

## CHAPTER - I

### THE PROBLEM

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## CHAPTER - I

### THE PROBLEM

#### 1.1. Introduction:

One of the unique attributes of man is his awareness of himself and the world he lives in. With this awareness comes both the will and the capacity to understand himself. The primitive man was preoccupied mainly with the need for survival in a world of constant physical danger. In technologically advanced societies, man succeeded in controlling his physical environment to a remarkable degree. However, he seems to be still puzzled about the complexities of his social world. His search for security and satisfaction in a necessarily interdependent and interpersonal world still seems to be blocked by his ignorance of the ways of his own species. In his efforts at getting over the ignorance-induced barriers and also at getting mastery over the social world, he has been able to identify at least some of the significant dimensions and parameters of his adjustive behaviour.

The present investigation is an attempt at understanding some of the determinants of the adjustment pattern of Bangladesh adolescent boys and girls.

## 1.2. Historical Emergence of the Problem of Adjustment:

The history of the subject matter of adjustment actually begins with primitive man's awareness about the existence of extremely deviant and disturbed individuals. He developed the "spirit theory" to account for natural phenomena that he could not understand. If a person behaved in an acceptable manner, he was thought to be inhabited by a good spirit. Any deviation or illness was seen as the result of the patient's loss of his soul, of his being possessed by an evil spirit (Frank, 1963).

A second trend of thought came in the ancient period when religion developed out of man's efforts to replace superstitions with "explanations". This religious explanation was more acceptable and man had made a satisfactory adjustment to life on the basis of his religious beliefs. Alexander and Selesnick (1966) point out that the ancient Hebrew view was that God or demons represented the source of both health and illness.

The Greek civilization period which was dominated by the thoughts of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, helped in the development of the "rational approach" i.e., natural explanation of the natural phenomena in the understanding of man, nature and society (Lazarus, 1969). For the understanding and explanation of human nature, the medieval period was the dark

period associated with the most inhuman treatment of mentally ill persons (Lazarus, 1969).

In the 19th Century, Dorothea Dix first started the mental health movement in the U.S.A. and this was further reinforced in 1908 by Clifford Beers, in his book 'A Mind That Found Itself' and in his founding of the Mental Hygiene Society, which is now known as the International Committee for Mental Hygiene.

The transition from magic to natural science was manifested first in the physical sciences and then in psychology. The emphasis on natural causes eventually evolved into the psychologists' present working position that behaviour is caused by biological and social factors. This "reflect-arche" approach finds its clearest statement in the mechanistic explanations of B.F. Skinner and J.B. Watson, whereas the "tension-reduction" approach, represented in psychoanalysis, sees behaviour as an attempt to maintain a tension-free state (Shibutani, 1968). The scheme rests on an organic model, and an effort is made to account for the things men do in terms of adjustive tendencies inherent in all living organisms. Activity gets underway when the homeostatic balance of an organism is disturbed and behaviour represents an attempt to restore the lost balance.

The next, named "motivational", approach places emphasis on avowed intention. According to Shibutani (1968), direction of conduct is influenced by conscious intent. Since men order and label their experiences symbolically, intentions are generally expressed in linguistic forms and, to some, this intention is "motive".

The final approach to behaviour is the General System Theory (Bertalanffy, 1968) which conceives of the human being as an "open system", a system within which he is in constant interaction with environment.

### 1.3. The Concept of Adjustment:

The term adjustment that originated from the biological concept of adaptation was the cornerstone in Darwin's (1859) theory of evolution and emphasized the reality of the external world over and above that of the "man-adapting". Darwin maintained that only those species most fitted to adapt to the hazards of the physical world survived. Adjustment and adaptation represent a functional perspective for viewing and understanding human behaviour. Psychologists are more concerned with psychological survival or adjustment, rather than physiological survival or adaptation.

Of the various concepts that suggest themselves in a description of the vital phenomenon of adjustment, some



concepts such as 'adaptation', 'regulation', 'co-ordination', are well established in most life sciences. However, this life process has often confronted psychologists caught amidst the Newtonian and the Darwinian theories and, more recently, the General System Theory (Bertalanffy, 1968).

1.3.a. Adjustment as a process of need reduction:

The psychological meaning of adjustment can be explained in terms of need reduction (Lazarus, 1969). The process starts with the arousal of the need and ends with its satisfaction. In human beings, internally, these needs have to do with homeostasis, or the necessity that an organism maintains equilibrium in energy reserve, chemical composition of the blood, etc., giving rise to well-organised needs as hunger, thirst, and sleep. Externally, there is the need of avoiding pain and other irritating influences. The process of adjustment consists of the efforts of an organism to overcome frustration in achieving the satisfaction of a need. According to Freud, it is the supreme tendency of the organism to get rid of tensions and drives and come to rest in a state of equilibrium governed by the 'principle of stability' (cited in Bertalanffy, 1968). This need reduction or homeostasis represents the principle of adjustment at its primitive level, the adjustment of the body within itself.

### 1.3.b. Adjustment as achievement:

Looking at adjustment as achievement is pragmatic because it helps in preventing unsatisfactory adjustment. According to Lazarus (1969), adequacy of adjustment involves three approaches :

i) The negative approach: the most common frame of reference for evaluating adjustment emphasizes the negative aspect, the bad consequences of maladjustment. These bad consequences are unhappiness, bodily diseases stemming from psychological origins, behaviour that is away from social standard, etc. To the degree that these negative aspects are found in a given individual, he is said to be maladjusted.

ii) The positive approach: this approach is expressed as a corrective to the more traditional negative view. It emphasizes striving and effectiveness in spite of the signs or symptoms of stress that may be produced. According to this approach, stress is a normal and healthy part of life, out of which come competence, creativity, and depth of experience.

iii) The statistical approach: this third frame of reference for viewing adjustment emphasizes deviation from the average. Here, in his adjustment, man is compared with some norms and standards. If he conforms to the norm, he is adjusted and if he does not, he is regarded as maladjusted.

With the help of the Mean, Standard Deviation, and Normal Distribution Curve, this approach declares that a person falling in its slender tail is maladjusted and person in or around the mid-point of the curve is adjusted.

1.3.c. Adjustment as positive striving:

Following the mental hygiene orientation, Gruenberg (1953) suggests that, though failure to live up to the expectation of those around him may constitute mental illness, one should also consider the person's failure to live up to his own potentialities.

Frank (1953) states that healthy personalities continue to grow, develop, and mature through life, accepting responsibilities, finding fulfilments, without paying too high a cost personally or socially, as they participate in maintaining the social order.

Many normal situations are stressful. Some individuals, through these, develop mental disease, while others may develop, out of them, a more complex but more successful personality. It is this successful coping with the "normal stressful situation" that Henry (1953) regards as indicative of mental health.

Jahoda (1955) explained the positive striving aspects of behaviour in terms of three criteria; (i) the person attempts

at mastery of his environment, (ii) he maintains a stable integration of behaviour, (iii) he perceives the world and himself correctly, independent of his personal needs.

People do not always work for the satisfaction of primary drives. They have a desire to have an effect on the environment i.e., effective drive. For White (1960), striving for competence is not merely a tool of adjustment, the means of gratifying primary drives, but is based on an inherent property of man, the basic drive of effectance.

Sechrest and Wallace (1967) viewed the positive striving model of adjustment from different comprehensive dimensions. Adjustment, here, is seen as (i) positive self-regard and self-awareness, (ii) a tendency to fulfil unique potential or to self-actualize, (iii) an integration or organization of personality, (iv) an accurate perception of reality, (v) a relative freedom from need distortion of perception, (vi) an autonomy or capacity for independent behaviour, (vii) environmental mastery, (viii) efficiency in problem-solving.

