CHILD PSYCHOLOGY

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MEANING, DEFINITION, SCOPE, IMPORTANCE AND METHODS OF CHILD PSYCHOLOGY

"Child Psychology is a positive science which studies the behaviour of child in the context of his environment treating the child as an individual."

"The name Child Psychology was changed in child development to emphasize that the focus was now on the pattern of the child development rather than certain aspects of developments". —**Hurlock**

Q.1. **Explain the meaning and definition of Child Psychology.**

Ans. ## Meaning of Child Psychology

Child Psychology, as is evident by the nomenclature, is the psychology of child. A child is a human being of a definite age. Psychologists maintain that childhood continue till the age of twelve. Between the ages of twelve and eighteen children are called adolescents. In order to distinguish the first six years of a child's life from the second stage of development between six and twelve, the term infancy is applied to the former. Development begins when the child is still in his mother's womb, and therefore, the study of the prenatal stage also becomes important. Modern psychologists, therefore, believe that child psychology should comprehend the child's development almost from the moment of conception to its attaining the age of eighteen. Hence, when we say that child psychology is the study of child, we hint at the study of the human being from the moment of the conception to the time when he enters the adolescent period. The one most important fact that emerges from the study of this development is that it is during this period that the foundations of later adult life are laid. It is the age of growth, the period for all kinds of development and growth.

So far we have been concerned with the "literal meaning of the term child psychology and have called it the study of the child. Obviously, it is an important branch of psychology, a term which in itself should be understood properly before the meaning of child psychology becomes clear. Modern psychologists define psychology as the positive behaviour which endeavours to understand man in his environment.

Definition of Child Psychology

It is essential to define psychology in order to arrive at a precise definition of child psychology because the latter is a branch of the former. Looked at from this standpoint, it too becomes a positive science which studies man in his particular environment with the one limitation that it studies man or human being below the age of eighteen. Child psychology took on its mantle of an individual and distinct branch of psychology in the 19th century when the psychologists gradually realised the importance of the study of child behaviour in isolation from adult behaviour. Consequently, it became important to define it with greater precision. In the words of **Crow** and **Crow**, *"Child psychology is the scientific study of the individual from his parental beginnings through the early stage of his adolescent development"*. In brief, it can be said that *"Child psychology is a positive science which studies the behaviour of child in the context of his environment treating the child as an individual".* In order to eliminate any further ambiguity in the definition the following factors should be stressed here—

1. Study in the context of the environment—The behaviour of each individual is influenced by his environment. It is all the more influential in childhood because the child has less developed powers

of resistance and of understanding which leaded to control of environment. In the study of children, therefore, it becomes very important to study the environment. If one were to trace the cause of one child learning to steal while another does not, it would soon become apparent that this cause lies in the environment.

2. Study of the individual—Child should be studied as individual. It is necessary for the teacher, while teaching, to be aware of the individual differences of his pupils. If this, individual variation is disregarded children cannot be taught effectively. Child psychology must, therefore, study each child as an individual in his own role. Yet, it is only natural that while children exhibit individual differences to a great degree one can discover universal laws and principles that apply to children all over the world.

3. Study of the child—What is a child? The stage between birth and early adolescence in a man's life is called childhood. It is in this part of his development that man is called a child. Child psychology studies human beings belonging to this category.

4. Study of behaviour—Reaction to any stimulus is behaviour. Study of child's behaviour requires study of its external reaction and internal experience, and in either case the environmental factors play their part and must be taken into consideration.

5. Positive science—Child psychology is a positive science. In the words of **Watson**, *"Child psychology came into being from the scientific study of the child."* A positive science is factual while a normative one is idealistic. The one study that which exists while the other that which ought to be. Examples of the normative sciences are ethics, aesthetics, logic, etc. ●

Q.2. **Discuss the value of Child Psychology for the teachers.** *Or*
What is Child Psychology? Discuss its significance. How is the study of Child Psychology useful in education?

Ans.
Importance of Child Psychology

All modern psychologists stress the need for every teacher being acquainted with child psychology. The following benefits can be derive from a knowledge of psychology—

1. Understanding the student—**John Adams** decreed that the teacher must know the student better than he knows the subject he is to teach. He has said, *"The master taught John Latin. The teacher must know both Latin and John and since the knowledge of John is psychology, the teacher must study psychology"*. **Pestalozzi** was of the opinion that education should be based on realistic and accurate knowledge of the student's mental process. A teacher must be equipped with detailed information concerning the student's needs, the bases of his behaviour, mental level, interests, abilities and personality, etc. Any successful education must be based on these fundamental forces that control behaviour. It is common knowledge that these basic motive forces cannot ever be eliminated from the child's behaviour pattern; they can be modified or given a new direction. There is close relation between the child's education and his needs. The needs of most backwards and handicapped or problem children cannot be satisfied in school. It is for this reason that they turn to trouble making as a source of relief. A teacher who knows the psychology of children is aware of the fact that the source of a child's defects lies in the incomplete fulfilment of a child's physical, psychological and social needs. Such knowledge also helps the teacher to know the interest, nature, intelligence and individual differences of his students so that one may adjust the curriculum and mode of teaching to their requirements.

2. Improvement in teaching methods—Child psychology has brought a revolution in modern educational methods. It has put an end to the role of the rod and the whip. Children are taught to be disciplined by psychological methods, not by force. Such new innovations as the Montessori and the kindergarten methods are based on the child psychology. Teaching has become more scientific, easier and goal directed. Child psychology gives the teacher information about the processes of learning,

methods in teaching, important factors, conditions which help or impede the process of learning, allowing the teacher to make use of this information in his teaching.

3. Improvement in curriculum—Child psychology has led to important improvements in the curriculum for teaching children. It has laid stress on such activities as games, scouting, picnics, camps, dancing and other extra-curricular activities which supplement rather than supplant class room teaching of academic subjects. Education thus becomes an interesting process and develops various facets of the child's personality which remain untouched under more formal teaching conditions. The curriculum of a school should be based on the individual differences of children, their motives, the values and principles of learning, all of which can be known only through the study of psychology. In deciding the subjects to be taught, such things as the student's ages, their individual and social needs and the responsibility they are expected to shoulder in later life must be taken into consideration. Besides, the methods of presenting teaching material should be based on psychological facts.

4. Evaluation and testing—In the process of education, both the teacher and the taught are constantly in need of knowing how far they have progressed, whether they have failed to progress and if they have, then why. Besides, they are always anxious to know how to improve their performance. It is for this that evaluation and testing are required. But neither can be efficiently performed if the teacher is unaware of the principles of child psychology.

5. Diagnosis and solution of classroom problems—Many problems are created in the classroom by the relations between individual students and the teacher, the mental abilities of the students, the fact of their being backward etc. These problems can be solved only by psychological methods. Basically, all such problems are behaviour problems of children which require psychological knowledge in order to be solved. Child psychology can assist the teacher in tackling such problems as the backwardness of children, maladjustment, indiscipline, juvenile delinquency, sex crimes, defects in the child's progress, mental defects of problem, children etc.

6. Discipline and administration—If the teacher is unaware of the principles of child psychology he will be unable to solve the problems of the students and will thereby fail to induce order and discipline among them. Generally speaking, order and discipline in an institution depend upon the extent to which the rules and regulations applying in the institution are psychological and the extent to which the teacher makes use of psychological devices. An example will serve to make this point clear. In one particular institution the boys were apt to be very troublesome during the lunch hour. They threw food at each other and wasted it. The warden tried to frighten the children into submission but he could not check this tendency among the boys. He was later replaced by another warden who took stock of the situation and decided to make use of his knowledge of psychology. He announced that the table which appeared to be the cleanest and the smartest looking during the lunch hour would be awarded a flag, and also a double helping of the most delicious food. The effect of this announcement was immediate. At each table the boys tried to appear more clean and smart than their neighbours, and if one boy was inclined to create trouble, he was immediately checked by his neighbours. Application of child psychology solved a problem which had defied all show of power and force.

7. Improvement in teacher taught relationship—Basically, the teacher taught relationship is psychological. If the teachers and the principal of an institution wish to maintain cordial relations with their students it is essential to be clever and understanding. Child psychology can provide many hints towards such an understanding.

8. Experiment and research—Knowledge of child psychology encourages the teacher to make experiments in the field of education. By this research he can bring new facts to light and improve education. All experiments should be adapted to psychological methodology.

It should be apparent from the foregoing account that knowledge of Child Psychology helps in teaching and is of immense value to the teacher.

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STAGES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

"Child Psychology is the scientific study of the individual from his prenatal beginnings through the early stages of his adolescent development". —*Crow and Crow*

Q.1. **Discuss the major stages and aspects of human development.**

Ans. ## Major Stages of Human Development

Man is a being who is constantly developing in his life time. This development of his passes through various stages. Having passed through these steps, an immature and erring child develops into the properly developed and matured adult. Although there is some difference of opinion among thinkers regarding the various steps in development, yet generally human development has been divided, into the following four stages—

1. Infancy
2. Childhood
3. Adolescence
4. Adulthood.

These above mentioned four stages in the development of the human child were determined by **Rousseau**, the French philosopher. Establishing the age levels that correspond to this division, the educational psychologists have pointed out that infancy lasts from birth till six years, childhood from six to twelve, adolescence from twelve to eighteen while adulthood should be accepted to extend from eighteen till the individual ceases to develop. It is the common belief among modern educational psychologists that by the age of twenty the individual usually completes all kinds of development. According to **Dr. John**, before adolescence or by the age of twelve the child attains to a kind of pseudo-maturity. Following this infancy and childhood are reflected in adolescence and adulthood. According to modern psychologists, the most rapid development in the child takes place in two stages, the first time when the infant is about two, and the second time when he is between ten and twelve years of age. It will be necessary to reflect upon these above steps in development from the standpoint of physiological development. It should be remembered that though all children pass through these various stages of development, yet all do not go through them at the same age. The female child, for example, generally reaches each one of these stages some two years ahead of the male sex. Nevertheless, generally speaking the physiological development that takes in the different stages can be seen in all children.

Major Aspects of Human Development

As a general rule, the development of the individual in each step can be divided into the following aspects—

1. Physical development
2. Mental development
3. Emotional development
4. Ethical and Aesthetic development
5. Social development.

The physical development of the individual includes the development of his various physical parts, his height, weight, nervous system, internal organs, lungs, heart, sex organs, etc. His mental development includes the progress of his intelligence, special abilities, capabilities, tendencies, imagination, reasoning, and other mental elements. In emotional development, the evolution of different

instincts and emotions leads to the formation of sentiments and the progress of sentiments to character. Moral development includes the evolution of the moral character, and aesthetic sense and artistic tendencies. In his social development, the individual learns to move and live according to the rules of his family, group and society, and to adjust to it. Educational psychology studies all these aspects of the development of infancy, childhood, adolescence and adulthood. The development of these aspects will be the subject of reflection in the succeeding chapters.

A discussion of the various stages and aspects of development makes it evident that human development is not linear, but spiral. In other words, in progressing further it turns back and then as well as vertically.

Educational Aspect of Development

Knowledge of the various stages and aspects of the educand's development is of much value for the teacher. The object of education is the complete development of the educand. Hence, it is evident that the teacher should be possessed of the knowledge of aspects of development so that he may be able to discern whether the student is lagging behind in any aspect. The curriculum and other programmes in school should be designed to expedite the overall progress of the educand. Where the curriculum does not seem likely to succeed, recourse should be had to extra-curricular programmes in order to ensure progress. In examining the student, it should be kept in mind that all his various aspects are being evaluated.

Modern education is based on the psychology of the educand. And the educand's psychology conforms to the stage of his development. Hence, by knowing the stage of development through which an individual student is passing the teacher can know his psychology, can base hopes of his development and progress in various departments accordingly, and can mould his method of teaching accordingly. Having knowledge of the various aspects and steps of development, the teacher can form a dynamic attitude towards education and the educand. ●

Q.2. Discuss physical development during infancy. What facts are important in this connection?

Ans. 　　　　　　 # Physical Development during Infancy

Two Stages

Infancy is divided into two stages of development, the first lasting from birth to three years; thereafter the second stage lasts till the child is six years of age.

Rapid Growth in First Year

The child develops very rapidly in the infant stage. At birth, the child is bodily unattractive because the skin is lined, the face puffed up and red, the size of the head approximately one fourth of the body and the rest of the body unbalanced. When born the child is about twenty inches in height, but grows another 10 inches before its first year is completed. Generally, the child is between seven and seven and a half pounds in weight, the male child being taller and heavier than the female. In the first year, both weight and size increase at a very rapid pace. Height increases about 50 percent in this period while the weight doubles in six months and trebles in another six. The proportion of the head to the body also changes, being one fourth at the time of birth, the head becomes one eighth of it as develops. In the process of development, the head becomes one eighth of the body, the length of arms and legs also increase as the child comes to require them more and more in his adaptation to life outside the womb.

1. Growth of brain and sex organs—Weight of the brain increases rapidly during pregnancy and immediately after birth. By the time the child reaches the age of four his brain gains 80 percent of its final weight, another 10 percent being added by the time he is eight. The final 10 percent is acquired by his twentieth year. It is between the ages of 4 and 6 that the main part of the brain develops in weight.

Sex organs develop in the opposite manner, as during the first 14 years of development they develop only to 20 percent while the remaining 80 percent is completed in the next six years.

2. Increase in height—Normally, the height of the child at birth indicates the height he will attain in adulthood, but there are about 20 percent exceptions to this rule. Although there is never any very rapid physical development yet one can see individual differences in the speed and time of it. Normally, one sees an inclination towards the average in the increase in height. Those who grow fast, slow up as they reach the average, but those who increase in height relatively slowly, develop rapidly as they attain to the average.

3. Growth in weight—Describing infancy in respect of height and weight, Thorpe has written that according to a recent survey the average weight of a child at birth is 7.13 pounds, irrespective of sex and race. In this connection, the weight of boys was, on the average, 0.2 pounds more than the weight of newborn infant girls. The weight of white newborn babies was 0.25 pounds more than the off-springs of Negroes, but the weight of the child at birth is not influenced by social and economic status. Another survey, older than the one mentioned above, indicated that the weight of 85 percent children at birth is between 6 and 9 pounds, and the height between 17 and 22 inches. The rapidity of the development of infants can be gauged from the fact that, on an average, male children increase upto 7 and 1/8 inches in 9 months, while female children increase 6 and 3/4 inches during the same period. Increase in the weight of children is even more significant and well marked, as the average child doubles its weight in six months. The weight of a male baby whose height is 24 and 1/8 inches is 19 and 11/16 lbs, while the weight of a female child of the same height is normally 19 and 5/16 pounds. Similar researches have thrown additional light on the development of the child. Research carried out at Harvard University over a period of 12 years has indicated that the child's development during the first two years of his life is very rapid. Then, the rate of development decreases. Generally, the development curves of both sexes were similar. Besides Harvard, other American universities such as Yele, Michigan, Iowa and California, have also carried out (detailed research into the development of children. Studies conducted by Preyer, Stanley Hall and Carl Murchison as well as Arnold Gessell have yielded important-data. It must, of course, be remembered that there are wide differences in the development of height and weight in individual children, the causes of the differences being attributable both to environment and heredity. Height and weight of a child and development are a testimony to his good health which influences his mental and emotional development also.

4. Change in proportion—Another area in which change continually takes place is the proportion between the various parts of the developing child's body. The head becomes smaller and reduces in proportion to the body, while the hands and feet gain in size proportion.

5. Development of internal organs—Teeth are absent at birth, but within a year the child begins cutting teeth that are called milk teeth. In this infancy, the internal organs of the child's body undergo constant development. The most prominent ones to develop are the digestive organs, lungs, muscles, nervous system, nerves, sex organs and glands. This development achieves balance between the various internal organs. When the child is born, he has a nervous system adequately developed to deal with his environment, to react to its external stimuli and to adapt and adjust to it. Muscles normally do not develop during the child infancy. There is no evidence to indicate that the child breathes inside the womb, but as soon as he is born he begins breathing and blood circulation continues. While inside the womb, the heart beat is very low, but immediately following birth, the heart beat gains considerably and becomes rapid. As the size of the heart increases, it becomes stronger; the heart beat and the speed of blood circulation in the arterial system both slow down to become steady. According to physiologists, during the first month of infancy, the child's heart beats upto 140 times a minute, but in the first six months it slows down to about 100 times a minute. While the child is still in his infancy, he develops the means of excreting all water waste from the body and combating all attacks of virus and other disease germs. On the contrary, the development of sex organs in infancy is exceedingly slow.

Important Facts about Development in Infancy

The child's weight decreases in his first two weeks of his life because much of the water in him evaporates. But this decrease is soon made up. Some precautions are required on the part of the parents if the child's physical development during infancy is to be maintained. The following are the important facts—

1. Food—Food is one of the most important considerations in child care. The speed of growth being very rapid, it is essential that the child's diet be both balanced and administered at the proper time. In this connection, Laird and his associates conducted an experiment in which some children were kept on an exclusively milk diet, others on a diet of milk and other nutritive foods, and still other children on normal food. After some weeks it was noticed that the children on a milk diet had progressed some 8 per cent more than the children on a normal diet. Similarly, children kept on milk and other nutritive foods and progressed some 16 percent more than those on the normal diet. Generally speaking, all doctors and scientists believe that milk is the best food during the period of infancy, as in this period the bones develop and strengthen at a rapid pace, and milk is essential for this development. As long as the child retains his so called milk teeth, his best and most nutritive diet is milk, and among the varieties of milk the very best is the variety that is the easiest to digest. Mahatma Gandhi believed that goat's milk was the most digestible but scientific opinion dares to contradict this view in favour of cow's milk. The latter is beneficial for mental development besides, it's more obvious advantages for bodily development and improvement. Tinned milk, if it be not too old, can also be administered without any ill-effects. In some cases, tinned milk does not prove efficacious and leads to serious ailments of the stomach which can become complicated and even fatal. Concerning baby food, Spiller has opined that the child should not be given any solid food, but should be given only milk and fruit. The child's milk teeth cannot bit and masticate hard food, nor can his intestines digest it.

2 Cleanliness—In infancy, the child's bones are very weak and tender. Consequently, it is necessary that much care must be exercised in cleaning and washing him. The use of good oils for delicate massage is good for the child, but the massage must be very tenderly conducted. Lack of attention to the child's cleanliness can result in his contracting many diseases. In the Indian type of climate the child should be bathed at least once daily, and his bed cleaned with the same periodicity. It can be kept free of urine and other waste matter excreted by the child by the use of bed sheets made of rubber. More generally speaking, it is desirable that the child's bed and clothes should never exude any bad smell. Bad smell creates bad effects on the child's health. Of course, the best thing that can be done is that the children should be trained to excrete by the clock, that is, at set times.

3. Clothes—Tight fitting clothes interfere with the free circulation of blood with bad effect on his delicate health. Clothes should thus be reasonably loose, but not necessarily of the toga variety. Of course, it is reasonable that the child should be protected from the cold by warm clothing, but it is better if he is not suffocated in them. He should not be smothered in his clothes the pores of his skin should be given as much chance to breathe as his lungs. It is best that the child should be loaded with the least clothes to protect him, since the habit of counteracting the heat and cold that he acquires at this stage usually lasts him his whole life. The sun's rays, so long as they are to strong enough to burn the skin, are always beneficial to the skin, but if one would be convinced of their real utility, one should enquire of the infant, for it is the infant who derives the greatest benefit from them. How surprising it is, that while people in the Western hemisphere, where the climate is much colder, try to keep their children in as few clothes as possible, in a hot country like India people literally load them with clothes. In winter, it does the child's tender bones much good to be massaged with oil and then laid out in the sun to be strengthened. The body gains by massage and sun bathing because the child gets vitamin D from the sun's rays, which helps in his cutting teeth at the right time.

4. Sleep—It is in his infancy that the child requires much sleep and can normally get it. He should be allowed to sleep like a sapling, not a log, as long as he feels like it, since the proper amount of sleep helps in adequate and proper development of the body.

5. Feeding—Normally, at this age, the child awakens only when he feels hungry and goes to sleep immediately his stomach is filled. He spends the larger span of his time in sleeping. In the first month the child wakens only when he is hungry, but sometimes it is also because he has tested milk, so that it is not a good practice to feed him milk whenever he cries. Such intemperate feeding spoils his digestive system and has the worst effect on his health, besides leaving him susceptible to many dangerous diseases.

6. Child care—It is scientifically more desirable to feed the child by the clock, and to allay his crying by presenting him with toys or by any other means available, such as crooning to him, if that can possibly put a stop to his crooning. Children are normally very much attracted by brightly coloured objects and if they manage to get their hands on them they begin to suck them. On the bed the child flings his arms and legs about, much to his own good as it exercises his limbs though in a somewhat unconventional manner.

7. Mother's love—Havelock Ellis, the famous thinker, emphasised that the importance of mother's milk for the child exceeds its purely nutritive value. Besides nourishing the body, the act of feeding symbolises the mother's love for the child. From this point of view, it is desirable that the child's care and nourishment should be in the hands of his mother. It is never good to leave this function to a servant or a nurse. It has particular ill effects on the child's emotional development as the love that he bears his mother he cannot give to any other person, and in the absence of adequate reciprocating from the mother, his emotional development is adversely effected.

8. Mother's care—An individual concerned with the child's nourishment and general care has to keep in mind all the needs of the ward as at this stage the child is himself unable to communicate his needs, being unskilled in the use of his tongue. Hence, many of the diseases that the child contracts at an early age are the effect of his parents' or guardian's carelessness. If the child cries, it is best to make some effort to divine the cause of his discomfort. It may be that his ear or may be stomach paining, and for this it is better to use the medicine a doctor prescribes than to give him more milk and try to put him to sleep.

9. Avoidance of indulgence—Love and affection are always very potent influence in the child's life but these should not outstrip the limits of propriety and spoil the child. From the physiological point of view, it is not desirable to carry the child in one's lap for long periods. As far as possible, the child should be allowed to rest in a recumbent position and he should be diverted by the use of toys if he cries. Some people make it a practice to put a rubber nipple in the child's mouth whenever he cries. This too, is not a very commendable habit as it is possible for the child to contract many diseases if the nipple is unclean or unhygienic. What is even more important is that once a child becomes habituated to its use, it is difficult to wean him of it. But even then if it must be used, then all care must be taken to keep it clean.

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CHARACTERISTICS OF NEWLY BORN INFANT

*"Maturation is chromosome reduction through cell division in which one chromosome from each pair goes to a subdivided cell which, in turn, splits lengthwise and forms two new cells. The mature cell which contains only 23 chromosomes is known as a haploid cell".—**Elizabeth B. Hurlock***

Q.1. **Explain the preliminary stages of development in the beginning of human life.**

Ans. ## The Beginning of Human Life

Preliminary Stage

Before new life can begin, the sex cells from which the new individual will develop go through three preliminary stages of development. These are maturation, ovulation, and fertilization.

1. Maturation—In the words of **Elizabeth B. Hurlock**, *"Maturation is chromosome reduction through cell division in which one chromosome from each pair goes to a subdivided cell which, in turn, splits lengthwise and forms two new cells. The mature cell, which contains only 23 chromosomes, is known as a haploid cell"*. Until sex maturity has been attained, following the onset of puberty in both boys and girl's maturation of sex cells does not occur. In the case of the spermatozoon, there are four new cells, called the spermatids, each of which is capable of fertilizing an ovum.

In the division of the ovum, one chromosome from each pair is pushed outside the cell walls and forms a polar body. Three polar bodies are formed in the process of division. Unlike the spermatids, the polar bodies cannot be fertilized, while the fourth cell, the ovum, can be fertilized. If, however, the ovum is not fertilized, it disintegrates and passes from the body with the menstrual flow.

The division of the chromosomes during the maturational process is a matter of chance. Any possible combination of chromosomes from the male and female may be found in a new cell after division. It has been estimated that there are 16,777,216 possible combinations of the 23 chromosomes from the male and the 23 from the female sex cells. Therefore children of the same family are often so different in their physical and mental characteristics. Even when one knows his parents, grandparents, and other near relatives it is impossible to predict what the physical and mental characteristics of a child will be.

2. Ovulation—According to **Elizabeth B. Hurlock**, *"Ovulation is the process of escape of one mature ovum during the menstrual cycle"*. In the follicles of the female ovaries there are approximately 30,000 immature ova when the girl reaches sexual maturity. About 400 of these, ova mature during the female reproductive period, from the onset of puberty, at approximately thirteen years, until the onset of the menopause, in the forties or early fifties.

It is believed that the two ovaries alternate in producing a ripe ovum during each menstrual cycle of twenty-eight days. After being released from one of the follicles of the ovary, the ovum finds its way to the open end of the Fallopian tube nearest the ovary from which it has been released. Once it enters the tube, it is propelled along the tube by a combination of factors: cilia or hair like cells which line the tube; fluids composed of estrogens from the ovarian follicle and mucus from the lining of the tube; and rhythmic, progressive contractions of the walls of the tube.

Ovulation occurs between the 5th and 23rd day of the cycle, with the average on the 11.8th day. When the female menstrual cycle is normal *i.e.*, lasting for approximately 28 days. Variations from one cycle to another are common even in the same woman. There are also marked individual differences from one woman to another. Even in the same woman there are differences from one menstrual cycle to another in the time during which the ovum remains in the tube. This time varies from 2 to 7 days, with an average of 3 days.

3. Fertilization—Fertilization or conception normally occurs while the ovum is in the Fallopian tube. It is generally believed that fertilization takes place within 12 to 36 hours and usually within the first 24 hours after the ovum has entered the tube. During coitus, or sexual intercourse, spermatozoa are deposited at the mouth of the uterus. Through strong harmonic attraction, they are drawn into the tubes where they are aided in making their way up the tubes by rhythmic muscular contractions. A healthy sperm cell can be in the female sex organs for 24 to 36 hours before losing too much of its energy, to reach the ovum and penetrate its outer wall.

After the spermatozoon has penetrated the ovum, the surface of the ovum changes so that no other spermatozoon can enter. After the sperm cell penetrates the wall of the ovum, the nuclei from the two cells, each containing 23 chromosomes, approach each other. There is a breakdown in the membrane surrounding each nucleus and this allows the two nuclei to merge. Thus the species number of chromosomes, 46, is restored, half coming from the male and the other half from the female cell.   ●

Q.2.   Identify the stages of prenatal Development.

Ans.   # Stages of Prenatal Development

The normal prenatal period is 10 lunar months or 9 calendar months in length. However, there is great variation in this length, ranging from 180 days to 334 days. There are approximately three times as many babies born prematurely as post maturely. Prenatal development is orderly and predictable. Hence, it is possible to give a 'timetable' of the important developments taking place during this period. The prenatal period is generally divided into three stages or periods, each characterized by its own peculiar type of development. These three are—the stage of the ovum, extending from the moment of conception to the end of the second week; the stage of the embryo, from the end of the second week to the end of the second lunar month; and the stage of the *fetus*, from the end of the second lunar month until birth.

1. The Stage of the Ovum

(i) Preparation—During the two weeks of this period, the zygote, or fertilized ovum, remains practically unchanged in size since it receives little or no nourishment from outside. By the time it reaches the uterus, the size of the zygote is about that of a pinhead. It is kept alive by the nourishment it receives from the yolk of the ovum. Marked internal changes begin immediately after fertilization, even as the zygote passes down the fallopian tube into the uterus. The ovum divides and sub-divides many times forming a globular cluster of many cells. Within this cluster, a small cavity forms, causing the cells to separate into outer and inner layers. Later the outer layer develops into the accessory tissues which protect and nourish the individual during the prenatal period. A part of the inner cluster develops into the embryo.

While the fertilized ovum completes its journey down the fallopian tube, the lining of the uterus completes its preparation to receive the ovum. This preparation consists of an increase in the blood-vessels and glandular system of the wall so that it will be a soft, thick, cushion like structure in which the ovum can be embedded and receive nourishment.

This type of preparation occurs during every menstrual cycle and is brought about by the secretion of two hormones. Estrogens is present in the follicle in which the ovum matures and from which it is released when the follicle ruptures. Progesterone is produced in the wall of the ovary. If the preparation

is unnecessary, as is true when the ovum has not been fertilized, the tissue in the uterine wall breaks down and is eliminated from the body in the menstrual flow.

(ii) Implantation—During the first half of the period of the ovum approximately the zygote is free roving and unattached. It is nourished by the yolk within the ovum. After the zygote emerges from the fallopian tube, it usually floats about in the uterus, unattached, for several days. During this period, it must continue to nourish itself from its yolk. Then, when the zygote finds a place in the uterine wall to lodge, it shoots out feelers which push their way through the blood vessels in the wall and thus create a new source of nourishment. Implantation usually occurs about ten days after fertilization. Once this has been accomplished, the zygote becomes a parasite and remains as such throughout the remainder of the prenatal period.

(iii) Significance—According to Elizabeth B. Hurlock the period of the ovum is important for three reasons—

(a) The ovum may die before it becomes lodged in the wall of the uterus;

(b) Implantation may not take place;

(c) The ovum may become implanted in the wrong place. If the ovum has too little yolk to keep it alive until it can lodge itself in the uterine wall, or if it remains so long in the tube that the yolk is used up, the zygote will die.

An insufficient number of hormones from the mother's thyroid and pituitary glands slows down the pattern of reproduction and is therefore believed to be the cause of the zygote's remaining unattached for too long.

If mere is a proper balance between the functions of the mother's pituitary glands and the ovaries, the walls of the uterus prepare themselves to receive the zygote. If because of glandular imbalance this preparation is too late implantation cannot occur. The zygote disintegrates and is washed out of the body with the next menstrual flow. And, finally, the zygote may attach itself to place where it cannot get nourishment and, as a result, it will die. It may become attached to a small fibroid tumour in the uterine wall from which it can get no nourishment or, it may not move down into the uterus but attach itself the wall of the fallopian tube. This is known as a tubal pregnancy. The zygote must be removed surgically because normal development cannot take place in the tube.

2. The Stage of the Embryo—The period of the embryo is one of rapid change. From a mass of cells, the embryo develops in the short period of six weeks to a miniature individual. All the essential features of the body, both external and internal, are established at this time. Development follows the law of developmental direction with the major development occurring in the head region first and in the extremities last. Gradually, as the prenatal period progresses, development extends to the lower part of the body so that, at the time of birth, some of the original top-heaviness has been corrected. After the period of the embryo, the changes that occur are in actual or relative size and in the functioning of the parts of the body already formed, rather than in the appearance of new features.

3. The Stage of the Fetus—The period of the fetus is by far the longest but, in many respects, the least important subdivision of the prenatal period. The development which takes place during this period consists mainly of changes in actual or relative size of the parts of the body already established during the preceding period rather than in the appearance of new parts. During the period of the fetus, actual growth and development are greater than during the period of the embryo. However, they occur at a relatively slower rate. Development during the period of the fetus follows the law of development direction. In the early part of the period, the body length shows a rapid increase followed by a steady decline in growth rate towards the end of the period, when increase occurs in the length of the limbs.

