, have to cope with bodily changes, need to develop their own norm and value system, should intensify their contacts with peers, and need to increase their financial and vocational skills. In addition to these demands, the age specific needs of adolescents must also be considered, their need for love and security, striving for new experiences, need for acknowledgement. Independence and responsibility. The conflict and imbalance between needs and demands cause typical tension for the adolescent life-span.

In this transition phase, bodily, emotional and social changes occur and these changes fully occupy the attention of adolescents. The adolescent way of thinking is rather egocentric and adolescents are quite concerned about their appearance, their impression on others, and their abilities. Also they tended to feel to be the focus of attention of others.

These interpersonal processes are placed in a multifactorial environment where adolescents are exposed to different influences, like the influence of the family, peers, school and the media. It is up to both the environment and to the individual to what extent those influences are perceived as supporting or stressful.

The developmental tasks that have to be fulfilled by the adolescents are to a great extent defined by the society and should be solved during the adolescent period.

1.5.3 Social behavior patterns

The social behavior of mammals changes as they enter adolescence. In humans, adolescents typically increase the amount of time spent with their peers. Nearly eight hours are usually spent communicating with others, but only eight percent of this time is spent taking to adults. Adolescents report that they are far happier spending time with similarly-aged peers as compared to adults. Consequently, conflict between adolescents and their parents increase at this time as adolescents strive to create a separation and sense of independence. These interactions are not always positive; peer pressure is very prevalent during adolescence, leading to increases in cheating and
misdemeanor crime young adolescents are particularly susceptible to conforming to the behavior of their peers.

Early adolescence is a stage at which the peer group becomes increasingly important, with conformity to peers peaking at 11-13 years. 90% of adolescents identify themselves with a peer group. According to Judith Rich Harris’s theory of group socialization, children and adolescent are shaped more by their peers than their parents peers can encourage both prosocial behavior, which peaks at 11-12 years, or antisocial behavior which peaks at 14-14 years. Adolescents are less likely to feel depressed or anxious if the peer group provides emotional support. Arguments between parents and children increase considerably during adolescents. However adolescents with few or no close friends are closer to their parents and are less likely to be subject to peer pressure.

1.5.4 psychological issues

Adolescents are widely considered by the psychological establishment to be prone to recklessness and risk taking behaviors, which can lead to substance abuse, car accidents, unsafe sex, and youth crime. There is some evidence that this risk taking is biologically driven, caused by the social and emotional part of the brain developing faster than the cognitive-control part of the brain.

Although most adolescents are psychologically healthy, they exhibit signs of mental illness; late adolescence and early adulthood are peak years for the onset of schizophrenia. Mood disorders such as clinical depression, bipolar disorder and anxiety disorders can initially show in adolescence.

1.5.5 Childhood and Adolescent Depression

Major depression affects 3 to 5 percent of children and adolescents. Depression negatively impacts growth and development. School performance, and peer or family relationships and may lead to suicide. Biomedical and psychosocial risk factors include a family history of depression, female sex, childhood abuse or neglect, stressful life events and chronic illness. Diagnostic for depression in children and adolescents are essentially the same as those for adults, however, symptom expression may vary with developmental stage and some children and adolescents may have, difficulty identifying and describing internal mood states. Safe and effective treatment requires accurate diagnosis, suicide risk assessment and use of evidence based therapies. Current literature supports use of cognitive behavior therapy for mild to moderate childhood depression.
1.5.6 Risk factors

Risk factors for child and adolescent depressive disorders include biomedical and psychosocial factors with major depressive disorder also have another mental disorder. It is essential that physicians recognize and treat associated psychiatric co morbidities; the most common of these are dysthymic disorder, anxiety disorder, oppositional defiant disorder and substance use disorder.

1.5.7 Presentation

Juvenile depression may manifest in different forms. As stated above, children younger than seven years may not be able to describe their internal mood state and may express their distress through vague somatic symptoms or pain. Irritable mood may be cause of angry hostile behavior. Importantly poor concentration and anxiety may resemble attention deficit / hyperactivity disorder and substance abuse may be a means of self-medication for depression.

1.5.8 Diagnosis

Diagnosis of primary depressive mood disorders requires that physicians rule out depression from medical causes, such as malignancies, chronic diseases, infectious mononucleosis, anemia and vitamin deficiency and from medications, such as isotretinoin. If any of these causes are present, the condition is referred to as secondary depressive mood disorder secondary to medical conditions lack of improvement treatment or medication discontinuation warrants further evaluation and treatment.

1.5.9 Suicide Risk Assessment

During the first visit physicians should assess the suicide risk of patients with depression and decide on the most appropriate treatment venue. Depressive disorders are the most common diagnoses present I all suicides. Twenty percent of teenagers seriously contemplate suicide and 8 percent attempt it.

1.5.10 Substance abuse

It is a major health threat. Legal and illegal substances available to adolescents include tobacco, caffeine alcohol, glue, paint vapors and pills. In one survey, 30% of the adolescents reported using illicit drugs such as amphetamine and cocaine. The spread of AIDS infections by use of dirty needles increases the seriousness of this health threat.

1.5.11 Eating Disorders

Eating disorders have increased dramatically among adolescents, particularly females. Anorexia nervosa is a voluntary weight loss of at least 25% of body weight, the
extreme thinness may lead to other health problems such as cessation of menstruation. Bulimia is an eating disorder characterized by binges, purges with laxatives and self induced vomiting some people have alternating patterns of the two problems. A prolonged period of either eating disorder can result in serious health problems.