#### 1.3.d. Adjustment as a process of conformity:

At the present age of conformity, adjustment is often conceptualized as a process of conformity. According to Asch (1956), the individual adjusts to the group pressure by stating

his own judgement in such a way as to conform to that of the people around him.

Sometimes, in adjusting through conformity, inhibition of behaviour takes place. The individual may be led to refuse to take action and to express a stand on an issue. Under many social circumstances this may be more insidious than the individual not only tends to yield on particular opinion but also tends to yield even his right to express an opinion..

When the environmental condition is of a threatening nature, the individual adjusts with the situation by showing conformity in behaviour because there is fear of 'being out of step' and attack. Sometimes political changes in the country may affect the present trend of behaviour which earlier favoured independence of thought and expression. The individual under changed political situation, may be hardpressed to accommodate to the prevailing political winds (Kretch, et. al., 1962).

In a conflicting situation where the person wants to act, think, and believe in a way and society puts pressure to think and act in a different way, anxiety is produced. This anxiety interferes in the healthy transactive behaviour. Research (Naidu and Sinha, 1972) shows that the higher the anxiety, the higher is the conformity. And this conformity is not the active mastery over the environment but a passive

acceptance of the social conditions. This process of adjustment excludes the possibility that an individual can take a stand against his environment and change it in ways beneficial to his own requirements.

1.3.e. Adjustment as "Open-System":

The General System Theory (GST, Bertalanffy, 1968) amounts to saying that there is a system into which matter is introduced from outside. Within the system, the material undergoes reactions which partly may yield components of a higher complexity i.e., anabolism. On the other hand, the material is catabolized and the end products of catabolism eventually leaves the system (see Figure 1, P.12 ). For Allport (1969), strengthening anabolic and fighting against catabolic function is the sign of a well-adjusted personality, and maladjustment is marked by a preponderance of the catabolic functioning.

Man, within the GST (Bertalanffy, 1968), has been conceptualized as a complex adaptive system which is open both internally and externally. This openness of the system is characterized by:

i) Intake and output of both matter and energy: in contrast to conventional equilibria (Cannon, 1939), the open system maintains that the person is continually influencing and being influenced by the environment apart from which he

cannot be understood,

ii) Maintenance of steady state: in this state, the organism does not go back to a previous state of affairs but goes forward into a new organization that keeps it somewhat in balance. In contrast to the concept of homeostasis (Cannon, 1939), which places the instigation of behaviour "outside" the organism, the steady state postulates the organism as actor rather than merely responder,

iii) An increase of order over time, owing to increase in the complexity and differentiation of parts i.e., "negative entropy": Allport (1968) stated it as the tendency of human beings to go beyond steady states and to strive for an enhancement and elaboration of internal order even at the cost of considerable disequilibrium. White's (1960) emphasis on "competence" and Erikson's (1968 b) "search for identity" recognize this characteristics of open system,

iv) Extensive transaction with environment: according to Allport (1968), the behaviour of an individual should be understood in terms of its cultural and situational context. Since a human being is conceived<sup>of</sup> as an "Open-system", the nature of the forces in the whole transactional field (organism-environment) will determine the growth of the system. An individual's adjustment is adequate to the extent that he has established a harmonious relationship between himself and

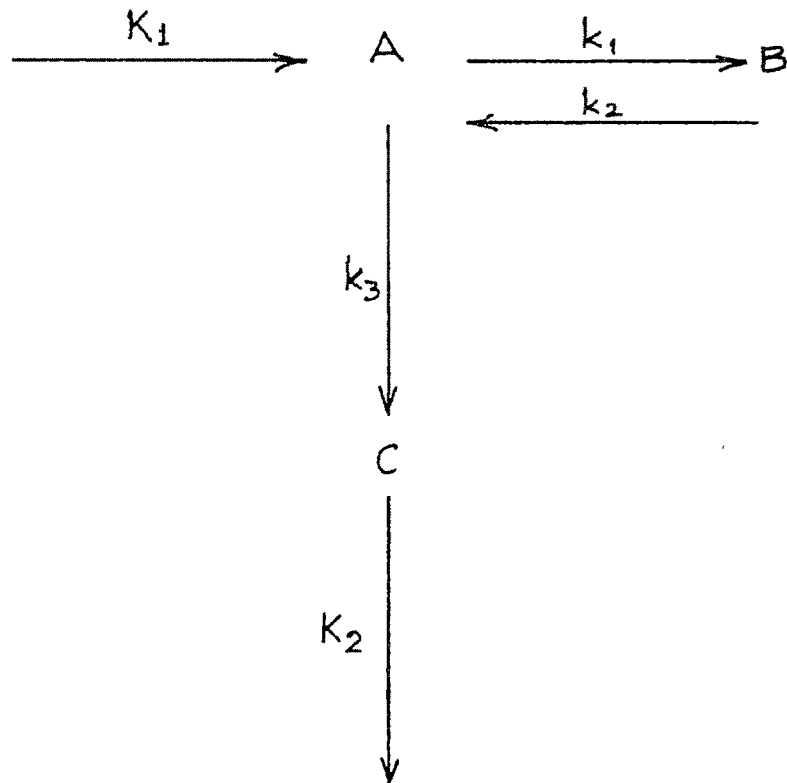


FIGURE 1 : MODEL OF A SIMPLE OPEN SYSTEM. THE COMPONENT 'A' IS INTRODUCED INTO THE SYSTEM AND TRANSFORMED IN A REVERSIBLE REACTION INTO 'B'; IT IS CATABOLISED IN AN IRREVERSIBLE REACTION, INTO 'C' WHICH EVENTUALLY IS EXCRETED.  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$  ARE CONSTANTS OF IMPORT AND EXPORT, RESPECTIVELY;  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ ,  $k_3$  ARE REACTION CONSTANTS. [ADAPTED FROM BUCKLEY, 1968; P.17]



the conditions, situations, and persons who comprise his physical and social environments (Hattema, 1979; Lazarus, 1969).

In a comprehensive way it could be said that adjustment is "Beyond the Homeostasis Principle" (Berte Lanffy, 1968) since the S-R scheme misses the realms of play, exploratory activities, creativity, self-realization, and the equilibrium principle misses the fact that behavioural activities are more than relaxation of tensions.

#### 1.4. Problems of Adjustment: Some Related Studies.

The problem of adjustment is an old one. A number of studies, both in Western and Indian contexts, have been done on adjustment in relation to different areas of life. Some of the studies related to the problem under investigation are briefly discussed below.

##### 1.4.a. Adjustment in general:

A number of studies have been done on the adjustment problems of adolescents in different areas of life yielding contradicting findings. Kundu and Mitra (1969) found adolescents to be more or less 'average' on all areas of adjustment. Others (Gupta and Gupta, 1980) found social, personal, and school to be the most prominent problem areas and physique, health, sex, courtship and marriage to be <sup>the</sup> least prominent areas of adolescent problems. Kakkar (1967) studied the adolescents

of Allahabad and found that increase or decrease in problems of one area registers a corresponding increase or decrease in other areas of adjustment.

1.4.b. Adjustment and emotionality:

Emotional problems of adolescents were studied by Kumar (1973). He explained the higher sense of insecurity among boys in terms of the present state of unemployment and tendency toward day-dreaming among girls in terms of restricted facilities for expression. A significant negative correlation between adjustment and anxiety, adjustment and conflict, and a positive correlation between anxiety and conflict was reported on adolescents by Verma and Upadhyay (1981).

1.4.c. Adjustment and school-related behaviour:

Using passed and failed students as subjects, Tripathi (1965) found that school and social areas had maximum problems whereas home and health areas had comparatively less problems for both the passed and failed groups. Bhagia (1966) studied 2550 adolescents and found significant sex difference in adjustment. Girls were found to be better adjusted in their adjustment to general environment and organisational aspects of the school. His results also revealed a significant urban-rural difference (rural adolescents better adjusted) in their adjustment to teachers and mates.

