CHAPTER II

CONCEPTS AND THEORETICAL FRAME-WORK

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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Before proceeding to study adjustment problems of the student teachers it is necessary to have adequate knowledge about the background of the theories and clear concepts of adjustment and about variables like, student control ideology, and attitude towards teaching profession.

In this chapter, some of the concepts and theories of adjustment have been described. It includes the meaning of adjustment, process of adjustment, areas of adjustment, theories of adjustment, characteristics of satisfactory adjustment, and identification of maladjustment. It also deals with the theories of psychotherapy which is the method of treating the maladjusted person and helping to be able to overcome his problems, the concept of student control ideology, and the concept of attitude towards teaching profession.

2.2 MEANING OF ADJUSTMENT

The term adjustment may be defined as the process of the interaction between the individual and his environment

for the sake of bringing harmony between them by any means. 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.

According to Schneiders (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 looked from the view point of the modes or ways of getting along with the environment while satisfying one's need. As Malm and Jamison write, "Adjustment refers to the way we get along in satisfying our psychological and physical needs in an environment which is sometimes helpful, sometimes unyielding and sometimes hurtful towards us".

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 untill it elaborates with exterior stimuli. The exterior environment is having 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 fulfil or when an environmental demand comes in the way of immediate or early satisfaction of his need. Hence, from this view point 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.

The Process of Adjustment

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. It may be long, as with adjustment to the academic demands of college. The definition makes no reference to the significance of area of the behavior; it may be an unimportant area or it may involve needs of great importance to the person.

Some writers have distinguished four phases in this process. The first is the drive or instigating factor; the second is the behaviour of seeking an effective solution; the third is the attainment of the goal; and the fourth is the reduction of tension - the period of satisfaction or quiescence. Sometimes these phases are hard to distinguish. This formulation of four stages implies that inevitably tension is reduced, goals are attained, satisfactions are achieved. In fact this is not always the case. What the individual may have to adjust to is persistent unsatisfied need. The more general definition in term of equilibrium does not insist that equilibrium is restored only by need satisfaction.

Process of adjustment is a process of interaction between ourselves and our environments. In this process we can either adapt to the environment or alter it. We can, that is, modify our surroundings, either directly or indirectly, or we can modify our own behaviour. Whichever we do, however, we are interacting successfully if we achieve a satisfactory relationship. Satisfactory adjustment depends on successful interaction. Interaction between ourselves and our environment is an integral part of living. At the outset our environment involves principally the members of our families. As we interact with these people we unconsciously acquire from them certain methods of adjusting, methods which we modify to suit our needs. As we grow older 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 methods we have observed in others and so evolve the behaviour patterns that constitute our own individual pattern of adjustment.

Adjustment is a process of continuous interaction. Neither the individual nor his world is static. Both are being acted on and modified continually, even though at times these modifications may be so minute that the individual's efforts to adjust to them are imperceptible. Every one of these changes, either in the individual himself or in his environment, alters his relationship to the environment. 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 environments, there will always be (except perhaps for very brief periods) some disharmony between ourselves and our environment, some gap between our needs and their complete satisfaction. A relatively satisfying adjustment is the best we can achieve.

Since our adjustment involves a process of dealing with changes in ourselves, in others, in our environment - it is never completed. As long as we live we shall encounter new problems demanding a continuous readiness on our part to adjust to them. We cannot avoid these problems; we can only learn to handle them as they arise.

Emotional Adjustment

According to Zarchy, "Emotion is intrinsic to every experience, and is a factor in all conduct and emotion broadly conceived is fused with thinking in the healthy competent individual". Emotion is a stirred up state of entire organism. This up set 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 soon 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.

Emotional tension and conflict at adolescent appears to be high. The child is not born with innate emotional responses to any specific stimulus but learns to respond emotionally as a result of his experience.

Impulses of the primary emotions love, anger, and fear have been experienced by the child throughout the pre-school period. But these emotions passed through different phases before adolescence, and at adolescence receive a new path and is some what indifferent directions.

Arlitt says, "The emotional maturing takes very much the same form for the girl as for the boy". 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 of the endocrine glands especially of the Adrenal is likewise essential to the development of a mature level of emotional behaviour.

Number of causes can be enumerated which have been attributed to the feeling of insecurity and uncertainity, which, in turn, predisposed him to heightened emotionality. Almost all the causes 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 more extra energy by which he becomes able to do such impossible and important actions which are impossible to do in a normal state. Strong emotions have the nature of cries. Situations producing strong anger, fear, joy and sexual feelings demand

vigorous action. These emotions are detrimental to health if experienced frequently and for a long time. In strong emotions physiological actions last longer than in a case of mild one. Normal viceral functions are interfered by the strong emotions. Mild emotions are tonic, stimulating and contributory to the zest of life.

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

Even though the strong emotions have worst effects and results, which affect the growth of total personality and also the social adjustment we cannot avoid the presence of emotions from the life. If we did not have emotion to stimulate us to overcome a threat, to escape a danger, and perhaps also to embrace a mate, we would be illequipped for survival. Without emotions all family ties would vanish. Government would crumble without patriotism, feelings of security and protection.

Although, emotions give us the bitters of life, they give us the sweets also. Thus, emotions want control and adjustment. Emotional control does not mean repression or elimination. It means learning to approach a situation with a rational attitude and control of emotions which are socially unacceptable. The most important procedure for preventing strong emotions is avoidance of stimulus or situation which evokes it.

Hurlock says, "The disturbed child has the same emotional development as a normal, well-adjusted child, but in the disturbed child the negative emotions are more frequent and more intense than in the well-adjusted child. Emotionally immature person becomes angry for no reason. He is over-sensitive and irritable and fears are easily aroused in him. The emotional insecurity arises within himself rather than outside.

Emotional immaturity and abnormal emotionalism are the reason of emotional maladjustment such as dependence on teachers, frequent request for help or approval, inability to work alone, frequent interruptions in class, efforts to attract other's attention etc. Teacher is responsible for the development of each child emotionally and socially. In promoting mental health among the children, his first duty is to promote his own mental health. The teacher should remain objective and unemotional, but at the same time friendly and sympathetic. At home the children need parents'

co-operation and wise guidance, so that, by increasing maturity, they learn to overcome their own obstacles and grow into more complete control of their own emotions and behaviour.

