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Vello Dr.RM Alagappa Chettiar

Directorate of Distance Education

Master of Social Work

I - Semester

349 13

PSYCHOLOGY OF SOCIAL WORKS

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SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

Psychology of Social Works

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INTRODUCTION

NOTES

Human development is an evolving idea and, not a fixed, static set of precepts. The past decades have seen substantial progress in many aspects of human development. Most people today are healthier, live longer, are more educated and have more access to goods and services. Even in countries facing adverse economic conditions, the health and education of people have greatly improved. Yet much remains to be done. It is important to understand psychological functioning in relation to emotional, intellectual, and social capabilities and functioning over the course of the life span, from infancy through old age.

This book, *Psychology of Social Works*, deals with the physical and psychological development of human beings. It gives a detailed account of the different stages of physiological development—from infancy to adulthood, and the effect of the environment on them. The book also deals with personality development, attitude, intelligence and motivation.

This book is divided into fourteen units that follow the self-instruction mode with each unit beginning with an Introduction to the unit, followed by an outline of the Objectives. The detailed content is then presented in a simple but structured manner interspersed with Check Your Progress Questions to test the student's understanding of the topic. A Summary along with a list of Key Words and a set of Self Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit for recapitulation.

BLOCK - I

**PSYCHOLOGY: DEFINITION, CONCEPTS, RECENT
TRENDS, EVOLUTION OF HUMAN LIFE**

NOTES

**UNIT 1 OVERVIEW OF
PSYCHOLOGY**

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Psychology is commonly used as the study of the mind. Many authors today define psychology as the scientific study of behaviour and mental processes. As a subject it is concerned with the understanding of the human mind and its activities. It is a widely held belief that psychologists can read the minds of others and understand what is going on in their minds. However, scientists in the field of psychology, however, do not accept this definition. Today scientific psychology is generally defined as the science of behaviour which is employed in a very inclusive and comprehensive sense. There are many psychologists who express that psychology should concern itself with the actual behaviour of organisms, both human and animals, because behaviour is something concrete, factual and observable, unlike the mind. Yet another group of psychologists hold the view that the term 'behaviour' should include not only observable behaviour but also the unobservable inner activities and processes.

It is now an accepted reality that the nature of the subject psychology is quite scientific. This fact has been properly recognized by the eminent psychologists and thinkers. They are trying to prove why the subject psychology should be called as science. The field of applications of the subject psychology is expansive. Normal and abnormal psychology belongs to different walk of human life all are studied in the subject psychology. That's why and for the sake of specialized

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study; the subject matter of psychology has been grouped into different branches. Also there are various approaches to the study of the subject of psychology.

In this unit, the nature and scope of the subject of psychology in a comprehensive way and how psychology possessed several characteristics of science and other disciplines has been dealt in detail. The use of psychology in various fields and the aim of various schools of psychology have been explained. The unit will also highlight the concept of normality and abnormality psychology.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the concept of human behaviour
- Explain the meaning, nature and scope of psychology
- Analyse the various fields of psychology
- Identify the applications of psychology in various disciplines
- Explain the role of schools of psychology

1.2 CONCEPT OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Psychology is derived from a Greek word ‘psyche’ and ‘logia’ which means the study of the human mind. Like many other subjects, psychology find its roots in ancient philosophy. Its subject matter has evolved from the study of soul, to the study of mind, and finally it is now considered to be the scientific study of behaviour. Thus, the subject matter of psychology includes behaviour. This change from ‘mind’ to ‘behaviour’ was a major challenge for psychologists. There were many conflicts because of this fact. In addition to this, it was very difficult to define behaviour. Some people were of the view that those activities which can be observed should be considered as behaviour, such a view was not supporting activities like thinking, feeling, and remembering because they cannot be observed. Thus, this view was only in favour of including activities like the movements of the muscles, and the changes due to glandular activity and other organs of the human body as human behaviour. An American psychologist, John B Watson was the major propounder of this view of behaviour.

Other psychologists believe that behaviour should include not only observable behaviour but also inner activities and processes which cannot be observed. This view includes activities like thinking, feeling and remembering.

The scope of psychology is considered to be quite wide and extensive because it covers the study of behaviour of all living organisms. The main aim of psychology is to study the process of perception, that is, how individuals give meaning to the world around them, it analyses emotional aspect of behaviour and

also cognition. The goal of psychology is to analyse, predict, and control behaviour and mental processes.

Overview of Psychology

Psychology is now identified as the scientific study of human and animal behaviour. Behaviour is defined as the way in which one acts in a given situation. Behaviour includes the actual actions and responses of organisms, both animals and human beings.

