CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION

Over the past 10 to 15 years there has been dramatic increase in the attention paid to adolescents. Although most individuals pass through adolescence without excessively high levels of “Storm & Stress”, many do experience difficulty. Some of the research surveys show that some of the negative psychological changes associated with adolescent development result from a mismatch between the needs of developing adolescents and the opportunities afforded to them by their social environments. Actually this developmental period is characterized by so many changes at so many different levels – changes due to pubertal development, social role redefinitions, cognitive development, school transitions and the emergence of sexuality. The nature and pace of these changes make adolescence an ideal focus for the study of human development.

1.1 Adolescence

Adolescence generally refers to a period in which a person is no longer a child and nor yet an adult. This is a period of rapid growth and a time of extensive reorganization and most important of human life. This period begins with puberty and ends with accession of growth. It emerges from childhood and merges into adulthood. We can say it is a transition from childhood period to maturity in various areas i.e. physical, social, intellectual and emotional. The process of growth is marked with conflicts, which are both external and internal.

In the words of Piaget “psychologically, adolescence is the age when the individual becomes integrated into the society of adults, the age when the child no longer feels that he is below the level of his elders but equal, atleast in rights... this integration into adult society has many effective aspects, more or less linked with puberty... it also includes very profound intellectual changes... these intellectual transformations, typical of the adolescent’s thinking, enable him not only to achieve
his integration into the social relationship of adults, which is in fact most general characteristics of this period of development”.

Good in the dictionary of the education (1959) defined adolescence as a period in human development occurring between puberty and maturity extending roughly from 13-14 years of age, until 21 years of age; it is initiated by short period of puberty but continues for many years after the advent of sexual maturity.

According to Jerslid (1963) adolescence is a period of many changes ranging from biological changes associated with puberty to the social educational changes associated with the transition from elementary to secondary schools and to the social and psychological changes associated with emergence of sexuality. With such diverse and rapid changes come heightened potentials for both positive and negative outcomes.

Psychologically adolescence refers to biological, social, emotional and intellectual maturation. Although physical maturation is more noticeable yet the social, emotional and intellectual maturation are not less important. These maturations are inter-related to one another. An adolescent who has matured in all directions has a smooth transition from childhood to adulthood. It is also a period of recapitulation as many of the characteristics or features of early years appear again in this period.

Due to the variety of historical and policy related reasons, much of the work in developmental science has focused on adolescence as time of risk. With rapid change comes a heightened potential for both positive and negative outcomes. Between 15% and 30% of adolescents in the United States depending on the ethnic group, drop out of school before completing high school; adolescents have the highest arrest rate of any age group; and an increasing number of adolescents consume alcohol and other drugs on a regular basis (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1998). Many of these problems appear to being during the early adolescent years (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989). As per the views elaborated by Higgins and Parsons, 1983, unique transitional nature of early adolescence results, at least in part, from an interaction between developmental changes at both the individual and social environment levels.
1.1.1 ‘Problematic’ Changes Associated With Adolescence Period’

Youth everywhere today are often considered to be in a state of crisis. Researches have proved that in our country also approximately half of all adolescents are at moderate to high risk of engaging in one or more self-destructive behaviors, including unsafe sex, teenage pregnancy and childbearing; drug and alcohol abuse; under achievement, failure, or dropping out of school; and delinquent or criminal behaviors. Many of these problem behaviors are interrelated. Some of these behaviors are related to the multitude of physical, social and emotional changes adolescents are experiencing. Some are related to dysfunction in families; violence in the streets and at home; and media which portrays alcohol and drug use, extramarital sex and violence as often-occurring, normal behaviors.

Researches suggest that the early adolescent years mark the beginning of a downward spiral for some individuals, a spiral that leads some adolescents to academic failure and school dropout. Simmons and Blyth, 1987 found a marked decline in some early adolescents’ school grades as they move into junior high school. Similarly timed developmental declines have been documented for such motivational constructs as interest in school (Epstein & Mcpartland, 1976); intrinsic motivation (Harter, 1981); Self-Concepts and self-perceptions (Adler, 1984; Harter, 1982; Bush, 1979); and confidence in one’s intellectual abilities, especially following failure (Parsons & Ruble, 1977). There are also reports of age – related increase during early adolescence in such negative motivational and behavioral characteristics as test anxiety (Hill, 1980), learned helplessness responses to failure (Jordan & Walters, 1980), focus on self-evaluation rather than task mastery (Nicholls, 1980), truancy and school dropout (Rsenbaum, 1976).

Similar types of changes have been noted in family interactions. Again, although the findings are neither universal nor indicative of major disruptions for most adolescents and their families, researches suggest that there is a temporary increase in family conflict, particularly over issues related to autonomy and control, during the early adolescent years (Becker, 1992; Collins, 1990; Powers & Noam, 1991; Hill, 1988; Mayor, 1986; Paikoff & Brooks, 1991; Smetana, 1988; Steinberg, 1990). Hill, 1988 and Steinberg, 1990 in both their observational and self-report
studies, have found increased conflict between mothers and their sons and daughters during the early and middle adolescent years, particularly for early maturing adolescents.

According to a recent U.S. Justice Department report, 17 percent of all serious crimes were committed by a juvenile offender and one fourth of all serious violent crimes involved an adolescent. Fourteen percent of murders, 16 percent of forcible rapes and 14 percent of aggravated assaults were committed by youth. Homicide ranks as the second leading cause of death among adolescents. Surveys indicate that adolescents are victimized by nonfatal assault more than twice as often as those above 20; approximately one third of the victims of these episodes sustain physical injuries; and rates of these assaults are climbing.

Adolescents are very likely to be victims of family violence. Recent family violence research revealed that more than half of preteen and early teenage children (10 to 14) were struck by a parent, while one third of teens aged 15-17 were also hit during a one year period. Adolescents represent about a quarter of all officially reported victims of maltreatment.

More than 1 million U.S. teenagers become pregnant each year and nearly half of these result in live births. Teen pregnancy is related to several factors: low educational achievement, unemployment, welfare dependence, repeat pregnancy, parenting problems and marital discord and divorce if teens marry.

Suicide in adolescence has increased dramatically in the last 40 years. It is estimated that there are 14 suicides per 100,000 adolescents. Currently it is the third leading cause of death, killing 5,000 youths per year. By the time children become teenagers, nearly 20 percent have already experienced depression at some time in their lives.

A variety of explanations have been offered to explain these negative changes. Some who have studied child development have suggested that such declines result from the intra-psychic upheaval assumed to be associated with early adolescent development (Blos, 1965). Drawing on cumulative stress theory, Simmons & Carlton-Ford, 1983; Blyth, 1987 have suggested that the concurrent timing of the junior high school transitions and pubertal development accounts for the declines in the school
related measures and self-esteem. Eccles and Midgley, 1989 proposed that motivational and behavioral declines could result from in appropriate educational environments for adolescents in their schools.

So we observe that the problem of adolescents in different parts of the world under different socio-political system and the suggested explanations for these problems differ in contours and contents but the roots are same. The roots lie in the mismatching of psychological needs of the adolescents. Three fundamental human needs are crucial to survival and to healthy development.

- First is the need to be a valued member of a group that provides mutual support and caring relationships.
- Second is the need to become a socially competent individual who has the skills to cope successfully with life.
- Third is the need to believe in a promising future with real opportunities.

The purpose here is to examine how high risk behavior interferes with the developmental tasks required to meet these needs during adolescence. So we turn now to discuss psychological indicators of adolescents adjustment; Self-Esteem, Emotional Maturity, Social Intelligence and Involvement of Parents through various ways for the harmonious development of adolescents in their most turbulent developmental stage.

1.2 Self-Esteem

Untangling the mysterious fibers that create the intangible web of self-esteem promises to free society from the devastating results of adolescent turmoil. If we can discover the key contributors to a youth’s sense of hopefulness or lack of purpose, then perhaps we can begin to therapeutically alter the environment in such a way as to eradicate these perceptions, resulting in a happier and healthier youth and society.

“Self-esteem is a set of attitudes and beliefs that a person brings with him or herself when facing the world. It includes beliefs as to whether he or she can accept success or failure, how much effort should be put forth, whether failure at a task will
hurt and whether he or she will become more capable as a result of different experiences. In psychological terms, self-esteem provides a mental set that prepares the person to respond according to expectations of success, acceptance and personal strength” (Coopersmith, 1981).

“The term self-esteem refers to the evaluation a person makes and customarily maintains with regard to him or herself. Self-esteem expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicate the extent to which a person believes him or herself capable, significantly successful and worthy.

“Self-esteem is not something separate from performance in reading math, social and physical skills. It is an important and integral part of performance. Studies indicate that students who are unsure of themselves or who expect to fail are inclined to stop trying and just give up. These studies support the conclusion that feelings of confidence and self-respect are as important in school performance as they are in other areas of life.”

Carmines (1978) defined self esteem as the feelings of being satisfied with oneself and the firm belief of one’s worth. Persons with low self esteem manifest a variety of adverse personality trades. They tend to be guilt ridden, anxiety prone, afraid of failure and psychologically vulnerable in contrast to persons with high self esteem who are well integrated and willing to take risks.

According to Coopersmith (1981), “self-esteem refers to a person’s evaluation and feelings about his or her own capabilities.”

So self esteem refers to how high or low one ranks oneself in terms of subjectively perceived personal status. Thus a person with positive self concept will have high self esteem and a person with negative self concept will have low self esteem.

California State Department of Education (1990) defined it as appreciating one’s own worth and importance and having the character to be accountable for oneself and to act responsibly towards others.
According to Brown & Mankowski (1993) self esteem is a person’s global orientation towards the self and is measured by the degree to which a person endorses various evaluative statements about the self.

Zervas & Sherman (1994) referred to self esteem as the effective or evaluative component of self perception and positive self esteem is considered as crucial and psychological and emotional well being.

Branden (1995) a person’s self-esteem is a judgment of worthiness that is expressed by the attitude he or she holds toward the self. It is a subjective experience conveyed to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour.

Brown & Dulton (1995) defined self esteem in terms of feeling of affection for oneself. High self esteem individual in comparison to low self esteem individuals regard themselves with greater fondness for self.

Stratton & Hayes (1996) described self esteem as the personal evaluation which an individual makes of herself or himself, the sense of their own worth or capabilities.

Mead (1996) defined self esteem as a product of people’s interpretation of the feedback that they received from others.

Magill (1996) “It is a relatively permanent positive or negative feelings about self that may become more positive or negative as a person encounters success and failure in daily life.”

According to Marsh (1997) self esteem is often operationalized in terms of a relatively uni-dimensional scale comprising generalized characteristics such as self-confidence, self-competence and self-worth that are super-ordinate to but not specific to particular domain.

Saini (1998) “Self-esteem as a value ascribed by the individual to himself and the quality of the way he views himself.”
Kazdin (2000) “Self-esteem is the global evaluation reflecting our views of our accomplishments and capacities, our values, our bodies, other responses to us and our possessions.”

The National Association of Self-Esteem (NASE) (2000) defined self-esteem as “The experience of being capable of meeting life’s challenges and being worthy of happiness.” Others take the position that “a person’s performance will not exceed his/her self-esteem.” They tend to express the idea that feeling good about yourself is being good. Yet if self-esteem is just about feeling good about ourselves, then an excess of that sense of self-rightness results in narcissism, conceit, arrogance, superiority and intolerance of the frailties of others.

In case to the extent that healthy or authentic self-esteem is applied to people who “trust their own being to be life affirming, constructive, responsible and trustworthy”. NASE has also remarked that “We need to develop individuals with healthy or high self-esteem characterized by tolerance and respect for others, individuals who accept responsibilities for their actions, have integrity, take pride in accomplishments, who are self-motivated, willing to take risks, capable of handling criticism, loving and lovable, seeking the challenge and stimulation of worthwhile and demanding goals and take command and control of their lives.”

So we observe that there are numerous ways in which self-esteem can be defined. It would be more accurate to use the phrase “Healthy Ego” which includes in part, self-esteem is the best sense of that word

“To love oneself is the beginning of a life long romance” (Oscar Wilde).

Psychologists say that almost every aspect of our lives- our personal happiness, success, relationships with others, achievement, creativity, dependencies, even our sex lives- revolves around one core characteristic: our self-esteem. In the deepest part of ourselves we all carry an image of which we may not even be completely aware whether or not it actually corresponds to reality, this image guides us though our day to days, powerfully affecting everything from our choice of career and spouse to what kind of clothes we wear. This image can be compared to an oil painting- layer after layer of “paint” has been applied since our birth to create a complex internal representation. Each time our parents, teachers or friends made a
comment and each time we interpreted others behaviour towards us in a certain way, we added another layer to that canvas. This painting now provides the backdrop for the way we carry our lives and is not easily altered once the layers are deep.

Self-esteem is essential to one’s ability to function in a healthy way. Without the foundation of a solid sense of self-worth, we are unable to take the risks and make the decisions necessary to lead a fulfilling, productive life. A low self-esteem corrodes our love lives, careers, family bonds and most importantly our internal sense of well-being. A high self-esteem, on the other hand, brings the high level of confidence, problem solving abilities and assertiveness needed to achieve what Maslow called “Self Actualization” a continuous desire to fulfill potential, to be all that you can be. People who have positive self-esteem have healthier, stronger relationships with others. Positive self-esteem is not to be confused with self-centeredness or acting superior who is actually attempts to hide negative feelings of self. A strong sense of self-worth actually creates a type of self-fulfilling prophecy, the more you like yourself, the more you begin to act in likable ways; the more you believe you are able to achieve something the more likely it is that you will.

The self is no doubt a complex and multi-faceted entity that is a combination of what an individual would like to be, what an individual is currently like and what others would like the individual to be, because the self is created through and has implications for an individual’s interactions with others.

Trivedi, 1992 quotes Hari’s design of self-analysis. According to which self is of the following four types:

1. Public Self: Everyone knows what we are.
2. Blind Self: Others know our defects but we are blind to it.
3. Hidden Self: Only we know it and others do not know it.
4. Open Self: This is the last stage to reach and of-course a difficult one, when none would doubt our personality and our personality will have more dependability.

According to Smith, 1968 the three selves are:
1. The ideal self, i.e. what we like to be.

2. The perceived self, i.e. what we think we are.

3. The actual self, i.e. what we actually are.

The closer the resemblance between our ideal and perceived self, the more confident and satisfied we are likely to feel.

As per Buss’s (1978) approach, the self is split into two parts:

1. The *sensory self*, develops during infancy.

2. The *cognitive self*, develops later in childhood.

   The basic assumption is that the advanced cognitive self is split into private and public selves, each with a distinctive course of development. The private self develops as a part of broader developmental trends toward convertness and the public self develops as a result of socialization.

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Figure 1.1 Buss’s approach about self
1.2.1 Kinds of Self-Esteem

Sai Baba, 1988 spoke about self-esteem or self-confidence as the foundation upon which the house of a sound personality is built. He also said a common form of trickery by psychiatrists is to make people dig up all the worst things that have happened to them - which destroys their self-esteem. The proponents of self-esteem often quote the slogan, “if you can not love yourself, you can not love anyone else”. As Sai Baba always points out the best way to develop oneself is through loving others rather than loving oneself, such as by changing selfish behaviour. So there are two different kinds of self-esteem, the selfish or the genuine.

Selfish self-esteem is to feel good about oneself without backing this up by the requisite good behaviour. One takes pleasure in the ego and seeks only its own satisfaction or apparent happiness. But only a person who always behaves impeccably well in thought, word and deed has genuine cause for self-esteem, for that person realizes divine qualities that are its only valid basis.

Genuine self-esteem is only felt when one knows within that one’s intentions were truly good and one therefore acted rightly in full accordance with the aim.