Studies show that high academic achievement is related to good adjustment (Chawla, 1970). In comparative studies between over and under achievers, under-achievers were found to be significantly poor adjusted in home, health and school areas than over-achievers (Patel and Joshi, 1970; Saxena, 1979).

1.4.d. Adjustment in relation to age and sex:

Concerning the questions of 'when' and 'what' type of problems occur to 'whom' at 'what' age, Kallstelt (1955) studied adolescents of 13 to 19 years of age group and found that older groups suffer from greater tension and anxiety. Younger males were found to be poorest in emotional adjustment and older males were found to have better contactual ability but intense social insecurity. And girls' most difficult problems were found to occur in 13 to 16 years and older girls were found to show better emotional adjustment.

Adams (1964) found that boys reported school and financial problems, and girls reported interpersonal and family problems as their biggest problems. He also found a tendency for extrinsic problem solution to increase with age for both sexes, and for intrinsic solution to decrease with age for girls but to remain relatively constant for boys.

Studies with age variable show contradicting results. Parameswaran (1958) and Nataraja (1968) found a nonsignificant effect of age on adjustment whereas Krishna (1982) found a significant difference between adolescents and youths in regard to adjustment.

#### 1.4.e. Adjustment and religion:

To study the effect of religion on adjustment, Bhusan (1978) studied adolescent girls. His finding indicated that religious adolescents were significantly better adjusted than the non-religious group in all areas of adjustment.

#### 1.4.f. Adjustment and family relationship:

Studies done on the nature of family and relationship among the family members revealed that a democratic home environment with closer parent-child relationship provides healthy condition for social growth and development through guidance in social participation. It enhances the developing ego and growth toward independence of the adolescents (Landis and Stone, 1952; Liccoine, 1955; Mussen et. al, 1963). Morrow Wilson (1961) found that parental affection, trust, encouragement, sharing of ideas influence positively in academic achievement by fostering positive attitudes toward teachers, schools, and interest in intellectual activities. Strict parental attitudes were found to influence negatively and reflect in the level of overt hostility of the child (Sherwood, 1962).

#### 1.4.g. Adjustment and health:

Present health condition as a factor of adjustment was studied and it was found that those having respiratory disease have behavioural disturbances (Stolt, 1962a) and those

suffering from more than one disease are more disturbed than those with one disease (Stolt, 1962b). Palsane (1970) found that adolescents with good health are significantly superior in overall adjustment to those with poor health.

#### 1.5. The Concept of Adolescence:

Adolescence represents a period of adjustive crises (Lazarus, 1969; Marvin, 1955). Young people are apt to have an especially stormy period in life before they achieve full maturity. Psychologically, adolescence is the "marginal situation" (Muuss, 1975) in which new adjustments have to be made. Psychosocially, adolescence, a period "to grow up", is the transition period from dependent childhood to self-sufficient adulthood. And chronologically, it is the time span from 12 or 13 to <sup>the</sup>early 20's.

In research, the adolescents are either overestimated as sick or underestimated in their capacities to recover from the crises and achieve stability. Several attempts have been made to define adolescence biologically, psychologically, psycho-socially, sociologically, psycho-analytically and in terms of social learning theory by different theorists.

##### 1.5.a. Biological theories of adolescence:

Biological theories consider adolescence as a unique phase in human development and emphasize the biological and

physical changes of puberty which mark its onset.

Stanly Hall (1844-1924), who is considered the father of the study of adolescence, and who bridged the philosophical, speculative approach of the past and the scientific, empirical approach of the present, described adolescence as a new-birth. In his recapitulation theory, he described four stages of human development namely, infancy, childhood, youth, and adolescence. He described adolescence as a period of "storm and stress" (Sturm und Drang) which is characterized by tendencies of instability of this developmental phase and the fluctuation between emotional, social, and ideological extremes of the individual (Hall, 1916).

Gesell (1946b), considered adolescence as the crucial transition period from childhood to adulthood. He termed the time span (from 11 years to early 20's) as "youth" and believed that biology controls not only changes in growth, glandular secretion, development of primary and secondary sex characteristics, but also abilities and attitudes (Gesell, et. al, 1956). Unlike Hall, he considered adolescence as a ripening process and the age levels he used were considered only as an approximation, with a slow process of change from one level to the next.

During adolescence, numerous biological changes occur in which all bodily cells are affected. According to Katcha-

dourian (1977) and Meredith (1970), because of the functioning of different hormones, the period is marked by the development of primary and secondary sex characteristics and physical changes. Due to the functioning of 'Somatotrophic' (for growth), 'Estrogen' and 'Androgen' (for sex) hormones, sex organs of adolescent boys and girls reach their structural and functional maturity. Secondary sex characteristics like change in voice, growth of pubic hair for boys, and breast development, beginning of menstrual cycle, growth of pubic hair, structural and functional maturity of the ovary and uterus for girls, develop (Berzonsky, 1981).

Adolescence is also conceived<sup>of</sup> as a period of 'growth spurt' (Katchadourian, 1977; Meredith, 1970). Due to the functioning of growth hormone, adolescents increase in height which is comparatively rapid for girls. Now, weight increase is distributed over areas of the body. This 'spurt' seems to involve increase in leg length first, then trunk length, followed by chest and shoulder development.

#### 1.5.b. Psychological theories of adolescence:

Psychological theories represent a movement away from biological models and stress psychological processes as the central factor in adolescent development.

Lewin (1935, 1939, 1948) defined adolescence as a transition from child to adulthood, which is characterized by

deeper and far reaching changes, a faster growth rate, and differentiation of the life-space as compared with the preceding stage of late childhood. In infancy, a child's life-space is unstructured and undifferentiated. As he matures, his life-space increases in structure and differentiation, fewer restrictions are placed on his freedom to move, and his ability to deal effectively with the increased life space grows. During adolescence, many more regions of the life-space become potentially accessible. But, according to Lewin (1948), often it is not clear to the adolescent whether or not he is supposed to enter these regions. Sometimes he enters such a region where he is not supposed to; at other times, he does not enter a new region where he is supposed to, and in both cases, he experiences conflict. This uncertainty of the undefined space of free movement is, for Lewin, the unpredictable aspect of adolescent behaviour.

The transition from childhood to adulthood may be sudden, as Mead (1953) said, puberty means "beginning of adult life and responsibility" (p. 107), or it may be gradual. If the transition period is prolonged and the children as a group are clearly separated from adults, the adolescent finds himself in a social situation in which his group belonging is not clearly defined. The adolescent in such an 'in-between' situation is called "marginal man" (see Figure 2, p. 21 ). This marginality increases instability, uncertainty of behaviour, self-hate i.e., internal tension, and a constant conflict over



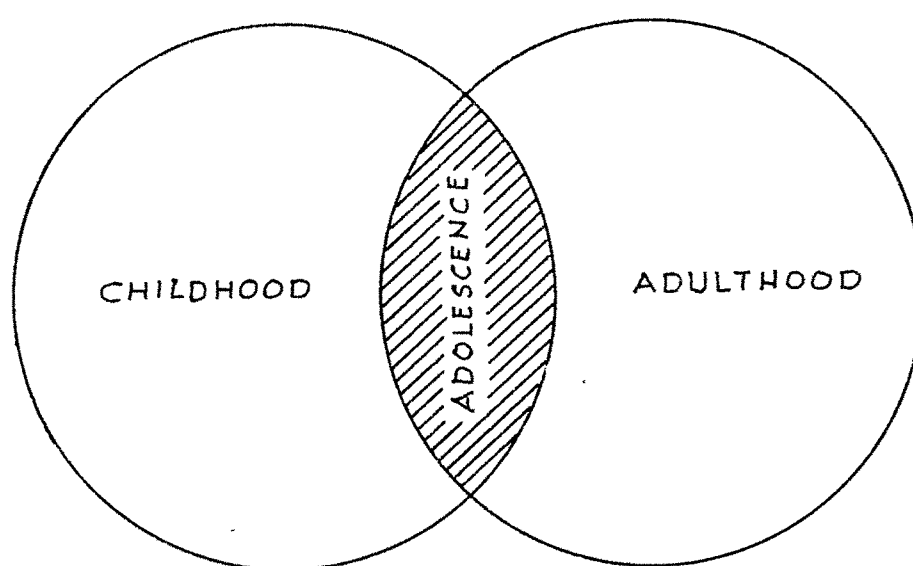


FIGURE 2: THE ADOLESCENT AS A MARGINAL MAN. THE ADOLESCENT BELONGING TO A GROUP WHICH CAN BE VIEWED AS A OVERLAPPING REGION OF THE CHILDRENS' AND THE ADULTS' GROUP BELONGING TO BOTH OF THEM, OR AS STANDING BETWEEN THEM, NOT BELONGING TO EITHER ONE.