1.5.12 Physical changes and development in Adolescence

Adolescence is a time when a child’s unique identity emerges. Until adolescence, a child basically fulfills the will of his parents. However, as an adolescent naturally separates from his parents, he develops his own distinct personality. The preadolescent growth spurt is the first harbinger of the changes that occur in the individual during adolescence. Rapidity of growth result from complex interactions of various endocrine glands. Lymphoid tissue is most prominently present among the various kinds of body tissue during this period that growth is most rapid. The growth of genital organs, with associated changes in glandular secretions slows and ultimately halts growth.

The individual undergoing changes that lead from sexual immaturity to sexual maturity is said to be in the pubertal stage of development. It is extremely difficult to say exactly when person has become sexually mature but a number of different indices are used. These are discussed below.

1.5.12.1 General indices of Development

Each person before becoming completely mature is at a number of ages at any given moment in time. We usually think of our age is our chronological age (CA). But the person who is chronologically 13 may be more or less than 13 according to a number of other measures. The idea of mental age (MA) and the associated concept of IQ are well known. The person of chronological age 13 might have an mental age of 15 or, for that matter of 6 or of 8, depending on what age group he is nearest in terms of intellectual functioning. In the same fashion, this 13 year-old may be a number of different ages in terms of physical development some 13 years olds are almost fully adult in various kinds of physical development, while others are children who have not yet become pubescent.

Probably the most frequently used index of physiological maturity is skeletal age. As the children develop from infancy to maturity, predictable and orderly changes occur in their skeletal structure. Many bones are not yet home at all in infancy and early childhood but consist of cartilage and osteoblasts to bone. These changes in number of bones and in ossification of given bones are orderly and sequential, so that by determining where an individual is in this developmental sequence that is called skeletal age.
Willard C. Olson (1949) has proposed that we assess an individual’s developmental status by making use of number of ages-mental age, reading age height age, weight age, dental age and skeletal age.

1.5.12.2 Sexual Indices of Development

A number of different criteria exist for the determination of the sex or gender of any person. The different criteria for sexual identity described by Hampson and Hampson (1961) are: chromosomal sex gonadal sex, hormonal sex, sex of internal organs, sex of external organs, assigned sex and psychological sex (gender role). Most of us are of one sex or the other and are of the same sex on the basis of each of these different criteria. However a significant number of persons are not of the same gender, according to all of the different criteria for sexuality. For example, a person may have chromosomes, gonads, internal sex organs and hormonal secretions that indicate the person is male but have external genitalia that appear female and that result in an assigned role and rearing as female, what is this person’s psychological sex, his personal gender role? It is when some diagnoses of sexuality differ from other, as when chromosomal and hormonal sex differ from parental role assignment, that the relative contributions of biological and social forces become discernable.

Some noted researches on sexuality, such as Money and Ernhardt (1972) have conducted that social factors, such as sex-role assignment, substantially outweigh such biological factor as hormonal sex, in terms of determining adult psychological sex and gender identity. Much of the research in this domain is in some way or another, involved in ‘critical; or ‘sensitive’ period research.

1.5.12.2.1 Sexual Changes in Girls

A number of changes occur as sexual maturity is reached by girls. For example, breast development can be classified into one of a number of stages ranging from the ‘bud’-an enlargement and protrusion of the nipple to the fully mature breast-and changes in amount and type of body hair can be chronologically ordered. However, the most frequently used measure of sexual maturity for girls is an either-or one: has she reached menarche the age of first menstruation, or has she not? Menarche is a single point along a continuum, and is not a sign that a girl is completed sexuality mature, since a period of sterility of a year. It is a convenient marking point that serves as an operationally defined criterion of sexual maturity. The age of adolescence and problems associated with adolescence have been extended downward parents complain that dating, dancing, interest in the other sex and the wearing of more mature clothing and of cosmetics is beginning earlier and earlier.
1.5.12.2 Sexual Changes in Boys

There is no such single useful marker as menarche in the investigation of sexual maturity in males. The crampon criteria (crampon, 1908) most frequently are used to place males along a continuum of sexual development. These criteria have to do with the maturity of the pubic hairs and involve three major stages, undigested, pigmented but straight and pigmented and kinky (post pubescent). There is no one-to-one correspondence between stages of development according to the Crampon Criteria and the ability to produce spermatozoa, so that the exact age at which the average male reaches sexual maturity can not be state with accuracy. However, since boys are slightly more than two years behind girls in other areas of development, such as age of maximum increment in height.

1.5.12.3 Sexual Maturity and Sexual Behavior

Adolescence is a period of rapid change, these changes are most rapid and most apparent-in physical and sexual development in the area of social interaction. Transcending some fairly specific changes is the highly charged growth in self-awareness and search for identity. To be sure, the development of the self-concept-the way one sees oneself-the good, the bad, the not-quite-sure-does not begin at adolescence. However, adolescence does require the incorporation and integration of a whole range of new sensation, new feeling, and new experience.

The whole discussion will focus on adolescents sexual behavior and sexual attitudes, drawing primarily on a large scale, nation wide survey (Sorenson, 1972). In this survey a lengthy questionnaire was given to a carefully drawn, representative sample of 411 adolescents ranging in age from 13 to 19 years in addition, interviews were conducted with 200 young people consent from were signed by the adolescents and their parent and every measure was taken to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. While most of the questions elicited the adolescents attitudes and behavior in the sexual area, the answers reveled their attitudes toward their parent, their ability to communicate with their parents, their perception of generational differences and their view of the larger society in terms of honesty towards sexuality. Even more importantly, the responses reflected attitudes regarding tolerance towards other, views of society’s mores and institution such as marriage, and the manner in which young people from their personal value systems and attempt to integrate their behavior, especially sexual behavior, with these values.
1.5.12.3.1 Sexual Behavior

The guilt feelings that are formerly associated with masturbation are no longer present to as great a degree. Fifty-one percent of the adolescents in the sample reported that they rarely or never had such feelings. Further, no superstitions about masturbation were uncovered, such as impotency, the spoiling of later sexual experience, or mental illness. But, interestingly enough, in view of the generally tolerant attitude toward a wide range of sexual behaviors, a great deal of sensitivity and defensiveness existed concerning masturbation.