(i) Body length and weight—The increase in body length at this time is slightly over seven fold. By the end of the third lunar month, the fetus measures approximately 3½ inches in length and weight

3/4 ounce. At five months it is 10 inches and 9 to 10 ounces. At eight months it is 16 to 18 inches and 4 to 5 pounds. At ten months it is 20 inches and 7 to 7½ pounds.

(ii) The head—The head is almost one third of the total body length at the beginning of the period. It is one-fourth at the sixth month. It is slightly less than one fourth at birth.

(iii) Face—During this period, the face becomes relatively a little broader. There are many changes in the nose, mouth and throat. Sockets for the teeth appear, at this time.

(iv) Skin—During the early part of this period, the skin is wrinkled, owing to the comparative absence of subcutaneous fat. At the end of the period, the skin is very red, owing to the visibility of the vascular system just beneath it.

(v) Hair—The hair on the scalp is short, poorly pigmented and often scanty during this period. There is usually soft, woolly hair covering most of the body, lanugo hair, which is shed shortly after birth.

(vi) Trunk—Rapid growth takes place in the trunk also. The increase is between seven and nine fold.

(vii) Arms and legs—Before the third, fetal month, the arms are longer than the legs. Later the reverse is true.

(viii) Toes and fingers—During the fourth month, the toe finger patterns are established. They continue to develop so that, by birth, two hands and feet, though proportionally small, are well developed. The nails on the toes and fingers grow gradually during the last part of the period of the fetus.

(ix) Internal organs—At the end of the third lunar month, the internal organs are well developed. In some instances, they begin to function at this time.

(a) Heart—Fetal heartbeat can be detected through the use of a stethoscope by the fourteenth or sixteenth week.

(b) Glands—By the end of the fifth lunar month, the different internal organs have assumed positions nearly like those in an adult body. Changes in relative, weights of the thymus, thyroid and adrenal glands occur during this period. At the fourth prenatal month, the adrenals are relatively the largest, the thyroid is immature and the thymus begins to grow steadily, most of the primary ossification centres have appeared before the end of the fourth fetal month.

(c) Nervous system—By the third lunar month, short thread like prolongations, which later develop into the *oxons* and *dendrites* of the neurons, appear. Two months later, the complete number of neurons possessed by a mature individual are present. From then on development consists of extension of the axons and dendrites, acquisition of a covering or myelin sheath and modification of the synapses.

(d) Brain—Not all parts of the brain develop at the same time. The regions that control motor activities develop far in advance of the other areas of the brain.

(e) Sense organs—The condition of the sense organs during the fetal period is difficult to determine. There are indications, however, that stimulation of the sense cells in the fetus is impossible because of the constant conditions which exist within the uterus.

➤ **Taste**—Taste buds, which begin to develop in the third fetal month, are found on the hard palate, the tonsils, and in parts of the oesophagus, as well as on the tongue.

➤ **Smell**—Smell reactions in prematurely born intents show that the smell mechanism is well developed before birth. But like taste, olfaction cannot begin until the nasal cavity is filled with air.

➤ **Eyes**—Stimulations of the visual cells in the eye does not take place until birth, though the eye itself begins to develop in the second or third week after fertilization. For six or more months before birth, the eyes move with increasing coordination, even though they are in

darkness. Two months before birth, the retina assumes an adult arrangement. Four months before birth, the eyes move with, increasing coordination, even though they are in darkness.

➤ **Ears**—The infant remains partially deaf, even after birth, until the Eustachian tube of the ear is opened and the liquid from the middle ear is drained out. However, the fetus can hear strong sounds produced by doorbells, buzzers and wooden knockers struck against a dish attached to the mother's abdomen. Fetal reaction to such sounds occurs four or five weeks before birth.

➤ **Skin**—Cutaneous sensitivity begins in the nose and mouth region then spreads gradually over the remaining surface of the body. Even in prematurely born infants, little or no response is made to pain stimulations. The temperature sense is much the same in premature as in full term infants. Reactions to stimuli warmer than the body are stronger than to stimuli that are colder. The semicircular canals in the inner ear, responsible for balance begin to function early in the fetal period and attain their adult size by the end of this period.

➤ **Fetal Activity**—The muscles are well developed and spontaneous movements of the arms and legs appear by the third lunar month. Fetal activity differs markedly in different fetuses, not only in amount but also in type. In some instances, the fetus is active as much as 75 percent of the time; in others, as little as 5 percent. In some fetuses, constant turning and twisting are noted. In others, the movements are limited to kicks of the legs and thrusts of the arms. Some have hiccups almost every day, others rarely hiccup. There is a significant increase in the amount of fetal movement from the sixth to the ninth lunar month. During the last lunar month before birth, there is increased pressure on the fetal head, thus inhibiting bodily movement and crowding of the fetal body in the amniotic sac. This limits the space for movement.

Early fetal activity is greater in the head than in the leg region, showing the operation of the law of developmental direction. Towards the end of the period of the fetus, however, the amount of activity in the leg region is similar to that in the head region. Activity is greater at the end of the day than in the morning, suggesting that the mother's fatigue may be a contributing cause.

The periods of activity increase in length but decrease in number as the fetus grows older.

Two distinct types of fetal activity have been reported: specific reflexes and generalized movements, or mass activity involving most of the body. Between the fourth and fifth prenatal months, most of the basic reflexes, such as swallowing and the flexion reflex, are established. Mass activity, in response to external stimuli, occurs as early ashe third parental month. Later, mass activity becomes spontaneous and does not have to be stimulated by external stimuli. As the period of the fetus progresses, mass activity becomes more differentiated, thus allowing different parts of the body to move independently of the rest of the body.

Conditions

Variations in fetal activity have been found to be associated with different conditions in the fetal environment. Maternal activity temporarily decreases fetal activity. When the mother is severely fatigued, more frequent and more violent fetal activity occurs. Sudden feelings of fear or anger on the mother's part produce immediate and marked increases in the number and violence of fetal movements. Fetuses of mothers undergoing severe emotional stress exhibit many times the amount of activity they previously did.

It has been noted that infants who were most active as fetuses show certain motor performances at an earlier age than do those who were less active. Excessive activity of fetuses, on the other hand, may cause infants to be considerably underweight for their body length at birth, because energy producing foods are used up in activity rather than stored as fat. Infants who were less active as fetuses are

covered with more fat tissue at birth, but they have been found to be slower in acquiring skills postnatally. However, they generally have less difficulty in adjusting to their postnatal environment than those who were excessively active during the fetal period. Hyperactive fetuses, by contrast, often become "hyperactive irritable, squirming, crying" infants, suffering from a "prenatally produced neurosis" which makes their adjustment to life outside the mother's body difficult. ●

Q.3. Define infancy and discuss partunate and neonate development.

Ans. In the words of **Elizabeth B. Hurlock**, *"Infancy, or the period of the newborn, is the shortest of all the developmental periods. It begings at birth and ends when the infant is approximately two weeks old. This is the time when the fetus must adjust to life outside the uterine walls of the mother where he has lived for approximately nine months"*.

Criteria of Adjustment

1. Medical criteria—The adjustment is completed with the fall of the umbilical cord from the naval.

2. Physiological criteria—It is completed when the infant has regained the weight lost after birth.

3. Psychological criteria—Adjustment is completed when the infant begins to show signs of developmental progress in behaviour. However, most infants complete this adjustment in two weeks or slightly less. Those whose birth has been difficult or premature require more time.

Two Periods of Infancy

The period of infancy is generally subdivided into two periods—the period of the partunate and the period of the neonate :

1. The period of the partunate—This is for the first fifteen to thirty minutes of postnatal life-form the time the infant emerges from the mother's body into the world until the umbilical cord has been out.

2. The period of neonate—The cutting of the umbilical cord marks the beginning of the second subdivision of the infancy period—the period of the neonate. At this time, the infant is no longer a parasite but has become a separate, distinct and independent individual. This period is characterized by making of adjustments to a new environment in the world outside the mother's body.

Although the human life span legally begins at the moment of birth, birth is merely an interruption of the developmental pattern that started at the moment of conception. It is the graduation from an internal to an external environment. Like all graduations, it requires adjustments on the individual's part. It may be easy for the infant to make these adjustments or so difficult that he will fail to do. As **Miller** has commented, *"In all the rest of his life, there will never be such a sudden and complete change of locale"*.

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ASPECTS OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

"Infancy, or the period of the newborn, is the shortest of all the developmental periods. It begins at birth and ends when the infant is approximately two weeks old. This is the time when the fetus must adjust to life outside the uterine walls of the mother where he has lived for approximately nine months".
—Elizabeth B. Hurlock

Q.1. **Describe physical development during infancy and childhood. Point out important things to remember in this connection.**

Ans. ## Meaning of Development

Development of the child is a series of orderly progression of change towards maturity.
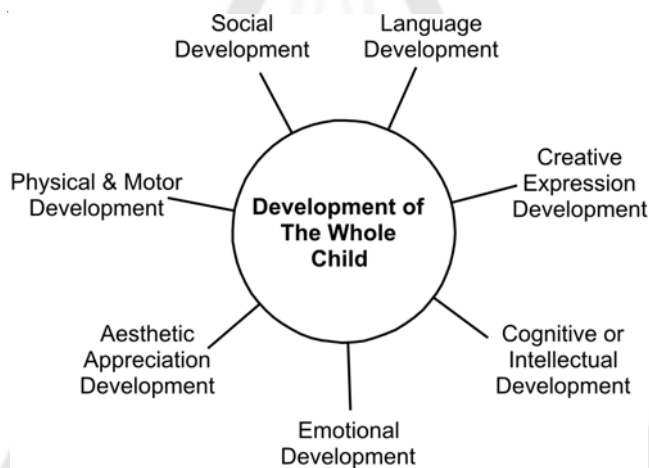
(1) Infancy

Infancy itself is divided into two stages or steps of development, the first lasting from birth to three years, thereafter the second stage lasts till the child is six years of age.

The child develops very rapidly in the infant stage. At birth, the child is bodily unattractive because the skin is lined, the face puffed up and red, the size of the head approximately one fourth of the body and the rest of the body unbalanced. When born the child is about twenty inches in height, but grows another 10 inches before its first year is completed. Generally, the child is between seven and a half pounds in weight, the male child being taller and heavier than the female. In the first year, both weight and size increase at a very rapid pace. Height or length increases about 50 percent in this period while the weight doubles in six months and trebles in another six. The proportion of the head to the body also changes, being one-fourth at the time of birth. In the process of development, the head becomes one-eighth of it as it develops. The length of arms and legs also increases as the child comes to use them more and more in his adaptation to life outside the womb.

Weight of the brain increases rapidly during pregnancy and immediately after birth. By the time the child reaches the age of four his brain gains 80 percent of its final weight, another 13 percent

being added by the time he is eight. The rest is acquired by his twentieth year. It is between the ages of 4 and 6 years that the main part of the brain develops in weight. Sex organs develop in the opposite manner, as during the first 14 years of development they develop only to 20 percent while the remaining 80 percent is completed within the next six years.

Normally, the height of the child at birth indicates the height he will attain in adulthood, but there are upto 20 percent exceptions to this rule. Although there is never any very rapid physical development, yet one can see individual differences in the speed and time of it. Normally, one sees an inclination towards the average in the increase in height. Those who grow fast, slow up as they reach the average, but those who increase in height relatively slowly, develop rapidly as they attain to the average.

The rate of the development decreases till the child attains the adolescent stage, when it again increases: Generally, the development curves of both sexes were similar. Besides Harvard, other American universities such as Yale, Michigan, Iowa and California, have also carried out detailed research into the development of children. Studies conducted by Preyer, Stanley Hall and Carl Murchison as well as Arnold Gessell, have yielded important data. It must, of course, be remembered that there are wide differences in the development of height and weight in individual children, the causes of the differences being attributable both to environment and heredity. Height and weight of a child in development are a testimony to his good health which influences his mental and emotional development also.

Another sphere in which change continually takes place is the proportion between the various parts of the developing child's body. The head becomes smaller and reduces in proportion to the body while the hands and feet gain in size proportion.

Development of Internal Organs

Teeth are absent at birth, but within a year the child begins cutting teeth that are called milk teeth. In the infancy the internal organs of the child's body undergo constant development. The most prominent ones to develop are the digestive organs, lungs, muscles, nervous system, nerves, sex organs and glands. This development achieves balance between the various internal organs.

While the child is born, he has a nervous system adequately developed to deal with his environment, to react to its external stimuli and to adapt and adjust to it. Muscles normally do to not develop during the child's infancy. There is no evidence to indicate that the child breathes inside the womb, but as soon as he is born, he begins breathing and blood circulation continues. While inside the womb, the heart beat is very low, but immediately following birth the heart beat gains considerable speed and becomes rapid. As the size of the heart increases, it becomes stronger, the heart beat and the speed of blood circulation in the arterial system both slow down to become steady. According to physiologists, during the first month of infancy, the child's heart beats upto 140 times a minute, but in the first six months it slows down to about 100 times a minute. While the child is still in his infancy, he develops the means of execrating all waste matter from the body and combating all attacks of virus and other disease germs. On the contrary, the development of sex organs in infancy is exceedingly slow.

Important Facts about the Infant's Development

The child's weight decreases in the first two weeks of his life because much of the water in him evaporates. But this decrease is soon made up. Some precautions are required on the part of the parents if the child's physical development during infancy is to be maintained. The following are these important facts—

1. Food—Food is one of the most important considerations in child care. The speed of growth being very rapid, it is essential that the child's diet be both balanced and administered at the proper time. In this connection, Laird and his associates conducted an experiment in which some children were kept on an exclusively milk diet, others on a diet of milk and other nutritive foods, and still other children on normal food. After some weeks it was noticed that the children on a milk diet had progressed

some 8 percent more than the children on a normal diet. Similarly, children kept on milk and other nutritive foods had progressed some 16 percent more than those on the normal diet. Generally speaking, all doctors and scientists believe that milk is the best food during the period of infancy as in this period the bodies develop and strengthen at a rapid pace, a milk is essential for this development. As long as the child retains his so called milk teeth, his most nutritive diet is milk, and among the varieties of milk the very best is the variety that is the easiest to digest. Mahatma Gandhi believed that goat's milk is the most digestible but scientific opinion contradicts this view in favour of cow's milk. The latter is beneficial for mental development besides its more obvious advantages for bodily development and improvement. Tinned milk, if it be not too old, can also be administered without any ill effects. In some cases, tinned milk does not prow suitable and leads to serious ailments of the stomach which can become complicated and even fatal. Concerning baby food Spiller has opined that the child should not be given any solid food, but should be given only milk and fruit. The child's milk teeth cannot bite and masticate hard food, nor can his intestines digest it.

2. Clothes and cleanliness—In infancy, the child's bones are very weak and tender. Consequently, it is necessary that much care must be exercised in cleaning and washing him. The use of olive oil for delicate massage is good for the child, but the massage must be tenderly conducted. Lack of attention to the child's cleanliness can result in his contracting many diseases. In the Indian type of climate the child should be bathed at least once daily, and his bed cleaned with the same periodicity. It can be kept free of urine and other waste matter excreted by the child by the use of bed sheets made of rubber. More generally speaking it is desirable that the child's bed and clothes should never exude any bed smell. Bad smell creates bad effect on the child's health. Of course, the best thing that can be done is that the children should be trained to excrete by the clock, that is, at set times. Tight fitting clothes interfere with the free circulation of blood with bad effects on his delicate health. Clothes should thus be reasonably loose, but not necessarily of the toga variety. Of course, it is reasonable that the child should be protected from the cold by warm clothing, but it is better if he is not suffocated in them. He should not be smothered in his clothes; the pores of his skin should be given as much chance to breathe as his lungs. It is best that the child should be loaded with the least clothes to protect him, since the habit of counteracting the heat and cold that he acquires at this stage usually lasts him his whole life. The sun's rays, so long as they are not strong enough to burn the skin, are always beneficial to the skin, but if one would be convinced of their real utility, one should enquire of the infant, for it is the infant who derives the greatest benefit from them. How surprising it is, that while people in the Western hemisphere, where the climate is much colder, try to keep their children in as few clothes as possible, but in a hot climate like India people literally load them with clothes in winter, it does the child's tender bones much good to be massaged with oil and then laid out in the sun to be strengthened. The body gains by massage and sun bathing because the child gets vitamin D from the sun's rays, which helps in his cutting teeth at the right time.

3. Sleep and upbringing—It is in his infancy that the child requires much sleep and can normally get it. He should be allowed to sleep like a sapling, not as long as he feels like it, since the proper amount of sleep helps in adequate and proper development of the body. Normally, at this age, the child awakens only when he feels hungry and goes to sleep immediately his stomach is filled. He spends the larger span of his time in sleeping. In the first month the child cries only when he is hungry, but sometimes it is also because he has tasted milk, so that it is not a good practice to feed him milk whenever he cries. Such intemperate feeding spoils his digestive system and has the worst effect on his health, besides leaving him susceptible to many dangerous diseases. It is scientifically more desirable to feed the child by the clock, and to allay his crying by presenting him with toys on by any other means available, such as crooning to him, if that can possibly put at stop to his crooning. Children are normally very much attracted by brightly coloured object and if they manage to get their hands on them they begin to suck them. On the bed the child flings his arms and legs about, much to his own good as it exercises his limbs though in a somewhat unconventional manner.

Infancy Prior to Childhood

Following the first three years of his life, the second stage in the child's development is the time between three and six years of age. The period is considered by some to be the precursor of childhood, or the last stage of infancy, as it falls after infancy but before actual childhood. It comprehends the development that takes place between the ages of three and six. While the first three years of the infant's life can be called the period of agglomeration, the period under consideration can be called the stage of maturity. In other words, all that the child acquires in the first three years is strengthened and made stable in the next three. Evidently, no fresh bodily development takes place in this period, only the old development is capitalised upon and made permanent. Children appear to be very naughty and irrepressible in the first three years, but they acquire a modicum of reserve in the next three, and appear comparatively serious. In the first stage, it is easy and desirable to guide him in as many ways as possible, but in this latter period it is best not to interfere in the development and during maturity. This stage, too, requires that all possible attention be bestowed on him in respect of his physical as well as his mental comfort.

Childhood—Physical and other development in the child takes place between the ages of six and twelve in the childhood period. In other words, the person from seven to nine years of age is the period of acquisition or agglomeration in which development takes place, while the time between the age of ten and twelve is the period when maturity of this growth takes place.

1. Period of growth—The child is as restless in the growth period of child as he was in the same period of his infancy. At this stage, his interest in the objects of his environment is continually on the increase. This time is the best to start his education. His education at this stage should be so designed as to make the most profitable use of his instincts. From the bodily point of view development is not very rapid, as such rapid development is visible either at the age of two or of twelve. Games are particularly important for the physical development of the child. Every effort should be made to interest the child in games by which he can profit both in respect of body as well as of mind. This age is particularly important in respect of possibilities of engraining good habit and high ideals in his mind. He should be taught to lead a disciplined and regular life, and his various physical and mental needs should be quickly attended to, his physical comfort must not be neglected. In fact, bodily development does not imply the child's becoming large and broad, but rather the possession of such qualities as energy, enthusiasm, freshness, the capacity to labour etc. It is only when the child possesses these qualities in abundance that he can properly be called healthy. Elementary physical training and light drill at school at this stage is desirable.

2. Period of maturity—In the maturity period the child specially develops a social consciousness. He should be encouraged to meet others and cooperate with them, but at the same time a sense of proportion is always to be admired. The child should never be allowed to become a vagabond or truant. Such healthy habits as collecting stamps, post cards, etc. can be inculcated. ●

Q.2. **What is the influence of environment on the mental development of the child? Explain with examples.** *Or*

What do you understand by cognitive development? Citing important studies describe the various stages of cognitive development.

Ans. # Mental Development and Education

The mental development of the child comprehends the development of his intellect, mental capabilities, imagination, thinking, emotion, volition and other mental processes. The teacher's duty is to assist the child in the development of his abilities. This development is education. Education that does not result in development is not worth the name. Functions of the human brain are three—to know, to experience and to reach decisions. It is the teacher's function to see to it that each of these three activities of the child are developed as completely as possible. Mental education is concerned with

knowing, experiencing and reaching a decision. The process of knowing comprehends perception and cognitive knowledge. The individual makes use of an object in its absence through employing his imagination and memory. Knowledge also includes reasoning and deciding. It is for the teacher to help the young child in perceiving, imagining, reasoning and reaching decisions. It is equally the duty of the teacher to understand the child's problems and look at them from the child's viewpoint.

Influence of Environment on Mental Development

The social environment is pregnant with influences that affect the mental development of a child. Having grasped this simple fact, the sensible teacher searches the environment for an explanation of the difficulties that arise in the mental development of children. It is, of course, not implied that heredity is any the less influential in the mental development of children. Generally speaking, it is from heredity that the child acquires a particular mental level and specific mental abilities. These abilities can be developed further to the best advantages under certain propitious social circumstances. But the objective of improving the environment in order to study the influence that environment has on child's mental development that education professes, is very important. Environmental influence can be divided into the following classes—

1. Influence of family—The child's education begins in the home. It is with the family that the development of his mental abilities starts. Hence, if the family possesses a favourable intellectual atmosphere, the mental development of the child is speeded. Use of radio and television helps in increasing the child's fund of general knowledge, and he tends to be better informed. In rich families, the child has available many other resources besides those that help to add to his knowledge. Imitating his parents and brothers and sisters, the little infant learns a lot. If their mental development is good, the child is more apt to progress fast than if such is not the case. An atmosphere of self-dependence in the family makes a child self-sufficient and self-reliant, and his mental faculties develop properly. Parents should make their best effort to satisfy each inquisitive query proceeding from the child, and to persuade the young child to think for himself. Maternal influence in particular, is well known on the mental development of the world's greatest saints, scientists, leaders and thinkers. The child's mental development is susceptible to such diverse influence as the relations between his parents, the number of brothers and sisters, presence of other relatives in the family, the relations existing between the child himself and his parents, the social, economic and cultural level of his family, general administration or discipline within the family, peace and comfort, etc.

2. Neighbourhood influences—Once the child becomes mobile by learning to move about he moves outside the sphere of the household, and becomes intimate with other elements in the neighbourhoods. As he grows, he even becomes a member of the group of children who are knitted into a team because of their contiguity. These friends and colleagues exert an important influence on his mental development. Guardians should pay attention to the activities of his group and do their best to guard against the children acquiring bad habits.

3. Influence of school environments—After the house and the neighbourhood, the next potent influence to which the child is exposed is the school. Normally, a child enters school at the age of three or four, and thenceforth, his susceptible to such influences as the conduct of his teachers, the curriculum, and method of teaching, environment of the school, the character and behaviour of his colleagues. In this connection the following facts are worth noting—

(a) Teacher's behaviour—Parents in the family and the teacher in the school take the place of the child's ideal. If the teacher himself has a wide mental horizon and treats his young students with love and affection, the children will be able to develop their minds in a free atmosphere. On the other hand, a staunch disciplinarian for a teacher may harm the students by deforming their mental development.

(b) Method of teaching—Modern educational psychology places much stress on research in the field of teaching methods. Research already conducted in this developing mind in different teaching

methods influences the developing mind in different manners. A proper method of teaching will help to develop a healthy and comprehensive outlook, whereas other methods may make the child narrow-minded and hinder his mental development. Whatever the teaching method, the teacher should aim at making the student think and understand for himself rather than force him to learn by rote. And the children should make the effort to prepare their own note from books, instead of having them dictated to them by the teacher. Private tuition also helps to make the student narrow-minded and dependent upon the work of others. His mental powers are not developed. Secondly, students should be dissuaded from the use of brief and inferior help books made with a view merely to pass the examination. Many students prefer to learn answers to questions by rote and thus get through the examination. But this method is not conductive to proper mental development. The truth of the matter is that there is no shortcut to mental development, it being the outcome of considerable labour, persistence and consistent effort. Children should be encouraged by their teacher to study as much as they possibly can. The extent to which a child can study continuously is dependent upon his age and individual ability and this factor should be kept in view while advising a student to study.

(c) **Curriculum**—Mental development in children is also influenced by the curriculum adopted in the various schools in which they study. A study of mental development in children has revealed roughly the various subjects that a child should be required to study at various age levels. Putting too great a strain on him in the form of excessive books can only hinder and obstruct his mental development. **Secondly**, if the curriculum is such that the subjects taught are dry, arid, mechanical and uninteresting the child is unable to concentrate and the whole process becomes a burden. Fear of failure in the examination compels him to learn enough material to ensure his success, but his mind does not approach even the least towards the goal of complete development.

(d) **Extra-curricular activities**—According to modern educational psychologists, complete mental development of the child cannot be achieved only through study, since formal education alone does not provide occasions for the practice of all mental skills and abilities. Thus, most modern schools provide opportunities for such extra-curricular activities as debates, picnics, travels, tours of historic and important places, gardening, scouting, N.C.C., dancing, music, painting, acting and formal student unions. Such programmes help in the improvement of both mental abilities as well as the various aspects of the child's personality.

(e) **Administration and discipline**—For the proper mental development of children, it is essential that the schools in which they study should be properly administered, but teacher should be advised to maintain discipline through love, affection and sympathy rather through physical punishment, in modern educational institutions the discipline of the school is entrusted to a few chosen students themselves. Similarly, the organisation of the various programmes organised within the school, such as picnics, games, competitions, etc., is also put in hands of students. This method has the effect of removing any consciousness of a burden, as they learn to discipline themselves. Being self imposed, discipline loses the element of burden. A hostel warden had recourse to a brilliant psychological device for putting an end to organised indiscipline among his students. He announced that the dining table which showed the least disturbance during dinner would be awarded with a flag, which would entitle occupants of that table to twice the normal rations of the choice morsels of food. This system worked wonders with the discipline of the children and the students strove to maintain discipline among them. Even if one of them felt inclined to be naughty, he was speedily dissuaded by his table mates. In this manner, the use of psychological ingenuity solved the warden's problems without any undesirable strife. Generally speaking, it is likely to prove profitable if care of furniture and other class-room equipment, is made over to students themselves. If this is done, the students themselves will deter those among them who are of more ambitious but perverted turn of mind. Nevertheless, there is no way of completely avoiding some system of awards and punishments in schools. There is little to worry about awards, as there is little chance of their being injudicious in nature or time of presentation, but care must be taken to

convince the punished child that he is being punished for his own good. Normally, one should avoid severe physical punishment of children because this adversely affects their personality.

4. Influence of cultural environment—The child is open to the cultural environment whether he be in school, in his neighbourhood or at home. The cultural environment is made up of ideas, objectives and values. Mental development is healthy and comprehensive if these elements are themselves valuable. But if these factors lack real value, mental development is likely to be hindered or it may take turns that are not desirable. ●

Q.3. **Discuss the relationship between the child's physiological developments and its intellectual development. Citing important studies describe the other factors influencing intellectual development.**

Ans. Mental development implies living being's adjustment of his conduct with the conditions and circumstances of his environment with the object to attain certain ends. The correlation between physical and mental development can be seen right from infancy. Consequently, while the two years old child is apparently more developed physically than a one year old child, it is equally perceptible that he is mentally developed and superior to his juniors in all. But there is no inevitability in that a child of five years must also be mentally superior to a child who is of four years because individuals differ in respect of the speed with which they develop mentally. Nevertheless, mental development in most children progresses at approximately the same rate which is consequently the average. Educational psychology tries to locate the average. The cells of a child's mind develop continuously and in his manner the various parts of his brain gain-in complexity. Hence, his mental development takes the form of vertical development.

Mental Development in First Six Years

In his infancy, the child shows very few signs of rational behaviour. His main functions are eating, sleeping and fulfilling various other physical needs. In this manner, he is primarily concerned with his own comfort but experiments have proved that the child can react to visual and touch stimuli although these stimuli and consequent reactions show lack of order and system. In the first three years of his infancy the child begins to give evidence of mental qualities that are to be his capital for the years of life to come. Roughly speaking, in the first six years of life, till he attains the age of seven, the following characteristics are to be seen in his mental developments.

1. Choice of alternative methods in the satisfaction of needs—The child is fully conscious of such physical conditions and needs as hunger, thirst, sleep, regulation of temperature, etc. As he progresses, these needs settle into a definite pattern, and the methods of satisfying them also become definite. In this process, the child, is often seen displaying his selective capacity. In general, the child makes efforts to avoid, all unpleasant and painful circumstances. At the same time, much of his behaviour is motivated desire to distinguish between one person and another. He is desirous of attracting attention and winning praise from others. In the first year, the child learns to walk and to talk. In the next two years there is rapid progress in his ability of walking, talking and detecting various objects within his environment through the use of his sense organs. At this age, the child slowly but inevitably becomes acquainted with the objects and living beings that form part of his environment. He comes to know them by their names, and also to reckon their spatial distinctions and relations.

2. Lack of time knowledge—For the child, the conventional divisions of time such as today, tomorrow, the day after or the week and year are meaningless as he cannot distinguish between them.

3. Questioning in such terms as Why, What and How—As has been pointed out, and can be observed without much difficulty, the growing child evinces a continuous and unflagging curiosity and interest in the elements in his environment. Hence, he constantly asks questions to his parents and teachers. Questions such as: Why is this? Why does that not happen? What is this? Who is this? are characteristics of the child. His queries are virtually ceaseless, and the questions come so rapidly that the child does not even bother to wait for an answer to one before going on to another. When he is very

much surprised, he often even forgets the very question he has just asked. These questions are not motivated so much by his quest for knowledge and information as they are an expression of his developing mental capacities.

4. The world of make believe—In this age, the child tends to live in a world of make believe, of which he himself is the creator. By donning his father's clothes he impersonates his papa to his own delight, and the acquisition of a stick effects an immediate transition to the schoolmaster. He makes a horse out of a long stick while some fruits suggest dolls to him. On seeing different animals, he assimilates them into his world of imagination. It is equally easy for him to roar like a lion, to growl like a dog, to make the sounds of a goat or to impersonate a cock in sound. His imagination also transforms him into objects and machines. One often comes across children playing as trains and aeroplanes. Young boys and girls live the life of their parents but in an imaginary world in which they marry off their dolls and make brides and bridegrooms, and the houses which are as unstable as their imagining. Such behaviour is as indicative of imitation as if is of a colourful and active imagination.

5. Variety of imagination—Often enough, the child himself is the hero of his imaginary world, and away from the real world, he lives delightedly in his own sphere. Evidently, the imaginings of a child display astonishing variety.

6. Tendency towards self-assertion—According to Alfred Adler, the famous psychologist, the most prominent and strong tendency in the child is the tendency towards self assertion. He normally yearns to exhibit his physical and mental abilities and win acclaim of the elders.

7. Distinction between self and others—The child is normally very conscious of his self, being primarily an individualist. He sometimes gives the impression of being selfish, and he does not show to advantage at such moments. He often sticks to his demand and obstinately tries to have his way. And if one child succeeds in getting something, another who has seen him at it is even more obstinate in his demand for it, even though he may have nothing to gain from it. But if he chooses to decline something, it needs much patience to make him yield the point. In fact, the child develops gradually in this age.

