Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

"Where work is pleasure, life is joy, Where work is duty, life is slavery".

- Maxim Gorky

Child labour would mean children prematurely leading adults lives, working for long hours, low wages under damaging conditions which affects and hampers their growth, physically and mentally. (Report of Director General of ILO, 1983).

Job carried out by children are highly exploited and it is right to be concerned about those circumstances in which their vulnerability is manipulated to their lasting disadvantage.

The ILO (International Labour Organisation) estimates (at the time of writing) that in the whole world 52 million children age less than 15 years are working, and majority of these are unpaid family workers. The children may work for their family or third party in field or other family task.

The job that they do, call for greater physical and mental resources because they are monotonous, strenuous, harmful, prolonged and they result in lack of relaxation and well-being of the concerned child. Because of the utter poverty of over fifty percent of the Indian people, child is deprived of its childhood. All the basic instincts of the child are suppressed by this situation ruthlessly. Exploitation of child is not only economic but it is multidimensional. What the child demands from the adult is more time, more space and concern.

In India, due to poor economic conditions of the large segment of the population and high dependency ratio in families necessitate, for the sole reason of survival, that each member starts contributing to the family income from a very early age.

90 percent of the child labour are employed in agriculture and related occupations where as 10% are engaged in almost every sector in cities and town. The male child labours are employed in hotels or shops, where working conditions of the child labour is worst. There are abundant unrecognised child labours around the sugar mills. Sugar mills are largest production of illiterates in India.

The rapid urbanisation of the past few decades have increased child labour in cities where there are more opportunities for children to work in the service and handicraft sector. Children who work on the street do varied jobs as cleaning shoe, guarding parked cars, loading and unloading goods, carrying messages, magazines, foods, sweets, flowers, selling lottery and also collecting junks.

In India, 27.7 percent of the children had begun work between the age of 6 and 9 years and 43.7 percent between the age group of 10 to 12 years and 26.9 percent between the age of 13 to 14 years. The age at which domestic servants are hired usually varies between 9 to 10 years of age.

Thus children provide various kinds of service -

- in small workshops and commercial establishments acting as assistants, messengers, packers, car washers, cleaners, petrol pump attendants, waiters, bell boys.
- in factories, they carry out jobs such as packing, gluing and labelling.

- In textile industry, they do winding, carding, spinning, weaving etc.
- in tailoring and leather industry, they work on winding, carding, sewing, embroidery.
- children also work in making shoe, toys, fireworks, and in cigarette factories.
- children are important source of labour for the traditional carpet manufacturing industry. These children also face serious problems which come from their socioeconomic background such as over-crowding and malnutrition.

For last few decades, it has been seen that as the organised sector was brought under protective and prohibitive regulations, more children were pushed towards the unorganised sector. Children have really not benefited from these regulations and acts. Instead child labour is increasing with alarming magnitude and it should be a matter of concern for the children who are working, the parents, society and the country as a whole

The children who take up any job generally have weak family support (poverty and child labour, breeding in unhealthy symbiosis, reinforces themselves in families and communities). In such circumstances the suppression of child wage labour opportunities is unlikely to increase the welfare of the children concerned unless substitute income sources and alternative possibilities for personal development are developed at the same time. Work under the protective mechanism does not deprive a child of his physical and mental growth, rather it inculcates in him a positive self image by preparing him to assume adult role in future.

Work is described as a direct fulfilment of child's creative potential which is conducive to his natural growth. But, when work is taken up as a means of survival, it enslaves the child and dwarfs the spirit. It stunts his growth and curbs his development. Work in order

to be healthy, ought to be purposeful, imaginatively structured and sustaining. When the business of earning or being harnessed to self or family support conflicts with the business of growth and education, the result is child labour

Our purpose is to investigate the psychological impact on the development of child in the process of the need of labour to meet such insecurity in working conditions. What happens to the child who works for 12 to 16 hours a day, he is psychologically, emotionally and physically stressed and given proper opportunity and circumstances, i.e., social and emotional security, they could atleast enjoy a normal childhood.

As a child passes through various developmental phases during childhood or from adolescence to adulthood, he experiences various changes. It is seen that there is a consistent pattern of integration that takes place among the child's various characteristics. Looking at it holistically, it is the child's overall pattern of physical, mental, and emotional qualities at all stages of maturation, which is regarded as his personality.

PERSONALITY

In attempting to define personality, psychologists have studied biological and adjustive aspects. It is necessary to recognize and appreciate factors in past and present culture that exercise potent influence on a child's biologically acquired constitution and innate potentialities. It is only through such knowledge that one can gain an understanding of the many subtle elements that are inherent in the child's developing dynamics of personality pattern.

From the very early childhood, an individual tries to adjust to his own wants and interests, to the needs and desires of the others which may benefit to himself and others (good adjustment) or developing a personality which is socially harmful (mal-adjustment).

A child cannot always be expected to behave in a consistent manner because everything is changing around him. The environmental conditions are always changing. Though consistency is an assets, what is (also) needed is an ability to respond flexibly to changing conditions, otherwise, the child may become confused, fearful, impaired in judgement or emotionally disturbed.

The child's personality development is through constant interaction between his own potentialities. Limitations and environmental experiences. It has also been noticed that the child derives his concept of "good" from the attitudes displayed by his elders towards his behaviour. He is good if he obeys his parents and elders or refrains from getting into mischief. The child is not concerned about his personality, as such, but may be extremely sensitive to what his elders think of him as compared with their judgement about other children.

It has also been noticed that undue emphasis to the child's attractiveness or derogatory comments concerning any aspect of his physical appearance are likely to influence his self-esteem. The healthy and mentally able child usually is the emotionally well-adjusted child unless he is the victim of too many outside pressures. The most influential associate environmental factors are his neighborhood or community that affects him more or less incidentally. Children often exhibit behaviour outside the home that differ from what they do and say at home, but there is often a conflict between still needed security in the good opinion of adults and dependence on their care and a growing attitude of independence.

As a boy approaches middle adolescence his attitudes and personal interest changes, he may follow the behaviour pattern of an admired male adult- his father, or a friend of the family Girls probably have much of admiration for older adults among her

associates and are more attracted to glamour.

It is imperative for adults to create a favorable environment, which is conducive to the development of young people's personal abilities and interest. And, also, to provide wise guidance when it is needed, so that the mature adolescent can realize his full potential for acquiring a healthy and satisfying concept of self and a wholesome personality.

Psychologists while discussing personality are concerned with individual differences - the characteristics that distinguish one individual from another. Behavior is culmination of the interaction between personality characteristic and the social and physical conditions of the environment. For shaping the personality, the development of the potentialities depends on maturation and on experience encountered in growing up. There are two types of experiences which a person comes across, they are common and unique experiences. Common experiences are shared by all families in a given culture as they share certain common beliefs, customs and values while growing up and learns to behave in a particular way as per the norms of that culture. The cultural impact is not uniform as it is transmitted by parents or others who are different in their values and practices. Therefore, the individual undergoes some unique experiences, where a person reacts in his of her own way to social pressures. They may result from reward and punishment, which are imposed by the parents as well as their physical or biological capacity. Thus, the individual's common and unique experiences interact with inherited potential to shape his personality.

Theories of Personality:

Various theories of personality best describe how this happens as given below.

Trait Theories:

One of the oldest theories is the Trait theory, which assumes that people vary on a number of continuous dimensions or scale, each of which represents a trait. It also refers to any characteristic in which the difference between two people is relatively permanent and consistent. The Type theory on the other hand advocated that people are grouped into discrete categories like introverts or extraverts as given by Carl Jung who tried to explain behaviour on the basis of two basic types-introverts and extraverts. The introverts tend to withdraw into themselves during emotional stress and conflict and extraverts seek the company of others. It is very important to know how personal characteristics tendencies to be sociable, aggressive, anxious are influenced by environmental conditions while predicting behaviour.

Social Learning Theory:

Another line of thinking is what is known as Social Learning Theory, which lays emphasis on the importance of environmental or situational determinants of behaviour through learning, which shape our behaviour. It is vital to understand the relationship between individual and specific situation to predict the behaviour of a person. The main assumption of social learning theory is that people behave in ways likely to produce reinforcement, which may be direct - tangible rewards, social approval or disapproval or alleviation of aversive conditions. Observation of someone receiving reward or punishment for behaviour similar to his own and evaluation of one's own performance with self praise or reproach and results in learning to discriminate those context in which certain behaviour is appropriate and those in which it is not.

Psychoanalytic Theories:

Another theory has been given by Freud, the father in psychoanalytic approach. Freud sought to explore the unconscious portion of the mind, which he referred to as a storehouse of impulses, passions and inaccessible memories that affect our thought and behaviour by the method of free association. Freud as a founder of psychoanalysis said that personality is composed of three system- Id, Ego, and Super ego. Id works on a pleasure principle. That is, its endeavor is to avoid pain and seek immediate gratification. Ego, on the other hand, works on the basis of reality principle, it operates by secondary process of thinking, which is realistic and logical and plans as to how to achieve satisfaction. Super-ego is internalized representation of the values and moral of society as taught to the child by his parents and others. If these unconcious desires are not given vent to they may lead to anxiety and, hence, a person may use his defense mechanism to reduce anxiety.

Freud gave much importance to the psychosexual stages, which a child goes through during first few years and these years were considered very important for the later development of his personality. These stages were oral, anal, phallic, genital, and latency

If a child encounters any problem during the early stages of development, this may have a lasting impression on his personality.

Neo-Freudian Theories:

Neo- Freudians were of different opinion. Alfred Adler, Karen Horney, Hanry Slack, Sullivan saw personality as shaped more by the people, society and culture surrounding the individual, than by instincts. These psychologists dealt with the conscious mind where the individual is aware of his behaviour.

Phenomenological Theories:

Phenomenological approach includes various theories, which give emphasis to subjective experiences that a person undergoes. They are concerned with how the individual perceives and interprets events -the individual's phenomenology. These theories give importance to positive nature of human beings that push a person towards the growth of the self. The most important concept in this area is Rogers' theory of personality or the self. This self in Roger's view consists of all ideas, perceptions and values that characterize "I" or "Me". This perceived self influence both the person's perceptions of the world and his/ her behaviour. Rogers also believes that the basic force motivating the human organism is self- actualization.

