Chapter-1

Introduction
INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is the period of a person’s life between the ages of about 13 and 17. Adolescence has been defined as that time of life when an immature individual in his teens approaches the culmination of his physical and mental growth. Physiologically an individual becomes an adolescent with the advent of puberty and the ability to reproduce his kind. Chronologically puberty generally occurs in girls between the 12 and the 15 years with a range of about 2 years on either side of the figures. For boys puberty tends to occur from 1 to 2 years later that it does for girls.

The period of adolescence is the period of the transition between childhood and adulthood and is the source of potential trauma in our culture. Adolescence represented a most difficult development period in one’s life. This is the stage when the road is proved for adulthood and the adolescent’s identity is found to the developed and crystallized.

Adolescence is the age when the child has to take various decisions regarding vocational matters. The primary responsibility imposed upon him is academic success. If this goal is attained smoothly then he develops healthy personality. Non attainment of these goals may result in tensions. It is important to know the effects of these tensions.

May highly concentrated demands are made upon youth by society during this period for peer and heterosexual adjustments, for educational and vocational preparations and for the development of the workable set of personal and social values. It is adolescent who fails to
meet these varied demands in changing world, his personality development is adversely affected for healthy personality and intellectual development. The adolescent has to take important decisions regarding his education, vocation and his future life pattern.

Adolescence is the age when the child has to take various decision regarding vocational matters. The primary responsibility imposed upon him is academic recess. If the goal is attained smoothly then he develops healthy personality. Non-attainment of these goals may result in tensions. It is important to know the effect of these tensions.

Adolescents require freedom to experiment but they also need guidance and at times protection from situations that are dangerous. Teenager’s improved ability to reason about social relationship adds to family tension as well once they realize their parents, they no longer bend easily to parents authority, as they did at earlier ages because when development is very rapid the process of adjustment is harder.

It is the stage when rapid changes take place. It is a very important period of one’s life. Revolutionary changes in one’s character and experience take place from the very beginning of this stage. Adolescents now realize better as to what is good or bad for them. Their mental faculties become more alert. Gradually they develop a new character and personality.

Chronologically, adolescent girls of 12-18 years of age psychologically is terminating a prolonged period of infancy and as a processor to adult personality in which she witnesses changes in nearly all aspects of life physical, mental, social, which requires a lot of
adjustment on part of adolescence. Particularly girl lays foundation stone for adult personality trait. Sociologically adolescent are those who are trying to bridge the gap between dependent childhood and self-sufficient adulthood. Particularly for a girl, learns many household activities and sex-role stereotyped and male dominated values which contradict her attitudes of equality at workplace.

Adolescence is defined as a period of growth between childhood and adulthood but there is general disagreement about when it begins and ends especially adolescence is only intermediate stage between being a child and being an adult. Going to school is not an easy job, it means competition, pressure of studies, examination and the need for meeting the set standards. All these causes a lot of strain on the mind of the student and may cause tension and frustration which in turn may affect his performance, in classroom i.e., educational achievement.

One of the most important concerns of education to ensure that each child is able to utilize most of his abilities. Education plays a vital role in the building of society. Modern societies can not achieve their aims of economic growth and higher cultural standards without making the use of the most of the talent of their citizens. Higher education is undoubtedly the principal means of developing talents in the individual. In developing countries like ours, it is necessary that its resources are utilized to the full possible way with least wastage. Then it becomes very important for parents, teachers and all the members of society to see that a child’s abilities are utilized in the full possible way.

When the adolescent girls in India, especially in Rajasthan, are subjected to various types of discriminatory practices and when various
In introduction, steps are being taken to change the status of women and girls. Many girls are getting non-discriminatory environment. Girls differ in their family environment and the discriminatory practices along with the stress and storm of this period must be dependent upon how they perceive these practices used in their families. These perceived familial gender discriminatory practices must be influencing the psychology of the adolescent girls.

**Gender Discrimination:**

Gender discrimination is against a person or group on the grounds of sex or gender identity. Discrimination between man and woman is one of the cultural disparities in many societies and this is particularly in India. This is reflected not only in such matters as education and opportunity to develop talents, but also in the more elementary field of nutrition, health, education, and survival. Obvious disparities exist in the overall status of men and women, girls and boys. Traditionally the warring kingdoms found the boy’s child more desirable as he would grow up to protect his home. The girl child, perceived to be in need of protection was a cause for not only parental worry, but also for fierce strife between kingdoms. The historical approach to the girl child as a liability has colored modern day perception.

Gender: Culturally and socially constructed roles, responsibilities, privileges, relation and expectations of women, men, boys and girls. Gender is not another word for women. Gender is also not another word for sexual difference. Sex is the biological make-up of men and women, boys and girls the physical attributes with which we are born. Gender role is the different task and responsibilities and expectations that
society defines and allocates to men, women, boys and girls. These are not necessarily determined by big biological make-up and therefore can change with time and in different situations. Gender discrimination in which one gender is favored and the other becomes disadvantaged. Discrimination can occur both deliberately and unconsciously (implicitly). It can occur unconsciously when those responsible are not conscious of gender issues.

In general, discrimination is the discriminate of qualities and rejection of people or things with undesirable qualities. The latter is more commonly referred to as “differentiating”. When unlawful discrimination takes place, it is often described as discrimination against a person or group of people. Discrimination can be characterized as direct or slightly less-direct. Direct discriminations involves treating someone less favourably because of their possession of an attribute (e.g. sex, age, race, religion, family status, national origin, military status, disabilities) compared with someone without that attribute in the same circumstances. An example of direct discrimination would be not giving a woman a job because she is more likely to take maternity leave. Indirect discrimination involves setting a condition or requirement in which a smaller proportion of those with the attribute are able to comply with, without reasonable justification. Unfair discrimination usually follows the gender stereotyping held by a society.

The traditional roles of the Hindu women in male dominated society have often puzzled those who are not familiar with India, its culture and its religious affiliations. It is well known that Indian women hold a poor status in Indian society, with their lives bound to the home
and the family by varied codes, modes, norms and rituals. Traditional norms forbid them from indulging in activities visualized as masculine, including the taking of formal education that prepares them for roles other than their traditional roles. Simultaneously, however, it is in India that the Hindu religion, mythology and folklore, uphold the woman especially as mother and wife, and attributed several qualities to her that are highly lauded, like her patience, and tolerance, obedience towards her elders, especially husband after marriage and parents.

The images of the Hindu women apparently seem almost contradictory. The women is supposed to be weak, passive figure willing to submerge herself into anonymity for others, especially for the males in her family; however within her several highly appreciated qualities and a fiery strength that enables her to face to vicissitudes of life bravely.

This is India. And what is Indian society? A plethora of orthodox peoples and unyielding. And of course the newly turned elite class, which squirms its nose if the neighbor aborts the female fetus, but she does the same when her time comes.

What is a girl for the India society? A burden which has to be fed and brought up and then married to give birth to burdens like herself. A class – which has to be tolerated and then bundled off after marriage.

Today after more than half century of India’s independence, one has to reassess the situation in the light of present conditions. While the changes are considerable in urban areas, the rural areas continue to remain virtually unchanged.
Women under different religious laws:

Hinduism – In Atharveda, we find many prayers for the birth of a son. ‘The birth of a girl, grant it elsewhere, here grant a boy’ (Atharveda VI.2.3). The Veda contains charms and rituals to ensure the birth of a son, in preference to that of a daughter. Here are some of the references: ‘As arrow to the quiver, so let a male embryo enter thee, and from the side be born a babe, a ten month child, the hero son’. (I bid III. 23.2). ‘Bring forth the male child, bring forth a son, another male shall follow him. The mother shall thou be sons born and hereafter to be born’ (I bid III. 23.3).