Self-esteem, seen as the opposite of self-destruction or self-hate, is not to take pride in oneself. It arises from natural propensity and develops with personal achievements. Yet true self-esteem comes only from those that are of a lasting nature-knowing oneself and making qualitative improvements in oneself. Worldly self-confidence from positive achievements in the physical and social environment is only a stage from which one has to transform oneself towards realization of the inner self. Attachments in society and its organization- whatever the material, social or other results involved- can become as much of a hindrance as a help in maturing the self-esteem of a person. With self-esteem comes place with oneself- an inner or psychic quality of the soul. This is mainly achieved through controlling the mind and as societies held, disciplining oneself, always to know and to do what is right. “Always remember oneself!” or don’t lose one’s integrity as this lead to self-realization.

Buss (1978) Model of Self-Esteem, everyone possesses a core self-esteem that is more or less permanent, originating from constitutional factors and
unconditional parental love and overlying this core is a peripheral self-esteem which though fairly stable but can fluctuate with the important life events and over this a more peripheral self-esteem is present which is found to be variable in nature.

Sonstroem and Morgan (1989) used a model for the structure of self-esteem which is hierarchical in nature and progresses from an individual’s perception or evaluation of his/her behavior in specific situations through successive categorizations to the end result of general self-concept. They proposed a model for self-esteem and exercise which involves the individual’s self-perceptions progressing from the specific to the general. Specific self-perceptions begin with self-efficacy, beliefs regarding the individual’s sense of competence with a particular physical activity. Intermediate self-perceptions involve physical competence which is the individual’s sense of overall fitness and physical acceptance which is the degree of satisfaction with the body. These more specific self-perceptions are then integrated into the global perception of the self. The more specific self-perceptions are more amenable to change than the general self-perceptions.
1.2.2 Conceptions of Self-Esteem  *(William & Jaquish, 1981)*

There are two conceptions of self-esteem on the basis of the method of assessment: The self as experienced by the individual and the self as presented to others. On this basis two new methods of assessing self-esteem in adolescents are introduced:

An observational measure of self-esteem behaviour (presented self) and a repeated self-report measure (experience self). The presented self (observed behaviour and peer ratings) and the experienced self measures were consistent within themselves in assessing self-esteem. The presented self and the experienced self were not however significantly related to each other. A moderate variable (defensiveness) has been proposed to explain these discrepancies and it is suggested that the observation
of adolescent behaviour provides a more accurate assessment of self-esteem than self-report measure.

1.2.3 Main models of Self-Esteem *(Campbell & Osborne, 1994)*

Psychologists considered three main models of self-esteem.

1. The Social Acceptance Model proposes that self-esteem arises from other’s acceptance.

2. The Competencies Model suggests that self-esteem is based on the perception of competence in certain areas of life.

3. The Culture of Self-Worth Model predicts that a culture of promoting a focus on the self will lead to higher self-esteem.

Self-Defeating/Self-Serving Cycle

Self-Defeating/Self-Serving Cycle exhibiting the significance of self-esteem.

Tanen & Herzberger, 1987 depicted common attributional pattern with regard to failure that low self-esteem (LSE) people are found to report in the form of the self-defeating cycle as shown in the figure given below:

![Self-Defeating Cycle](image)

*Figure 1.4 Self-Defeating Cycle*
In contrast, high self-esteem individuals (HSE) exhibit self-serving bias (Baumgardner, 1986) i.e. they attribute success to internal factors and failure to external factors.

![Self-Serving Cycle](image)

1.2.4 Some key facts regarding Self-Esteem (Harder, 1993)

- Self-Esteem is a person’s unconditional appreciation of her/himself. It matters because people who do not value themselves feel unworthy. They can then treat themselves and others badly, usually unintentionally.

- People with a strong sense of self-worth and self-confidence have high levels of self-esteem, which keeps them mentally healthy and able to cope.

- Healthy high self-esteem is characterized by an open mind and flexible, warm, friendly, outgoing personality with a high standard of personal conduct. There is self-respect and self-love, combined with respect for others (‘You’re OK, I am OK’).

- Low self-esteem is characterized by more closed, rigid and defensive (territorial hostility) behaviours and opinions. The world is repeatedly experienced as threatening, demanding or unsupportive, which leads to free flowing anxiety or constant frustration and anger.
- The strongest influences upon self-esteem are the individual’s parents, parenting style, physical and particularly sexual abuse play a significant role, as do genetic factors.

- American research has revealed that people who consider themselves to be highly optimistic live, on average, 7.5 years longer than pessimists.

- Things that give life meaning and purpose increase chances of being happy today. The relationship you have with yourself will determine the relationship you have with happiness.

- Self-esteem is an opinion not a fact. The way we view and feel about ourselves has a profound effect on how we live our lives. These opinions are shaped by experiences in the family, at school, from friendships and in wider society. Self-esteem involves an ability to think, to deal with life and to be happy.

- Individuals with defensive or low self-esteem typically focus on trying to prove themselves or impress others. They tend to use others for their own gains.

- Self-esteem is the feeling we have about our worth and value as a person. Self-confidence is the feeling we have about our ability to do things. In other words esteem is about your ‘being’ and confidence is about what you ‘do’.

- During adolescence many experience a significant decline in self-esteem. Studies have indicated that level of self-esteem in girls drops to as low as 29% by age 17 and to 45% for boys.

- The best way to sustain self-esteem is not to seek the approval of others but to acquire and demonstrate competence by gaining new skills and making progress towards one’s goals.

- Everyone experiences problems with self-esteem at certain times in their lives—especially teens who are still figuring out who they are and where they fit into the world.
• Self-esteem is the greatest gift we can develop in our children because with high self-esteem anything is and will be possible. We are what we think we can be.

• Some teens struggle with their self-esteem when they begin puberty. That’s because the body undergoes many changes when puberty starts. These rapid changes and the desire for acceptance make it difficult for teens to judge whether they are ‘normal’ when they look at other teens around them.

• Media images from TV, movies and advertising may affect self-esteem. Girls may struggle with media images of teen girls and women who are unrealistically thin, which may lead girls who are not thin to believe that something is wrong with them.

• No one is totally confident. A lot of people manage to look confident on the outside and feel completely useless inside.

• Failure disintegrates the whole personality and hence the self-esteem. To build confidence by ‘setting up’ opportunities for success.

1.2.5 Signs of low Self-Esteem

Branden, 1995 gave some symptoms of persons having low self-esteem as given below:

• The person with low self-esteem thinks about himself a lot and analyze why he is the way he is.

• He is stressful and fearful of adversity. He may be alienated from and in oppositions with parents, caregivers and authority figures in general.

• He does not smile easily. He may have negative, hopeless view of himself, his family and society.

• He is tired a lot he may be unwilling or unable to set and achieve his goals.

• He stays to himself. He prefers being alone to meeting new people or being with others.
• He avoids looking into the eyes of others. He has difficulty with genuine trust, intimacy and affection.

• He refuses to take risks. He is needy and may have tendency to cling or to have intimacy and affection.

• He creates negative effects. And in extreme cases he can be anti-social and perhaps violent.

• He talks to himself negatively, he does not tell the truth or keep his word and he does not forgive himself or others. He may lack empathy, compassion and remorse.

• He may not appreciate the good in his life.

1.2.6 Benefits of high Self-Esteem (Baumeister et al., 2003)

Self-esteem has become a household word. Teachers, parents, therapists and others have focused efforts on boosting self-esteem, on the assumption that high self-esteem will cause many positive outcomes and benefits—an assumption that is critically evaluated as under.

The modest correlations between self-esteem and school performance do not indicate that high self-esteem leads to good performance (Baumeister, 2000). Instead, high self-esteem is partly the result of good school performance. Increase and decrease in self-esteem generally bring strong emotional reactions. These fluctuations are often coincident with major successes and failures in life. Efforts to boost the self-esteem of pupils have not been shown to improve academic performance and may sometimes be counterproductive. Job performance in adults is sometimes related to self-esteem, although the correlations vary widely and the direction of causality has not been established. Occupational success may boost self-esteem rather than reverse. However Paula and Campbell, 2002 examined the relationship between level of self-esteem and knowing when to quit. Compared with low self-esteem participants high self-esteem participants persisted more after a single failure, but less after repeated failure when an alternation was available. It was also proved that self-esteem was
positively correlated with achieving more goals, more satisfaction with progress towards goals, more behavioural pursuit of goals and less rumination.

People high in self-esteem claim to be more likable and attractive, to have relationships and to make better impressions on others than people with low self-esteem (Solomon & Deluchhi, 1993). In socio-meter theory of self-esteem put forward by (Downs, 1995; Leary & Baumeister, 2000). It is emphasized that self-esteem operates as an internal measure of one’s interpersonal appeal and success. Popularity would therefore cause self-esteem to rise, whereas social rejection would cause it to drop. It is also plausible that high self-esteem elicits dislike, in so far as people reject conceited or arrogant individuals. Moreover people low in self-esteem report more negative, aversive social interactions more stressful life events and less social support than people high in self-esteem (Tardiff & Drew, 1994). In the workplace, people with high self-esteem claim to get along better with their co-workers (although not their supervisors) compared to people with low self-esteem (Frone, 2000). Glendinning & Inglis, 1999 categorized students into four distinct social groups on the basis of their self-reported attitude about peer relations. Results showed that adolescents with low self-esteem were relatively more common in the socially isolated and disaffected categories, whereas those with high self-esteem were more often found in the conventional and peer oriented categories. In a study by Dolcini & Adler, 1994 academically oriented ‘Smart’ crowd scored higher than the jocks on academic self-esteem and the athletic crowd scored higher than the bookworms on athletic self-esteem whereas Global self-esteem did not differ among the different crowds.

Couples with low self-esteem were more likely than couples with high self-esteem to break up over a 1-month period (Hendrick & Deller, 1988). Data on love styles show that low self-esteem is related to feelings of manic love, which is characterized by extreme feelings of both joy and anguish over the love object (Campbell, Foster & Finkel, 2002). High self-esteem is related to passionate, erotic love, which is marked by the escalation of erotic feelings for the love object.

Shackelford, 2001 found that women complained more about husbands with low than with high self-esteem. Low self-esteem men were decided by their wives as jealous, possessive, inconsiderate, moody, prone to abuse alcohol and emotionally
constricted. Again, to direction of causality is difficult to determine. Possibly, husbands’ low self-esteem elicits negative perceptions among wives. Conversely, being disrespected or despised by his wife may lower a man’s self-esteem. So we see that high self-esteem leads to better romantic and intimate relationships.

High self-esteem makes people more willing to speak up in groups and to criticize the groups’ approach. VanDyne, 1998 found that Leadership does not stem directly from self-esteem but self-esteem may have indirect effects. Relative to people with low self-esteem, those with high self-esteem show stronger in-group favoritism, which may increase prejudice and discrimination. So group behaviour or leadership get increased with high self-esteem.

Self-esteem has a strong relation to happiness. Although the research has not clearly established causation, we are persuaded that high self-esteem does lead to greater happiness. Low self-esteem is more likely than high to lead to depression. Some studies support that high self-esteem mitigates the effects of stress. In fact, pleasant feelings and enhanced initiatives were the benefits of high self-esteem, found by the task force within the body of research. Krueger said, “More often than not if you find a link between self-esteem and behavior, self-esteem is the effect and not the cause.” High self-esteem does not prevent children from smoking, drinking, taking drugs or engaging in early sex, the task force reported. It was found that high self-esteem reduces chances of the eating disorder bulimia in females. The task force also noted that there are basically two types of high self-esteem- that which is realistic and that which is out of touch with reality. People who fall into the former category accept their good qualities. Those in the latter are characterized as narcissistic, defensive or conceited individuals. In some studies, narcissism refers to some negative qualities such as increased aggression in retaliation for wounded pride.

In nutshell they feel good most of the time. They smile a lot; have positive belief systems and lots of energy. They are friendly, trustworthy, risk takers, independent, autonomous, empathetic and compassionate.

So we can say self-esteem is a passport to lifetime mental health and social happiness. It is the foundation of child’s well being and the key to success as adult. At all ages, how we feel about ourselves affects how we get.
1.2.7 Ways to build Self-Esteem

Now for the goodness: we can take steps to improve our self-esteem. Many of us carry self-doubts that limit our control over actions, or work through them by improving the things we can’t. As deep as the layers of our self-image may go, we are all capable of stripping away the negative ones and replacing them with positive ones. And then we can start working on the most important relationship. We shall ever have: one relationship with our self.

Throughout life a person is exposed to positive influences builders and negative influences breakers. Parents & teachers can expose the children to more builders and help him work though the breakers.

As given by Branden, 2003 there seems to be five different approaches to build self-esteem in students. The most effective programs undoubtedly incorporate elements of each of these approaches. These approaches are described as follows:

Cognitive Approach

This approach places the emphasis on developing mental attitudes, helping students to think about their feelings and adopt healthier way of interpreting or relating to the events that occur in their lives.

Behavioral Approach

This approach endeavors to develop specific functional behaviors in students so that they can display behaviors that command greater respect from others and self-esteem in themselves. Such behaviors may relate to voice control, posture, eye contact or expression of feelings.

Experimental Approach

This approach is perhaps the most common among the different programs. It provides positive experiences for students to build up feelings of self-respect and self-esteem. Most of the activities rely on external sources of feedback and reinforcement.

Skill Development Approach
There are a number of programs that aim to build self-esteem by improving the functional communication skills, decision-making skills or social skills of students. They base their programs on the concept that unless students actually function at a higher level, they are unable to sustain positive feelings about themselves.

*Environmental Approach*

This approach is a more holistic approach that structures the environment and the activities, students engage in to develop particular attitudes and skills that lead to self-esteem. It tends to address such aspects as discipline, social activities, goal setting, responsibility and how adults interact with students.

Some common ways given by Harder, 1993 which should be adopted by parents to build self-esteem of their children are following:

- One’s self-esteem is acquired, not inherited. If one suffers from low self-confidence, especially if one feels it is a result of how he was parented, take steps to heal himself and break the family pattern. Therapists suggest some exercise. List out all the specific things parents did to build and weaken his self-image. Now resolve to emulate the good things his parents did and avoid the rest. Both parent as well as child will be benefited. So parents should *pass on the best and discard the rest*.

- No one can put on a happy face all the time, but a parent’s unhappiness can transfer to a child. The child looks to his parents as a mirror for his own feelings. So it is required to fix our inner feelings and *polish the mirror* so that children could see a better image of themselves.

- Much of a child’s self-image comes not only from what the child perceives about himself, but from how he thinks others perceive him/her. When parents give their child *positive reflections*, he learns to think well of himself. When parents flash negative reflection, the child did not like the feeling it produced. He changes his behaviour quickly to regain his sense of well-being.
• Recognize the child’s special talents and help him build on them and then watch the whole person blossom. Enjoying one activity boosts a child’s self-image and practise the carry over principle to other endeavor.

• Helping the child develop talents and acquire skills is part of discipline. Strike a balance between pushing and protecting. Both are necessary. If parents don’t encourage the child to try, his skills don’t improve and they have lost a valuable confidence builder. If parents don’t protect the child from unrealistic expectations his sense of competence is threatened.

• Children measure their own value by how they perceive others value them. But in our measuring and testing society, children’s skills – and therefore their value- are measured relative to others. The one thing the child can excel in is being himself. He must know that parent’s love for him does not depend on their approach of his performance. So beware of value by comparisons.

• Every child is good at something. Discover it, encourage it, frame it and display it. If any home missing this wall, then child is missing this moment of fame. This wall of fame gives him a lift, especially during times when his self-worth is faltering.

• Some parents have this idea that a young child should be exposed to children with different values so that he can choose for himself. This may sound good but actually it is like sending a ship to sea without a rudder or a captain. In normal development a child moves out from the known into the unknown. It is important for the child to have a strong attachment base. Being shy does not mean that child has a poor self-image. It means he needs an extra dose of confidence. But if we see some gradual moving out, then our child is simply a cautious social developer, which is characteristic of sensitive children, who may form a few meaningful and deep relationships, rather than numerous superficial ones. So before being street smarts help the child to be home wise.