Some of the more commonly used approaches to personality evaluation are, observation of behaviour, use of questionnaire, rating scales and standardized paper and pencil tests, use of projective techniques and the case history methods. Through such approach we are able to measure and evaluate such qualities as co-operation, perseverance, honesty, sincerity, and social adaptability, attitudes towards customs or beliefs, initiation, responsibility, introversion or extraversion, ascendancy or submissiveness, and emotional stability or neurotic tendencies. By applying these measuring instruments at different age levels, one is also able to trace certain developmental changes that may occur

The complete description of an individual's personality would include many factors, like intellectual abilities, motives acquired in the process of growing up, emotional reactivity, attitudes, beliefs and moral values. Various methods are employed to ascertain progress in the child's personality development. The significance of these approaches depends on their value in giving information concerning the innate and environmental

factors that underline personality formation. The dimensional aspects of personality development include interests, attitudes, physical constitutions, general intelligence, specific aptitudes, achievements or performance and emotional status. And if there is some blocking in the satisfaction of a need / motive may give rise to frustration.

FRUSTRATION

A world without frustration, according to Franz Alexander (1944), is a wishful fantasy It would be impossible to conceive of an environment so perfectly adjusted to human motivation that in it no frustration occurs. The emotional experience that we call frustration is an essential part of life. It appears in the consciousness as a state of unfulfillment, discomfort and lack of satisfaction. Its pervasive influence on human behaviour has been revealed in several sociological, anthropological and psychological investigations. The critical role that frustration plays in the socialisation process and the development of psychopathology cannot be over emphasised. Both Rosenzweig(1944) and Maslow(1941) have emphasised the unity of the total organism or the integrated psycho - biological mechanisms that come into play when the individual is confronted with frustration.

Thus, reaction to frustration is affected by the individual's past experience, present set and expectancies, his habitual modes of adjustment and the need which is being frustrated. That is, a person's reaction to frustration is highly individualised behaviour pattern projecting an inherent part of his unique personality and his adequate or inadequate modes of adjustment to stress.

The word "Frustration" has been employed in three different ways in psychological literature referring either to

a) external circumstances,

- b) a fairly general emotional response to circumstances, and
- c) a specific reaction to a particular external overt behaviour.

Definition of Frustration:

The term frustration has been defined in different ways by different psychologists.

Generally speaking, the definitions of frustration can be classified into two categories,

viz., frustration as a state of an organism and frustration as a hypothetical construct.

The following are some of the typical definitions of Frustration.

According to Freud (1920), "Frustration occurred whenever pleasure seeking or pain avoiding behavior was blocked."

The Yale group of psychologists defined Frustration as "that condition which exists when a goal response suffers interference."

Maier (1940) defines frustration in more dynamic terms as "that stage where learning functions cease operating and other modes of adjustment begin operating"

The topological psychologists (Barker, Dembo & Lewin, 1941) define frustration as "a state of emotional tension resulting from the opposition of forces acting upon the person."

According to Sears (1941), frustration is always the product of some interference of a goal response with the instrumental acts leading to it. Similarly, in the words of Dollar et. al., (1944) "frustration is a condition which exist when a goal response suffers interference."

Rosenzweig's (1944), global definition of frustration referred to interference in need

satisfaction.

Brown and Farber (1951) have offered a two factor explanation of how frustration arise and its effects, based on the principle of Hull (1943). The two factors are drive and habit. Frustration, which they treat as a hypothetical variable, results from the interference with an ongoing motivated behaviour sequence by inhibitory or excitatory tendencies. Frustration is usually a temporary process, which is resolved ultimately as a function of the relative strength of the competing tendencies and in a direction which is the resultant of the separate inhibitory or excitatory tendencies. Frustration then, according to this formulation, is both energising and directional. It produces an increment to general drive, which is truly a motivated effect. This drive increases and energises both on going and competing tendencies. Thus, Brown and Farber explain frustration in terms of the drive and habit concept of general behaviour theory.

Amsel and Word (1954) defined frustration as "a state which results from the non - reinforcement of an instrumental response which previously was consistently reinforced."

To Dativz(1963), frustration is the blocking of drive evoked behaviour.

Coffer and Appley (1964) defined frustration, a course of action that has not been carried through to its goals or conclusion, or that an end state of some sort has not been reached, or that an expected outcome or consequence has failed to materialise. It may describe a single set of events on a particular occasion or it may refer to repeated instances so as to become characteristic of an individual's relationship to his environment

Frustration, then has been considered to occur when a behaviour pattern is blocked

(1) Whether by a physical obstacle or by the action of some other persons, or

- (2) by a conflicting pattern within the person, or
- (3) by the absence of environmental objects which were anticipated for the fulfilment of that pattern of behaviour.

Frustration condition is a condition of being thwarted in the satisfaction of a motive. The thwarting may be largely the result of external (environmental) conditions or it may be internal, arising primarily out of the mental and emotional state of the individual. External frustrations are inevitable, for there are always, certain factors in a person's situation which keep him away from achieving fully the desires which he has

It is observed that after blocking, the behaviour of the organism deviates from or is not the same as the behaviour which occurred when no blocking took place.

This deviant behaviour, deviant compared with that in a non-blocking situation, is what is called frustrated behaviour. Thus, frustration is another logical construct when goal-directed behaviour is blocked and when such blocking results in deviant response, one enters in a state which is called frustration (Underwood 1949).

Shaffer(1936), regarded frustration as involving a situation in which accustomed reactions fail to bring satisfaction, thus situations to which one can readily adjust are not thought of as frustrating.

Maier's definition of a frustrating situation is important because it is very clear cut, relatively restrictive and would lead him to reject as frustrating, many situations which are commonly regarded as such. To him, when escape or the choosing of substitute goals is prevented, the situation becomes more stressful and frustration may be a more likely condition.

Maslow (1943) indicated that the presence of barriers which produced a deprivation condition, which threatens the growth of the individual, are those which are typically conceived to be frustrating, while those barriers which result in a deprivation condition are regarded as unimportant to the organism do not produce frustration.

Some other aspects of Frustration:

(a) Subjective & objective Frustration:

Frustration applies to the blocking or hindrance of behaviour as well as motivation or mental activity. The subjective feeling of frustration is more important to adjustment and is manifested unmistakably in the external signs of frustration. More blocking of motivation, behaviour or mental activity is certainly a kind of frustration, but if the person does not react subjectively (emotionally) to the blocking, it has little psychological meaning, especially as far as adjustment is concerned.

(b) External-impersonal and internal-personal:

Impersonal frustrations are those originating in some aspects of the environment or cultural setting. They include deprivations, such as poverty, lack of cultural or recreational advantages, absence of playmates and inadequate funds for education, also included are deprivations such as the sudden loss of wealth or social position, the breakdown of one's means of transportation or the death of parents on whom one is dependent. Further more there could be such obstructions, as parental restrictions, social conventions and moral laws that stand in the way of personal gratification.

Internal or personal frustrations generally affect adjustment more than those

externally determined. Since the significance of frustration increases in proportion to the degree of subjective reaction to frustrating conditions. It may be expected that personal deprivations, or barriers will have a more direct and damaging effect on adjustment than those that are impersonal. Poverty, for example, can be very frustrating when one wants education, position or power. However, it will seldom exert as much influence, on adjustment as bodily deformity, lack of intelligence or sudden loss of sight.

(c) Frustration as inevitable:

It is universally accepted that frustrations have always been inevitable in human life. In this way it can be said that frustration is a never ending process of dealing with ever arising newer human-adjustments. In other words, because of organic growth and changing external conditions, frustration has become an integral part of life and therefore inevitable for all living being.

(d) Severe frustrations concerning the gratification of primary biological needs have become relatively rare in modern western civilisation but the complicated frustrations of 'acquired desires and emotional needs have become even more common than they were in the earlier items.'

In the modern age the needs have multiplied and there is competition in every field. Every body is trying to supersede the other in education, position, prestige, money and so on. The fulfillment of greater number of needs would require greater efforts and ability which cause more barriers, consequently more frustrations.

(e) Frustration as Constructive:

Besides its inevitability, frustration is a phenomenon of a great consequence to

human happiness. Frustration may spur an individual to greater and more well organized efforts, determined to achieve ultimately strength of the motive and do redouble the efforts to go ahead with the blocked line of activity Many of the outstanding achievements in humans, social and individual history have sprung out of deeply frustrating situations.

Whether frustration plays a 'constructive' or 'destructive' role in life depends upon the way an individual reacts to frustrating situations. The type of reaction to frustration has an 'important bearing on the general comfort and effectiveness (Sanford,1961) with which one lives. Constructive and destructive refer to adaptive and maladaptive reactions to frustration.

Theories of Frustration:

The shift of emphasis from one's nature to environment as the principle determinant of behaviour led to the formulation of theories which attributed the determination and reactions of both frustration and aggression events. A review of some of the classic and most influential theories has been attempted below.

1) Freud's View:

Influenced by his physiological background and the Darwinian spirit of his times, it was natural for Sigmund Freud, founder of modern psychoanalysis, to arrive at a theory of human behaviour that was firmly rooted in man's animal nature. It is in his earlier writings that Freud regarded the tendency to seek pleasure and avoid pain as a basic mechanism of all mental functioning. Frustration occurred whenever pleasure seeking or pain averting behaviour was blocked (Freud's later assumption about the nature of aggression was that aggression is primarily a self-destructive drive - a "death instinct" -

that is diverted from the self to others when released by internal frustration). The goal could be with-held (deprivation) or removed (deprecation). In both cases, the origin of the difficulty lay in external reality. Frustration could also occur within the personality itself by the opposing forces abounded within the three system (Id, Ego and Super-ego). When these forces opposed each other, conflict occurrs. The Ego would then deal with these frustrations attempting some realistic solutions or by using defence mechanisms which rendered frustrations and conflicts less painful and served to protect the Ego from further disrupting circumstances.

However, Freud's earlier conceptualisation of aggression as rooted in frustration was perhaps the most influential antecedent of the frustration - aggression hypothesis of the Yale group. Several neo - Freudians and psychoanalysts have rejected the instinctual explanation of aggression on teleological, scientific and philosophical grounds (Hall and Lindsey, 1985) but accept the reactive character of human aggression as earlier conceptualised by Freud and later by Feshback (1970).

2) Frustration - aggression hypothesis of Dollard:

'Frustration and Aggression' by Dollard et. al., (1939) marked the first systematic treatment of aggressive phenomena by experimental psychologists. They proposed a reactive theory of aggression and assumed that aggression was consequence of the organism's exposure to frustrating experiences. The initial statement that aggression is always a consequence of frustration and, occurrence of aggression behaviour always presupposes the existence of frustration i. e.,

(a) all aggressive behaviour is due to frustration or conversely the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression and

(b) frustration always leads to aggression. That would mean, that whenever an organism is frustrated, it will always show an increased tendency to respond aggressively and whenever an organism is responding aggressively his behaviour is always a consequence of frustration.

They suggested that the intensity of aggressive emotion generated by a given frustration will be a function of three variables. They are -

- (1) The strength of motive being blocked (posture valence),
- (2) The degree of interference with the desired response, and
- (3) The frequency with which this interference occurs

Although the frustration - aggression hypothesis assumes a universal causal relationship between frustration and aggression, the two concepts have been defined independently and dependently.