Family Adjustment

The family may be defined as "an organization of individuals, the members of which are in constant interaction with each other, whether they are infants, children, adolescents, or adults".

Bossard sees the family as potentially providing the child with seven basic things:

(1) means of developing and utilising the child's abilities;

(2) satisfaction of a desire for intimate response;

(3) a source of satisfaction for the child's desire for approval;

(4) an institution providing ground in which the child receives his first lesson in living with other people and in making adjustments to them;

(5) a source for the determination of personal attitudes;

(6) a place where the child gets from the family interaction processes many of tools which he acquires beyond the home education; and

(7) the place where he obtains his first living habits.

Baldwin describes the democratic home as one that promotes good adjustment without undue attention to the child.

Some families load all work on one or two members, in others, sharing is the rule. Some operate as dictatorships, with one member giving orders to the others, some work by either formal or informal family councils, still others are anarchies. Of particular importance to the maturing boy or girl is the division of labour, responsibility and authority between the parents and members. From these, the children may gather impressions as to the worth of masculinity or famininity and of how a man or a woman should conduct himself/herself.

The focal point of the student's enforced role as a child is his home and his family. School and community contacts are only extensions of home situation which the student has always before him. The home represents, in the final analysis, the ultimate and definitive repository of adult authority where he is concerned. The importance of the home as a major factor in an individual's development has long been recognized by psychologists, social workers, sociologists, and others who work with student and student's parents. There are numerous factors related to the family which influence the likes of students. Among these are the socio-economic status and geographical location of the home, the number, ordinal position, and interpersonal relations of siblings, the integration of the home into the local culture including its ethnic, national, racial, and religious structure, and the status of the home as broken or unbroken.

The effect of socio-economic status upon child-rearing practices, opportunities offered and withheld, and the emotional and social adjustment of students have been well established. Homes may be categorized with varying degrees of exactness as upper-, middle-, and lower-class. While a student brought up in an upper- or middle-class home tends to have real advantages over lower-class student in the attitudes and child-rearing practices of his parents, in general level of developed functional intelligence, in social and educational opportunities, and in future prospects, it is important to remember that a home of excellent socio-economic status may be a psychologically poor home and vice versa. Levels of expectation and of accomplishment tend to be highest in midle-class homes and students who live in them are under great pressures to achieve. By and large the emancipation process is accelerated in the lower-class home.

Sibling relationships are important to the students and cause them to assume roles in family relationships that will enable them in a competitive atmosphere to gain the recognition they need. The type of role assumed by a student will depend in part upon his sex, ordinal position in the family, and the roles already assumed by other siblings. The student will often encounter problems in integrating his family role with the role he must assume outside the family if he is to become an effective person. Here again the psychological climate and socio-

economic status of the home is more important than the size of the family.

Residential mobility poses for the students and their families problems of adjustment to new communities and people where they are confronted by various sources of insecurity. The students who have made a place for themselves in their own community find it difficult to enter a new school where they must re-establish themselves not only academically but also socially. The geographical location of home in a rural or in an urban community in that it provides a context for growing up is an important aspect of the student's life. Many studies have disagreed as to the personality effects of urban versus rural living, but there is no reason to believe that either the farm or the city provides a situation that necessarily presents the student with undue problems. More serious is the ethnic or national status of the student. The child of adopted parents, because of problems of bilingualism, cultural differences, and the possible unwillingness of his family to be assimilated, faces problems of integration into the large culture reflected in his experiences in school and in the attitudes of others toward him.

The broken home is in general a focal point of the student maladjustment. Students from broken homes often present problems of social and emotional maladjustment, and in the case of divorce, difficulty in finding a common

ground with a new stepparent, or of accepting the concept of their parents that the reason for the divorce provide. The more sudden and traumatic the home break-up, the more difficult the problem of adjustment. The student is reaction to the disaster of a broken home will depend, to a great extent, upon the emotional climate of the home before the break occurs. The broken home must significant for the personality and happiness of the student is the one that deprives him of the guidance and sympathy of his parents or of an accepting parent surrogate.

Parents-child relationship is the one of very important factors in the student's adjustment. The student whose home history has been one of overprotection and overindulgence experiences greater difficulty than usual in adjusting to the outside world. The overattentiveness of his parents has led him into the habit of expecting help and attention from others. In a real sense such student has never relinquished the egocentricism of his early child-hood, when he conceived of the world and everything in it as created especially for his benefit and exploitation outside the home he will endeavour to make himself the pampered center of every situation he enters. Naturally, he does not always receive the attention he wants, and his reaction, aggressive at first, if fails to work, may change to withdrawal. Such student looks to others for aid at each stage of their development.

In contrast, the student who finds himself rejected by his parents is usually quite aware of the attitude toward him. Newell defines the behaviour of actively rejecting parent as characterized by "severe pubishment, neglect, nagging, indifference, irritation, mother threatening to send the child away, handling the child inconsistently, resisting spending money on the child, and comparing the child infavourably with a sibling". There are many different reasons for parental rejecting, most of them firmly fixed in a highly emotional base. One basic reason is the fact that many children come to their families as unwanted additions. The student who is rejected by his parents will attempt to use every means at his disposal to gain the affection and security which he lacks. When this does not work he may become resentful, bitter and discontented, not only within his home, but outside it as well. His overt response to this feeling may take the form either of withdrawal or of agression, but in both cases he will probably have difficulty in adjusting to the demands that society will eventually make upon him both as a student and as an adult.

Academic Adjustment

Academic adjustment may be defined as the student's healthy adjustment to the collegiate environment and work. It could be look upon as the student's adjustment to the curriculum as evidenced by his interest and liking for it;

clarity of his goals and steadiness of purpose. That is, whether he has a carefully conceived plan of his future, whether he is conscious and clear about his life goals and whether he is stimulated to a proper effort to achieve them. Achievement of these, largely depend upon the efficiency in the use of his time and the methods of study he employs, his emotional maturity, the soundness of his mental and physical health and his interpersonal relations with his teachers and collegiate friends.