Judaism – Rabbinism points out that to be a woman is a great degradation. The modern Jew says in his daily prayers, Fol. 5, 6..... blessed art thou O lord our God! Kind of the universe! Who hath not made me a woman? This theory further states that through the woman, sin originated and as a result all humanity faces death. The root cause of all worry, sorrow, labor and toil, misery and unhappiness has been the first woman – Eve.

Christianity – Christianity also emphasizes the condition of women as secondary as compared to a man. The Bible says;

a. Man’s priority in creation – Adam was first created then Eve.

b. The matter of creation – Man is not of the women, but the woman is of the man.

c. The purpose of creation – Man was not created for the woman, but the woman for the man.

d. Results in creation – Man exhibit the glory of God. But the woman exhibits the glory of her man.
e. Women’s priority in the fall – Adam was not deceived, but Eve was deceived, causing the transgression.

f. The marriage relation – As the Church is subject to Christ, so let the wives be to their husbands.

g. The headship of man – The head of every man is Christ, but the head of woman is Man.

**Buddhism** – Instead of considering the woman a necessary adjunct of society, her company was considered to be an obstacle in the development of higher power in man. ‘Nirvana’, was beyond question for women or even in the company of women. To the Buddhists, of all the snares which the tempter has spread for man, women are the most dangerous, and, in women are embodied all the power infatuation, which bind the mind of the world. In Buddha’s opinion, the accident of being born a woman must have been what to be born a Sudra was to a Brahmin.

Discrimination between man and woman is one of the crucial disparities in man societies, and this is particularly so in India. This is reflected not only in such matters as education and opportunity to develop talents, but also in the more elementary fields of nutrition, health, education and survival (Sen, A 1984). Obvious disparities exist in the overall status of men and women, girls and boys. Traditionally, the warring kingdoms found the boy child more desirable, as he would grow up to protect him home. The girl, child, perceived to be in need of protection, was cause for not only parental worry, but also for fierce strife between kingdoms. The historical approach to the girl child as a liability has colored modern day perceptions.
In order to rise to the full stature of being “fully human” is not so easy for women in India. Age log traditions worn out customs. Still block their way. It is tradition, conventional false belief of superstition, call what we may, that relegates a women, and along with her, the girl child, to some of the crevices of the society to live in there as worms.

When two children, a male and a female, grow up, both face the same society, but a society which is more indulgent towards boys. The scales are weighed down in boys favor. A male child, when becomes a boy is free to go to any place he chooses, but the more a girl grows up, the more strict should be her code of conduct. Parents say this is because society inflicts regulations which they have to follow to remain as dignified members of the society. Otherwise they would have given the same freedom to their daughters as given to their sons. But when the neighbor’s daughter is seen outside, the parents say that it is not good for the girl. So where does their regard for the society go? The problem is that the society is made up of parents like themselves—orthodoxy cloaked with a veneer of respectability. The girls feels morose when she remains a girl, but happy, when she becomes a wife and happier still when she sires a boy. Lately there has been a trend among parents to bring up their daughters on an equal footing with their sons, that is provide them with the same facilities, schooling and equal treatment on all counts but one and that is, their freedom. They can do anything but within the four walls of respectability, the hoax called modernism, and social accountability which hide the naked face of traditionalism.

The parents also use double standard and different code of rearing a boy and a girl. Gender role adoption gets defined; role preference
expectation and ability also get distinguished. In term of food, clothing, social contacts, responsibility of household and development of personality, the girls are taught and reared differently from boys.

There is gradual realization that men and women play on overlapping variety of roles which complement one another. A change for one inevitable brings a change for the other. A balanced gender aware approach would be the best way to implement development programmers. Whereas sex is biologically determined, gender imputes values to biological difference. One is born female or male but it is ones culture which makes one masculine or feminine. Gender is thus the cultural definition of behavior defined as appropriate to the sexes in a given society at a given time. Gender roles are hard to change but as they are socially/ culturally created, they are changeable. Gender roles are a learned behavior. These roles in their social, economic and political dimensions very across cultures and are internalized very early in life. There is non – conscious internalization of the gender role ideology during early childhood and education does little to modify or change this.

The social acceptance of the girl child’s neglect becomes understandable when we consider that unlike any other deprived group of individuals the denial of her basic rights begins within the walls of her own home. However, forward the place a girl lives in; the moment comes, or, is bound to come, when an unveiled suggestion comes to her that she is inferior because she is a girl. The boy is made to feel that he is the sole, legislator of the universe. So when he grows up, his mentality cruxes him to play the lead part.
Girls, almost all over the world in general and India in particular are reared, conditioned and disciplined differentially. They are not only discriminated against their own male siblings but also subjected to humiliation and made to lead a life of disgrace by considering them a burden in their own families by their own parents. Most of the girls do not get their due share of love respect, reorganization and medical care what to speak of education and exposure to the outside world. It may be emphasized that it is not merely a matter of poverty, due to which the parents can’t afford the above stated facilities to their daughters. Rather it is a question of discrimination treatment by their own parents who give priority to their sons in each and every respect and undermine and humiliate their daughter in some way or the other. Amazingly this discrimination is done across all the cultures and socio economic status families. The nature and degree of discrimination may very concrete and crude in low and lower middle families to subtle and very subtle in higher status families.

However, due to differential conditioning and pattern of reinforcement right frame their infancy the daughter are made to believe that they are born to lead different kind of lives, that there male folk are superior and supreme. It is due to this very reason that a vast majority of them not only accept this discrimination happily but also perpetuate it through generations and the process goes on unchecked. But, in spite of it there are girls, through in minority, who are sensitive to this discrimination against them and who are constitutionally pre-disposed to react very strongly on the one hand and their reaction is triggered off by the inhumane discrimination on the part of their own parents views
those on the other extreme i.e. those who are constitutionally pre

disposed to not to react so strongly. They perceive it and experience. It

is inhumane and considers it a great injustice to them so they react to

this discrimination by their parents. The reaction may not be confined to

their parents alone but also to their male siblings. Further, they do not
discriminative attitude and treatmen of their husbands and in-laws when

they are married and their employers/ bosses when in jobs.

The manifestations can be many surrounding and sacrificing ones
generally drink the cup of this discrimination as part and parcel of the
gift of this births at the hand of God, while non surrendering, more

sensitive girls, who just can’t imagine, accept and hence tolerate it,
protest can be against the parents or the favored male siblings or even
against God, which is manifested in their wish or attempt to commit
suicide, or they may withdraw from active life and land into mental
hospitals due to mal-adjustment and several depression. All these
manifestations adversely affect the development of their personality
traits and temperament, i.e. their self-concept, self-confidence, self-
estee and self-regard on the one hand and their adjustment with their

own selves, their family as well as the larger society on the other. These
in turn, affect their mental health adversely.

Parents don’t understand that proper care of girl is important not

only because of her own sake, but for the society’s future. The health

and nutrition of the girl today will affect the nutrition and the health of
the future generation, because she is the mother of tomorrow and no
future can be built on an edifice that is not strong and healthy and which

is corroded with discriminations and injustice at every level.
Discriminatory feeding practices start early in life. Girls are breast feed for shorter periods (often this is prompted by the anxiety to conceive and given birth to a son soon after a daughter’s birth) and receive less supplementary food than boys. Sons are shown preference in the distribution of more nutritious foods such as milk, butter and eggs. Girls infants are breast fed less frequently, for shorter duration and over shorter periods than are boys, a situation that may be exacerbated among the poor for social and economic reasons.