8. Surrender and enthusiasm—Even though his age develops continuously in this period of his life, the child also exhibits, in certain special circumstances, qualities of surrender and enthusiasm. They are not normally evident.

9. Intellectual development—The child's intellect starts developing in infancy, differences in intellect between various children being readily evident. As the child develops intellectually, his understanding and his knowledge of the various objects present around him increases.

10. Solution of simple problems—As the child gains in intellectual maturity, he learns to solve simple problems. At the very beginning, these problems normally relate to the activities and actions of the hand and feet. Having studied children between the ages of 19 and 44 months, Alpert came to the conclusion that children in this age also manifest evidence of existing insight. Intellectual development is evident from the ability with which the child solves various problems as they arise. According to Herter a child of five is able enough to solve problems through the use of concrete material as well as linguistic symbols.

11. Development of memory—The infant has great ability in learning by rote, as is evident from the success with which they repeat poems and stories that they have heard many times. Despite the fact that they hear the same song and folklore many times they evince the same rapt interest every time. And as far as stories or poems are concerned, they remember them as well that they can correct the person reciting to them, if he should happen to make a mistake.

12. Development of mental abilities—Children manifest the development of such mental qualities as observation, comparison, decision, etc. As the body develops, their sense organs become more and more sensitive and acute with the result that they can perceive objects better. Simultaneously, linguistic

ability also shows sign of improving. Gradually, children learn to distinguish linguistic symbols. Starting with small individual words, he progresses to the understanding of simple sentences, and in a short time learns to speak with considerable fluency and authority. These mental capacities of children can be seen in their play. He also develops constructive and aesthetic imagination. Coloured pictures are also intriguing for the child. He takes great interest in collecting things and in the construction of things with whatever material that comes to his hand.

13. Desire to assist his parents—Children are usually very much interested in assisting their parents, and when given the opportunity, they become very enthusiastic and delighted. They show preference for cooking with the mother and helping the father to carry small weights about the house. In this the child not only wins praise from his parents, but also gets an opportunity to give expression to his individuality.

14. Development of mental abilities—The child's mental abilities reach the stage of complete development by the time he is six. These are the ones that can help him to conduct himself like an individual in any group of human beings. On the one hand the child manifests the desire to cooperate with others, while on the other hand he expresses difference from others in respect of attitudes and behaviour.

15. Development of sex tendencies—Generally, the development of sex organs during infancy and childhood is rather slow, but such psychologists as Freud have irrefutably proved that the child has present in him the sex tendency and that it constantly develops. According to Freud, infancy is the state of self love, as the child finds pleasure in exploring the various parts of his own body. On this theory, sucking of the thumb is expressive of the sexual tendency. In this stage, the child loves himself, but very soon the children develop love for their parents. In this love, Freud has also detected the presence of heterosexual love. According to him, one can see the Oedipus complex present in male children while the female children manifest the Electra complex, as a result of which the male child loves the mother and female child loves the father.

16. Instinctive behaviour—Much of the child's behaviour in the infant and pre-school period is generated by instincts. Although the child also develops intellectually, yet he prefers to have his instincts satisfied without delay. He starts crying at the least delay in preparation of his food. At the smallest and most insignificant things he throws himself upon the ground and becomes adamant. He does whatever pleases him, but avoids anything that promises him pain. It is evident that in this one period of his life, he is not aware of moral and ethical considerations and compunctions in his behaviour.

17. Dependence upon others—As in the first three years of infancy, the child in his childhood is still dependent upon other persons such as parents, brothers and sisters, relatives and servants. He needs the assistance of others even in the fulfilments of such elementary needs as taking food, bathing and putting on clothes. As yet he does not possess self confidence and self-reliance. He even fears going out of the house alone, and prefers to take someone with him for protection, and companionship. He depends upon others to such an extent that even the activities that he is capable of performing by himself he requires of others that they perform it. If he fails, he tries to attract attention but does not get off the ground without the help of others, preferably the parents.

18. Imitation—Much of what a child learns of behaviour is acquired through the imitation of other individuals in the family. He is continually influenced by the behaviours of the parents among themselves and other children in the family. Hence, a majority of the habits that a child has can be traced to some one or the other individual member of his family because he imitates them without going into the propriety of the habit he is thus forming. He shouts if he sees others making a noise, but if he finds them quiet and peaceful, he does not disturb them but chooses to be equally quiet. Such habits as lying or stealing are formed in like manner.

19. Curiosity—The child's curiosity is almost always at fever pitch, and there is no end to the questions he can devise concerning the most mundane and uninteresting object that comes in his way. Answers do not interest him as much as asking questions. He revels in roaming around outside as he comes to see many novel things. This innate curiosity of the child can be skilfully exploited to the child's advantage by his parents and teachers who can tell him many things and turn his thoughts into desirable and profitable channels.

20. Influence of love and affection—A child is apt to react very violently to the least criticism and disrespect or disgrace. The arrival of a new baby in the family interests the child but if he comes to be disregarded by his parents his attraction turns to hatred, jealousy and distaste, which can sometimes take a very serious turn. He requires loving and sympathetic treatment from his parents, which, if it is not forthcoming, can hinder his mental development. He hates any correction or reproof. Strong discipline does not win his sympathy and he tries to rebel against it. In this age, the father should pay more attention to the female child and mother to the male child since its absence can lead to the development of hatred in the children. This consideration finds its theoretical support in the Freudian theory of Oedipus and Electra complexes.

21. Creative impulse—In this, age, one of the most manifest tendencies in the child is the creative impulse. He busies himself in making or breaking or collecting things, as the activities give him satisfaction that he, too, can do what all others do. Much of what he does is motivated by the desire to do all that he sees his elders doing, and it affords him much pleasure if he is given the opportunity of doing it. According to Western educational psychologists in this period of the infant's life, it is desirable that the parents should spend some time with the children as it affords them the best education that there can possibly be. The same function can be performed if the child is sent either to the kindergarten or the Montessori school but only in case these schools are really excellent, as otherwise it would be futile to entrust the children's education to them. It is in childhood that the foundations of good and bad habits as well as character are laid so that it is essential that the child be properly looked after.

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INSTINCTS AND GENERAL INNATE TENDENCIES

Q.1. **Explain the nature of instincts and state how can they be modified?**

Ans. ## Modification in Instinct

Stout has rightly described the sign of instinctive activity as *"persistency with varied effort"*. Instinct is a constant tendency towards a particular class of subjects illustrated by the interest of a developed male, towards a female, because of the sex instinct. This instinct cannot be removed but its form or its mode of expression may be modified. For example, in youth the attraction of males and females due to the sex instinct is quite natural but if some boy or girl has a disagreeable experience of the other-sex which may arouse in him a fear of or hatred for that person the manifestation of the sex instinct is much changed, so much so, that it becomes difficult to decide whether the sex instinct is active in his behaviour or not.

In a similar way, the object of the instinct may be altered. It is sometimes seen in human beings that the behaviour of boys towards boys and girls towards girls is the same as the behaviour which boys should have for girls and girls for boys. Instinct is a psycho-physical disposition and as such, it is inseparable from the creature. But the difference in its objects and modes of suppression is observable. This modification is far more pronounced in man than in animals. Man lives in society which has certain rules about behaviour, the infringement of which is liable to incur the displeasure of the other members of the community and bring in its wake a variety of punishments. Therefore, the individual suppresses his instinctive desires and tries to express them in ways acceptable to the society at large. Sometimes to overcome the sexual desires a person refrains from looking to a woman. A woman avoids men even when she is attracted to them. A child even when hungry, politely refuses to eat, food proffered by others. We deny our thirst even when our tongue is dry. We approach danger even when we are frightened. We do not change expression even when we feel a strong repulsion. A person does not attack even when he is also disposed but he waits for the correct and appropriate opportunity. McDougall has written that with mental development instinct-originated behaviour declines. From the mental view point man is the most developed creature. In human beings, the mental level varies with the individual. Though this manifestation results in very substantial differences in the object and the form of instinct, there are some instincts equally present in all, in the form of psycho-physical dispositions, irrespective of the difference. ●

Q.2. **Point out the use of various instincts in the education of the child.**

Ans. ## Use of Instincts in Education

In modern educational psychology every possible effort is made to base the education of the child on its instincts. Modern education aims at the excitation of one or the other instinct in a child in order to make any and every kind of education natural and normal. Various instincts in a child are useful in education in the following ways—

1. Escape—In a child one finds the instinct of escape conjoined to the emotion of fear. The intelligent teacher arouses fear and disgust towards bad things in the child. He also tries to prevent fear and escape from acting in many unnecessary cases. Meaningless fears are thus eliminated.

2. Pugnacity—The instinct of pugnacity or combat is a universal motive. The most important fact that accelerates or excites it is restraint. A child whose means of locomotion are stopped by the simple expedient of being placed under restraint will go red in the face and cry at the top of its voice. Conflict starts the moment one removes a chick from the hen, or makes fun of an irritable individual or prevents an animal from fulfilling and satisfying its instincts. The activity of conflict starts when some motive remains dissatisfied through some external agency.

The object of animal in turning pugnacious is to remove the obstacle preventing its progress or to defeat the obstacle. As long as the individual fails to defeat the obstacle or to remove it from his path, his internal, physiological and psychological disturbance continues. The pattern of pugnacity or combat is not the same in all animals or individuals nor are the implements common to all. Animals having long nails or teeth use them in warfare. In most animals it is the male who is pugnacious. He combats the animals of different species, and other males of his own species for supremacy over the females or for food. It is possible that the instinct of pugnacity is somewhat depressed by the female hormones. Human beings and some other animals are known to threaten behaviour actually attacking. Proverbially it is the monkey who is the best exponent of this behaviour pattern. Some animals threaten by showing their teeth, others by making offensive noises while others show their ungentlemenly instincts by beating on their chests. Forms of pugnacity are modified by age, intelligence, social and cultural influences and social behaviour. The pugnacious instinct of cultured individual finds expression in more indirect manner. His animosity continues over the years, and his vengeance is achieved in many devious and indirect ways. Litigation is only a form of conflict and it is very common in cultured societies. In fact, it is difficult to believe that pugnacity is only an instinct or an internal motive whose single object is conflict or fight. The instinct to competition may be innate but the pugnacious instinct is activated only when the fulfilments of a motive is obstructed. Anger results in conflict but sometimes anger finds expression in more devious and uncommon ways. An employee who has been severely reproved by his employer is in no position to answer him back in strong language as he goes in fear of losing his job, but as an alternative he lets off his pent up feelings of anger on his wife and children. Sometimes our pugnacious instinct is satisfied when we see others fighting. The tension of conflict is also related and relieved when one plays games or sees others playing or fighting going on the film screen. Within the family the parents prevent many of the child's instinctive actions so that he develops feelings of animosity for them. Children worry the parents so that the latter become angered. Children compete among themselves for the love of their parents. Similarly, some sort of conflict is usually found to exist between the best adjusted pair. In order to protect the household from the painful and often dangerous results of these conflicts, it is essential that harmless means of venting these tensions should be found and applied. Among children, games are the best outlet. Grownups should be given a chance to get their pent up emotions off their chest once in a while. This is a useful expedient.

3. Repulsion—The intelligent teacher does his best to develop the motive of repulsion in the child for unsavoury and undesirable expedient.

4. Parental instinct—To this instinct is conjoined the emotion of pity This instinct finds its expression in the older child's love for his younger counterpart and for other living beings.

5. Sex—Sex instinct of a person may be turned into more acceptable outlets such as dancing, music, art, etc., by the teacher. And, particularly in the adolescent stage, this instinct can be restricted and moulded to provide the desirable development in the adolescent.

6. Curiosity—Curiosity is the most important instinct from the educational viewpoint. It is a fundamental instinct without any definite biological basis. When any living being is confronted with any new or unrecognised object, it is natural for it to desire a complete knowledge or understanding of it. Curiosity in human beings is accompanied by the sense of surprise. Almost all individuals are desirous of knowing new things and new places. When a child is handed something it has not seen before, it will immediately turn it over and explore it to the best of its ability. The child is always ready with an unending list of questions. He never tires of asking questions even if the parent tires of answering them till he is forced to rebuff the child. If the child's curiosity is not suppressed it continues its exploration and questioning till it finally comes to know its surroundings to its own satisfaction. It is such children who turn into the best investigators and scientists when they maintain their curiosity intact in their adult circumstances.

Teachers who fail to arouse curiosity in their students regarding the subjects of study fail to achieve even a semblance of order and administration in their classes. To curiosity is conjoined the emotion of surprise. An object or thing that surprises the child also arouses in him curiosity. Hence, if a teacher is intelligent he will create surprise in the child regarding the subject he wants to teach with the result that the child become curious. Once this is achieved more than half the battle is won, since the child starts studying on his own once his curiosity is aroused. Besides arousing the curiosity of the child, the teacher also has to turn it in the required direction. For a child to develop curiosity regarding detective novels or matters of sex may be harmful to him as well as to his normal course of studies. Hence, the teacher must see to it that the child's curiosity takes desirable paths, such as good books and subjects. Being curious about the subject, the child will find interest in its perusal. Thus, he progresses on the path of education without any external instigation. Modern psychologists are thus justified in emphasizing the fact that teacher should arouse curiosity regarding a subject they intend teaching in the class before actually engaging in teaching it.

7. Self submission—Of course, the instinct of self submission may prove to be a hindrance in the child's development but the sensible teacher can turn it towards himself and arouse feelings of respect for the teacher and a healthy regard for discipline in the child. Students are prone to accept teacher's mandate without questioning so that success in education becomes possible.

8. Self-assertion—The instinct of self-assertion occupies an important place in the child's character. To it is conjoined the sentiment of self-respect which helps the child steer clear of all undesirable activity and to concentrate only on the desirable ore. In order to develop self-respect in the child, the teachers must put before him examples taken from the child's own environment. If instead of punishing a child for his mistake, the teacher tells him that such foolishness is not expected of him or from one of his upbringing, then the child will abstain from repeating it. We will also be remorseful. Once the instinct of self-assertion is fully developed, the individual makes his own efforts to progress in life, since he does not want to live the life of an insect but wants to hold his head high in society.

9. Gregariousness—A child as gregarious by instinct and he naturally wants to remain with the group of friends. A child does not desire solitude. The teacher can make the best of this instinct and help in the social development of the child. The teacher should keep an eye on the various group tensions that develop within the school and also try to evolve healthy competition cooperation and team spirit in the children. Blind faith in small groups may be turned to more productive channels when it is turned to love of country and philanthropy. In this way, the child becomes socially mature.

10. Food seeking—The food seeking instinct may be put to much fruitful if indirect use by the teacher as he can instigate the student to greater effort in his study by inspiring him with vision of success in his future livelihood. Young men are seen to work very hard as they are afraid for their bread at a later stage. The instinct of self-assertion also contributes to this process.

11. Acquisitiveness—A child instinctively collects many odds and ends about him and takes great pleasure in doing it. It gives him a feeling of possession and pride. In their tender age children are often seen collecting stamps, match boxes, cigarette boxes and are often seen fighting to the better end for them. Within the bounds of the school, this innate tendency of acquisition can be put to constructive use. They can be guided to collect stamps, photographs, old coins and books etc. But in this process it is essential to see to it that the child does not resort to undesirables methods of augmenting his collection. In the school, the child acquisitive tendency can be adequately exploited to create a small library or a collection of odd bits, in which the child can retain possession over them and yet allow them to be used by all his colleagues. Children belonging to very rich families, particularly young children, can be inspired to develop their own libraries, laboratories, etc.

12. Constructiveness—It is due to instinct of constructiveness that the child is seen making and breaking many things. The teacher can teach the children to make many small objects of various kinds with clay, colours, wood, stones and small mechanical objects. This has the effect of inspiring children to much greater creative effort when they grow up so that they become scientists and engineers.

13. Laughter—The instinct to laughter is accompanied by the emotion of enjoyment and relief. If the children are made to laugh in class they are more inclined to accept the teacher's suggestions. Hence, the sensible teacher can get the children to perform different tasks by arousing laughter and enjoyment.

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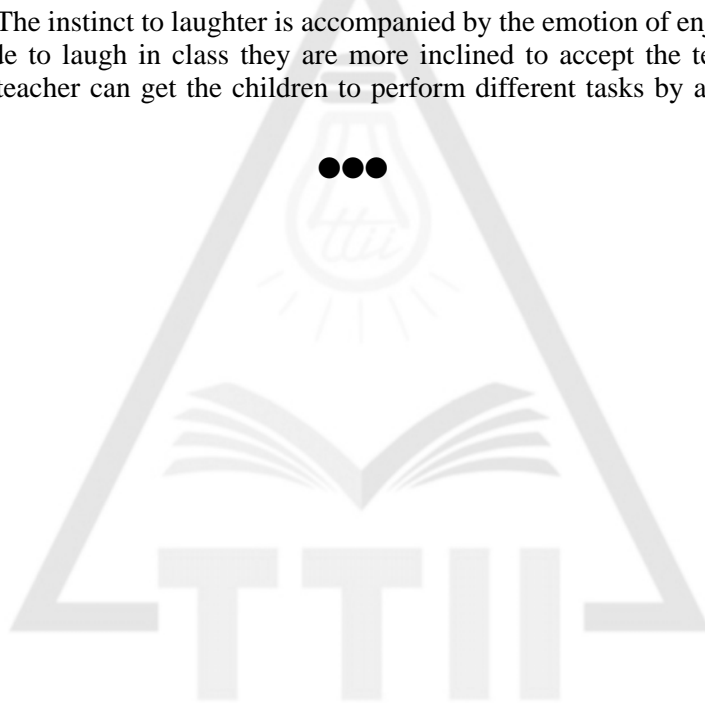
PLAY, WORK AND EDUCATION

"Men cannot shed altogether the ancient tendencies to cruelty and vice, but play is at once a means by which the mischief may be taken out of them and a means by which they may be transformed into impulses of ethical values".   —*Sir T. P. Nunn*

Q.1   What do you understand by play? Describe the various theories of play.

Ans.   **Definition of Play**

Play, according to the famous psychologist McDougall, is a normal innate tendency similar to suggestion and imitation. Though the definition of play varies from psychologist to psychologist, most of them believe that it is an innate tendency. The following definitions of the term will make it possible to understand it better—

1. Valentine's view—According to **Valentine**, *"Play is a kind of a amusement in the work"*. This definition emphasizes one indispensable element in play, viz. amusement. Play is indulged in by people because it yields amusement but such a definition cannot explain all games. It fails to analyse some kinds of play. A simple instance is of the child who plays from morning to evening. In his case, one can hardly be justified in saying that he plays for amusement.

2. Stern's view—*"Play is a kind of voluntary, self constrained activity"*. This particular definition lays stress on two important elements of play. In the first place play depends upon the wishes of the individual, and secondly, it is the player participating who himself controls it. If these two conditions are to be found in teaching it, too, becomes play. This definition gives a good explanation of the playing method in teaching. But it falls short in as much as it neglects the element of amusement inherent in play. In addition to being volitional and self controlled, play invariably includes the feeling of pleasure and amusement.

3. Glueck's opinion—*"Play is what we do when we are free to do what we will. It is volitional and independent nature of play that is stressed in this definition"*. It needs hardly to be pointed out that this definition is one-sided and incomplete.

4. Thomson's view—*"Play is the impulse to carry out certain instinctive actions"*. This particular definition of the term lays stress on its instinctive nature. In play the human individual gives expression to those instincts which do not find any manifestation and outlet in his normal life. This particular definition is applicable to the playing of both young children as well as grown ups. But this definition lacks comprehension as it neglects such other characteristics of play and naturality, independence, amusement, etc.

5. Sir T. P. Nunn's view—*"Play is a profound manifestation of creative activities"*. According to this definition play gives expression to the creative and positive tendencies of the individual. This definition of the term is particularly apt for describing the playful activities of children.

Putting it briefly, play is a volitional, autonomous, instinctive and creative activity, or an activity that manifests these activities and which gives amusement and pleasure to the individual.

Theories of Play

Thinkers differ on the psychological basis of play. It has been elucidated by different thinkers in indifferent ways and has thus resulted in many different theories. The psychological elements in play can be understood by a study of these theories. The following are the main theories—

1. Theory of surplus energy—In the opinion of **Schiller**, a famous German poet, play is the expression or consumption of our surplus energy. The theory finds the support of the philosopher Herbert Spencer. It is also called the Schiller-Spencer theory. It is conceived that children do not consume their entire stock of energy in their normal routine of the day, and they play in order to consume the surplus energy created. Among the adult population, individuals engaged in hard and tiring work during the day to not indulge in play as they have no surplus of energy. On the other hand, those who lead a soft life or whose work is confined to less tiring pursuits, feel the need of physical exertion in play. Resonating in this vein, the theory further suggests that play is a kind of safety value for people through which the excessive energy is exhausted. If this surplus were not too consumed through the medium of play, the further development of the body could possibly be hindered and obstructed.

The particular theory of play fails to analyses and explains some definite kinds of play. It does succeed in explaining certain aimless activities of child such as flinging its arms and feet about, but it fails to provide satisfactory answers to many questions, some of which are—

(a) Why do people continue to play even when they are tired?

(b) Why does play always have a definite pattern?

(c) Why do the games of different animals differ?

(d) How does play help in the development of the child while the surplus steam that is exhausted from a steam engine is completely wasted?

2. Recreation theory—According to the **German Lazares** and the **English Lord Kames**, an individual regains the energy in play he has lost or consumed elsewhere. This explanation of play has been supported by G.T.W. Patrick. It is opined that people indulge in play as it affords amusement and amusement refreshes the individual whereby he repossesses the lost energy. It is for this reason that one sees among the individuals playing even those who have been exhausted during their vocational pursuits. They find amusement in play.

The principle succeeds in elucidating the role of amusement in play and is applicable almost exclusively to the exertions of grown up people. It fails to explain how or why children play as there can be no question of their being so exhausted as to need recuperation through amusement? Then, again, there are some old people who spend the entire day in playing chess checkers. Does this pattern of behaviour conform to the view that people play in order to regain energy consumed? In fact this continued indulgence in play leads more to exhaustion than to freshness or energetic condition.

3. Anticipatory theory—Melbranche was the first to propound this theory, but it was elucidated at length by **Carl Gross**. Having made a minute study of the play of many different living beings Gross came to the conclusion that in play living beings practise the activities that will be required of them in their adulthood. Pups fight because when they become dogs they will have to fight for their life. A kitten runs after a ball and rips it apart in the manner cats are seen doing with mice. Similarly, the babies of reindeer are seen moving with long and swift strides. The same phenomenon is observed in the case of human children. Female children rehearse their later married life in their childhood games of playing with dolls making houses and marrying off their dolls. On the other hand, the male child usually rehearses his future life in playing at being a professor, engineer, shopkeeper or the like. According to **Carl Gross**, the more developed the life of a tribe or race, the greater will be the variety of games their children are seen playing. In the same proportion the playing period in life will continue to a later stage. Being the most developed living being, man suffers his issue to continue in the playing stage for a longer time than other animals. On the other hand, among the undeveloped animals and insects such as

bees and lizards, the baby engages in his business of life immediately he comes into possession of a fully developed body. But one sees play in the comparatively developed animals such as cats, dogs, monkeys, reindeers etc. In man, almost one third of his entire life span is spent in playing, and among the more civilized of his race the games played are so varied that one would require a veritable volume to describe all of them in detail. The games played in civilized societies are more numerous than in comparatively uncivilized tribes. Similarly, children belonging to a higher social circle play more games and play them for a longer period than do children who belong to lower strata of society. The variety of games increases with development in the nervous system. Accepting the anticipatory theory of play as superior to the theory of surplus energy, **Sir T. P. Nunn** has remarked astutely, *"Nature invented play not merely as a means of disposing harmlessly of the young animal's superfluous energy, but as a device for using that energy to prepare him for serious business of life"*.

It cannot be doubted that the principle propounded by Carl Gross does succeed in explaining many kinds of play, besides bringing to light, by implication, the reasons why play is adopted as a method of teaching. It also elucidates the psychological basis of play, yet one can object that all play is not rehearsal or anticipation of the serious business of life. In particular, it can be objected that the theory fails to offer any explanation of adult play. Then again, in what sense is playing cards a preparation for future life and there can be no denying that children do in fact play cards.

4. Recapitulatory theory—Stanley Hall, a famous American scientist, put forward the recapitulatory theory of play in refuting the anticipatory theory. According to **Stanley Hall**, *"Anticipatory theory is very partial, superficial and perverse since it ignores the past where lies the key to all play activities"*.

In the opinion of **Stanley Hall**, the reasons for the child's play should be looked for in his past, rather than in his future. *"The heart of youth goes out into play as into nothing else, as if in it men remembered a lost paradise"*. It is the view of Stanley Hall that every tribe or race passes through many varied stages in its development and evolution, the impressions of which are to be found in its children at their birth. The stages through which the human race has passed in its development over a period of some thousand years are present in children in the form of minute and significant impressions, and these are the impressions that are recalled by them in their playing. This recollection is the essence of nature. For example, the embryo within the mother's womb passes through all the prominent stages of evolution of all animals before it enters the especially human stage. In this way, the child relieves the uncivilised and aboriginal stage of the human race in its play. Hunting and playing, hide and seek, are not the anticipating of any future life. In the words of **Ross**, *"Hide-and-seek, chasing, hunting and fishing, stone throwing, the building of houses and shelters, especially in trees, the fascination of caves, all remind us strongly of the youth of race"*. In this way, most of our play patterns are a recollection or reproduction of the activities of man in his uncivilised stages.

Stanley Hall's theory does explain some particular kinds of play, such as hunting, climbing mountains, roaming the caves etc. but it cannot claim to explain all kinds of play. Studies conducted by Lahmen and Witty have contributed to reduce the impact of this theory as they show that the various forms of play are not reminiscent of the various stages of the being's development as these forms are subject to various factors caused by seasons, places and sex. Secondly, modern scientists do not subscribe to the view that the qualities acquired by the human race are present in children in the form of impressions

5. Cathartic theory—Aristotle used the word catharsis to explain or elucidate the effect of tragedy in drama. It means purification or purgation. Just as some medicines purge the body of its undesirable poisons the tragic drama also purges the human soul of its suppressed desires and pent up emotions. The principle of catharsis also influences the cause of those of the human games that are reminiscent of the aboriginal or tribal man. Hunting, war, wandering or travelling all over the globe, are expressions of those suppressed tendencies in man that have been present in him since his undeveloped and uncivilized

state. These tendencies do not find expression in the normal social process, in civilized society. In this way, play is a cathartic process. A somewhat similar explanation of the phenomenon has been offered by Freud and other psychologists. In the words of **Sir T. P. Nunn**, *"Men cannot shed altogether the ancient tendencies to cruelty and vice, but play is at once a means by which the mischief may be taken out of them and a means by which they may be transformed into impulses of ethical values"*.

Despite its wide application, the principle of catharsis does, not explain the cause of all kinds of play. Nevertheless, it is an important theory. Its reality and rationality has been acceded to by Sir T. P. Nunn.

Conclusion—Concerning the above theories of play, one can safely concur with Sir T. P. Nunn that they are mutually complimentary rather than contradictory. The various theories succeed in explaining some particular form of play, but they all prove inadequate if they are required to explain all the various forms. While some kinds of play are an anticipation or rehearsal of the future life, other forms give the impression of being recollections of man's activity in his tribal and uncivilized state. Some games are an outlet for the individual's excess energy that he cannot put to better use, but there are some forms of play which yield him pleasure and adjustment. And almost all forms of play are cathartic in one respect or the other. Apart from this, there are some kinds of play that are a mixture or compound of the amusing, recollecting and cathartic games. In this manner, the psychological basis of play is a composite of consumption of surplus energy, amusement, rehearsal or anticipation of future life, recollection of the functions of man in his primal state, and the catharsis through manifestation of many tendencies that cannot be expressed in the normal daily routine of an individual's social life.

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LEARNING AND MATURATION

"Learning is that activity by virtue of which we organise our responses with new habits".
—Garrett

Q.1.   What is learning? Distinguish between learning and maturation.

Ans.   Most of the activities of life, like eating, drinking, wearing clothes, walking, talking and many other such activities have to be acquired by the child. This activity of learning is sometimes conscious and sometimes unconscious, sometimes fast and sometimes slow but there is hardly an occasion in a person's life when it stops completely.

Definition of Learning

The following are some definitions of learning which should make it clear—

1. Learning is change in behaviour—In **J. P. Guilford's** opinion, *"We may define the term very broadly by saying that learning is any change in behaviour, resulting from behaviour"*. In this definition, a distinction between change in behaviour due to maturity and change in behaviour due to learning is unavoidable though both these activities occur simultaneously.

2. Learning is an organisation of behaviour—According to **Garrett**, *"Learning is that activity by virtue of which we organise our responses with new habits"*. Thus, the element of organisation in learning is one, the importance of which cannot be overemphasized. Guilford too, has written that the meaning of learning is, inevitably, an organisation of behaviour. Thus, in learning to ride a cycle we have to organise the learning of turning the pedal, balancing the handle etc., in order to be reasonably safe with the vehicle. It is another matter that a person does not learn this organisation at the outset and that he may take much longer time to learn to balance the handle than the time he may take to learn to turn the pedal. But his learning of the art of cycling will be completed only when he accomplishes this organisation.

3. Learning is the reinforcement of a new thing—**R. S. Woodworth** opined that the learning of a new acting is an addition to the person's store of experiences. Clarifying the statement further. Woodworth says that reinforcement, too, is an indispensable element of the act of learning because this activity forms only successful responses and weeds out the unsuccessful responses.

To quote **Woodworth**, *"An activity may be called learning in so far as it develops the individual in any way, good or bad and makes his environment and experiences different from what it would otherwise have been"*.

4. Murphy's conception—-The persons who stress external behaviour consider learning to be a change of behaviour while those who lay emphasis on internal changes are convinced that learning is change in the perspective of the individual. Combining these two views, **Murphy** wrote that, *"From this point of view it would be legitimate to regard learning as a modification both of behaviour and of the way of perceiving"*.

5. Hilgard's view—Many examples may be presented from everyday life, like memorising a poem, working at the type-writer, manipulating knife and fork etc. The following definition of learning

given by **Hilgard** is an essence of all the foregoing definitions offered by other psychologists. *"Learning is the process by which an activity originated or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturity or temporary status of the organism"*. Despite the fact that this definition is unsatisfactory because of the shortcomings, it may serve its purpose for the time being.

Learning and Maturation

Learning changes behaviour and for the matter of that, so does maturation. Thus sometimes it becomes difficult for anyone to say definitely as to which of the subject's activities are the result of learning and which are the consequences of maturation. Automatic activity, random acts, reflexes and unexpected expression of pain and emotion can be accepted as unlearned actions and the result of maturation, but in most of the activities of human beings it is difficult to decide whether these activities result from maturation or learning. In reality, these activities develop from the complex of learning and maturation. Take the example of learning. It is true, of course, that a child is manifestly incapable of learning language until he reaches a certain stage or age in maturation, but it is also equally true that he does not learn the language just because he attains that stage. The language is taught to him.