[ADAPTED FROM MUUSS, 1975, P. 128]

group belonging and a lack of role definition i.e., external tension. For Lewin (1948), "adolescents are people who belong neither here nor there, standing between the groups".(P.179).

Kroh (1944, 1951), in his theory of 'phase structure' mentioned three stages of development which occur in distinguishable rhythms. These are: (i) infancy and early childhood, (ii) elementary school years, (iii) adolescence. According to Kroh, the beginning of the adolescent period is characterized by depressive mood, changing interests, hypersensitivity, restlessness and search for one's own self. This period helps the adolescent to develop positive relationship with the external environment and more realistic planning of life goals.

According to Spranger (1955), adolescence is not only a transition from childhood to physiological maturity, but also an age during which the relatively undifferentiated mental structure of the child reaches full maturity, and a definite, long lasting value hierarchy is established. He pointed out that adolescent development may be experienced in three different rhythms or patterns; (i) the adolescent sees himself as another person when reaches maturity, (ii) the adolescent gradually acquires cultural values and ideas, (iii) the adolescent resolves crises and contributes to his own growth and development through active participation, through energetic and goal-directed efforts.

#### 1.5.c. Psycho-social theories of adolescence:

Psycho-social theories emphasize personality mechanism as psychological, and environment as social factor in determining adolescent development.

Davis (1944) described adolescent development as a continuous process of social reward and punishment. The process leads to the development of "socialized anxiety", and anticipation of punishment for acceptable and nonacceptable behaviour. This anxiety increases with the onset of adolescence. According to Davis (1944), "Adolescents with a strongly developed social anxiety, therefore, usually strive for the approved social goals most eagerly and learn most successfully", (p. 208).

Havighurst (1951) shifted the emphasis from socialized anxiety to the need of the organism, by which society defines the attainment of certain stages of development. For Havighurst (1951), "A developmental task is a midway between an individual's need and a social demand" (p. 4). Developmental tasks are the skills, knowledge, functions and attitudes that an adolescent has to acquire at a certain point in his life, successful mastery of which results in healthy adjustment and prepares the adolescent for the harder task ahead.

#### 1.5.d. Sociological theories of adolescence:

Sociological theories focus on social institutions and the position of the individual in society, i.e., on the

adolescent's role and status as the determiners of his development.

According to Margaret Mead (1950), in Samoa, each girl develops a sense of responsibility by her early involvement in family duties. No basic change takes place during adolescence; the degree of responsibility increases, and the amount and quality of work increases as the child matures and grows stronger. The Samoan adolescent does not experience any sharp break in his activities and social expectations.

Benedict (1954) assumed that in "age-grade society", which emphasizes discontinuity in child-rearing and where different behaviour is demanded at different age level, emotional strain is the result. Cultural conditioning that is continuous in nature is marked by smooth and gradual growth.

David (1960) pointed out that adolescence represents a phase of development in which physical maturation moves far ahead of social maturity. In most societies, power and status are dependent on social position and experience which comes in middle age. Thus, despite his physical maturity, the adolescent is placed in socially subordinate position.

The cultural approach for adolescent development (Halsey, 1977) posits that the adolescent experience differs in different cultures. Simpler societies prescribe a relatively

short ritual, after which the adolescent immediately assumes his place as an adult. However, in economically backward societies, the adolescent is influenced by unemployment problems and sees drop out from the educational institute as logical. In the middle class, the youth's motivation for academic achievement may be the result of both academic ability and the realization that it can be put to good use. In modern culture, adolescents' economic and emotional dependence on parents often clashes with his peer-group-generated independence. The degree of stress produced by such conflicts depends on the family in which the adolescent has been reared. A democratic family, regardless of social class or ethnic background, tends to produce cheerful, self-reliant, and self-accepting youngsters.

#### 1.5.e. Psycho-analytic theories of adolescence:

The psycho-analytic theories of adolescence state that stages of development are genetically determined and relatively independent<sup>en</sup> of environmental influence.

In his developmental theory, Freud (1925) presented an explanation of 'when' and 'how' the id, ego, and superego emerge and develop. His theory concentrated on the transformation and relocation of the psychic energy. For Freud (1915, 1925), the libidinal energy with which the child is born, is not unlimited in amount. During development, this energy becomes localized in various bodily regions known as erogenous

zones. Excess amount of libidinal energy in any of the erogenous zones causes excitation, irritation, which seeks release. Failure to release tension may result in 'fixation' of libidinal energy in one of the erogenous zones. Adolescent personality is markedly influenced by how one has coped with energy exchange during childhood.

Freud's "stage" theory holds that the child goes through five stages of development (see Figure 3, p.31).

i) Oral stage: At birth the infant is a bundle of reflexes, urges and basic desires which are to be satisfied. Psychic energy now is located in the oral zone and, through oral activity, needs can be satisfied.

ii) Anal stage: This stage begins at the end of second year when the source of pleasure shifts from the oral to the anal region. Generally, this shift coincides with effort at toilet training. From this time, parental expectation of increased self-reliance and competence from the child leads to the emergence of ego.

iii) Phallic stage: During this stage in early puberty, libidinal energy is transferred to the genital region. The means by which the individual copes with this transformation provides the basis for the emergence of superego. The reality principle becomes increasingly important during this stage, subordinating the pleasure principle to the reality-testing function of ego.

iv) Latency period : This period is termed as 'libidinal calm' characterized by an absence of sexual striving. At this stage, psychic energy may be channelled into other concerns such as scholastic activities, athletic pursuits, or the refinement of social skills.

v) Genital period : Adolescence is the period of genital primacy. Freud (1925) considered reproduction to be one of the major aims of genital maturity. Early developmental periods are concerned primarily with the release of self-preservative energies whereas the genital stage is concerned with the satisfaction of reproductive energies. Sexual maturity, during this stage, influences the total nervous system; it not only produces increased excitability, but at the same time decreases resistance to the pathological symptoms. During adolescence, therefore, a person is especially vulnerable to the development of psycho-pathology.

Freud's (1925) earlier position held that the stages follow consecutively and that each is the prerequisite for the next. Thus, anal gratification comes only after preoccupation with the oral region. However, in his later approach, Freud (1933) developed the concept that one psychosexual stage is not finished or outgrown when the next one is reached. For Freud, psychosocial development<sup>is</sup> not sequential, rigidly defined, but continuous, and allows for overlapping in the successive maturation of the erogenous zones that are characteristic of each of the stages.

Otto Rank (1945) explained that during adolescence crucial aspect of personality development i.e., the change from dependence to independence, occurs. One of the important and difficult developmental tasks for the adolescent is to establish socially valued volitional independence. This newly developed need for independence and the struggle for its attainment lie at the root of many adolescents' personal relationships and their complications.