Students have several problems peculiar to themselves and to their collegiate situation in which they find themselves. Most of the college students have problems. To have problems is not unnatural or abnormal. Many problems arise as a result of students' natural growth processes from late adolescence to early adulthood and they necessitate adjustment. Students learn to adjust themselves to problems concerning home, social living, emotional needs and health. These are general problems that confront all youth.

The college provides enlarged sphere of self-directed activity and self-dependence to the students. But the demands upon them are greater than in their earlier academic lives, because of inadequate direction by instructors. Their success largely depends on understanding how to develop suitable and efficient techniques keeping in view their capacities and putting them to proper use. Most of

the freshman's problems are often transitory in nature, as they largely arise out of the novelty of the situation in which he finds himself on the one hand, and his ignorance of the demands and possible solutions for them, on the other.

At the end of the first year in college, the student would have achieved satisfactory adjustment in the natural course of events. The senior students therefore would be expected to have fewer adjustment problems than the college freshmen, as they have had reasonable opportunity to make the necessary adjustment and probably have met the freshman-problems squarely and are now concerned with their success. Often they are earnest about their purpose. But for the student who has unfortunately failed in his attempts at adjustment may become home-sick, grow restlessness and seek various forms of retreat.

A reasonably well-adjusted student to academic situation would be characterized by :

(1) a high degree of intrinsic interest in his course, i.e., in the subjects of his study;

(2) a positive attitude towards the general requirements of his course;

(3) a capacity to concentrate for a reasonable length of time in the performance of his academic work;

(4) a realistic evaluation of his own abilities and capacities; and

(5) a reasonable degree of motivation.

Satisfactoriness is indicated by the student's performance-achievement and how he is regarded by his teachers and class-fellows. It is also indicated by the congruence of his abilities and interests with those demanded by his curriculum. Academic adjustment patterns may differ for different students and different courses of study. Academic adjustment is the adjustment of the student to his academic life. It includes the adjustment of the students to a variety of environmental factors, his adjustment to his inner needs, desires and goals, and adjustment to the demands of his curriculum.

The matter of student's academic adjustment may be considered from two points of view : from the point of view of the student himself and from the view of a disinterested individual. Some inventories like the Bell Adjustment Inventory aim of obtaining the individual's own evaluation of his adjustment. From point of view of a disinterested individual, assessment of adjustment is made by employing rating or ranking methods.

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 behaviours and feelings rather than to a specific social act. We

include in this area for example, the feeling of being liked and accepted by associates.

Difficulties in social adjustment are common. Students may complain about lack of friends, unpopularity, inability to get along with others, and so on. Among other reasons for this widespread concern is the high value that our society places on social leadership, extensive social participation, and popularity. Individual students may often feel additional pressure from parents to whom this value is especially important. For many students this orientation defines the level of aspiration and non-achievement represents an important failure. Actually there are limitations to the social skills of all of us. There are always some groups or persons with whom we cannot interact successfully. Yet many students behave as though there should be no limits to their ability to get along with others. One reason, then, for the high incidence of personal dissatisfaction with social adjustment is the unrealistic standard by which students judge their own behaviour.

There are other reasons, of course. Many of the problems of achieving independence from family are being worked through simultaneously. These problems often make it difficult for the person to relate successfully to others. Any behaviour on the part of peers that implies that the student needs help or supervision may bring

antagonistic responses, which make the relationship unstable. Other students, in their fear of being dominated or of becoming emotionally dependent again, avoid situations that bring them into contact with others. This behaviour conflicts with other needs, notably the desire to join others in important cooperative activities, and the student is dissatisfied.

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 needs run from biologically based tensions, such as the need for food, to learned motives, such as the need for acceptance. Not all of us have the same needs nor are the same needs equally important to each of us. However, in the process of growing up we all acquire needs whose satisfaction involves effective relationship to 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 skills and personal properties that worked in the former situation may no longer be effective. The trial-and-error process by which new ones are acquired is often unpleasant; hence the widespread concern with social adjustment. New skills

and ways of relating to others are necessary if long-standing and important needs are to be satisfied.

2.3 THEORIES OF ADJUSTMENT

Human being have 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 a factual basis. But superstition or fact, all of these theory systems have evolved out of man's efforts to satisfy his needs and solve his problems - efforts directed toward achieving, as an end result, feelings of security and adequacy. Let us look at some of the theory-systems that have influenced man's efforts to adjust.

The Spirit Theory

Ancient man developed the spirit theory to account for natural phenomena he could not understand. Based on superstition, the spirit theory ascribed human qualities, a personal life-force or spirit, to everything that seem to be a potential source of assistance or danger. Spirit controlled clouds, pushed rocks, created rain, drove the sun across the sky, rusted the leaves on the trees. But spirit were unpredictable. No one could tell when they might appear or disappear, and to try to predict events on the basis of past performance was futile. The spirit theory was extended to account for human behaviour as

well. If a person behaved in an acceptable manner, was guilty of no sins or transgressions against the tribal mores, it was a sign that he was inhibited by good spirits. But if his behaviour was strange and unacceptable, this was taken as a sign that evil spirits had gained the upper hand. A person afflicted with evil spirits had to submit to bring "purged" by such measures as bloodletting, whipping, dunking, or having holes bored in his skull or his body exposed to fire. It was also believed that good and bad spirits might inhibit the same body at different times or even at the same time, in which case there might occur a tremendous struggle between the good and evil spirits for control of the body they were occupying.

For centuries the spirit theory did serve a function in primitive society. It guided man's efforts to adjust to another men 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 to adjust? Modern, informed, intelligent, man would scoff at any suggestion that his life was determined by spirits. As modern beings living in a sophisticated, civilized society, we can not ask the advice of an oracle when we have a need to satisfy or a problem to solve. Nor we can confer with the spirits. We must seek a more reasonable, realistic method for working our way out of our difficulties.

Religious Theory

Religion has been defined as "a system of attitudes, practices, rites, and beliefs by means of which individuals or a community put themselves in relation to God or to a supernatural world and often to each other, and from which the religious person derives a set of values by which to judge events in the natural world".