Dollard et. al., (1944), defined frustration in two separate ways. The dependent definition of frustration is "an interference with the occurrence of an instigated goal response at its proper time in the behaviour sequence". And independent definition of frustration view it as a "condition which exists when a goal response suffers interference." All the more, the term aggression is also defined in two ways. The dependent definition states that aggression is "that response which follows frustration, reduces only the secondary frustration-produced instigation and leaves the strength of the original instigation unaffected." The independent definition is given as, "Aggression is an act whose goal response is injury to an organism."

3) Frustration Regression Theory:

The second most important study to find the effects of frustration on the behaviour of young children in a controlled play situation has been done by Barker, Dembo and Lewin (1911), who have shown, 'regression' as an outcome of frustration. To them regression is a 'primitivization of behaviour', a 'going back' to a less nature state which the individual has already outgrown. This is based upon Lewin's theory of stages of development in young children. It is stressed that the regressive behaviour may not be necessarily identical with any particular kind of behaviour manifested by the individual at an earlier stage of development.

4) Rosenzweig's Theory:

Rosenzweig's frustration theory appeared in 1938. It consisted of three major points. First, there was a very global definition of frustration conceived as the "occurrence of an obstacle that prevented the satisfaction of a need." The term 'need' was used as more or less equivalent with the broad concept of motivation, second, and perhaps the best known feature of this theory was the classification of the types of reactions to frustration. His concepts, "extra punitive", "intropunitive" and "impunitive" come under direction of aggression and obstacle 'dominance', 'ego defence' and 'need persistence' come under the type of aggression. The third point was the 'frustration tolerance' which means, 'the capacity of the individual to withstand frustration without resorting to inadequate modes of responses. He asserted that frustration tolerance tends to increase with age and also there is some sort of 'optimum' amount of frustration that an individual should experience at a particular developmental level in order to attain maximum frustration tolerances.

5) Maier's Fixation Theory:

Maier has proposed a theory of fixation. It is Maier's basic thesis that frustration results in a stereotyping of an organism's response. Stereotype or fixation, as it has been more frequently termed, is used by the author to designate an extremely persistent type of responses. Because such persistency seems to be much stronger under these frustrating situations than found in other learning situations. Maier believed that such behaviour can not be explained by using learning principles. Therefore, a dichotomy between the operation of frustration and motivation is proposed.

To reiterate the point made earlier, Maier's basic position is that in frustration-instigated behavior, there is no goal orientation, and that the behavior is a terminal response rather than a means to an end.

Aggression as a reaction to frustration:

Miller and Dollard (1941) suggested that aggression, is a learnable drive, that is, they postulated such reactions as threshing, striking, clawing and internal circular responses occurring innately in situation which produce "anger". The other interpretation of aggression which eventually require outward expression. Therefore, aggressive feelings are anchored to a powerful motivational system within an individual. The goal response of aggression is injuring another, and the child discovers that he can obtain compliance with his inner self by hurting someone else. Aggression so far would be only an instrumental response motivated by various needs and rewarded by getting one way or the other. Again, the drive arise from a conflict between expectations that the behaviour will be successful or that it will not be successful. Presumably, in experience, aggressive behaviour is both reward and punishment, and, hence, give rise to conflict and the induced

drive. It will occur, however, only when instigated by people atleast until symbolic factors permit its internal instigation.

Regression as a reaction to Frustration:

According to Barker Dembo and Lewin (1941), frustration leads to regression which they defined as "primitivization" (1911) of behaviour, going back to a less nature state which the individual has already out grown. "Regression may occur with respect to the original goal of the person or other forms of activity" (Farber et. al., 1941). In one of either experiments on young children, a careful rating of the children in play activities, showed that during the frustration period marked decline in constructive forms of play were shown by those children who were most persistent in their orientation towards the barrier, including the ones most aggressively determined to get the more desirable toys.

Problems Associated with frustration:

It is difficult for even a child to experience controlling success as he engages in activities in which he is interested. He meets and grapples with opposing forces of one kind or another, unending rules, codes of behaviour, interests of others, unfulfilled desires, or levels of aspiration beyond immediate achievement and similar thwarting situation. Any force that interferes with desires activity becomes a psychological barrier or a frustration when or if the individual recognises it as a threat to his self-realisation. Thus, unsatisfied need or thwarted desire is known as frustration. It is experienced when there is an awareness of the fact that an individual believes he is unable to satisfy a felt want.

Sources of Frustration:

Frustration situation appear early in the life of the child. A baby wants food or sleep,

he wants to engage in kicking and cooing, he wants to be comfortable when anyone of these wants is not satisfied. When he is frustrated, he displays one or another form of disturbed behaviour.

Stresses and strains in Frustration:

Innumerable forces appear to block an impulse. Also, what sometimes appears to the onlooker as no more than a mild source of annoyance may deeply stir the individual concerned. Emotional stresses often are produced when there is great interest in a situation. Many minor obstacles cause annoyances. Stabbing one's toe, breaking one's glasses, missing the train, misplacing a key, and the like provoke stresses but may not produce frustrations, since most individuals adjust quickly to such stress provoking stimuli.

An individual is confronted by many thwarting situations and conditions which present difficult problems. In his attempt to satisfy his physical need, an individual tends to follow the accepted customs of his culture. Increasingly, the fulfillment of his desires and urges, emanating from interpersonal relationships becomes important to him. In his attempts to develop good adjustment, he strives for attention, seeks the approval of his peers and struggles for success in school and in his social and vocational areas.

Sometimes environmental conditions or events act as obstacles to the realisation of strong interest or desires. Disease, death of a relative, storm, fire, or any other serious event may become the basis of frustration. The child may be caught in a school violation during a fire drill or found annoying another child. He may be tempted to break the moral, ethical, or legal code. Each of these experiences can be the basis of frustration.

The degree of his frustration in any situation depends upon the extent to which emotional tension are established. The basic source of frustration usually lies within the individual him-self the attitudes he develops in his daily living conditions, the degree of good adjustment he is likely to make, etc.

Frustration Tolerance:

The extent to which a child is able to endure frustrating experiences without becoming emotionally disorganised can be considered to be representative of his frustration tolerance. This varies with age, health, previous reverence, the nature, size and importance of the obstacle, and the motive basic to his frustration. The child experienced many of these frustrating situations and disappointments as he grows into adulthood.

The level of aspiration helps determine whether the situation is likely to cause undue overt emotional reactions or not. What causes better disappointment to one person may not become an emotion stimulator for another. Everyone meets failure, but some learn to accept these frustrations without great disorganisation, others are easily aroused by mildly disturbing factors in the situation. The individual who is able to use his failure to rally his strength and personal resources to overcome the forces that caused the failure has high frustration tolerance. However, when he becomes so discouraged by failure that he is unable to use his energy and talent to try again, he gives evidence of low frustration tolerance.

Each individual has his own level of frustration tolerance which revolves with goal and levels of aspiration. Reactions to frustrations are defined by many psychologists in terms of 'defining the integrity of the ego.'

Frustrating situations are threatening to the individual. Defence mechanisms are the methods used by the subjects to protect himself against threat, Ketch and Crutchfield (1962) have suggested two types of reactions to frustration -

- (a) adaptive, and
- (b) maladaptive.

Related to this is the experimental evidence given by Write (1937) and Child (1937). They found that under some conditions the presence of a barrier to a goal enhances the attractiveness of the goal and hence intensifies the individual's efforts. Adaptive reactions to frustration also lead to the re-organisation of perception of problem. Such reactions to frustration lead to insight and are of great significance for the understanding of social behaviour. Another adaptive reaction to frustration is the discovery and acceptance of alternative goals which serve as satisfactory substitute for the original goal.

The ideal way to reduce the tension of frustration is what may be called the problem solving approach. The individual faced with a frustrating situation, analyses the barrier to the satisfaction of his needs, and then takes steps to overcome these obstacles. Such a straight attack on the source of difficulty is an ideal approach to frustration. And if an individual is unable to deal with these frustration and develops maladaptive reactions to frustrations, it may lead to Aggressive behaviour.

AGGRESSION

Senseless violence, terrorism on the street, murder, rape, child abuse - the list of human cruelty goes on and on. In dynamic times, such as we are living in, disturbing social changes growing out of the rapid expansion in social life seems to shake the very foundation of social structure. They effect each person and each group. Since a large

part of the population is unable to adapt itself as completely as rapidly as the time demands, maladjustments often results giving rise to a number of social problems.

Aggression is a behaviour which may have a positive or a negative outcome. By most of the social psychologists, aggression is presented as a negative form of behaviour which should be reduced because it is a form of behaviour which is directed towards harming or injuring another living being.

According to Gillespie (1971), "aggression is not a fundamentally irreducible element in the human consultation, rather it is a way of doing things, rather than an achievement in its own right." Even the manifestations may differ from individual to individual, carrying different meanings to its occurrence in different contexts. Aggression is a social problem, whether aggressive acts are performed by an angry individual, an unruly mob or a political organisation.

Definitions:

Dollar et. al., (1939) describes aggression as a "a sequence of behaviour the goal of which is the injury of the person towards whom it is directed. The fact that the intensity of a response either influences its labelling is aggression, is often overlooked. Some times the mild response, as ragging or gentle sarcasm is regarded as aggression.

Fenichel (1945) defines aggression as "the surface manifestation of angry effect."

According to Maccoby (1957) "Aggression is a behaviour intended to harm or injure someone."

Buss (1961) believes that "Aggression is a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another object." He maintained that destruction of an inanimate object, if the object

belongs to nobody (or the possession is in doubt), and the destructive act is not reinforced by another by lose or discomfort the act is not aggression.

Some other social psychologists define aggression as "a behaviour that is designed to deliver negative outcomes (for example such as pain, sorrow or death) to another. (Bandura 1973; Baron 1977)."

But according to Encyclopaedia Britannica (vol.1) aggression refers, in a psychological sense, to "any manifestation of a self assertiveness." So the distruction of any inanimate object will also be treated as aggression.

The unabridged edition of the Random House Dictionary of the English language describes aggression as 'outwardly or inwardly directed, overt or suppressed, hostility.

A modern psychologist Kovel (1970) suggests that aggression is best conceived as "a row striving, undifferentiated, able to undergo any number of transmutations and able to direct itself to any number of objects."

Aggression is, in the most basic sense, an impulsion to act upon an object and to alter the object or its activity. Thus, the range of expression extends from a healthy sense mastery to the most unbridled and seemingly gratitutionary aim of destruction. Seen in this light, aggression loses its connotation of badness and becomes instead a basis to act upon the world. What is "bad", i.e., destruction, is reserved to a particular outcome of aggression.