Sullivan (1947) emphasized the pervasive interaction between the organism and its environment, mainly interpersonal environment. He emphasized the genetic process and codifies its stages upto late adolescence. In each stage, it is the maturity abilities of the child that make him aware of particular aspect of his interpersonal environment and able to deal with them. These stages are: infancy, childhood, juvenile era, pre-adolescence, early adolescence, and late adolescence. For Sullivan, adolescence is characterized by increased interest in opposite sex and acquisition of ways of dealing with others in an adult fashion. Movement from infancy to late adolescence is viewed as a natural progression.

Central to Erikson's (1963a, 1968b, 1981) theory, is the assumption that ego-development of a person is marked by a series of eight separate stages (see Figure 3, p. 31 ), each stage having a "syntonic" and a "dystonic" aspect. All these



stages in the life cycle have an optimal time (see Figure 3) and when all the stages have matured, a well-adjusted and healthy personality comes into existence.

Adolescence, the focus of the fifth stage in Erikson's chart of the life cycle, is regarded as highly significant in the individual's psychosocial development. No longer a child but not yet an adult, the adolescent is confronted with various social demands and role changes that are essential for meeting the challenges of adulthood.

Erikson (1968b) theorizes that the new psychological dimension which appears during adolescence has a sense of ego identity at the positive and role confusion at the negative end. Adolescence is not the summation of childhood identifications. Rather, the adolescent has to integrate all the experiences of his previous stages into a personal identity that shows awareness of both past and future. The adolescent's behaviour is an attempt to establish some continuity between the past, the present and the future.

Identity is not given to the adolescent, nor does it appear as a maturational phenomenon; it must be searched for or acquired through sustained individual efforts. Failure to work on one's own identity formation leads to role diffusion or identity crisis which may result in alienation. He suggests that successful resolution of ego-identity and role-confusion

crisis depends on the adolescent's ability to perceive and abide by the social mores, ethics, and ideologies of society.

1.5.f. Cognitive theories of adolescence:

Cognitive theories focus on the development<sup>of</sup> reasoning, moral behaviour, judgement of the adolescents.

According to Piaget (1947b, 1952b, 1954), development comprises of four cognitive stages: sensori-motor, pre-operational, concrete operation, and formal operation (see Figure 3, p. 31). Adolescence is the stage of formal operation which is characterised by the 'conquest of thought'. The adolescent places emphasis on 'why' things occur rather than simply describing 'what' has taken place. He conducts mental experiments. According to Inhelder and Piaget (1958), the adolescent not only tries to adapt his ego to his social environment but also tries to adjust the environment to his ego.

During this formal reasoning stage, the adolescent conceptualizes both his own thought and the thought of others. But he fails to differentiate between what others are thinking about and his own mental preoccupations. The beliefs and feelings that others are as obsessed with his behaviour and appearance as he himself is, constitute the ego-centrism of adolescent (Elkind, 1975). The adolescent can overcome this ego-centrism by a gradual differentiation between his own preoccupations and the thought of others and a gradual

	ORAL	ANAL	PHALLIC	LATENCY	GENITAL	FREUDIAN STAGES		
MATURITY								VIII INTEGRI- TY VS. DESPAIR
ADULTHOOD							VII GENERA- TIVITY VS. SELF-AB- SORPTION	
YOUNG ADULTHOOD						VI INTIMACY VS. ISOLAT- ION		
ADOLESCENCE					V IDENT- ITY VS. DIFFU- SION			
CHILDHOOD				IV INDUS- TRY VS. INFERIO- RITY				
PRESCHOOL			III INITIA- TIVE VS. GUILT					
EARLY CHILDHOOD		II AUTONOMY VS. SHAME, DOUBT						
INFANCY	I TRUST VS. MISTRUST							
ERIKSONIAN STAGES	SENSORI- MOTOR	PRE OPERATIONAL		CONCRETE OPERA- TIONAL	FORMAL OPERATIONAL			PIAGETIAN STAGES

FIGURE 3: CHART SHOWING ERIKSONIAN, FREUDIAN, AND PIAGETIAN STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT.  
[ ADAPTED FROM BERZONSKY, 1981; P.335]

integration of the feeling of others with his own emotion.

Kohlberg (1963, 1969) distinguishes three basic levels of moral development: the pre-conventional, conventional, and the post-conventional. Adolescents operate on conventional level which Kohlberg (1969) described as conformity to social conventions. This conformity behaviour is characterized by a strong desire to maintain, support, and justify the existing social structure.

#### 1.5.g. Social learning theories of adolescence:

In contrast to "stage" theorists like Hall (1916), Gesell (1946b, 1956), Freud (1925), Erikson (1963a, 1968b, 1981) and Piaget (1947b, 1952b, 1954), the social learning theory focuses on the interrelationship between environmental and social changes as antecedents and the behavioural changes in the adolescents as consequences rather than as a function of age (Muuss, 1975).

Sears et. al. (1957), Brittain (1963), and Bandura and Kupers (1964) viewed adolescence not as a separate stage but a continuity of human development from infancy to adulthood. Changes in behaviour during adolescence, may be due to change in social training situation, family structure and peer group expectations. During adolescence, the peer group becomes increasingly important as model as well as in regard to decisions

related to rapidly changing social values (Brittain, 1963). According to Bandura and Kupers (1964), conflict in adolescence is not a developmental phenomenon, but rather a phenomenon related to cultural conditioning and social expectations.

#### 1.6. The Concept of Sex Difference:

The biological difference between the two sexes affect the development of specific psychological dispositions and reaction trends. Brown and Lynn (1966) suggest that 'maleness' and 'femaleness' refers to biological differences. These physiological distinctions can be made in terms of several criteria e.g., external genital, hormonal balance, chromosomal patterns, gonadal composition, and the nature of the internal reproductive system. A male will have a male sex organ, a positive balance of male hormones (testosterone) and an XY chromosomal pattern. He will also produce sperm and possess a prostate gland and seminal vesicles. In contrast, a female will possess a female sex organ, a positive ratio of female hormones (estrogen), and XX chromosomal pattern. She will produce ova and have a uterus and fallopian tubes. These anatomical and physical differences also tend to be accompanied by differences in bodily shape, fatty tissue composition, bodily hair distribution etc. According to Berzonsky (1981) hormone secretion not only promotes sexual growth and structural maturation but also plays an important role in organizing

and activating behaviour. Functioning of different 'systems' like digestive, respiratory, circulatory, etc. are also controlled via hormones. Differences in the anatomy and functioning of hormones affect the behaviour of individuals differently. In other words, behaviour is many times a function of the sex of the individual.

With the advent of adolescence there is an increased pressure on sex-typed behaviour. Sex-role stereotypes and standards prevailing in a group effect the nature of social participation, and attitude towards the self and the environment. According to Sears et. al., (1965), sex-typed behaviour refers to 'role behaviour appropriate to one's ascribed gender'. In the process of internalization of sex-appropriate behaviour and sex-role identification, the male and the female tend to acquire different methods of learning (Lynn, 1964, 1966).

Parsons (1958) described the masculine role as essentially instrumental and task oriented; and the feminine role as expressive and oriented toward interpersonal attitudes and feelings, toward making and eliciting emotional responses in the social interaction.

In the acquisition of sex-typed behaviour, imitation tends to play an important role. Girls stay, watch, and imitate mothers' domestic activities and boys accompany fathers and are given small-size tools to copy their fathers' work

activities. Children are more frequently exposed to their own sex models than to cross-sex models. But this imitation of the same sex parents comes in the later developmental period. During infancy and early childhood, imitation model for both boys and girls is the mother.