Example of co-twins—An experiment on co-twins indicates the extent of them changes in behaviour caused by maturation and the extent to which changes may be affected by learning. The experiment has been extracted from a treatise **"Maturation of behaviour"** by **M. B. McGraw** published in Carmichael's book *"A Manual of Child Psychology."* The purpose of the experiment was to measure the extent of advantageous application of learning to such activities as climbing the stairs. Two twins were chosen for the experiment because due to the similarity in heredity, the speed of maturation is the same and any changes which may occur may be attributed to learning. One of the twins 'S' was not given the opportunity of climbing stairs for 53 weeks while the other twin 'T was taught to climb the stairs from her forty sixth week. On examination this twin 'T' failed to climb at all at the age of 46 weeks and had to be aided up all the 5 stairs. In the spaces of four weeks she climbed all the stairs in 26 seconds.

When 'S' was placed on the stairs at the age of 53 weeks, she climbed all the five stairs unaided but it took her some 45 seconds. After two weeks of practice 'S', at the age of 55 weeks, traversed the distance in 10 seconds. In this way, at this age 'S' was ahead of 'T' who, at a younger age had practised three times as much. 'S' was three weeks older than 'T'. Thus, in spite of all kinds of learning, 'T' was left behind, due to a lack of maturity.

This experiment proves that learning plays an insignificant part in reflex activities and other physiological activities peculiar to one's race. Those activities which appear in all human beings at a certain age, is a universal rule, are due to maturity. Those activities which do not inevitably appear in every person are affected by maturation to the extent that they can be learnt with ease at the age of maturity. Some examples of this type of actions are swimming, horse riding, climbing trees etc. The, learning of these activities is made more facile by motor, sensory and neural maturation.

The above exposition on the relation of learning and maturation provides some very practical suggestions for learning and training. It is not useful to make an attempt to teach a child forcible before he matures. Many parents try to precipitate their children into higher classes with the help of coaching, at a young age. This type of coaching cannot have a lasting or permanent effect and the children become weak in senior classes. The teaching of the proper job at a specific age depends on many factors two of which are the child's brain and physiological development. But a general age for the beginning of the teaching of various subjects can be established. For example, it is comparatively easier to study Algebra at 15 or 16 than it is at 11 or 12. This relation between maturation and training is an initial cause of the suggestion for the fixing of a minimum age limit for admission to universities. ●

Q.2. **Describe the process of learning manual skill by children.**

Ans. <div align="center">**Learning Manual Skill**</div>

Manual skill means proficiency in different type of activities which require their use of hand. The child holds a thing, turns it over, puts it here and there and throws it away. He requires manual skill in eating, putting on clothes, writing, playing, swimming, cycling and hundreds of other activities. This manual skill is gradually developed according to development of age. The psychologists have arrived at very important conclusions on the basis of their observations and experiments concerning manual skill. It has been found that a more or less definite pattern of the development of manual skill can be observed in childhood, though some individual differences also play their role.

The development of manual skill very much depends upon the development of sense organs, specially eyes and touch. The child uses his thumb at the age of five months. At 9 months he tries to hold things with the help of fingers and thumbs. At the age of 16 weeks the child looks towards an object but does not try to catch hold of it, a child of 20 weeks tries to pull it towards him. After 24 weeks of age the child definitely tries to handle things manually. At the age of 1 year, he can hold a pencil or take off his cap. He can also hold a cup or spoon. He can use a fork at the age of 2 years and pour milk in the cup. He can open a box and a bottle, turn the pages of a book, build different types of structures by means of wooden blocks, colour a paper, draw different types of sketches on it and cut it by scissors. At the age of 3 years he becomes very much self dependent in manual skills. He can eat, bath and put on clothes all by himself. He can take utensils here and wash them. He can draw by means of chalk and pencil on the paper. At the age of 4 years he can draw the sketch of house or man on paper. At the age of 5 years he can mould paper to form a triangle or square and draw these figures on the paper. He can put the toys in the box, wash his face and hands, cut something by scissors and draw a figure of man which can be easily recognized. At the age of 7 years, he can write very well and it is easy and normal for him. He can mould clay to make toys and use wood to make different types of things. He can also sew and knit and help in various household activities. At the age of 12 years, he can use his fingers, arms and shoulders in any way he likes. His style of writing gets established and he can also learn to play several of musical instruments.

By an observation of the development of various types of manual skills at different ages, the psychologists have formulated a general pattern of the development of manual skills. Some important manual skills and their development is as follows—

1. Throwing the ball—According to **Gassel** an infant of 6 months can throw a ball. At the age of 12 months, he can throw it in a definite direction. At the age of 2 years the child takes much interest in playing with the ball. In the beginning the child uses both their hands in throwing the ball while later on he learns to throw it by using one hand only.

2. Catching the ball—Catching the ball is more difficult than throwing it. Therefore this manual skill is not possible for all children even at the age of 4 years. At the age of 6 years, 2/3 of the children can catch a ball thrown towards them. This skill is more advanced among girls as compared with the boys. In catching the ball also the child initially used both the hands, but gradually learns to do so by one hand only.

3. Eating and drinking—An infant of 8 months cannot hold the glass, cup or bottle by his hand. At the age of 9 months he can put the bottle in his mouth and also take it out. At the age of 1 year, he can use a spoon for drinking milk. While using a utensil he initially uses both the hands but gradually learns to do so by one hand only. In the beginning when he uses his hand for eating, he spills much food on his person. At the age of 2 years, he can eat more carefully. At 3 years of age he can very easily eat by himself. Most of the children learn eating and drinking by the age of seven and eight years.

4. Putting on and Taking off Clothes—Before learning to put on clothes the child learns to take them off because this activity is easier. From the age of 1½ years upto the age of 3½ years, the child

learns to put on and take off clothes in this manual skill also the girls excel the boys. At the age of 5 and 6 years, the children can easily put on and take off clothes.

5. Writing—The child begins to hold pencil at the age of 1 year. Within 6 months after it he uses the pencil on paper. At the age of 2 to 3 years, he can draw different types of sketches on the paper. At the age of four years he can draw the figure of man, house and birds and beasts. At the age of 5 years he can write very well and at the age of 12 years, he has his own style of writing.

Thus it can be seen from the survey of different types of manual skills given above that the process of the development of manual skill becomes complete at the age of 12 years. ●

Q.3. To what extent is left-handedness an innate characteristic? What should be done about it?

Ans. Handedness means that one hand is used more often as compared with the other. Thus handedness is of two types, right handedness in which the right hand is mostly used and left handedness which involves the use of left hand. The right-handedness is most common among children because they see the adults using right hand. Handedness, however, is not clear right from the beginning; though at the age of one year the child makes more use of one hand in some different types of activities. Right or left handedness is determined at the age of 3 or 4 years. The psychologists have explored the causes of left-handedness as it is found in exceptional cases.

As has been already pointed out, the pattern of handedness is not clear at the age of one year. Henceforward because the child observes human beings around him using right hand mostly, he develops right-handedness. Right-handedness therefore is not a hereditary trait. In fact handedness has no concern with heredity. Studies about handedness have shown various causes. According to one view as the left hemisphere of the brain is more active than the right, the right hand is more often used because it is connected with the left hemisphere. Another cause of right handedness has been found in the structural strength and efficiency of the right hand as compared with the left. But according to most of the psychological observations and experiment, right-handedness is the result of learning through imitation in family. Thus it is a result of the process of socialization. According to **Hurlock**, man needed more use of one hand than the other in working with the mechanical tools. He therefore developed handedness. In civilized societies children have to use several tools and instruments for various purposes. They therefore invariably develop handedness. It has been estimated that 95% children have right handedness while left handedness is observed in bare 5%. Among left-handed children the number of males is much more than the number of girls. Sometimes effort is made to restrain left-handedness forcibly. On the other hand, right handedness is very much encouraged. In fact the development of handedness is necessary for efficiency because if this is not there, the person cannot decide as to which hand should be handed on a particular occasion. Thus handedness improves efficiency. It is delayed for a considerable time the child becomes obstinate and full of tensions. His studies suffer and so also his manual skill. He therefore develops inferiority complex. His activities lack speed, power and accuracy and there is more danger of accidents with him. Therefore efforts must be made to develop handedness in the child. The guardians and teachers should teach their child to use right hand. But if the child is left-handed no haste is made to make him right handed. If he adopts right handedness by persuasion and practice, it is so far so good, but if he fails to do so, it is not a cause of too much worry. The child should be left on his own to develop his handedness freely.

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ATTENTION, INTEREST AND FATIGUE

"Attention, in general is the act of holding the impression or idea in the focus of conscience. Ordinarily, however, the term attention is used for a more protracted mental process".

Q. l. **What is attention? Discuss the conditions and effect of attention.**

Ans. Attention is a motivated process. Man lives in an environment. 'The stimuli from the environment are always affecting him. But these stimuli do not affect him equally. It is a commonplace observation that some stimuli affect us more than others. This shows that man selects out of environmental stimuli. This tendency of selection shows that there is a motivational process in him which is known as attention. This attention is affected by interest, attitudes and set. It is a selective process which includes motivation, set and selection. The cat will not attend to the mouse unless it is hungry. Among several animals present before a cat, the cat will attend to the mouse. As a cat is attending to the mouse one can see a definite set in it. This set is both physical as well as mental. To take an example from human beings, if a student is not motivated, he will not attend to the class lecture. Again while a professor is delivering a lecture in the class, there are several other sounds being made in other rooms and the surroundings. The student who hears the lecture selects professor's voice out of the noise in the surroundings. While a student is attentively hearing the lecture, one can very well note his physical set which is also symbolic of his mental set. Receptor adjustment, bodily adjustment, postural adjustment, muscle attention and central nervous adjustments are typical of bodily attitudes in attention. Thus, in brief, attention can be defined as a process which compels the individual to select some particular stimulus according to his interest and attitude out of the multiplicity of stimuli present in the environment.

Conditions of Attention

As a selective act of the mind, attention depends upon several conditions. These conditions may be of two types—*External or Objective* and *Internal or Subjective*. External or objective conditions are related with the environment. In the environment or surrounding of the individual there are several stimuli, but he does not attend to all of them at the same time, because some stimuli are stronger than others. The factors making these stimuli than others, are known as external determinants of attention. Besides the external conditions, the mental condition, culture and heredity also influenced attention. Due to these internal conditions some objects attract our attention more than others. These internal factors are internal determinants of attention. The methods of achieving attention are based upon these external and internal determinants of attention.

External Determinants

The following are the most important external determinants of attention—

1. Nature of stimulus—Nature of stimulus means its type, *i.e.*, whether it is visual, gustatory, auditory, olfactory or tactual stimulus. It has been found by experiments that in comparison with other sensations, form, colour and sound attract more attention. Among the pictures, the pictures of human beings attract more attention than those of animals or objects. Among the pictures of human beings those of beautiful women attract more attention. Besides these, the coloured pictures attract more attention than colourless ones. All these factors are important in advertisement. In the auditory stimulus, the melodious voice attracts more attention than other voice.

2. Intensity of the stimulus—The intensity of the stimulus is a helpful condition in attraction. In comparison with the weak stimuli the intense stimuli attract more attention of the organism. High sound, excessive pressure and acute pain attract our attention. In the market there is always some buzzing sound and yet the pedestrians hear the horn of the motor car, since the sound of the horn is louder than others sounds. But it is not always necessary that one should attend to the intensity of stimulus. Sometimes while walking on the road, calling of our name attracts so much attention that we fail to hear even the loud sound of the motor horn. As a matter of fact the attraction of the attention does not depend on any single factor but on several factors interconnected with one another. Hence it can be said that other things being the same, the more intense stimulus will attract more attention.

3. Size of the stimulus—In the visual stimuli the size of stimulus is also a determinant of attention. As a general rule the bigger size attracts more attention, but a small advertisement on a very wide background also attracts attention. Thus, the attraction of an object does not depend upon its size alone, but also on its background. To illustrate, a big black spot on a black face will not attract so much attention as a very small black spot on a white face.

4. Location of the stimulus—The location of the stimulus also affects attention. In the visual stimuli, the most effective location is just in front of the eyes. The role of different pages in the newspapers of the magazine and the different places on the same page, is important in advertisement. It has been found by experiments that advertisements given on the front page or on the upper half of any page attract more attention.

5. Contrast of the stimulus—The contrast of the stimulus is also an important determinant of attention, *e.g.*, the presence of a woman among men and that of a man among women definitely attract more attention.

6. Change of the stimulus—Attention cannot be concentrated for a long time on some particular object. Hence the change of the stimulus affects attention. Attention is sustained by change of the stimulus. The advertisers change their advertisements from time to time lest it many cease to be attractive.

7. Isolation of the stimulus—A man sitting alone in some corner of the park, hotel or club attracts more attention than others. A student sitting alone at the far corner of the class is seen first. Thus isolation is an important external determinant of attention. This fact is based upon the reason that the isolated individual is not mixed with other individuals and hence seen separately in his own background. By experiments in advertisement it has been found that only the fact of isolation attracts 30% more attention. In the **British Journal of Educational Psychology** of August 1951, **D. B. Berlyne** pointed out the following principles based upon latest experiments—

(a) In comparison with the unchanged stimulus the stimulus changed in the near past has more possibility of attracting attention.

(b) The effect of the change goes on diminishing with the passage of time.

(c) Whenever stimuli are changed together and in which one is left unchanged, the effect of change is not noticeable.

(d) If change goes on in the changed stimuli, the process of attention is rather permanent and strong.

The modes of change also influence the process of attention. If there is a change absolutely opposite to the present stimulus, it will definitely attract more attention. While studying one does not hear the sound of the clock or that of electric fan but if either of these suddenly stops, one cannot fail to attend to it. Man becomes used to regular changes and does not pay much attention to them. But if some irregular changes or any sudden change occurs, it at once draws attention.

8. Duration of the stimulus—As a general rule, the stimulus having more duration, attracts more attention. Thus duration of the stimulus is an important determinant of the attention. But sometimes the

smallest flashing of a movement attracts more attention than the bigger stimuli *e.g.*, a sudden flash of light for several seconds will attract more attention in a dark night than the continuous burning lamp.

9. Repetition of the stimulus—Along with duration, repetition of the stimulus is also an important determinant of attention. It is a common place observation that when the teacher has to attract the attention of student towards a particular phenomenon, he repeats it several times. But sometimes, man ceases to attend a phenomenon simply because it is repeated many times *e.g.*, if a man says something about him, we take interest in it once or twice, but if we find that he always repeats the same thing, we cease to pay attention to it.

10. Movement in the stimulus—In comparison with the static the moving stimuli attract more attention. The position of stimulus changes due to movements. An object lying in some corner of the room will not attract our attention, but even if there is some illusion of movement in it, we cannot help attending to it. The influence of movement in stimulus is widely used by the shopkeepers and businessmen, who advertise through moving electric lights.

Internal Determinants

The conditions of attention as described so far are the external determinants of attention. They can also be called external laws of attention. The presence of these conditions in the environment is helpful for attention. Besides these external conditions, some internal conditions are also helpful in drawing attention. These conditions are related with motives. As a matter of fact the influence of conditions depends on these internal conditions to a very great extent. The hungry man will, attend to the form and stimuli of the food. A man with a full belly will not attend to food, however nice it might appear. In the advertisement those demonstrating the naked organs of the woman have the maximum power of attraction of attention. Those interested in cinema look to the advertisements of cinema at first sight. It is difficult to describe all the internal conditions helpful in attention. Hence only the most important will be enumerated here—

1. Interest—Innate and acquired interests draw the individual's attention to particular object. Doctors, engineers, professors, all attend to the objects of their own interest. Even among the professors an object attracting the attention of the professor of geology need not attract the attention of a professor of philosophy as well. Thus the innumerable differences in interests create innumerable determinants of attention in different men. The stimuli influencing innate tendencies attract more attention that those influencing acquired interest.

2. Basic drives—The basic drives or instincts of the individual are also important in drawing his attention. The animal to a particular stimulus when driven by the basic drives of hunger, thirst, sex etc., *e.g.*, a normal man motivated by sex will naturally attend to individuals of opposite sex. We all know by experience that when hungry we may attend to even a distasteful object, but while our belly is full, we may not attend even the most tasteful food. Among the instincts, fear has got a definite influence upon attention. All men who fear snake will attend to all things resembling the snake. Like fear, curiosity also influences attention. We attend to even the smallest details of the object about which we have curiosity.

Innate need also is very important in attention. The influence of sexual need in attention is very much exploited in the advertisements. Normally, the sexual need in human being can be easily evoked. Hunger, thirst etc., are felt occasionally and the means to satisfy them are also readily available, but neither the sexual need is ever fully satisfied nor are the means of satisfying it available to all persons, all the time. Hence most of the advertisements draw attention by stimulating the sexual need in human beings.

3. Mental set—Mental set is one of the most important internal determinants of attention. Mental set means the tendency or attitude of the mind. A man will attend to those objects towards which his

mind is set. In the days of examinations, the mental set of students is generally towards the examinations, and hence even the smallest thing concerning the examination will attract their attention.

4. Aim—Aim also influences attention. Every man has some immediate and some ultimate aims *e.g.*, the immediate aim may be to get a job to earn living or anything else. The man whose aim is not to pass the examination will not be concerned with text books or notes etc. but one who has the aim to pass the examination will at once attend to them.

5. Meaning—In comparison with meaningless things, meaningful things and talks attract more attention. A man will not attend to a thing which has no meaning for him. Men do not like to hear meaningless talk. If some persons are talking in Tamil, the Punjabi will not like to hear it since for him it has no meaning.

6. Habit—Habit is also an important determinant of attention. If a man is habituated to rising early and winding his clock early in the morning, he must attend to the clock as soon as he gets up. It has been rightly pointed out that man learns as to which object he should attend to and to which he should not, and thus develops habits of attending and not attending to things. Thus habit has two aspects in relation to attention. On the one hand man develops a habit of attending to necessary desirable things and on the other hand he develops the habit of not attending to unnecessary and undesirable things. Both these kinds of habits help man in his daily routine.

7. Disposition and temperament—Both disposition and temperament are important internal determinants of attention eg., a man having a religious disposition and spiritual temperament will attend to religious matters, while another person having a sexual disposition and criminal temperament will attend to matters concerning sex or crimes etc. **William James** has rightly pointed out that it is our tendency to take interest in particular things, a result of our innate disposition and mental development, that determines which among the crowed of situation, should, attract our attention.

8. Past experience—Past experience also affects attention. If we know it by our past experience that a particular person is sincere towards us, we shall pay attention to whatever he advises. If we know by experience that he is not sincere to us, we shall not attend even to his most serious advices.

9. Emotion—Emotion is also an important determinant of attention. It is matter of every day experience that we attend even to the smallest fault of a person whom we hate while we do not attend even to the greatest blunder of a person whom we love. The mother seldom finds faults with her child. The lovers find the whole world singing and dancing and immersed in romance.

10. Social motives—Social motives are very important determinants of attention. In advertisement the human figures attract more attention than figures of animals and things. The reason is that man is guided by his social motives. The news about altruism, bravery and saving another's life by putting oneself in danger, attracts our attention because we praise these qualities. Men attend to things concerning their duties due to social motives.

Besides the conditions described above, many other factors influence attention. Heredity,-education and training have a wide influence on attention. The family, school, club, class and society of which an individual is a member, do have some influence on his attention. The physical condition, desire, purpose of the person concerned also effect his attention. Thus all the factors affecting the personality of a man affect his attention as well. As a matter of fact it is difficult to describe all direct and indirect determinants of attention. The description given here, however, includes most important of such factors.   ●

Q.2. **Bring out the meaning of "attention" and explain its characteristics. What are the various types of attention and what factors are responsible for attention? Discuss the different methods of focussing the attention of the students or children.** *Or*

Provide clearly the relationship between interest and attention and justify the statement, "The success of education depends upon the concentration of attention". *Or*

What are necessary steps for securing attention of children?   *Or*

What are the causes of inattention? What should be done to promote the attention of students towards their studies?

Ans.
Attention

Every activity of the individual is based on interest and attention. A teacher can succeed in imparting education only when education and the interest of the student are directed towards education. With this point of view we shall try to being out the meaning of the 'attention' and its various characteristics and forms and the factors responsible for diversion or concentration of attention. It is also necessary to establish and study the relationship between interest and attention.

Meaning and Definition of Attention

Consciences are like a stream. It flows continuously. The stream is composed of sensations, internal experiences, protections and attention etc. Attention is an essential element of this stream. *"Attention, in general is the act of holding the impression or idea in the focus of conscience. Ordinarily, however, the term attention is used for a more protracted mental process"*. Older psychologists believed that attention is a mental power but modern psychologists do not accept this theory. They are of the opinion that is a mental activity.

We are surrounded by environment. Along with environment we have the conscience. If our conscience is directed towards a particular thing, our attention is concentrated on it. In other words, it is focussing of consciousness on a particular object. For example, in a classroom there are students, desks, benches, black-board teacher and his words. For a student it is possible to focus the conscience at only one subject. Either he shall look at the teacher or look at the words written by him on the black-board. Attention can be focused at one place only. **McDougall** has defined this process in the following words—

"Attention is merely contained or striving, considered from the point of view of its effect on cognitive process".

Other Psychologists and educationists have also defined attention as given below—

1. *"It (attention) is the concentration of conscience upon one object rather than upon another. It is the essential element in all creative activities"*.   *—Dumville*

2. *"The problem of attention centres in the fact of sensible clearness"*.   *—Tilehener*

3. *"Thus attention is a process of getting an object of thought clearly before the mind"*.
                                                                                    —J. S. Ross

4. *"Attention is conation, determined cognition"*.   *—Stout*

Characteristic or qualification of attention—Generally, it is believed that attention has the following qualities or characteristics—

1. Unstability—Attention is unstable and short-lived. It may be called shifting. It is not possible, in spite of best efforts to concentrate our attention on a particular object for more than 9 or 10 seconds. These ticks of the clock are sometimes heard and sometimes they disappear. This is all due to attention and its quality of shifting.

2. Selectivity—Attention has the special qualification of selectivity. Our attention is not focussed on all things at a time. It selects our attention is focused on it. The thing that is of interest to us gets our attention focussed quickly, as compared to other things.

3. Narrowness—Since the attention has the quality of selectivity its span has to be narrow. It is not possible for us to focus our attention on many things at a time. It has to be limited.

4. Quality of invention or discovery—We may call this quality as liking for newness. The attention is focussed on a new thing only. We select a new thing out of the many and concentrate our attention on

it. **Woodworth** has rightly said that attention is shifting because it is inventive and likes to make new discovery. It goes on making discovery for a long time and selects out new thing.

5. Two aspects of attention— Attention has two aspects—(a) Negative, (b) Positive.

If our attention is fused on a particular thing, naturally shifts from another thing. The shifting of than attention from a particular thing is its negative quality or qualification.

6. Mental activity—For attention it is necessary to have mental activity. Unless the mind gets active, it is not possible to get our conscience focussed on a particular object. In other words, attention is nothing but a form of mental activity.

7. Preparedness—In order to focus consigns on a particular object, the mind has to acquire and own the attitude of preparedness. In the words of Woodworth his primary preparedness is an essential reaction or qualification of attention.

8. Co-ordination of various activities—It is necessary to co-ordinate and concentrate our mental attitudes towards a particular thing. When we look at sight, we concentrate all visual activities towards it. The same type of co-ordination has to be achieved in focussing our attention on a particular thing. Along with it there is also the attitude for it.

9. Attention is cognative, effective and cognitive—In fact all the three aspects of our mental life—knowing, feeling and willing, are involving in attention. We gain same knowledge by attention. This is cognitive aspect of the attention. In attention, we have some interest. This is the feeling aspect of the attention. We do some activity and this is the volitional aspect of education.

Attention is purposive or purposeful. We focus our attention on a particular subject only when we are guided by a particular purpose. The more purposeful the object more the attention we focus on it. Those person who have no purpose in life, are not able to focus their attention on anything.

10. Analytic and synthetic attitude—In attention, the analytic tendency of the individual is involved. When we look at a stranger we cast a glance at its height, physique and complexion, features etc., and that too separately on each aspect of it. Afterwards, we synthesize it and remark that the particular person is handsome or ugly.

Types of forms of attention—Attention is generally divided into two types—

(a) Involuntary, (b) Voluntary.

(a) Involuntary attention is more or less passive. It is guided by the qualities of the stimulus. If the stimulus has striking qualities, attention shall be stronger.

(b) Voluntary attention is focussed on things that in themselves do not have striking qualities. It is more or less an active process. In order to have a sustained voluntary attention certain struggles have to be gone through.

Classification of Ross—James Ross has classified the attention into following categories—

1. Volitional attention—The attention which the individual has to make efforts is called volitional attention. In it the person has to exercise his interest and will power in order to focus the attention. It is also of two types—(a) Implicit attention and (b) Explicit attention.

(a) Implicit attention—It is that in which the individual has to make only ordinary efforts. He does not have to labour a lot.

(b) Explicit attention—In the attention of this type, the individual has to make efforts for so many times. He has to be cautious of the time else attention may shift.

2. Non-volitional attention—-This is another name of involuntary attention. Here the individual does not have to make efforts in order to focus his attention on a particular thing. The attention, because of the striking qualities of the stimulus, is riveted to it. It is also of two types—(a) Spontaneous attention and (b) Enforced attention.

(a) Spontaneous attention—It is that which is solely based on instincts. Due to natural interest our attention is focussed on a particular thing.

(b) Enforced attention—When due to the striking qualities of the stimulus, an individual is forced to concentrate his attention on it, we call it Enforce Attention. We are not able to forget painful incidents and situations. Now and then our attention is concentrated and they haunt our memory.

Incentives of attention—There are two types of incentives that influence and guide the attention—(a) Outer incentives, and (b) Inner incentives.

(a) Outer incentives—Incentives that exist outside the individual and are present in the stimulus are called outer incentives. Generally, they are the following—

 (i) Newness—Our attention is easily focussed on the new things as compared to old ones. It is natural for novelty to be more interesting than staleness.

 (ii) Change—Change always attracts our attention. If some change takes face, our attention is automatically focussed on it. If in a room ticks of a clock have been heard for a pretty long time and all of a sudden ticks come to a stop, our attention shall automatically be focussed towards clock.

(iii) Intensity—If the stimulus of the intentions are strong we are sure to be attracted towards it. When we hear the buzzing sound of an aeroplane, our attention is automatically attracted towards it. A strong stimulus is compared to weak one, is more capable of attracting our attention.

(iv) Repetition—If a particular stimulus is repeated again and again it becomes strong enough to divert and attract our attention. This characteristic is very much seen in use in advertisement. We see that with the help of electric light at particular advertisement is repeated again and again and our attention is easily focussed on it.

 (v) Mobility—Mobility or fastness is a strong factor for attracting our attention. A thing that is running fast or moving quickly attracts our attention easily. If a particular piece of paper is thrown in the passage of a running horse, he gets disturbed. On the other hand, if that piece continues to lie he does not bother about it.

 (vi) Contrast—Contrast is another means of attracting attention, if a tall person is made to stand before a short-statured person our attention is sure to be riveted on it. Same is the case with other things.

 (vii) Duration—If a particular thing continues for a longer duration, our attention is likely to be focused on it.

 (viii) Size—Things of bigger size are more capable of attracting our attention as compared to things of smaller size.

 (ix) Definite form—If a particular thing as a definite form, it is more capable of attracting our attention as compared to things with definite forms.

 (b) Inner Incentives or subjective incentives or conditions—In our innerself we have certain powers due to which we are attracted towards certain things. These subjective factors are as follows—

 (i) Desire or will—If we have a desire or willingness for a particular thing, our attention is definitely focussed on it.

 (ii) Interest—The things in which we have interest, are more attractive to us than other things. When our interest ceases in a particular thing, our attention does not get focussed on it. This is why **McDougall** has called interest as latent or sleeping attention. It is the interest which inspires the attention.

 (iii) Habit—Habit is also a great incentive in attention. If we have been used to particular thing, our attention is immediately attracted by it.

(iv) Instincts—Instincts are very important in our behaviour. They are natural guides of our behaviour. When hungry, an individual immediately starts in search of the food and if the food is discernible his attention is immediately focussed on it. Same is the case with other instincts.

(v) Emotion—Emotions are also important determining factors in attention. Under the influence of emotions, we are more attentive towards ordinary things and leave out important and big things.

(vi) Past experience—The things about which we have past experiences, attract our attention very quickly. Those things, about which we have the past experience of gain or loss, are quite interesting to us and we get attracted to them.

(vii) Nature and tendencies—A man with a particular nature or particular inclination is bound to be attracted towards a thing which is in corresponding with his inclination or nature. A religious sort person is bound to be attracted by religious activities and books.

(viii) Objective or purpose—Ideas and views that are helpful in the fulfilment of our objective or purpose attract us very quickly.

(ix) Training and inclination—Training and inclination are great sources for attracting our attention towards things. It is only on account of training that a person gets in a particular thing and focuses his attention to it.

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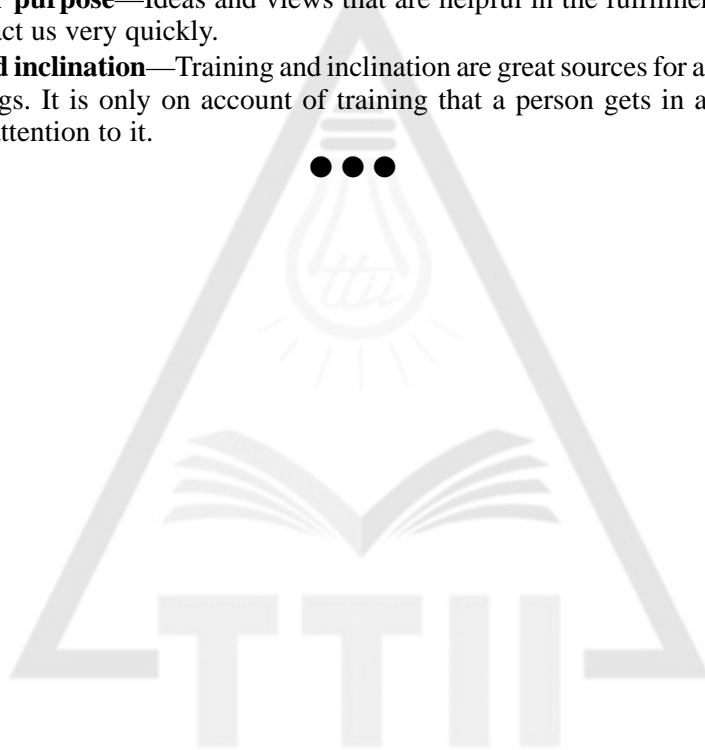
PERSONALITY

"The entire organisation of a human being at any stage of development is personality".
—Warren & Carmichael

"Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation".
—Cattel, R. B.