Gender discrimination replicates itself from generation to generation, violate the rights of the girl child and choke her further development. Low weight birth, insufficient feeding, inadequate care and nutrition depletions caused by repeated bouts of illness culminate overtime in a girl child. Deprivation in feeding and care that impair growth in the critical first years may also reduce cognitive development and learning abilities and failure in early growth. Gender discrimination comprises with poverty, crush girls sense of autonomy and self as well as their potential.

In India, for a girl child the period from infancy to adolescence, is a perilous path. In this socially inhospitable environment of patriarchal and male dominated society a girl is considered to be someone, who will never contribute to the family income and who at marriage will take a large portion of family assets as dowry. Born into difference and reared on neglect the child is caught in a web of cultural practices and prejudices that hamper her development, both physically and mentally.
In Rajasthan, to woman is confined to urban areas, the position in rural areas is pitiable and the problem is more acute in tribal, hilly and desert areas, particularly among the scheduled castes, tribes and linguistic minorities. However, for the young girls growing in Rajasthan, it remains simply the magic word that is supposed to bring to her all that she is deprived of. She was very limited access to school besides; the benefits of education have been still out of the reach of the rural females. If at all she gets enrolled in school, she drops out (or made to drop out) very soon, unable to cope with both school and her domestic choices. Her education is considered to have no utility.

As a former minister of public instructions, Mr. M. Paul Bert said, “By educating a boy you can get an individual and by educating a girl, you can get an educated family. “But in India, educating a girl would mean spending money on her. Her parents would surely like her to work and procure some money but would not like to “West” money on her education as she would be going away from them very soon. The girl child in India has a very little access to school, especially the rural female child.

A life cycle approach reveals that discrimination against girl children occurs before birth during infancy, and continues beyond childhood and adolescence into adulthood. Girls face discrimination in all sittings, often in places where they should be protected, in their home, school and immediate community. They are often among the first to be victimized by violence when community structures breakdown, such as when they are outside of familial support systems or during armed conflicts.
Several studies have found that almost all societies have valued sons more than daughters and have shown a market preference for male children, son preference is both a cause and a consequence of the low status of women.

This is psychological dimension which is a subsidiary product of cultural norms of sex – role appropriate conduct and is a natural consequence of the endemic condition of female life rooted in the contradictions of social structure and the pervasive ideology of female inferiority. It is a stable latent disposition, acquired early in life as a part of sex – role socialization.

The chart below illustrates some of the forms of discrimination faced by girls and women through the life cycle.

**Discrimination through the life cycle of Girls and Women**

![Diagram of discrimination through the life cycle of Girls and Women](image)
Repression - Sensitization Tendency:

The term ‘personality’ is derived from a Latin word ‘persona’, which means ‘mask’. Among the Greeks, the actors used masks to hide their identity on stage. The meaning of personality, derived out of the word ‘persona’, is outer or external qualities of personality. According to Allport (1924), ‘Personality is the individual’s characteristic reactions to social stimuli and the quality of his adaptation to the social features of his environment’. According to Eysneck (1953), ‘Personality is the relatively stable organization of a person’s motivated dispositions arising from the interaction between biological devices and social and physical environment’.

The importance of personality increases as social life becomes more complex. A ‘pleasing personality’ has a marketable value in a complex society and is highly priced and sought after. In simple cultures, where the scale of social relations is low, and behavior is regulated by age-old customs, personality is of less concern (Hurlock E.B. 1976). Definition of personality by different psychologists may be categorized in the following five categories:

i. Personality as a stimulus – Some psychologists defines personality in terms of its social-stimulus value, as how an individual affects other persons with whom he comes in contact. Woodworth (1947) defined personality as quality of individual’s total behavior.

ii. Summative approach – The second approach of defining personality emphasizes the importance of sum total of different processes and activities of the individual, as for example, innate dispositions, habits, impulses and emotions etc. According to
Dashiell (1929), individual’s personality is defined as his system of reaction possibilities as viewed by fellow members of the society. It is the sum total of behavior trends manifested in his social adjustment.

iii. Integrative approach – The definition of this category laid emphasis on the integrative aspects of personality. Warren’s dictionary (1934) defines ‘personality is the integrated organization of all cognitive affective and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinction from others’.

iv. Totality view – More emphasis is given to integration than the first category of definitions given above. Personality is defined as the characteristic pattern of behavior cognitions and emotions which may be experienced by the individuals and/or manifest to others.

v. Personality as adjustment – Behavior of an individual can be defined as an adjustment to his environment. Every individual develops his own unique way of adjustment in the society. The psychological literature is gorged with various definitions of personality, but the one most commonly accepted by psychologists is the definition rendered by G.W. Allport (1948). “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.” This definition emphasizes: 1) personality is constantly evolving and changing as a motivational and self-regulating aspect, 2) it is neither inclusively mental nor exclusively neural. It operates from both body and mind, 3) the psycho-physical system has motivational force for the full range
of social and environmental aspect, 4) the way in which individual learns to adjust in unique, 5) individual behavior includes a great amount of spontaneous creative behavior towards environment. According to Adler (1938), personality is a unique configuration of self, entity, motives, traits, interests and values that is expressed itself in a ‘style of life’. Coleman (1960) says that ‘personality is the individual’s unique pattern of traits. The pattern that distinguishes him as an individual and accounts for his unique and relatively consistent ways of interacting with his environment.

Personality may classified in terms of individuals most striking or dominant characteristics. Every human being whether a child or an adolescent or an adult possesses his own individual personality. This personality is reflected in all his activities and differs from individual to individual. The personality covers a wide range of traits and peculiarities of an individual.

It is regarded as a fairly stable configuration to tendencies acquired or inherited around which the individual attempts to integrate his experience and from which his behavior emerges. It seems probable that there is a very early establishment of the central core of traits in each individual. It is clear that personality develops and changes more or less throughout the life span as result of the environmental pressures to which it is subjected. External expression quite possibly the central traits also, are affected by illness, diseases and prolonged stress. These external expression or behaviors are only the directly observable facts. The theories of the overall structure of the personality are always based
upon inference and even these are inevitably interpreted through the personality of the observer.

Since adolescence is a period especially marked by physical, mental and emotional changes, one can expect corresponding changes in the personality of the adolescent. After many years of searching, traits theorist still discharge as to which traits dimensions are the basic units of personality. Researchers have ever been interested in the classifying individuals as special types. Some suggest as many as sixteen basic traits, others as few as two or three.

Table 1-1 gives the five traits dimensions that were studies in one research programmer for each dimension, it shows that adjectives describing the two ends of each rating scale it includes. In spite of disagreement about basic dimensions, there is usually some overlap in the findings of different trait theorists. Probably the two dimensions found most consistently involve extraversion-introversion and adjustment and integration as opposed to disorganization and anxiety (e.g. Vernon, 1964).

Table 1-1 : Some trait dimension and their components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait Dimension</th>
<th>Descriptive Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| I. Extraversion or Assurgency | Talkative – silent  
Adventurous – Cautions  
Sociable - Reclusive |
| II. Agreeableness | Good natured – Irritable  
Mild, Gentle – Headstrong  
Cooperative – Negativistic |
| III. Conscientiousness | Fussy, Tidy – Careless |
Introduction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait Dimension</th>
<th>Descriptive Components</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Responsible – Undependable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scrupulous – Unscrupulous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persevering – Quitting, Fickle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Emotional Stability</td>
<td>Poised – Nervous, Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calm – Anxious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Composed – Excitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Hypochondriac – hypochondriac</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Culture</td>
<td>Artistically – Artistically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sensitive – Insensitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intellectual – Unreflective, narrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Polished, Refined – Crude, Boorish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imaginative – Simple, Direct</td>
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</table>

Adopted from Norman (1963)

Lawin (1935) identified three different ways which motives can come into conflict with one another, approach-avoidance, approach-approach, and avoidance-avoidance. Out of these three the approach-avoidance conflicts are the commonest but, the same time, are toughest to deal with. A wide variation among individuals is seen in the way they deal with threatening, stressful, anxiety-producing, situations of life. Psychologists have suggested different mechanism though which individuals deal with “perceived threat”. Broadly speaking, reaction to threat can be classified into two categories.