Interest in and participation in sexual activity become increasingly important throughout the adolescent years. And the attitudes and behaviors regarding sex could be said to form a microcosm reflecting many of the pervasive issues of adolescence: parent-child relations involving trust and communication or the absence of these experimentation with new and at times forbidden, forms of behavior; the relation between values and behavior, the adolescents perception of society, its institutions, and its mores; and relationships among adolescents.

1.5.13 The Effects of out-of-step Development

There is a close to a 10-year range in age, for each sex, in the time that sexual maturity is reached by normal invidious. The peer group demands adherence to its own timetable for the achievement of various privileges and social skills, and those who are too far out of step in physical development do not meet this demand.

The effect of early or late physical development are greater for boys than for girls Athletic prowess is the single most important determinant of peer acceptance for American males. The early mature is taller, heavier, and stronger that his peers during adolescence, although late matures do Findlay catch up and in fact, probably surpass early matures in height (Jones, 1957). Because of his physical superiority, the early mature is a better athlete, and better accepted by his peers for this reason. Further, early matures, are more relaxed, more matter of fact and less affected in their behavior all positive traits to peers presumably as a result of their early girls. In this study, late matures were judged to be more outgoing, assured, confident and animated.

The early maturing girl, with interest accompanying her sexual maturity may be considered odd by her agemate so far as girls are concerned the effect of differing rates of physical development is only a slight one during adolescence. Therefore it is not surprising that differences between early and late matures also appear to be minimal during adulthood.

In summary, out of step development appears to have a considerable influence on the social adjustment of boys during adolescence with late matures being at a
considerable disadvantages. Differences, between early and late males are still
discernible in adulthood, but are reversed in at least some areas. Differences are far
less marked in the case of girls, and vary between traits and between studies only
slight differences may be discerned in early adulthood between early and late
maturing females.

1.5.14 Adolescence and Identity

Some theorists believe that the key development task for the adolescent is answering
the question who am I? In Erik Erikson’s developmental theory, summarized in
Table-1, the core conflict of adolescence is the tension between role confusion and
identity seeking identity involves searching for continuity and sameness in oneself-
trying to get a clear sense of what one’s skills and personal attributes are, to discover
where one is headed in life and to believe that one an count on recognition from
'significant other'. The adolescent who forms a sense of identity gains two key
benefits, according to Erikson ‘ 1) ‘a feeling f being at home in one’s body and 2) ‘a
sense of psychological well-being’.

Adolescents who fail to achieve a sense of identity may face confusion over what
roles they can or should be playing in life. They may delay any commitment to adult
roles, a delay which Erikson calls a psychosocial moratorium Erikson himself went
through such a moratorium. After finishing secondary school, he spent several years
wandering around Europe, avoiding any firm decisions about what sort of career he
might pursue. His experience led him to see the psychological moratorium as both
promising and risky. It can be valuable period of information gathering or it can
involve rebellion an attempt to do precisely the opposite of what parents and others
think it proper and desirable. Erikson calls this rebellious pattern the pursuit of
negative identity.

In searching for an Identity, the adolescent also tackles the question ‘what do I realty
believe in ?’ with the development of formal operation, the adolescent an appreciate
and cultivate abstract values and principles/ abstract thinking makes it possible to love
freedom and hate greed. By blending abstract ideals with the information drawn from
admired models in real life, the adolescent can generate a broad array of possible
roles. In the best of cases, this array gets thinned out so that by the end of
adolescence, a satisfying self-definition has begun to take shape.
### Table-1

**Erikson’s psychosocial development stage.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Basic Conflict</th>
<th>Optimum outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Basic trust vs basic mistrust</td>
<td>Trust is the faith that things will be ‘all right’ It develops from good care provided by reliable others a favorable ration of trust to mistrust result in hope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Infant)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(toddler)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Initiative vs guilt</td>
<td>Initiative adds to autonomy of doing thing just to v doing them. A sense of guilt so often experienced over thing contemplated or actually done. A favorable ration of initiative to guilt results in a sense of purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Preschooler)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Industry vs inferiority</td>
<td>Grade school children learn to win approval by making things and doing things approved of in the culture. In literate societies they learn to read in ear literate societies, they learns to read; in preliterate societies, they learn the skills necessary for survival. Failure to produce or do valued things leads to a sense of inferiority. A favorable ratio of Industry to inferiority leads to a sense of competence and pleasure in work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(School child)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Identity vs role confusion</td>
<td>Identity referees to the ‘who am I’? and ‘what am I going to do with my life?’ questions of adolescents. Difficulty in answering such questions leads to role confusion. A favorable ration of identity to role confusion leads to a sense of consistency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(adolescent)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Intimacy vs isolation (young adult)</td>
<td>Here the task is establish lasting and loving relationships with other people. Love is the outcome of a favorable ration of intimacy to isolation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Generatively vs stagnation (middle adult)</td>
<td>Generatively includes productivity and creativity, but here it refers primarily to preparing the next generation for life in the culture. Care is the outcome of a favorable generativist to stagnation ratio.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ego integrity vs despair (older person)</td>
<td>Ego integrity ha many facets. In part, it refers to one’s acceptance of one’s life as what it had to be. Despair on the other hand, includes the feelings that life is too short to do much and that integrity can not be achieved. A favorable ratio of ego integrity to despair brings wisdom and the ability to face death calmly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 1.5.15 Mental Development

Mental development in adolescence accelerates in many intellectual fronts. As compared with children, adolescents develop greater insight, better understanding and can perceive relationship more easily. They develop the ability to generalize and can think of the solution of more difficult problems. This indicates that the thought process becomes more logical scientific and systematic during adolescence. It is an accepted fact that the thought process becomes more logical, scientific and systematic during adolescence. It is an accepted fact that the ability of intelligence reaches its maximum at the age of 16 and 17 years. Memory power also develops tremendously and adolescents can retain facts for a longer period. They can anticipate the future needs and can plan for it. Another important change in intellectual orientation is the adolescent’s ability to identity with the circumstances and people outside his own immediate environment. The imitative tendency of childhood disappears during adolescence. The adolescents develop certain amount of independence in thinking and can critically examine the things to make the decision of his own.