"The personality of an individual may be defined as his persistent tendencies to make certain qualities and kinds of adjustment". **—Shaffer & Shober**

Q.1. Define the term personality. How this term personality has been defined by philosophers and sociologists? Enumerate the characteristics of personality and general traits. *Or*
Indicate the types and traits of personality. Explain the term motives and modes of adjustment. *Or*
Enumerate the theories of personality. Describe the psycho-analytic theory of Freud and its educational contribution. *Or*
Describe the main features of the field theory of Kurt Lewin. Indicate its contribution to education. *Or*
Enumerate the main features of the personalistic theory of Murray and its educational implications. *Or*
Explain the terms personality according to schools of psychology and contribution to education.

Ans.   ## Definitions of Personality

The following are some important definitions of personality—

"Personality has come to be regarded as the individually that emerge from interaction between a biological and social, physical world". **—Boring**

"Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of that psychological system that determines his unique adjustment to his environment". **—Allport**

A definition which commands itself is as the following—

"A Personality is the product of the dynamic and unique organization within the individual of psychological structure or system and their action within the environment".

It is these two aspects uniqueness of the structural organism and the characteristics of his environment that determine the individual's particular adjustments to his surroundings.

"A personality is the individuality that emerges from interaction between a psycho-biological organism and the world in which he has developed and lives".

Dynamic organizations mean that personality traits do not exist independently or act in isolation.

The term psycho-biological structures connote motives, habits, traits, attitude, feeling, values ways of thinking and acting.

Interaction within the environment is made explicit in order to emphasize that an individual's personality does not merely grow from within. It is product of the interaction between him a developing

organism having certain psychological and biological needs and on the other hand, his environment which has nurtured influenced, directed, satisfied or in varying degrees failed to satisfy those needs.

Personality is described in terms of an individual's behaviour, his actions, postures, words, and attitudes and opinions regarding his external world and also individual's cover feelings about his external world one's feelings about himself, may be conscious, pre-conscious or unconscious level. Personality means man within the man.

Definition of Personality by Sociologists

"Personality is the integration of all traits which determine the role and status of a person in society".

Definition of Personality by Philosopher

"Individuality is the personality".

Idea of perfection is the personality.

"Personality is the self-realization".

The simple definition of the term personality is—

"A man within the person is the real personality".

Personality Characteristics

Confining ourselves to those aspects of personality that are characteristics and distinctive simplifies considerably the problem of studying personality. We find that personality characteristics often overlap and are highly co-related with each other, *e.g.*, honesty, integrity, dependability. We shall consider several sets of characteristics under the following headings—

1. Personality Traits 2. Personality Types
3. Abilities, Interest and Attitudes 4. Motives
5. Modes of Adjustment.

1. Personality Traits—A trait is a generalized tendency toward action, but trait is an abstraction, it cannot be analyzed. Trait is "higher order habits." or organized frames of references.

A trait is any aspect of personality that is reasonably characteristics and distinctive. The following are the general traits—

(i) Social Adaptability.

(ii) Emotional control,

(iii) Conformity,

(iv) Inquiring intellect, and

(v) Confident self-expression.

Individual Traits—The following are the individual traits—

(i) Cheerful-depressed, Talkative-silent.

(ii) Unshakable-easily upset, self-sufficient emotional expression.

(iii) Readiness, good, natured, trustful, selfish, easy going, self-centred.

(iv) Broad or narrow interests, imaginative, depending.

(v) Assertive-submissive opposite sex, expression.

2. Personality Types—There have been, many attempts to classify persons on the basis of their personality pattern.

According to **Thorndike** persons are of three types on the basis of thinking—

(i) Abstract thinker,

(ii) Ideal thinker, and

(iii) Thing or concret thinker.

According to **Jung**, two types—

 (i) Introverts and,

 (ii) Extroverts are most famous.

An introvert is self-centred shy, simple impractical (*e.g.*, philosopher, scientist painter) Extroverts are practical minded persons they try to please others.

Most of them are in between two two can be termed as—

(iii) Ambiverts types.

Several attempts have been made on the different basis—

 (a) Physique,   (b) On interest,

 (c) Social,   (d) Bodily type,

 (e) Intelligence,   (f) Adjustment and

 (g) On the basis of imagination.

3. Abilities, Interests and Attitude—Any descriptive of personality characteristics is incomplete if it does not included such things. He is intelligent, conservative and sports loving.

They are more often measured by objective tests. They are often measured for special purpose such as selection of the students, vocational counselling or public opinion.

4. Motives—It is also possible to describe a person in terms of his motives and goals. We need to have concepts of personality that are cast in terms of motives as well as traits. The traits are described by motives.

A Classification of major personal motives (after Murray)

S.No.	Motive	Goals andEffects
1.	Achievement	To accomplish difficult task, surpass other.
2.	Affiliation	To seek and enjoy cooperation with others to make friend.
3.	Aggressive	To overcome opposition, revenge or ridicule others.
4.	Dominance	To control and influence the behaviour others to be leader.
5.	Order	To arrange things in order cleanliness.
6.	Play	To devote one's free time to sports games, to laugh, joke of everything.
7.	Rejection	Avoidance to an inferior person.
8.	Exhibition	To make an impression.
9.	Deference	To admire a superior person.
10.	Defender	To defend on self against attack.

5. Modes of Adjustment—Another way of characterizing people is by their typical modes of adjustment. The term adjustment refers to accommodating oneself to circumstances or motives under various circumstances—

 (i) Conflict of motives approach-approach circumstances avoidance, approach-avoidance,

 (ii) Defence Mechanisms,

(iii) Nurotic Reactions,

(iv) Effect of Function, and

 (v) Psycho-Reaction.

Theories of Personality

There has been changing emphasis of area in the discipline of psychology. The groups of thinkers or schools of psychology have emphasized on different areas of study consciousness, behaviour and mind in psychology. The psychologists of various schools have explained the psychological concepts according to their own.

It is true that there is no comprehensive or general theory of personality on which all psychologists agree. So far, personality has been considered two complexes in its manifestations to vary and its determinants are numerous.

There are several definitions of personality and several theories of personality have been developed so far to explain its nature. It is a psychological construct. Psychologists have designed studied by employing factorial analysis method to extract the factors of personality.

Some important theories of personality are enumerated here—

1. The Psycho-analytic theory—Freud
2. The Constitutional theory—Sheldon
3. The Factorial theory—R. B. Cartel
4. The Individual Approach theory—Allport
5. The Personalistic theory—H. A. Murray
6. The Organismic theory—Goldstein
7. The Field theory—Kurt Lewin

The details of these have been discussed in the following paragraphs :

The Psycho-Analytic Theory of Personality

There are three aspects of this theory of personality—

1. The dynamic side — Id, ego, super ego.
2. Topographical — Consciousness, unconscious sub-conscious.
3. Economic aspects — Defence mechanism.

The Dynamic Aspect of Personality

The ego, id and super ego are the parts of psycho. Freud's theory made at about the same time as his shift from the ego libido polarity of motive to the life and death instincts had to do with doctrine of the unconscious. As to interpret the personality structure in terms of dynamic aspect of it. It may be studied in terms of ego, id and super ego.

(a) ID : It has the following components—

1. The Id consists primarily of drives, inherited instincts or urges.
2. Id has no direct access to the environment.
3. Id has no sense organs or muscles.
4. Id is bottomless and blind.
5. Id is unorganised, unstructured, mixed desires libido and destructiveness.

Psychoanalysis helps maladjusted persons to substitute rational control for frightened oppression and so to build up the ego at the expenses of the Id.

(b) Ego : It includes the following components—The conscious self was also called the ego and the ego had the task of resisting the unconscious.

1. Ego has the direct access to the environment.
2. It functions through sense organs and muscles.
3. It learns through experience, it gets to know the danger to the environment and the necessity to check the id.
4. Its job is to take over the instincts from the id as far as it can, and make them conform the reality principle.
5. Ego task is to control the id.
6. Ego can be split into two—

(i) Execution, ego remains proper, and

(ii) Watcher and moral critic or active.

7. The ego remains as somewhat ambiguous concept.

(c) Super Ego : It has the following operations—The super ego corresponds to what we ordinarily call conscience, so far as conscience means a blind feeling of right and wrong rather than a knowledge of what is good for us and socially valuable.

It is made up of moral elements. The super ego appropriates some of the aggressive tendency for use against the ago.

Formation of Super Ego

It consists of the following—

1. Introjections into the self of the external as represented specially by parents and other important persons in early life.

Super ego forms through personal contact or environment. Ideals are assimilated into the person through social personal relationship.

2 Direction on the introjected or individual morality of some portion of the marcesitic libido, so that individual loves himself. Introjected ideals began to act as self ideals.

3. It cannot explain its command because source of its authority, rudiments of super ego where inherited from primitive mankinds and takes shapes Oedipus complex.

The Oedipus complex—

Usually the boy's libido fastens on the mother, the girls on the father, Oedipus is the here of Greak, the child Oedipus had killed his father to marry his mother.

Topographical Aspects

The psycho formation can be represented by topographically as—

(a) Conscious,

(b) Sub-conscious, and

(c) Unconscious.

(a) Conscious is part of psyche. The individual is fully aware or cognigent of different type activity engaged by psychic.

1. The individual cognitive and affective tendency are implied the conscious mind.

2. The ego of the individual is directly linked with conscious sphere.

3. The conscious part of psychic is sufficiently less in dimension as compared to the unconscious part. The l/8th part of psychic is said to be conscious part.

(b) Sub-conscious is directly related to the conscious but by little effort it can be brought to the level of conscious part of mind. The idea appears conscious part of mind, comes mostly from sub-conscious and fore conscious part.

Individual attention, thinking and concentration are directly explainable in terms of sub-conscious. It acts as threshold. The ideas never forget can recollect of recall on the power of conscious mind.

(c) Unconscious. It has the following characteristics—

1. The unconscious is more real and permanent aspect of human personality more than 3/4th of human psychic consists of the conscious.

2. The unconscious is vast and bottomless, its mystery cannot be easily known motives.

3. The evidence for the unconscious part of psychic is the dream analysis, slip of tongue and slip of eye and other human behaviour which cannot be explained by conscious motives.

4. The unconscious is the sheet of instinctual urges of the Id. It is huge area occupied by instinctual forces of the individual.
5. The unconscious part of an individual reflect the true individual compared to his appearance *i.e.*, real personality can be structural to know unconscious, dream analysis.

Economic Aspect of Personality

The nature exercise economy and follows the principle of test expended on existing total situation.

Law of parsomony (economy). Freud believed making a person try to make ill due to his over work and confine to bed. Similar the case in mental area, we try to live psychologically least expanse of this economy. It reflects different mechanism that used by human psychic.

1. Defence mechanism are those than toes resolve the conflict rather than specific fashion.

Minor mechanism are used as supplementary tools by the major mechanism.

Mechanism of Personality

1. The mechanism is function, ways and means between Id and super ego.
2. They tend to eliminate or reduce the severity of conflict situation.
3. They are economical methods of resolution.

Not all conflict can be resolved, there are some conflicts which continue and continuation of conflicts is sometimes very harmful for the growth of personality.

Major Mechanism of Consciousness

1. Repression and
2. Discriminatory decision.

Major mechanism of Unconsciousness

1. Conversion
2. Regression
3. Sublimation
4. Reaction formation and
5. Rationalization.

Minor mechanism of both (Conscious and Unconscious)

1. Transference
2. Identification
3. Introjections
4. Projection and
5. Displacements.

Major Mechanism of Consciousness

1. *Repression*—It is the part of conflict situation which is most unaccepted. Unconscious may be forced into conscious by the ego when they occur, the mechanism is called repression. Inhibition where an individual consciously or purposely refrains from an activity.

Suppression—Where an individual consciously forces unacceptable idea out of his mind successfully for period of time.

2. *Discriminatory decision*—It is found in normal adult quite, frequently and less frequently in children. Conflicts are resolved by discriminate decision and renunciation, weighting the pros and cons.

Major Mechanism of Unconsciousness

1. Conversion—It is the mechanism which repress energy, connected with the frustration basic drive is changed (converted) into the functional symptom bodily disease. The conflict is resolved by

conscious or unconsciously into sickness. This mechanism is making weak physiologically and psychologically. Conversion hysteria the disease due to the repression of derive, the energy thwarted and takes the form of disease. It is due to basic urges. Many a time headache may not be due to physical fatigue but due to basic urges. Many a time headache may not be due to physical fatigue but due to thwarting the basic desire. The mental disturbances are due to basic urges.

2. Regression. (means going back). It implies the reversal of the ordinary progressive sequence of development and hence turn into more personality structure. The conflict is solved by flight into, childhood. Two types of regression.

(i) Ego regression and

(ii) *Libido regression*.

Ego-regression is to return into earlier activity in acts as he is in the earlier stage may be in ego and libido. These two may occur libido regression without ego-regression. On the other hand, we seldom find ego regression without libido regression.

3. Sublimation—It is the solution of basic urges through the substitution a socially acceptable goal, there is redirection of basic urge into socially approved channel, the manifested behaviour are not only socially acceptable but have definite social values. The unconscious is resolved flight into creative work *e.g.* poet is interested in fine art many a time shows the tendency of sublimation. Expressing his desires in same forms his usages cannot be satisfied in original form.

4. Reaction formation over compensation—The development of behaviour which diametrically opposed to the unconscious urges or wishes, the conscious conflict is resolved behaviour denial of it. A person is preaching moral but may not moral man. Actually a people shows and posses more than his real.

5. Rationalization—The mechanism by which the individual justify his belief and action by going other reason than those activated along with other regression, sublimation reaction available in normal adult. No agreeable to prove his feeling with his own commands so rationalize his motive with logic for something actual reason is not given rationalization.

Minor Mechanism

1. Transference—It signifies the shifting of feeling of Love-egoic cathoxies from one object and person to another. Freud gave an example a patient suffering from neurosis the show the tendency of love to the doctor. The patient derives same type of love feeling exhibit by patient toward the doctor as she exhibit toward he father, mother and husband.

2. Identification—It refers to the mechanism through a person attempt to mould his ego, after death of someone else believes himself to have some other person *e.g.* children male usually identify himself to his teacher at lower stages education female teachers are proved more effective rather than higher stage. We identify to the person whom we get pleasure.

3. It refers incorporation of the ego into itself of the outside environment of other individual to object apart of himself empathy sympathy always with me in letters, that is the sign of in introjection you shall carry one.

4. Projection—It may be considered as inverse of introjection in that the ego attitude toward the environmental objects or other persons characteristics of their own personality which are unexpected to the ego to seek faults in others. Try to look qualities of others, you are also weak you are also late. These are lame excuses.

5. Displacement—It refers of transfer of ore object to another.

The Constitutional Theory of Personality

The theory is developed by Sheldon. He insists on measurement of traits as they are continuous variables.

He has developed a psychology of personality which recognizes the importance of biological constitutional factors. He has emphasized on a continuous variable approach for the measurement of constitutional as opposed to the earlier method of classification on the basis of broad discontinuities. But, it resembles with older topologies.

All earlier topologies of personality assume that behaviour characteristics are related in same fundamental way to underlying biological factors.

Sheldon Thesis

He postulates that human physique and personality can be adequately described in terms of three fundamental temperamental patterns.

Primary Components of Human Physique

1. Endomorphy, 2. Mesomorphy and 3. Ectomorphy.

1. Endomorphy—This temperament has three components—

(a) The degree to which an individual shows rotundness.

(b) An under development of muscles and bones.

(c) Over development of fat and viscera especially the latter.

2. Mesomorphy—This temperament has the following characteristics.

The degree to which an individual shows—

(a) A predominance of development of bones muscles as opposed to the other bodily components.

(b) Possesses an athletic body which is hard well proportioned muscular.

3. Ectomorphy—It has the following characteristics—

It is the component which determines the relative development of skin and nervous tissue over the other components.

An individual physique is related to the pre-ponderance of development of three fundamental embryonic-tissues—

(a) Endoderm — Innermost layers of embojenic cells.

(b) Mesoderm — Emorgonic layer from which muscles and blood survived.

(c) Ectoderm — Cellular layer from which skin, hair, central nervous system derived.

An individual is rated on seven point scale on each of the above components. In addition to these primary components, the individual may also be rated on the degree to which he demonstrates.

1. Dysplasia

2. Gyandromorphy and

3. Texture.

1. Dysplasia—The extent to which a person shows or lack of harmony or markedly uneven mixture of the basic components in any part of his body. Ex-an otherwise entomorphic individual with the laps of an endomorphys delinquencies, mental disease.

2. Gyandromorphy—The extent to which an individual has the bodily characteristics commonly indentified with numbers of the opposite sex.

3. Texture is the degree to which an individual possesses a fine aesthetically pleasing body as revealed by the texture of his/her skin, hair and perhaps underlying cells.

Primary Dimensions of Temperament

Temperament of an individual refers to his emotional and motivational nature. Behaviourally it is his reactive disposition.

Three primary cluster of traits could account for 1225 correlations among the traits were studied.

1. Viscerotonia trait is closely associated with digestive and vishal process.

2. Somatonia trait is associated with voluntary muscular system (Sematic structure).

3. Cerebrotonia traits are the activities which have to do chiefly with attentional consciousness.

Relationship between Physique and Temperaments

Under this study Sheldon selected 200 adults and obtained the following result—

1. *Viscerotonia* trait is most closely related to endomorphy temperament'.

2. *Somatonia* trait is most closely association with mesomorphy temperament.

3. *Cerebrotonia* trait is most closely related to ectomorphy temperament.

On the basic of the relationship, temperament can be predicted on the basis of physique with a considerable accuracy and concomitantly physique with the help of temperament, but causal relationship cannot be established. .

Criticism of Sheldon Theory

The following are the advantages and limitations of Sheldon theory of personality—

1. Most of the studied done by Sheldon are on adult male subjects. Therefore his findings related to biological traits and temperaments cannot be applied for female subjects, because their physique constitution is different from male. There is also difference between temperaments of male or female.

2. Sheldon has used rating scale for measuring these variables, therefore the observations have the 'Halo Effect' of the rators.

3. Somatic type is relatively in variant.

4. It considers physique and emotional aspects of a person but does not consider the intellectual and social aspects which are most important for the psychology of personality.

5. It has limited the scope for using this concept of personality in Education.

The Factorial Theory of Personality

This theory has been developed by **R.B. Cattel**. He has defined the term personality.

"Personality is that which permits a prediction of a person what will he do in a given situation".

Main features of his theory—It has the following main three characteristics—

1. He has restricted to 'units of behaviour'. It must be integrated into a larger whole, is the true picture of the functioning of personality.

2. Both types of traits physiological and psychological are possible units of behaviour. But Cattel favours the trait approach is more fruitful.

3. The traits are inferred from the individual behaviour *i.e.*, personality is an integration of traits. The traits are classified into categories—

   (a) Surface traits and

   (b) Source traits.

   (a) Surface traits are revealed by correlating traits elements or traits indicators which are behaviour samples which go together, independence, boldness, alertness with enthusiasm.

   (b) Source traits are revealed by factors analysis and represent deeper level viable and more significant aspect of personality.

   Explanatory Units. He found by conducting experiments that units of behaviour found to correspond to most fundamental influence, physiological, temperamental and social which give rise to personality.

In repeated factorial studies Cattle has found evidences for as many as 15 source traits. However only six are repeatedly confirmed and unmistakable—

1. Cyctothymic *Vs* Seluzithymic (constitutional)

2. General mental capacity *Vs* Mental defect

3. Surgency *Vs* desurgency

4. Adventures cyclothymic *Vs* Anxiety Seluzithymic
5. Socialized, cultured *Vs* Boovishness
6. Bohemian concerned *Vs* Conventional of personality.
   Further classification of traits—The traits can also be classified into two major categories—
1. Environmental Mold Traits
2. Constitutional Traits (Hereditary determinants).
1. Environmental mold traits are of three types—
   (a) Dynamic—Goal direct behaviour.
   (b) Ability—How well he worked towards the goal.
   (c) Temperamental—Emotional activities. Speed or energy with which he reacts.

Dynamics of the Functioning of Personality

It depends on two components—(i) Base Ergs and (ii) Meta Ergs.

(i) Base ergs—
   (a) A dynamic constitutional source trait.
   (b) Selectively turned towards certain environmental objects.
   (c) An ergic pattern carries with it a certain characteristic of emotion.
   (d) The pattern results in a certain specific type of goal satisfaction.
   (e) An innale preference for path leading to goal.

Examples of ergs are sex, self-assertion, fear, gregariousness parental, protectiveness, appear of self, abasement, play curiosity and narcissism.

(ii) Meta ergs—
   (a) In all respects like erg except that it is an environmental mold trait attitude, sentiments and motives.
   (b) Metaerg are also learned.

Development of Personality

It the development of personality Cattel has emphasized, unfolding maturational processes and their modification through learning and experiences. He suggests four ways for developing personality of an individual.

1. Modification of ergs.
2. Elaboration of meta ergs.
3. Organization of self, and
4. Dynamic lattices involving subsidization, chaining ergs and meta ergs.

In this way Cattel has developed seventeen principle for developing personality of an individual.

Evaluation of the Factoral Theory

1. He has used *'factors analysis'* method for developing his theory of personality. Therefore, it is mainly influenced by demerits of factor Analysis method.

2. He has given main stress on traits and ergs in his theory. Thus the theory is dominated by traits and ergs. His theory seems to be very close to Murray's theory.

3. A teacher has to modify the ergs of students and has to elaborate their meta-ergs to make his teaching effective.

4. He has not taken into consideration social variables in extracting the factors for personality interpretation.

An Individual Approach Theory

Allports theory of personality is considered his significant contribution in psychology. It is also

known as psychology of individuality. His approach in defining the personality is a synthesis of contemporary definitions.

Definition of Personality According to Allport

"Personality is the dynamic organization within an individual of those psycho-physical system that determine his unique adjustment to his environments."

He has emphasized the following aspects of personality—

1. Personality as a dynamic or growing system of an individual.
2. It consists of psycho-physical system or factors.
3. Personality is the uniqueness of each individual.
4. The psycho-physical factors determine his adjustment to his environment. The adjustment is the function of the personality.

Allport's views on personality span a period of 20 years duration. He has been guided by the basic principles—

(a) To do justice for the complexity of personality compounded as it is of hereditary, temperamental, social and psychological factors.

(b) To recognize or identify the uniqueness of each individual personality despite the many communalities that exist among different people.

(c) Both nomothetic (universal laws) and ideographic unique methods are combined to study the personality

(d) He has opposed psycho-analytic view of personality. Dynamics in which present behaviour must be treated to its genetic origin.

Concepts of Psychology of Individuality

It has two main concepts—

1. Functional autonomy of motives and
2. Theory of traits.

1. Functional Autonomy of Motives—It refers to the following sub-concepts-

(a) It holds that adult motives are varied nature.
    "Self-sustaining contemporary systems, growing out of antecedent systems but functionally independent of them".

(b) It refers to the observation that a given activity, originally serving a motive may become motivating in its own right, hence autonomous.

(c) It explains the transformation of the selfish child into socialized adult. It accounts for the force *e.g.*, phobia, delusion and other forms of compulsive behaviour.

The driving force behind such complex activities as craftsmanship, artistic, endeavour and genius is explained as love of the activity for its own sake.

2. Theory of Traits—Traits and attitudes are both the central concepts in the psychology of personality.

Definition of a Trait

"A trait is a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system (peculiar to the individual) with the capacity to render stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour".

(a) Traits are functionally autonomous reaction tendencies which are aroused by focal classes of stimulus situations.

(b) Such reaction tendencies are in a sense unique for each individual personality, but because of common biological and environmental influences many traits may be considered as common traits, thus allowing for the measurement and prediction of behaviour.

Characteristics of Traits

The following are main characteristics of traits—

1. Traits are both general and focal.
2. Traits are around by certain classes of stimuli and not by specific stumuli.
3. Traits have dominance tendency in the presence of other people.
4. Traits are consistent or permanent in nature.

Classification of Traits—Traits are classified into two categories—

1. Individual and
2. Common trait.

1. Individual traits—In a sense every trait is an individual trait. This may be of two types—

   (a) Cardial traits
   (b) Central traits
   (a) *Cardial traits* are outstanding all pervasive, dominant in the individual life a ruling passion.
   (b) *Central traits* are focal of personality, ordinary measured by rating scale, mentioned in conversation and described in words of recommendation.

Personality demonstrates a unity and integration of different type trait. He shows his concerns with the problem of identifying the inner essence of personality.

The Concept of Self—The concept propnium includes the bodily sense, self-identity, awareness of continuity of self, ego enhancement ego excitation, identification of external objects with the self, rational cognitive function, the self images, appropriate striving refers to the self as opposed to behaviour which is peripheral to the self.

The forms of behaviour that serve self-realization represent growth or abundance motivation as opposed to deficiency of motivation.

Evaluation of Allports Theory

It has the following merits and demerits of this theory—

1. His theory is quite influential among those psychologists whose major concern is with area of personality.
2. His theory seems to be more comprehensive to cover all aspect of an individual.
3. He has tried to explain the phenomenon of self but self has been vindicated.
4. He is very tender minded on theorizing; the psychology of personality or individuality.
5. He is greatly influenced by existentialism.

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Chapter 10

SCHOOL AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Q.1. **Explain the role of school in child development.**

Ans. ### School and Child Development

A child's personality is influenced by his school, where he comes into contact with his teachers and his colleagues. At home the child's ideals are his parents and in school he forms his ideals around his teachers. A child hates a teacher who is cruel and use the stick. He tries to revenge himself on such a teacher, but if the teacher is kind and considerate the child loves and worships him. Both the personality of the teacher and his behaviour toward the child influence the child's personality. A teacher is bigger than the child in size as well as in mental stature and he can make many demands upon the child. For this reason the child likes the idea of developing to the same size as the teacher. At home the child identifies himself with his parents while in school he identifies himself with his teacher but only when the teacher has a magnetic personality. If the teacher's own personality is not very strong he does not have much influence upon the child. On the other hand, the teacher's way of thinking and moral conduct influences the child's thinking and behaviour. The teacher's standard of living, modes of behaviour, conduct, etc., all affect the student. Putting it briefly, every quality, good or bad, of the teacher that is manifest in his behaviour towards the child, leaves some influence upon the child's mind.

Influence of Playmates and Classfellows

Normally, the child's classfellows in school are his playmates and friends, though, sometimes, the child makes friends with children belonging to other classes. A child studying in a higher class normally behaves in a high-handed manner towards the child of a lower class. The same thing happens when two children of different age levels come into contact. An older child's behaviour towards his junior may be either loving or cruel, for in any case the younger child treats the older with fear and respect. Another factor is the competition in matters of study that occurs between children, for it can, on the one hand, induce the child to develop emotions of jealousy, hatred and disgust, while on the other, it may inspire him to greater effort and independence.

Influence of Group on the Child

Individual influences do count but the most important influence upon the child in school is the influence of the group of his colleagues in the playground. Children tend to form groups with those boys and girls either with whom they play or the ones with whom they indulge in mischief. These groups compete with each other, while within the group there are always wrangles for leadership. Within each group, each particular child occupies a definite place and plays a distinct role. Each group has a complement of recognized members and an encourage of those who attach themselves to the group. There is leader within the group whose intimate friends form the inner circle of the group. It is the function of the leader to look after the functioning of the gang, to do the thinking for the gang and to be its mainstay and its moral support. In certain groups the brain is provided by one child and the action by another. It is for the brain to draw up the plans and for the dare devil to carry them out. Another common feature of such groups is the comedian or jester whose sole function is to play the fool and to keep his group amused. It is possible for such groups to have one child playing the role of

the scape-goat. Functions within the group are allocated according to the ability or the capacity of each individual child. In fighting gangs the strongest boy automatically assumes the mantle of leadership while in mischievous groups the most intelligent boy becomes the leader. A child's function in any such group coincides with his personality, while the performing of this function influences his personality.

Growth of Community Sentiment

Modern psychology does not credit the existence of any group mind distinct from the mind of the individual, but in group situations the laws of group behaviour are freely employed. A college is a psychological group. Qualities such as discipline and cooperation can be evolved in the students only after some community feeling has been injected into them. **William McDougall** has pointed out several conditions that are necessary for the development of a group mind. They can be put to good use in developing community, it sentiment in colleges. They are—

1. Permanence of the group—A college, in its role as a group, should possess certain degree of permanence or physical stability. Naturally, some students join the college every year while others leave it, and some change is always going on in the shape of additional buildings, staff members changing their colleges, etc. But despite this change there is some permanence for the average student who spends two to four years in one college while in exceptional case this period even extends from ten to twelve years. If the teachers in a school are not unnecessarily changed at a rapid rate and some of the college rules are maintained, the students derive a sense of permanence and the realization that the college has a distinct nature. This can help them to develop a community feeling, which is part of their greater community feeling comprehending their society as a whole.

2. Study of the form of the group by members and the member's understanding of its duties and functions—Each student is member of the college group. He can have community feeling for it only if he learns to regard it as a group, realizes the duties that he has to perform as student, and has knowledge of the college's rules and methods of working. For this reason it is desirable for the teachers to introduce their new students every year to the institution as it is, what it stands for, how things are run in it and what is expected of the newcomers. It is only in these circumstances that each student will be able to play his role in achieving the ideals of the college.

3. Contact with other groups—Community feeling does not develop only by taking part in the functions of one's own group. It is necessary that members of different groups should intermingle. Occasions for such contact can be developed by organizing debates, discussions, dramatic performances, games and sports. But on all such occasions it is necessary that the feeling of the contestants for each other should be those of friendliness and respect. Should these feeling be lacking, the healthy development of any community feeling is not easy. In all such programmes students come to regard themselves as representatives of a particular college, with which they identify themselves. It is for the honour of this institution that they have to fight. Community feeling will inevitably result.

4. Development of community tradition—In a college, as in every other group, the members keep on changing every year but the community life of the group can be maintained for years at time if a community tradition is developed. Old students who keep up their contact with their old college play an important role. Old Boys Associations can perform a useful function by renewing contact with the newer generation of students and by holding meetings and thus keeping alive the traditions of the colleges. Many colleges and universities are famous for some particular tradition. Some colleges can boast of a fine tradition of discipline while another college may be producing the best students. If the old students and teachers are successful in keeping up these traditions every year the newcomers are encouraged to do their best. In this manner the communal life of the college runs smoothly,

5. Division of labour among members—In every group different individuals are entrusted with the performance of different duties. Without this division of labour the life of the group cannot run

smoothly. In a school or college, in particular, it's desirable that individual students should be entrusted with the task of looking after the discipline, the gardens and lawns, the classrooms, the library and the reading room, etc., and of organizing cultural programmes. If the student is compelled to perform such functions he learns to shoulder responsibility and to take decisions on his own. Besides, he feels some personal interest in the functioning of the college and this gives vitality to his understanding of the community spirit.

In addition to the above factors pointed out by McDougall certain other means can be adopted for the development of a group mind in students. If meetings of the entire college are held from time to time, the students develop a sense of identity. If the students' parents are invited to cultural programmes healthy atmosphere is generated in the college. Teachers of literature, music and art can contribute to the life of the college by making their teaching more colourful. Another way of improving community life is to have community prayer in the morning before teaching work begins and parades in the evening.