Caroll E. Izard (1977) differentiates between hostility and aggression as former being an attitude and latter a behaviour. According to him, hostility is a complex motivational condition consisting of affective experience (emotions, feelings) and affective-cognitive - orientations. Aggression is the suggested behaviour of hostility and consists

of action intended to harm.

Aggression as a behaviour suggests that aggression may be viewed as a form of behaviour not as an emotion, a motive or an attitude. The term aggression applied to negative emotion as anger, to motives such as desire to harm or injure others. It is essential that individuals be angry towards others in order to attack them.

Aggression as Social Characteristic:

Violence has been there in the history of mankind. In the beginning it was prevalent in our hunters and ancestors, their results were quite destructive and produced needless suffering and yet, they were restricted to one locale and never threatened the existence of the entire race. Usually the other member of such species submitted to the dominant member of the group and class. The danger to the species is reduced because fighting takes place through symbol displaying only. But, this is not the case with human being, because he is not produced with sharp nails, horns or teeth which can protect him, by which he can attack others and kill them, the inhibitions of the tendency to aggress against its own species is less in him. Thus, the danger of the extinction of this race is increasing day by day.

Aggression as a Group behaviour:

The theory explains that intra-group aggression is diverted to inter- group aggression due to prejudices which make the members of the group to see the members of the other group as less than themselves, for example this is often done by the majority groups to the minority groups. The minority group cannot become a threat to majority group, so the possibility of retaliation is less.

Aggression as an individual characteristic:

It may result from the inner world a person feels within himself. Thus, he may feel a sense of deprivation and consequently insecurity which may result into doing a task or finding fault with another person or manifestations of self leading to attention seeking behaviour, e.g., putting on, loud colour dress, talking loudly, undue assertion in one's direction, etc. Sometimes, aggression may lead to achievement, i.e., pursuing studies oppressively, competing in game with a 'Killer instinct' or mastering a task aggressively.

In this complex society of the present, the exposure are many and a good number of them cause frustration in individual which in turn produces aggression as one of the responses to it.

Aggression being such a phenomenon it would be interesting to explore.

- 1) The causes of aggression, and
- 2) The manifestations of aggression in various way.

Causative factors of aggression:

While discussing aggression it would be very essential to understand the causes or the factors which may lead a person to behave in an aggressive manner. Some of the major causes are

- Aggressive behaviour may be due to social disapproval by others, i.e., if a person's behaviour is not according to the established norms of the family and society in with he lives.
- It may be due to the struggle in competition between friends and due to sibling rivalry.

- Guilt material within a person which can also harness aggressive feeling in a person
 A person may be guilty about doing something wrong and at time he would act in a defensive or offensive manner to remove that guilt feeling.
- In order to get rid of ugly and harmful situation person may resort to aggressive behaviour to save his skin and to justify his behaviour.
- Sometimes aggression can be due to over crowding. A person could feel irritated in a over crowded bus or room, and may show it in his behaviour.
- Aggression may also be due to displacement, i.e., if a person is frustrated in any situation and cannot give vent to his dissatisfied feeling. Eventually even if he is able to suppress those feeling due to social conformity they would be manifested in one way or the other.
- It may also occur due to any irritating factor or situation around a person—If a
 person does not like someone, there is a greater possibility that he would show his
 dislike to the person by being rude or impolite.

The issue of aggressive behaviour has become paradoxical because the active striving for a goal is acceptable as it may result in some benefits while destructive hostility is undesirable for it harms and hinders the growth of the society as well as an individual.

Aggression viewed by different disciplines:

To understand the term 'aggression' fully it has to be seen in the light of different disciplines like psychology, sociology, anthropology, philosophy, political science, etc.

Aggression viewed by Psychology:

Psychologists viewed aggression from different angles. Different schools of thought

described it in different ways. The questions arising are why does aggression exist?

And why aggression is hard to control? Is it inevitable in human society? Can aggression occur in vacuum?

There are two competing schools of psychologists. The psycho- analytical school accepts aggression as an insecured response while behaviourists considered it as a learnt behaviour.

Psycho-analytic school of Aggression:

This school of thought believes that aggressive energy is constantly generated by bodily processes. Aggressive urges like sexual urges must be released i.e., be expressed directly or indirectly either through socially accepted actions(e.g. debates, sports, etc.) our less socially desirable ways (e.g., insults, fighting, etc.).

Instinct theories of Aggression:

Instinct theories believe aggression as "it's all in the genes". There are two major proponents of instinct theories given by

- (1) Sigmud Freud, and
- (2) Konrad Lorenz

Freud's view, which grew out of his work on psychoanalytic theory, known as thanatos—the death instinct, which acts in opposition to eros, the life instinct. It suggests that aggressive energy if channelized in a positive way would curb violent behaviour (Freud, 1920). According to Freud, the energy of thanatos usually becomes directed towards others rather than towards the self, to avoid self-destruction. Freud sees aggression towards others as an inevitable and universal outcome of the channelling of the death

instinct. He believed that this instinctual aggressive energy must be released in some way and the process to release this energy is called catharses.

Lorenz(1966) saw aggression as adaptive rather than self-destructive behaviour. According to Lorenz, human beings originally reacted to aggression with flight or fight, as they lack effective means to defend themselves. Hence innate inhibitions against aggression towards other human beings are relatively weak. Lorenz's view is congruent with that of Freud as it suggest, that there is a reservoir of pent-up aggressive energy that, unless periodically drained will manifest itself in aggressive behaviour.

The hypothesis that can be derived from this proposition is that participation in aggressive activities ought to reduce subsequent aggression.

According to Storr (1968), aggression is a human's basic human instinct which is an inherent constant of which we cannot rid ourselves and which is necessary for survival.

Any attempt to eliminate aggression is undesirable.

Thus, according to psycho-analytic school of thought, aggression has an active striving as well as destructive hostility as its positive and negative sides and it is desirable to release the positive side of aggression and curtail its negative striving.

Behaviourists view on Aggression:

The behaviourists believed that aggression is neither instinctual nor innate but learned through interaction with salient features in one's inter-personal environmental context. The patterns of social interaction influence the intensity of aggressive impulse and its expression. Social reality gives meaning and definitions to what is and what is not aggression (Israel and Taffel, 1972).

Under the behavioural school of thought, many theories were influenced by Bandura (1973), Murphy (1947), and others.

The behaviourists concern only in the ways a man behaves and not in what he feels. The important ways in which individual may acquire wide variety of aggressive response is through experience in which they are directly rewarded for such behaviour. The subject is the behaviour and not the behaving man. Aggression may be learnt through a number of agents as,

- (1) Authority- punishing authority may serve as a model for children.
- (2) Mass Media may suggest ways and means of aggression and also present models for aggression.
- (3) Cultural Norms Masculinity is linked with aggression and thus it makes men become more aggressive as they are trained by the society to be so. In many societies, aggression is treated as virtue. The important way in which individual may acquire a wide variety of aggressive responses is through experience in which they are directly rewarded for such behaviour.

Social learning theorists:

Social learning theories suggest that aggressive behaviour is basically learned behaviour and that, in order to understand this, we should look at the rewards and punishment involved in the acquisition and maintenance of such behaviour (Bandura, 1973; Zillman, 1978).

According to social learning theory, it assures that aggressive behaviour is acquired by a person during the process of his / her growing up or by watching and imitating the

behaviour of other persons.

According to Bandura (1973), a comprehensive analysis of aggressive behaviour requires careful attention to three issues. Firstly, the manner in which such actions are taken. Secondly, the factors that mitigate their occurences and, lastly (thirdly), the condition that maintains their performance. According to this theory, the most basic mechanism for learning aggressive behaviour is through direct reinforcement and punishment. The rewards and punishments need not be tangible; social approval and disapproval can also be effective as reinforcers.

Chief Murphy's (1947), observation that parents are responsible for controlling the aggressive behaviour of their children is congruent with social learning approach.

Frustration-Aggression theory:

Many psychologists believe that aggression is a natural reaction to frustration (blocking) of important motives. The most popular hypothesis relating to human aggression is frustration-aggression hypothesis put forward by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears (1939). The hypothesis predicts two things: First that frustration always leads to aggression of some sort, and second, that aggression is always the result of some frustration. By frustration, the hypothesis refers to the thwarting of some on going behaviour directed towards a desired goal. Thus, hypothesis suggests that rather than frustration leads to a propensity to be aggressive and the arousal of an aggressive drive. This, aggressive drive leads to actual aggression.

Frustration often does lead to aggression and in many instances some form of frustration precedes aggressive behaviour. What has proven to be true, however, is that the links between frustration and aggression are much weaker.

This frustration-aggression theory (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, and Sears 1939; Berkowitz,1989) suggests that people when frustrated react with anger and aggression. But it is not only frustration that elicits violence – any aversive events can increase the likelihood of violence, including physical pain and high temperature.

The frustration-aggression hypothesis leads to conclusions such as:

- Its original formation contending that frustration always results in aggression and that instances of aggression are always preceded by frustration was too broad.
- It appears that frustration and aggression are related and that the presence of cues of aggressive behaviour increases the probability and strength of overt aggression.
- Frustration may not always result in aggression, and, conversely, aggression may not always precede frustration. Aggressive behaviour has a variety of causes, of which frustration is the only one.

Berkowitz's Cue Theory:

According to Berkowitz's (1984) view, frustration is not a sufficient condition for the occurrence of aggression. However, to view frustration-aggression relationship is that frustration whether or not, an individual responds aggressively depends on the presence of aggressive cues which trigger the actual occurrence of aggression.

Such behaviour will follow only if suitable aggressive cues - stimuli associated with the present or previous anger instigators or with aggression generally present. He also suggested that stimuli that are regularly associated with anger instigators or with aggression may gradually require the capacity to client aggressive actions from individuals, who have previously been provoked or frustrated. According to Berkowitz, it is conceptually

difficult to categorise pain as the interception of either of goal response or consummate response. Pain generates aggression not because it is frustration, but that instead pain and frustration, produce aggression because they belong to the class of "aggressive stimuli."

According to Frustration-Aggression theory, violent behaviours is the result of the interference which is caused to ongoing actively, the interference causes frustration which in terms leads to violence.

The amount of accumulated aggressive energy and the presence and strength of special aggression releasing stimuli in the immoderate environment. Specific amount of aggression will be determined by the amount of energy that has been stored up. The greater the amount of aggressive energy present, the weaker the stimulus that will release overt aggression.

Aggression acquired through modelling:

Albert Bandura (1973), the main proponent of social learning approaches to aggression, suggests that a primary means of learning aggressive behaviour is through modelling. Social modelling play an important role in acquisition of aggression responses. It is however, not necessary for the social model demonstrating such action to be physically present on the scene, the symbolic representation in films, television, shows, etc., is quite sufficient for the occurrence of considerable amount of learning among observers.