According to an American psychologist, Robert S Woodworth, ‘any manifestation of life is activity’ and behaviour is a collective name for all these activities. Total behaviour includes both covert and overt activities. Overt behaviour is that behaviour which can be observed and measured and covert behaviour is that behaviour which includes our inner experiences and those mental activities that are going on in the brain.

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Check Your Progress

1. State the main aim of psychology.
2. Define overt behaviour.

1.3 DEFINITION, NATURE AND SCOPE OF PSYCHOLOGY

We will in this section discuss the definition and nature of psychology.

Definition of Psychology

Some of the famous definitions of psychology have been given by renowned philosophers and psychologists in the following section.

John B Watson defined psychology as that division of natural science which has human behaviour—the doing and saying, both learned and unlearned-as its subject matter.

William James—‘Psychology is the science of mental life, both of its phenomenon and of their conditions.... The phenomenon are such things as we call feelings desires, cognitions, reasoning, decision and the like.’

Kenneth Clark and George Miller—‘Psychology is usually defined as the scientific study of behaviour. Its subject matter includes behavioural processes that are observable such as gestures, speech and physiological changes and processes that can only be inferred such as thoughts and dreams.’

R S Woodworth—‘Psychology is the scientific study of the activities of the individual in relation to his environment.’

R H Thouless—‘Psychology is the positive science of experience and behaviour.’

Gardener Murphy— ‘Psychology is the science that studies the responses which living individuals make to their environment.’

Nature of Psychology

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The major problems of our world relate to human behaviour. Psychologists are basically concerned with studying and attempting to understand human behaviour. Psychology is relatively recent science and has evolved from philosophy and biology. In reality, modern psychology deals specifically with physiology (chemistry of brain, neurology, and genetics) and the behaviour of the biological organism (stimulus-response) connection.

Psychology as a Science

Several attempts have been made to analyse and understand human mind and behaviour. The first theory that was put forward to explain human nature was an effort to understand man’s consciousness as an inner spirit. Later thinkers like Aristotle and Plato talked about psyche or soul as the centre of experience. Philosophers were interested in studying human experience and behaviour. An English philosopher, John Locke believed that human knowledge is acquired during life and is not inherited or based on innate ideas. It is often believed by people that Psychology is nothing but the use of common sense.

It is a common belief that psychologists can read the minds of people but scientists do not accept this fact. The scientific definition of psychology states that it is the science of behaviour. The earlier definitions of psychology stated that it is a study of mind which is a very abstract word and cannot be scientifically studied. Behaviour is factual and concrete in nature and can be easily measured. The late 19th century marks the start of psychology as a scientific discipline.

In 1879, a German philosopher and physiologist, Wilhelm Wundt founded the first laboratory to conduct various psychological experiments in Leipzig, Germany. His main motive was to show that for every physical activity there is a mental activity. He was of the opinion that psychologists should find about feelings, insight, and sentiments.

Philosophers, Wilhelm Wundt and William James are considered as the ‘fathers of psychology’. Psychology is considered a scientific discipline because psychologists use scientific methods to describe behaviours and explain why these behaviours occur. They also strive to conduct research which can be used for predicting and even changing human behaviour.

Psychology has certain characteristics which make it a science. These characteristics are:

1. **Psychology uses scientific methods:** Psychologists conduct experiments in strictly controlled conditions. Psychological laboratories are used to observe any phenomenon to establish cause and effect relationship.

2. **Psychology is factual:** It is not based on values but facts. Psychological information is based on observations and experiments.
3. **Psychology is verifiable:** Most of the psychological principles can be verified by researchers by using scientific methods.
4. **Cause effect relationship:** It is a characteristic of science to establish cause-effect relationship and derive universal principles for generalization. Psychology also tries to develop cause and effect relationship between different variables under study and then formulate theories based on the findings.
5. **Laws of psychology are universal:** The laws of psychology are considered to be universal in their application. These laws are applicable to all organisms at all times under similar conditions.
6. **Psychology can predict human behaviour:** By discovering the cause effect relationship psychologist can predict human behaviour. Many psychological tests are conducted to predict the behaviour.

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Scope of Contemporary Psychology and its Specialities

Psychology has mainly been interpreted as ‘the study of behaviour’ from last many centuries, but scholars are interested in knowing what are the various fields which psychologists like to explore. Some of these areas are as follows:

1. Physiological psychologists

Physiological psychology is that science which studies the biological bases of behaviour. Physiological psychologist wants psychologist undertakes the study of the biological factors (as opposed to economic, social, or cultural factors) which to explore the relationship between body processes and behaviour, for example what is the effect of certain drugs on memory? This means that the physiological cause or constitute behaviour.

2. Developmental psychologists

Developmental psychologists can study human growth, they lay stress on factors that shape human behaviour from birth to old age. Psychologists try to study how development occurs when there is a gradual accumulation of knowledge. Language acquisition and emotional development are also topics which are covered by developmental psychologists.