Religions developed out of man's efforts to replace superstitions with "explanations". Elaborate systems were devised, centered around one or more 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. But although men begged the aid of the spirits, often with elaborate rituals, they did not worship them in the way they worshipped their Gods.

Although it is not our intention here to disgress into a history of the development of the religions of the worlds, we should like to glance at a few characteristics of religions, characteristics that have influenced man's efforts to adjust to his world. Actually, religions beliefs and practices are as diverse as the people who practice them, and their characteristics reflect this diversity. The characteristics attributed to the Gods, and the methods designed to win their favour, vary from religion to religion. Almost all the religions advocate

prayers and rituals. But other behavioural standards depended on the personalities of the Gods in whose honour the religion was founded. Some Gods were models of virtue and expected their subjects to be virtuous too. Others were fun-loving and could look the other way or even join in when their subjects were making merry. Some Gods spent a great deal of time in meditation and liked their subjects to do the same. Other seemed almost constantly involved in heroic love affairs, and this too was reflected in the behaviour of their subjects. Some Gods looked like human beings and some looked like various combinations of animals. Some were beautiful and some grotesque. Some mingled with the people, some remained aloof.

In societies 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 imitate their Gods. These helped man to feel secure and adequate by setting standards and limits for his behaviour. Furthermore, because many of these religions were built around the lives of real people, they could claim more of a factual basis than systems founded on assumptions regarding spirits. Thus, religions are more aceeptable to intelligent men. 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.

Astrology Theory

The theory of astrology emerged during the Middle Ages as a single, elaborate system derived from the science of astronomy. The medieval astrologer divided a globe of 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 an individual's character, personality, and future were determined by the position of the sun, moon and stars at the moment of his birth. It would seem to follow that all people born in the same part of the world at the same time should share identical futures, but the discrepency between this idea and simple observed facts did not bother the medieval astrologer any more than it bothers his modern counterparts. When it was discovered that the earth was not the center of the universe, however, popular faith in astrology was somewhat shaken.

To keep in step with changing times, astrologers, many of whom sincerely believe in their systems, have begun to describe in recognized neurological, physiological, or psychological terms. The use of such "scientific"

terminology, however incorrect, serves to impress the unwary, who confidently consult such "specialists" as bioastrologists, natac astrologists and radix astrologists. 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. Astrology, used as a psychological crutch by persons in need of support, is an opiate; and there are no harmless opiates. It is an escapist device that can weaken a person's ability to adjust to the continuous demands and problems of daily living.

None of these pseudo-sciences has been scientifically validated, and those who practice them, no matter how sincere and well-intentioned they may be, are asking their believers to base their behaviour and adjustment on sheer guesswork. A person with severe adjustment problems who tries to follow the pseudo-scientist's advice may succeed only in intensifying his difficulties.

Popular Superstitions Theory

Superstition may be defined as a belief that omens, signs, charms, or certain types of activity can produce magical effect - can, that is, 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. The following are the examples of superstitious beliefs.

Today, instead of blaming an occurence on a spirit, we attribute it to "good or bad luck". Some of us attempt to court "Lady Luck" by waring special charms, just as did primitive man. Thirteen has been considered an unlucky number since Jesus sat down with his disciples and was betrayed. The mystic 3 gets a great deal of attention. Many games are built around the number, many religious practices employ it. Before facing a problem situation we knock on wood or cross our fingers to make sure we get through it all right. At weddings an unmarried girl tries to catch the bride's bouquet so that she will be the next to marry. By contrast, the girl who finds a thimble in her piece of wedding cake knows that she will never find a husband. If we spill salt we must toss some over our left shoulder to prevent bad luck.

Superstitions have never been scientifically validated. Many of them are remnants of earlier religious beliefs, beliefs that were abandoned as civilization progressed. Those who rely on superstitions to see them through their adjustment problems are in danger of losing contact with reality.

Wishful Thinking Theory

Wishful thinking is not so far removed from superstition as a device for attempting to satisfy needs or solve problem. To believe what we wish to believe rather than to consider the facts is like expecting a good luck

charm to help us to get a job. Even in the absence of a recognizable superstition, many of us indulge in this tendency to believe what we want to believe regardless of evidence to the contrary.

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 without bothering to learn what 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 fear the facts will disturb those conclusions. Then they tend to reinforce such conclusions by assertion rather than by verification. This process of wishfully arriving at an opinion that pleases us and then persisting in believing it is one that asks for no scientific validation, but neither does it facilitate satisfactory adjustment.

Intelligent living and the solving of personal and social problems cannot take place in psychological rigidity. We must reason our way through problems if we are to live effectively. Sometimes our philosophies and beliefs may be at variance with reality. What may seem obvious is not always necessarily accurate. In the appreciation of

change lies the hope of progress. In the appreciation of the need to learn continuously regardless of age, lies the source of good mental health.

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF SATISFACTORY ADJUSTMENT

It is important to remember that adjustment is a continuing process, since different demands are made on us at different periods of our lives, and since our abilities, our needs, and our goals change. Neither the problems a child faces nor the resources he possesses to meet them are the same as the problems and resources of the adolescent or adult. With these qualifications in mind, then, we can proceed with the discussion of the characteristics of well-adjusted person as following.

1. A sense of Individuality. Well-adjusted person must be capable of confirming to the norms of his society and, at the same time, be capable of deciding when it would be undesirable for him to conform. He is an autonomous person, aware of others, responsive to them, but capable of making choices in accordance with his own individuality.

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 toward our goals without being constantly concerned about what others may think or say. A sense of indepen-

dence permits us to show more initiative, to be more creative, to depend more on our own judgement, and to utilize whatever qualities of leadership we may possess.

3. Confidence. If we lack confidence in ourselves, our development may be crippled. If we lack confidence in others, our social relationships may be disturbed. Confidence in both ourselves and others is essential to the formation of warm, close relationships and is basic to a healthy personality. To be self-confidence we must be able to appraise our assets and shortcomings realistically. Exaggerated expectations of what we can do can lead to over confidence. Confidence in others involves, basically, the ability to trust others and depends. It is important to learn that some people can be trusted even if others may have deceived us at times.