• The child’s values and self-concept are affected by persons of significance in his life-relatives, coaches, teachers, religious leaders, scout leaders and friends. It is up to the parents to screen out those who pull down the child’s character and encourage those that build it. Keep a watchful eye to screen
child’s friendships. While growing up so that they will more open minded as adults. On the other side are parents who want to protect their child from all outside influences and any ideas that may differ from their own beliefs. This child grows up in a bubble like atmosphere. Throwing a child into the melting pot of diverse values at too young an age, before he/she has any of his/her own values may produce a child who is so confused that he develops no conscience and no standing value system. In the late childhood or adolescence stage, this is not the time to sleep and get careless. This is the way in which children build consciences and learn value system. In fact in this stage they accept their parent’s value system. Slowly they form their own standards through interaction with peers, other families and teachers and through neighborhood relationships and friendships. Out of all these, school influences a lot on the child’s perception about self. So monitoring of the external influences is necessary.

- One of the main ways children develop self-confidence and internalize value is through helping maintain the family living area, inside and out. Giving children household duties helps them feel more valuable, besides channeling their energy into desirable behaviour. Once he leaves a sense of responsibility for these things, a sense of responsibility to society will come naturally in the next stage of development.

- *Planting a garden* teaches children that they reap what they sow. During our family garden phase when our children were younger, we tied in caring for a garden and caring for them; water the plants and they grow nicely, keep the weeds away and the flowers bloom better. In this way children feel they are contributing to a cause they feel useful and needed. And the energy they spend on the home becomes an investment they are making into the value system of that home.

- Expressing feelings comfortably does not mean the child is free to explode at every emotional twinge, but rather develops a comfortable balance between expressing and controlling feelings. A person with unbridled emotions becomes a brat. And a person who never expresses emotions becomes too
Too much control or too much emoting will both produce problems in adult life.

In nutshell, parents should not misunderstand the meaning of self-esteem and feel that this is just one more thing they are required to give their child along with regular meals and a warm winter jacket. They should guard their child against anything that may undercut self-esteem. Like an arborist caring for a tree, parent’s job is to what’s there, do what they can to structure their child’s environment. So that he grows strong and straight and avoid whittling away at the tender branches.

Instead of encouraging positive behaviour, the practice of praising all children for all behaviours, regardless of effort, intention or appropriateness can lead to confused children, who are wrong, always mindful that no matter what they do, they will be praised.

As in an individual’s life adolescent stage is considered the most turbulent period when the problem of self-perception/self-esteem comes into the for front. Glimer, 1975 said that the adolescent’s self image may at one time be compulsive, compensatory and un-realistic and other times insightful and practical. Since there is some tendency for the adolescents’ to focus more on problems than on accomplishment. Glimer also stated that adolescents have tendency to perceive themselves in comparison with ‘Ideals’. This idealistic attitudes some times lead to disappointment, disillusionment and even cynicism.

In conclusion, it may be the case that putting self-esteem as a goal, rather that letting it become a natural consequence of good behaviour is what the debate is all about. As a parent, as an educator or as a responsible citizen of the society we should guide our youth to be responsible, competent, compassionate, just and kind and love them without promoting narcissism and selfish behaviour. Hence in the present investigation self-esteem of adolescents and other correlates are being studied.
1.3 Emotional Maturity

Emotions are basic, primeval forces of great power and influence designed by nature to enable the organism to cope with circumstances which demand the utmost effort for survival or success or to add color and spice to our living.

Emotions consist of stirred up responses of certain parts of the body- a gasp, a pounding heart, dilated eyes, states of consciousness, masses of turbulent feelings and impulses. Emotion is not a local but a general response of the whole person. Emotion involves everything that is going on- memory, thinking, imagination and even perception of our surroundings. It may be defined as a condition within one individual induced by certain external stimuli- involving all of the organismic processes which tend towards some degree of imbalance.

The key factor is the way that we interpret our circumstances based on our prior experiences and belief system, to either respond reactively like a stimulus-response machine with an emotion that is outside our control and may be inappropriate and self defeating or to respond proactively with self determined responsibility and freedom of choice.

Infact human beings have an incredibly rich and complex emotional life that provides value to our experiences, motivation to our actions and a dimension of communication beyond spoken words. As narrative above, we do not yet know what has happened or why the individuals are responding this way, but we can already detect some of the emotions and motivations of each character. We can also infer that the individuals are mature enough to experience complex emotions and able to recognize those emotions in others. This capacity of emotion, as with other aspects of human development, emerges as an immature quality in infancy, expands through childhood and adolescence, where it blossoms in adulthood, full of subtlety and abundance (Jackson, 2003). Researchers have identified a number of events regarding emotion as a person develops which are based on a variety of approaches, theories and philosophies.
1.3.1 Categorizing and Describing Emotions

There seems to be no limit to the number of possible ways researchers describe and organize emotions. Their use of labels and classifications of emotions may range in number from as few as two (Schlacter et al., 1992) to as many as 40 or more. (Hevner, 1994) They may represent emotions as a tree structure (Shaver, 1994) or a wheel (Hevner et al., 1994). They may describe emotions in traditional terms of affect, (love, fear & anger) or in terms of behavior, (aggression, flight & laughter) or in terms of physiological sensations (goose bumps, shivers down the spine, stomach sensations). Some researchers view the emergence of emotions as the result of cognitive abilities and where processes such as object permanence, self-recognition, short-term memory are required in order to experience emotion (Campos & Barrett, 1989). Others prefer to view the experience of emotions as triggers that make the development of cognitive abilities possible (Abe & Izard, 1999). Fox & Calkins, 2003 described the nature of emotion as a psychological state of specific duration accompanied by behavior and which is the result of cognitive appraisal or evaluation regarding a change in the environment.

1.3.2 Arousal of Emotion

It results from the fusion of complex sensory and perceptual experiences with patterns of attitudes and behaviour already established. The perception of appropriate stimulus starts the emotion, which is fully experienced as soon as the feeling tones and other effective element have been aroused through the functioning of the autonomic nervous system. The feeling and the impulses thus aroused are basic to an emotional experience. Moreover stimulus situation that are associated with interest on desire can become emotion arousing. Stimulus arouses one emotion at a time; it cannot arouse two opposite emotions simultaneously. Stimulus situation may arouse an emotion at one time and not at another, even though the condition appears to be similar at both times. Similarly similar stimuli may arouse different and even opposite emotions at different times. Difference in the perception of the stimulus will change the inner reaction of the individual to it. The rate of change from one emotional state to the other can be rapid. A person may be aroused by anger or jealousy at one moment, if he is exposed to an appropriate stimulus, he immediately
may experience a more pleasant emotional state. The intensity and duration of emotional responses depend upon the physical and mental condition of the individual as well as upon the persistency and strength of the stimulus. An emotional state is likely to continue if the stimulus is removed, however on the individual’s attention is distracted from it, the emotion either disappears or is reduced considerably in strength.

Damasio tried to point in his book “Descartes’ Error”, that the emotions have the most important role in most of the reasonable decision making. He presents a case in which a businessman not able to make reasonable decision making after his brain area responsible to emotions was destroyed. Though his intelligence had remained okay. The man had lost his ability to feel emotions. So the emotion area has a significant role to evaluate reasonable alternatives and in learning by experience.

1.3.3 Dual Mind Functioning

Neuro Biologists’ proved that the human being operates from two minds- the emotional mind & the rational mind. The emotional mind is the source of basic emotions: anger, sadness, fear, lust, surprise, love, hatred, disgust etc.

The rational mind centered in the neo-cortex, the outer part of the brain, allows humans not only to plan, learn and remember but also to love, care and make moral and ethical distinctions. Snakes eating their young ones whereas humans loving their children show that the lower species operate exclusively from the emotional mind i.e. the old sub-cortical limbic system lying beneath the grey matter. The subtler part of the brain or the neo-cortex forms the rational mind. The coordination and the harmony between the emotional and the rational mind is what constitute emotional intelligence.

1.3.4 Emotional Intelligence

Mayer et al., 1990 suggested that the emotional intelligence is a true form of intelligence which needs to be scientifically measured. They define it as the ability to process emotional information particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding and management of the emotions.
Emotional Intelligence refers to a person’s innate potential. Each baby is born with a certain potential for emotional sensitivity, emotional memory, emotional processing and emotional learning ability. It is these four inborn components which form the core of one’s emotional intelligence. The innate E.I. can be either developed or damaged with life experiences particularly by the emotional lessons taught by the parents, teachers, caregivers and family during childhood and adolescence. E.Q. i.e. emotional quotient represents a relative measure of a person’s healthy or unhealthy development of his or her innate emotional intelligence. This distinction between inborn potential, later development and damage makes the definition of E.I. and E.Q. clear. It is possible for a child to begin life with a high level of E.I. but then learn unhealthy emotional habits from living in an abusive home. Such a child will grow up to have a low E.Q. It is possible for a person to start out with a high E.I. but then by getting emotionally damaged in early childhood, causing a low E.Q. later in life. On the other hand, it is possible for a child to start out with a relatively low E.I., but receive healthy emotional modeling nurturing etc. result into high E.Q. But principle ‘It is generally easier to destroy than to create’ is followed here also.

Goleman, 1995 in his book ‘Emotional Intelligence’ said that the comprehension of intelligence based on abstract thinking is inadequate. According to him emotional intelligence is more effective in explaining the success in life rather than traditional I.Q. It seems to be so that one of the most important thing and skills in leading people to understand people and the importance of understanding different kind of people. So emotional intelligence can be defined as follows:

“First the ability to recognize different feelings and emotions in yourself as well as in other people, secondly the ability to motivate yourself and ability of effective management of your own states of emotions and thirdly the effective management of the states of emotions between other people” (Kultanen, 2000).

There are five components of Emotional Intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990):

Self awareness, which means the ability to notice perceptions of ourselves. It means also the abilities to recognize our emotions in real-time. We can also call it self-understanding. This is the base for successful decision making. The real knowledge of our emotions gives a trusted feeling in what kind of consequences
follow from different choices. How do our emotions impact our performance? What do we think from different things? This area includes also the knowledge or our strength and weaknesses and also the evaluation of things person has done and the ability to read feedback and the ability to learn from the feedback.

These skills determine how we manage with ourself.

Managing emotions: which means mostly self-discipline. Can person manage his/her desire and the other side can person manage his/her anxious emotions? It includes also the skills to manage the emotions of anger, fear and depression. This ability or skill helps a man to avoid emotional over-reaction and primitive reaction. This is important because these over-reactions and primitive reactions destroy our discrimination. We can say that if a human is in not controlled emotional situation, he/she is not the best one to make important decisions. As well managing emotions can include the courage to change one’s point of view and to think for the truthful of the truths a person have.

Managing emotions is also important in the situations in which he/she is carrying worries, troubles, irritability etc. As well is quite clear that worried and irritable superior is not the best one to motivate subordinate and to maintain a good atmosphere. If a superior do not manage his/her own emotions, it is not very probable that he/she is good in understanding the complicated emotion net of the subordinates.

These skills direct our emotions, desires and resources.

Motivating oneself: which include three different areas. The first one is the initiative and optimism, which means the ability to catch the things with optimistic emotions. This is important in situations where we meet difficulties. The second one is engagement, which means the adaptation and acceptance of organization’ goals. The third one is ambition, which means the desire to develop ourself. Finally the motivation area means that how to find the power to make the motivation possible.

These skills are the emotional properties, which make it easier for us to achieve goals.
Empathy: which means understanding other people and to feel their feelings and emotions. It also means that we should understand the needs of other people and the ability to see different people as a strength. The empathic superiors has the perceptive faculty to draw conclusions from small signals what do the subordinates want or meet. The superiors with low empathy are not good in perception small signals. This means that the empathic superiors know better ‘what is going on’ in the workplace. Empathic superiors are also discrete. They have the skills to avoid hurting the emotions of other people.

These skills determine how we manage with other people.

Social skills, which can be described as different skill areas: human relationship handling, effectiveness, understanding of nets importance, communication skills, starting changes, conflict management, leadership and ability to change. The people with high level social skills have the ability to use these skills in leading people, in persuading, in negotiations and in teamwork. These people have the ability to make changes when the situation demands changes. In communication skills not the real message but the impact and reaction they make is more important.

These skills are important in making desired reactions in people.

According to Golemen above mentioned all the skills are necessary to manage our emotions and are the most important key to success.

1.3.5 Emotional Maturity and Emotional Intelligence

Striking similarities were found between the elements of the concept Emotional Intelligence (EI) and definitions of emotional maturity. The subscales of the best known evaluation tool of EI, the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), developed “to examine various factors thought to be key components of effective emotional and social functioning that lead to psychological well-being” (Bar-On, 2000), related closely to Menninger’s, 1957 seven Criteria of Emotional Maturity. The EQ-I subscales are:

In an attempt to discover if there are healing methods designed to raise the EI levels of normal adults that might be similar to Amáte Growth Work, personal communication was conducted with authors of The Handbook of Emotional Intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). It was learned the authors knew of no methods similar to Amáte and “virtually no one has conducted appropriate research into the ways in which EI changes through psychotherapy” (Salovey, 2002). Goleman, 2000, who popularized the concept Emotional Intelligence, did not discuss the relationship between EI and emotional maturity in his books, yet indirectly identified maturity as the goal of EI (Bar-on 1998). In the normal course of a lifetime, emotional intelligence tends to increase as we learn to be more aware of our moods, to handle distressing emotions better, to listen and empathize. In short, as we become more mature. To a large extent, maturity itself describes this process of becoming more intelligent about our emotions and our relationships.

Before discussing about emotional maturity we must understand . . .

1.3.6 What Maturity means

It is commonly seen that persons’ maturity does not match with their chronological age. Such persons do not grow up but just get older with each year of their life. If they do not grow a little wiser or little more mature then they just live one year that many times. To find out if a person is growing up or just getting older considers the following measurements of age.

MEASUREMENTS OF AGE (Murray, 1992)

1. Chronological Age
Chronological age is a measurement of the time a person has lived---his or her age in years.
2. *Physiological Age*

Physiological age refers to the degree to which systems of the body have developed relative to chronological age.

3. *Intellectual Age*

Intellectual age refers to whether a person's intelligence is below, above, or equal to his chronological age.

4. *Social Age*

Social age compares social development with chronological age. That means it refers to whether a person relates as well socially as he should for his age.

5. *Emotional Age*

Emotional, like social age, compares emotional maturity with chronological age. It refers to whether this person handles his emotions as well as he should for his age.

We have no control over chronological age and only minimal control over intellectual and physiological age; however, we can choose our social and emotional age. Social and emotional retardation can be remedied with effort. Learning appropriate social skills and developing emotional maturity are choices afforded to every person.

A person may be chronologically mature, but emotionally immature. A person may also be intellectually mature, but emotionally immature. There is no correlation between chronological age, intellectual age, social age, or emotional age. Just because someone is "grown-up" by chronological age doesn't mean they are "grown-up" emotionally.

Chronological maturity and intellectual maturity combined with emotional immaturity is not uncommon and potentially dangerous. A person whose body and mind is adult, but whose emotional development is that of a child can wreak havoc in the lives of others as well as himself.

1.3.7 *Defining Emotional Maturity*

Most definitions of emotional maturity in the literature indicate “what people would be like if they achieved full emotional development... They represent the ideal”
(Saul, 1960). They also commonly describe capacities, abilities, attitudes and actions, rather than the core conditions producing them.

Rogers (1961) said "Emotionally mature persons live more intimately with their feelings of pain, but also more vividly with their feelings of ecstasy; that anger is more clearly felt, but so also is love; that fear is an experience they know more deeply, but so is courage. And the reason they can thus live fully in a wider range is that they have this underlying confidence in themselves as trustworthy instruments for encountering life."

Saul (1977) stated, Emotional maturity consists of achievement in relative development out of the child’s dependence upon its parents to relative independence i.e., separation individuation (Mahler, 1965). It is the development out of the child’s intense need for love to the ability to give love, out of extreme narcissism and competitiveness to object interest and a paternal or maternal or fraternal or sisterly identification, to live and let live; it is relative harmony with one’s superego and (the result of this development) relative freedom from domination by repressed childhood emotional patterns- all of this yielding a relatively accurate sense of reality and the flexibility to feel, think and act in accordance with reality and without undue frustrations and without undue hostility and regressive trends and from a too strong fight flight reaction".