The developmental psychologists are also interested in studying a particular stage of life like infancy or adolescence.

3. Experimental psychologists

Experimental psychologists use experimental method to study behaviour. Experimental psychology involves the collection of reliable and quantifiable behavioural data.

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Often empirical tests are conducted under controlled conditions in order to study a particular psychological phenomenon or to test hypotheses concerning that phenomenon.

The subjects for such experiments can be human beings, animals and birds.

4. Clinical and counselling psychologists

Clinical and counselling psychologists deal with diagnosis and treatment of mental and emotional problems like drug addiction, juvenile delinquency and criminal behaviour.

Clinical psychologists work in mental hospitals and clinics in close association with psychiatrists to diagnose and treat mental problems.

A counsellor generally addresses problems like giving advice on career matters to students and solving family conflicts.

5. Industrial psychologists

Industrial psychologists are broadly concerned with human factors in industry. They try to improve quality of work life by addressing issues like justice, at workplace balancing roles at work and at home.

Industrial psychologists generally assist employers in finding the best person for a job, evaluating job performance, and training employees.

6. Personality and social psychologists

Social psychologists are concerned with the behaviour of people in groups. Personality and social psychology emphasizes to concentrate on basic questions regarding people and their sensations, perceptions and attitude.

Social psychologists use scientific methods to analyse social interactions and how thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of individuals are influenced by other people. They work on topics like intergroup conflict, aggressive tendencies, and propaganda. They also conduct opinion polls, surveys and other type of market research.

7. School and Educational psychologists

These days most of the schools offer students the facilities of a trained educational psychologist because the adolescents come across many types of emotional and career problems during this phase of their life.

Educational psychologists conduct various types of personality, aptitude and intelligence tests on school students which help them in solving the individual problems which students face.

Let us discuss the different fields of psychology.

1. General psychology

General psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with theories and principles related to the behaviour of normal human beings. General Psychology studies different aspects of mind as perception, cognition, emotion, and behaviour.

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2. Abnormal psychology

Abnormal psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with the study of various forms of abnormal behaviour and its treatment through various psychological techniques. Abnormal psychology is scientific study of many psychological disorders. These disorders affect people in the manner in which they feel, think, speak, and behave.

3. Child psychology

Child psychology is a branch of psychology which studies the growth and development of a child from birth to adolescence. It studies the behaviour of children with special needs. Child psychologists deal with knowledge on development of child which includes physical, mental and emotional growth. Anxiety disorders, attention deficit disorder that includes creativity, giftedness, temperament diversity, allergies and nutrition are some of the other areas of interest for a child psychologist.

4. Animal psychology

Animal psychology is a branch of psychology in which the animal behaviour is studied under controlled conditions. Some common examples of such behaviour are experiments conducted by a Russian physiologist, Ivan Pavlov to test learning and experiments conducted by Skinner on rats. By conducting such experiments many types of inferences can be drawn and generalizations can be made.

5. Environmental psychology

Environmental psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with the role of environment on behaviour. The psychologist lays emphasis on modifying and restructuring environment for social well-being. Thus, an environmental psychologist tries to solve personal and social problems by working on environmental barriers.

6. Sports psychology

Sports psychology is a branch of psychology which studies the behaviour of players and sport persons. The psychologist also studies the activities, experiences, situations and the environment which is present in the world of sports. The main aim of sports psychologists is to improve the performance of players by minimizing the psychological effects of injury and poor performance and by managing their emotions. Training is given to improve their mental and physical health.

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7. Aerospace psychology

Aerospace psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with the behaviour of astronauts who go in space. They face problems related to new environment because of which there are many physiological and psychological problems. Aerospace psychologists try to design training programs for the astronauts so that they can adapt to their behaviour according to the new environmental settings and are in sound mental health.

8. Military psychology

Military psychology is branch of psychology which is related to the behaviour of soldiers working in the armed forces. The main area of concern for the military psychologists is how the stress level of the soldiers can be reduced and their morale can be kept high. Psychologists also work for recruitment in the services.

9. Consumer psychology

Consumer psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with the behaviour of consumers in their present economic situation and social status. The area of interest is to find out the needs of the customers and their expectations from the product. This information is required by shopkeepers and sales persons. This branch of psychology is designed to benefit the sales persons in context of how the customers should be approached, influenced or motivated to buy a particular brand of the product.

10. Psychometrics

Psychometrics is a branch of psychology which is concerned with the construction of psychological tests for measuring and analysing different aspects of behaviour. The psychologists construct various psychological tests like adjustment scales, aptitude tests, personality inventories and intelligence tests for the assessment of various dimensions of behaviour. Various statistical tools are needed in construction and analysis so these statistical methods are also a part of this branch of psychology.