In the first category can be placed the anxiety reducing activity which is variously named as “coping mechanisms”. This is mainly concerned with the adjustment of the individual to the environment. This is the instrumental response.

In the second category we have the anxiety-reducing activities which are unconsciously motivated and are called “defense mechanisms”.
Freud called them defense mechanisms because of the way they served to reduce anxiety or defend the individual from anxiety, without resulting in any change or improvement in conflict conditions which underlay anxiety. These mechanisms are learned behavior and do not work like automatic reflexes. Many of these defensive reactions are acquired by the child early in life when his cognitive structure is relatively undifferentiated (e.g. repression, and denial etc.) Others are learnt later in life after his ego is fully developed (e.g. projection, reaction-formation, sublimation, internalization, intellectualization etc.). The ego psychoanalytically speaking is the controlling organizing, and adaptive function of personality.

The coping mechanisms in psychoanalytic theory are most easily understood not as reactions to conflict but as ways of handling it. The normal processes of warding off base innate drives are called defense mechanism, is unsuccessful, it is considered pathogenic. As long as the instinctual needs are periodically satisfied, the coping mechanism will be able to handle the resulting energy. The defenses are unconscious, learned patterns. They are used to perceive and interact with the world and to handle neurotic anxiety which has created the need for coping.

Repression sensitization is a personality trait which indicates that there are regularities in people’s response to threat. Some habitually resolve approach avoidance conflicts by avoidance (characterized by repression, denial or dissociation) others by approach (characterized by identification or intellectualization).

Repression greatest attention has been devoted to repression, probably because of the theoretical importance of that in Freudien
psychology and psychoanalysis because most theoretical issues and research studies have focused on repression. Most people sometimes feel that they actively try to avoid painful memories and ideas and struggle to put out of mind thoughts that are aversive to them, common examples are trying not to think about a forthcoming threatening surgical operation, and trying to shunt attention away from the unknown results of an important test Psychologists often call such efforts to avoid painful thoughts “Cognitive avoidance”.

The psychoanalytic concept of repression as a defense mechanism is closely linked to the Freudien idea of an unconscious mind. The unconscious mind was construed by early Freudians as a supersensitive entity whose perceptual alertness and memory bank suppressed the same properties of the conscious mind (e.g. Blum 1955) a chief function of the unconscious mind was to screen and monitor memories and perceptual inputs. This screening served to inhibit the break through of anxiety arousing stimuli from the unconscious mind to the conscious, or from the outside world to consciousness. Just as the conscious mind was believed capable of deliberately (consciously) inhibiting events by suppression, so the unconscious was considered capable of inhibition or cognitive avoidance at the unconscious level by repression

The dimension on which these differences seemed to fall was a continuum of behaviors ranging from avoiding the anxiety arousing stimuli to the defensive mechanism that psychoanalysts called denial and repression; the latter pattern vigilance or sensitization to anxiety-provoking cues-seemed more like the intellectual ruminations subsumed under such mechanism as intellectualization and obsessive worrying.
This dimension now has become known as the repression-sensitization continuum. Repression-sensitization becomes the focus of much research both as dynamic process and as a personality dimension on which individuals might show consistent patterns.

A reanalysis of six sets of experimental data by Lazarus and his associates (Weinstein, Averill, Opton & Lozerus 1968) reveals the external expression of emotion are not necessarily congruent with internal physiological arousal, but depend on the personality style of the person. Some people are high-denial subjects or repressors while others are low denial subjects or sensitizers. Repressors will deny fear verbally but simultaneously reveal higher physiological arouse (by direct measures). Conversely, sensitizers will admit fear verbally but reveal a lower degree of physiological arousal.

Buck (1976) discuss and analyzes similar relationship between skin conductance (physiological - arousal) and facial expressiveness (external-expression) of emotion. He uses the terms internalizes (in place of deniers), and externalizes (in place of sensitizers). Internalize have high skin conductance but low facial expressiveness of emotions, while externalizes have low skin conductance but high facial expressiveness.

Thus there seems to be personality disposition which differentiates emotional arousal and expression (See Table-1-2).
Table 1-2: Personality correlates of emotional expression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Repressors</th>
<th>Sensitizers</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internalizes</td>
<td>Externalizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deny fear verbally</td>
<td>Admit fear verbally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not sow fear in facial expression</td>
<td>Show fear in facial expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher physiological arousal</td>
<td>Lower physiological arousal</td>
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</table>

The data Lazarus and his associates, and Buck essentially show the different personalities display a different emotional style as a result of selective attention to information. Sensitizers are verbally coding their emotional arousal more accurately than repressors. Nevertheless, physiological measures show that the repressors are aroused. We do not know if the repressors are lying or are themselves unaware of their own physiological activity, or perhaps they not their sensations, but do not identify them as emotions. This may be considered a cognitive explanation of “unconscious or defensive behavior.

Those who act in a sensitizing or repressing manner in one situation are likely to do so as another. Eriksen (1952) reported that persons who were unable to remember problems which they could not solve when their failure had been made stressful—thereby showing signs of repression were also likely to have difficulty learning emotionally loaded wards such as die.

Donn Byrne (1964) developed a paper and pencil test which has been successful in identifying repressors and sensitizers. Using persons rated as repressors and sensitizers on this scale. Researchers have been able to identify many related behavioral characteristics. As would be expected on self-report personality tests, sensitizers are more likely to
admit being anxious than the repressors (Lomont 1964: Ullman and Reynolds, 1963) also repressors tend to describe themselves is more socially acceptable terms (Byrne 1964). After examining the research in this area Byrne summarized the description of repressors and sensitizers (See Table 1-3).

Table 1-3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Repressers</th>
<th>Sensitizers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Active, alter, ambitious, competitive, energetic, enterprising, forward industrious, ingenious, productive, progressive, quick, resourceful, strict and thorough in their own work and in expectations for others and valuing work and effort for its own sake.</td>
<td>Apathetic, excitable, lacking in self direction, leisurely, overly judgmental in attitude, passive, pessimistic about their occupational futures, quite submissive, unambitious, and unassuming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Broad and varied interests, capable, clear-thinking, high value on cognitive and intellectual matters, intellectually able, intelligent, original &amp; fluent in thought, valuing intellectual activity and intellectual achievement, verbally fluent, versatile and well-informed.</td>
<td>Coarse, constricted in thought and action conventional and stereotyped in thinking, narrow, opinionated, shallow and shrewd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Calm conscientious, deliberate, diligent, efficient honest, inhibited, organized patient, persistent, painful, practical, responsible, self denying, sincere slow, stable, thorough and thoughtful.</td>
<td>Awkward, cautious, confused, easily disorganized under stress or pressures to conform, easy going, impulsive, insecure, lacking in self discipline, stubborn, and uninhibited.</td>
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</table>
Lazarus and Alfert (1964) have thrown more light on how successful different strategies are in reducing anxiety. They presented repressors and sensitizers with the film of puberty rite. This film was judged in advance by the researchers to be anxiety-provoking subjects were placed in one of three conditions. The first involved simply watching the film. The second involved watching the film with a “denial commentary”. The commentary emphasized the positive aspects of the event, such as the joy of the entering manhood, and de-emphasized the pain. The third condition allowed the subjects to read the commentary. While the film was on, the sweat or galvanic skin response (GSR), which is a reaction to anxiety and arousal was recorded in all the subjects. Anxieties as measured by skin conductance, are in contrast to the verbal reports of anxiety in repressors and sensitizers. Repressors, though denying anxiety, show increasing automatic arousal as stimulus...
conditions become more threatening. On the other hand, sensitizers show less arousal even though they state that they are anxious.