Other than parents, older sibling can also be a model for imitation. If the sibling whom the child imitates is of opposite sex, this may result in sex-inappropriate behaviour. Sometimes peer group influence is more powerful than the sibling's, especially for boys. As boys and girls grow, they begin to develop friendship with members of their own sex. Peer pressure to develop sex-appropriate behaviour patterns are strong. Since acceptance in the group is crucial to both boys and girls, by adolescence, sex-appropriateness in behaviour is well established.

In Bangladesh, the sex-appropriateness in behaviour is highly valued especially during adolescence. Males, there, are expected to be instrumental and active whereas females to be expressive. Children learn to conform to this parental and social expectation. It is assumed that successful conformity to one's expected sex-role helps him to interact with the environment in a healthier way. In the present study, an attempt is being made to study the relationship between the sex and the adjustment patterns of Bangladesh adolescents.

### 1.7. Sex Difference : Some Related Studies:

The problem of sex difference is not a new one. Several studies related to the problem have been done, some of which are briefly presented below:

#### 1.7.a. Sex difference and adjustment:

Marvin (1955) found that in the areas of parent-child relationship, emotional tendencies, physical appearance, social acceptability, religion and vocational outlook conflicts appear at an earlier age for adolescent girls than for boys.

On the problem of adolescent adjustment, Mehratra (1966), and Pathak (1970) found contradicting results. Mehratra found girls to be better adjusted and Pathak found girls facing more problems than boys in all areas of adjustment. Sharan (1972) studied college students and found that adolescent boys and girls did not differ on anxiety score but they differed, though not significantly, in relation to adjustment.

In studying the extent of maladjustment, Ghorpade (1978) found that female students tend to show constantly higher incidence of both mild and severe forms of maladjustment.

#### 1.7.b. Sex difference (biological and psychological) and locus of control:

Studies (Crandall et. al., 1965; Lesiak, 1970) with adolescents show that girls tended to express stronger



internality than boys.

Devine and Stillion (1978) examined the effects of the locus of control on traditional or liberal sex-role orientation. They found the internal males to be significantly more traditional than all other groups.

Strickland and Haley (1980), administering Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control (I-E LC) Scale, found that females showed a tendency toward frequent 'internal' response and males toward 'external' response.

Effect of sex difference in the relationship between locus of control and anxiety was studied by Richert (1981) and a positive linear relationship was found. Externality was found positively related to anxiety in interpersonal situations for adolescent girls, and for boys it was related to anxiety in achievement.

#### 1.7.c. Sex difference in social skills:

Regarding sex difference in social skills, Hoffman (1972) suggested that females are brought up to be more dependent on social relationship than males are, and hence better at establishing friendly interpersonal relations. Females were also found to be more sensitive to the needs and feelings of others. Other studies have found females to be more sensitive than men to non-verbal cues (Henley, 1977), to self-disclosure more (Cozby, 1973; Jourard, 1971).

1.7.d. Sex difference, and academic and vocational aspiration:

Ausubel et. al, (1953) found that girls were significantly more variable than boys with respect to academic goal discrepancy, and vocational prestige needs. Boys were found to show greater vocational tenacity than girls.

Vickers (1976) describes that the educational system favours men and disfavors women. It reinforces the sex-role differentiation experienced during childhood. Adolescent girls are to restrict themselves to a relatively small number of disciplines. Higher professions and occupation with high status and remuneration are more easily accessible to men.

1.7.e. Sex difference and child-rearing attitudes:

Weinstein and Giesell (1960), in their study on effect of upbringing on sex difference and adjustment, found that whereas adjustment of boys tended to be more responsive to variation in the home environment, the norms for girls tended to be clear-cut and consistent.

The relationship between parental attitudes towards child-rearing and adolescents' adjustment was studied by Begum and Banu (1978) on Bangladesh sample. The results revealed that parental acceptance leads to healthy adjustment of daughters in all areas. Maternal acceptance was found to be related to the girls' good health and poor social adjustment. Boys'

adjustment was found hardly to be related to their parental acceptance, except that their social adjustment was related to their fathers' acceptance.

Tudiver (1981) found that parents have different sets of child-rearing attitudes and behaviour for boys and girls. For boys, parents emphasize achievement and consider rearing of a boys as a serious and responsible task. And for girls, parents emphasize interpersonal relatedness and look at child-rearing of a girls as permissive and joyful task.

1.7.f. Sex difference in socio-political ideology:

Ekehammer and Sidanius (1982) studied the sex difference among Swedish high school students in six dimensions of socio-political ideology and found adolescent girls to be less generally conservative, less "capitalist" oriented, less punitive, less racist, more equillitarian and more religious than boys.

1.7.g. Sex difference and conformity:

Sex difference with respect to conformity to group pressure and compliance to legal prohibition was studied by Osman (1982). He found women to be more conformist but no more compliant than men.

Qureshi et. al, (1982) studied conformity and non-conformity behaviour with reference to age, sex, and education.

The subjects were from Baroda city. They found a non-significant sex effect and significant effects of education and age on conformity.

1.8. The Concept of Internal-External Locus of Control (I-E LC):

The internal-external locus of control (I-E LC) is conceptualized as a generalized expectancy related to a person's belief concerning the locus of causality of events, existence of a contingent relationship between one's behaviour and the consequences. According to Rotter (1966). "When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action.... we have labelled this belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behaviour or his own relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control". (p. 1).

Theoretically, one's perception of causality generates expectancies concerning the source of reinforcement. In the social learning theory (Rotter, 1954; Rotter et. al, 1972), a reinforcement acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behaviour or event will be followed by that reinforcement in future. Once an expectancy for a behaviour-reinforcement sequence is built up, failure of the reinforcement to occur will reduce the expectancy. If reinforcement is seen as not

contingent upon one's own behaviour, its occurrence will not increase an expectancy (Rotter, 1966).

The development of I-E locus of control belief is dependent upon both episodic and accumulative antecedents. When I-E LC belief occurs at a restricted point of time, it is due to episodic antecedents. Episodic changes are of little significance, since with the passage of time, people are likely to return to previously held I-E LC beliefs (Smith, 1970).

When I-E LC beliefs develop from continuous exposures, it is due to accumulative antecedents. Researches (Chance, 1965; Cromwell, 1963; Davis and Phares, 1969), have shown that the 'internals' (ILC) and the 'externals' (ELC) were exposed to different child-rearing practices. Children with ILC beliefs were exposed to the kind of parenting that fosters the development of autonomy, morality and achievement striving whereas children with ELC beliefs were exposed to such type of parenting that is conducive to the development of dependency, aggression and hostility.

The development of I-E LC beliefs sometimes depends upon the parents themselves. Internalizing and externalizing practices seem most likely to be used by parents who are themselves 'internals' and 'externals'.

In explaining the I-E LC concept, Rotter (1975) discussed some common problems and misconceptions associated

with the concept. These are: (i) failure to treat reinforcement values as a separate variable: this problem arises particularly with the study of social action, social protest, independence and conformity where an 'internal' may not be a member of a protesting group simply because he does not believe in the cause and 'external' may be a member of the same group because he finds his friends there and the situation conforming; (ii) problem of specificity-generally: in predicting performance in achievement situation, efforts are generally made to obtain highly accurate, reliable predictions by the use of I-E locus of control. Successful prediction may be possible in early grades but when one enters college, the relationship between I-E control and grade is no longer apparent; (iii) intrusion of the "good guy-bad guy" dichotomy: it is generally assumed that it is good to be 'internal' and bad to be 'external'. But several studies (Efran, 1963; Lipp et. al, 1968; Phares, 1968) suggest that it is typical of 'internals' to repress failure and unpleasant experiences. Consequently, they report less anxiety and create a positive relationship between internality and adjustment.