11. Folk psychology

Folk psychology is a branch psychology which aims to study the culture, art, religion, superstitions and other such aspects. This branch of psychology is gaining more prominence in the developed countries.

12. Organizational and managerial psychology

Organization and managerial psychology is branch of psychology which studies the behaviour of human resources in the organization. By studying this branch psychologists can help the managers working in the organizations in maintaining their zeal and enthusiasm for exercising their duties properly and cooperatively by

seeking proper satisfaction and adjustment in their work environment. Important areas in this branch are organizational culture, motivation, job satisfaction and so on.

Psychology and Other Disciplines

Let us analyse the relationship of psychology with other disciplines.

1. Psychology and Economics

According to a renowned economist, Alfred Marshal, ‘Economics is a study of mankind in the ordinary business of life. It studies that part of the individual and social action which is most closely connected with the attainment and use of material requisites of well-being.’

Economics is the study of man’s activities devoted to obtaining the material means for satisfaction of his or her wants. Thus, it can easily be concluded from the mentioned definitions that economics studies some activities of human beings on the other hand psychology also studies human activities. The difference is in the approach. Economics studies the economic functions of man but psychology is only concerned with the social interactions of man.

There is a mutual relationship of economic conditions and social interactions. It is a fact that economic conditions do influence social interactions and social interactions also influence economic circumstances and conditions.

Many economic problems have a psychological aspect, for example problems of strikes, lockouts, advertisements and propaganda, working conditions can be solved by psychological interventions.

Principles of demand and supply and law of marginal utility are also related to human interactions which form an important part of psychology.

2. Psychology and Political Science

Political science studies political institutions, working of government laws and so on. Social psychology studies the behaviour of individuals in society. Political science studies the laws formed for the people living in the society. The laws cannot be made without understanding the psychology of people.

Political institutions exert pressure and influence social behaviour of the individuals. Thus psychology and political science are closely related.

3. Psychology and Sociology

Sociology is scientific study of society. Sociology studies man in the context of society and as a part of it. According to sociologist, Robert MacIver, sociology gives aid to psychology. In order to understand group behaviour in sociology it is important to study individual behaviour.

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4. Psychology and Biology

Behaviour is related to man's interaction with environment. An English naturalist, Charles Darwin's theory of evolution is based on biological theories. Behaviour is related to external as well as internal feelings. The human and animal behaviour cannot be explained without the help of biological principles. Watson who is considered the founder of behaviourism laid stress on animal psychology and he also tried to explain human behaviour in terms of stimulus response relationship.

5. Psychology and Philosophy

History of psychology reveals that psychology was considered the study of mind. Mind is a philosophical term. Mental concepts like deep sleep, dreams are all a part of philosophical discussions but its logical explanations are based on the psychological theories given by an Austrian neurologist, Sigmund Freud.

Applications and Perspectives of Psychology

We will in this section discuss the applications and perspectives of psychology.

1. Education

Psychology has a very important role to play in the field of education. Psychologists work in schools and universities to guide students in their educational and vocational problems. They also work to solve problems of adjustment. Conducting aptitude, intelligence and personality tests is a part of their counselling sessions.

The psychologists working in schools also help teachers in developing skills in solving class room problems and develop and improve teaching methods to increase class effectiveness.

Some students are unique and require special teaching assistance. Psychologists also help in designing programs for such special children.

2. Criminology

Forensic psychology deals with a lot of practices mostly including medical evaluations of defendants, statements given to judges and courtroom testimony. Rehabilitation of criminals also involves psychologists.

3. Therapy

Psychology has been proved to be very useful in treatment of diseases. The cause of many diseases is psychological and hence requires psychological treatment. It has been found by many studies that 10 per cent of the American population at one time or another suffers from some mental problem.

It is commonly said that every human being at some point of time requires the guidance of a clinical psychologist.

Psychologists conduct many types of therapeutic sessions on the patients suffering from psychological problems like neurosis, anxiety, and phobia. This branch of psychology is known as abnormal psychology.

4. Trade

One of the most important areas related to industry is advertisement. Psychology has made selling an art. Psychologists understand the interest and perception of customers and helps in creating the advertisements while keeping in mind the needs of buyers.

5. Recruitment

Psychology has helped the organizations in finding out suitable men for different kinds of work. Psychologists are also a part of interview boards to judge the different aspects of the personality of the candidates appearing for the interview.

6. Self-understanding

Psychology helps in understanding self—the more you know, and find out about yourself, your personality and your faults the more are the chances of self-improvement. Self-understanding is the way to self-control and, a person becomes more self-confident. Understanding hidden self, unconscious part of personality, Sigmund Freud's analysis of dreams is another important contribution of psychologists in this direction.