Repressors showed greeted signs of arousal than the sensitizers. This alone suggests that the sensitizers were less aroused and presumably may have experienced less anxiety. A comparison of skin conductance over the here conditions, however, indicates that when a denial orientation is supported by the circumstances, then the deniers can successfully reduce their anxiety. One explanation for this might be that the high deniers accept the commentary more than the low deniers.

Many aspects of social behavior such as an individual’s interpersonal perception and attraction, his response to the demands of the group situation, and his effect on others may be, in part, significantly influenced by the repression-sensitization dimension. Altrocchi (1961) for example, found that the assumed dissimilarity between self and others was significantly higher for sensitizers than the repressors, regardless of the degree of actual similarity-dissimilarity. In one study, repressors rated themselves as showing more concern for maintaining friendly relations than did the sensitizers, neutral rated themselves as showing more leadership ability than did the two extreme groups.

Repressors prefer the mechanisms of repression, suppression and denial of anxiety or conflict (Christie and Lindauer 1963) and show predominately avoiding behaviors (Byrne 1964). Sensitizers serve as a control group for repressors (Gordon 1957) who over interpret potential threat (Altrocchi, Persons and Dickoff 1960) by showing predominantly approach mechanisms (Byrne 1964 a) a great deal of anxiety (Gordon 1959), pessimism and disorganization (Joy 1963 at al).
In the primary repression phase, an infant learns that some aspects of reality are pleasant, and others are unpleasant; that some are controllable, and others not. In order to define the self, the infant must repress the natural assumption that all things are equal. Primary repression then is the process of determining what is self, what other is, what is good, and what is bad. At the end of this phase, the child can now distinguish between desires, fears, self, and others.

Secondary repression begins once the child realizes that acting on some desires may bring anxiety. This anxiety leads to repression of the desire. The threat of punishment related to this form of anxiety, when internalized becomes the superego, which intercedes against the desires of the id (which works on the basis of the pleasure principle) without the need for any identifiable external threat. This conflict manifests itself within the ego.

Abnormal repression, or complex neurotic behavior involving repression and the superego, occurs when repression develops and/or continues to develop, due to the internalized feelings of anxiety, in ways leading to behavior that is illogical, self-destructive, or anti-social. A psychotherapist may try to reduce this behavior by revealing and re-introducing the repressed aspects of the patient's mental process to her or his conscious awareness, and then teaching the patient how to reduce any anxieties felt in relation to these feelings and impulses. It is often claimed that traumatic events are repressed, yet it appears that the trauma more often strengthens memories due to heightened emotional or physical sensations. (These sensations may also cause distortions, though human memory in general is filtered by layers of perception and
incompletion). One problem from an objective research point of view is that a memory must be measured and recorded by a person's actions or conscious expressions, which may be filtered through current thoughts and motivations. In individuals with repressive coping styles typically respond with false positive or false negative. Repressors did not differ from sensitizers in overall pain tolerance scores. An interaction was found, however, with repressors demonstrating a significant decrease in pain tolerance upon a second tolerance determination.

Repressors’ low level of self-reported anxiety, as a qualitative aspect of responding to threat, may be understood as a coping strategy aimed at reducing the impact of the threatening stimulus as reflected in the physiological arousal. Gudjonsson (1981) showed that repressors and sensitizers identified on the basis of their discrepant physiological and self-reported measures of emotional disturbance displayed the expected differences on corresponding trait measures repressors scored lower than sensitizers on neuroticism, a construct related to trait anxiety, but scored higher than sensitizers on a measure of social desirability, closely related to defensiveness. Following the influential article by Weinberger, Schwartz, and Davidson (1979), repressors and sensitizers have almost uniformly been identified through a combination of self-reported anxiety and social desirability, with high social desirability indicating high defensiveness. In this classification, repressors are defined by the combination of low trait anxiety and high defensiveness that distinguishes them from genuinely low anxious individuals, who display low trait anxiety as well as low defensiveness. Sensitizers, called “high anxious” in this approach, display high trait anxiety and low defensiveness and are different from “defensive high anxious” persons
who score high on both anxiety and defensiveness. Weinberger approach has been used to relate repression-sensitization not only to the processing of social threat but also to responses to stimuli indicating physical danger (Brosschot, de Ruiter, & Kindt, 1999). The combination of high avoidance and low vigilance characterizes repressors, the combination of low avoidance and high vigilance characterizes sensitizers, the combination of low vigilance and low avoidance corresponds to the low anxious category, and the combination of high vigilance and high avoidance represents the defensive high anxious category (Krohne, 1993). Repressive and sensitizing coping responses that are reflected in individual differences in emotional arousal and self reported affect. With few exceptions, past research on repression and sensitization has paid little attention to media violence as a source of activating individual differences in coping with anxiety.

Adolescent girls of broken families have more sense of insecurity in comparison to the girls of unbroken families because parents who try to satisfy all type of need the children require are absent. In the absence of father or mother the child develops the sense of insecurity, which may be defined as emotional instability, feeling of rejection, inferiority, anxiety, isolation, jealousy, hostility, irritability, and inconsistency etc. On the other hand, girls from the unbroken families feels that the world is safe, friendly, nurturing, and need satisfying due to the presence of united and loving parents. The accommodation of successful need of satisfying experience around them lead to a sense of security. Girls from the broken families have more anxiety then the girls from the unbroken families. Child of the broken families feels started at the loose of a person who has been a source of love and satisfaction for him. Feelings
of bewildered grief are generated due to the disappearance of father or mother and great anxiety is stirred in the child. Adolescent girls of the unbroken families do not suffer from anxiety because the parents in the united families try to satisfy the needs of their children and provide secure environment. Adolescent girls of the families of high socio-economic status are extrovert. Economic condition of the family is no doubt, good. Relatively the social status is also high. Parents of such families can easily fulfill all the necessary requirement of their children. They are capable of satisfying their needs and demands. They can afford to provide higher education. All these factors facilitate to promote extrovert tendencies in the children. The extrovert girls tend to feel and act according to the demand and expectation of the situation and they are establishing friendship with others very easily. They are also interested in participating in the social affairs. Their interests, values and attitudes are directed towards the physical and social environment. In the poor families, parents cannot fulfill the minimum needs of their children and do not enjoy good status in the society in comparison to the rich families. Due to this, adolescent girls of the families of socio-economic status develop the introvert tendencies. Their physic energy is internally oriented and they live within their own words of emotions and feelings. They do not take interest in participating social affairs.

A further role for motive in the understanding of repression is a link to individual differences in the use of repression. A well-established line of research has examined individuals thought to use repression habitually; this individual difference is referred to as the repressive coping style. Research on the repressive coping style has linked this to alterations in attention, memory for negative stimuli, autobiographical
memory, and a range of other behaviors, generally elucidating the effects that repression may have on cognitive functioning (Derakshan & Eysenck 1997; Weinberger 1990).