### 1.5.16 Cognitive Development

Adolescence is also a time for rapid cognitive development piaget also describes adolescence as the stage of life in which the individuals thought start taking more of
an abstract form. Many of the features of adolescent thought can be understood from this perspective.

1.5.16.1 Formal operations : Thinking Abstractly

At around the age of 12, most of the youngsters begin the final major stage of cognitive development discussed by piaget : formal operations. In this stage, thinking becomes quite adult like; in fact, most adult capabilities are thought to be in place by about the age of 16. this does not mean that we learn no new facts or skills after 16, it means that the basic process we use to think do not change much beyond this age.

A general feature of formal operational thought is the ability to think in terms of the abstract concepts that link concrete objects or actions tighter.

1.5.16.2 Hypothetical Thinking

With formal operations, boys and girls move from the world of the actual to the world of hypothetical. They can still think about the way things are, but they become much more skilled at thinking about how things might be if certain changes took place. Such thinking allows adolescents to judge the ‘reasonableness’ of a purely hypothetical line of reasoning. The difference between the two groups is that adolescents are between able to think through a chain of purely hypothetical events. This ability is another part of formal operational thinking.

1.5.16.3 Dedication and Induction

Hypothetical and abstract thinking make sophisticated deduction and induction possible. Deduction is reasoning from abstract, general principles to specific hypotheses that follow from these principles. Inductive thinking is the complementary process of observing a number of specific events or instances and inferring an abstract, general principle to explain those instances. The two processes can be seen in the adolescent’s reasoning about nature, science and even social problems.

1.5.16.4 Introduction Logic

Formal operations involve the ability to judge whether propositions are logically connected to one another, regardless of whether the propositions are true. This is called inter propositional Logic.

1.5.16.5 Reflective Thinking

Another formal operational skill that the adolescence used in the kaleidoscope problem is reflective thinking, the process of evaluating or testing your own reasoning. Reflective thinking allows the formal-operational person to be his or her own critic, to evaluate a process, idea or solution from the perspective of an outsider
and to find errors or weak spot in it. The reflective thinker can then sharper plans, arguments, or points of view making them more effective, more powerful such reflective thinking can make the formal-operational thinker a tough opponent in games of strategy such as chess or in debates on such social issues as the morality of abortion or the wisdom of a nuclear freeze.

Reflective thinking can also make the adolescent a powerful experimenter and problem solve why? Because it involves the ability to think thought a number of possible strategies or ‘experiments’ and to decide which one will yield the most information.

1.5.17 Moral Judgment: Deciding what is Right and wrong

The kinds of moral reasoning done by most adolescents and adults is often quite different from the child’s moral reasoning. In fact some of piaget’s (1932) early work suggested that people pass through steps in the development of their moral reasoning much as they pass through stages of cognitive development. Building on piaget’s work Lawrence Kohlberg (1976) and his associates (Colby et al. 1983) studied the development of moral reasoning by asking people of various ages to resolve moral dilemmas.

1.5.17.1 levels of Moral Development

Moral reasoning, kohlberg argues, passes through three different levels as people mature. At first, children reason at the preconvention level. They think in ways that fall short of the actuary moral concerns of society. Their reasoning is some what egocentric, if focuses on the personal consequences of the individual’s behavior later. children enter the conventional level. Their reasoning fits what many societies consider to be acceptable moral rules. Still later, perhaps in adolescence, people may enter the post conventional level, in which they rely on abstract principles that go beyond common place views of ethics and morality.

Kohlberg believes that everyone passes through the levels of moral reasoning in the same order in part because each level is more logically advanced than if its predecessor. On the other hand, kohlberg now thinks that most people fail to reach the post conventional level. The specific of kohlberg's theory have changed quite a lot in recent years (Colby et al. 1983; kohlberg, 1976), but the general framework outlined above remains intact. Moral reasoning is still thought to pass through a predictable sequence of levels, beginning with egocentric moral judgments and moving toward abstract moral principles.

Like many theories in psychology, kohlberg’s theory has its fans and its critics. Some for example have noted that the theory rests almost entirely on interviews with males
and may not apply so well to females. However, most agree that as both males and females move from childhood into adolescence, they use less and less egocentric reasoning and some come to rely almost entirely on abstract moral principles.

1.5.18 Social Development

Social development marks the transition from childhood to adulthood, adolescence requires the redefining of some basic some relationships with family members at this time involve increasing independence for the adolescent and usually involve increased conflict, too. Relationship with peers may become much more intimate and vital than they were in childhood. Finally, relationships with the opposite sex have new overtones of sensuality. All these shifts combine to make the adolescent's social world complex and electric.

1.5.18.1 Family relationships

In relationships between adolescents and their parents, a central theme is often that of testing limits. Most teen-parent arguments concern the timing of rights and responsibilities. Teenagers see themselves becoming adults, and they press for the freedom and privileges of true adulthood. Also the emergence of formal operations and more advanced moral reasoning means that the adolescent can think of reasonable alternatives to parental rules. As these alternatives occur to the teenager, parents can expect less automatic obedience and more resistance. These are signs of the adolescent's cognitive growth and should be respected as such parents who respond to disagreements with open discussion are encouraging their children to do the same and thus to practice a valuable social skill. Some studies suggest that self-reliance, independence, and social responsibility are most effectively promoted by parents who are flexible and encourage discussion. This parental style, unlike extreme parental dominance or extreme permissiveness, gives the adolescent some decision-making experience while insuring a degree of guidance and control.