When students are encouraged to participate in the celebration of a national day, prize distributions and the selection of different committees, they feel part of the college. The tone of the college has very great influence in this respect. And a good tone can be developed only when the life of the college is disciplined, marked by cooperation, law and order, high moral level and an advanced level of mutual relations. This happens only when the teachers themselves set high standards and do not hold themselves aloof from their students. Teachers are the leaders of students and for that reason the responsibility of presenting the students with desirable ideals devolves upon them.

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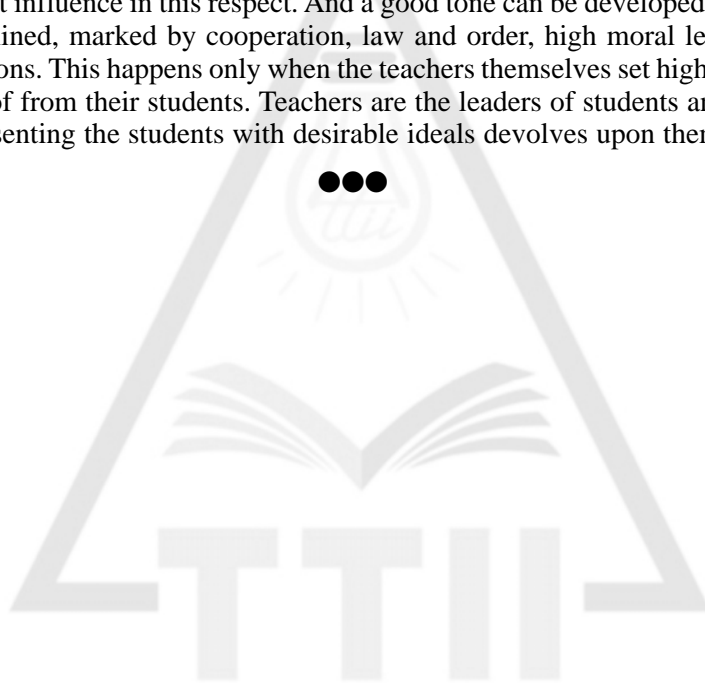
MENTAL HEALTH AND EDUCATION

> *"A mentally healthy individual is one who is himself satisfied, lives peacefully with his neighbours, makes healthy citizens of his children, and even after performing these fundamental duties has enough energy left to do something of benefit to society. Possessing mental health, an individual can adjust properly to his environment, and make the best efforts for his own family's and his society's progress and betterment".*
> *— P. V. Lewkan*

Q.1. **Define mental health. Explain its characteristics. Discuss the importance of family and school in maintaining mental health.**

Ans.

Definition

1. According to the **P. V. Lewkan**, *"A mentally healthy individual is one who is himself satisfied, lives peacefully with his neighbours, makes healthy citizens of his children, and even after performing these fundamental duties has enough energy left to do something of benefit to society. Possessing mental health, an individual can adjust properly to his environment, and make the best efforts for his own family's and his society's progress and betterment".*

2. According to the **A. K. Menninger**, *"'Heredity' Let us define mental health as the adjustment of human beings to the world and to each other with maximum of effectiveness and happiness. It is the ability to maintain an even temper, an alert intelligence, socially considerate behaviour and a happy disposition".*

The chief characteristics of mental health, it is evident, is adjustment. The greater the degree of successful adjustment, the greater will be the mental health of individual. Lesser mental health will be the lesser adjustment and greater conflict. The healthy individual can interpret any new situation and adapt it to suit himself, or adapt himself, to suit it. He maintains a healthy and benevolent attitude towards life. He is aware that difficulties visit everyone in life, so that running away from them is cowardice. They can be solved only by squarely facing up to them with courage.

Mental Health and Mental Hygiene

In this manner, mental hygiene is a way of life in which the individual's adjustment of his environment is maintained intact. **N. E. Cutts** and **N. Moslay** have also stressed that element of adjustment in health is that ability by means of which we establish our adjustment with the difficult situations of life and mental hygiene is that means or tool which makes this adjustment possible. This definition also helps to reveal the reaction between them. Mental hygiene is the means to mental health. In other words, mental hygiene is that science which studies the laws and means of achieving mental health, of maintaining it as well as doing away with mental ill health. Mental health is the end, and mental hygiene the means.

Characteristics of Mental Health

In order to understand the full implications of mental health, it would be advantageous to know the characteristics of a person who enjoys mental health. Actually, mental health, like physical health, is also a condition. And this condition can be recognised by its characteristic features. Roughly speaking, a mentally healthy individual would exhibit the following symptoms—

1. Self-evaluation—A mentally healthy individual evaluating himself properly is aware of his limitations. He easily accepts his faults and makes efforts to rid himself of them. He keeps an eye upon himself so that he may be aware of his own tendencies and that he may be in a position to divert them in the desired directions. He introspects so that he may analyse his problems, prejudices, difficulties, etc., and reduce them to a minimum.

2. Adjustability—It has been pointed out earlier also, that one special characteristic of a mentally healthy individual is that he adjusts to a new situation with the least delay and disturbance. He is never disturbed of what might have been. He does not try to think of old age when he is young think of his youth when a senile crank. He makes the fullest possible use of existing opportunities and adjusts to every new situation that presents itself. This does not mean that he is a rolling stone that gathers no mass, but has his own ideas, notions, opinions; he is a cool individual who deals coolly and patiently with every novel circumstances, without fear, disturbance, anxiety, complaint or a desire to avoid them. He is aware of the fact that change is the law of life, he is ever prepared for change and always finds some suitable mode of adjustment. He has every desire to benefit the society, is even prepared to incur the wrath of society, with a show of intrepidity if its benefit lies that way. Usually, he is calm, collected and indomitable even in the face of extreme adversity. Having force of character and will he often changes circumstances to suit him rather than change himself to suit the situations. Gandhi, Christ, Mohammed were people of this mould and class. Impatience with circumstances is not to be condemned but what is to be condemned and criticised is the tendency to run away from them and to cry over them. The weak individual becomes satisfied with circumstances, only to fall a prey to mental disturbances and diseases. The great person loses his satisfaction with circumstances and strains every sinew to change them according to his own wishes. In fact, the most important aspect of adjustment is one's own mental condition rather than the external situation. A proper mental attitude gains a kind of immunity from the external situation affecting their peace and calm and balance.

3. Maturity—Intellectual and emotional maturity is another peculiar sign of mentally healthy individuals. The mature mind is constantly engaged in increasing his fund of knowledge, behaves responsively, expresses his thoughts and feelings and viewpoints. And in maturity, sexual maturity is very important. The healthy individual behaves like a balanced, cultured and sensible adult in matters relating to sex.

4. Regular life—Habits are an important element in maintaining mental health. Forming proper habits in matters of food, clothing and the normal routine of daily life leads to their becoming systematic and regulated, which, in the long run, economises upon energy and time. Many people are seen worrying over the most trifling things in their routine. Some women experience such acute difficulty in determining the sari and blouse that they should wear outside the house that it leads to considerable mental pain and complication. Some individuals are always conscious of the fact, erroneously, that their tie is not straight, and they spend much time in tying it correctly, in spite of which they can be seen fiddling with it all the time. Such nervous behaviour is not a sign of mental health. Healthy persons perform most of the common functions of life with quick assurance and a show of neutrality; without any bother and fuss. Their life is a model of regularity, balance and measured calculation.

5. Absence of extremism—Aristotle believed that the ideal man lacks access in any and every direction, and the principle that excess of anything is bad is a golden rule as far as mental health is concerned. Whatever the instinct if it is allowed to dominate an individual, it will bring him to harm and endanger his mental health. Some women go through any amount of criticism and degradation besides pain but they cannot forego their habit of quarrel. An unnecessarily courageous individual is often a prey to accident. And for the valuable persons there are many occasions of regret and painful recollection of what might have been. Oversexed individuals lose their health reserve very quickly. Excessive ambition is another trait that never lets its possessor rest. Hence, in order to maintain mental

health, one's life should be integrated, interest should be wide and the personality balanced. Extremism is no well wisher of mental health.

6. Satisfactory social adjustment—As has been pointed out, from the point of view of mental health, a healthy individual maintains good adjustment with social situations and is engaged in some or the other project intended to benefit society. And this is because in modem society the proper development of everyone's personality can take place only if there is mutual cooperation. Social relationships are a part of everyone's life. The greater the balance of these social relationships and the greater their simplicity, the better will be the individual's mental health. Improper conduct on the part of others can be the cause of both mental problems and diseases. Hence proper behaviour and proper feelings are essential for everyone.

7. Satisfaction from chief occupation—For mental health it is essential that everyone should find satisfaction from his chief occupation, his vocation. The individual who studies only to pass the examination and finds no pleasure in his work is neither a good student nor a healthy individual. A helpful professor teaches without worrying about the financial implications of his profession, an author writes, a businessman trades and a labourer labours but with interest. Money is the result of work but if one work interests individual, it will yield more money, but at the same time, a proper utilisation of time will bring an increase in his pleasure and happiness. In fact, if one works for interest, one maintains it even in the event of a loss in trade, or at least the pain of loss is considerably lessened.

This description does not exhaust all the elements that a mentally healthy individual manifests, but it is a sufficiently suggestive picture of mental health. It can be imaginatively built upon. In this manner, mental health is that condition in which the individual manifests self-evaluation, adjustability, maturity, regular life, absence of extremism, satisfactory social adjustment and satisfaction from his chief occupation. Complete mental health is an ideal. Any individual who possesses the greater number of these qualities will be nearest the ideal.

Importance of Family

Family has the greatest importance in maintaining a condition of mental health, and within the family the greatest burden of responsibility is on the two parents. What is mostly needed in this connection is the creation of a suitable atmosphere in which the child's personality can adequately develop. A child's delicate and sensitive personality is influenced by the character of parents, their mutual behaviour and relations, their behaviour towards the children, the child's reactions with brothers, sisters and other relatives in the family. Hence, it is essential that these be healthy. There can be no hard and fast rule as to how the parents should behave towards the child under certain conditions; all that can be justifiably said is that they should consciously give the child every chance to develop his personality freely and without restraint. It is for them to prevent the child from treading the wrong path but they should not try to make him follow them in all things. The least they can do is to prevent any situation that causes repression in the child. All other things depend upon the parent's insight into child and adolescent psychology, their patience, their labour and experience.

Importance of School

The question that now arises is : How can mental aberration be prevented in school? It mostly happens that many students, particularly children and adolescents cannot clarify their difficulties and problems so that they require guidance from their parents, teachers and psychologists. It is for the guide to understand the adolescent and to sympathise with him, and to offer him affectionate advice. Scolding or punishing them is not very efficacious. They should be given opportunity of expressing their desires and mental tendencies.

Following the family the other institution that has responsibility of promoting mental health in children is the school. It is the school that has the greatest influence, after the home, in forming the

child's personality. And even in school, the most important factor is the atmosphere existing there. In a healthy atmosphere the children adopt discipline and other qualities of their own. There is greater fear to some children being spoiled in school. Such children should be specially attended to and given definite and expert guidance. The greatest need is for providing each child with work adequate and proper to the needs of his personality. Hence, it is essential that the backward and the brilliant children should be given special treatment. Teachers present an ideal to the children in their charge, hence their character and conduct should be such as can be profitably imitated by the children. Pupil personnel service should be introduced to remove the difficulties with which the children are faced from time to time in school.

Briefly, in school the teacher should keep the following factors vividly in mind if he is to preserve mental health, prevent mental disturbance or promote mental health among his students—

1. Discipline—As has been pointed out earlier, discipline in the school has an important influence upon the mental health of students. But this discipline should never be very hard since such conditions will lead to mental ill-health. Thus, discipline should be exercised not through creating fear of punishment but through arousing feelings of responsibility and the desire to be law-abiding among the students. True discipline is self discipline. And discipline in college should be maintained by selecting its guardians from among the students themselves. It develops feelings of responsibilities among the students.

2. Affectionate behaviour—It is only too evident that affectionate behaviour towards students on the part of teachers has good effects on the former's mental health. It will inspire him to obey the teacher, respect him, to do nothing that may incur his displeasure. A teacher should maintain the same loving attitude towards all his students. Any discrimination in this treatment injures the feelings of students.

3. Play and recreation—Mental disturbance and imbalance is created by the repressed motive surging in a student's brain. They can be given opportunities for healthy expression through games and other forms of recreation. Play and recreation have a cathartic effect.

4. Sex education—In adolescence, the morals of young boys and girls show alarming tendencies to proceed to degradation because of the sexual instinct, or alternately its repression leads to much mental distress. Teachers should make use of psychological weapons, to remove any sexual deviations that may be embedded in the minds of students. And for this, the best way is to provide young boys and girls with the necessary elementary sex education. This will help them, on the one hand, to develop a healthy attitude towards sex and prevent them from forming harmful complexes, as well as assist in their physical, mental and emotional development, on the other; they can then later on become well developed and integrated individuals.

5. Educational guidance—In order to maintain a state of mental health, it is essential that they be given subjects that conform to their requirements and abilities, and their educational problems solved. Taking personal advice of a psychologist in this connection is called educational guidance.

6. Personal guidance—Many of the problems that arise before the student are such that they cannot be solved by the student himself; hence he needs the personal guidance of the psychologist to solve them.

7. Vocational guidance—Every individual is compelled to adopt some one or the other profession once his education is complete, and he begins to worry about it even while he is still engaged in his academic pursuit. The knowledgeable teacher can help his students in their choice of a suitable career.

8. Formation of good habits—Mental health depends upon good habit. Hence it is desirable for the teacher to help students in the formation of good habits regarding a regular life balanced diet and exercise, good behaviour and high, thinking, etc.

9. Balanced curriculum—The curriculum in school should be such as to develop all aspects of the students' personality, to increase his fund of necessary knowledge and avoid all unnecessary strain on the mind. The integrated development of the students can be promoted through organising of various kinds of extracurricular activities in the school and college.

10. Balanced Home Assignment—It is improper to think that if the child is given too much homework to do he will not have the time to indulge in destructive and naughty pranks as he will be too busy. Loading them with too much homework only leaves them worried and anxious, with the worst influence upon their mind. Hence the homework required of them should be carefully and sensibly formulated.

Finally, it may be stated that the prevention of mental imbalances is a problem of social and national importance. For this, efforts will have to be made to get rid of circumstances of social disorganisation, exploitation, corruption, various tensions and conflicts, crimes, alcoholic effects etc. The defects of urban life in the form of excessive crowding, unhealthy small houses, promiscuous mixing of the sexes, noise will have to be eliminated. Suitable interesting work for all will have to be provided, in addition to opportunities of health and recreation. It is only through efforts at national level that proper and effective prevention of mental maladies can take place. And for this, co-operative effort on the part of government, teachers, social workers and sensible people in the public, will be necessary.

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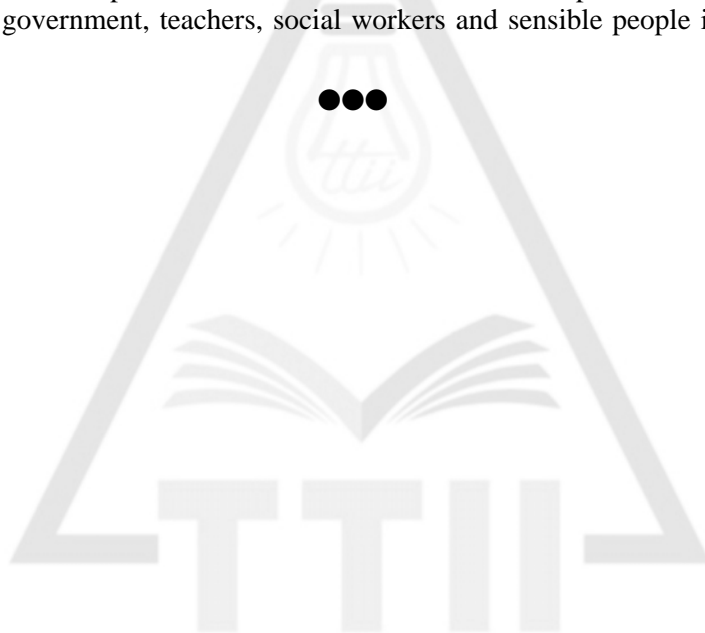
MENTAL HEALTH OF THE TEACHER

Q.1. **Write short note on Maladjusted Teachers.**

Ans. ## The Maladjusted Teachers

The problem of maladjustment or mental ill-health or personality disorders is accentuated by a number of teachers who are 'ill-equipped to offer them any help because of their personal difficulties. Though the number of such teachers is small yet they are doing a great disservice to the lives of pupils. They are not only problems, to schools but they are also problems to parents and heads of schools. Such teachers who are introvert, over ambitious, hyperactive, neurotic, selfish, eccentric and have sick spells in the classroom. Some are so antagonistic to pupils that they repeat them. Some are struggling so much with their emotional problems that their teaching efficiency gets impaired. Some are working under such great emotional stress that it interferes with sleeping, eating and their ability to relax. Some are in ill-health because of worries and nervousness. The problem of maladjustment among teachers becomes serious because these teachers exert a detrimental effect on millions of children who are forced to sit in their classrooms. The emotionally unstable teacher who has an uncontrollable temper or who is severely depressed, or who is markedly prejudiced, or who is flagrantly intolerant or who is bitingly sarcastic or who is habitually scolding may endanger the emotional health of pupils as seriously as anyone who is suffering from tuberculosis or some other communicable diseases. Such emotionally unstable teachers need help but while they are being helped they must be out of classrooms so that the children may be freed from the psychic injury and a sense of repression and fear that their presence creates.

Leaving aside the maladjusted teachers how many of the teachers teaching in the classrooms realize the extent to, which frustration of a youngster's desire for success and status in the class and consequent disregard at home may distress him. School failure is a potential cause of frustration and misery. A number of youngsters, who try to avoid this distress by becoming truants or who leave the school at the first opportunity, is large.

In a classroom where children's interests are met, where respect and recognition, are freely given where accomplishment is acknowledged, children are happy. In such circumstances, the children participate readily in class-work, like their teachers and the school and show disciplined behaviour. ●

Q.2. **Explain the factors affecting mental health of teachers.**

Ans. ## Factors Affecting Mental Health of Teachers

1. Work load—The teacher is under constant stress because he is assigned too much work. He has to prepare his lessons, superwise and check class-work, conduct monthly, quarterly, half-yearly and annual examinations, plan and organise co-curricular activities, maintain school attendance and fee register, contact parents and attend to them when they visit school, prepare and furnish information to the department when required. The duties and responsibilities of a teacher are so many and so heavy that an average teacher is always under stress.

2. Insecurity of service—Services in privately managed schools are generally insecured. The teacher in such schools lives upon the mercy of the management There is constant fear of being turned out of service.

3. Low status in the society-—Low status in the society is because of the low pay that the teacher gets. Low pay is again due to excess of supply over demand. The unemployment statistics reveal that there is the greatest unemployment among trained teachers. As an average is paid low, he resorts to private tuition. He has to move from door to door and hence he does not get the respect that he deserves. This causes anxiety and trouble.

4. The school environment—Private schools in our country are managed by affluent people of a particular caste or creed. Consequently teachers of the same caste or creed get employment there. It becomes difficult for the teacher belonging to different castes to adjust. Very often he gets step-motherly treatment. This causes worry, emotional distress and maladjustment.

5. Autocratic supervision—The School Inspector or the Head, who is expected to supervise and guide the teacher, wields unquestioned authority and demands unqualified obedience and respect. He shuts himself against any other way of teaching except that which appeals him. He thinks that he is infallible and knows more than the teacher. The teacher has to submit to what he says. The result is that he has to bear unjust criticism, and wrong reprimands. This causes mental tension.

6. Contact with the young—It is the teacher who has to solve the problems raised by his pupils. It is he who has resolve differences between two quarrelling boys. Since the boys or girls with whom the school teacher has to work are not so responsible, they create difficulties all the time. The result is that the mental peace of the teacher remains disturbed.

7. Lack of recreational facilities—A teacher's life is no life. In the school he is busy for all six hours. Outside the school he is busy in going from door to door to earn extra money from private tuitions. There is no time for rest or recreation. Even the school does not provide him recreation. Lack of co-curricular activities in school and teacher's inaptitude to participate in them makes their life dull and drab. There is no relief from mental tensions.

8. Low physical health—Teacher's bodily health is generally not satisfactory. Low income and lack of recreational facilities undermine his health badly. Low physical health is a precipitating factor for low mental health.

9. Lack of teaching aids—Schools are generally ill-equipped as regards teaching aids. Heads of schools and the managements do not attach any importance to the supply of teaching materials. The teacher himself has to prepare visual aids himself and spends a lot of time which is already short with him. This creates unnecessary stress and strain.   ●

Q.3.   What suggestions can be made to improve mental health of the teachers.

Ans.   # Suggestions to Improve Mental Health of Teachers

1. Equitable work load—There is an urgent need in the reduction of work load. Not more than 33-36 periods per week should be given to a teacher to teach. Besides other duties should be equitably distributed among all the members of the staff.

2. Security of service—Not only should the services of teachers be made secure, but they should get job satisfaction. They should get encouragement for their creative powers, appreciation for the good work done.

3. The social status—With increase in pay and other facilities, the social status is bound to increase. The pay scales suggested by the Education Commission should be forthwith given and with increase in prices, dearness allowance should at once be increased so as to bring scales at par with pay scales granted to government schools teachers.

4. The democratic school environment—Schools whether run by state or by private. Bodies should work on democratic principles. There should be no place for casteism or favouritism, or flattery in schools.

5. School supervision to be creative not corrective—The supervisor should encourage teachers to feel free to think for themselves in matters connected with instruction and organisation of other school activities. Democracy in school demands creative leadership which encourages self-expression initiative, originality, experimentation and improvement. Such a leader inspires teachers to experiment and imbues them with a feeling of self-confidence and happiness.

6. Formation of healthy Teacher's Unions—To fight for one's rights is never bad. Teacher will have to make strong unions if they want to get their rights. Teachers unions of the local, state and national level should be formed and strengthened. This would make the job secure and increase their happiness.

7. Department to lay down rules for the provision of adequate teaching aids—Specific rules should be laid down in school Education Codes for the provision of teaching aids before recognition is granted to a school.

8. Teacher himself to take the responsibility—Though state is responsible for maintaining teachers health physical or mental, yet the teacher himself will have to realise his own responsibility. The following ways are just suggested to improve his own mental health—

(i) He should realise that criticism by others will improve him and will not harm him much.

(ii) He should keep busy himself in teaching work to such an extent that he gets no time to think of other distressing situations.

(iii) He should try to see his own limitations and adjust himself to environment.

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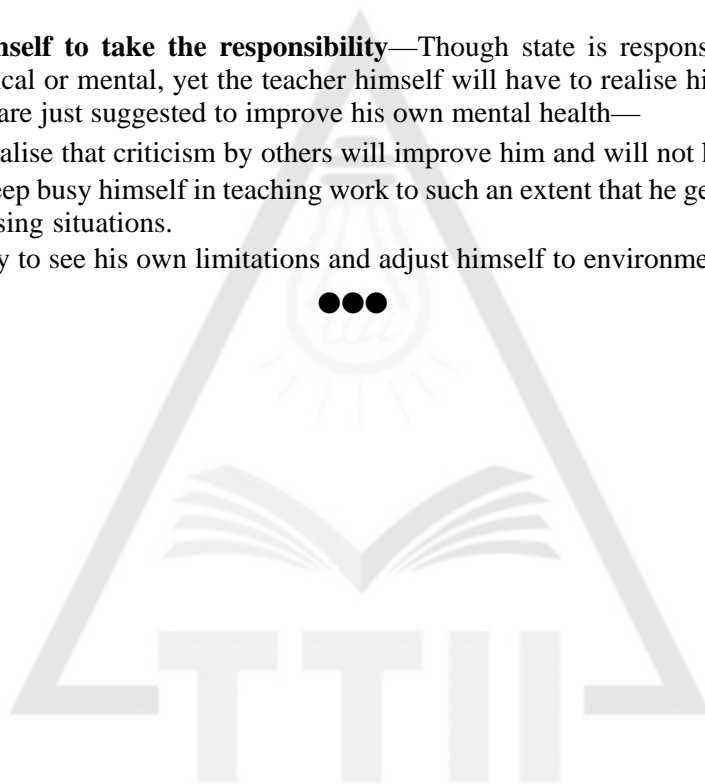
PROBLEMS CHILD

"A delinquent is a person under age who is guilty of antisocial act and whose misconduct is an infraction of law".
—Newmeyer

Q.1. **What is juvenile delinquency? Describe its causes and methods of treatment.** *Or*
Write short note on Juvenile Delinquency.

Ans. ## Legal Definition of Juvenile Delinquency

Legal definition of Juvenile delinquency does not conform to its psychological definition, as from the legal viewpoint a juvenile delinquent is a person between the ages of 15 and 17 who indulges in anti-social activity. In U.S.A. the Ohio Code defines juvenile delinquency in some such manner as this : a juvenile delinquent is one who breaks the law, is a vagrant, persists in disobeying orders, whose behaviour endangers his own moral life as well as the moral life of others, or one who tries to marry without the consent of his parents. It may as well be pointed out that the ages of the so called juvenile delinquents have not been similarly determined in all countries. It varies from country to country but is within the usual limits of 16 and 20. Normally, it is the 17 years old adolescent who qualifies for this term, but in India, according to the prevalent laws the maximum age of a juvenile delinquent is fixed at 16. Laws pertaining to this subject have been passed in U.P., M.P., Mumbai, Tamilnadu, Mysore, Delhi, West Bengal, Odisha, East Punjab. In those states in which the juvenile acts have not been passed, the Reformatory Act of 1897 prevails. In these the maximum age of a juvenile delinquent has been determined at 15. In Mumbai and Madhya Pradesh it is 16. According to the Reformatory Act, the term Youthful offender will be appended to any individual below 15 who has been sentenced to life imprisonment or has been convicted of some crime.

Psychological Definition of Juvenile Delinquent

Differing from the legal definition of a controversial term, psychologists lay much emphasis upon the causes of juvenile delinquency in defining it. From the legal viewpoint all those who are not apprehended are not criminals but from the psychological viewpoint all such offenders also are criminals. Consequently, the psychological definition of juvenile delinquent is more comprehensive than its legal definition. According to psychology, any and every child of either sex between the age of 15 and 18, who commits a crime, irrespective of the fact that he is apprehended or not, is a juvenile delinquent. In this manner, juvenile delinquent is one who forcibly possesses the property of another, or causes it damage, indulges in anti-social activity, creates danger for another's life or hinders the activities of other. Hence, a child who throws stones at a car and runs away, one who sets fire without cause, creates dangers for the life of another just for the fun of it, are all juvenile delinquents, from the psychological viewpoint.

Defining juvenile delinquency, **Dr. Sethna** has written, *"Juvenile delinquency involves wrong doing by a child or a young person who is under an age specified by the law (for the time being in force) of the place concerned"*. **Newmeyer** put the same idea in these words, *"A delinquent is a person under age who is guilty of antisocial act and whose misconduct is an infraction of law"*. ●

Q.2. **Why does the child become delinquent? How can such a child be relieved of his delinquency?** *Or*

How do children develop criminal tendencies? How can these be treated?

Ans. # Classification of the Causes of Juvenile Delinquency

According to the novel approach and concept of modern criminology, the causes of juvenile delinquency have been divided into two classes—personal and social causes. In crime, two special factors are at work—internal and external. Internal factors include physical and psychological factors while the external factors consist of social elements. Criminals have been divided into two categories by the American criminologists—(1) Social criminals, (2) Personal criminals. Social criminals in particular, are the result of social circumstances. **Waler Recklace** has pointed out two specific causes of crime—(1) constructive, and (2) circumstantial. Some other criminologists have divided the various causes of crime into two parts—(1) sociogenic, and (2) psychogenic. Here the causes of juvenile delinquency will be divided into three classes, for convenient study—(1) social causes, (2) psychological causes, (3) economic causes.

(1) Social Causes

Of the various causes of juvenile delinquency, the most comprehensive are the social causes. Among them, the main ones are—(1) family, (2) school, (3) criminal area, (4) bad company, (5) recreation, (6) war, (7) social disorganisation, (8) displacement.

1. Defects of the family—Of the causes of juvenile delinquency, **Elliott** and **Merrill** accept distorted family influence to be the most potent. Of 4000 juvenile delinquents in Boston, Healy and Bronner found that about 50 per cent of them came from divided and broken families. The major situations in the family that cause it are—(i) broken families, (ii) attitude of parents, (iii) character or conduct of parents, (iv) affect of criminal relatives. In order to understand the importance of family as a cause of juvenile delinquency, it is necessary to comprehend these factors.

(i) Broken Families—A study of juvenile delinquency has revealed that the greatest number of delinquents come from broken family. A broken family, as the term indicates, is one in which family ties have been destroyed. A family is not constituted by a number of people living together but by their mutual intimate relationships. Absence of this intimacy results in the breaking up of a family, and it is the broken families that juvenile delinquents come from. In any such family a child is not looked after properly. In the opinion of some specialists, broken families are more apt to arouse criminal tendencies in females than in male juveniles. The Child Care Society of Mumbai had 386 boys and 169 girls under its care in 1984. Of these children, the parents of two boys and two girls were serving prison sentences, two boys and five girls were under the influence of extreme discipline, six boys and nine girls were the victims of moral insecurity. In a broken family, the relationships of husband and wife, parents and children, brothers and sisters lose their healthy nature. Hence, it is only natural if the children choose the wrong path that ruins their lives.

(ii) Attitude of parents—In the family factor is juvenile delinquency, another important condition is the relation between the two parents. According to the preface writer of *Women of the Street*, a probing and searching analysis of the prostitutes of London, the problem of the prostitutes has its origin in the relationship between the parents. Often when the child is deprived of love and is scolded constantly on every opportunity, he develops feeling of revolt and hatred so that he runs away from the house at the earliest opportunity and falls into a life of crime. Disregard on the part of parents induces feelings of insecurity in the children with the result that they develop mental complexes. If the parents try to conceal many facts of their own life from children the tendency towards crime is only aggravated. One of the most common queries that children are apt to put before their parents is where did they come from or where their younger brothers and sisters have come from. When they are told all sorts of lies by

their parents, while they learn the truth from their servants or other people outside the family, a sense of insecurity is induced in them, because they feel that their parents do many things which they fear to tell their children and this injures their feelings. This sense of insecurity leads many children to sex crimes.

(iii) Character and conduct of parents—The child's personality is considerably influenced by the character and conduct of its parents. One rarely comes across a child who has been able to mould his behaviour according to socially accepted values and conceptions in the face of his parent's telling lies, hypocritical behaviour, sexual immorality and thieving. In a study conducted by Miss Elliott 67 percent parents in broken families and 44 percent parents in united families were engaged in immoral behaviour. If the mother is already involved in prostitution, the child will have little hesitation in following suit, and with the worst conceivable consequences.