An undimensional categorization which encompasses many diverse mechanisms grew out of the research of the new look in perception in the 1940's repression-sensitization. At one end of this continuum of defensive behaviors are those responses which involve avoidance of anxiety-arousing stimuli and its consequents. Included here are repression, denial, and many types of rationalization. At the sensitizing extreme of the continuum are behaviors which involve an attempt to reduce anxiety by approaching or controlling the stimulus and its consequents. The later mechanisms include intellectualization, obsessive behaviors, and ruminative worrying. Thus, repressing and sensitizing defenses constitute mutually opposing patterns of ego-defense mechanisms, though not necessarily implying mutual exclusiveness. Approach defenses characterize the sensitizer, while avoidance maneuvers are characteristic of the repressor. Reliance not on one specific defense mechanism, but on several with common elements is consistent with psychoanalytic theories of ego defense. The two extremes of the repression-sensitization dimension have been conceived as maladaptive, stable defense-mechanism preferences. Individuals who characteristically utilize repressive defense mechanisms would be less likely to report negative self descriptions and large self-ideal discrepancies than sensitizing individuals. Sensitizers, however, would be hyper vigilant to negative aspects of the self, essentially approaching their self-perceived negative qualities. Thus, self-descriptions of sensitizers would be negative and ideal-self discrepancy great.
Sensitizers have more hostile, submissive and self concepts than repressors. Repressors evaluate themselves highly in an attempt to convince themselves and others that little or no hostility is present; they reinforce their own concept of interpersonal effectiveness and affection; and they repress negative feelings (Christie & Lindauer, 1963; Byrne, 1961, 1964; Feder, 1967). Sensitizers tended to report more indications of anxiety than did repressors. In a factor analytic study, repression-sensitization was found to be related to emotional instability, social withdrawal, impulsiveness, cyclothymics, thinking introversion, obsessive-compulsiveness, social introversion, and depression. Sensitizers, not repressors, tended to give unusual or unconventional responses, to be depressed and discouraged, neurotic, anxious and agitated, socially introverted, cynical and self-depreciating, and to have less ego strength (Joy 1963 and Ender 1963). Hare (1966) found that repressors reacted physiologically to threat but avoided thinking about it. Neutrals took advantage of added information in order to maximize accuracy of prediction, whereas sensitizers and repressors did not (Kaplan, 1967). Repressors deny that anything is wrong with them while sensitizers Over emphasize their failings. Repressive defenses are likely to introduce motivational distortion in the self report inventory. Low ego strength (sensitizers) is associated with poor frustration tolerance, ability of emotion and attitude, evasiveness in ego involving situations, and neurotic fatigue and worry (Eber 1962).

In summary, individuals can be conceived of as being on a continuum with repression tendency to avoid anxiety and sensitization tendency to approach anxiety at opposite ends. Persons who are either extreme repressors or extreme sensitizers tend to use predictable
adjustment styles when they are anxious. Repressors tend to engage in defense mechanisms such as repression and denial, while sensitizers tend to utilize projection and intellectualization. Individual success with these defense styles is complicated. It is clear that sensitizers see themselves as being more anxious, while repressors describe themselves along more socially acceptable lines. Some studies indicate, however, that repression might be a less successful strategy than sensitization.

**Achievement Motivation:**

Achievement motivation can best be understood by examining the meanings of “achievement” and “motivation” separately. Achievement typically stresses the importance of accomplishment and attainment with effort involved (Mandel & Marcus, 1988). Motivation relates to an individual’s reason for engaging in an activity, the degree to which an individual pursues the activity, and the persistence of the individual (Graham & Weiner, 1996).

Achievement motivation is defined as a non-conscious concern for achieving excellence through individual efforts. Such individuals set challenging goals for themselves, assume personal responsibility for goal accomplishment, are highly persistent in the pursuit of these goals, take calculated risks to achieve the goals, and actively collect and use information for purposes of feedback.

People with achievement motives are motivated by standards of excellence, delineated roles and responsibilities and concrete, timely feedback. Those with affiliation motives are motivated when they can accomplish things with people they know and trust. And the power
motive is activated when people are allowed to have an impact, impress those in power, or beat competitors.

Achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways. Our understanding of achievement-relevant effects, cognition, and behavior has improved. Despite being similar in nature, many achievement motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most achievement motivation theories are in concordance with one another instead of competing. Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchal model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: the achievement motive approach and the achievement goal approach. Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behavior toward positive and negative outcomes. Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of these achievement goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others, a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task master. Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstance.

Thus, achievement motives are said to have an indirect or direct influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes. These motives and goals
are viewed as working together to regulate achievement behavior. The hierarchal model presents achievement goals as predictors for performance outcomes. The model is being further conceptualized to include more approaches to achievement motivation. One weakness of the model is that it does not provide an account of the processes responsible for the link between achievement goals and performance. As this model is enhanced, it becomes more useful in predicting the outcomes of achievement-based behaviours (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

Motivation can be defined as the driving force behind all the actions of an individual. The influence of an individual's needs and desires both have a strong impact on the direction of their behavior. Motivation is based on emotions and achievement-related goals. There are different forms of motivation including extrinsic, intrinsic, physiological, and achievement motivation. There are also more negative forms of motivation. Achievement motivation can be defined as the need for success or the attainment of excellence. Individuals will satisfy their needs through different means, and are driven to succeed for varying reasons both internal and external.

Motivation is the basic drive for all of our actions. Motivation refers to the dynamics of our behavior, which involves our needs, desires, and ambitions in life. Achievement motivation is based on reaching success and achieving all of our aspirations in life. Achievement goals can affect the way a person performs a task and represent a desire to show competence (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997). These basic physiological motivational drives affect our natural behavior in different environments. Most of our goals
are incentive-based and can vary from basic hunger to the need for love
and the establishment of mature sexual relationships. Our motives for
achievement can range from biological needs to satisfying creative
desires or realizing success in competitive ventures. Motivation is
important because it affects our lives every day. All of our behaviours,
actions, thoughts, and beliefs are influenced by our inner drive to
succeed.

Over the years behavioral scientists have observed that some
people have an intense need to achieve; others, perhaps the majority, do
not seem to be as concerned about achievement. This phenomenon has
fascinated David C. McClelland. For over twenty years he and his
associates at Harvard University studied this urge to achieve.

McClelland's research led him to believe that the need for
achievement is a distinct human motive that can be distinguished from
other needs. More important, the achievement motive can be isolated
and assessed in any group.

Achievement-motivated people take the middle ground, preferring
moderate degree of risk because they feel their efforts and abilities will
probably influence the outcome. In business, this aggressive realism is
the mark of the successful entrepreneur.

Money, to achievement-motivated people, is valuable primarily as
a measurement of their performance. It provides them with a means of
assessing their progress and comparing their achievements with those of
other people. They normally do not seek money for status or economic
security.
Feedback:- A desire by people with a high need for achievement to seek situations in which they get concrete feedback on how well they are doing is closely related to this concern for personal accomplishment.

In addition to concrete feedback, the nature of the feedback is important to achievement-motivated people. They respond favourably to information about their work.

They are not interested in comments about their personal characteristics, such as how cooperative or helpful they are.

- Affiliation-motivated people might want social or attitudinal feedback.
- Achievement-motivated people might want job-relevant feedback. They want to know the score.

McClelland claims it is because they habitually spend time thinking about doing things better. In fact, he has found that wherever people start to think in achievement terms, things start to happen. Achievement-motivated people tend to get more raises and are promoted faster because they are constantly trying to think of better ways of doing things.