7. Politics

Psychology has been widely used in political science. It has become very important for the politicians to understand the psychology of public to remain in power. Leadership is also very crucial discipline of psychology. Various theories and practices of leaders are discussed in psychology.

8. Communication

Psychology not only helps in improving communication skills but also improves relationship by understanding others. Psychology also emphasizes the importance of non-verbal communication by understanding gestures, posture and body language to communicate better.

9. Military Science

Psychology helps in selection, training, promotion and classification of military personnel. Psychology also helps in knowing the current level of mental status. It also tries to bring modifications and corrections in the environmental situations and work conditions of the defence personnel after analysing the needs.

Psychology also helps in the time of war by designing techniques to keep the morale of the soldiers high.

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Psychologists also try to make the defence personnel capable of handling the stress.

10. World Peace and Brotherhood

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The reasons for war, conflict and fights is that people fail to understand the behaviour of other people. Psychology helps in understanding the different aspects of behaviour and analyse the causes of different types of peculiar behaviour and the situations that lead to this behaviour. Psychological techniques can also be helpful in building mutual trust and a feeling of brotherhood.

Check Your Progress

3. Why is psychology considered as a scientific discipline?
4. What is the main aim of sports psychology?
5. State the relationship between psychology and sociology.
6. What is folk psychology?

1.4 SCHOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGY

In the late 19th century, psychology had emerged as a scientific discipline. However, modern psychology was born in December 1879 at the University of Leipzig, Germany, with the work of a German psychologist, Wilhelm Wundt. In his experiments, he mentioned that every mental process has a particular structure and could be studied qualitatively, i.e., the mental process could be measured. Gradually, the study of psychology was organized around different schools of thought that are as follows:

- **Structuralism:** A British psychologist, Edward Titchener (1867–1927) was the pioneer contributor in the field of structuralism. He mainly focussed on the study of consciousness and its components, i.e., sensations, images and affects.
- **Functionalism:** It was proposed by an American psychologist, William James (1842–1910), who studied the functions of mind and behaviour in adapting to the environment. James and his followers were looking at what goes on in a persons' interaction with the outside world. James considered the mind as flexible and fluid, characterized by constant change.
- **Behaviourism:** It was developed by an American psychologist, J B Watson (1878–1958), who proposed an objective study of observable behaviour. It is a purely objective experimental branch of natural science. Its theoretical goal is the prediction and control of behaviour.

- **Gestalt:** It was developed by psychologists, Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Kohler and Kurt Koffka (1886–1941). It referred to how a thing had been ‘put together’ (*gestalt*) and often translated as ‘pattern’ or ‘configuration’ in psychology.
- Its precepts, formulated as a reaction against the automatic orientation of previous theories, emphasized that the whole of anything is different from the sum of its parts; organisms tend to perceive entire patterns or configurations rather than bits and pieces. This school focussed on a holistic view and consciousness. Perception was the main area of study.
- **Psychoanalysis:** An Austrian neurologist, Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) founded the psychoanalytic school that mainly emphasized on the unconscious mind, defence mechanism of repression, conflict, anxiety and psychopathology.

Although these schools provided great opportunities for the diversification of psychology, they were unable to explain the psychological processes in totality.

Recent movements emphasized vigorously on cognitive revolution, the neural processes and the role of cultural processes.

In modern India, psychology started at Calcutta University headed by Dr N N Sengupta (1961). Gradually, psychology departments were opened in various universities like Patna, Lucknow, and Mysore. The Indian Psychological Association was first founded in 1924.

Behaviourism

During the first half of the 20th century, the behavioural approach by American psychologists, J B Watson (1878–1958) and B F Skinner (1904–90) emphasized the scientific study of observable behaviour. The behavioural approach focusses on human interaction with the environment that can be seen and measured.

They argued that all behaviour is the result of conditioning and the environment shapes behaviour by reinforcing specific habit. The conditional response was viewed as the smallest unit of behaviour that could be created. All type of complex behaviour pattern coming from special training or education was regarded as nothing more than an interlinked fabric of conditional response. Behaviourists tend to discuss psychological phenomena in laws of stimuli and response, giving rise to the term S-R psychology, a set of terms that can be used to communicate psychological information.

Behavioural approach studies take place in experimental laboratories under fully controlled conditions. It also takes place outside the laboratories in natural setting; for example, school, house church, streets, and playground. B F Skinner emphasized that what we do is the ultimate test of who we are. He believed that reward and punishment determine our behaviour; like a student might study hard because this hard work rewards him with good marks.

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Contemporary behaviourists still emphasized the importance of observing behaviour to continue to use the rigorous sorts of experimental methods advocated by John B. Watson and B F Skinner (Martin and Pear, 2003; Miltenberer, 2004; Watson and Tharp, 2003). They also continue to stress upon the importance of environmental determinates of behaviour (Baldwin and Baldwin, 2001; Spiegler and Guevremout, 2003)

Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis is both a theory of personality and method of psychotherapy originated by Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) around the turn of 20th century. The psychotherapy approach proposed unconscious thought, attitude, impulse, wishes, motivation and emotions of which we were unaware.