It is assumed that I-E LC beliefs are important mediators of adaptive functioning in adolescents. Internality is associated with instrumentality and expressiveness, a condition for good adjustment, and externality is associated

with ineffectiveness and powerlessness, a condition for poor adjustment. In the present study, an attempt is being made to understand the nature of relationship between the I-E LC beliefs and the adjustment patterns of Bangladesh adolescents.

#### 1.9. Locus of Control : Some Related Studies:

Some of the studies, using locus of control measures, are briefly presented below:

##### 1.9.a. Locus of control and adjustment:

James (1957) found the relationship between good adjustment and internality to be curvilinear. Extreme 'internals' and 'externals' were found to be less adjusted. Extreme scores suggest passivity in the face of environmental difficulties. He found a clear interaction between internality and experience of success, and externality and defensiveness. Platt and Eisenman (1968) found the same result with 'internals' being more active, less anxious, better adjusted than 'externals'.

Using Rotter's scale, Baldo et. al., (1975) reported that ILC among adolescents were associated with more successful and positive development of Erikson's psycho-social stages than ELC. Reviewing literatures on the development and change of I-E LC beliefs, Gilmore (1978) noted that 'internals' function in a positive, effective, and adaptive manner both in achievement and non-achievement situation than do their

'external' counterparts.

The effect of I-E LC beliefs on moral judgement and mental health was studied through sentence completion tasks (Adams-Webber, 1969; Johnson et. al, 1968). 'Internals' tended to show a tendency to perceive moral sanction as directly contingent upon the immoral actions of the character.

1.9.b. Locus of control and risk-taking:

Liverant and Scodel (1960) found that 'internals' would be more cautious and conservative than 'externals' in risk taking behaviour. Julian et. al, (1968) found that, in a dart-drawing game, 'internals' preferred choices with high probabilities and 'externals' preferred low probabilities of success.

Studies (Baron, 1968; Jahan, 1979) on the relationship between Wallach and Kagan (1959) choice dilemma problems and the I-E LC scale, show that the 'internals' are more willing to take risks.

1.9.c. Locus of control and cultural differences:

In a cross-cultural study, Hsieh et. al, (1969) found that Anglo-American students were significantly more internally oriented than American born and Hong Kong-born Chinese. Among the adolescents from Denmark and the U.S.A., Parsons et. al, (1970) found Danish adolescent boys were significantly more 'external' than American boys. But for girls, no such cultural



differences were found.

In a comparative study (Parsons and Schneider, 1974), adolescents from eight countries were given Rotter's I-E scale and findings showed a significant country effect (Japanese to be most 'external' and Indians to be most 'internal'). In another study, McGinnies (1974) found that mean IE scores were highest (externality) for Swedish adolescents followed by the adolescents from Japan, Australia, the U.S.A. and New Zealand.

Kureshi and Hossain (1981) studied adolescents from India, Iran, and Palestine studying in Aligarh. They were matched in terms of age, education, socio-economic status and religious faiths. They found Palestinians to be lowest, Iranian to <sup>be</sup> highest, and Indian to be in-between in terms of I-E LC scores.

1.9.d. Locus of control, ethnic group and social class differences:

Studies (Battle and Rotter, 1963; Coleman et. al, 1966, Lefcourt and Ladwig, 1965a) revealed that Negroes and lower class people generally had higher 'external' scores than White and middle class people. Scott and Phelan (1969) found unemployed Whites to be significantly more 'internal' than unemployed Negroes.

The relationship between IE dimension and socio-economic status (SES) was studied (Franklin, 1963; Tiwari and Tripathi, 1982) with contradictory findings. Franklin found internality to be related to high SES, and Tiwari and Tripathi found low SES group to be more internally oriented.

From a different orientation, Strodbeck (1958) discussed the construct "mastery" which seems very similar to effectance belief and found Jewish middle and upper class subjects more mastery believing than the lower class.

1.9.e. Locus of control and conformity:

Studies (Odell, 1959; Crowne and Liverant, 1963) found a significant relationship between the IE control and independence of judgement, with subjects high in externality showing greater tendencies to conform. Other studies (Getter, 1962; Gore, 1962) show that the individual who perceives that he does have control over what happens to him may conform to situation if he finds it beneficial. If he finds the situation not beneficial, he acts resistively.

1.9.f. Locus of control and control over environment:

Studies have shown that the 'internals' not only exhibit more initiative in their efforts to attain goals and to control their environment than the 'externals', but also can control their own impulses better than the 'externals'

(James et. al, 1965; Phares, 1965; Seeman, 1963; Seeman and Evans, 1962; Straits and Sechrest, 1963).

Gore and Rotter (1963) found subjects with ILC expressing the greatest amount of interest in social action while the ELC subjects either expressed no interest in participation or participated with minimum involvement. The study was replicated by Strickland (1965) with same results.

1.9.g. Locus of control and family relationship:

Studies (Cromwell, 1963; Mac Donald, 1971; Tolor and Jalowiec, 1968) show that ELC is significantly related to authoritarian control, hostility-rejection tendencies, and over-protectiveness of parents. Parents who are warm, supportive, permissive, consistent in discipline are more likely to encourage their children's belief in ILC (Chance, 1965; Davis and Phares, 1969; Katkovosky et. al, 1967). Samson (1972) found that children from disturbed home environment are more likely to develop ELC beliefs.

1.9.h. Locus of control and maladjustment:

Shybut (1968) found that psychotic patients are significantly higher in externality scores than neurotics and normals. Further classifying patients into schizophrenic and depressive, Harrow and Ferrante (1969) found schizophrenics to be more 'external' than the total sample of non-schizophrenics.

Fontana et. al, (1968) pointed out that schizophrenics who wanted to show themselves as healthy were 'internals' and those who wanted to show themselves as "sick" were 'externals'.

Gon et. al, (1981) studied the locus of control in orthopaedically handicapped and non-handicapped males and females, and found non-significant difference between males and females, and between handicapped and non-handicapped sample.

Toves et. al, (1981) studied the late adolescents to test the hypothesis that internality helps one to deal with stressful life events and their findings confirmed the hypothesis for boys only.

#### 1.9.i. Locus of control and anxiety:

Studies (Butterfield, 1964; Feather, 1967a) showed that for 'internals', anxiety in an academic setting tended to facilitate their task-taking performance. For 'externals', the scores were found to be positively related to negative anxiety reactions and debilitating anxiety. Bar-tal et. al, (1980) found that 'internals' tend to attain greater academic achievement, express less anxiety, and a high level of aspiration than their 'external' counterparts.

Study of Indian sample revealed a positive relationship between I-E LC and anxiety (Krishna, 1981). He found that

'internal' girls tend to have higher anxiety than the boys with same orientation.

1.9.j. Locus of control and health related behaviour:

In a study on inoculation against influenza, Dabbs and Krischt (1971) reported that 'internal' college students, who were motivated to exert control in relation to health, did indeed take precaution against susceptibility of an infectious disease.

Other studies (Danahar, 1977; Lichtenstein and Keutzer, 1967; Sonstroem and Walker, 1973; Strickland, 1978) suggest that people with ILC rather than ELC beliefs are more likely to take action to improve their health habits, particularly when some changes are needed to improve the physical functioning.

1.9.k. Locus of control and political affiliation:

Studies (Johnson, 1961; Rotter, 1966) on relationship of the IE control to political identification revealed non-significant differences in the mean IE scores of students who identified themselves with different political affiliation.

1.9.l. Locus of control and achievement motivation:

The hypothesis that 'internals' would show more overt striving for achievement than 'externals' was examined by several researches (Chance, 1965; Crandall et. al, 1962; McGhee and

Crandall, 1968). Their findings revealed that people with ILC tend to manifest greater interest and efforts in achievement related activities than do people with ELC.