Vaillant (1993) touched on the complexities in defining emotional maturity: “By maturity I mean the ego capacity to appreciate the relativity of situations, the ability to take a historical point of view and to tolerate paradox. But maturity is not an easy concept to grasp. In Meyer’s, 1994 words, “Of all the inevitably relative human considerations, maturity is one of the most elusive.” Essential to maturity is the capacity to understand that all things are relative and that others have suffered worse and survived. Essential to maturity are the knowledge that this too shall pass and the ability to postpone, yet not repress, gratification. Such a definition of maturity is very close to the ego defenses of suppression and anticipation. But it is also very close to Loevinger’s definition of mature ego development, to Piaget’s concept of formal operations, to Kohlberg’s highest stages of moral development and to Erikson’s (2002) concept of generativity.
Reber (1995), in The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, defined emotional maturity as “the state in which one’s emotional reactivity is considered appropriate and normal for an adult in a given society. The clear connotation in most cultures is one of self-control and the ability to suppress extreme emotions”.

Covey (2001) considered emotional maturity “the ability to express your feelings and convictions with courage, balanced with consideration for the feelings and convictions of others”.

However, the most enduring popular features of Emotional Maturity given by Driesen (2001) have been based on Menninger’s (1957) Criteria of Emotional Maturity:

- The ability to deal constructively with reality.
- The capacity to adapt to change.
- A relative freedom from symptoms that are produced by tensions and anxieties.
- The capacity to find more satisfaction in giving than receiving.
- The capacity to relate to other people in a consistent manner with mutual satisfaction and helpfulness.
- The capacity to sublimate, to direct one’s instinctive hostile energy into creative and constructive outlets.
- The capacity to love.

Emotional maturity is development from the state of ‘self-centeredness’ to the state of ‘outgoing concern for others’. Great tragedy of this society is that nearly all people mature physically but only half of them mature mentally but very few ever grow up emotionally. Today, we even wonder about knowing that emotional immaturity is the norm, rather than the exception. Hollingworth, 1928 said that emotionally mature person is capable of gradation or degrees of emotional response. He does not respond in all-or-non fashion. If his hat blows up he does not blow up.

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with it. He is capable of delaying his response to exciting situations, to which he is exposed.

Emotional maturity is training of emotions that involve control and right direction of feelings, tempers and impulses. It means control over anger, jealousy, hatred, fear, grief, resentment, selfishness and pride - all of the emotions not just one. Emotional immaturity is simply letting human nature run its own way without any control from right thinking & reasoning mind. An emotionally immature person is usually moody, he is so emotionally wrapped up in his dilemma that he does not know his moral obligation in any situation.

According to dictionary of education, "emotional maturity" refers to emotional pattern of an adult, who has progressed through the inferior emotional stages, characteristics of infancy, childhood and adolescence and is now fit to deal successfully with reality and to practise in adult love relationship without undue emotional strain.

According to another definition emotional maturity refers to self-control, zeal and persistence, ability to motivate oneself, relating to others and knowing and controlling one’s emotions.

Psychologists & social-scientists speak of emotional maturity as ‘presence of emotional intelligence’, as it helps to view situations objectively and effectively, apply the power of emotions appropriately channeled as a source of energy, creativity and influence. So it can also be called ‘Heart intelligence’ as it balances and integrates the head and heart.

1.3.8 Characteristics of Emotional Maturity (Murray, 1992)

- Emotional maturity fosters a sense of security which permits vulnerability. A mature person can show his vulnerability by expressing love and accepting expressions of love from those who love him. An immature person is unduly concerned with signs of "weakness" and has difficulty in showing and accepting love. The egocentricity of immaturity will allow the acceptance of love, but fails to recognize the needs of others to receive love. They'll take it, but they won't give it.
• The immature avoid facing reality. Overdue bills, interpersonal problems, indeed any difficulties which demand character and integrity are avoided and even denied by the immature. Mature people eagerly face reality knowing the quickest way to solve a problem is to deal with it promptly. A person's level of maturity can be directly related to the degree to which they face their problems, or avoid their problems. Mature people confront their problems whereas immature people avoid their problems.

• A mature person's sense of personal security permits him to consider the needs of others and give from his personal resources, whether money, time, or effort, to enhance the quality of life of those he loves. They are also able to allow others to give to them. Balance and maturity go hand in hand. Immaturity is indicated by being willing to give, but unwilling to receive; or willing to receive, but unwilling to give.

• A mature person views life experiences as learning experiences and when they are positive he enjoys and revels in life. When they are negative he accepts personal responsibility and is confident he can learn from them to improve his life. When things do not go well he looks for an opportunity to succeed. The immature person curses the rain while a mature person sells umbrellas.

• The ability to face reality and to relate positively to life experiences derive from the ability to learn from experience. Immature people do not learn from experience, whether the experience is positive or negative. They act as if there is no relationship between how they act and the consequences that occur to them. They view good or bad experiences as being caused by luck or fate. They do not accept personal responsibility.

• When things don't go as anticipated the immature person stamps his feet, holds his breath and bemoans his fate. The mature person considers using another approach or going another direction and moves on with his life.

• When frustrated, the immature person looks for someone to blame. The mature person looks for a solution. Immature people attack people; mature people attack problems. The mature person uses his anger as an energy source and when frustrated, redoubles his efforts to find solutions to his problems.
Immature people feel unloved, avoid reality, are pessimistic about life, get angry easily, attack the people closest to them when frustrated - no wonder they are constantly anxious. The mature person's mature approach to life imbues him with a relaxed confidence in his ability to get what he wants from life.

1.3.9 The Inverse of Emotional Maturity

Emotional maturity as a concept has an inverse property. It is easier to understand about emotional maturity, once we have seen a person displaying the exact opposite. To determine the level of our emotional maturity, we have to compare our behaviour to symptoms of emotional immaturity.

Symptoms of Emotional Immaturity (Murray, 1992)

- Emotional volatility is indicated by such things as explosive behavior, temper tantrums, low frustration tolerance, responses out of proportion to cause, oversensitivity, inability to take criticism, unreasonable jealousy, unwillingness to forgive and a capricious fluctuation of moods.

- Healthy human development proceeds from dependence (I need you), to independence (I don't need anyone), to interdependence (we need each other). Over-dependence is indicated by; a) inappropriate dependence, e.g. relying on someone when it is preferable to be self-reliant and b) too great a degree of dependence for too long. This includes being too easily influenced, indecisive and prone to snap judgments. Overly-dependent people fear change preferring accustomed situations and behavior to the uncertainty of change and the challenge of adjustment. Extreme conservatism may even be a symptom.

- Immediate attention or gratification and being unable to wait for anything is called stimulation hunger. These kinds of stimulation hungry people are incapable of deferred gratification, which means putting off present desires in order to gain a future reward. Stimulation hungry people are superficial and live thoughtlessly and impulsively. Their personal loyalty lasts only as long as the usefulness of the relationship. They have superficial values and are too
concerned with trivia (their appearance, etc.). Their social and financial lives are chaotic.

- Egocentricity is self-centeredness. Its major manifestation is selfishness. It is associated with low self-esteem. Self-centered people have no regard for others, but they also have only slight regard for themselves. An egocentric person is preoccupied with his own feelings and symptoms. He demands constant attention and insists on self-gratifying sympathy, wishes for compliments and makes unreasonable demands. He is typically overly-competitive, a poor loser, perfectionist and refuses to play or work if he can't have his own way.

- A self-centered person does not see himself realistically, does not take responsibility for his own mistakes or deficiencies, is unable to constructively criticize himself and is insensitive to the feelings of others. Only emotionally mature people can experience true empathy and empathy is a prime requirement for successful relationships.

The following profile of Abrahamsen’s, 1958 patient, “Lydia T,” also give the understanding of the myriad possible negative characteristics of the adult traditionally defined as emotionally immature.

Profile of Patient “Lydia T”

- Lack of realism
- Feeling sorry for herself
- Quick acceptance of defeat
- Fear of asserting herself
- Refusal to accept help though needed
- Suggestibility
- Submissiveness
- Blaming others
• Irresponsibility
• Jealousy
• Underestimation of herself
• Inability to accept praise
• Fear of admitting mistakes
• Fear of being deserted and helpless
• Inability to be left alone because of feeling unloved
• Contempt for others
• Feeling “no one ever helps me”
• Wanting to be taken care of
• Feeling of “not belonging”
• Bragging
• Sadism
• Revengefulness
• Having to be “the best”
• Competitiveness with members of the same sex
• Hostility toward / and competitiveness with parent of the same sex
• Rebelliousness
• Decisions based on other people’s opinions
• Unduly seeking pleasure and new thrills
• Excessive pride
• Feeling of omnipotence
• Needed to be liked by everyone (even if she doesn’t like them)
• Fear of punishment
• Distrust of other people’s motives toward her
• Fear of death
• Fear of admitting mistakes
• Fear of unworthiness leading to masochism

1.3.10 The negative consequences of Emotional Immaturity

The following is a review of findings of studies describing negative consequences of emotional immaturity during childhood, adolescence, young adulthood and adulthood.

Childhood

Saul, 1960, Wade, 1996 and Bar-On, 2000 concluded the most powerful contributing factors in early emotional arrest were negative influences of caregivers in the home and the home environment itself. Dizon, 1984 established that children from homes with parents who did not provide conditions necessary for secure attachments tended to be anxious, insecure individuals, usually described as overly dependent or immature. Klock, 1972 studied immature children who suffered a permanent state of anxiety and found the permanent state of anxiety did not occur when the child received emotional support immediately following anxieties. Greening, 1958, investigating moral standards and defenses against aggression in children, determined the ego defense mechanism of “turning-against-the-self positively related to harsh physical punishment” by the parents. Mader, 1946 concluded causes of adult maladjustment, other than mental deficiency and psychosis, were generally traceable to a childhood environment that consciously or unconsciously, encouraged a retardation of a child’s emotional development. Crespi & Sabatelli, 1997 recognized the ability to evolve a mature and differentiated sense of self was tied to the individuation process, a process that largely depended on healthy family relationships. They confirmed that the child from a home with alcoholic parents suffered from
psychological maltreatment and dysfunction, which interfered with the child’s ability to form a mature identity. They also substantiated that this unfortunate environment limited the child’s capacity for intimacy and restricted the child’s ability to adapt successfully to adult roles and responsibilities.

**Adolescence**

When the emotionally immature child is unable to heal and catch up to emotional age mates and immaturity endures into the turbulent adolescent years, the stage is set for a series of failures that continue into adulthood. Failure in high school is often the first critical negative turn taken in the life of the emotionally immature individual. Early studies, for example Karlan, 1934 found emotional immaturity accounted for failure in half the students studied including students with high IQs. Gumora, 2000 confirmed that a student’s GPA was predicted more accurately by the ability to manage the typical anxiety and frustration that accompanies schoolwork than by all other variables. Ienistea, 1981 studied Romanian university students who wanted to enter professions and become independent of their families and found these goals often proved unattainable when the student was emotionally immature. Cramer, 2002 predictably concluded that use of immature ego defense styles by young adults was more dependent on factors affecting emotional development during early years than on events occurring during young adulthood. Boyd & Huffman, 1984 determined students with lower emotional maturity were more likely to drive while under the influence of alcohol than were their more mature peers.

**Adulthood**

*Intimate relationships*

A critical, yet often unsuccessfully accomplished task of emotionally immature adults is establishing lasting intimate relationships. Milloy, 1998, reporting on a study of Black and White couples followed during the first year of marriage in which three times as many Black couples as White couples divorced or separated, identified emotional immaturity as the culprit: The same emotional immaturity that keeps him from working through problems with a spouse will probably show up in the workplace too and probably doom him there as well.
Roberts, 1982 concluded improving the emotional maturity of the parents was the most effective treatment for inappropriately behaving adolescents and young adults.

Work experience

Emotional immaturity can be a significant factor in both success and failure at the workplace. Brodsky and Byl, 1976 revealed emotionally immature employees were more prone to chronically express work-related problems through medical complaints and more likely to develop or exaggerate physical problems to avoid work altogether. Hagberg et al., 1984 pointed to evidence that emotional immaturity was a prominent characteristic in 109 executives who were fired or sent for outplacement counseling.

Physical and Mental health

Adult emotional immaturity can adversely affect physical and mental health. Malik & Sabharwal, 1998 found hypertension and peptic ulcers linked to emotional immaturity. Emotional immaturity was considered a principal feature in the spread of sexually transmitted diseases, including Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (Save Your Child, 2002). Aurora, 1982 and Boyd & Huffman, 1984 concurred with Stewart, 1950 that adults addicted to alcohol and drugs have a personality configuration of emotional immaturity with a strong dependency component. Timsit et al., 1973 found hypochondrial neurosis related to emotional immaturity. Mike, 1980 concluded deprivation neurosis resulted from the lack of affirmation in childhood and was characterized by emotional immaturity. In studies of the psychopathic personality, Rabin, 1986 found strong evidence of emotional immaturity. Now considered a psychological diagnosis, Young, 2000 concluded road rage is caused by emotional immaturity: An alliterative label doesn’t change the fact that so-called “road rage” is a failure to control one’s emotions. Emotional maturity involves choosing appropriate ways to express emotions. Emotional maturity involves the recognition that one is not the intentional target of every inconvenience, irritation or the events that occasion them... Road rage is a sign of emotional immaturity.

As adolescence suffer more with emotional disturbances as compared to other stages of life. Therefore adolescents should try to emotionally mature. It is
advisable for parents and teachers also that they should take care of them so that along with the physical and mental development they can develop emotionally also. There are certain steps to grow emotionally mature.

1.3.11 Ways to grow emotionally mature

Steps given by Murray, 1992 to grow more emotionally mature:

- **Work on self-understanding and self-acceptance.** Seek insight by asking significant others to provide feedback about adolescents’ behavior. Then be objective see themselves as others see them. Avoid defensiveness, it will prevent them from being the best, they are capable of being. Face reality and deal with it, don't avoid it.

- **Practice unselfish behavior.** Actually experiment with it and notice how it feels and how others react to them. Compare the difference with how others react to their selfishness. They will prefer unselfishness. It might even be said that giving to others is "altruistic selfishness" because the person who gives is benefited more than the person who receives.

- **Do not dominate others.** Cooperate with others and seek "win-win" solutions to conflicts. If a solution to a problem isn't good for both parties to the relationship it won't be good for the relationship. In a successful relationship neither partner can be a winner if both aren't winners. Only the relationship should be the winner.

- **Be willing to change their social contacts.** Avoid people and situations which bring out the worst in them. Instead, expose them to people and situations which bring out the best in them.

- **Search for a meaning in life which is bigger than them.** It should give them a perspective of the majestic scope of life, not the narrow and limiting perspective of mere self-interest. It should provide goals for them to strive for; for in struggle they build the "character muscles" that give them inner strength and make life meaningful. The ultimate test of their sense of meaning of life is this: does it enhance and enrich not only their life, but the lives of others? If it does, they will find a rich satisfaction, available only to the emotionally mature.
Steps to Emotional Maturity (Moore, 1993)

There are also some steps given by Moore by adopting which we can be more emotionally mature:

- Eliminate magical thinking i.e. believing that something will happen without any really effort on our part.

- Suppressing our anxiety causes it to continue- “What we resist, persist”. So learn to tolerate anxiety.

- Learn to recognize and appropriately express our anger.

- Moderate exposure to pain and loss is often what creates opportunities for developing coping skills so learn to cope with pain and hurt.

- All make mistakes and behave selfishly and meanly at times. So some guilt is based on reality and facing these guilty feelings help us to become better people.

- Learn to live with our failures, because perfection does not exist in humans.

- Be of service to others and have a positive attitude.

- Strive to see that life is grey, not black and white. So learn to tolerate ambiguity and avoid words like never and always.

- Realize that the world is a vast place that we can never completely understand and certainly never “master”, whatever that means.