Freud believed that psychological development is instinctual, unacceptable wishes in the childhood that are driven out of conscious awareness, become part of the unconscious thoughts and are expressed in dreams, slips of the tongue and physical mannerism. Freud (1917) theory was the basis for the therapeutic technique that he termed psychoanalysis. His approach was controversial at the beginning of the 20th century. Today, the psychodynamic theory tends to place less emphasis on sexual instincts and more on cultural experience as determinants of behaviour.

Gestalt Psychology

The Gestalt approach was proposed by psychologists, Max Wertheimer, Kurt Koffka and Wolfgang Kohler of Germany. *Gestalt* is a German word meaning form or configuration which focusses on studying whole patterns rather than small pieces of them. The Gestalt psychologists primarily focussed on perception but they believe that perceptual experience depends on the patterns formed by stimuli and on the organization of experience. The whole is different from the sum of its parts because the whole depends on the relationships among the parts; for example, refer Figure 1.1.



Fig. 1.1 Two Large Triangles as Two Different Forms or Two Gestalt

We perceive a single large triangle as a single form or Gestalt rather than as three small dots. Perception of motion was the key interaction of Gestalt psychologists; for example, how people judge size and the appearance of colour under change in illumination. Today, Gestalt idea are part of the study of cognitive psychology—a field emphasizing not only on perception, but also on learning, memory, thought process and problem solving. The basic Gestalt principle of

perception is still taught within this newer field (Ash, 1998; Kohler 1992; Wertheimer 1982) to understand interpersonal phenomena (Johes, 1998). A Polish gestalt psychologist, S E Asch (1946) extended the Gestalt notion that people see whole rather than isolated parts from the simple case of the object perception to more complex case of person perception (Taylor, 1998). They also saw the process of imposition meaning and structure on incoming stimuli as automatic and outside conscious awareness. The Gestalt approach has also become the basis for a major therapeutic technique called Gestalt therapy.

Humanistic Psychology

The humanistic movement was really a reaction to both psychodynamic theory and behaviour, often called the third force in psychology. The humanistic movement emphasized a person's positive quality, the capacity for positive growth and its freedom to choose any destiny. Humanistic psychologists held the view that people have the ability to control their lives and free will (Maslow, 1971; Rogers, 1961). They believed that being driven by unconscious impulses (as the psychodynamic), or by the external reward (as the behavioural approach emphasized) could not lead to a better understanding of this human potential for self-actualization, which Maslow termed as this achieving of one's full potential. Also, actual self-humanistic psychologists think that people have a tremendous potential for self-understanding and that way help others to achieve self-understanding by being warm, nurturing and supportive.

1.4.1 Normality and Abnormality

The concepts of normality and abnormality can be studied through the difference between general psychology and abnormal psychology.

General psychology

General psychology means the study of the psychology of a normal human adult. It studies the different behaviours and mental processes such as sensation, perception, emotion, memory, intelligence and so on. It also studies development from childhood and the decline of mental processes in old age. It includes within its scope the general principles on all aspects of psychology. It enjoys the status as the basis for all other branches of psychology and their applications.

Abnormal psychology

Abnormal psychology deals with the psychology of the abnormal individuals who are incapable of having normal responses to the normal stimuli. They are either torn by fear of different things (phobia), or tensed by worry or anxiety, neurosis, psychosis, or depressed and lonely (schizophrenia). Some of them like persons with schizophrenia might have lost their reasoning and memory while others might be having epileptic convulsions. The mental and physiological life of these abnormal individuals are quite different from normal ones. Abnormal psychology aims at studying them.

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Check Your Progress

7. State the premise of the psychotherapy approach.
8. What is general psychology?

1.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The main aim of psychology is to study the process of perception, that is, how individuals give meaning to the world around them, it analyses emotional aspect of behaviour and also cognition.
2. Overt behaviour is that behaviour which can be observed and measured and covert behaviour is that behaviour which includes our inner experiences and those mental activities that are going on in the brain.
3. Psychology is considered a scientific discipline because psychologists use scientific methods to describe behaviours and explain why these behaviours occur. They also strive to conduct research which can be used for predicting and even changing human behaviour.
4. The main aim of sports psychologists is to improve the performance of players by minimizing the psychological effects of injury and poor performance and by managing their emotions.
5. Sociology is scientific study of society. Sociology studies man in the context of society and as a part of it. According to sociologist, Robert MacIver, sociology gives aid to psychology. In order to understand group behaviour in sociology it is important to study individual behaviour.
6. Folk psychology is a branch psychology which aims to study the culture, art, religion, superstitions and other such aspects.
7. The psychotherapy approach proposed unconscious thought, attitude, impulse, wishes, motivation and emotions of which we were unaware.
8. General psychology means the study of the psychology of a normal human adult. It studies the different behaviours and mental processes such as sensation, perception, emotion, memory, intelligence and so on.