According to David C. McClelland's research, achievement-motivated people have certain characteristics in common, including:

- The capacity to set high ('stretching') personal but obtainable goals,
- The concern for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success, and
- The desire for job-relevant feedback (how well am I doing?) rather than for attitudinal feedback (how well do you like me?).

**Self-Confidence:**

Self-confidence is the inner feeling of certainty. It is a feeling of certainty about who you are and what you have to offer to the world. It is also the feeling that you are worthwhile and valuable. Everyone craves to possess self-confidence because it makes life so much easier and so much more fun. Self confidence gives us the energy to create our dreams. Self confidence is an essential element to being able to create powerful. Self-confidence is not boastful or mean or taking advantage of others.

Self confidence is one of the personality traits which are composite of a person’s thoughts and feelings, strivings and hopes, fears and fantasies, his view of what he is what he has been, what he might become, and his attitudes pertaining to his worth. Self confidence is a positive attitude of oneself towards one’s self-concept. It is an attribute of perceived self. Self confidence refers to a person’s perceived ability to tackle situations successfully without leaning on others and to have a positive self-evaluation. A self confident person perceives himself to be socially competent, emotionally mature, intellectually adequate, successful, satisfied, decisive, optimistic, independent, self-reliant, self-assured, forward moving, fairly assertive and having leadership qualities. So the concept of self confidence enjoys important position in the theories of human behavior and personality and is regarded as a basic condition of human existence in modern day world by many thinkers.
Confidence means thinking that one can and will achieve his goals. Persuade oneself, through his self-talk, that he is capable, he can perform well, he will execute his race strategy, and he can make all the intervals in the set. Monitor what he says to himself and make sure his internal talk is instructional and motivational rather than doubting and negative.

Confidence is learned, it is not inherited. If person lack confidence, it probably means that, as a child, he was criticized, undermined, or suffered an explicable tragic loss, for which he either blamed himself or were blamed by others. A lack of confidence isn’t necessarily permanent but it can be if it isn’t addressed. Our religion, the influence of the culture which formed our perspectives, our gender, social class and our parents, in particular, are all factors which influence and contribute to our level of confidence. Confident people have deep faith in their future and can accurately assess their capabilities. They also have a general sense of control in their lives and believe that, within reason, they will be able to do what they desire, plan and expect, no matter what the foreseeable obstacle. But this faith is guided by more realistic expectation so that, even when some of their goals are not met, those with confidence continue to be positive, to believe in themselves and to accept their current limitations with renewed energy. However, having high self confidence does not mean they will be able to do everything they want. That view is unrealistic, one for the perfectionist. A desire to be good at everything we do, in order to impress others, stems from a competitive instinct and lack of personal reinforcement. Any truly successful life as both rewards and the ability to learn from any setbacks, which increase resilience, self belief and determination.
Real confidence requires that face the possibility of failure constantly and deal with it. However, if consistently lose out on both achievement and validation, even our identity is called into question. Self Confidence is essentially an attitude which allows having a positive and realistic perception of abilities. It is characterized by personal attributes such as assertiveness, optimism, enthusiasm, affection, pride, independence, trust, the ability to handle criticism and emotional maturity. In the words of Basavanna (1975), “Self confidence refers to an individual’s perceived ability to act effectively in a situation to overcome obstacles and to get things go all right.” Having self confidence does not mean that individuals will be able to do everything. Self confident people may have expectations that are not realistic. However, even when some of their expectations are not met, they continue to be positive and to accept themselves.

People who are not self confident tend to depend excessively on the approval of others in order to feel good about them. As a result, they tend to avoid taking risk because they fear failure. They generally do not expect to be successful. They often put themselves down and tend to discount or ignore complements paid to them. By contrast, self confident people are willing to risk the disapproval of others because they generally trust their own abilities. They tend to accept themselves, they don’t feel they have to confirm in order to be accepted. Self confidence is not necessarily a general characteristic which pervades all aspects of a person’s life. Typically, individuals will have some areas of their lives where they feel quite confident, e.g. academics, athletics, while at the same time they do not feel at all confident in other areas, e.g. personal appearance, social relationships. Many factors affect the development of
self-confidence. Parents’ attitudes are crucial to children’s feelings about themselves, particularly in children’s early years. When parents provide acceptance, children receive a solid foundation for good feelings about themselves. If one or both parents are excessively critical or demanding, or if they are overprotective and discourage moves toward independence, children may come to believe they are incapable, inadequate or inferior. However, if parents encourage children’s move toward self-reliance and accept and love their children when they make mistakes, children will learn to accept themselves and will be on their way to developing self-confidence. Surprisingly, lack of self-confidence is not necessarily related to lack of ability. Instead it is often the result of focusing too much on the unrealistic expectations or standards of others, especially parents and society. Friends’ influences can be as powerful as of parents and society in shaping feelings about one’s self. Students in their teens re-examine values and develop their own identities and thus are particularly vulnerable to the influence of their peer group.

Build a model of self-confidence where people have imperfect knowledge about their ability, which in most tasks is a complement to effort in determining performance. Higher self-confidence thus enhances motivation, and this creates incentives for the manipulation of self-perception. An individual suffering from time-inconsistency may thus want to enhance the self-confidence of his future selves, so as to limit their procrastination. The benefits of confidence-maintenance must, however, be traded off against the risks of overconfidence (inappropriate tasks being pursued). Moreover, rational inference implies that the individual cannot systematically fool himself. A first application of the model is self-handicapping: to avoid a negative inference about their
ability, people may deliberately impair their performance, or choose overambitious tasks. Another application is selective memory or awareness management: people are (endogenously) more likely to remember or consciously acknowledge their successes than their failures. This, in turn helps explain the widely documented prevalence of self–serving beliefs—that is, the fact that most people have overoptimistic assessments of their own abilities and other desirable traits.

How does the crisis of self-confidence manifest itself? First, individuals’ uncertainty about themselves forces them to look friends for support. Desire for popularity (like that of Carlos in the first part of the program) is a major quest of adolescents, as is the desire for friends’ approval (like that of Tom in part three). During the years of change, adolescents feel a growing need for recognition and achievement, yet they are fearful of trying to achieve new goals because they are uncertain about their abilities. This is the dilemma of Linda in the second part of the program. Most adolescents also feel a keen desire to become independent of their parents. At the same time, they recognize that they need their parents’ help in making decisions. Fear of making their own decisions and realization of a continuing dependence on parental guidance, lead adolescents to resent their parents. This resentment, coupled with feelings of frustration by children and parents, leads to arguments such as the one that occurs in part three. Finally, since young people are uncertain about their own worth, they tend to idealize others and depend on them to do things that they (adolescents) feel incapable of doing. This situation is reflected in part four, as Lori recounts her reliance on her older sister.
Given the nature of adolescents’ uncertainty and their crisis of self-confidence, how can they begin to acquire more confidence in themselves? Part One, “Standing Up for Yourself,” suggests that, if adolescents try to be popular with everyone, they may end up letting others run their lives, and fail to develop the positive feelings about themselves which form the basis of self-confidence. Adolescents must begin doing what they think is right, regardless of whether their choices please others.

Part Two, “Taking Risks,” suggests that, to develop confidence in their abilities, young people must try them out and risk failure. But, as the story points out, the possibility of success is always there to be enjoyed, too. Building up successes is certainly one way to enhance self-confidence.

Part Three, “Being Responsible,” illustrates the concept that self-confidence comes from making decisions on one’s own and taking responsibility for them. Of course, learning how to evaluate alternatives and make proper judgments is a difficult process. Adolescents will make many mistakes along the way; so the important thing for them to realize is that only by making decisions will they learn how to make good ones.