So according to him feelings are messy, mistakes are made, relationships are complex and life is ever changing. Any one feeling or event is not life but a piece of the big picture.

As cognitively, adolescents are moving into formal operational thinking, which is Piaget’s final stage of cognitive development, which includes abstraction, speculation and possibilities independent of the immediate environment or situation.
(Craig & Baucum, 2002). This heightened self-consciousness manifests itself in imaginary audiences, foundling fantasy and personal fables and leads to more penetrating self examinations, which in turn can activate negative emotions such as fear, sadness and disgust (Abe & Izard, 1999). Experiencing these negative emotions may not necessarily be a bad thing. Links have been found between low levels of negative emotions and contracted self-structures (similar to foreclosure), advanced self-structures and both positive and negative emotions and positive emotions in adolescents functioning at more mature levels of ego development. Due to these changes adolescence is considered as stage of emotional upheavals. That is why emotional maturity of adolescents has been selected as one of the variable in the present study. Attempt has also been made to find its relation with other important psychological variables like self-esteem, social intelligence and parent-child interaction.

1.4 Social Intelligence

As man is a gregarious animal, it means he prefers to remain in a group or community rather than alone. He is the moving force of history and the source of all values. All this he does when he is in society. All individuals, in their careers and personal lives, need to be able to present themselves effectively and earn the respect of those they deal with in society. According to Ahuja, 2006, “It is not enough to be intelligent. It is not enough, even, to be emotionally intelligent”. The rules of the game have changed: we also have to be socially intelligent. Among the cognoscenti is the nurse who can instantly comfort with a touch on the arm, the soldier who can be captured by insurgents and released with an apology, the diplomat who can defuse tensions with a well-placed word. And what happens to the socially dumb? They populate the ranks of unhappy spouses, inadequate parents, unfulfilled employees and loners.

In this way we can say social intelligence can reduce conflict, create collaboration, replace bigotry and polarization with understanding and mobilize people toward common goals. Our brains are social tools, primed through evolution for promoting and guiding social interactions and relationships. Our sociable brains
allow us to “infect” those around us with our emotions and to “catch” the moods of others.

This special capacity that humans have—some more so than others—to connect with others in a deep and direct way. We see this quality expressed by a performer revving a crowd, a doctor healing a patient or a mother putting a child to sleep. In 1995 Goleman, a Harvard University trained psychologist and writer for the New York Times, published Emotional Intelligence, in which he discussed the human ability “to manage our own emotions and inner potential for positive relationships.” Now he goes a step further. In Social Intelligence, he enlarges his scope to encompass our human abilities to connect with one another. “We are wired to connect,” Goleman says. “Neuroscience has discovered that our brain’s very design makes it sociable, inexorably drawn into an intimate brain-to-brain linkup whenever we engage with another person. That neural bridge lets us affect the brain—so the body—of everyone we interact with, just as they do us.” Each encounter between people primes the emotions. This neurological pas de deux stimulates our nervous systems, affecting hormones, heart rate, circulation, breathing and the immune system.

A definition, like any kind of human communication, limits the range of discourse. A definition is a way of placing a concept in a general category and then distinguishing the particular concept from others in that category.

In defining social intelligence we’re talking about a general category: the human capacity to understand what’s happening in the world and responding to that understanding in a personally and socially effective manner. We have to confine our definition of social intelligence so we’re not including within it all positive human attributes, making it a kind of definitional panacea.

Thorndike (1920) first identified the concept of Social Intelligence. He maintained that there are three intelligences:

1. **Abstract Intelligence** (the ability to understand and manipulate with verbal and mathematic symbols).
2. **Concrete Intelligence** (the ability to understand and manipulate with objects).
3. **Social Intelligence** (the ability to understand and relate to people)
In this way Thorndike, 1927 defined Social Intelligence as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations.” According to him Heart Intelligence- intelligence of the heart, has its roots in the concept of ‘Social Intelligence’.

Social Intelligence has long been regarded as a fundamental aspect of human capabilities. It is a broad construct that includes demographic adaptive behavioral and social skill variables. Persons high in social Intelligence are considered to be able to meet the demands of every day functioning and to be equipped to handle participation and responsibility for their own welfare or others.

**Moss and Hunt (1927)** defined social intelligence as the "ability to get along with others".

**Vernon (1933)** provided the most wide-ranging definition of social intelligence as the person's "ability to get along with people in general, social technique or ease in society, knowledge of social matters, susceptibility to stimuli from other members of a group, as well as insight into the temporary moods or underlying personality traits of strangers”

**Hurlock** considered the attainment of intelligence in social relationships as the indicator of social development. Social Intelligence is reflected through one’s conformity to group standards, moral and traditions of becoming imbied with the sense of oneness. In defining social intelligence we are talking about human capacity to understand what’s happening in the world and responding to that understanding in a personally and socially effective manner.

Social Intelligence or social competence is the ability to understand the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of persons in social or interpersonal situations and to act appropriately, based on that understanding.

**Greenspan (1979)** proposed a hierarchical model of Social Intelligence, in which Social Intelligence consists of 3 components: Social Sensitivity, Social Insight and Social Communication.
Gardner (1983) defined social intelligence as the capacity to know oneself and to know others is an inalienable part of the human conditions as is the capacity to know objects or sounds and it deserves to be investigated no less than these other “less charged” forms. He includes inter and intra personal intelligence in his history of multiple intelligences.

Intra-personal Intelligence is the ability to understand oneself and capacity to form an accurate and truthful model of oneself. Inter-personal is the ability to understand other people and work cooperatively with them.

According to Cantor & Kihlstrom (1987) social intelligence is specifically geared to solve the problems of social life and in particular managing the life tasks, current concerns or personal projects which the person selects for him or her self, or which other people impose on him or her from outside. In other words it is individual's fund of knowledge about the social world.

Rubin & Krasnor (1992) defined Social competence as “the ability to achieve personal goals in social interaction while simultaneously maintaining positive relationships with others over time and across situations”.

Bjorkqvist (2000) described that social intelligence has three different components: perceptual, cognitive-analytical and behavioural. In this sense, they consider the socially intelligent individual as a person who is ‘capable of producing adequate behavior for the purpose of achieving desired social goals’.

Albrecht (2005) defined social intelligence (SI) as the ability to get along well with others while winning their cooperation. SI is a combination of sensitivity to the needs and interests of others, sometimes called your “social radar,” an attitude of generosity and consideration and a set of practical skills for interacting successfully with people in any setting.

We can arrive at the conclusion that no single ingredient is adequate by itself but a combination of all positive human attributes make up Social Intelligence.
1.4.1 Place of Social Intelligence (SI) in Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences

"SI" is perhaps best understood as one of a whole range of interwoven competencies.

Gardner has been preaching the idea that human intelligence is not a single trait, as the devotees of the IQ cult have always claimed. According to Gardner, we humans have seven or eight distinct intelligences, or primary dimensions of competence. The first step in understanding social intelligence is to place it into the context of Gardner's MI categories. While Gardner used rather scientific sounding labels for his categories - verbal-logical, mathematical-symbolic, spatial, kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and musical. Albrecht rearranged Gardner's "multiple smarts" into six primary categories.

These six basic intelligences as like the six faces of a cube, each positioned at angles to the others and all coming together to form a whole. Surely the "renaissance human," the success model most of us admire, would have a strong and well-integrated combination of all six intelligences i.e. six intelligences: abstract intelligence, social intelligence, practical intelligence, emotional intelligence, aesthetic intelligence and kinesthetic intelligence. The characteristic abilities of all these six intelligences are as shown in table 1.1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Abstract Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Social Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Practical Intelligence</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Aesthetic Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Kinesthetic Intelligence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Social Intelligence can be categorized as a combination of basic understanding of people - a kind of strategic social awareness - and a set of skills for interacting successfully with them. A simple description of SI is:
... the ability to get along well with others and to get them to cooperate with you. In simple words we can say the person who has self awareness as well as social awareness and also has social skills to deal with the people and work with them efficiently can called as socially intelligent.

A careful review of social science research findings, ranging from Gardner & Goleman to Carnegie, suggested five key dimensions as a descriptive framework for SI: Situational Radar, Presence, Authenticity, Clarity and Empathy which involves various social abilities found among people as shown in table 1.2.

Those who like acronyms may find that the initials of these five factors - "S.P.A.C.E." - form a useful construct: the ability to understand the social "space" and navigate effectively within it. This SPACE formula immediately suggests the possibility of describing, assessing and developing social intelligence in terms of observable behaviors. Each of the five dimensions can be reconstructed into a set of representative behaviors that may range from highly ineffective to highly effective.

Table 1.2 Descriptive framework of Social Intelligence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Skill Dimension</th>
<th>Involves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Situational Radar (Awareness)</td>
<td>The ability to &quot;read&quot; situations, understand the social context that influences behavior and choose behavioral strategies that are most likely to be successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>Also known as &quot;bearing,&quot; presence is the external sense of one's self that others perceive: confidence, self-respect and self-worth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Authenticity</td>
<td>The opposite of being &quot;phony,&quot; authenticity is a way of behaving which engenders a perception that one is honest with one's self as well as others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td>The ability to express one's self clearly, use language effectively, explain concepts clearly and persuade with ideas.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Empathy

More than just an internal sense of relatedness or appreciation for the experiences of others, empathy in this context represents the ability to create a sense of connectedness with others; to get them on your wavelength and invite them to move with and toward you rather than away and against you.

### 1.4.2 Three Kinds of Empathy: Cognitive, Emotional and Compassionate

Ekman, 2007 described three very different ways to sense another person’s feelings.

The first is “cognitive empathy,” simply knowing how the other person feels and what they might be thinking. Sometimes called perspective-taking, this kind of empathy can help in, say, a negotiation or in motivating people.

When it comes to the right leader for a crisis, cognitive empathy alone seems insufficient. Then, there’s needed “emotional empathy,” – when we feel physically along with the other person, as though their emotions were contagious. This emotional contagion, social neuroscience tells us, depends in large part on the mirror neuron system. Emotional empathy makes someone well-attuned to another person’s inner emotional world.

One downside of emotional empathy occurs when people lack the ability to manage their own distressing emotions can be seen in the psychological exhaustion that leads to burnout. The purposeful detachment cultivated by those in medicine offers one way to inoculate against burnout. But the danger arises when detachment leads to indifference, rather than to well-calibrated caring.

Finally, there’s “compassionate empathy”. With this kind of empathy we not only understand a person’s predicament and feel with them, but are spontaneously moved to help, if needed.


1.4.3 Social Intelligence in the Structure of Intellect

*(Guilford's, 1967)*

Guilford postulated a system of at least 120 separate intellectual abilities, based on all possible combinations of five categories of operations (cognition, memory, divergent production, convergent production and evaluation), with four categories of content (figural, symbolic, semantic and behavioral) and six categories of products (units, classes, relations, systems, transformations and implications).

Interestingly, he considers his system to be an expansion of the tripartite classification of intelligence originally proposed by Thorndike, 1920. Thus, the symbolic and semantic content domains correspond to abstract intelligence, the figural domain to practical intelligence and the behavioral domain to social intelligence.

O'Sullivan, 1965 defined the category of behavioral cognition as representing the "ability to judge people" with respect to "feelings, motives, thoughts, intentions, attitudes, or other psychological dispositions which might affect an individual's social behavior". They made it clear that one's ability to judge individual people was not the same as his or her comprehension of people in general, or "stereotypic understanding". Apparently, these two aspects of social cognition lie outside the standard structure-of-intellect model.

The six cognitive abilities defined by O'Sullivan were:

- *Cognition of behavioral units*: the ability to identify the internal mental states of individuals;
- *Cognition of behavioral classes*: the ability to group together other people's mental states on the basis of similarity;
- *Cognition of behavioral relations*: the ability to interpret meaningful connections among behavioral acts;
- *Cognition of behavioral systems*: the ability to interpret sequences of social behavior;
- *Cognition of behavioral transformations*: the ability to respond flexibly in interpreting changes in social behavior; and
• Cognition of behavioral implications: the ability to predict what will happen in an interpersonal situation.

The six divergent production abilities defined by Hendricks et al. were:

1. Divergent production of behavioral units: the ability to engage in behavioral acts which communicate internal mental states;
2. Divergent production of behavioral classes: the ability to create recognizable categories of behavioral acts;
3. Divergent production of behavioral relations: the ability to perform an act which has a bearing on what another person is doing;
4. Divergent production of behavioral systems: the ability to maintain a sequence of interactions with another person;
5. Divergent production of behavioral transformations: the ability to alter an expression or a sequence of expressions; and
6. Divergent production of behavioral implications: the ability to predict many possible outcomes of a setting.

In summary, Guilford and his colleagues were successful in devising measures for two rather different domains of social intelligence: understanding the behavior of other people (cognition of behavioral content) and coping with the behavior of other people (divergent production of behavioral content). These component abilities were relatively independent of each other within the behavioral domain and each was also relatively independent of the non-behavioral abilities, as predicted (and required) by the structure-of-intellect model.

Tests of the remaining three structure-of-intellect domains (memory, convergent production and evaluation) had not developed by the time the Guilford program came to a close. Hendricks, 1969 noted that "these constitute by far the greatest number of unknowns in the Structure of Intellect model". However, O'Sullivan et al., 1965 did sketch out how these abilities were defined. Convergent production in the behavioral domain was defined as "doing the right thing at the right time" and presumably might be tested by knowledge of etiquette. Behavioral memory was defined as the ability to remember the social characteristics of people (e.g. names.
Social intelligence is the basis of distinctively human thinking and the somatic marker mechanism is the major embodiment of social intelligence. The Somatic Marker Mechanism (SMM) is the brain system which supports much of what is distinctive about human social intelligence: it is the way in which the brain uses emotions to interpret the meaning of social situations. ‘Somatic’ refers to the body and emotions are actually the brain’s interpretation of body states. The Somatic Marker Mechanism is so called because it is a brain mechanism that integrates body (i.e. somatic) states that correspond to emotional responses with the social situations that triggered those emotional responses. This means that emotions are used to evaluate social situations: in other words, perceptual information from within the body ‘soma’ is used to ‘mark’ sensory perceptual information from outside the body. The Somatic Marker Mechanism (SMM) gets its name because changes in the inner environment of the ‘soma’ (body) are used to ‘mark’ perceptions and sensory information coming in from the external environment. This integration of bodily and environmental information occurs in Working Memory, probably situated in the upper-outer areas of the frontal lobe of the cerebral cortex. While most animals have emotions, only humans (and perhaps a few other complex social animals such as chimpanzees) are capable of being aware of emotions. Feelings are the term for emotions of which we are aware and we are aware of them because the emotions are represented in working memory. The somatic marker mechanism uses the emotional response to a social situation to make inferences about the dispositions, intentions and motivations of the people involved in that social situation. Since the somatic marker mechanism underpins human social intelligence and since social intelligence underpins much that is distinctive about human thinking, the physical attributes of the SMM have implications for human behavior. The fact that the SMM is located in working memory means that the conscious human world is essentially a social world, permeated with social categories, orient toward social matters. In this way humans see the world through social lenses.
Gardner, 1983 made impressionistic analysis based on a convergence of signs. Chief among these signs are isolation by brain damage, such that one form of intelligence can be selectively impaired, leaving other forms relatively unimpaired; and exceptional cases, individuals who possess extraordinary levels of ability in one domain, against a background of normal or even impaired abilities in other domains (alternatively, a person may show extraordinarily low levels of ability in one domain, against a background of normal or exceptionally high levels of ability in others). So, for example, Gardner, 1983 argues from neurological case studies that damage to the prefrontal lobes of the cerebral cortex can selectively impair personal and social intelligence, leaving other abilities intact. The classic case of Gage may serve as an example (Macmillan, 1986). On the other hand, Luria's, 1972 case of Zazetsky, "the man with a shattered world", sustained damage in the occipital and parietal lobes which severely impaired most of his intellectual capacities, but left his personal and social abilities relatively intact. Gardner also noted that while both Down syndrome and Alzheimer's disease have severe cognitive consequences but little impact on the person's ability to get along with other people, Pick's disease spares at least some cognitive abilities while severely impairing the person's ability to interact with others. In related work, Taylor & Cadet, 1989 have proposed that three different brain systems provide the neurological substrate of social intelligence: a balanced or integrated cortical subsystem which relies on long-term memory to make complex social judgments; a frontal-dominant subsystem which organizes and generates social behaviors; and a limbic-dominant subsystem which rapidly produces emotional responses to events. However, it should be noted that, with the exception of emotion (LeDoux, 1996; Tobis et al., 1998), research on the neurological underpinnings of social cognition and behavior is highly impressionistic and speculative (Klein & Kihlstrom, 1998).