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 the defects we are sure to find in ourselves. Similarly, we must be able to accept others in spite of the defects we see in them and the mistakes we know they have made. This ability to accept is fundamental to the ability to love. 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 we received contributes significantly to the development of a sense of security. The person who lacks a sense of security, is afraid not only of others but also of himself. Plagued by feelings of doubt and distrust. The secure person, by contrast, feels 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 man. He recognizes the value of effective interpersonal relationship. He does what he can do to remove prejudice, reduce hatred, and promote understanding, insight, and mutual appreciation among the members of his society.

7. Goal-Orientation. Goals set realistically indicate satisfactory adjustment. A realistic goal is one we can feel reasonably certain of attaining if we persevere. This hope of attainment will stimulate constructive activity and help to reduce tension that comes from delayed satisfaction. The person who seems to have no goals, or who revises his goals oftenly, is wasting his potentialities. The goal-oriented person is primarily interested in working out his problem and proceeding toward his goal.

8. A Sense of Time Perspective. An excessive dwelling on the past is a symptom of maladjustment. Some persons who are unhappy in the present and for whom the future holds little promise derive their greatest comfort and pleasure from looking back on the "good old days". Memories become their substitute for future plans and present actions. Others, tormented by shame and guilt about past experiences, are unable to live happily and constructively in the present. For them the present is wasted, and this wasted present becomes, in turn, an additional source of regret tomorrow. The well-adjusted person, however, does not blot out the present by reliving the past or dreaming about the future. He utilizes his past experiences as guides for present and future action.

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 aims, ideals, and manner of thinking - the principles by which we guide our behaviour and conduct our affairs. Our choice of friends, our religious beliefs, our political convictions - all these represent values. The mature, well-adjusted person explores these values in order to understand himself and to control his reactions. He comes to see his values more objectively; that is, he maintains a problem-solving attitude toward them and learns that these subjective, and often very important, value can be understood and

modified. He is able to reconsider values acquired as a child, and to change and modify them as he develops intellectually and emotionally.

10. A Problem-Solving Attitude. A problem-solving attitude is indicated by a willingness to apply the scientific approach in solving our own problems. To apply this approach we (1) carefully define and analyze the problem, (2) evaluate various possible approaches, and (3) apply the method that seems to offer the best chance of solving it. Willingness to face a problem, to try to understand it, to work on it distinguishes the well-adjusted person. He is objective, he understands cause-and-effect relationships, and he is flexible. At times, of course, he may misjudge some aspect of the problem and his solution may fail. But then, like the scientist in the laboratory, he will try another approach.

It is not necessary for a mentally health person to possess every one of these characteristics which have been discussed above. Nor are these characteristics found in everyone to the same degree. We need not be disappointed or alarmed, therefore, if we find we lack some of these characteristics. But knowing what the well-adjusted person are, and how they affect personal adjustment, can facilitate our efforts to improve our adjustment.

2.5 MALADJUSTMENT CRITERIA

The distinction between normal and abnormal behaviour is not always clear. Many normal people are subject to the same kinds of deviation as are the abnormal. The chief difference is that the normal person suffers a less extensive and less severe emotional involvement than the abnormal person. The difference is primarily a matter of degree.

It is the person who is severely and persistently disturbed who is properly described as "emotionally handicapped". The normally emotionally disturbed individual should not be confused with the emotionally handicapped. Every person experiences emotional insecurity and most likely personality disorder at some time. Hence, most people display at times characteristics which might be described as neurotic. Furthermore, behaviour that may be abnormal for one person may be normal for another. Behaviour that is normal for a little child may be abnormal for a fourteen-year-old. Behaviour that is not unusual for a sick person or for one who is not very intelligent may be very unusual on the part of a healthy, intelligent person.

The kinds of symptoms by which an individual reveals his disturbances are determined largely by his social or cultural environment. Behaviour that is held abnormal in one culture may be viewed as normal in another. Hence, we must interpret desirable traits in the light of the types

of responses a person may comfortably exhibit in his particular culture. Members of a certain social class, for example, frequently show affection by pommeling and cursing one another. This type of behaviour on the part of a student from such a group is not indicate of maladjustment, but such behaviour on the part of another student may indicate that all is not well with him. Or it may only mean that he has made friends with "the kids from the other side of town", likes them, and is trying to act as they do so that they will like him. We must not be overeager to recognize signs of emotional instability. Normal persons suffer from minor mental deviations and reveal minor maladjustments through the same symptoms that are shown by the definitely pathological types. We should not interpret signs of minor deviations as evidence of serious abnormality or of incipient discares. Now should we be overready to interpret particular combinations of symptoms as indicating specific disorders. The symptomatology of one condition may not be unlike that of other conditions, including some benign ones.

We may see some symptoms exhibited so often that we accept them as inevitable of maladjustment. All signs need to be noted; some may be danger signs. Among the most easily read symptoms are failure to learn in keeping with ability to learn and concrete items of malbehaviour, particularly aggressive malbehaviour. Such behaviour items include temper tantrums, resistance to authority, refusal

to cooperate, bullying or hurting others, cruelty to animals, truancy, stealing, destroying property, cheating, lying, sex misconduct, and other forms of unruly behaviour.

Not so easy to detect as the above-named symptoms are fears expressed through obsessions, compulsions, phobias, inhibitions, anxieties, and worries; emotional immaturity; extreme sensitiveness; great timidity; and daydreaming. Some daydreaming, however, is normal and desirable.

Not difficult to detect but often unnoticed are signs which indicate that a student has developed a low opinion of his own worth and is suffering from feelings of inferiority and insecurity. They include jealousy, insatiable craving for affection, self-centeredness, and seclusiveness. A student may be showing that he is socially and emotionally immature, or he may be revealing his doubt regarding his personal worth when he is too docile and too easily rebuked, when he shows that he is very much afraid of not being wanted, or when he asks too frequently for advice, instructions, or confirmation.