Social learning theory suggests that an individual who observes a model's actions and the subsequent consequences of those actions can learn the modelled behaviour. If the consequences to the model are positive, the observer may imitate the behaviour in a similar situation (Bandura, 1973.)

Since aggressive response have been acquired a number of different factors which operate to ensure that they will be maintained and strengthened.

Types of Aggression:

Aggression can be described among several different dimensions. A main part of difference lies between the hostile and instrumental aggression.

Hostile Aggression

It is that type of aggression in which the primary or major goals sought by aggression is that of causing the villain to suffer. Individual engaging in hostile aggression, then are seeking harm or injury to the person they attack.

Instrumental aggression

This type of aggression in which aggressor assaults other persons not out of a strong desire to see their target person suffer but primarily as a means of attaining other goals. Individual seeking harm to other person is not an end in itself rather they employ aggressive actions as a technique for obtaining various incentives.

Aggression involves either harm or injury to the victim. This implies that physical damage to the recipient is not essential. As long as this person has experienced some type of aversive consequences, aggression may be said to have occurred. Thus, in addition to direct physical assaults, such actions as causing others to "Close face" or experience public embarrassment, depriving them of needed objects and even withholding love or affection can, under appropriate circumstances, all be aggressive in nature.

A framework for conceptualising such behaviour was proposed by Buss 1961. Buss suggests that aggressive acts can be dichotomised along three dimensions.

- 1) Physical Verbal
- 2) Active Passive
- 3) Direct Indirect

For example actions such as shooting, stabbing or punching would be classified as physical, active and direct.

In contrast, actions such as trading malicious rumours about other people or disparaging them to others would be described as verbal active indirect.

Types of Aggression:

- 1) Physical active direct Stabbing, punching or shooting another person.
- 2) Physical active indirect Hiring an assassin to kill an enemy.
- 3) Physical passive direct Physically preventing another person from obtaining a desired goal or performing a desired act.
- 4) Physical -passive indirect Refusing to perform necessary task.
- 5) Verbal active direct. Insulting or derogating another individual.
- 6) Verbal active indirect Spreading malicious rumours or gossip about another individual.
- 7) Verbal passive direct Refusing to speak to another person to answer questions.

8) Verbal passive indirect - Failing to make specific verbal comments e.g.,
failing to speak up in another person's defence
when he /she is unfairly criticised.

PAIN AND AGGRESSION:

There is a considerable evidence of an innate band between some unpleasant events and aggression. It is conceptually difficult to categorise pain as the interruption of either of goal response or a consummatory response.

Studies by Berkowitz puts forward that it is not just frustration but both pain and frustration which produce aggression because they both belong to the same category. Besides individual experience which is affecting aggressive tendencies, individual also acquires in process of the socialisation a set of cultural norms, regarding the appropriateness of aggressiveness, which are partly internal partly situational. Individuals differ strongly to the range of situations and stimuli to which they respond with aggression. A person not only acquires specific aggressive response habits but also a frame of mind or structure of personality that of famous aggressive behaviour.

- The immediate social environment in which a person finds himself at a moment of potential aggression may well influence his vision towards occurrence of the aggressive response.(Kaufmans, Gregory, and Stephan, 1990; Spencer, 1998; Scott,1992)
- Existing evidence suggests that "Frustration" is a relatively weak antecedent of aggression and will facilitate the occurrence only when its intensity is high.(Berkowitz,1986)
- Factor that seems to exert somewhat stronger and more consistent effect upon aggression is that of direct provocation from others. (Geen, 1968; Greenwell and

Dergerink, 1973, Bandura, 1976; Berkowitz, 1983)

- Studies provide evidence that verbal provocation may often serve as stronger antecedent of overt aggression.(Baron and Richardson, 1994)
- Evidence also suggests that such tasks and related provocation often elicit physical replies. As a result incident that begin with verbal exchanges, frequently escalate into overtly violent ones.

ANGER AND AGGRESSION

"Anger" is, at first conceived as an emotional state. Anger occurs when people are prevented, frustrated, or restrained from doing what they wish. When they are insulted, interrupted, taken advantage of or forced to act against their wishes or when they are in pain or prolonged distress. Anger and aggression do not necessarily occur together and may have several cognitive and motivational meanings.

Aggression is any response that occurs when the individual is angry, but anger may be followed by non-aggressive behaviour also. And, aggression may also occur in the total absence of anger. Anger aggression is initiated by any angry inducing stimuli (viz., insult, attack). These are cues for anger, which is followed by aggression, the intent to which, is to make the victim suffer. In nutshell deriving satisfaction from aggressive behaviour would signify a mal-adjusted behaviour.

ADJUSTMENT

The term adjustment that originated from the biological concept of adaptation was the cornerstone of Darwin's theory of evolution (1859) and emphasized the reality of the "Man - adapting" Darwin maintained that only those species most fitted to adapt the

hazards of the physical world survived.

Adjustment and adaptation represents a functional perspective for viewing and understanding human behavior. Psychologists are concerned with psychological survival or adaptation. Of the various concepts that suggests themselves in a description of the vital phenomenon of adjustment, some concepts such as 'adaptation,' 'regulation,' 'coordination,' are well established in most life sciences. However, this life process has often put psychologists in dilemma as to whether to go with Newtonian or the Darwinian paradigm or follow General System of Theory Bertelanffy (1968).

With the general definition of adjustment in mind it will be helpful to ask, what is in other words good adjustment? The well-adjusted person is one whose response are mature, efficient, satisfying and healthy. The term "healthy" implies that the response is wholesome, i.e., suited to man's nature, to his relation with others, and to his responsibilities. Wholesomeness is one of the most characteristic features of good adjustment.

In brief, then the well-adjusted person can, within the limitations of his own personality, react efficiently to different situations and resolve conflicts, frustrations and problems without the use of symptomatic behavior. He is therefore, relatively free of such disability symptoms as chronic anxiety, obsession, indecision or psychosomatic disturbances.

Definition of adjustment:

Some definition of adjustment are cited below.

Adjustment may be defined as the process of interaction between the individual and his environment for the sake of bringing harmony between them.

According to Schneider (1955), "Adjustment is a process by which the internal demands of motivation are brought into harmonious relation with the external demands of reality."

Adjustment, from another angle, is also viewed as the modes or ways of getting along with the environment while satisfying one's need. According to Symonds (1947) "Adjustment can be defined as a satisfying relation of an organism to its environment."

Lazarus (1976) defined adjustment as "consisting of the psychological processes by means of which the individual manages or copes with various demands and pressures."

According to Kaplan (1950), "A well adjusted person is one whose needs and satisfaction in life are intergrated with a sense of social feelings and acceptance of social responsibility."

In brief 'adjustment' deals with that aspect of life which concerns itself to bring about harmony between the demands of the inner self on the one hand and social milieu to which the person is exposed on the other hand promoting interpersonal, intrapersonal relationships and emotional health, and thereby which may in turn, promote effective adjustment.

When an individual makes sufficient changes to experience, success and contentment occur. He is believed, by most laymen, to have made satisfactory positive adjustment. To the psychologists, however, to adjust include both inner and overt changes that individuals experience during their growing-up years. Adjustment is two-edged, it embodies both personal and social experience. The child lives with himself in a society patterned by others. From early childhood, he develops within the limits of his own capacities and the existing environmental influences, those patterns of behavior that

describe him as a well-adjusted individual or as one who is maladjusted.

Meaning of Adjustment and Maladjustment:

The majority of individuals are motivated by the desire to complete many activities. These include being successful in school, experiencing a happy home life, marrying, rearing children, and earning success in a house location. If in these pursuits, the relationship between individuals' wants and environmental demands predispose towards wholesome, constructive attitudes and behaviour, the individual is said to have achieved good adjustment to life experiences. When he does not achieve successful fulfillment of his desires and aspirations in his relationship with other persons or with environmental conditions, his behavior may reflect his lack of satisfaction. He displays behavioral symptoms of maladjustment.

In order to avoid confusion, the term "good adjustment" and "maladjustment" are being used, because adjustment may represent either constructive and satisfying behaviors, or a behaviour that is not satisfying. Some psychologists prefer to describe behavior, either that which is satisfying to both the person him-self and others or that which is annoying and destructive and interferes with the individual's meeting his social and persuable obligations acceptably.

Each individual faces the problem of achieving maximum satisfaction in his home life, his school activities, his social living, and his work, without interfering with the satisfactions that rightly belong to others. Good adjustment, in these respective activities, begins in childhood and continues throughout life.

A child's behaviour tends towards the attainment of a series of more or less individually sought and socially accepted goals. His concept and evaluation of the goal

itself may be realistic or they may be incomplete. His evaluation of his ability to achieve the goal may not always be correct or adequate. The developing individual constantly is attempting to make use of those forms of behavior that satisfy his impulses to achieve. Thus, he changes or adjusts his behavior until he achieves the goal or until he loses interest in it.

The process of adjustment:

The process involved in acquiring group attitudes begin early in life and follows the pattern of family attitudes and motivations associated with religious, humanitarian, political, economic, aesthetic and materialistic aspects. Interwoven with all these value areas and predictive of the overt behavior of the individual in the adjustment processes, are group standards and attitudes reflected by the individuals and the situation by which the individual is surrounded.

A child constantly is stimulated by animate and inanimate factors in his environment as he struggles towards the attainment of self-expression, self-realization, and security. His inner desires, wants, and ambitions are expressed through his overt behavior. Both his inner compulsion towards expression and his overt behavior are influenced by environmental factors. If he sets for himself ego satisfying rather than socio-satisfying goals, he may be confronted with frustration or conflict in his struggle towards good adjustment, with the result that unhappiness, discontent, resentment, or maladjustment occurs.

The process of adjustment occurs when the individuals have needs and they can use various ways of seeking and satisfying their needs. When the individual is looked primarily as satisfying his various needs, adjustment is considered as need satisfying

process or process of need reduction. When individual is looked as getting along with his environment and reacting to it differently, changing his mode according to its demands, adjustment is considered as the process of adaptation, conformity and problem solving.

The term "Process of Adjustment" refers to the entire sequence from the time a need, tension, or drive is aroused until the need is satisfied, the tension reduced, or the drive extinguished. We have not in this definition distinguished between needs, tensions, drives, we might have added the word "motives." There is no indication in the definition as to the time span involved. The period may be very short, as with a reflex, or it may be long. The definition makes no reference to the significance of area of the behavior, it may be an unimportant area or it may involve need of great importance to the person.