With respect to exceptional individuals, Gardner offers Freud and Proust as "prodigies" in the domain of intrapersonal intelligence, Gandhi and Johnson as their counterparts in the domain of interpersonal intelligence. Each of these individuals, displayed high levels of personal and social intelligence against a background of more "normal" abilities in other domains. On the negative side, Gardner noted that infantile autism (Kanner's syndrome, Williams' syndrome etc.) severely impairs the individual's ability to understand other people and navigate the social world.
1.4.5 Overlapping of Emotional and Social Intelligence

Emotional intelligence contributes to the development of social intelligence. In order to empathize with others' emotional states, it is important to have a coherent understanding of one's own emotional range.

Although emotional and social intelligence can be treated as distinct and separate concepts, in actuality emotional and social intelligence evolve jointly. As emotional and social intelligence evolve together, the individual begins to simultaneously process emotional and social information. The development of both emotional and social intelligence is a lifelong process. This simultaneous process is made possible by three overlapping components: awareness, cognition, and behavior. Because these three components are contained in both emotional and social intelligence, their interactions help to explain the interdependent relationship between emotional and social intelligence.

To understand the interdependent relationship between emotional and social intelligence, it is useful to consider each overlapping component. The first overlapping component involves awareness. While emotional intelligence is concerned with self-awareness of emotions, social intelligence is concerned with social awareness. However, both types of awareness occur concurrently within a given situational context.

The second overlapping component involves cognition. As mentioned earlier, cognition in emotional intelligence entails correctly identifying and understanding physiological emotional states and the situations that provoke them. In contrast, cognition in social intelligence entails interpreting external situational cues, considering social goals and deciding on a course of action. Similar to awareness, both types of cognition occur in a given situation.

The third overlapping component involves behavior. In regards to emotional intelligence, behavior centers on the self-management and internal regulation of emotions. Conversely, in social intelligence, behavior focuses on the outward verbal and physical expressions that occur during social interactions. Similar to the other two components, both types of behavior occur simultaneously in situations.
Although emotional and social information can be processed simultaneously, this simultaneous processing does not happen all the time. When people are confronted with new experiences, they may have to invest considerable energy in order to carefully identify and analyze the incoming emotional and social information. In this way the interactions between these three components demonstrate the interrelationship that exists between emotional and social intelligence.

Moreover contemporary theorists like Salovey and Mayer, 1990 originally viewed emotional intelligence as part of social intelligence, which suggested that both concepts are related and may, in all likelihood, represent interrelated components of the same construct.

At about the same time researchers began exploring various ways to describe, define and assess social intelligence, scientific inquiry in this area began to center around alexithymia (MacLean, 1949), which is the essence of emotional-social intelligence in that it focuses on the ability (or rather inability) to recognize, understand and describe emotions.

Two new directions that paralleled and possibly evolved from alexithymia were psychological mindedness (Appelbaum, 1973) and emotional awareness (Lane & Schwartz, 1987).

In this way literature reveals various attempts to combine the emotional and social components of this construct. For example, Gardner, 1983 explained that his conceptualization of personal intelligences is based on intrapersonal (emotional) intelligence and interpersonal (social) intelligence. Additionally, Saarni, 1990 described emotional competence as including eight interrelated emotional and social skills. Furthermore, Bar-On, 2000 have shown that emotional-social intelligence is composed of a number of intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies, skills and facilitators that combine to determine effective human behavior. Based on the above, it is more accurate to refer to this construct as “emotional-social intelligence” rather than “emotional intelligence” or “social intelligence”
1.4.6 The Prototype of Social Intelligence

According to Sternberg et al., 1981: Prototypical behaviors reflecting social competence were:

- Accepts others for what they are;
- Admits mistakes;
- Displays interest in the world at large;
- Is on time for appointments;
- Has social conscience;
- Thinks before speaking and doing;
- Displays curiosity;
- Does not make snap judgments;
- Makes fair judgments;
- Assesses well the relevance of information to a problem at hand;
- Is sensitive to other people's needs and desires;
- Is frank and honest with self and others; and
- Displays interest in the immediate environment.

In a study performed by Kosmitzki & John, 1993, the following dimensions emerged as most central to the prototype of social intelligence:

- Understands people's thoughts, feelings and intentions well;
- Is good at dealing with people;
- Has extensive knowledge of rules and norms in human relations;
- Is good at taking the perspective of other people;
- Adapts well in social situations;
- Is warm and caring; and
- Is open to new experiences, ideas and values.

Chesnokova & Subbotsky, 2005: Social intelligence is not an innate capacity: it develops at a certain point of an individual life. For most of infancy children don’t even need SI – as long as at that time there is no clash of interests between themselves and their caregivers.
According to Bennis, 2005 like any skill, social strategies and techniques can be learned…

**The main social skills are as follows:**

1) The ability to remain relaxed, or at a tolerable level of anxiety while in social situations

2) Listening skills, including letting others know you are listening

There is little more attractive and seductive than being truly listened to. Good listening skills include:

- Making 'I'm listening' noises.
- Feeding back what you've heard
- Referring back to others' comments later on
- Physical stillness, eye contact and attentiveness while the other person is talking.

3) Empathy with and interest in others' situations.

4) The ability to build rapport, whether natural or learned.

   Rapport is a state of understanding or connection that occurs in a good social interaction. It says basically "I am like you, we understand each other". Rapport occurs on an unconscious level and when it happens, the language, speech patterns, body movement and posture and other aspects of communication can synchronize down to incredibly fine levels.

   Rapport is an unconscious process, but it can be encouraged by conscious efforts.

- Body posture 'mirroring', or movement 'matching'
- Reflecting back language and speech, including rate, volume, tone and words
• Feeding back what you have heard

5) Knowing how, when and how much to talk about yourself - 'self disclosure'

Talking about ourselves too much and too early can be a major turn off for the other party in conversation. However, as conversations and relationships progress, disclosing personal facts (small, non-emotional ones first!) leads to a feeling of getting to know each other.

6) Appropriate eye contact

This doesn't mean we have to stare at them. In fact, staring at someone while talking to them can give them the feeling we are angry with them. Keeping your eyes on them while we are listening, of course, is only polite.

As these social skills can be developed during the life time, so parents as well as educators need to make efforts for harmonious development of children.

(Marlow & Inman, 2002) had rightly remarked in a study that in addition to focusing on students' cognitive development, teachers also must be prepared to address children's continuing physical, emotional, social and spiritual growth as well as helping resolve interpersonal conflicts, identifying and making referrals for those suffering from abuse, neglect and a variety of emotional problems and acting as mentor and counselor for those wishing to talk with someone familiar about personal problems.

Human Intelligence (Sternberg, 1985) and Successful Intelligence (Sternberg, 1998) were combined and expanded into the concept of Practical Intelligence (Blythe et al., 1985; Sternberg, 2000) the ability to understand oneself and one's environment while using those understandings to decide the best way in which to achieve goals and to display interest in the world in which one lives. Moral Intelligence describes the ability to make decisions that benefit yourself as well as others (Coles, 1997). Social Intelligence focuses on the ability to empathize and work cooperatively with others as well as the ability to self-assess (Hough, 2001). Emotional Intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to
monitor, discriminate among and use information about the emotions of self and others (Goleman, 1995). Additionally, into the mix has come the concepts of prosocial competence, developing positive, specific beliefs and clear standards for behavior (Gregg, 1998); social and emotional learning, the development of generalized skills as well as social decision making and problem solving skills that can be applied in many situations (ASCD, 1997). The “soul” of education and the "yearning, wonder, wisdom, fear, confusion, joy" which provides the inner dimension of the human experience (Kessler, 2000); and "loving" and/or "caring" education (Goldstein, 2002), which focuses on the compassionate, responsive approaches to teaching and the connections which must be made with students in the classroom.

The various contributory factors for social competency in adolescents were discussed in a report given by Hair et al., 2002. As given in this report social competence has two related, but separate constructs: good social skills and quality social relationships. The social relationships fall into two domains: family and non-family. Family relationships include those with parents, siblings, grandparents and other family members. Non-family relationships include other adults and peers. The social skills fall into two domains, as well: interpersonal skills and individual attributes. The interpersonal skills domain includes conflict resolution, intimacy and pro-social behaviors. The individual attributes domain includes skills such as self-control, social confidence and empathy/sympathy.

1.4.7 Social Relationships

Family Relationships

Parents

Adolescents’ quality relationships with their parents have implications for development of social skills, the development of other social relationships and the development of psychological and psychosocial well-being of youth (Engels et al., 2001; Franz et al., 1991; Jacobsen & Hofmann, 1997).

Individual characteristics are related to the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship. For instance, the degree of respect in the relationship enhances the quality of the relationship (Hightower, 1990). In addition, both the gender of the
parent (Rice et al., 1997) and the gender of the youth (Rice & Mulkeen 1995) are related to the quality of the relationship – for instance, boys have closer relationships with their fathers than do girls. The youth’s personality (i.e. anxiety, quick temper) is related to poorer quality relationships (Barber, 1994).

Similarly, high levels of negative affect from the parents are related to poorer quality relationships (Paley et al., 2000). However, a warm and responsive parenting style enhances the quality of the relationships (Barber, 1994; Hightower, 1990). In addition, characteristics of the family as a whole, such as family discord influence the quality of the parent-child relationship (Aquilino, 1994; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999; Woodward et al., 2000).

There is evidence that intervention programs may positively influence the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship. For instance, there is some evidence that participation in social skills development programs (Mills et al., 1992) and mentoring programs (Rhodes et al., 2000; Tierney et al., 1995) may enhance the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship.

**Siblings**

Sibling relationships serve an important role in adolescent development by influencing adolescent relationship style and delinquent behavior, by protecting against family stressors and by enhancing adolescent cognitive ability (Dunn et al., 1994; Jenkins, 1992; Simons et al., 1991; Conger et al., 2001).

An individual’s temperament, such as sociability and low frequency of upset increase the quality of the relationship, while characteristics such as high emotionality and low persistence lead to poorer quality relationships (Brody et al., 1987 and Stocker et al., 1990). Sibling behaviors, such as alcohol use, can strain the relationship (Stevenson & Lee, 2001). Other characteristics, such as age and gender have also been found to influence the quality of the sibling relationship. Girls tend to have better relationships with their siblings than boys (Dunn et al., 1994) and older adolescents are less likely to report conflict with their siblings than younger adolescents and children (Brody et al., 1987; Stocker et al., 1990)
Some programs that trained parents on how to deal with siblings during and after a sibling conflict showed a decrease in sibling conflict as compared to parents who did not receive the training (Reed et al., 1997).

**Grandparents and Other Family members**

Grandparents and other extended family members may serve a crucial role in adolescent development by serving as role models, teachers, supporters and as a source of family history and culture (Blyth, Hill & Thiel, 1982; Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1986; Hagestad, 1985; Hendry, Roberts, Glendinning & Coleman, 1992; Sanders & Trygstad, 1993; Scales & Gibbons, 1996).

Research has also been conducted on family level factors that influence quality relationships with grandparents. Factors, such as the a poor quality relationship between the parents and the grandparents (Hodgson, 1992; King & Elder, 1995; Robertson, 1976) and parental divorce (Brand et al., 1992; Creasey, 1993; Hilton & Macari, 1997) can decrease the quality of the adolescent-grandparent relationships and the ability of the adolescent to maintain a relationship with their grandparents and hence an adolescent’s social development.

**Non-Family Relationships**

**Non-Familial Adults**

Relationships with non-familial adults—such as teachers, mentors, neighbors and fictive aunts and uncles—have the potential to positively change an adolescent's social development by transmitting social skills, modeling behaviors, introducing youth to diverse social contexts and providing the supports and socialization opportunities that may be absent at home (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Larkin, 1999; Rhodes et al., 2000; Conrad et al., 1995; Wills & Cleary, 1996). Furthermore, these relationships are related to increased prosocial behaviors, lower levels of depression, improved relationships with parents and overall better social skills (Rhodes, Contreras & Mangelsdorf, 1994; Rhodes et al., 2000; Waxler & Smith, 1992).

**Peer relationships**
Social relationships between peers—romantic or platonic—have the potential to promote social skills in adolescents. Findings from longitudinal and cross-sectional research indicate associations between peer adolescent relationships and the development of positive interpersonal skills (Bender & Loesel, 1997; Hansen, Christopher & Nangle, 1992; Wentzel, 1998), autonomy (Dowdy & Kliewer, 1998), mental health (Hightower, 1990), self-confidence (O'Connor et al., 2002; Quatman et al., 2001; Tokuno, 1986), satisfaction with social support (Bender & Loesel, 1997), joint decision-making, empathy and more sophisticated perspective-taking and reasoning skills (Kruger, 1992; Tokuno, 1986; Wentzel & Caldwell, 1997). These relationships also appear to discourage aggression (Bender & Loesel, 1997), emotional distress (Burks et al., 1995) and antisocial behaviors (Bender & Loesel, 1997; Wentzel & Caldwell, 1997). Peers can also provide models of successful social relationships (Feiring, 1996; Hansen et al., 1992).

1.4.8 Social Skills

Interpersonal Skills

Conflict Resolution Skills

Development of these conflict resolution skills is key to an adolescent’s social success and development (Newcomb & Bagwell, 1995). For instance, an adolescent’s ability to communicate successfully and resolve conflicts has been linked to peer acceptance and the development of friendships (Allen et al., 1989; Kurdek & Krile, 1982).

Experimental evaluations of youth programs provide strong evidence that adolescents who lack the appropriate skills necessary to negotiate conflict can attain those skills through skill training interventions aimed at increasing conflict resolution skills (Caplan et al., 1992; Eddy et al., 2000; Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Tierney et al., 1995).

Intimacy Skills

Intimacy skills in youth are associated with academic and socio-emotional outcomes (Wentzel & Caldwell, 1997). For instance, youth with good intimacy skills
are more interested in school, perform better academically and have higher quality relationships with parents and peers (Bendell et al., 1995). In addition, these youth have higher self-esteem and are less likely to be depressed or participate in risk-taking behaviors (Field et al., 1995). Youth without intimacy skills are more likely to be anxious, depressed, lonely and isolated (Hymel et al., 1990; Rubin et al., 1995).

**Pro-social Behaviors**

Children with prosocial behaviors are likely to have other positive socio-emotional outcomes. Specifically, prosocial children are viewed as, good social problem solvers (Marsh et al., 1981), considerate and low in aggression (Eisenberg et al., 1995).

Antecedents from the individual, family, neighborhood and societal levels are predictive of youth prosocial behaviors. Evidences show that youth programs may be able to influence youth’s prosocial behaviors (Battistich et al., 1997; Battistich et al., 1991).

**Individual Attributes**

**Self-Control/Behavior Regulation**

Self-control and behavioral regulation are related to the success of relationships with peers, adults and parents (Murphy et al., 1999). For example, youth who can regulate their behaviors and emotions are more likely to be viewed positively by peers (Melnick & Hinshaw, 2000) and adults (Murphy et al., 1999) and less like to have difficulties with their social relationships (Pope & Bierman, 1999).