In most families, adolescent girls have to struggle much harder for their independence than do adolescent boys. Teenage girls report more conflicts with their parents that do teenage boys, and the conflicts they report more often involve emotional flare-ups. Parents seem to place more restrictions on their teenage daughters than on their teenage sons, they worry more about their daughters' safety and especially about their sexual activity and the risk of pregnancy. Their daughter, unfortunately, do not see these restrictions as 'protection'. One of the most common explanations teenage girls give their conflicts with their parents is that their parents do not respect their maturity (Konopka, 1976).

Boy's conflicts with their parents tend to involve more objective issues of authority and privilege, such as access to the family car. Boys are more likely than are girls to
report that they are disciplined primarily by their fathers and that they receive affection primarily from their mothers. The boy's relationships with his mother and father appears to shift significantly around the time of puberty. Research based on videotaped observations (Steinberg, 1979) documented. Some of these shifts. Just prior to puberty, mothers and fathers seem to have about the same influence over their son's behavior. With the advent of puberty, boys act more assertively toward their mothers some tension and coolness persist between mother and son, into mid adolescence, with mother and son reluctant to defer to each other.

Although parent child relationships change during adolescence but sometimes dramatically.

1.5.18.2 Peer relationships

Peer - group membership assumes more importance during adolescence that at any other period of life. A peer group can provide a refuge and a source of support for youngsters in conflict with their families. Peer groups seems to change over the course of adolescence (Coleman, 1980, Dunply, 1963)

The structural feature of the adolescent peer group that changes during adolescence is the dominance hierarchy (Hartup, 1983; savin-williams, 1980). In middle to later childhood, youngsters who are skillful in directing play and games enlarge as leaders with the transition to early adolescence, the dominant youngsters are those with athletic and social skills and those who show the physical signs of puberty. By later adolescence, though, such physical factors are no longer so important; the leaders tend to be those who are bright, creative and well-liked.

1.5.19 Adjustment problems in Adolescence

When the society look back long their teenage years and recall the uncertainties, the conflicts and sometimes the loneliness, it is easy to recognize that adolescence is a time of real vulnerability. Nowhere is this truer than in the area of adolescent sexuality. Although sexual activity has increased dramatically over the past decade or two, sex education has not. As of 1980, most united states high schools did not offer sex-education courses. Adolescent girls are sadly unaware if such crucial basics as how to figure out the high-risk period for conception. A majority of teenage girls now use contraceptive devices when they have intercourse, but a majority of them did not at the time they first had intercourse. Girls who delay the use of contraceptives beyond their early sexual experiences are about three times as likely to get pregnant as girls who use protection from the beginning. The bottom line is a million-plus teenage pregnancies a year. About 400,000 of these end in abortion. In most of the remaining cases, the result is a new teenage mother, and over 90 percent of these mothers choose to keep their babies. This choice often sets in motion a cycle of educational and
economic disadvantages, an increased likelihood of child abuse, and an increased risk of psychological problems in both the mother and the child (Clarke-stewart & koch, 1983).

Sexually active adolescents who manage to avoid pregnancy still face risks of venereal disease, risks that have increased sharply over recent years. In addition to the diseases that are treatable with antibiotics, there is a new strain of gonorrhea that is not. There is also helps simple virus, type 2, otherwise known as genital herpes, it is thus far incurable and is thought to infect as many as 20 million Americans. Adolescents who have multiple sexual partners are especially at risk, about three fourths of those who contract venereal diseases are between 15 and 24 years of age.

Illegal behavior is defined broadly for adolescents. It includes both status offences, acts that are illegal only for minors and more serious offences that would be illegal at any age (for example, assault vandalism and illicit drug use.) About 80 percent of American adolescents admit to having committed at least one illegal act especially common is drug use as figure 3 shows. In addition, about 20 percent of violent crimes are committed by people under 18 contrary to popular opinion. Seriously delinquents adolescents do not come disproportionately from lower income families or from minority - group families (Gold & petronio, 1980). However, the delinquent youths who do come from such families are more likely to go onto careers of crime. Many argue that this is because middle-class delinquents are more likely to be saved by their family's resources money for an attorney, influence with the police, and so forth. The beginning of adolescence can mean facing up to some very adult Psychological problems.

1.5.20 Adolescence stage

The period of adolescence is considered as crucial and significant period of an individual’s life. Psychologically, adolescence is the age when the individual becomes integrated into the society of the adults. It is the stage when the child no longer feels that he is below the level of his elders but rather an equal with them, at least in rights. This integration into the adult society has many aspects, more or less linked with puberty. It also includes profound intellectual changes. This intellectual transformation, typical of an adolescent’s thinking, enable him to achieve his integration into the social relationships of the adults. This is the most general characteristics of this of development.

It is the period which begins with puberty and ends with the general cessation of the physical growth. It emerges from later childhood stage and merges into adulthood. It is difficult to assign define years to it because they differ from country to country and
culture to culture chronologically, age ranges are from 12/13 years to 18/19 years in India. In case of girls it begins about 1 year earlier than the boys.

Studies of changes in behavior, attitudes and values throughout adolescence have revealed that these changes are more rapid in the early part than in the later part of adolescence. As such, adolescence period is divided into two parts -

i) Early Adolescence - and

ii) Late Adolescence

Early Adolescence extends roughly from 12 to 13 and 16 to 17 years and late adolescence covers the period from 17 years to 18/19 years, the age of legal maturity. Late adolescence is a very short period. Early adolescence is usually referred to as the ‘teens’. Older adolescents are also strictly speaking, ‘Teenagers’. But the term teenage is popularly associated with the characteristics pattern of behavior of the young adolescents and is rarely applied to older adolescents. Instead they are usually referred to as young men and young women.