Some writers have distinguished few phases in this process. The first is the drive or instigation factors, the second is the behavior of seeking effective solutions, the third is the attainment of the goal, and fourth is the reduction of tension - the period of satisfaction or quirkiness. Sometimes these phases are hard to distinguish, this formulation of four stages implies that inevitably tension is reduced, goals are attained and satisfaction is achieved. In fact this is not always the case. What the individual may have to adjust, is persistently unsatisfied needs. The more general definition in terms of equilibrium does not insist that the equilibrium be restored only by need satisfaction

Good adjustment always is made in light of some values found in the situation. These may be personal or social. Personal values usually reflect those of a group or groups. Process of adjustment is a process of interaction between the person and his environment to alter it. We can, that is, modify our surroundings, either directly or indirectly, or we can modify our own behavior. Whatever we do, however, we are interacting successfully if we achieve a satisfactory relationship. Satisfactory adjustment depends

on successful interaction. Interaction between our-selves and our environment is an integral part of living. At the outset, our environment involves principally the members of our families, if we interact with these people, we unconsciously acquire from them certain methods of adjusting, methods which we modify to suit our needs. It grows older as we interact with larger groups of people and acquire additional methods for adjusting. During this process of interaction and often without being aware of what we are doing, we experiment with ways which we may have observed in others and so evolve the behavior patterns that constitute our own individual pattern of adjustment.

Concept of good adjustment:

It must be defined in terms of meeting the problem appropriate to the level of development. What is good adjustment at one age level may be poor adjustment in another. Viewed, in this way growing up is a process of meeting stresses and strains in succession and thus building capacity to meet the problem of the next higher level".

Adjustment is relative. Also because it varies, to some extent, with social and cultural norms and because of individual variation in behaviour, even the well-adjusted person occasionally finds himself face to face with situation or problems that are beyond the scope of his adjustive ability. Needs are satisfied by interaction with the environment while satisfying his needs, every individual is invariably drawn into an interaction with his environment. A drive initiates activity in search of the required object in the environment. It does not become dynamic and operative until it collaborates with exterior stimuli. The exterior environment has its own demands. In order to achieve harmonious relationship with the environment, an individual attempts to get along with its demands satisfactorily during the process of adjustment. An adjustment problem arises when a person confronts a demand made by his environment which he cannot fulfill or when an environmental

demand comes in the way of immediate or early satisfaction of his need. Hence, from this viewpoint, adjustment consists of the efforts of an individual to get along well and satisfy the demands of his environmental situations, while fulfilling his personal needs. There are various modes such as adaptation mastery, and conformity to get along well with the environment.

Areas of adjustment:

Adjustment is a process of continuous interaction with environment. Neither the individual nor his world is static. Every time we encounter another person or problem, something new is introduced into our environment that necessitates adjusting to a new set of circumstances. Recognition of this process of continuous interaction leads us to realize that no human adjustment is ever complete or ideal. That is why we speak of adjustment as an attempt to relate satisfactorily to the environment Because of the continuous modifications in ourselves and our environment, there is always some gap between our needs and their complete satisfaction. A relatively satisfying adjustment is the best we can achieve.

Home and family adjustment:

The family life at the home plays an important part in the life cycle. During the life times of all its members, the family is a continuing influence. It must meet certain cultural imperatives and fulfill its members' personal needs. The goals towards which the home strives is the production and preservation of healthy personalities. They are the family equivalents of the motives of the individuals.

The atmosphere of the home must, if it is to be a home in any true sense, serve the needs of the individual as he strives to act in accordance with his fundamental motives

and to maintain his scheme of values.

In family life cycle each of the following common functions interacts with the others:

[1] Provision for rest and reintegration: To meet this need, there should be an adequate physical setting, a familiar atmosphere without tension and an opportunity for the expression of primary feelings. Here, the individual should find conditions relatively free from threat, even during unguarded moments he should have the opportunity to interpret his own primary feelings. Each adult needs a certain amount of permissive freedom and the family is the traditional spot for this freedom.

When the home and family have met the recuperative need, any move to other environs will act like a tonic to mental health. It seems necessary in order to relax and rest that the situation, plus the individual's own imagination, must bring back his intimately satisfying experiences.

[2] Building self - expression: The second job which the family can perform for its individual members, is to provide opportunity to develop and strengthen feelings of assurance in self - expression. To do this, the home must offer a combination of emotional security and positive channels for the utilization of abilities. Without this function well performed in every stage of the life cycle, life will seem futile.

Many studies of satisfied and unsatisfied workers show that family support is basic. In this competitive machine culture, the workman, who before mass production found props for his self - assurance in his creative work, is especially dependent upon his home for this support. An intensive study of a cross - section of the counselors of the vocational counseling service in Boston from 1934 to 1943 revealed that the

family relationship was the most important influence on work adjustment.

[3] Developing skills in close human relationship: Skill in human relationship entails the development of acceptance feeling plus the opportunity for close personal contact, first within the family and then with outsiders. The family is the primary atmosphere for practice in the social skills. When these foundations are laid with the family's encouragement, the social horizon can be extended for practice in dealing with diverse types of individual. The family attitude should be a welcoming one to friends of all its members. Interests in extra -family contacts will aid in broadening the basis of social life.

Rejecting parents are characterized as more nagging, neglecting, indifferent, criticizing, giving severe punishment. Mother would threaten to send the child away, handling the child inconsistently, resisting spending money on the child, and comparing the child unfavorably with a sibling. There are many different reasons for parental rejecting, most of them firmly fixed in a highly emotional base. The basic reason is the fact that many children come to these families as uninvited additions.

Social Adjustment:

The term "Social adjustment" refers to the extent to which an individual and his associates are satisfied with the nature and amount of his social participation. Obviously, this definition refers to a class of behaviors and feelings rather than to a specific social act.

It refers to one's harmonious relationship with one's social environment. It is the process of modifying the demands and the behavior of persons interacting with each

other so that they can achieve and maintain desired relationship.

This also includes conciliation and compromise. During adolescence, the peer relationship becomes very important. The child is pressed both internally and externally to conform to specified model of behavior, he develops a particular technique for adjusting to adults demands and other technique for adjusting to peer demands and, also, of interpersonal relations and satisfactions that contribute to the continuous growth of his personality.

There is limitation to our social skills. There may be some groups or persons with whom we cannot interact successfully. The reason for the high evidence of personal dissatisfaction with social adjustment is the unrealistic standard by which children judge their own behavior.

Finally, the general concern with social adjustment springs from an important social datum. Most of us have important needs that are satisfied, directly or indirectly, by effective social interaction. The need run from biologically based tensions, such as the need for food, to learned motives, such as the need for acceptance. Not all of us do have the same needs or not all the needs equally important to each of us. However, in the process of growing up we all acquire needs whose satisfaction involves effective relationship with others? In the home, these needs are usually satisfied by habitual modes of interaction with people who are living according to prescribed rules, and there is little personal concern about them. The problems arise when the individual emerges from this setting. The skill and personal properties that worked in the former situation may no longer be effective. The trial-and-error process which one acquires is often unpleasant, hence the wide spread concern with social adjustment. New skills and ways of relating to others is necessary if long standing and important needs are to be satisfied.

Emotional Adjustment:

Emotion is a stirred up state of entire organism. This stirred up condition arises during period of difficulties in making adjustments and when the individual is faced by a situation that involves conflict. In every situation, there is some kind of drive to a satisfactory solution of tension. When the way to the solution is blocked, an emotional state develops. An emotional state may be defined as a response to external or internal stimuli involving widespread bodily changes, the sensations of which form background against which the object or mental process causing the emotional state projects itself.

Since all aspects of growth and development are interrelated, the child's emotional growth affects and is affected by physical, mental, and social growth. Moreover, not only mental or intellectual, social and physical development are important in the development of emotions but the development especially of the Adrenal is like-wise essential to the development of a mature level of emotional behavior.

Number of causes can be enumerated which have been attributed to the feeling of insecurity or uncertainty, which, in turn, pre-dispose a person to heightened emotionality. Almost all the causes of emotional disturbances are the product of social and environmental factors. Emotions give more strength and greater endurance to the body than during the normal state of calmness. In emotional state, the person gets some extra energy by which he becomes able to do such impossible and important actions, which would not have been possible to do in a normal state. Situations producing strong anger, fear, joy and sexual feelings demand vigorous actions. These emotions are detrimental to health if experienced frequently and for a long time. In strong emotions, physiological actions last longer than in case of normal ones. Normal visceral functions are interfered by the strong emotions. Thus, emotions are tonic, stimulating and contributory to life.

Strong, frequent and persistent emotions result in digestive disorder, heart diseases, circulatory difficulties and also disorders affecting the bones, skin, muscles, sensory organs and respiratory system. Emotional stress results in sleep disturbances, chronic, fatigue, vomiting, constipation, diarrhoea, stomach ulcers and headache, it also leads to loss of weight, loss of energy and loss of appetite. Emotional tension results in flight behaviour and inefficiency. Instability, shift of mood and unpredictability, inconsistency of performance, irritability and moodiness also are the effects of emotional tension. It retards the learning process as well.

Even though the strong emotions affect the growth of total personality and also the social adjustments, we cannot avoid the presence of emotions from the life. If we did not have emotion to stimulate us to become a threat, to escape a danger and perhaps also to embrace a mate, we would be ill equipped for survival. Without emotions all family ties would vanish. Government would crumble without patriotism, feeling of security and protection.

Theories of Adjustment:

Human being has been trying to adjust to their world and to each other. In their journey through history they have tried one system after another. Some founded on superstition, others developed around factual basis. But superstition or fact, all of these theory and systems have evolved out of man's efforts to satisfy his needs and solve his problems-efforts directed towards achieving, as an end result, feelings of security and adequacy. Let us look at some of the theories and systems that have influenced man's effort to adjust.

The Spirit Theory:

Ancient man developed the spirit theory to account for natural phenomena he would not understand. Spirit controlled everything and were unpredictable. The spirit theory was extended to account for human behavior as well. If his behavior was strange and unacceptable, this was taken as a sign that evil spirits had gained the upper hand.

For centuries the spirit theory did serve its function in primitive society. It guided man's efforts to adjust to another man and to his environment. It made the universe meaningful for him and spared him the responsibility of working out his own destiny.

Can the spirit theory help modern man? As modern beings living in a sophisticated, civilized society, we cannot ask the advice of an oracle when we have a need to satisfy or a problem to solve. Nor, can we confer with the spirits. We must seek a more reasonable, realistic method for working our way out of our difficulties.

Religious Theory:

Religion developed out of man's efforts to replace superstitions with "explanations" and so elaborate systems were devised, centered around core deities who were believed to be the origin and cause of everything natural or supernatural. In many instances these deities were really spirits in more glorified form.