1.6 SUMMARY

- Psychology is derived from a Greek word ‘psyche’ and ‘logia’ which means the study of the human mind.

- Like many other subjects, psychology find its roots in ancient philosophy. Its subject matter has evolved from the study of soul, to the study of mind, and finally it is now considered to be the scientific study of behaviour.
- The scope of psychology is considered to be quite wide and extensive because it covers the study of behaviour of all living organisms.
- The main aim of psychology is to study the process of perception that is how individuals give meaning to the world around them, it analyses emotional aspect of behaviour and also cognition.
- The goal of psychology is to analyse, predict, and control behaviour and mental processes.
- Experimental psychologists use experimental method to study behaviour. Experimental psychology involves the collection of reliable and quantifiable behavioural data.
- Clinical and counselling psychologists deal with diagnosis and treatment of mental and emotional problems like drug addiction, juvenile delinquency and criminal behaviour.
- Industrial psychologists are broadly concerned with human factors in industry. They try to improve quality of work life by addressing issues like justice, at workplace balancing roles at work and at home.
- Social psychologists are concerned with the behaviour of people in groups. Personality and social psychology emphasizes to concentrate on basic questions regarding people and their sensations, perceptions and attitude.
- Educational psychologists conduct various types of personality, aptitude and intelligence tests on school students which help them in solving the individual problems which students face.
- General psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with theories and principles related to the behaviour of normal human beings.
- Abnormal psychology is a branch of psychology which deals with the study of various forms of abnormal behaviour and its treatment through various psychological techniques.
- Political science studies political institutions, working of government laws and so on. Social psychology studies the behaviour of individuals in society.
- Sociology is scientific study of society. Sociology studies man in the context of society and as a part of it.
- History of psychology reveals that psychology was considered the study of mind. Mind is a philosophical term.
- Psychology has a very important role to play in the field of education. Psychologists work in schools and universities to guide students in their educational and vocational problems.

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- The behavioural approach focuses on human interaction with the environment that can be seen and measured.
- Psychoanalysis is both a theory of personality and method of psychotherapy originated by Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) around the turn of 20th century.
- The psychotherapy approach proposed unconscious thought, attitude, impulse, wishes, motivation and emotions of which we were unaware.
- The Gestalt approach was proposed by psychologists, Max Wertheimer, Kurt Koffka and Wolfgang Kohler of Germany.
- The Gestalt approach has also become the basis for a major therapeutic technique called Gestalt therapy.
- The humanistic movement was really a reaction to both psychodynamic theory and behaviour, often called the third force in psychology.
- General psychology means the study of the psychology of a normal human adult. It studies the different behaviours and mental processes such as sensation, perception, emotion, memory, intelligence and so on.
- Abnormal psychology deals with the psychology of the abnormal individuals who are incapable of having normal responses to the normal stimuli.

1.7 KEY WORDS

- **Abnormal Psychology:** It refers to a psychology which deals with the psychology of the abnormal individuals who are incapable of having normal responses to the normal stimuli.
- **Child Psychology:** It refers to a branch of psychology which studies the growth and development of a child from birth to adolescence.
- **Consumer Psychology:** It refers to a branch of psychology which deals with the behaviour of consumers in their present economic situation and social status.
- **Environmental Psychology:** It refers to a branch of psychology which deals with the role of environment on behaviour.
- **General Psychology:** It refers to a branch of psychology which deals with theories and principles related to the behaviour of normal human beings.
- **Psychometrics:** It refers to a branch of psychology which is concerned with the construction of psychological tests for measuring and analysing different aspects of behaviour.

1.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is the main use of consumer psychology?
2. State the relationship between economic conditions and social interactions.
3. Why is behaviour considered as a subject matter of psychology?
4. What are the main characteristics of psychology?
5. State the main aim of environmental psychology.
6. Why is education an important part of psychology?
7. Write a short note on the behavioural approach of psychology.

Long-Answer Questions

1. ‘The scientific definition of psychology states that it is the science of behaviour’. Elucidate the statement.
2. Discuss the scope of psychology.
3. Analyse the relationship of psychology with any three disciplines.
4. Explain the role of various schools of psychology.
5. How has psychology been defined by various psychologists? Explain in detail.