1.9.m. Locus of control and ordinal position:

How children with different birth position perceive the degree of responsibility that they would assume was studied by Newhouse (1974). He found that only-borns appear to assume less responsibility compared to the first or later borns, but first-borns were found not to be more responsible than later borns.

1.10. The Concept of Purpose-in-Life (PIL):

The concept of Purpose-in-Life which developed out of Frankl's existential approach<sup>is</sup> based on an explicit philosophy of life. More specifically, it is based on three basic assumptions: (i) freedom of will, (ii) will to meaning, (iii) meaning in life (Frankl, 1967).

Man's freedom means not a freedom from condition but a stand on whatever conditions might confront him. Man is capable of taking a stand not only towards a world but also towards himself. He is capable of reflecting, even rejecting himself, detaching himself from himself, leaving the 'plane' of the biological and psychological, passing into the 'space' of the noölogical (Frankl, 1969).

characterized by absence of purpose. Pathological form of this existential vacuum is noögenic neurosis and is rooted in spiritual conflicts. 20th century is the universal breakdown of meaning in which man, according to Tillich (1952), has "lost a meaningful world and a self which lives in meaning" (p. 139).

Life can be made meaningful not only by one's deeds, work and creativity but also through his experiences, his encounters with what is good, true, and beautiful in the world. But even in a situation in which man is deprived of both creativity and receptivity, he can fulfil a meaning in life. When confronted with a hopeless situation, man is given a last opportunity to fulfil a meaning, that is the meaning of suffering. Suffering can be meaningful only in an unchangeable situation.

For Frankl (1967), meaning of life is something more than mere self-expression. This implies a certain degree of objectiveness without which meaning would never be worth fulfilling. Meaning must be conceived<sup>of</sup> in terms of the specific meaning of a personal life in a given situation. Each man is unique and each man's life is singular. This two-fold uniqueness adds to man's responsibility. Life is a chain of questions which man has to answer by answering to life. By conceiving man as creative and potential actualizing

creature, Frankl (1967) stresses that meaning of existence is "beyond self-actualization".

It is believed that "will to meaning" guides a man in his striving for value actualization. A positive and well developed "will" is indicative of healthy adjustment. In the present study, attempt is being made to see the relationship between different degrees of PIL and adjustment patterns of the Bangladesh adolescents.

#### 1.11. Purpose-in-Life (PIL) : Some Related Studies:

The relatively new problem of purpose or meaning-in-life has been studied, though few in number, both in Western and Indian culture. Some of these studies are briefly presented below:

##### 1.11.a. Purpose-in-life, value, and religion:

Crumbaugh et. al., (1970), found that a genuine, intrinsic religious orientation may help to foster greater perceived purpose or meaning in life.

Study (Crandall and Rasmussen, 1975) on the relationship between PIL and values revealed that a hedonistic approach to life contributes to an existential vacuum. The value of salvation was found to be associated with relatively high PIL scores. Paloutzian (1981) argued against a materialistic



philosophy of life. People who strive directly for happiness miss their goals, and feel less fulfilled.

Paula (1981) found that subjects who were high in Frankl's Attitude Scale (FAS) were found to consider themselves more religious than low scoring subjects. Rude (1981) found that meaningfulness is significantly related to one's belief about one's capacity, opportunity, and identification.

1.11.b. Purpose-in-life and mental health:

Kotchen (1960) defined 'meaning' in terms of seven components. On a sample of two mental patient groups and three non-patient groups he found that all groups responded to the questionnaire in the same way.

Battista and Almond (1973) developed the 'Life Regard Index' to provide an unbiased measure of meaning-in-life. He studied the relationship of this scale with Self-Actualizing Value Scale and PIL Test. The findings revealed that all three tests measured closely related phenomena.

1.11.c. Purpose-in-life, age, and sex difference:

Studies on age difference and PIL revealed positive as well as negative results. Some researchers (Murphy, 1967; Meier and Edwards, 1974) found significant age differences in the mean PIL scores, while others (Crumbaugh and Maholick, 1964;

Cavanagh, 1966) did not find any significant age difference in PIL scores.

As regards sex differences and PIL, Cavanagh, (1966), Doerries (1970) found significant sex difference in PIL scores whereas Crumbaugh and Maholick (1964), Murphy (1967), Meier and Edwards (1974) did not find any sex difference.

#### 1.11.d. Purpose-in-life and maladjustment:

To test the existence of Frankl's noögenic neurosis, Crumbaugh and Maholick (1964) studied two non-patient and three patient groups. Using PIL Test, Frankl's Questionnaire (FQ) and MMPI, they found a low correlation between PIL Test and MMPI, a high correlation between PIL Test and FQ. The findings further showed that the PIL Test successfully and significantly distinguished patients from non-patient population.

Garfield (1973) investigated Frankl's concept of 'Existential Vacuum' and 'Anomia' on five subcultural groups and found the groups to differ significantly on PIL Test and Srole Anomia Scale (SAS). The study did not reveal any relationship between scores of these two tests indicating that PIL test and SAS measure different attributes.

Sheffield and Pearson (1974) studied patients with anxiety, depression, other neuroses, personality disorder and endogenous depression. Their findings show that except for

the category of "other neurosis", men showed a general tendency to have higher PIL scores than women.

In a comparative study of four equally distributed disabled and non-disabled groups of 100 Indian sample, Gon and Mehta (1982) found a trend toward high PIL. All four groups differed significantly on item analysis but sex difference was found to be non-significant. In another investigation on an Indian sample, Gonsalvez and Gon (1983) studied the degree and pattern of PIL in four psychopathological and normal groups. Their findings showed that each of the psychopathological groups experienced a significantly lower degree of PIL than each of the normal groups.

#### 1.12. Significance of the Present Investigation:

In the contemporary world, adjustment problems have become endemic as well as universal (Gon and Quazi, 1982). Numerous attempts are being made to explain the dynamics and patterns of adjustment. The concept of "open-system" within the "General System Theory" states that a great deal of behaviour is beyond the principle of homeostasis and stimulus-response. Such a new look opens new perspectives not only in theory but also in practical implications with respect to education, biochemistry, bio-physics, physiology, personality in general and adjustment in particular.

Bangladesh, which, metaphorically speaking, is passing through its adolescent phase of independence, is characterized by many socio-political changes. Bangladesh adolescents are passing through the bio-psycho-social transition (by virtue of their being adolescents). It is helpful to study as to how the adolescents, who themselves are in the transition phase, adjust and interact with the environment which is also undergoing constant episodic changes. Do the adolescents in such a life-setting believe in luck or skill? And how do their beliefs and expectancies affect their adjustment patterns?

The controversy over sex difference has become a debatable issue characterized by polarization of views. One view stresses the biological origin of sex-differences while the other accentuates environmental causation. Do biological sex differences make any difference in the purposive interaction of the Bangladesh adolescents with their environment?

The existential-humanistic viewpoint states adjustment as choices of values. Are Bangladesh adolescents aware of their values? Do they strive for the actualization of values? How far adjustive behaviour is influenced by their striving? Do different degrees of 'purpose' affect adjustment patterns of the adolescents differently?

Satisfactory replies to these questions need conceptual and empirical studies. No systematic attempt has so far been

made in Bangladesh to answer the above mentioned questions. The present study envisages an enquiry into the patterns and dynamics of adjustment problems of the adolescents of Bangladesh. In these areas, dependable information is lacking.

Thus, it is hoped that this study would be of some help in understanding the adjustment patterns and problems faced by Bangladesh adolescents.

1.13. Statement of the Specific Problem Under Investigation:

On the basis of the conceptualization of terms and the research literature reviewed, it appears that the concept and the problem of adjustment requires rigorous attention of researchers in Bangladesh. The present study, "A Study of Some Factors in Adjustment Patterns of Adolescent Boys and Girls in Bangladesh", represents an attempt in that direction.

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