1.5.21 Characteristics of Adolescence

It is very important for school teachers and parents to understand these characteristics without which they can not be expected to be able to deal effectively with the adolescents. The distinguishing characteristics of this period are:

1.5.21.1 Emotional Immaturity

Adolescence is a period of ‘storm and stress’. Psychologists have regarded it as a period of heightened emotionality continuous physical changes mainly give rise to emotional uncertainty and instability. Emotions of anger, fear, shame, disgust give rise to variation in moods, nervousness, sensitiveness, stubbornness, disobedience etc. Sex drive is also a prolific source of emotional disturbance in adolescence. Beside these, adolescent’s striving for independence give rise to emotional conflicts. Their ideas and views often appear contradictory with that of their parents and other members of the society. At many times, therefore the adolescent suffer from emotional detachment from their parents and other members of the society so they are very prone to emotional maladjustment.

1.5.21.2 Social Consciousness

The period of adolescence is prominently a period of social development and adjustment. The most important social development during this period is the increased influence of the peer group. The type of peer group shapes the behavior of the adolescent to a great extent. His interests, attitudes and values are influenced by his
peer group. The adolescents become self conscious about their place in society. Adolescent boys and girls also develops a sense of some social services.

1.5.21.3 Hero-worshipping

In a adolescent stage hero-worshipping is a tendency. It means that the adolescents start to identify themselves with an ideal hero, whom they obey and follow. They admire and respect him. They organize their thoughts and activities in conformity with the ideal of the hero. The hero becomes the source of inspiration for the adolescents to aim for their future. The influence of the thoughts of a Hero on Adolescents. Adolescents can shape their own life following the ideals of these great man.

1.5.21.4 Creative Imagination

In the stage of Adolescence the boy or a girl becomes a creative imager. Imagination thus enriches and transforms experience and contributes to artistic appreciation and production during adolescence. Adolescents’ should be provided with opportunities for the development of their creative talents through music.

1.5.22 Basic needs of Adolescents

In the adolescence period, Adolescents have some basic needs which must be given due importance regarding their fulfillment. The basic needs of adolescents are divided into two groups -

a) Physiological needs and

b) Psychological needs

a) Physiological needs:

- Need for activity

Activity is the one kind of integral part of the Adolescent behaviour. The physical changes of puberty, the greater muscular power and the surplus the need for activity. This surfing need must be controlled and guided into the proper channels such as, dancing, swimming, playing football or other types of games and sports.

- Need for sexual satisfaction

Sex development is a fundamental fact of adolescence. The sex instinct which had been lying dormant during childhood is reawakened. In the adolescence stage the young adolescent repeats 3 stages of sexual development.

a) Auto-eroticism

The adolescent takes interest in his own body and he/she handles his own sex organs.
b) Homo-sexuality

During the early period of adolescence boys love to mix with boys and girls with girls.

c) Hetro-sexuality

This type of sexuality is found at the later stage of adolescence. The boys and girls are attracted towards the opposite sex.

b) Psychological needs

-Need for freedom

The young adolescents also need freedom in their life. They do not like to maintain a strict routine life. They do not like disciplined life which is imposed on them by their parents. They love freedom regarding taking decisions related to their life.

-Need for social life

This is an important need of the adolescent. They want to talk, discuss and come to some conclusions. This goes a long way towards satisfying their social need. The young adolescent wants to be something among his friends and in the total social set up. They want the approval of their actions and recognitions in any form by their parents, class fellows teachers and the community at large.

-The security need

The adolescent depends on his parents for this satisfaction of these needs. He wants their affection and attention. He wants some ideals which may help him in the conduct of his life. He wants inspiration from a hero, whom he worships, and who can guide him. This need can be fulfilled if the adolescent is given opportunity of studying the biography of great men like Gandhiji, Jawaharlal Nehru, Tagoreji, Vivekanandji, Lakshmibai, Sarojini Naidu etc. He will, derive strength and inspiration from them, imbibes ideals, formulates. His life goal and strengthens his will and character.

-The adventure need

Thirst for adventure is strong at this age. The adolescent wants to do something so that he is remembered by all. The answer is exploring something which others do not know. Something he is misunderstood and sometimes misdirected. In the absence of proper direction it takes the form of aimless wandering, vagabonding, unsocial acts like strikes and demonstrations. Even the sexual acts mean a thrill and adventure for them but properly directed adventure can be very much helpful for the adolescent’s social, mental, emotional and physical development.
- Need for self dependence need for a vocation

The young boys and girls want be independent at this stage. Boys and girls of high school age begin to think seriously about their future. Boys are usually more seriously concerned about an occupation than girls. Boys, typically, want glamorous and exciting jobs, regardless of the ability required or the chances for such jobs being available for them. They also want jobs with high prestige and of higher social status. But the girls on the other hand normally show a preference for occupations with greater security and less demand on their time. In their vocational choice, they usually stress on a service to others, such as teaching or nursing. By late adolescence the adolescents are concerned about what they would like to do and what they are capable of doing. They are also concerned about how they can get the kind of job want. Older adolescents have a growing realization of how much is costs to live and they also know what young people, just out of school, can exact to earn. As a result of this greater realism, they approach the choice of their careers with a more practical and more realistic attitude than they would when they were young.