Part Four, “Lori’s Story,” suggests that, by excessive dependence on someone else, adolescents not only put too much pressure on the other person, but also inhibit the development of their own abilities and their own progress toward independence. A feeling of independence is crucial to the development of self-confidence.
In summary, adolescents can develop confidence in themselves by deciding to do what they think is right, by testing their abilities in new areas, by making their own decisions, and by doing things for themselves. In following these guidelines, young people will not only develop self-confidence, but will also take important and necessary steps toward a healthy adult life. One important key to success is self-confidence. An important key to self-confidence is preparation. Complete mental and physical preparation has to do with sacrifice and self-discipline. Start by setting modest goals that are meaningful, but attainable.

**Assertiveness:**

Assertiveness is the communication in which needs or wishes are stated clearly with respect for one self and the other person in the interaction. Assertive communication is distinguished from passive communication (in which needs or wishes are stated in a hostile or demanding manner).

Assertiveness according to M.S. Shukla is “the process of expressing thoughts and feelings while asking for what one wants in an appropriate way without jeopardizing the rights and respect of other.”

Interaction with environment builds up understanding and experience. Learning plays an important role. Early and continuing encouragement of learning self confidence behaviour is crucial in fostering healthy personality development. Assertiveness according to Lieberman Lazarus (1971) is self expression of emotional freedom. To stand up without destroying other right is assertiveness (Alberti and Emmons 1974). It is the ability to say no (Lazarus 1971), express
opinions and disagreement (Lawrence 1970) and engage in self enhancing responses (Gold Stein et. al. 1973).

Understanding three different types of behaviour – submissive, aggressive, and assertive- helps to clarify what assertiveness involves:

**Three Basic Types Of Behaviour**

**Submissive behavior:**

Submissive behaviour tends to be exhibited by those who attempt to gain the approval of others and avoid hurting or upsetting anyone.

People who demonstrate submissive behaviour:
- They tend not to stand up for themselves.
- They may express their views in a very cautious or mild manner, or they may not express them at all.
- People who behave submissively usually allow others to push ahead of them in career terms and allow others to take credit for work they themselves have completed. They may well resent such actions but are too compliant to do anything about it.

Typical submissive statements:

"I'm sorry to take up your time but..."

"Would you be upset if we..."

"It's only my opinion but..."

**Aggressive behaviour:**

Aggressive behaviour tends to be exhibited by those who have little or no concern for other people’s ideas, feelings and needs.
• Can involve the use of sarcasm,
• The adoption of a patronising attitude,
• Placing the blame for problems and mistakes on someone else
• And even verbal hostility and abuse.

Typical aggressive statements:
"Don’t ask questions – just do it..."
"That’s stupid."
"It’s nothing to do with me – it’s your entire fault."

**Assertive behaviour:**

Assertive behaviour tends to be exhibited by those who respect the rights of other people to express their ideas, feelings, and needs, while at the same time recognizing that they too have the right to express and pursue such matters. Being assertive means:

• Being honest with yourself and others.
• It means having the ability to say directly what you want, need, or feel, but not at the expense of others.
• It means having confidence in yourself and being positive, while at the same time understanding other peoples points of view.
• Being able to negotiate and reach workable compromises.
• Having self-respect and respect for other people.

Typical assertive statements:
"I believe that... what do you think?"
"I would like to..."
"What can we do to resolve this problem?"
Body Language:

The differences between Assertive, Aggressive and Passive body language.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Assertive</th>
<th>Aggressive</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Posture</strong></td>
<td>Upright/Straight</td>
<td>Learning forwarding</td>
<td>Shrinking back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Head</strong></td>
<td>Firm not rigid</td>
<td>Chin out</td>
<td>Juutting head down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eyes</strong></td>
<td>Direct, staring and regular eye contact</td>
<td>Not strongly good focused staring piercing glaring contact</td>
<td>Glancing away little eye often contact or eye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Face</strong></td>
<td>Expression the words</td>
<td>Fits set/Firm</td>
<td>Smiling even when upset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voice</strong></td>
<td>Well modulated to fit context</td>
<td>Loud/Emphatic</td>
<td>Hesitant/Soft, trailing off at the end of words/sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arms/Hands</strong></td>
<td>Relaxed/Moving easily</td>
<td>Controlled Extreme/Sharp gesture/finger pointing, jabbing</td>
<td>Aimless/Still</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Movement/Walking</strong></td>
<td>Measured pace suitable to action</td>
<td>Slow and to heavy or fast, deliberate, hard</td>
<td>Slow and hesitant or fast and jerky</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Effects of different behaviors

I. Aggression

Table 1-5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects on you</th>
<th>Effects on others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short term:</td>
<td>• Aggression breeds aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reduced tension</td>
<td>• They retaliate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sense of power.</td>
<td>Or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long term:</td>
<td>• They go underground.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Blame others for aggression</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Feel guilt or shame</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Apologise too much</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Suspicious of groups of people.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Passivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects on you</th>
<th>Effects on others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short term:</td>
<td>• People may feel sorry for you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relief as have avoided conflict.</td>
<td>• They may take advantage of you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long term:</td>
<td>• They may restrict contact with you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Growing loss of self-esteem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Less able to act assertively.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Risk of more medical problems e.g. headaches.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
III. Assertion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Effects on you</strong></th>
<th><strong>Effects on others</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greater self-confidence.</td>
<td>People will know what you think and feel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More willing to take initiatives.</td>
<td>They are more likely to respect you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased effectiveness in your job.</td>
<td>They will know where they stand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Assertiveness how to do it:**

There are three simple steps to assertiveness. It is important that individuals learning to be assertive understand and practice all three and in order. It will seem a lot to learn and rather cumbersome at first, very much like learning to drive a car. At the start there seems so much to take in and do, but with practice it becomes almost second nature.

**Step 1.** Actively listen to what is being said then show the other person that you both here and understand them.

**Step 2.** Say what you think or what you feel.

**Step 3.** Say what you want to happen.

Step one force you to focus on the other person and not use the time they are talking to build up a defense or attack. By really listing you are able to demonstrate some understanding and empathy for their situation or point of view even if you do not wholly agree with it.

Step two enables you to directly state your thoughts or feelings without insistence or apology. The word however is a good linking word between step one and step two. But tends to contradict your first statement and can be unhelpful. The word however can become routine
therefore it is worth thinking of a number of reasonable alternatives like:
on the other hand, in addition, even so, nevertheless, alternatively, etc.

Step three is essential so that you can indicate without hesitancy or insistence. Once the three basic steps to assertiveness have been mastered there are a number of key assertive behaviors and techniques which will add to the competence and confidence of people working with assertiveness.

Saying No:
1. Don’t respond immediately.
2. Assess whether the other person’s request is reasonable or unreasonable. "hmm, let me see if I understand you correctly, you’re saying that…”
3. Assert the right to ask for information, clarification or time.
4. Give a simple ‘no’ followed by one of the following:
   - I would prefer not to…
   - I would rather…
   - I am not willing to…
   - I don’t want to…

1. Apologise only if you are genuinely sorry.
2. If you prefer to give honest reasons, do so. Don’t make excuses.
3. Speak slowly and steadily in order not to sound abrupt.

When parents apply more power assertive discipline, adolescents report higher levels of internalizing problems and report being less securely attached. It is important to note that our analyses show that attachment completely explains the relation between power assertive
discipline and internalizing problems. These findings should be interpreted with caution. Demonstrating mediation suggests causal pathways, our data are cross-sectional and we investigated correlations. This allows us only to conclude that what we observe is consistent with what we would expect to see whether indeed a causal path leads from power assertive discipline to internalizing problems over attachment representations.