Nervous habits should be considered for their possible implications in terms of physical and mental health. These indicators include stuttering, facial tics and other muscle twitching, fingernail biting, thumb sucking, excessive restlessness while sitting, chronic fatigue, dizzy spells, frequent headaches, eyestrain,

sleeplessness, and walking or talking while asleep. Such symptoms may be produced by physical causes or may be the student's reactions to some intolerable condition. In either case he needs help.

From the above discussion, it is clear that we can not give a list of symptoms that consistently indicate maladjustment. We can only point out some certain ones as possible indicators. Even though a symptom may be a sign of only transitory or minor maladjustment, it should be noted and its possible implications explored.

Symptoms of Adjustive Failure

In speaking of adjustive failure or maladjustment, a negative approach to this evaluation is adopted by focusing on the harmful or undesirable aspects of the way the individual copes with threat and frustration. Whether the maladjustment is severe or mild, four classes of negative signs or symptoms are usually recognized. These include subjective distress, somatic ailments, deviation of the person's behaviour from accepted social norms, and ineffective functioning.

1. Subjective distress is one of the most important symptoms of adjustive difficulty. Perhaps more than any other symptom, such distress brings the person to the professional worker for help. There are several varieties of negatively toned moods or affective states, each

referring to different ways of reacting to threats and frustrations. These are known by the terms "anxiety" or "uneasiness", "depression", "guilt", and "fear", to list the most common examples. If these states of mind appear often and with high intensity (e.g. intense anxiety or deep depression), they make the person's life miserable. Such misery is an unmistakable sign that the person is unsuccessful in adjusting to problems of living. The failure to adjust may be the result of especially unfavourable circumstances of life or may be due to lack of effective ways of meeting the normal stresses of life.

2. Bodily diseases resulting from life stress are another symptom of maladjustment, and the speciality of psychosomatic medicine is concerned with such diseases. Peptic ulcers, intestinal colitis, and high blood pressure are a few of the organic ailments that may have their origin in difficulties of adjustment. They can become so severe as to result in death.

3. Deviations of behaviour from the accepted social norms. When individuals do not behave in accordance with the usual rules, they pose a problem for the society in which they live, and for themselves, because their deviations tend to isolate them from successful contact with others. As such, behaviour deviation often defeats the individual's chances of living socially in an effective happy and comfortable fashion. The deviation from the

expected behaviour is usually offensive, troublesome, and aggravating. The burden of living with such people and the fear of what dangerous behaviour might develop are the primary reasons why people feel they need to institutionalize their mentally ill relatives.

4. Ineffective functioning. There are many forms of this. For example, while taking a test, the excessive anxiety student may interfere with the thinking necessary for successful performance. Under conditions of stress or disaster, effective behaviour may be badly disorganized. In some cases, the individual may be unable to hold a job he is capable of succeeding at because his performance is so unsatisfactory or because poor judgement leads him to act in an unreasonable fashion. One common instance of this is the alcoholic, whose problems are compounded when drinking results in his losing employment. The person who has valuable ideas or knowledge, but who cannot use or communicate these when it is important because he blocks or "clamp up" before others, is also displaying the impaired effectiveness associated with maladjustment. He is prevented from realizing the personal gains that might derive from fully utilizing his capacities.

The four symptoms or consequences of adjustmental difficulties represent the specific cost the individual pays for maladjustment. The cost can also be viewed from the perspective of the society which utilizes human

resources. In identifying adjustive failure or inadequacy by these four types of symptoms, a certain stance has been taken about what is desirable or healthy and what is undesirable or unhealthy. The values we adopt are always embedded in the culture in which we live, and these tend to vary from culture to culture and from era to era. Such variation concerning what is good or bad in mental health or adjustment has been referred to as "cultural relativism". What is considered bad or abnormal also changes with the circumstances.

2.6 PSYCHOTHERAPY

Psychotherapy is a process for treating a problem or an illness by psychological methods. It is a learning situation, involving two or more persons, in which an attempt is made to correct the effects of disruptive experiences or of certain deficiencies in learning. In psychotherapeutic process, the therapist attempts to create for the patient an environment conducive to mental health. The different approaches of the therapist are based on psychlogical dynamics, which involve a special understanding of the cause-and-effect relationships operating in the patient's feelings, thoughts and interactions with others. It is through an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between the therapist and the patient, that the patients learn to face, express and cope effectively with their feelings and thoughts. The

therapist is an important variable in the treatment process. Effective use of special techniques, therefore, depends upon some of the important qualities that the therapists possess and the ability of the therapists to establish a kind of relationship with the patients, so that changes in behaviour could be effected. Three most essential qualities of highly successful therapists are genuineness, non-possessive warmth and accurate empathy.

There are different approaches of the therapists in providing direction to the patients to overcome their difficulties. The psychoanalytic approach, originally developed by Freud, as distinguished from other therapeutic methods, generally finds a heavy emphasis on such techniques as free association, dream analysis, and systematic use of interpretation, catharsis, and emotional re-education. Crucial to the psychoanalytic process is the relationship between the therapist and the patient, involving transference, which provides the emotional leverage for therapy. In general the goal of psychoanalysis is to uncover and resolve emotional conflicts in the patient, many of which stem from early childhood experiences. It should be mentioned here also that since its introduction by Freud, psychoanalysis has gone through several stages of development. At different times different concepts have been stressed - catharsis, free association, and the transfer neuroses, for example.

Today the tendency is to emphasize emotional re-learning. This emphasis is particularly apparent in the recent developments involving so-called "brief" psychoanalysis, which appears to be more like re-education than therapy in the conventional sense. This new approach emphasizes further the close relationship between psychotherapy and the learning process.

Considerably more directive than the psychoanalytic approach is the directive therapy worked out by Adolf Mayer. Directive therapy incorporates parts of the findings of the psychoanalysis but stresses more heavily influences of social experience and learning. It emphasizes the importance of viewing the person as a whole in the total environment. Mayer believed that a maladjusted behaviour involved the acquisition of maladjustive habit patterns and social and personal attitudes. Accordingly, in order to attain maturity, a person must develop new habit patterns as old ones are found unwanted. If an appropriate set of habits is retained, the adult will become insecure and dissatisfied, and he will need either to build up a system of ideas, attitudes, and responses that will in some ways explain his inappropriate habits, or else free himself from the intolerable situation.