1.5.23 Significance of Adolescence stage

Adolescence period is the most significant period of human development. In this period and adolescent face a number of problems like sex problems, Emotional problems, social problem, Educational problem, problem of leisure etc. Psychologically adolescence is the age when the individual becomes integrated into the society of the adults. It is the period to learn new things. It is also a period of anxieties and worries. It is the period of ambitions as well as of conflicts and complexities. So, the period of adolescence is considered as crucial and significant.

a) Rapid Physical development

It is a period of vital physical as well as physiological changes and developments. At this stage, all the external and internal body parts and organs achieve their full form and maturity.

b) Rapid mental development

During the early adolescence period, rapid mental development occurs. These give rise to the need for later mental adjustments and the necessity for establishing new attitudes values and interests. The adolescent is mentally alert at this stage. He not only develops not only his intellectual power but also his capacity to critical thinking.

c) Rapid social development

It is a period of social development and adjustment. In this stage, the child enters a new field of social responsibilities. The adolescents become socially conscious, self-
assertive, and loyal towards their group, they develop co-operation and friendship and become responsible.

d) Stage of emotional development

Traditionally adolescence has been thought of as a period of heightened emotionality resulting from glandular and other changes. The heightening is characterized by high degree of instability. The adolescents also develop dependency and sometime independency. They also develop some special feelings like - pride, humility, curiosity, guilt hero worshipping etc. All the emotions must be properly guided and they should be provided knowledge to control their emotions at this stage.

e) Rapid sexual development

A number of internal and external changes take place in the sexual characteristics of the boys and the girls at the adolescence stage. At the later part of this stage they achieve sexual maturity.

f) Rapid moral development

It is also a period of moral development and changes in morality. Their moral outlook becomes progressively more abstract. Moral convictions become more concerned with what is right and justice emerge as a dominant moral force. Their moral judgment becomes less egocentric at this stage. They develop an attitude toward the service to mankind.

1.5.24 Problems of Adolescence stage

Adolescence is a period of transition from childhood to adulthood. Any period of transition is likely to be associated with a number of problems. The problems of adolescence may be summarized in the following manner:

a) Sex problems

Adolescent development are basically conditioned by physical changes. The oneself of puberty gives the physical excitement never experienced before. The adolescent reacting to these experiences is excited, often without realizing what is happening to him. Some react with pleasure or excitement and some others experience. Shame, disgust, confusions anxiety and guilt. They may lead to sexual maladjustment.

b) Emotional problems

Heightened emotionality is a major problem of adolescence. Adolescents experience excessive emotion and they do not have sufficient control violence. Excitability and anger may find expression in its destructive from may lead to law and order problem. Emotion of love, suspicion, jealousy, frustration and revengefulness are very common among adolescents. Thus emotional immaturity is a major problem of adolescence.
c) Social problem
Every society has its own customs and traditions, which it wants to maintain. Every individual has to follow these social values but often the adolescents think all these are out dated and they are not willing to obey. This leads to conflicts. Physical development has many social implications. Sexual development necessarily includes, heterosexual orientation and they want to take part in social activities with the opposite sex. The denial of this desire often makes them discontented and restless. Thus, a number of social problems disturb into adolescent.

d) Educational problem
The environment of the school is also not conducive to meet the interests of the students. Defective method of teaching, curriculum, examination repressive measures adopted by school, unattractive condition of the school campus are largely responsible for creating frustration among the students.

e) Problem of leisure
Lack of proper recreational facilities or having nothing to do in their free time leads the adolescents to involvement in some unsocial and criminal activities. Their thoughts and attitudes may turn to be destructive and create serious problem for the society.

1.6 Educational stream
Education is separating pupils by academic ability into groups for all subjects or certain classes and curriculum within a school. It may be referred to as streaming or phasing in certain schools. In a education system, the entire school population is assigned to classes according to whether the students overall achievement is above average normal or below average. Students attend academic classes only with students whose overall academic achievement is the same as their own.

The wealth of knowledge acquired by an individual offer studying particular subject matters or experiencing life lessons that provide an understanding of something. Education requires instruction of some sort from an individual or composed literature. The most common forms of education result from years of schooling that incorporates studies of a variety of subjects.

The different curriculum divided in syllabus and

1.7 Personality and self esteem
Psychological research seems to indicate that self-esteem and personality are closely intertwined. Personality types are often measured according to the Eysenck model and Five factor model, the Eysenck model is based on two key personality characteristics,
as its more implies. Studies have found a correlation between low self-esteem for those people who score negatively and high self-esteem for those who score positively. A strong association between depression and low self-esteem is also indicated by these studies ideas about self-esteem and personality appear to be based on society’s notions of good and bad behavior.

Psychological studies based on the Eysenck model have found a correlation between self-esteem and personality. Self-esteem is often defined as a person’s assessment of his or her value as a human being not surprisingly, people who say they are not neurotic and extraverted have higher levels of self-esteem.

People often view self-esteem as being an intrinsic notion of self-worth that does not vary too much. Studies seem to indicate, however, that mental health affects levels of self-esteem. Depressed people were found to have lower levels of self-esteem, so it would seem that effective treatment of depression could raise levels of self-esteem.

More importantly, it would appear that definitions of self-esteem and personality are based on some values favored by society and experts in psychology, rather than a personal sense of worth.

### 1.8 Personality and Academic Achievement

Personality is the basic area of study for psychologists. Hall and Lindzey (1991) state that personality may be defined in terms of characteristics or abilities, that are highly representative of an individual and is an important part of the overall impression created on others. According to pervin, and John (2005) personality comprises of unique set of characteristics that define an individual feelings, way of thinking and behavior. Personality is a person set of relatively stable characteristics that account, patterns of behavior, in various situations each individual in some ways is different and in some ways is unique. There is much concern about the science achievement of the students in high schools recently. Accordingly a strong emphasis is currently placed on improving the quality of science education.

Recent studies show that personality traits measurement is powerful enough to explain a moderate percentage of the variance in academic achievement. The relationship between extroversion and academic achievement shows that extravert students perform better in primary schools where as introverts. Perform well in secondary schools and university (Eysenck & Cookson, 1969). Introverts are benefited in written exams, while extroverts have an advantages in oral exams. (Chamorro - premuzic & Furnham , 2003, Furnham & Medhurst , 1995).