(iv) Influence of brothers and sisters—A child's personality is susceptible to the influence of brother's and sister's personality, apart from the personality and mutual relationship of the parents. This influence is more potent in the case of girls as they are not exposed to external influences as much as boys who remain in the home for a considerably less period of time. If the senior children in the family manifest criminal tendencies the youngsters are invariably influenced by it. If the elder sister shows criminal tendencies or is engaged in immoral behaviour, the younger sister is more apt to follow her example.

It is evident from the foregoing description that the situation within the family has a major part to play in turning children into criminals. But this need not lead one to the conclusion that all children in broken family will turn out to be criminals. **Healy** and **Bronner** studied 372 broken families and in only 20 per cent of them one of every two children was a delinquent. In 336 families in which each had 6 children, only 12 children were engaged in criminal activity. Such a study seems to indicate that the family being broken is not the sole cause of juvenile delinquency, but no criminologist will refute it that such a condition is undoubtedly a most potent cause.

2. Defects of the school—After the family, a child's personality is next influenced by the school. But one major form of juvenile delinquency is absconding from school. In 1978 Williamson found in his study that playing truant from school, theft and sex crimes were the major form of juvenile delinquency, and even among those running away from school or roaming outside the school claimed the greatest attention and interest among children. Analysing the causes of such behaviour, Williamson came to the conclusion that it was caused by criticism at the hands of parents, gaining membership of a gang of criminals, punishment by the teacher, weakness in some subject, and a level of education that is above the child's ability and capacity. Children who run away from the school usually spend their time in the worst sort of company and commit all kinds of crimes. This is one of the major problems confronting the teacher. It is for this reason that in most big cities, students are not allowed to view matinee shows in film exhibitions, but preventions of this nature do not help to solve the problems. One of the major causes of increasing indiscipline in the present time, is that education is neither recreating nor interesting, in addition to which it lays emphasis upon stuffing the brain with information rather than building up character. It need hardly be expressed that it is these factors that make the child lose interest in study, try to avoid school with the result that he falls into a life of crime.

3. Crime dominated area—According to the result of a study by **Clifford**, **Shaw** and **Mckay**, some areas are not appropriate for the development of children. It is a matter of common knowledge that the neighbourhood casts important influences upon the child. Using the statistical method, Maller came to the conclusion that in New York, juvenile delinquency was greatest in those quarters where the level of life was very low, child mortality was very high, there were no means of recreation and residences were not permanent. In a community that is unstable there are no social taboos or law. Pickpockets are found in great abundance in and around hotels and other places where travellers stay since there is always some traveller or the other there. Clifford, Shaw and Mckay studied juvenile delinquency in

nearly 15 towns to discover that the rate of juvenile crime was highest in the centre of the town and lowest at its furthest reaches. From this they concluded that the social traditions of backward and low economic status area distinguish the pattern of crime from the average group. And these patterns are maintained in juvenile delinquent groups. In this way, big towns have certain areas where there is an abundance of criminals and these areas are called criminal areas or crime dominated areas. It should here be remembered that Shaw and his assistant Henry Mckay have not accepted the place of residence as a cause of crime, but have tried to show instead that crimes are found to be the highest where conditions of poverty, mental aberrations, family disorganisation, diseases, infant mortality and other forms of disorganisation are constantly maintained or existing. Tendency to displacement is also found to prevail in crime areas.

4. Bad company—According to the famous criminologist **Edwing H. Sutherland**, criminal behaviour is acquired through interaction with others. He says that an individual becomes a criminal when there is excess of conditions that promote the infringement of law over conditions that prevent such infringement. And among children, some get good company while others don't. The child who gets bad company progresses towards crime while the child who gets into good company progresses to become an able and useful member of society. An individual's behaviour is influenced to a considerable extent by the conduct of his companions. In order to induce the children to accept and respect the values and assumptions of adult society around them it is necessary to create such an atmosphere in which inspiration to criminal behaviour is reduced to the absolute minimum.

5. (i) Absence of recreation—Means of recreation have an important place in the child's development. It is only a good and healthy atmosphere that can provide the right sort of inspiration to the children for sensible and healthy behaviour in their spare time after school. Inability to make proper use of one's spare time is an added instigation to criminal behaviour. Play and games are essential elements in the socialization and ethical training of children. Inadequate, uncontrolled and improper recreation in a town is one of the causes of juvenile delinquency. In Thurston's study of 2507 juvenile delinquents it was found that their spare time had hung heavy on their heads.

(ii) Defective recreation—In modern times, the one means of recreation available to big and small is the cinema, which is responsible for juvenile delinquency and antisocial activity to quite an extent. New patterns of crime are presented to an individual through scenes of adventure and romance. Some films have such potent influence upon the adolescents that after their screening in some towns, certain kinds of crime increased many fold. But the reactions of children to films are determined and guided by patterns within the house or around the neighbourhood. And different children react differently to it. Scientific studies have determined that the direct influence of cinema upon the behaviour of children is very little. Actually, more important than the cinema is the child's reaction to it which keeps on functioning on the basis of his previous experience and reaction to social and cultural circumstances.

6. War and post-war conditions—Increases in the rate of juvenile delinquency have been found during war, and the postwar periods. In countries that actually participate in the war, the children's schooling is considerably hindered and affected. It often happens that in wartime the father is on the front fighting the war, while the mother goes to the factory to earn. Hence, children are not properly looked after. Lack of any control leads to much promiscuous mixing between girls and boys with the result that sexual crimes increase. In wartime, wherever there was bombing, it were the adolescents in that area who took the greatest part in looting smashed houses. Hence, the situation of war definitely encourages criminal tendencies.

7. Social disorganisation—-Social disorganisation leads to disorganisation of individuals. And disorganisation of society leads to increase in criminal activity, hence it too, is one of the cause of juvenile delinquency. In modern industrial society there is lack of synthesis and equality which creates tension. This tension inspires young men and women to crime.

8. Displacement—Displacement also influences juvenile delinquency. In studying the town Berkeley Stuart discovered that juvenile delinquents lived in an area where there was considerable displacement, but as compared to their own respective families, they themselves are much less active and dynamic.

(2) Psychological Causes

Till now, we have been discussing the causes of juvenile delinquency, all data for which were collected on the basis of the statistical method. The application of the other two methods of discovering causes of juvenile delinquency-case history method, and psychoanalysis had led to some light being shed on the psychological causes of this phenomenon. Psychological causes concerning criminal activity are the following—(1) Intellectual weakness, (2) Mental disease, (3) Characteristics of personality, (4) Emotional instability.

1. Intellectual weakness—Dr. Goring advanced the theory that intellectual weakness is a cause of crime. Goddard was the main exponent of the notion that mental weakness is the cause of crime. In his book *Mental Efficiency and Levels of Intelligence* he has written that the greatest single factor or cause of crime is mental weakness. After examining 400 children for their intelligence, **Healy** and **Brunner** came to the conclusion that 13 percent of them had an intelligent quotient below 70. This conclusion is borne out by **S. S. Glueck** and **E. T. Glueck** in their book *Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency* who studied 1000 criminal children in 1934 and came to the conclusion that 13 percent children have an intelligent quotient of below 70.

This contention has been objected to on the ground that it is based on the study only of those juvenile delinquents who have been produced before the courts. Naturally, intelligent and shrewd juvenile delinquents will be apprehended far less than the backward ones. In one of their studies. C. W. Mann and N. R. Mann have confirmed this view and shown that children with an intelligent quotient of less than 90 stand a far greater chance of being apprehended than brilliant children. They calculated the median of the intelligence quotient of 1061 criminals in which the boys were discovered to have an I.Q. of 94.88 and girls of 83.77. In 1941, Merrill, in his book *Problems of Child Delinquency*, calculated the average of intelligence quotients of 500 criminal children, measured on the modified Binet scale. This average was 92.5. Examining 2904 healthy children for their intelligence level it was found that their average intelligence quotient was 101.8. From both these enquiries Merrill concluded that a low level of intelligence cannot be accepted as a cause of crime since the level of intelligence in juvenile delinquents is not distinctly different from that of healthy children. There can be no denying the fact that it is comparatively easier to mislead backward children, but intelligent and shrewd children are also liable to get involved in crime.

2. Mental diseases—Other criminologists have tried to establish a definite relationship between mental disease and crime. In the many studies carried out upon criminals, some mentally diseased individuals were also found. According to this view, a criminal is a kind of mentally diseased individual who is in as much in need of treatment as in need of punishment. Some psychiatrists and neurologists believe that the psychopathic personality is a cause of crime. Psychopathic children are born in families where, there is almost complete absence of love, affection and control. Concerning psychopathic children, Tappan has written that he is very unsocialised, irritable, cruel, obstinate, suspicious, self-centered, lonely, full of feelings of revenge, backward and hypersexual or uncontrolled in his sexual behaviour. In an extremely advanced stage, he lacks the ability to sympathise, and is completely devoid of repentance over his own cruel doings and the pain or suffering of others. A psychopathic child of this nature has the existence of an uninvited guest in his own house. He is never loved by any one, but is instead the butt of every criticism and abuse in the house. It is only natural that the child should react to such behaviour with feelings of unhindered obstinacy and homicidal tendencies.

Some psychologists and criminologists have criticised the conclusions reached by the study of psychopathic criminals. Sutherland writes that a neurologist studied the prisoners in Illinois prison. And studying the symptoms he found that 98 percent prisoners were psychopathic. When some other psychologists studied the prisoners in the same prison they found only 5 percent of them to be psychopathic. Actually, this term has been used in so many varied senses and on the basis of so varied symptoms by different psychologists and psychiatrists that it has been left with no specific meaning that can be used to elucidate scientific facts.

3. Characteristics of personality—Tendency to crime was also found to have close relationship with characteristics of the personality. Personality is the method of an individual's adaptation to environment. Criminal children resort to illegal modes of such adaptation. Hence juvenile delinquents have been found to possess some characteristic features of the personality that shed light on the causes of their delinquency. In his book *Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency*, Glueck pointed out that the degree of freedom, irresponsibility, revolt, homicidal tendency, suspicion, lack of control, some forms of sadism, emotional and social maladjustment, introvert behaviour, etc., in juvenile delinquents is much higher than in normal children. Immaturity in sentiment and lack of emotional balance were found to be some eight times more than in the normal child. A normal child is comparatively well behaved, less explosive, peaceable, obedient and social. The juvenile delinquent, on the contrary, is found to be naughty, explosive, anything but peaceful, disobedient and unsocial. Glueck also discovered considerable difference between the general interests and forms of recreation of normal and abnormal children. Delinquent child was found to take much interest in works of an adventurous and dangerous nature. They were found to take considerable interest in seeing pictures and films. Among his interests and modes of recreation were found such practices as cigarette smoking, gambling, staying away from home, breaking things and travelling without tickets, etc. He is often the member of one or the other group. On the contrary normal healthy children were found engaging in games. In some studies it has been proved that female juvenile delinquents exhibited considerable emotional instability and immaturity.

4. Emotional instability—In this way, emotional instability is one of the most important causes of crime. A child's personality is rendered unbalanced through lack of love and affection, emotional insecurity, very strict discipline, feeling of insufficiency and inferiority and reaction of revolt. Such a state of mind inspires the child to criminal behaviour. In their studies, Healy and Bronner saw that 93 per cent of all juvenile delinquents manifest symptoms of emotional imbalance.

(3) Economic Causes

Poverty and Crime are Correlated

Crime and poverty are intimately related. Study conducted by Shaw, Mckay and Elliott revealed that among juvenile delinquents majority belonged to families of unskilled labourers. This discovery has the support of Bonger and Fornasiri, as they too, advocate that poverty acts as an incentive to crime. Concerning these juvenile delinquents Merrill has written that a low family income compels the children also to share the burden and to neglect their education. Atmosphere in the factory and mill is such that it leads the male and female child to crime. Sometimes children are entrusted with carrying messages to the homes of seniors where they often see all kinds of sexual practices. This has the worst effect on them, and they become tendentious toward crime. Statistics show that among juvenile delinquents employed youngsters involved in crime number ten times the unemployed ones. Girls working in hotels or restaurants are easily lured into sex crimes since their wages, are low, their residences are dirty, hours of work are long, and there is no shortage of individuals who want to lure them to a life of crime. In fact, children in poor families have many desires that remain unfulfilled, and it is to satisfy them that they turn to crime. Poverty also induces sense of dissatisfaction and inferiority, another spur to criminal tendencies.

Yet, this is no reason to conclude that crime and poverty are invariably related. In fact, poverty is not the cause of crime; rather, the cause of crime is the psychological factors that arise in poverty and guide boys and girls to crime. In the treatise *Juvenile Delinquency*, Tappan has written that poverty is related to crime but mainly because along with the subnormal economic situation other elements of the child's training experience are also active, and these elements are more important in determining the reaction to character, values and laws. Family quarrels and dissensions, delinquent gangs and inadequate education are factors that are more active than the preferred attraction of nonconformity to law and order.

The foregoing exhaustive treatment of the social, psychological and economic causes of juvenile delinquency makes it clear that the principle of specific causation does not properly apply to this phenomenon. In fact, no modern criminologist and psychologist can refute the fact that the causes of crime are many and varied. A person's activities are his mode of adjusting to his environment. And in his adjustment individuals who apply socially acceptable means are called healthy while those who use unsocial and abnormal means for this adjustment are called criminals. Thus, a child becomes criminal through the cooperation of many causes, social and individual, familial, psychological and economic. Hence, in order to rehabilitate the juvenile delinquent as a healthy member of society, it is necessary to understand all these causes and to remove them. It is a matter of no little satisfaction that this fact has been experienced in all progressive nations with the result that juvenile delinquents are everywhere cured rather than punished.

Techniques to Cure Delinquency

The following are the most important methods to cure delinquency—

1. Probation—In this method the juvenile delinquent is kept under the supervision of a probation officer whose job is to look after the delinquent, to help him in getting established in normal life and to see that the delinquent observes the rules of bailbond. Thus the delinquent not only gets a chance to reform himself but also gets advice and concrete help for this purpose.

2. Reformatory institution—Institutions such as reformatory schools, certified schools, auxiliary homes and Borstal schools are devised to reform inmate delinquents. These institutions, aim at all round progress of the delinquent.

Whereas the above measures are adopted by the state, the psychologists adopt psychological techniques for the reform of juvenile delinquents. Of these important ones are the following—

(i) Play therapy—In this technique the delinquent children are given opportunities to participate in such plays as give expression to their repressed motives and help in the development of creative energy. In play therapy individual as well as group plays are utilised.

(ii) Finger painting—In this method the child is given plain paper and some colours. He is allowed to paint in his own way by means of his fingers. The purpose is not painting but expression of repressed-motives in the child, which leaves him serene and healthy.

(iii) Psycho-drama—In this technique the child is allowed to participate in different roles in group drama and thereby manifest his repressed motives.

Besides the above mentioned specific techniques the psychologist can reform delinquents by creating healthy atmosphere in the family and by providing adequate, healthy recreation. Finally, cure of juvenile delinquency requires coordinated efforts of teachers, guardians and the government. ●

Q.3. **Define the term 'Delinquency'. Enumerate the causes of delinquency. Describe the measures of prevention and treatment of delinquency.**

Ans. <div align="center">

Delinquent Children
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The delinquents are anti-social behaviour children who are at the lower extreme ends of normal distribution of social tract. The problem of deliquesces has posed a serious concern for persons, teachers,

parents, psychologists and social workers who believe in harmonious development of human personality. The teachers are responsible for shaping the personality of young students. The determinates are found generally at the stage of adolescence. The children who are delinquents below the age of eighteen years are known juvenile delinquent.

Meaning and Definitions of Delinquency

It is difficult to define the term 'delinquency' comprehensively and universally because it has wide coverage of anti; social behaviour that varies time to time, place to place, cultural, social and political conditions of a particular conditions. It may be stated that the child who violates the social norms and values, is called delinquent.

According to **Healy**, *"A child who deviates from the social norms of behaviour is called delinquent"*.

According to **Education Dictionary**, *"A delinquent is one who behaves against social norms, breaks laws, creates indiscipline in school or other institutions of disobey the rules. His immoral behaviour is considered not so serious that he should be considered a culprit juvenile courts look into his illegal behaviour."*

According to **Cole**, *"The delinquent is then an individual in whom instructive drives are strong conscience is weak, and the ego is bent upon immediate pleasure without respect to generally accepted norms of behaviour"*.

According to **Head Field**, *"Delinquency may be defined as anti-social behaviour"*.

According to **Neumeyer**, *"Delinquency implies from anti-social behaviour involving personal and social disorganization"*.

According to **Telfor and Sawrey**, *"Delinquency, like aggressive behaviour in general, can be understood as aggressive, hostile behaviour or as a culturally acquired way of life"*.

"A child who breaks the law, is way ward, habitually disobedient or who behaves in a way that endagests the health or moral of himself or other who attempt to enter the marriage relation without the consent of his parents, is called delinquent".

The term delinquency has been defined and explained by experts of different disciplines — psychologists, sociologists, biologists, lawyers and experts of mental health and hygiene.

According to **Biologists**, *"They accounts for anti-social behaviour as arising from organic or pathological factors located in the nervous system of an individual. The deliquent can not adjust to social Environment. Biologists emphasize the genetically delinquency"*.

According to **Mental Hygienists**, *"The delinquency is the expression of an individual needs and his mental ailments. He cannot gratify his needs by socially acceptable behaviour due to his incompetency or due to economic conditions. He tries to achieve the goal by his anti-social activities which are known as delinquent act. The delinquent behaviour is the symptom of his needs and mental ailments"*.

According to **Sociologists**, *"They have emphasized an social conditions which contribute to anti-social behaviour or delinquency. The political and economic stress can lead to undesirable acts or behaviour. They violate the social and cultural norms. A person is compelled by the circumstances to achieve his goal by adopting antisocial methods. Thus delinquency is the result of unsuccessful efforts to achieve goals of life or society; this is the reason that a person adopts anti-social acts. It is collective reaction formation"*.

According to **Psychologists**, *"It is deficiency in the formation of super ego. He is unable to identify with the values of his parents and seeks pleasure at the cost of sacrificing the principles of reality and morality. The delinquency is as holes in superego. **Newever** (1961) defined delinquency as moral deficiency because of weak conscience due to improper teaching of the child in early age of life"*.

The delinquency is the manifestation of frustrated needs of the child which ultimately lead to aggression. The delinquent then would be a person whose misbehavior is relatively hero unlegal offence, which in appropriate to his level of development, is not committed as a result of extreme low intellect.

According to **Travis Hirchi**, *"Delinquency is defined by acts, the detection of which is thought to result in punishment of the person committing them by agents of the larger society"*.

Characteristics of Delinquents

In the above definitions, the following characteristics have been enumerated as follows—

1. A delinquent child possess anti-social behaviour.
2. He breaks the laws and creates indiscipline in school.
3. A delinquents deviates from norms of social behaviour and creates problems in society.
4. A delinquent child is aggressive and hostile behaviour.
5. He behaves in such a way that it is harmful for him and also for other.
6. His ego is bent upon immediate pleasure without obey in the norms of social behaviour.
7. His immoral behaviour is not considered so serious that may be referred to court of law.
8. His anxiety level is generally very high.
9. It is acquired behaviour by the child and not the innate.
10. The delinquents are emotional and maladjusted.
11. The economic conditions of his family is generally poor. The parents are unable to fulfil his needs.

Types of Delinquency

The psychologists have classified delinquency in various ways. The classification of delinquency in five categories has been done by Had Field, have been listed below—

1. Benign Delinquency—It includes such which may be termed as breach of discipline or law, or crimes from legal point of view but from mental health view, they may be normal behaviour *e.g.* truency on some beautiful rainy day or for seeing some extraordinary act in the city.

2. Temperamental Delinquency—Temperamental delinquency of certain physiological activities. For example it is found that girls may steal the things during their m.c. days.

3. Simple Delinquency—Simple delinquency is the result of the conflict between the need of child and the home, school or social behaviour. The main cause may be the poor environment, in which the child is living.

4. Reaction Delinquency—Reaction delinquency, as its name suggests, arise from the reactions, of the children against the society when the child thinks that he is the victim of the society, he revolts and tries to break the rules and conventions of the existing society. For this type of delinquency the child should be guided very carefully and psychologically.

5. Psychoneurotic Delinquency—*"This type of delinquency is created on account of the expression in anti-social manner of the repressed tendencies. These repressions occur on account of resentment"*. For example repression of sex urge instinct may develop the tendency of truancy of telling lie or stealing etc. For psycho-neurotic delinquency the teachers and parents should refer their children to some clinical psychologist.

6. Aggressive Tendency—The mode of attack may be physical aggression damaging school property, tourturing, committing suicide and forgery.

Other Classification of Delinquency

1. Aggressive and hostile basis with some person, institution, objects, elders, birds and animals and may be with self.

2. Standard basis may be of four types—(a) Institutionalized, (b) Offender at large, (c) Habit basis, (d) Individual standard.

3. Basis of Individual standard—Individual and group.

4. Habit basis – First offender and habitual offender.

5. Truancy from school, and running from home.

Causes of Delinquency

Delinquency is a acquired behaviour of a child which is not in accordance with social standard and norms. It is not caused by one single factor but it is an end product of several factors. Some are hereditary and other are environmental, social and psychological. There may be some, physiological factors are responsible for delinquency.

1. Heredity Factors—In some of the studies, it has been, found that the heredity also contributes for delinquency. The children may get certain delinquency-tendencies from there, parents (heredity) who are suffering from epilepsy etc. Certain inherited physical defects may also give rise to delinquency e.g. an ugly boy in physical aspect may wish to destroy whole society because his defect was laughed at, and therefore he may adopt anti-social behaviour.

Mental retardation and low I.Q. tendencies are also sometimes help in developing delinquency. Parents who have low I.Q. generally have their children of lower I.Q., which may encourage anti-social behaviour.

The, innate emotional unsuitability is also found responsible for anti-social behaviour. Aggression may lead to delinquency.

The sex of child also plays an important part *e.g.* The girls show delinquent, behaviour during their menses. The maladjusted parents also have maladjusted off-spring and this maladjustment may also help in getting delinquency.

2. Environmental Factors—The following factors play an important part in causing delinquency—

  (i) The poor socio-economic status of the family *e.g.* 'hunger and starvation tempt people to tread the easy devilish path of crime'. Primary needs are not fulfilled.

 (ii) Unemployment for long time may lead to anti-social behaviour like stealing or getting money through using illegal acts,

 (iii) Presence of step father or mother,

 (iv) Quarrels among the parents,

  (v) Lack of parental love and affection,

 (vi) Discriminatory on partial treatment towards children,

(vii) Over or under protection by parents,

(viii) High expectations and ambitions of parents from their children. Parents have usually high expectation,

 (ix) Either too lenient or to harsh discipline,

  (x) Delinquent members of the family,

 (xi). Immoral, gambler or drunkard parents,

(xii) Broken homes or delinquent home,

(xiii) Bad friends and classmates are not good,

(xiv) Sexual and poor films and T.V. programmes,

 (xv) Poor neighbourhood and bad peers,

(xvi) Uncongenial school atmosphere,

(xvii) Parents low character and mental abnormality, and

(xviii) Lack of recreational facilities, or cultural programme.

3. School Environment—A child enters in school after his home and family environment. The teacher is an ideal for the students. The following factors may cause for delinquency—

(i) Teacher-behaviour is not impartial. He favours some of the students and his behaviour not sympathetic for the students, may cause for delinquency.

(ii) Individual difference. In teaching process of classroom may not consider the individual difference. There is great variation among the students with regard interests needs and temperament. If the child needs are not satisfied, it may create tension in home.

(iii) Teaching methods and techniques are appropriate for some of the students. They would like to attend the class, they may develop the habit of truancy. The high work load of assignment, lack co-curricular activities, the examination, strict discipline may cause for delinquency.

4. Physical Constitutional Factors—The physical deformities of a child may be one the reason for delinquency. The defects of body organs make the child sensitive and emotional. The diseases related to sex organs may cause delinquency.

5. Psychological Factors—Freud 'Psycho-analysis' is the significant factors for delinquency. The mental retardation development of glands, emotional instability and mental diseases are the factors of delinquency.

Prevention and Treatment of Delinquency

Prevention and treatment both the devices are employed in delinquency. It has two phases—the first phase is to treat those who have became delinquents, another phase is to prevent delinquency by organizing educational programmes and other activities in such a way that children may not become delinquents.

1. Treatment of Delinquents,

2. Prevention of Delinquency.

1. Treatment of Delinquents—Generally the following method and in the treat of delinquents.

A. Psychological methods of treatments.

B. Psycho analytic method of treatments.

A. Psychological method involves three devices for the treatment of delinquents—

(i) Camp Programme Approach,

(ii) Community Planning or Sociological Method,

(iii) Change in the environment.

(i) Camp Programme Approach—In this approach, a camp is made, a treatment centre for the adolescent because it is generally felt that the adolescents are more difficult to handle without intensive observation. This programme has got three main themes—

(a) Group-counselling is a keystone of the programme, which was "built around the concept of the conscious cooperation of all elements within it for the welfare and development of the inmates".

(b) The Camp programme strives to attain the cooperation of guards and to involve the inmates in their own treatment.

(c) It has a 'Probation-Recovery Camp' also if the campers do not have a desirable home to go back to. This approach has been used for prisoners in USA but now attempts are being made to use it for non-prisoners also.

(ii) Community Planning or Sociological Method—After identifying the delinquent children efforts are made to change the environment of the children. The basic needs of child are fulfilled.

Parents are also approached to have proper attitude towards the good deeds and bad habits. This method is based on good suggestion, sympathy and good instructions.

(iii) Change in the Environment—When it is, found that the existing environment cannot be improved, the delinquent child has to be shifted to some other good environment e.g. in nurseries or reformatories.

B. Psycho-analytic Method of Treatment—Though it is very time consuming and difficult method, but very pinpointed and effective one. By adopting 'Psychoanalysis' the clinical Psychologists diagnose the reasons of delinquency and try to cure. *"Psychoanalysis is comprehensive approach to human behaviour whose broad outlines were laid down by Segment Freud. It comprises a theory of personality development and functioning, psychotherapeutic techniques, and research techniques for the investigation of personality functions".*

Treatment of delinquent children is done by psychotherapy. The counsellor or psychotherapist may use an appropriate method on the basis of his observation and magnitude of the problem—1. Re-education, 2. Abreaction, 3. Persuasion, 4. Suggestions and Counselling, 5, Environmental treatment and 6. Modern techniques of behaviour modification.

2. Prevention of Delinquency—The purpose of prevention is to develop attitudes, moral value and other competencies among the children so that they may not acquire anti-social behaviour. The preventive measures have a very wide field and require the cooperation of home, school society and other social agencies. The causes of delinquency have been discussed that parent's behaviour and home conditions are responsible for delinquency. There is an urgent need to educate parents. The method of prevention of delinquency is as follows—

(a) Home Conditions—The following preventive measure should used for improving the home conditions—

(i) Proper atmosphere should be provided in the home.

(ii) Have sympathetic and affectionate attitude towards children. Parents behaviour should be encouraging.

(iii) Parents should be given the knowledge of child psychology and child guidance. They should understand the needs of the children.

(iv) No over or under protection be given by the parents.

(v) Keep conscious watch on the friends of your children.

(vi) Population-education should be given to parents.

(vii) Adequate amount of pocket money be given to the children.

(viii) Parents should provide good examples themselves, show good or ideal behaviour.

(ix) Parents should know about the progress of their children in school. They should know their company in which they moves.

(b) School Environment can be made conducive for learning with the help of the following measures—

(i) Only good and trained teachers should be appointed.

(ii) Individual attention should be paid to children.

(iii) Healthy recreational and co-curricular activities should be provided,

(iv) Teacher should teach according to the age, ability and level of the students. He should pace with students.

(v) A. V. aids and library facilities should be used to make lesson more interesting.

(vi) Teacher should select right teaching strategies.

(vii) Educational, personal and vocational guidance programmes should be started. Counselling facility should be available.

(viii) Teacher should try to maintain democratic environment of class and school. The school climate should be more open of class and school.

(ix) There should be good coordination between homes and school through proper 'teacher-parent associations' etc.

(x) Medical check up should be arranged periodically for diagnosing physical defects, deformities and diseases, among students.

(c) State and Social Agencies—may be helpful for preventing dealing in the following ways—

(i) Should establish good schools with good staff, equipments and atmosphere.

(ii) Should make provisions for educating the poor students by giving concessions and financial assistance.

(iii) Should try to eliminate evil influences in the society e.g. drinking and gambling.

(iv) Should open some 'children homes' to provide homely atmosphere to illegitimate children.

(v) Should open reformative agencies like 'Child-Guidance Clinics', Juvenile courts, 'Children-gardens', and children societies and clubs.

(vii) Should sterilize persons having serious mental disorders to save our new generation.

(vii) Strict film censor policy should be there.

(viii) Anti social persons should be adequately dealt with the law.

(ix) Should establish welfare councils like—Bharat Scouts and Guides, National Youth Service, Red Cross Societies, etc.

(x) Slums area should be improved.

(xi) Students should not be allowed to participate in political activities.

(xii) Proper books and library facilities should be provided.

(xiii) Should have provision for daily assemblies and for moral and religious education.

(xiv) Should pay attention to improve the curriculum of the schools for each class, more pertaining to practical life.

(xv) Proper records should be maintained about children.

●●●

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

"The gifted child is the one who exhibits superiority in intelligence or the one who is in possession of special abilities of high order in the field which are not necessarily associated with high intelligent quotient".　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　**—Prem Pasricha**

Q.1. **Explain the meaning and definition of Exceptional Children. Discuss the need of special education for exceptional children.**　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　***Or***

Explain the term 'Gifted children'. Enumerate the problems and characteristics of Gifted children. Describe educational programmes for gifted children.

Ans.　　　　　　　　　　　　　## Gifted Children

The term 'gifted' and 'talented' are used interchangeably. The gifted child shows his excellence in performing some specific tasks, their behaviour in classroom is above average or very high. The psychologists have identified gifted children on the basis of I.Q. **J. P. Guilford** in his theory of *'Structure of Intellect'* has given 120 abilities. If a child shows the best on anyone ability is known as gifted child. The giftedness refers to mental ability of a child.