Mayer emphasizes direct instruction in therapy. The patient is told about the nature of his difficulties, their sources, and their incidence in the general popula-

tion. A programme is planned for him, sometimes covering his activities down to the last hour of his day. Situations are manufactured and forced upon him so that reconditioning techniques can operate. Thus, when the patient presents himself for therapy, the therapist takes command and, because of his prestige, expects implicit obedience. The therapist also stresses summarizing or synthetizing each session's discussions, thereby stimulating the patient's natural capacity to integrate his experiences - something the maladjusted person finds very difficult to do.

Directive therapy assumes that a patient can be helped best by active intervention in and direct of his life. He is encouraged and given support; he is compelled to go through a period of relatively complete dependency at first. Later, the therapist will require him to show more and more independence and, finally, to break off and guide his own life.

In contrast to directive therapy, the non-directive view, developed by Carl Rogers, holds that a patient can best develop insight into and remedy his difficulties if he is permitted to proceed under his own power and at his own pace. The task of the therapist is to provide the proper atmosphere and clarification; his job is to reflect or mirror the feelings expressed by the patient so that he can hear them expressed in a social situation and

become familiar with their implications. Thus, the therapist offers no new, interpretive material. He does not lead; he follows. In Rogers' view behaviour disorders are presumed to arise because the patient has had no opportunity to clarify his feelings and emotions. As a result the patient is powerless to understand or to explain his feelings, impulses, and conduct or to see that they differ from social and conscious reality. He, therefore misinterprets some facets of reality and develops maladjustive patterns of responding. It is because of this misinterpretation of reality that some people, regardless of their success, can never classify themselves as successful. They have established a self-concept of themselves as failures.

Rogers assumed that everyone has a natural capacity for personality growth and adjustment and that in the maladjusted person this natural drive has been thwarted or defected by environmental obstacles and emotional blocks. The task of the therapist is to get the process of growth growing again by removing these troublesome blocks. Since he has the natural growth forces of a person's personality for allies, the therapist can restrict himself to a passive role. By his permissive, accepting attitude, he encourages the patient to unburden himself of suppressed feelings. Through the technique of reflection, he helps the patient to recognize, clarify, and accept these feelings and

finally, to develop new insight. By striving to keep his own personality unobtrusively in the background, the therapist minimizes the danger of forcing the patient's growth in the wrong direction.

In non-directive therapy, when skillfully applied, it leads to an orderly and predictable sequence of development, the major therapeutic steps being the expression of feeling, the recognition of feelings, and the initiation of new behaviour patterns. As this last stage is reached, the patient begins to feel less and less dependent on the therapist. He begins to realize, at first timidly and then with fewer qualms, that the therapeutic relationship must eventually end. The initiative in making the final break is left to him. And since this step is frequently accompanied by a new upsurge of anxiety, in the final interview the therapist assures him that he may come back if he feels he needs to.

The other approach in psychotherapy is relationship therapy, The psychiatrist Harry Stack Sullivan contributed much to the ideas and procedures of relationship therapy. He emphasizes more on the importance of the interaction between patient and therapist and between the patient and his social surroundings. In effect, relationship therapy maintains that errors occurring during interpersonal relationships - errors, that is, that are made while relating to parents, children, friends, and the like -

are responsible for maladjustment. The therapist tries to rectify these errors by assuming the roles of these other people in the hope that the patient will identify with him and gain a better understanding of what is involved in such relationships. An important tool in relationship therapy is psychodrama. In this technique the therapist suggests a social situation that appears important to the patient and has him act out the roles of the various individuals involved. This acting out produces a catharsis and helps to lessen the patient's social deficiencies. The patient acquires the habit of picturing how other will react to his behaviour, and in this way he learns which habits or traits to discard and which to retain and develop.

The patient as a result of treatment through psychotherapy of some kind is able to get relief from pent-up emotion which are expressed through verbal conversation with the therapist. He becomes able to recognise the symptoms of behaviour of which he was largely unaware, is able to develop some objectivity about himself and his behaviour, understands and recognizes some of his difficulties, becomes more accepting of himself and others and learns to become more reality-oriented.

In the present investigation, the psychotherapeutic method is employed to treat the student teachers, who

are considered as maladjusted, to help in removing their obstacles or blocks, so that, they can recognize, clarify and develop insight into their problems, and develop new behaviour patterns in the desirable direction which is acceptable in their society.

2.7 CONCEPT OF STUDENT CONTROL IDEOLOGY

Student control ideology is used in the present study as one of the major independent variables, and it is therefore essential that its conceptual framework is delineated and its domain is mapped. Control has been a dominant ideology with educational system over centuries. It has been for long conceived that students can be properly moulded through subjecting them to rigorous control. The old theory of formal discipline was meant to endorse the control function of the school system. The under current of thought was that freedom was harmful to proper moulding of children and young man and woman. It underscored requirement for and restraints upon behaviour. Control was conceived as both within and without. Educational institutions being social organizations, society wanted the school system and college system to exercise control over students. The underlying fear was that without control they will be loose and licentious, trouble shooter and troublous. There will be little order and peace to facilitate effective teaching and

learning. Therefore, it was believed that students are to be controlled in the larger interests of the society and in their own interests. Most of the treatises written on education during the colonial rule by the British underscored "control" as an essential feature of educational institutions. They upheld student control as a form of social control, the process by with social order in the society - and educational institutions were part of this social order - could be established and maintained at a reasonable level of peace and productivity. In the heart of this ideology lay the conviction that restraint is an ornament of all group life including institutional life. Control ideology was conceived and enforced more vigorously at the school level than at the college level and university level. But after the World War II this ideology has begun to undergo revolutionary changes.

The control ideology though it still rules has lost much of its former vigour, rigour and venom. This happened largely in open societies. In traditional Asiatic and African societies, the control ideology still prevails but it is more marked and crippled in smaller rural habitations than in towns and more in towns than in cities. This is because cities, towns and bigger villages are being exposed to more socialistic and democratic experiences.