In societies like ours, where religion was the center of existence, these characteristics have exerted great influence on the way the people have interacted with each other and with their environments. To different extents, men have tried to obey or initiate their Gods. These helped man to feel secure and adequate by setting standards and limits for his behaviors. Thus, religions are more acceptable to intelligent man. Many men have made a satisfactory adjustment to life on the basis of their religious beliefs.

Religious beliefs do not lend themselves to scientific investigation and cannot, therefore, be scientifically validated

Astrological Theory:

The astrological theories emerged during the middle age as a single, elaborate system derived from the science of astronomy. The ancient astrologers divided the universe into twelve sections, each representing a specific "house of heaven". The sun, the moon, and all of the stars passed through each of these houses every twenty-four hours, and it was and still is believed that the individual's character, personality, and future were determined by the position of the sun, moon and stars in a particular zodiac sign at the moment of his birth. To keep pace with the changing times many astrologers, sincerely believed in their system. They have even begun to describe their views in neurological, physiological, or psychological terms. It is estimated that there are at least 25,000 astrologers working full or part time to supply the demands of the millions of people who seek their advice on adjustment problems.

Popular Superstitions Theory:

Superstitions may be defined as a belief that omens, signs, charms, or certain types of activity can produce magical effect and they can, help us to adjust by mysteriously satisfying our needs and solving our problems by means of some magical power that requires no effort on our own part. Today, instead of blaming an occurrence on a spirit, we attribute it to "good or bad luck". Some of us attempt to overt "lady luck" by wearing special charms, just as did primitive men.

Wishful Thinking Theory:

To mention wishful thinking as a theory of adjustment may seem a trifle far-fetched.

Yet, basically, it does function in place of a theory of adjustment for those who prefer to ignore the facts, who would rather not be bothered to learn the difference between potentially useful and potentially harmful methods. To presume that we will always take the right step, may be, is to think wishfully that our own infallibility will see us through. Such people arrive at conclusions on the basis of their own feelings and avoid facing facts for the fear facts will disturb those conclusions. Then they tend to reinforce such conclusions by assertion rather than by verification.

Mental Health Approaches to Adjustment:

An individual constantly is faced with making adjustments to even minor stresses and strain. Such incidents represent stresses and strains that usually are temporary. Good adjustment makes it easy to cope with stress and strain where as otherwise incidents evoke behavior signs of resentment, repression, suspicion, cruelty, shyness, or bullying. These cannot be removed so easily and may show themselves in maladjustment.

The results of thwarting frustration or conflict cannot be overcome by the application of simple rules or panaceas. The individual himself is responsible for building self-realizing experiences. Although he can be helped by parents, teachers, nurses and other leaders, he meets maladjusting influences by launching a direct attack during which he attempts to master the situation, by arriving at a compromise, or by retreating from the situation. In direct attacks, he attempts to do something positive about the difficulty. In the compromise approach he tends to alleviate the stresses in the situation by utilizing face -saving device. By retreating, he tends to run away from the problems because he feels inadequate to meet the frustration and conflict involved.

In his attempt to meet maladjustive elements in his environment, a child may utilize

an aggressive fight approach or he may give evidence of flight tendencies. He may attempt to compensate in one way or another for his own deficiencies, or he may try, in various ways, to circumvent the obstacles to the fulfillment of his interests or desires.

The utilization of one or more of these mechanism can serve as a self-bolstering device to the individual. In the attempts to reduce frustration and conflict during his developing years, a child makes most use of these techniques. Some of these approaches produce better-adjusted, stronger personality; others tend to affect adversely leading to an inadequate personality. We shall explain briefly some attitudinal and behavior patterns associated with important adjustment approaches used by the child.

Aggression behavior :

The child uses aggression in an attempt to control, remove, or destroy an obstacle, or he attempts to compensate for it in order that he may maintain his ego. If he feels inferior, he may become demanding, constantly insisting on the maintenance of his rights.

Compensatory behaviour :

The term "compensation" sometimes is used to describe any form of deviant behavior that aids in the alleviation of tensions caused by inability to gain satisfaction under usual or normal conditions and modes of behavior to overcome a real or imagined defect.

Attention getting behavior :

Some children take every opportunity to attract attention to themselves. This is especially characteristic of some children when they are on the defensive. The

attention getting urge is especially strong during adolescence

Introjection :

A child unconsciously acquires ideas, emotional attitudes and ideals from the people with whom he lives.

• Identification :

A child who still is "finding his way" towards successful achievement has a tendency to identify himself with a successful person or group. Identification can be damaging to an individual if he attempts to assume the attitudes or behavior characteristic of another person to the loss of his own identity.

• Rationalization (self-deception):

Rationalization is a form of self-deception employed by a child when he attempts to explain something he has done that he knows is undesirable or foolish.

Sublimation :

Sublimation represents substitute activity in children. A child may have a strong urge to engage in a particular form of activity, but the desired activity is interfered with because of personal inefficiency or social standards.

• Ego-centrist:

The child develops egocentric behaviour as a result of the amount of praise he receives whether or not it is merited. A child needs approval of behavior, praise for work well done and it can be an excellent emotion stimulator.

Day dreaming :

Daydreaming represents the imaginary satisfaction that is not attained in real experience.

Sympathy:

Many forms of self- adjustive behaviour give evidence that disturbs others. Hence, his maladjustment often goes unnoticed by parents and teachers.

Withdrawal Behavior :

When a child retreats from participation in certain life experiences, he exhibits withdrawal behavior - shyness. The shy and timid child seldom disturbs others. Hence his maladjustment often goes unnoticed by parents and teachers.

Characteristics of Satisfactorily Adjusted:

It is important to remember that adjustment is a continuing process. Since different demands are made on a person, at different periods of our times. And our abilities, needs, and goals change neither the problem a child faces nor the resources he possesses to meet them are the same as the problems and resources of the adolescents. The characteristics of well-adjusted person are the following.

1) A sense of individuality:

Well adjusted person must be capable of conforming to the norms of his society and, at the same time, be capable of deciding when it would be undesirable for him to conform.

2) A sense of independence:

The ability to make choices requires a sense of independence, a certain self-sufficiency that permits us to carry out our wishes and to work towards our goals without being constantly concerned about what others may think or say.

3) Confidence:

If we lack confidence in ourselves, our development may be crippled. If we lack confidence in other, our social relationships may be disturbed. Confidence in both others and ourselves is essential to the formation of warm, close relationships and is basic to the healthy personality. To be self-confident one must be able to appraise his assets and shortcomings realistically.

4) Acceptance of self and others:

Closely related to confidence is acceptance. We must be able to accept ourselves, to like ourselves, to have confidence in ourselves inspite of our defects. To love means to extend one's sense of self to include others. The well-adjusted person needs to give love as much as to receive it.

5) A sense of security:

The amount of acceptance and love one receives contributes significantly to the development of sense of security. The person, who lacks a sense of security, is afraid not only of others but also of himself. He is plagued by feelings of doubt and distrust. The secure person, by contrast, feel confident of his ability to choose and to follow an acceptable, effective course of action. He feels certain that with reasonable effort he can achieve his aims and satisfy his emotional needs.

6) A sense of responsibility:

The responsible person is concerned not only about himself but also about his fellow men. He recognizes the value of effective interpersonal relationship.

7) Goal - Orientation:

Realistically set goals help individual's satisfactory adjustment. A realistic goal is one where one can feel reasonably certain of attaining if he preserves. This hope of attainment will stimulate constructive activity and help to reduce tension that comes from delayed satisfaction.

8) A sense of time perspective:

An excessive dwelling on a point is a symptom of maladjustment. Some persons who are unhappy in the present and for who the future holds little promise, derive their greatest comfort and pleasure from looking back on the "good old days"

9) Personal values and philosophy of life:

Value judgements are an integral part of a personal philosophy of life, by which we mean the system of values by which we live. This philosophy of life includes our aim, ideals, and manner of thinking - the principles by which we guide our behavior and conduct our affairs. The well - adjusted persons explores these values in order to understand himself and to control his reactions. He is able to reconsider values acquired as a child learns change and modifies them as he develops intellectually and emotionally.

10) A problem - solving attitude:

A problem - solving attitude co-indicated by a willingness to apply the scientific approach in solving our own problems. To apply this approach one needs to -

- 1) carefully define and analysis the problem,
- 2) evaluate various possible approaches, and
- 3) apply the method that seems to offer the best chance of solving.

Willingness to face a problem, to try to understand it, to work on it distinguishes the well-adjusted person from less adjusted ones. And hence well-adjusted person would have better self-concept than persons who are less adjusted.

SELF-CONCEPT

The conceptualisation of the term 'self-concept' dates back to the origin of human civilisation when questions like "who am I" "what I ought to do" were raised. Various interpretations were given to these gestures by different philosophers and religious scholars. Later on, in the 17th century, which was called an intellectual era, distinction was made between self and the self-concept as the thinkers began defining consciousness and its content. Descartes' contribution in this area of self-concept was his emphasising on the centrality of the self in consciousness.

Rock and Hume developed the concept of the person as thinking intellectual being, reasonable reflecting, and perceiving self. The study of self-concept was not given much importance even after the 18th century. By the beginning of the 20th century, self-concept was given psychological connotations. According to Bidney (1953), man is self reflecting animal, in that he alone has the ability to objectify himself to stand apart from himself as it were, and to consider what kind of being he is and what it is that he wants to do and to become.

The self-concept develops through interpersonal relationships which a person

experiences through out his life. There are four aspects of self as, perceived self, external self, ideal self and real self.

According to William James (1890), the self is divided into two domains: the "I" or existential self and the "Me", or empirical self. The "I' refers to the subjective experience of existing, which includes, for example, a sense of personal identity, a sense of being, able to do things, (personal agency), and an awareness of one's continuing existence across time. The "Me", (empirical self) refers to a more objective understanding of one's personal characteristics.

The empirical self-concept comprises four components.

- 1. Spiritual self. It arises a sense of morality and mental superiority and conversely a sense of inferiority and guilt. By (spiritual self), James meant the feelings and thinking in real sense which brings about self-satisfaction, our will power, source of interest, effort concentration, intellectual, religious and moral aspiration,
- 2 Social self comprises of individuals and groups about whose opinion a person cares, and
- 3 Material self relates to material wealth (car, house etc.).
- 4. The fourth is the body self. James gave least importance to body self, though it is also important as healthy body brings attraction and smartness in physique. These four selves combine in a unique way to constitute one's view in about himself and the position a person holds in the world and society. Together, these two components (existential self and empirical self) of the self comprise our awareness of who we are (Damon and Hart, 1998,1992; Lewis 1991). James wrote that every person craves for praise and recognition. This craving is the social -self seeking impulses.