Meaning and Definitions of Gifted Children

The term 'giftedness' has been defined by the psychologists in various ways. They have stated the term with the help of intelligent quotient, social potentialities or social efficiency and also statistically. Some of the important definitions of 'giftedness' have been stated in the following paras—

1. According to **W. B. Kolesnik**, *"The term gifted has been applied to every child who, in his group is superior in some ability which may make him an outstanding contribution to the welfare and quality living in our society".*

2. According to **Prem Pasricha**, *"The gifted child is the one who exhibits superiority in intelligence or the one who is in possession of special abilities of high order in the field which are not necessarily associated with high intelligent quotient".*

3. According to **Havighurst**, *"The talented or gifted child is one who shows constantly remarkably performance or outstanding behaviour in any worthwhile endeavour".*

4. According to **Terman** and **Witty**, *The gifted children that Terman and Witty studied is, "Superior in physical development, educational achievement, intelligent and social personality".*

5. According to **Simption** and **Lucking**, *"The gifted children are those who possess a superior central nervous system characterized by the potential to perform tasks requiring a comparatively high degree of intellectual obstruction or creative imagination or both, are called gifted child".*

6. According to **Lucito**, *"The gifted are those children whose potential, intellectual powers and abilities are at such as high ideational level in both productive and evaluative thinking that it can be reasonably assumed that they could be future problem solvers, innovators and evaluators of the culture if adequate educational experiences are provided to them".*

Characteristics of Gifted Children

In the above definitions of 'giftedness', psychologists have enumerated the following characteristics—

1. The fetidness is upper extreme on the normal distribution of any trait e.g. social, mental and aptitude.

2. A gifted child is one who shows remarkable and outstanding performance in any worthwhile task.

3. He possesses a superior central nervous system high degree of intellectual, creative and imagination.

4. A gifted child makes outstanding contribution to the welfare, quality of living and our society.

5. Gifted child possesses high ideational level in productive and evaluative thinking.

6. He is problem solver, innovators and evaluators of cultural and experiences.

These characteristics may be classified into the following three categories—

(1) Intellectual Characteristics, (2) Personality Characteristics, and (3) Social Characteristics.

1. Intellectual Characteristics—The following are intellectual characteristics—

   (i) The gifted children have, better ability to organize, analyses, memorize, synthesize reason out things,

  (ii) Have extensive rapidity in learning and comprehension,

 (iii) Quick and clear self-expression,

 (iv) Good in abstract thinking and good insight,

  (v) Good imagination power-use original ideas,

 (vi) Better understanding and comprehensive power,

(vii) Keen and accurate observation power-can note minute details,

(viii) Rich Vocabulary,

 (ix) Good common sense and good general knowledge,

  (x) Generally better in Science and Arithmetic,

 (xi) Possess broad span of attention,

(xii) May be good in one or more than specific ability like music, art, science etc.,

(xiii) Varied and wide interests, and

(xiv) I.Q. above 125 (according to Davidson and Goddard), 130+ (according to Hollingworth), and 140+ (according to Terman).

2. Personality Characteristics—The following are specific personality characteristics of gifted children—

   (i) Have better ability to adjust, organize, analyze and synthesis things,

  (ii) Sometimes show emotional-instability also,

 (iii) Better planning capacity,

 (iv) Have lack of recognition to their potentialities,

  (v) Feel border in classroom,

 (vi) May participate actively in discussion,

(vii) More found of questioning,

(viii) May be popular,

 (ix) General superior personality,

  (x) Superior character,

 (xi) More humorous, cheerful and generous,

(xii) Have friends of higher age and of class,

(xiii) Sincere and dutiful,

(xiv) High achievers in class and,

(xv) Possesses high character, and

(xvi) Possesses good physical health.

3. Social Characteristics—The following are the specific social characteristics of gifted children—

(i) They are socially well mature,

(ii) They are popular in his group,

(iii) They are responsible in performing their duties or assigned work,

(iv) They have the quality of leadership,

(v) They have the capacity to be socially useful and to intermingle to others,

(vi) They are humours and honest or great trust worthiness,

(vii) They are democratic and less autocratic,

(viii) They possess high moral qualities.

Negative Characteristics

They possess some negative qualities which are as follows—

A gifted child — possesses the negative characteristics

1. May be restless, inattentive and disturbing.

2. May be coned isolated and neglected, if their potentialities are not paid due attention.

3. Becomes lazy if they find the school curriculum unchanging to them, and does not take interest in school academic activities.

4. May be indifferent to class-work when not interested.

5. May become out spoken and sensitive temperament.

6. Shows egoistic and jealous behavior, and

7. Is generally careless and poor in spellings and hand writing.

8. May not like the school curriculum which is for normal.

Identification of Gifted Children

The identification of gifted children had been discussed in two aspects—(1) Need of Identification of gifted children and (2) Basis of identifying gifted children.

1. Need of Identification of gifted children—**Samuel Krik** has rightly stated that several gifted children remain undeveloped and their potentialities are not properly utilized by the society because they have not been identified in schools. There is no provision for them for special education. They are taught along normal children in schools. The curriculum has been designed in view of needs of average students. In democracy gifted children are asset to the nation as well as to society. There is need to identify such children. Two methods are commonly used—

(i) Informal method or observation method is used by teachers and parents, and

(ii) Formal or Testing method is used by teacher's guides and councillors. The intelligence tests are employed for this purpose.

2. Basis of identifying gifted children—The following qualities and behaviours are the basis for identifying gifted children – A gifted child—

(i) Learns rapidly and easily.

(ii) Uses a lot of common sense and practical knowledge.

(iii) Thinks clearly and recognizes complex relationships and comprehends meaning easily.

(iv) Good memory makes less use of rote drill, better under.

(v) Better general knowledge.

(vi) Good in language.

(vii) Can read books that are one to two years in advance of the rest of the class.

(viii) Performs difficult mental tasks.

(ix) Has more curiosity.

(x) Possesses wide range of interests.

(xi) Is keen observer and good vocabulary.

(xii) Is quick in reaction and language proficiency.

(xiii) Uses original but unusual methods or ideas.

(xiv) Has high intelligence.

(xv) Has better concentration and attention.

(xiv) Interest in and liking for books.

Procedure of Identifying Gifted Children

The formal method is most appropriate for identifying such children. The commonly used procedures are as follows—

1. By administering intelligence tests may be verbal, non-verbal and performance.

2. By administering, achievement, tests, scholastic tests.

3. By observing simulative and academic record.

4. By collecting observations and opinions of teaches parents, friends and neighbour.

5. By the participation in co-curricular activities of school and social functions.

Problems of Gifted Children

The gifted children have their own problems which are related to their adjustment in different areas—

1. Problem of adjustment in family.

2. Adjustment in school.

3. Adjustment in society.

4. Mental adjustment.

5. Teaching methods and unsuitable curriculum.

6. In case their giftedness is not recognized they may become perverted intelligent. They may show hostile attitude and feel themselves as rejected unwanted and isolated. They may develop inferiority complex and insecurity.

7. If the classroom work is easy for them they may not take interest, and therefore may feel boredom in class. They may become truant or may use daydreaming or fantasy for the work of higher level.

8. If they do not get proper guidance they may develop the tendency of negativism and bad reactions to authority.

9. If they do not get favorable attitude or love, affection and sympathy from elders they may join gangs.

10. If these children do not get good friends of their level, their social development is blocked.

11. If they get over attention of parents and teachers, may develop boastful and conceited attitude and tendencies.

12. Because of varied interest they find themselves in great difficulty in choosing right type of school subjects, and vocations in future life.

Causes and factors for the problem of gifted children—The following may be causes for their problems—

1. Unsuitable curriculum,
2. Object of teachers and students criticism,
3. Unintelligent questions of Teachers,
4. Poor library,
5. Poor Quality of teacher,
6. Unintelligent assignment,
7. Poor socioeconomic status,
8. No provision for activities like-intensive work in literature, reviewing books, Making abstracts, term papers, editorial, booklets, folders, writing of stones etc.,
9. Carelessness in establishing goals,
10. No stimulation or appreciation to Individual Research or creative work in school and home,
11. No opportunity to meet eminent persons, and
12. Poor methods of teaching,
13. There is no challenging task for him,
14. There is no freedom for expression as he is out spoken,
15. Lack of creative teaching or problem solving in classroom.

Education for Gifted Children

It is evident from the above discussion related gifted children that they possess different mental, social and emotional characteristics. Therefore, it is essential to have advanced curriculum, methods of teaching, school problems and qualified trained teachers. Our present system and programmes of education is highly structured schedule, basically it has been designed for normal students. The following may be objectives, methods approaches, curriculum and qualities of teachers for gifted children.

Objectives of Education—The following may be objectives in addition to the objectives formulated for normal children—

1. To further increase the range of their knowledge, skill and understanding.
2. To develop alterness, initiative and creative power.
3. To develop an attitude of critical thinking.
4. To develop power to work independently and independent thinking.
5. To develop leadership and social efficiency.
6. To accelerate the process of problem solving.
7. To enhance the capacity of adjustment in home, school and society with normal children.

Approaches of Teaching—Three main approaches which may be used for gifted children—

1. Acceleration Approach—It is an old approach for gifted education.

The term 'acceleration' refers to the school process of educational programmes-early entrance into school, skipping entire grades, doing more work per year (perhaps 3 year's work in two years or doing advanced work for advanced standing).

There are two main devices—skipping and telescoping are most useful. The open education, open learning and distance education are more flexible process education. The most suitable system of gifted may be open-education.

2. Ability grouping—has two types of classes—(i) Special classes, and (ii) Special tells coping grades schools.

Acceleration is defined as progress through an educational programme at a faster rate of an age younger than convention disuse.

Evaluation—(i) It is not possible to find out separate time for these students, (ii) This is costly affair (iii) Causes wrong Psychology or impressions on others or feel jealous (iv) Undemocratic (v) Intellectual aristocracy. Therefore, it is not psychological method, but open education system can be introduced for levels to meet the demands of gifted children.

3. Enrichment Approach—The enrichment of curriculum must be both qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative enrichment of curriculum means that gifted children should have greater opportunity than average children. Quality refers the depth while quantity enrichment means breadth of the content or work. The following are four fundamental principles, suggested—

(i) The programme for gifted child should represent an extension of general educational objectives.

(ii) The educational programmes generate a stimulating learning environment both in school and outside the school.

(iii) The programme should place a special emphasis on creative ability, insight and social responsibilities.

(iv) The educational programme should promote basic fundamental skills knowledge, appreciation and creativity, etc.   ●

Q.2. **Explain and define the term 'Backwardness'. Indicate the main causes of backwardness. Describe the education of backward children and factors in teaching backward children.**

Ans. <center># Backward Children</center>

The children, who fail at lower extreme of normal distribution of educational attainment trait, are known as backward. The causes of backwardness may be due heredity and environmental factors. The backward children are classified in two categories—mental retardation and educational retardation. The degree of backwardness can be understood with the help of intelligence tests and achievement tests. In the classroom they deviate from their classmates in school achievement. They are not benefited by the normal teaching in school. The teacher can easily locate them on basis of their participation in classroom activities. These children are a great liability for the society and nation as well.

Meaning and Definitions of Backward Children

Cyril Burt has discussed the term *'Backwardness'* in his book. The causes and treatments of backwardness. He has used the term educational sub-normality for backwardness. The term 'backwardness' may be defined arbitrarily but it is difficult to define comprehensively.

According to **Cyril Burt**, *"The backward child is one who unable to do the work of the class next below that which is normal of his age"*.

The term backwardness can be explained in terms of Educational Quotient (E.Q.) 'Backward child is one whose educational quotient is 85 or below'. The word E.Q. or *"Educational quotient indicates, presumably, whether a pupil's knowledge of a group of school subjects is commensurate with his chronological age, or whether it is above or below the level to be expected to him for his age"*. The simple formula therefore is—

$$\text{E.Q.} = \frac{\text{M.A.}}{\text{C.A.}} \times 100$$

Where,   E.Q. = Education Quotient

E.A. = Educational Age

C.A. = Chronologial Age

In this formula, *"Educational Age (E.A.) represents a pupil's average level of achievement in a group of school subjects, measured by means of standardized tests and in terms of the average for various chronological ages in school"*. (**Freeman**, 1976). For example, if a student's performance on the test is at the average 8 years level, his educational age will be 8 only.

According to **T. K. A. Menon**, *"In the Indian situation a backward child is one who being more than one year older than the average age of his class"*.

These children cannot keep pace with the class. They are weak in class assignment, Study and examinations. The backward child has backwardness either in all the subjects or in a particular subject.

According to **Berton Hard**, *"The backward child is one who is unable to do the work of the cases where their educational attainments are lower than what they are capable of"*.

Schonell has defined and explain the term 'Backwardness' and 'Retardation' with the help of educational attainment and mental age of the child.

According to **Schonell**, *"Backwardness refers to educational age relative to the chronological age of a child"*.

Causes of Backwardness

There are several causes of backwardness, some important causes have been listed here—

1. Physical Causes—Physical defect may be also equally important in contributing towards backwardness. Sohonell how found about 75% backwardness is due to the various types of physical diseases and defects e.g. defective eyesight, hard of hearing, speech defects, chronic diseases (like typhoid, tonsils, cough trouble, stomach trouble) poor nourishment and physical deformities. Burt has found the following facts through his studies: (1) 30% of backward children were poorly nourished, (2) 10% very seriously ill nourished, (3) 37% were suffering from tonsils, speech defects-stammering and stuttering. He has noted that eyesight and hard hearing was the most common cause.

2. Postural Defects—Postural defects may be of two types, (a) acquired, and other (b) Innate. Postural defects may lead to the defects in vertebral column, which may lead to lack of concentration and sitting for long period and hence promote backwardness. Burt has found that 2% were very excitable and emotional. Boys were found more dominance and girls were noted with submissive and timid nature. These students are either more talkative, responsive, excitable and emotionally instable or they may be slow, submissive, timid, repressed and nervous.

3. Poor Environment of Family—Burt has found that 12% of backward children were having poor home environment and 8% were having poor school atmosphere. If the home environment is poor, the parents cannot manage even essential reading books etc. for their children and therefore they became backward. Thus, low economic conditions of home may lead to many complexes regarding reading material, clothing (uniforms), fees etc. The backward students are also the result of broken families because they do not get love and sympathy from their parents. They feel neglected and become backward. Over protection and underproduction both may generate backwardness. The following other factors related to home also contribute towards backwardness—

   (i) Presence of step father and step mother,
  (ii) Quarrels in the family,
 (iii) Authoritarian atmosphere,
 (iv) Mental abnormality of the parents,
  (v) Unhealthy sibling's competitions
 (vi) Low social status of the family,
(vii) Poverty,
(viii) Overcrowding in family,
 (ix) Position of the family,
  (x) Bed neighbourhood,
 (xi) Lack of appreciation from parents on success and achievements, and
(xiii) Unfavourable comparison by parents.

4. Poor Conditions of School—lf the teachers in the schools are not sympathetic, do not love and take care of their students, do not have willingness to work, may give rise to more backward students. Horror of teacher, lack of personnel guidance programmes, treatment of teacher etc. are some other important causes of backwardness in schools. In efficient and untrained teachers, wrong and unpsychological teaching methods, defective time table, lack of interest in the subject, unhygienic conditions in schools and long absence in school due to illness etc. are also the factors which are responsible for backwardness.

Cyril Hurt found that 16 percent backwardness may be due to poor school condition.

5. Low Intelligence—Low intelligence or lack of general intelligence is the primary cause of backwardness. Hurt has found that every three children out of five backward children have I.Q. less than 70.

According to his findings 'in every big primary school out of every 8 children 1 will be I.Q. less than 85'. Therefore it is very necessary to administer and analyze intelligence tests to locate such students. On the basis of these tests lack of intellectual, perceptual and visual ability can be visualized. They may help us in knowing the extent of their intelligence and to help us in perceiving the intellectual causes. Burt has recorded that 75 percent backwardness is due to low intelligence.

Education of Backward Children

The following methods to prevent backwardness, if it is not due to lack of intelligence. The cure for the backward students having low intelligence is very difficult and complex. They will remain always backward in studies than the average students. The following are some suggestions for the education of backward children.

Educational provisions for backward children may be of two types—1. Administrative and 2. Academic provisions.

1. Administrative provisions are of three types—
   (a) Backward child in regular class,
   (b) The special class for backward children, and
   (c) The special schools of backward children.

Medical examinations should be arranged periodically to find out the physical status of the children. If the child suffers from some disease, the remedies should be applied for that and the education should also be arranged accordingly.

   (a) It has been observed that backward children study in regular classes with the average children. The regular teaching is adequate for them because they cannot pace with regular class. It is the responsibility of the teacher that he should help them to deal with them. There should be provision for tutorial classes for the backward student. Teacher should have helping and sympathetic treatment. They require sufficient individual attention in the classroom.
   (b) The special class of backward children should be arranged in the school to remove their difficulties. Teacher should use appropriate methods and techniques for such special class. The teacher should have special qualification and training of teaching. He should understand their needs and problems.

   The class size of specially for backward students should be small 15 to 20 students. Their parents may have some objections. They should be taken in confidence, that the class has been formed for their betterment.
   (c) The special schools for backward children, there are separate schools for blind, deaf and dum children. Similarly, separate schools may be established for such students. The curricular, objectives, methods of teaching and teachers are to be managed according to their needs and problems. The parents of such children may not like such isolation of the children from regular schools. Such school may be expensive and costly for children.

Factors in Teaching Backward Children

▸ In the classroom teaching, the backward children should be treated psychologically.

▸ Healthy atmosphere should be created at school and also in community. It should be conducive for learning.

▸ Teaching should be arranged according to the interests of these children. Their needs and problems should be considered.

▸ Backward children should not be assigned heavy load of work. They should be assigned easy school work.

▸ Teacher should be serious and should take classes regularly. He should pay individual attention.

▸ Use of A.V. aids should be emphasized for illustrating.

▸ Parents should be informed regarding student's ability and should request to treat accordingly. They should be given progress report.

▸ Practical activities should .be organized for their participation. They should be assigned some practical work.

▸ Teacher should not use harsh treatment of them. Their responses should be immediately reinforced.

▸ Good methods of teaching be employed in class.

▸ Children should be motivated properly.

▸ Teacher should arrange some extra classes for these children. Tutorial classes should be organized.

▸ Low intelligent children should be taught with slower speed. Teacher should pace with them.

▸ Teacher should consult experts and specialists if need arise and may refer the children to them.

▸ Programmed instructional material can be used for remedial purpose. There should be the provision for assimilation.

▸ The curriculum should be according to their needs and requirements. It should be divided into smaller units. Theoretical knowledge should imparted after the practical work.

▸ The deductive method of teaching should be used by the teacher in classroom.   ●

Q.3. **How will you define a gifted child? Describe the methods by which gifted children can be identified.** *Or*

Write short note on Supernormal Children.

Ans.   ## Gifted or Supernormal Children

Who is a Gifted Child?

Many studies have indicated that the intelligence quotient of children differs from one individual to another. This difference is seen not only among children of different ages but between children of the same age group also. On the basis of this children are classified into the average, the backward and the gifted group. All psychologists do not agree about the level of intelligence required for a child to be considered gifted. Some psychologists believe that an intelligence quotient of 200 denotes exceptional gifts while others believe that the gifted child .must have an I.Q. of 140. Children with an intelligence quotient even higher than 140 can be accepted as exceptionally gifted. It has been calculated that only one out of 400 children belong to this category. Such exceptionally gifted children have an intelligence quotient ranging between 140 and 190. But an I.Q. of 170 or more is rarely seen, while an I.Q. between 140 and 150 is more common.

Characteristics of the Gifted Child

The gifted child differs from the average child in other respect also, in addition to his greater intelligence. Physiologically, the gifted child is frequently better built and emotionally better balanced than the average child. Leaving aside the exceptions, it is often seen that the child is gifted not only in terms of intelligence but also in terms of other individual qualities, in which he is more developed. Apparently, the gifted children enjoy the benefits of nature and environment. Most of such children are born into families with a fairly high social and economic level. They, therefore, belong to the more well-to-do group of families with the result that the care lavished on them, the food provided, the education etc. are all considerably better than enjoyed by the average child. Besides, they also get good training in controlling their habits and emotions, which help in developing many exceptional qualities of character and personality.

Frequently, the gifted child is one to two inches taller and a few pounds heavier than the average child. At the time of joining school, such children are seen to be 4 or 5 pound heavier than the others. At the age of 15, such children are 10 to 15 pound heavier. In addition to this the gifted children do not normally suffer from headaches, they have clearer skins, they are less irritable, less inclined to exhaustion and less susceptible to such common maladies as cold. In one study a group of 220 successful and 170 unsuccessful candidates suffered from fewer physical defects than the successful ones. In this case there was one exception, since the gifted competitors were found to suffer from a higher incidence of visual defects. One possible explanation of this may be their excessive use of the eyes in reading and study. But physiologically they were neither weak nor dwarfed. In fact, they were taller and heavier.

It should be remembered that all gifted children are not better than the average child in their physiological characteristics, emotional stability or social adjustment. In fact, quite a few of the gifted children are below the average in this respect. In actual fact, gifted children differ from each other very much in these respects. As a general rule, all that can be said is that defects lead to more defects while good qualities generate more good qualities, although this too cannot be accepted as a universal rule. For this reason, it is desirable that each gifted child should be studied individually.

Problems of the Gifted Child

As in the case of the backward child, the gifted child is also unlike the average child. As a result, certain problems arise in his case also. These problems should also be tackled with the same care and attention as is accorded to the backward child, although it is now certain that the teacher identifies a backward child sooner than he can recognise the gifted one. It may also happen that the teacher may completely fail to observe the qualities of the gifted child, and may even consider him backward. Such a situation is extremely harmful because it hinders the gifted child's proper development, and at the same time creates administrative problems for the school and the class. The future of any nation depends upon the proper development of all the gifted children born in it. Hence, schools should make special provision for their training. But the parents also must accept responsibility for their training and education.

Education of Gifted Children

The following suggestions have been given for the education of gifted children—

1. Selection—The first step in their education is to find out which child is gifted. This selection can be made with the help of marks obtained at previous examinations, the advice of the class teachers, the results of psychological tests and the reports given by parents.

2. No Separate Classes—Some psychologists have suggested that gifted children should be taught in separate classes set apart for them. But this is not a very psychological suggestion for this may engender a feeling of vanity and superiority in them.

3. Curriculum—Many psychologists have suggested that the gifted child should be made to study some subject in addition to the normal syllabi intended for the average class. This is a more

practical suggestion because the gifted child's abilities can be better developed by the more comprehensive syllabus. It will also help to remove inactivity, social difficulties and also create a better atmosphere in the class. But it must be remembered that the syllabus should never be so extensive as to become a burden on the child.

4. Easier Promotions to Higher Classes—It has also been suggested by some psychologists that the gifted child should be promoted to higher classes more rapidly than the other children. This will give them a chance to develop their minds and also save time. But from the standpoint of the child's social development, this may not prove very beneficial. He will tend to be handicapped by the fact that all the other children in his class will be older than him. It is therefore better if the gifted child is given some additional work, but without promoting him to the higher class.

5. Individual Education—Nowadays many psychologists are of the opinion that the gifted child should be educated individually with the teacher generally acting as a guide without undue interference. The child is given a particular task to perform within a fixed period. The teacher keeps an eye on his development and provides him with fresh programmes as he goes along. This method of education has proved the most useful in the case of gifted children.

6. Extra Curricular Activities—Another way of developing the qualities the gifted child is to engage him in extra-curricular activities such as games, music, dancing, other arts, practice for debates and sports competitions.

7. Facilities and Apparatus—Gifted children can also be given certain kinds of special facilities such as fee concessions, opportunity to do work of exceptional responsibility or importance, etc. The school should also provide many kinds of means for learning the arts, games and other activities. Very often the gifted child finds a good library as a very good aid. '

It is clear from the above exposition that the teacher can play an important role in nation building by helping in the proper development of the gifted children tendered in his care. In actual fact, the proper development of the gifted child depends considerably more upon the intelligence, wisdom and the sense of responsibility of the teacher. He should try to make arrangements for developing special qualities in his more gifted children. But in this connection, the responsibility of the parents is not less than that of the teacher.

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CHARACTER FORMATION AND EDUCATION

> *"Sentiments are products of cultural conditioning they may be closely allied to our fundamental values, or they may be relatively fleeting in. their strength and importance".*   *—**Kimball Young***

Q.1. **What is character? Explain the process of character formation. Discuss the factors influencing it.**

Ans.

What is Character?

Character is that organisation of unique element in an individual which serves to distinguish him from other individuals. The child comes into this world equipped with certain mental and psychological characteristics, but as far as character is concerned it is acquired by the individual in his dealings with society. In this way, character is not innate, it is acquired and evolved. The process of character formation originates in childhood, to which the child's life in the home and school, and social and cultural life in his surrounding contribute. Character is formed of the organisation of sentiments. Sentiments are formed of the organisation of emotions. Some emotions are innate while other is acquired. Both the acquired as well as the innate emotions contribute in the formation of sentiments.

Process of Character Formation

Such simple emotions as fear, anger, love etc., are to be seen in the child immediately after he is born. According to the famous psychologist Watson, the infant manifests the emotions of fear, anger and love. Fear is created through some frightening situation or experience. Anger is the result of some hindrance in the performance of or failure of some instinctive functions of the living being. When we are not prepared to perceive some object which is even beyond our imagination, we are normally astonished. Injury to any desirable object leads to pain, while pleasure is the contrary feeling. It is the outcome of possessing the desired object or of the fulfilments of some desires. There are some emotions that are more complex such as love and hatred. Love is the compound of pity, sympathy, maternal love, parental affection and sexual passion. Hatred comprehends the emotions of anger and fear. In social situations different emotions become bound up with association. For example, the child delights in his mother's approach and he manifests the emotion of love towards her. If he comes to harm 'through the agency of some animal or situation, he learns to fear it. When fear is strengthened, by indifference and anger, hatred is generated. Gradually, these various sentiments combine into a complex that is called character. An individual's character is known through the master sentiment which directs all the other sentiments. In the character of a patriot, for example, the sentiment of love of country becomes the sentiment of self-regard, and all other sentiments are directed by it. .

1. Factors influencing character formation—-Character formation is also influenced to a considerable extent by culture, since different values and different sentiments develop in different cultures. In the words of **Kimball Young**, *"Sentiments are products of cultural conditioning they may be closely allied to our fundamental values or they may be relatively fleeting in their strength and importance"*. In this way, individuals develop differing sentiments in dissimilar cultural situations. For example, on the one hand, at one place the sentiment of world brotherhood is developed, while on the

other the sentiment of love of race leads the white to hate the black. The sentiment that people of a nation have for their national flag, national anthem, etc., are not to be seen among the nomadic tribes. The presence of sentiment regarding an object completely changes its value from its material worth. Love letters and engagement rings carry far more values than their material worth for the possessor. But their value depends upon the worth of engagement of marriage that a particular culture allows or considers feasible. If marriage is considered less valuable, all things attached to it will naturally have less value. Consequently, the sentiments concerning all these objects will be less strong. In this way the individual's moral, aesthetic and religious sentiments are determined by his cultural environment. They change if the environment changes. Sentiments help the individual in his adjustment to culture, so that any change in culture is reflected in changes in this adaptation. Yet, some sentiments may also be caused by the individual's peculiar and unique nature. If they are not consistent with the cultural environment, these sentiments are given the stigma of abnormality and efforts are made to cure the individual. Conforming the cultural environment they come to be treated as desirable even though in a different culture they may be regarded with aversion.

2. Habits—Habits are an important element in the individual's behaviour. Much of his day to day conduct is determined by his habits. There being a close relationship between habits and character, character is expressed in habits. Yet, it cannot be said that character is the sum total of habits.

3. Volition—Volition is a very important element in character. It is will power that develops the character. People of strong will stick to their principles and guns without flinching, while the weak willed people show a lack of this spirit and are easily diverted from their paths by the least obstruction. Hence, the intelligent teacher tries to develop the power of volition in his students. For this it is essential that every student should be given the greatest possible opportunity for performing some tasks on his own initiative. This helps to maintain their active tendency and their volition also improves. The child should be encouraged to complete the day to day tasks that are set to him, and when he successfully completes his work, he should be praised. Failure to do this discourages the child, and he develops the sense of lack of confidence. It should also be kept in mind that the student should not be loaded with so many tasks that it becomes impossible for him to perform any, since this too reduces his ability to determine the course for himself.

4. Imitation—Imitation is an important element in the psychological development of character. It is a matter of common sense that children imitate the conduct of teachers and all family members who are senior to them in respect of age. Teachers and parents represent ideals to child whom he imitates both consciously and unconsciously. Hence it is desirable that the examples set to the child by the teachers and parents should be of brave and high character. Before the teachers and parent can hope to improve children, they will have to improve themselves.

5. Suggestion—Formation and development of character is also duly influenced by suggestion. These suggestions to the child can be conveyed through good stories, tales and high ideals. From the psychological viewpoint, it is the positive rather than the negative mandate that gives the more adequate and effective suggestion to the child. If the children are to be prevented from plucking flowers, it is much better to direct them to protect flowers than directing them not to pluck flowers. Similar sensible and psychological methods should be applied in guiding the child in other matters.

6. Reward and Punishment—Punishment and reward also occupy an important place in the development character. In the ancient system of education, punishment was an important element. One English proverb prevalent at the time was "Spare the rod and spoil the child". But the application, of psychology to the field of education has led to continuous decline in the importance of punishment in education. According to **Mumford**, if punishment can at all be effective, the most it can do is to prevent the doing of some wrong. In this way, the main function of punishment is negative as it can only prevent the performing of some apparently harmful activity by the child. But it cannot help the development of the child's character as such development requires the presence of high and valuable sentiments in him.

But this need not be interpreted to mean that punishment should never be applied. Even modern psychologists are not averse to the occasional and judicious use of the rod, but they sanction it only if all other practices fail to yield any positive result. According to **Dumville**, we cannot completely deprive the educational system of punishment. Sometimes punishment appears to be the only tool that can prevent some wanton misconduct. But punishment is a measure that is to be brought into force when all other tools have failed. In fact, as Pestalozzi has pointed out, punishment can be meted out even when the school is instituted as the house of love, since it helps in the development of character. But it is best to avoid its use as far as possible. What is most essential in this respect is that the individual being punished should harbour no doubts in his mind as to the purpose of punishment. He should be completely aware of the fact that the punishment is intended for his own improvement and not inspired by a feeling retribution, because the child's loss of faith in his teachers and parents can have only the worst effect upon him. It is equally incorrect to give extreme punishment since it either causes a loss of confidence in the child or strengthens hatred and disgust. This can only hinder the progress and development of his character.

7. Emotions—A child's character development is improved by developing high sentiments in the child. Sentiments are created by emotions. The development of proper and high sentiments in a child demands psychologically effective behaviour on the part of his parents and teachers. From the psychological viewpoint fee conduct of parents and teachers regarding children should be loving and sympathetic, but, of course, this hardly means that the child be spoiled with excessive affection and tolerance, even in the matter of bad habits. If a proper character is to be evolved in a child, it is essential that he be prevented from acquiring bad habits, and this is a task which needs the cooperation of both parents. What more often happens is that while one parent is scolding the child, the other takes his side in the argument which can only .have a bad effect upon the child. Nevertheless, as long as possible the only weapon to be used with a child is the rod of love, wielded with understanding and insight, since the absence of love and affection leaves the child's emotional aspect undeveloped and he does not attain to the full maturity which is desired.

8. Knowledge—Finally, increase in knowledge is also important for the development of character. **Herbert** has stressed the importance of knowledge in character development. A person who has no knowledge is not in a position to make the distinction between good and bad, with the result that suitable development of character does not occur. It is for this reason that education is an important part of character development, although this is no reason to suppose that the uneducated or illiterate person is devoid of character. In fact, education brings within reach all the means of developing character.

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