In plain language the concept of control includes the ideology of norms and standards, expectation of

ethical and disciplined conduct or behaviour from students, and rules and regulations that deal with content of the students' behaviour to be controlled. Rewards or punishments, praises or scolding, sanctions and penalties are the means used to exercise control.

Donald Willower and his colleagues (1967) have developed prototypes of custodial and humanistic orientation toward student control ideology. Willower regards this classification - the specification of control typology as an early step in the development of a conceptual framework.

Custodial Ideology : Government institutions and autocratically ruled Departments serve as a model for this type of ideology. The institution reflecting this ideology is headed by a bureaucratic and dictatorial head. It has a highly controlled setting for teachers and students. Teachers are stereotyped in their perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. Willower (1967) observes that students are stereotyped in term of their appearance, behaviour and parents' status. In universities and colleges such delineation of student behaviour cannot be considered valid at least in the present times, but teachers do entertain such expectation from students. Their own behaviour reveals considerable constraints.

The perception of teachers about students is not positive and bias free. Students are perceived as irres-

ponsible, not interested in learning and without decorum or decency. Whereever and whenever teachers can, they do not hesitate to try to control students through failing them in tests or harassing them in one way or the other.

Where this orientation prevails, teachers are not close to students and hardly there are occasions for constructive clash of minds between the Department Head/ Dean and teachers and between teachers and students. There is over emphasis on task-accomplishments but group maintenance and morale go begging. Students as well as teachers are least motivated from within. The output may be high or low, but as it is under compulsion, it lacks intrinsic worth and durability. Teachers conceive the Department as more or less an autocratic organisation where they derive little intrinsic happiness and job satisfaction. It is possible that some of them are not happy at the treatment meted out to them by the leadership in the Department/or Faculty. This leads to bickerings and conflicts among themselves, which also get reflected in their treatment of and relationship with the students.

Humanistic Ideology: A Department/or a Faculty where this ideology prevails prominently, a picture contrary to what was seen previously in relation to Control Ideology obtains. Teachers and students form a happy, well adjusted and harmonious group. The institution is conceived as a family where each member cares and

loves others. No attempt is made by Department Head/ Faculty Dean to control and coerce teachers and students. There is ongoing interaction among all the members of the Faculty - Dean and Heads of Department, a Department Head and teachers and teachers and students. The interaction is in positive direction and proves to be fruitful to entire Faculty Community. Staff members, and even leaders, learn from the experiences of one another. Willower (1967) observes "student's learning and behaviour is viewed in psychological and sociological terms rather than moralistic terms. Learning is looked upon as an engagement in worthwhile activity rather than the passive absorption of facts. The withdrawn student is seen as a problem equal to that of the overactive, troublesome one."

In institutions where this ideology prevails, teachers try to understand students and remain close to them. They are optimistic and take constructive view of the suggestions of the Department Head or of the Dean and the criticism of the students. They develop faith in students and their evaluation of their (teachers') class performance. They are prepared to discuss test results with any student who desires clarification about how he/she is assessed. The humanistic teacher regards student as a friend and his elder as well wisher and guide. Not only does he desire that his individuality is respected in the Faculty, but he himself respects the

individuality of his colleagues and students. He enters into relationship with all members of the faculty as comrades in the pursuit of common goal - the betterment of the Faculty (which means the greater good of all leaders, teachers and students). While in the class, he builds up and maintains a democratic classroom climate. He cooperates with the Head/Dean and his colleagues to ensure flexibility in status and rules. This type of institution is characterized by open channels of three-way communication, downward, upward, and horizontal. Teachers and students have abundant scope of self-determination. Nobody shirks responsibility. The Departments - the Faculty function deriving strength from the free will of teachers and students.

In the present investigation, the investigator attempted to study the ideology of student teachers, as one of the independent variables, in relation to their adjustment.

2.8 ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING PROFESSION

Allport (1935) defines attitude as a mental and neutral state of readiness organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's responses to all objects and situations with which it is related. Attitude helps us adjust to our environment by providing a certain amount of predictibility.

We have an established repertory of reaction to a given category of attitude and object. Attitudes are learned. We form and develop attitude. When a person experiences a rewarding state of affairs in association with an attitude object, his effect towards the object will become more favourable. Conversely, if the experience is punishing, the person will change his effect in a negative direction. Attitude, the end product of the socialization process, significantly influence man's response to cultural products, to other persons and to group of persons. If the attitude of a person towards a given object, or class of objects is known, it can be used in conjunction with the situational and other dispositional variable to predict and explain reactions of the person to that class of subjects.

All educators are unanimous in their opinion that the pivot for educational construction rests on a well qualified class of teachers having a real aptitude for teaching and bearing a very favourable attitude towards the profession. The teacher has a very important role in the matter of qualitative improvement of education.

Science and technology, the prime movers of change have to be introduced on a large-scale; our society and especially the teaching community who inculcate the same in their students have to inscribe the scientific attitude before the process of change could get under way, since

attitudes are fashioned to a large extent through the impact of culture on the individual. Attitudes have a dominating and lasting influence on behaviour of the teachers.

Psychologically, many traits ranging from inconsequential manerisms to important attitudes are learned through the generation of the identification mechanism. Students identify themselves with the teachers and their achievements and interests through their constant interaction. Attitude have been found to be of such a major importance for success in the vocational life of the individuals. The professional efficiency of a teacher depends, to a considerable extent, upon the attitude which he bears towards his profession.

It is believed that attitude is a thing which can be modified through education. Unfavourable attitude of the student teachers towards teaching profession would effect their adjustments to college life and their future work as well. Improving the attitude of the student teachers towards the teaching profession should be one of the direct responsibilities of the teacher training colleges. This cannot be satisfactorily undertaken without the measurement of attitude. The knowledge of the attitude of student teachers towards their profession would be useful to training colleges to find out how far training improves

the attitudes of the student teachers. To the extent the principles governing the changes of attitude are known, they may be used to manipulate the individual's reaction to relevant objects as exemplified in education and psychotherapy.

In the present investigation, the investigator has selected the attitude of the student teachers towards teaching profession as one of the independent variables.

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