Neuroticism is the condition of fear nervousness in stressful conditions like exams. (Hembree, 1988: Siepp, 1991) Neuroticism also leads to poor self-concept (Wells &
Methews, 1994) and low self-estimated intelligence. Chamorro - premuzie and Furnham (2003) found that Neuroticism may impair academic achievement or has no significant associations with academic achievement.

1.9 Personality, self-esteem and Academic Achievement

Educators have attempted to identify the effective predictors of scholastic achievement and several personality variables were described as significantly correlated with grade performance. Personality, academic achievement and self-esteem correlated with each other.

Personality represents the ‘whole person’ concept. It includes perception, learning, motivation and more. Personality seems to be a case when the whole is greater than the sum of parts and self-esteem is a way one feels about on self including the degree to which one posseses self-respect and self-acceptance.

There is a close relationship between self-esteem personality and academic achievement. However, there is considerable disagreement as to the specific nature of this relationship. It has been argued that students have to do well in school in order to have positive self-esteem or self-concept, another position is that a positive self-esteem is a necessary prerequisite for doing well in school.

The person who have a good personality and high level self-esteem, he has also a high level of academic achievement motivation when the child grow, the academic motivation is also grow in his self.

1.10 Self esteem and academic achievement

The affective traits and academic achievement are strongly correlated. If teachers want students to do well on academic achievement measures, it would be wise to work on students affect as well. By the same token, if teachers want students to have a high self-concept, it would be wise to work on academic achievement. Teachers need to be aware that self-esteem and academic achievement have lasting impacts on each other.

The beginning of the study of self-esteem is traced back to the Hindu scriptures, and became an official disline with James in 1860. Cooley (1902) contributed the theory of the ‘looking glass self’ which states that people see themselves on the opinion of others. Snygg and Combs (1949) argue that the world is what one perceives it to be, which may be more or less that reality.

While the study of self-esteem has occurred for centuries, the study of the interactions between self-esteem and academic achievement is relatively new to academic world. Prescott Lecky (1945) was one of the first to point out that students level of achievement might be related to the perceptions students have of themselves as
learners. Lecky saw that students with high self-esteem tended to have high academic achievement. Students with low self-esteem tended to have low academic achievement.

Walsh (1956) found that students who has low ability felt inferior when paired with high ability students. These same students did not feel inferior when paired with students with the same academic abilities. The first wave of self-esteem studies in the 1950’s (Benjamins, Reeder, Buckley and Scanlan) all found that a person’s self-concept had a direct bearing on his/her academic achievement. Since then, thousands of studies have been conducted on this topic, with most finding a significant correlation between academic achievement and self-esteem.

1.11 Personality, self-esteem, Academic Achievement and Adolescence

The influence of some identified psychological variables, like personality trait, self-esteem and academic achievement on adolescents. The result of some researches shows that significant correlation between those variables. Findings of some researchers revealed that personality traits affect the self-esteem and academic achievement of adolescents.

In the age of adolescence, the child face many challenges of psychically and mentally. This change leads him to failure. His personality is totally change because he /she identify himself. So, the teacher boost up their self-esteem and academic achievement. The first aim of educators is to prepare the children’s physically fit mentally developed, emotionally stable and of a well-developed personality.

1.12 Educational stream and personality, self-esteem and academic achievement

Education plays a vital role. The educational system reflects the development of the country. Education is producing such individual who remain dependent on others in every walk of that life. It makes us feel that the students are not achieving what they are expected to achieve.

Educational streams like science, commerce and Arts faculty also affect the personality, self-esteem and academic achievement of the adolescents. The well and good personality, high level self-esteem and academic success show in science and commerce faculty but in the chaining world the students of Arts faculty also shows their academic success in every area of education. They have also a high level of self-esteem.

1.14 Definition of Important terms in Research

In the present research some Important terms are used, which is as under.
A) Personality

‘Personality may be defined as the most characteristic integration of individual’s structures, modes of behavior, interests, attitudes, ability and aptitudes’.

B) Self-esteem

The personal evaluation of ourselves and the resulting feeling of worth associated with the self-concept is called self-esteem.

C) Academic Achievement

Quality and quantity of a student’s work.

D) Adolescence

Adolescence is the transitional stage of development between childhood and adulthood.

E) Educational Stream

1.15 Chapter summary

In this chapter what is personality, characteristics of personality, determinants of personality, personality development, classification of personality and theories of personality, what is self-esteem? development of self-esteem, theories of self-esteem are included.

In the present chapter what is academic achievement, Intellectual factors of Achievement, Theories of achievement, what is adolescence ? and a brief introduction about adolescence and educational stream are also included.

1.16 Research compiled

In chapter-1 Introduction, what is personality? Characteristics of personality, personality development, classification of personality. Theory of personality, what is self-esteem?, components of self-esteem, Theories of self-esteem, development of self-esteem, Importance of self-esteem, what is Academic Achievement? Achievement theories importance and Academic Achievement, brief introduction of adolescence and educational stream, definitions and important terms in research, chapter summary and significance of present study will be included.

In chapter-2 Introduction, studies on personality, studies on self-esteem, studies on academic achievement, studies on adolescence will be included.

In chapter-3 Introduction, problem of the research, objectives, hypothesis, sample, variable of the study, statistical techniques will be included.
In chapter-4 Introduction, Data analysis, result discussion and Interpretation of personality, self-esteem and academic achievement and its’ graphical representation also will be describe.

In chapter-5 Introduction, conclusions, recommendations and limitation of the research and in the last references will be included.

The review of the related literature will be discuss in the next chapter named review of relevant literature.