The self is viewed as an:

- a) object of the individual's perception and evaluation of himself as an object, and
- b) as a process, a reference point for evaluation of new experiences and maintain adjective behaviour according to social demands.

Mead (1934) also viewed the self as comprised of two component, the 'I' and 'Me'. The 'I' or the Ego, constitutes the empirical self and 'Me' is the need of the 'I'. The self-concept emerges in the personality because of an ever-flowing interaction between the 'I', 'Me' and 'society.'

Thus, it can be said that the self is a structure of attitudes derived from the individual's internalised status and social roles (Kuhn, 1954). One achieves a concept of himself by assuming the role of another, so to speak, to have a look back at oneself from the angle of generalised others (Mead, 1934; Hartley, Rosenbaum and Schewartz, 1948).

Developmentalist view:

The developmentalists explain it very nicely as to how the unaware neonate becomes the self awarded adult. How the self-concept emerges from childhood to adulthood and the child becomes aware of his body schema originated with Head (1920) his image (as given by Schnilder, 1950) and, hence, his self-concept. The development of his self-concept takes place by the co-operation of body schema which is innate as there have been evidence to substantiate this view, which focuses on the physical basis of self-awareness. It is not only the functioning of the body, but also the individual's concept of himself. Being aware is essential of being human, so when people become self-aware, they are psychologically mature to the extent that they know themselves and, have, a useful understanding of their assets and their limitations.

The physical self-concepts arises when individual becomes aware of his body, the body image that individual have of themselves as physical person. It involves their own estimation of themselves as strong or puny or as beautiful or ugly. All adolescence defects may be the source of considerable embarrassment and happiness to the individual.

There are periods in the development when emphasis on physical qualities of the individual becomes particularly marked, and at these times the physical attributes or deficiencies (whether imagined or actual) may have a considerable influence on the development of a concept of himself or herself as a person. When the person interacts with the environment his social self comes into focus. By the time the young person reaches adolescence or early childhood he should have acquired self-dependence to be able to meet adult responsibilities. And during these developing years, the child responds to others' attitudes towards himself, he is sensitive to adult attitudes and tries to pattern his behaviour accordingly. His felt need to pattern himself in imitation of his adult associates may not help his personality development depending on the kind of models they provide for him.

The person's moral self-concept also develops during this stage. In the developing years, the child responds to the impact on himself of various external forces like social customs, rules and regulations, moral standards and ethical codes.

Emotional disturbing crises, such as sudden illness or misfortune, can cause a loss of self determining abilities, and may result in the individual's returning to a state of dependence on others for his personal well-being.

Importance of culture:

Culture has been highlighted in the sociological perspective. As Markus and

Kitayama (1991) suggests people in different cultures have strikingly different concept of self which determine the very nature of individual experiences including cognition, emotion and motivation.

In India after conducting studies (Sen and Saxena, 1997) it was found that in urban areas there was no significant difference in upper caste and scheduled caste adolescents on integrated self-concept where as (Omprakash and Sen, 1985) in rural areas, there were significant difference in both groups of adolescents on the same.

Psychological perspective:

Jung (1955) postulated that the self is something that must be achieved and achievement can come by great effort. It is the ultimate goal of life which most people aspire to reach but very few can. The self provides the personality with unity, equilibrium, stability and, thus, represents the fullest development and harmonious blending of all aspects of the personality.

Psychologists discussed the evolution of sense of self in human beings. Piaget (1958) gave the concept of different developing stage (11 years onwards), when the real sense of self starts emerging. The children and adolescents of this age starts thinking on the notion of self with rational and critical ideas. They can think on external stimuli as well as on own internal stimuli, urges, and ideas.

According to Allport's (1961) point of view, in the period of six to twelve years of age the sense of self identity becomes strong, the self image starts evolving and fixing from the cues he gets from parents, peers like naughty, good, charming, etc.

At this age nature of self becomes moralistic and legalistic. Erikson (1968) - Adolescence is a period of personal development during which a young person develops

a sense of individual identity and feeling of self-worth, including adaptation to an altered body image, improved intellectual ability, demands for behavioural maturity and presentation for adult social roles.

The self-concept is a bridge between the individual and society between his attitudes, personality, social behaviour, academic achievement and socialisation process (Singh, 1977)

Behaviourists school of thought:

In the early and mid 20th century, the contribution of the behaviourists school marked by psychologists like Watson, Thorndike, Hull, and Skinner emphasised on the scientific methods, which is a study of measurable and observable behaviour in terms of stimulus response relationship. The various researchers have provided insight into individual's perception, needs, motivation and goals, but lack the ways as how to change his self-concept and to bring the wanted changes in behaviour of his perception of goals and motives. During this phase, the behaviourist applied their approach to change the self-concept of a person in a desired direction.

According to this theory the positive reinforcement is the best way to change a person's feeling of failure into feeling of success by increasing his self-esteem and change his perception of himself and his environment. It is a well established fact that by using the scientific technique of positive or negative self-concept, people with negative self-evaluation feel inferior than others and depressed are less confident. Another notable finding was that parents of high self-esteem boys were less permissive than boys with low self-esteem. They were strict but consistent and demanded high standard, they gave the boys challenging goals to achieve. The parents of low esteem boys were mostly

permissive but harsh when children were beyond the limit they would tolerate (Coppersmith, 1968).

Boys high in self-esteem tended to set markedly higher levels of aspirations for themselves where as lower esteem boys tended to set lower goals and they lag further behind in their achievement. The transition of self-concept theory from behaviourism to symbolic interaction lays down three basic aspects of human actions -

- humans responses to environment are based on the meaning of what the elements
 of that environment holds for them.
- II) such attached meanings are product of social interaction, i.e. external factors and
- iii) individual's interaction within the sphere of shared interaction, leads to the modification of the societal and cultural meanings.

Thus, we may find that the self and the society as a whole are inseparable and interdependent units (Cooley,1912; Mead,1934; Goffman,1934).

Freud's view:

Different theoretical expositions of the nature and development of the self-concept were made. The concept of self rightly called as the work of Freud(1920) laid down a precise view of self-concept - explaining the nature of Id, Ego and Super-ego. The self-concept (or Ego) arises from the Interplay between the biological or instinctual urges of the Id and the modifying influence of the culture and parental strictness forming the Super-ego. So, according to this approach, Id is impulsive, irrational element and has roots in dynamic unconscious, where as Super-ego is the idealistic (what a person would like to be) and imaginary elements in subconscious or conscious mind. But the Ego acts

as perceiving and thinking, which also determine the context of consciousness. It distinguishes between reality and imagination, maintaining a balance between Id and Super-ego.

Jung (1960) said that the Ego is the conscious part of the personality. Self represents an equilibrium between conscious (the Ego) and unconscious (Id)levels and, thus, can occur in middle age when various components of personality are fully developed.

Later Alder, Sullivan and Horny all emphasised on socio-cultural situations and interpersonal relationships as significant factors in the development of self. James Bertocceie (1945) differentiated ego and self - self as object - in the context of awareness which moves around the self. Later on Sherif Cantril (1947), Symonds (1951), Cheins (1944) defined Ego as a group of process such as perceiving, remembering, thinking and as executor of plans and self as the developing awareness of interpersonal relations in social context.

Phenomenological approach:

Another approach is phenomenological approach, this includes a number of theories that, although different in some respect, share common emphasis on subjective experience like individual's private view of the world. The phenomenal approach puts forth, that the behaviour is not influenced by past and current experiences, but by the personal meaning that an individual attaches to such experiences, through his own experiences. It reflects how we feel about ourselves and not what happens to us from outside. These theories are viewed as 'humanistic' since they are self directed and give freedom of choice. These self theories deal with the subjective, internal experience that constitute or make one's sense of being. They, emphasised the positive nature of human beings and also push

towards growth and self-actualisation.

The phenomenologists represented by Coombs and Snygg (1959), like Maslow offered a perceptual view of behaviour, where behaviour is always reasonable in individual, not objective. The individual selects the manner of behaving, that is, the most effective manner in the light of how he or she interprets experiences. All behaviour is determined by the perceptual field. Among the notable psychologists who were influenced by this point of view, the foremost was Rogers.

Lewin,1936 explained behaviour in terms of field theory suggested, "all behaviour arise from a total field, sometimes this, not being the real field, but the field as the behaving individual sees it "Rainey (1948) extended this self-concept phenomena from perceptual form of reference into the clinical field

Kelly's (1955) main thesis was that in everyday life all people are constantly engaged in problem solving and their personal constructs are an important means of bringing order to their universe

The concept of the "self" is central to the personality theory of Carl Rogers and other humanists. Our self-concept is our subjective perception of who we are and what we are like of all our subjective views of life, our view of ourselves is most important to our personalities. The concept of self is learned from our interaction with others.

Rogers distinguishes between two self-concepts. There is the self - the person think 'I am' and the 'ideal self'- the person wishes 'I were'. Rogers' concept of the ideal self is very similar to Freud's Ego ideal. Both self-concepts are so important that psychological problems can arise from difficulties with either of the 'I - self' and the 'Ideal-self'. First, excessive discrepancies between the self and the ideal- self can be uncomfortable. It's

okay for the ideal to be slightly out of reach -that can stimulate us to improve ourselves.

But, if the ideal self is so unrealistically perfect that we know it can never be reached, then we feel like failures.

An inaccurate self-concept can also cause problems. If our view of our "selves" is not reasonably congruent (similar to the way we actually act, think and feel), then we will develop an absurd view of ourselves.

According to Rogers one might deny those feelings that are incongruent with one's self-concept. In Rogers' terms, we are aware of feelings and information only when they are mentally symbolised.

The failure to symbolize part of our experience is harmful not only because it leads to inaccurate concepts of self, but also because feelings can continue, often in conflicting or anxiety provoking way, even when we are not aware of them. We also begin to deny awareness to some of our feelings and experiences as a result of parents reactions to our behaviour. By reacting with warmth and praise to some of our actions but with coldness and punishment to others, our parents create conditions of worth.

Furthermore, we often deny feelings that are inconsistent with the internalised condition of worth. Rogers' concept of unsymbolised feelings is similar in some ways to Freud's view of repressed feelings. Both can continue to influence the person, often in harmful manner.

Roger believes that lack of awareness is always harmful. If we are to allow full expression to our inner directed tendency to grow, we must be fully aware of (symbolise) all our feelings and experiences. Only in this way we can accurately understand and accept ourselves for exactly what we are.

According to Harder (1983) self system has three components. The first is self-knowledge, it is what children know or understand about themselves and they become aware of this. The second component is self-evaluation that is, the factors influencing children's opinion of themselves. Third component is self-regulation, i.e., how and when children acquire self-control.

Besides the above, there are some social factors like ethnic origin, attitudes, caste and race, person's personal abilities etc., also influence formation of self-concept.