Positive relationships with parents (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Lamborn et al., 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983) and peers (Zeman & Shipman, 1998) lead to appropriate levels of self-control, whereas negative relationships with parents (Collins et al., 1997; Straus & Yodanis, 1996) and peers (King & Young, 1981; Lahey et al., 1980) lead to a lack of self-control. Specific programs that teach youth coping and monitoring strategies and social problem solving skills and teach youth to consider the consequences of behavior have been shown experimentally to be effective (Eddy et al., 2000; Etscheidt, 1991; Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Lochman et al., 1993; Schinke et al., 1988).
Social Confidence: Assertiveness/Social Initiative/Social Self-Efficacy

Social confidence (i.e., social assertiveness, social self-efficacy and social initiative) in adolescents is positively related to feelings of social acceptance (Barber & Erickson, 2001; McFarlane et al., 1995) and adversely related to levels of loneliness (Moore & Schultz, 1983; Young & Bradley, 1998) and social discomfort (Galanaki & Azizi, 1999).

Empathy/Sympathy

Empathetic response, or the ability to induce the emotional state or reaction of others (Eisenberg), has been established as key to relational success with peers, family members and others (Adams et al., 1979; Murphy et al., 1999). Empathetic response is predicated upon cognitive and affective processes (Adams et al., 1979; Henry et al., 1996; Pecukonis, 1990). Family characteristics, such as older siblings (Tucker et al., 2001), a cohesive, supportive family and parents who engage in logical reasoning (Henry et al., 1996), foster empathy development in adolescents.

As transition to adolescence is characterized as a time of dramatic change for youth including puberty, a search for a sense of self, expansion of cognitive abilities, increased social and academic expectations (Eccles & Midgley, 1990; Hair, 1999; Harter, 1999; Keating, 1990; Lapsley, 1990; Larson & Richards, 1994; Simmons & Blythe, 1987; Steinberg, 1993), coupled with evolving peer and family relationships (Bukowski et al., 1984; Hair et al., 2001; Holmbeck et al., 1995; Williams & Berndt, 1990). As they develop and change, youth must develop the skills or the competence to maintain quality social relationships.

Therefore social intelligence required to maintain these quality social relationships had been the area of research studies from the couple of years. In the present study also social intelligence at this ‘Chulf’ (Child + Adult) stage and its relationship with other factors which may influence the developmental changes associated with this crucial phase of life has being focused.
1.5 Parental Involvement

Parents play a vital role in the growth of their children in all areas, including their emotional, physical, spiritual and intellectual development. What parents do for their children on a daily basis must not be taken for granted. Stodt, 1981 contends that: the influence of family life on children's all-round development cannot be underestimated. Parents contribute greatly to the language, emotional and physical development of children. Parents who spend time talking with their children are encouraging language development. Love, patience and understanding foster a sense of security that is the groundwork upon which successful learning can occur.

Parents love their children. Parents are readily available for their children no matter what happens in their lives. They may struggle to read or succeed rapidly. A parent loves unconditionally and will encourage or to comfort when trials come. No amount of teaching in school can compare to the power of a parent's love. Loving parents help develop literate children. Hannon, 1995 comments: The word "love" does not figure prominently in the vocabulary of educational researchers but it refers to something fundamental. Most parents find involvement in their child's development, whether in education or other areas, intrinsically rewarding and fulfilling. This, after all, is one reason why they became parents. Two implications follow, First- parents are a highly motivated teaching force and schools should not allow their potential to be wasted. Second- one does not really need to justify parental involvement in any other terms. It is not just a means to an end; it is already an end - a good - in itself. So parents are the most valuable asset in realizing their children every day.

Parental support and help is crucial to the level of success one achieves. Not only does this benefit the child but it also creates a unity between educators and parents to work together to prepare students for the future.

Researches confirm that when parents are partners in their children’s education the results are increased motivation, high self-esteem, improved achievement, better attendance, reduced dropout rates and decreased delinquency. Parental involvement can be beneficial to the student by creating positive attitudes, promoting good work ethics and above all it just shows their child that they care enough about them to want to be involved with all that they do throughout the school.
day. It has great role in the tender period of adolescence. When they face the problem of heightened emotionality, they become less assertive and more aggressive. The support of family creates an environment where the adolescent can accomplish their ultimate goals. Parents also gain by staying involved because they are better and they are able to establish positive relationships with teachers. It also makes the job of an educator easier when this occurs because when all the individuals work together to achieve one goal, success can be the only outcome.

**Maccoby (1983)** parental Involvement may be described as the degree to which the parent is committed to his or her role as a parent and to the fostering of optimal child development

**Cooper (1989)** parental involvement refers to those actions and initiatives taken by parents to secure their children’s academic success. Those actions often involve controlling their children’s physical and social environment so their children will not be distracted in order to secure academic tasks completion. Often, parents check homework assignments, help with homework, give special privileges for good grades, limit privileges due to poor grades, require to work around the house, limit TV watching or video games and limit time with friends.

**Moles and D'Angelo, 1993** defined Parent involvement as the support and participation of parents at home, in the community and at the school site that directly and positively affect the educational performance of the children. It is most successful when it is viewed, practiced and promoted as a partnership between the home and school. Effective partnerships are characterized by:

- Mutual trust and respect
- Two-way collaboration and support
- Equality in the relationship

The school must provide leadership and assume responsibility for encouraging active involvement, using strategies that meet the individual needs of all family within the community.
Grolnick and Slovciaczek (1994) defined it as the allocation of resources to the child’s academic endeavors. In other words, it denotes the extent to which as well as the way in which parents take keen interest and actively participate in their child’s education. All parents have certain expectations, likes/dislikes and preferences regarding how children should be handled, brought up and educated. These may be shaped according to parent’s concept of an ideal child.

Ryan et al. (1997) involvement reflects parental dedication and positive attention to the child rearing process and is a facilitator of both identification and internalization of social values.

Sharma (2002) Parents transmit the culture and customs of society to the oncoming generation. Parents contribute in many subtle ways to the development of children’s general interest, welfare, discipline, interactions with one another, leisure time activities, academic growth and vocational plans.

According to Hickmann “Future of high school success: Importance of Parental Involvement”, the various forms of parental involvement in secondary schools are parent as a communicator, parent as supporter of activities, parent as learner, parent as advocate, parent as decision maker, parent as volunteer/professional and parent as home activities teacher. In the article, “Relationships between Parental Involvement and Student Achievement”, Joyce uses researchers to break down parental involvement into three categories; Parent-Child relationships at home, parent training or involvement in performance contracts and parent-school-community partnerships.

Riley, 1996 says that “The family is the bedrock on which a strong education foundation must be built to prepare children for the rigors of the 21st century.” He also documents seven good practices for families. These are as follows:

- Read together. It’s the starting point of all learning. Read with your youngsters. Share a good book with your teen.

- Use TV wisely. Limit viewing to no more than two hours a school day.
• Stay in regular contact with your child's teacher. Encourage your child to take challenging courses at school. Check homework every day.

• Join with your child's teachers and principal to compare your school program against high standards of excellence so your children can reach their full potential.

• Know where your children are, especially your teens. Encourage them to join youth groups. Support community efforts to keep children safe and off the streets after hours.

• Talk directly to your children about the values you want them to have and about the dangers of drugs, alcohol and tobacco—it could literally save their lives.

Parental Involvement - Non-Regulatory Guidance, Department of Education, U.S.A. (2004) the term “parental involvement” means the participation of parents in regular, two-way, meaningful communication involving student academic learning and other school activities, including ensuring –

• that parents play an integral role in assisting their child’s learning;

• that parents are encouraged to be actively involved in their child’s education at school;

• appropriate, in decision-making and on advisory committees to assist in the education of their child; and

• the carrying out of other activities.

According to National Center for Education Statistics (2005) parental involvement in school is defined as parent reported participation at least once during the school year in attending a general school meeting; attending a scheduled meeting with their child's teacher; attending a school event; or volunteering in the school or serving on a school committee.

Kauffman (2008) defined parental involvement as actions of parents taking an involved role in their child's educational future such as frequently discussing
1.5.1 Benefits of Parental Involvement

Parent encouragement helps the student to achieve academic success. Parent training and involvement deals with implementing the techniques needed by parents to be competent in motivating their children. Parent-School-Community partnerships stress the importance of parental involvement in decision making in the community because it directly affects the educational process. Based on research by Moles and D’Angelo, 1993 following are the three levels which are benefited by parental involvement:

Students

- Positive attitude toward school.
- Higher achievement in reading.
- Higher quality homework.
- Positive perception of homes connection.

Parents

- An understanding of how schools work.
- Learning of strategies to help their children be successful in school.
- Confidence in helping their children learn.
- Positive views of teachers and the school.

Teachers/Schools

- Higher morale.
- Improvement in student achievement.
Researchers and educators generally agree that parents are an efficacious forge in student’s development. Parents logically have the advantage over peers, educators, counselors and other professionals, of serving as continual and perhaps more stable resource for their children over the life span (Trusty, 1996). Parental involvement in children’s education has been associated with numerous positive outcomes for elementary school students (Christenson, Rounds and Gorney, 1992). In general, productive collaboration between schools and families has been associated with:

- Higher student achievement (Keith, 1993)
- Lower drop out rates (National Center For Education Statistics, 1992)
- A decline in behavior problems (Comer, 1984)
- Academic initiative and persistence (Estrada et al., 1987)

Whereas parental involvement, care, support and monitoring are related to adolescent perceptions and behaviors in another way, viz:

- Psychosocial Competence (Basimeind, 1991, Lamboren et al., 1991)
- Self Esteem (Chubb and Fertman, 1992)
- Higher career aspirations (Farmer, 1985; Wilson & Wilson, 1992)
- Career decision making (Penick and Jeprew, 1992)
- Positive school attitudes (Chubb and Fertman, 1992; Trusty, 1996)
- Lower levels of drug use (Barnes and Farrel, 1992)
- Academic Success (Paulson, 1994)
- Adaptive School behavior (Trusty, 1996)
- Internal Locus of Control (Baumrind, 1991; Trusty and Lamp, 1997)
It is believed in our side that Parental Involvement is a potent factor that has the potential of lessening the gap in achievement between children from low and high-income families (Milne, 1989). Whereas member of studies have also suggested that parents of higher socio-economic status are more involved in their children’s education than are parents of lower SES; also greater involvement fosters more positive attitudes towards school, improves homework habits, reduces absenteeism and enhances academic achievement (Astone and Melanahan, 1991). SES was found to be a strongest predictor of late adolescent’s educational expectations, consistent with findings from Farmer, 1992. Parent’s participation in extracurricular activities and adolescent’s perceptions of parent’s personal educational support seem to influence adolescent’s educational expectations, above and beyond the effects of SES. At low levels of SES, it seems more important for counselors and educators to promote parent’s personal support for adolescent’s educational and career development.

1.5.2 Parenting Styles

Baumrind’s (1966) Model of Parenting Styles

This model categorizes four distinct types of parenting styles.

1. Authorization: Parents operate with the belief that the child must obey that parent without question. These parents set a standard for their child to adhere to and do not allow the child to question that standard. Obedience is considered a virtue to the authorization parent and he or she is typically willing to use punitive or forceful punishments on the child who does not obey.

2. Permissive Parents: In contrast to authorization parents, a permissive parent sets very few rules for the child. The permissive parent allows the child to regulate his or her own activities. When talking to a child, the permissive parent uses reason, but makes few demands of the child.

3. Authoritative Parents: These are midway between authoritarian and permissive parents. An authoritative parent sets policies and rules for the child but explains the reasoning behind the policy also encourages the child to speak up
when he or she disagrees with a policy and takes the child’s opinion into consideration. The authoritative parent sets standards for the child’s conduct while recognizing and valuing the child’s interests and autonomy.

4. Neglectful Parents: these parents are uninvolved in their child’s life. They do not respond to the child’s needs or demands.

However, while the first three styles have been supported empirically, there is little support for the neglectful style (Herman et al., 1997). Brenner & Fox, 1999 used a cluster analysis to determine if the parenting behaviors of a large sample of mothers would fit into Baumrind’s model. Although they found four clusters of parenting styles, only three correspond to Baumrind’s model. They could not find a cluster corresponding to neglectful parents. But fourth cluster was characterized by low to moderate discipline, low nurturing and low to moderate expectations. This cluster was the most common in Brenner and Fox’s, 1999 study. So it is possible that many parents do not fit neatly in Baumrind’s categories.

1.5.3 The Parenting Challenges

Parenting is not lot like a playing a game. The only problem is that this game comes with no instructions and mistakes can have long lasting effects on many people. Children and parents seem to have some pre-conceived notion that magical and wonderful things will happen during middle school and high school. It really is only a notion. As the train leaves the pre-teen years behind, neither parent nor child know where they are starting, or where they are going. Academic pressures have increased, social pressures and circles have grown and parents are restricting the adolescent’s movements daily. The adolescent struggles for independence and begins testing limits. Parents need to meet these challenges by giving the adolescent responsibilities and providing them with opportunities to make decisions (Newman & Newman, 1995). Parents will be tested to see if they will provide safety and unconditional love. The family as a system will strive to find a balance between the internal and external pressures they face. This will be a challenge, as both parent and adolescent are attempting to find their own niche in a world that is ever changing.
Even though, in this present day, most teachers do value the assistance that parents can give their children, history shows that this was not always the case. Prior to the 1970's, parents were often excluded from teaching. They were not allowed to help teachers or students in the classroom setting and they were not encouraged to work with their children at home. One reason for this was that teachers viewed parental involvement as simply one more thing to do in their already busy schedule. Planning for parent volunteers or providing material for parents to use in the home was too time consuming.

"Another reason for parental exclusion is the professionalization of the teaching. Some teachers thought that those who know even less, particularly parents, are not competent to teach it" (Hannen, 1995). Some teachers believed that since they had received years of training and most parents had not, then those parents were unqualified to teach their children. “Some teachers fear that if parents become involved they would do more harm than good and that it is safer, in the interests of the children, to distance them from the teaching. Though the efforts of some parents may possibly have had counter-productive results, the majority of parents provide positive results. Negative results may have come from parents not being advised what to do with their child, or the possibility that they are uneducated. Yet, no matter what the education level of the parents, they can still talk about stories that their children read as well as provide a multitude of experiences.

In the 1970's there was a trend toward somewhat limited involvement for parents. The turning point for parents was the publication of the Plowden Report in England. This report made several recommendations. It stated that Parent Teacher Associations should be developed, parents should be free to choose the schools their children attend, teachers should do home visits and parents should be contacted by the teacher more often (Hannon, 1995). However, he explained that this provided only "limited" involvement because:

- First, most parents were not free to spend time in school during the day and additionally, numbers were limited by space and the amount of time teachers could give in supporting and guiding parents.
Second, parents were usually limited to the margins of the curriculum - washing paint pots rather than teaching math - since teachers not unreasonably considered parents had not been trained for teaching, especially teaching children other than their own in group.

Third, parents had the most limited influence on the curriculum itself, which, at that time, continued to be defined, planned and implemented by teachers.

Fourth, the impact of parents was limited because their unique advantages over teachers as educators of their own children in their own homes were not exploited. Instead, they were invited to work in the alien territory of the school - a less meaningful environment than the home for many - with children other than their own.

A study of the U.S. Department of Education found as children grow older, contacts between families and schools decline both in number and in the positive nature of such contacts. Although 52% of interactions are positive and only 20% are negative in the first grade, by seventh-eighth grade positive contacts drop to 35% and negative contacts increase to 33%. This decline in involvement may be due to many barriers reported below:

- Contradiction among parents and teachers on what constitute involvement.
- Negative or neutral communication from schools.
- Insufficient training to teachers on how to reach out to both mothers and fathers.
- Lack of parental education and parenting skills.
- Time & job pressures of both teachers and parents.
- Language barriers for illiterate parents & hesitation due to lack of confidence.
Khan, 1996 has given his views regarding barriers that parents may have which prevent them from their involvement in schools. He quoted some of these reasons as health problems, economic differences between parents and teachers, work responsibilities, feelings of inadequacy, failure and poor self-worth, previous negative experiences with school and a variety of cultural differences. Khan indicates that one author, Liontos, goes on to express that parents with certain cultural backgrounds and many low-income parents regard schools as an institutionalized authority, hence the responsibility to teach their children lies solely on the educator. This is supported by Dodge, 1995, who shows parents often say, "Why do we have to teach kids how to study? That's the school's job". Furthermore, many parents struggle with language hurdles that make involvement more challenging.

### 1.5.4 Kinds of Parental Involvement

There can be two kinds of parent involvement. The first occurs within the home and includes behaviors such as the following:

- Understanding the psychological make up of the child.
- Setting high expectations.
- Monitoring homework.
- Limiting television viewing or outside work.
- Knowing child’s company.
- Discussing school events with children.
- Open conversation with children about peer’s talks and discussions.
- Valuing and talking about education and ethics.
- Showing respect for teachers and other elders.
- Answering in frank & noble way the queries and curious questions of their children in critical period of their life.
Whereas second kind of involvement is the physical presence of parents in the school. This may range from:

- Attendance at parent-teacher meetings.

- Regular participation in the school events.

- Ongoing participation in school activities by voluntarily helping the school in one or other aspects.

**Indices of Parental Involvement** (Grolic & Slowiaszek, 1994) gave a multidimensional representation of Parental Involvement that focus on not one specific activity but on various dimensions viz:

- Behavior Involvement

- Cognitive Stimulation

- Personal Involvement

### 1.5.5 Conceptual Framework of Parent-Child Interactions

There are several theories regarding the categorization of parental involvement activities. These theories emphasized the beneficial effects parental involvement has on the children in school.

Epstein, 1990 places emphasis on the need for a collaborative relationship between parents and schools. According to her, there are three spheres of influence over a child in school:

- Time (developmental changes and background).

- The philosophies, policies and practices of the family.

- The philosophies, policies and practices of the school.

The Epstein’s theory, parents and schools should share the responsibilities for the child, i.e. there should not be a separation of labor or an idea that the school has specialized knowledge and should therefore take more responsibilities for the
child’s education. This emphasis on sharing responsibility promotes generalization of skills to both the school and home environment leading to a better and more productive life for the child. This pushes the family and school spheres close together ensuring a large overlap.

Epstein surveyed 3700 schoolteachers, 600 principals and more than 1200 parents in 16 schools districts in Maryland. She categorized six types of parental involvement which is important for the child in one or another way.

**Type 1: The Basic Obligations of Parents**

- Ensuring child’s health & safety.
- Using appropriate parenting skills to prepare children for school.
- Supervising, disciplining and guiding the child appropriately.
- Creating positive home environment.

**Type 2: School-Home Communication**

**School’s Responsibility**

- To send home progress reports
- Speak with the parents about child’s performance in school
- Send home memos or notices regarding school programs and activities.

**Parent’s Responsibility**

- To act on the information from the school
- Attend parent-teacher conferences
- Keep the lines of communications with teachers or administration open.

**Type 3: Parent Involvement at School (Reading-partner volunteers)**

- Assistance parents in schools like lunch monitors, playground monitors or computer lab assistants.
- Attending student performances, sports or other school events.

_Type 4: Parent Involvement in Learning Activities At Home_

- Monitor their child’s homework & assist where needed.
- Parents should reinforce classroom learning.

_Type 5: Parent Involvement in Governance and Advocacy_

Parents should join PTOs Advisory Council, committees or independent advocacy groups.

_Type 6: Parent Networks_

Parents can also be involved in the school by collaborating with other parents through celebration of some functions or festivals.

Dempsey & Sandler, 1995 gave evidence that there are three primary reasons of the involvement of the parents in their child’s education.

- A personal construction of the parental role
- A personal sense of efficacy
- A reaction of school or child demands.

Grolnick et al., 1997; Sheldon, 2002 also supported that both role construction and efficacy are strongly linked to parental involvement, although they may affect parental involvement in different ways. Those parents who consider it their role to be involved in their children’s education are frequently involved at both the home and school levels. A parent’s sense of efficacy in helping a child is strongly linked with involvement at the home, but has no significant relationship with involvement at the school level.

A large amount of research has focused on the role of the teacher in involving parents in education (Balli et al., 1997; Espstein, 1986; Eccles & Harold, 1993).
Researchers and educators generally agree that parents are an efficacious force in student’s development. Parents logically have the advantage over peers, educators, counselors and other professionals of serving as a continual and perhaps more stable resource for their children over the life span (Trusty, 1996). Parental involvement, care, support and monitoring are related to many adolescent perceptions and behaviors like:

- Psychological Competence (Barimerind, 1991; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg & Denbusch, 1991)
- Self-Esteem (Chubb & Fertman, 1992)
- Higher Career aspirations (Farmer, 1985; Wilson & Wilson, 1992)
- Career decision making (Penick & Jepson, 1992)
- Positive school attitudes (Chubb & Fertman, 1992; Trusty, 1996)
- Lower levels of drug use (Barness & Farrell, 1992)
- Academic Success (Paulson, 1994)
- Adaptive school behavior (Trusty, 1996)
- Internal locus of control (Baumrind, 1991; Trusty & Lampe, 1997)

### 1.5.6 Ways to get involved

Researchers have confirmed that when parents are partners in their children’s education the results are increased motivation, higher self-esteem, improved achievement, better attendance, reduced dropout rates and decreased delinquency. So parental involvement can cover a myriad of commitments from parents and extended family members. It is important for children to lead emotionally, physically and socially healthy life in school as well as in home. Here are some ways:
Coping with the Emerging Adolescent

Parents today are realizing that parenting requires a more democratic approach because the fears and dreams of the generation are not the same for today’s generation. Adolescents have to be allowed to explore their own needs, desires and feelings (Longress, 1995). While providing supervision, setting limits and being support. Self-confidence and self-discipline provide a foundation for helping a teenager to develop into a mature responsible adult. This will require the parent to become the teacher of three R’s: rules, routines and responsibilities (Rosemond, 1990) however the psychodynamics of the family will directly influence its effectiveness in teaching and in molding a confident teenager. Giving adolescent responsibilities and the opportunity to make decisions will foster self-confidence (Newman & Newman, 1995). Responsibilities and privileges should match the assessment of the emotional, mental and physical maturity levels of the teenager. Chronological age does not accurately portray their abilities. Emotional maturity refers to their growth and ability to handle their current body size. Adolescence is often marked by periods of physical awkwardness, caused by their body’s unequal growth spurts (Newman & Newman, 1995). Once these assessments are complete, identity narrow household responsibilities they can handle. Parents should solicit their help determining in which responsibilities they will start with and privileges that can result from completing these tasks.

Positive Parenting

Parental use of positive, rather than negative, approaches in disciplining are demonstrated along with the use of natural consequences rather than punishment. Praising their efforts will reinforce their attempts. Privileges are to reinforce for accepting the responsibility and privileges that are earned, will be treasured. Increased value is given to those privileges, which are earned (Rosemond, 1999).

Good Communication Patterns

Communication is an interrelated part of the family system. Conversations provide a link between parent and adolescent. A healthy family system permits an even flow of information exhibiting good communication patterns (Zastron, 1989; Longress, 1995). Communicating effectively means sharing. It allows parent and
child to get to know each other on a personal level. Parents should spend time getting to know how the adolescent sees life.

**An Eye on Peer-Group relationships**

Parents have a role in guiding their adolescent in how to select friends. Open communication about day-to-day events makes parents less threatening when talking about friends. The friends, an adolescent chooses will affect the whole family. The importance of peer groups and the need for acceptance by peers increases in the adolescent years (Newman & Newman, 1995). So it is necessary to define friendship and discuss expectations that are mutually agreed upon when considering a peer friend. These peer relationships will impact the ecological balance of the family. Therefore the more positive the interactions with the family system, the less likely it is to be a source of conflict in the future.

**Removing the Role Conflict**

Role conflict for both parent and adolescent presents a challenge. Openly clarifying role expectations through open communication will decrease the strain (Longress, 1993).

**Discipline** by definition refers to shaping behavior to meet certain expectations (Newman & Newman, 1995). For some parents this may mean making a discipline out of a child, because parents want children to emulate them. Mutual respect for disciplinary actions may develop if the child feels that the parents’ expectations are reasonable. Limits should be set and consistently enforce and the parent’s behavior should serve as a role model for what is acceptable. Parents should be prepared to reward positive behavior and know that even under the best circumstances there will be defiant behavior that will test the rules. Teenagers of any decade seem to be rebels searching for a cause (Rosemond, 1990).

Above all the most important thing is **Necessary Losses**: The loves, illusions, dependencies and impossible expectations that all of us have to give up in order to grow upon relationships.

Resolution of family conflict will create a blue print from which adolescents learn ways to resolve conflicts outside of the home environment. Since research
indicates that today’s adolescents face severe challenges, the family unit is expected to provide a stable system within which they can safely grow and develop.

Researches show that parental involvement has a positive impact on student performance. In addition, parents who get involved in school programs and activities foster positive attitudes toward school personnel and mobilize support for school initiatives (Becher, 1984). So why aren't more parents involved in schools today? Khan, 1996 described that schools and parents have always been recognized as partners not only in the education of children but also in their socialization. O'Callaghan thinks that it is only in the past few decades that the partnership between home and school has deteriorated. He believes that families blame schools for drop outs; educators blame divorced, single-parent, remarried and two-career families for disrespectful attitudes of the students; and community agencies blame both family and school for problems with the youth. The most critical battle zone for combating and conquering our nation's woes remains within each household; parents must join forces with their children to overcome the education crisis.

As without parents' support; effective education is next to impossible so in the present time this research area has come into the forefront.

1.6 Emergence of the problem

Adolescents exhibit high rate of anti-social behaviour like stubbornness, demandingness, arguing, teasing, loudness, threatening, cruelty, fighting, disobedience and sassiness. There must be some hidden causes of these problematic acts. The significant impairment of everyday functioning of youngsters with unsocialized aggressive conduct disorder (Quay, 1986) is not a good sign of their future. Such adolescents exhibit relatively stable pattern of aggressive behaviour over time, their problems do not tend to dissipate, but to continue into adulthood (Olweus, 1979; Kazdin, 1991). Although for boys, a history of serious antisocial conduct before age 15 increases the chances of Psychopathology (criminals behaviour, alcohol and drug abuse) in adulthood, for girls probability of depression and phobias increases (Robins 1986). These disorders of adolescents not only affect the lives of those who suffer but also lives of others (Quay, 1986).
There is a common saying – “The wheel, that squeaks gets the grease”. Significant efforts must be made to find the solution of these problematic behaviours. Researches have proved that self-evaluative emotions become more important in the late childhood and early adolescence years (Abe & Izard, 1999). As social interactions and relationships shape the emergence of self-esteem. Accurate and realistic assessments of their performance and abilities are now essential because they are quickly forming groups and developing shared norms and values (Craig & Baucum, 2002).

We know as the child grows from infancy, the emotional repertoire expands in scope and quality so that by the time a person reaches adulthood, a complete symphony of emotional sensations and expressions is fully in place. But the transitional period between childhood and adulthood becomes full of emotional outbursts. So this tender period of adolescence must be handled carefully. There is a famous saying “Man is born free but is in chains everywhere”. It is the association of our feelings with people, things, society, nation and the world which gives us a sense of security, warmth and oneness. To maintain healthy intra & interpersonal relationships social intelligence is direly needed in adolescent period.

As we know future of man is not solely determined by his genetic endowment, but also by the environmental forces operative around him. Right from birth, he is embedded in an ever-enlarging series of concentric spheres (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) of which the family forms the closest and the most direct source of influence. Ninio, 1990 confirms the views that child rearing practices determine the course of children’s cognitive, emotional and social development. Reports of higher parental support are associated with fewer psychological and physical symptoms in adolescence (Wickrama et al., 1997). Adolescents who rate their parents high on parental support feel cared for, loved and valued: feelings that can be internalized (Ross et al., 1990). Research by Shaw et al., 2004 explored the relationship between receiving parental love (parental emotional support) early in life and an individual’s physical and mental health in adulthood.

Review of related literature reveals that most of the previous studies have been conducted on different problem areas of adolescents, but a few studies have been conducted to find out the cause of their problematic behaviour. So it has been
comparatively neglected area in educational research. As far as parenting literature is concerned, much attention has been given to attachment theory (Wall et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969) and parenting style (Baumrind, 1966; Coopersmith, 1967). Concepts such as parental warmth, support, nurturance, care, affection and closeness are referred to frequently and are used relatively interchangeably in the literature on parent-child relationships. Parental involvement domain relatively is unexplored. Studies have been conducted to determine self-esteem and emotional maturity of adolescents separately, whereas negligible attempt has been made to find the social intelligence among adolescents. Whatever previous studies are there, they lack consistency and clear cut trends. So there is enough scope for further exploration.

Hence keeping all these viewpoints in mind, present study naming “correlational study of self-esteem, emotional maturity, social intelligence and parental involvement of adolescents” had been undertaken by investigator.

1.7 Statement of the Problem

CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF SELF-ESTEEM, EMOTIONAL MATURITY, SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT OF ADOLESCENTS

1.8 Objectives of the Study

1. To find the relationship between self-esteem and emotional maturity of adolescents.

2. To find the relationship between self-esteem and social intelligence of adolescents.

3. To find the relationship between self-esteem and parental involvement of adolescents.

4. To find the relationship between emotional maturity and social intelligence of adolescents.
5. To find the relationship between emotional maturity and parental involvement of adolescents.

6. To find the relationship between social intelligence and parental involvement of adolescents.

7. To compare the self-esteem of adolescents on the basis of their gender.

8. To compare the emotional maturity of adolescents on the basis of their gender.

9. To compare the social intelligence of adolescents on the basis of their gender.

10. To compare the parental involvement of adolescents on the basis of their gender.

11. To compare the self-esteem of rural and urban adolescents.

12. To compare the emotional maturity of rural and urban adolescents.

13. To compare the social intelligence of rural and urban adolescents.

14. To compare the parental involvement of rural and urban adolescents.

15. To compare the self-esteem of adolescents studying in government and private schools.

16. To compare the emotional maturity of adolescents studying in government and private schools.

17. To compare the social intelligence of adolescents studying in government and private schools.

18. To compare the parental involvement of adolescents studying in government and private schools.
1.9 Hypotheses

1. There exists significant positive relationship between self-esteem and emotional maturity of adolescents.

2. There exists significant positive relationship between self-esteem and social intelligence of adolescents.

3. There exists significant positive relationship between self-esteem and parental involvement of adolescents.

4. There exists significant positive relationship between emotional maturity and social intelligence of adolescents.

5. There exists significant positive relationship between emotional maturity and parental involvement of adolescents.

6. There exists significant positive relationship between social intelligence and parental involvement of adolescents.

7. No significant difference exists in self esteem of male and female adolescents.

8. No significant difference exists in emotional maturity of male and female adolescents.

9. No significant difference exists in social intelligence of male and female adolescents.

10. No significant difference exists in parental involvement of male and female adolescents.

11. No significant difference exists in self-esteem of rural and urban adolescents.

12. No significant difference exists in emotional maturity of rural and urban adolescents.

13. No significant difference exists in social intelligence of rural and urban adolescents.
14. No significant difference exists in parental involvement of rural and urban adolescents.

15. Adolescents studying in government schools and private schools do not differ significantly in their self esteem.

16. Adolescents studying in government schools and private schools do not differ significantly in their emotional maturity.

17. Adolescents studying in government schools and private schools do not differ significantly in their social intelligence.

18. Adolescents studying in government schools and private schools do not differ significantly in their level of parental involvement.

1.10 Delimitations

1. As there is a wide scope of research, it is impossible for an investigator to cover whole of it in a single study. Moreover due to limitation of time and resources, study has been delimited in terms of sample, area, variables and tools employed.

2. The Sample of the study was confined to the adolescents of age ranging between 15 to 17 years.

3. Only 412 students of classes 10+1 and 10+2 were considered for the study.

4. Sample for the study was confined to the senior secondary schools of Ferozepur district only.

5. The study was restricted to only four variables (i.e. Self-Esteem, Emotional Maturity, Social Intelligence and Parental Involvement).

6. The study was delimited with respect to the tools. The results were guided according to the data collected by these tools and interpretations were governed by the theoretical considerations underlying the test.