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1.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 RECENT TRENDS

NOTES

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Behavioural, Humanistic, Biological and Cognitive Approaches
- 2.3 Psychodynamic, Evolutionary and Socio-Cultural Perspectives
 - 2.3.1 Evolutionary
 - 2.3.2 Psychodynamics
 - 2.3.3 Socio-Cultural
- 2.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 Key Words
- 2.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 2.8 Further Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

There are five main approaches related to the study of psychology that is biological, behavioural, cognitive, humanistic and psychoanalytical approaches. These approaches help an individual to understand the human behaviour and their reactions to situations. In addition to five approaches to the study of the subject matter of psychology, important perspectives like evolutionary, psychodynamics and socio-cultural play a key role in understanding the biology of behaviour. Evolutionary perspective of psychology seeks to bring in ways of expanding connection between individuals and the natural world. This helps people develop sustainable lifestyles and avoid alienation from nature. The main concept of evolutionary psychology is that while today the human mind is shaped by the modern social world, it is adapted to the natural environment in which it evolved. Evolutionary psychologists differ from many cognitive psychologists on the premise that the relevant internal mechanisms are adaptations. According to this psychological perspective, traits developed in the past are passed down in the process of evolution. Adaptations developed from the need of survival or propagation evolves into traits that shape our behaviour.

The concept of psychodynamics proposed by Sigmund Freud is another important perspective of psychology. Freud suggested that psychological processes are actually the flows of psychological energy in the brain. This perspective studies how psychological processes drive our feelings and behaviour. Catherine A Sanderson defines the socio-cultural perspective as a perspective describing people's behaviour and mental processes as shaped in part by their social and/or cultural contact, including race, gender, and nationality. This perspective of psychology believes that our behaviour is influenced by the society, our culture, and our environment.

In this unit, the five main approaches related to the study of psychology have been analysed. The various perspectives in the study of psychology in a comprehensive way and their key role in understanding the biology of behaviour have been discussed in detail.

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2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyse the various approaches to the study of psychology
- Explain the psychoanalytic theory of Freud
- Enumerate the problems of consciousness
- Analyse the evolutionary perspective of psychology
- Understand the concept of psychodynamics in psychology
- Explain the socio-cultural perspective in people's behaviour.

2.2 BEHAVIOURAL, HUMANISTIC, BIOLOGICAL AND COGNITIVE APPROACHES

There are five approaches to study the subject matter of psychology:

- Biological approach
- Behavioural approach
- Cognitive approach
- Humanistic approach
- Psychoanalytical approach

We will discuss these approaches in detail in the following section.

1. Biological Approach

The biological approach to study human behaviour tries to relate the actions of human beings with the events taking place within the brain and nervous system. All psychological events are represented in the nervous system in close association with other body parts. This approach emphasizes the relationship between mind and body and the influence of heredity on behaviour, these interactions act both ways, mind can affect body and body can affect mind.

Biological approaches emphasize the role of heredity in various psychological disorders. It assumes that if parents are suffering from some disorder then, there are chances that the children also get affected by it. Psychologists do believe that these disorders can be because of combination of a number of factors which can be social, psychological and biological.

NOTES**2. Behavioural Approach**

The behavioural approach to psychology is based on the works of an American psychologist, John B Watson in the early 1900s, whose initial interest had been animal experimentation in which the traditional approaches of the early psychologists through consciousness, introspection and the unconscious were of no practical value. What the animal experimenters could observe was primarily behaviour. To the behaviourists, this was the greatest virtue because it was objective and eliminated the subjectivity of the studies of consciousness, introspective report and the free association from the unconscious. This technique of studying animal behaviour was transferred to human behaviour. The behavioural psychologists assume that you can understand human by observing their behaviour rather than by studying the internal working of their brain. According to this behavioural approach the cause of human behaviour is the reaction to some stimulus present in the environment.

It is the environmental factor rather than genetic or biological differences that makes us behave differently. According to the behaviourists the stimulus – response theory is the basis of understanding the process of conditioning. An individual learns a particular response to a stimulus and becomes conditioned to it. This is how learning takes place in humans.

3. Cognitive Approach

Cognition refers to those processes which transforms the stimulus input in different ways, encodes it stores it and then retrieves it later when needed.

Cognitive approach stresses on the fact that the brain actively processes the information it receives and transforms it into different forms.

Cognitive psychologists explain the process of human behaviour on the basis of the assumption that behaviour is controlled by our own thought process, as opposed to genetic factors. Thus, each individual processes the information in a different manner and behaves differently.

Development of language, Problem solving, reasoning, heuristics and algorithms (step by step solution to solve the problems) are all part of cognitive psychology.

Different moods also have great impact on individuals' reactions in different circumstances.

4. Humanistic Approach

An American psychologist, Carl Rogers was the founder of Humanistic Approach. This approach answers that every individual has freedom of creating his or her own future, a huge capacity for attaining growth at personal level, a huge amount

of intrinsic worth, and a lot of potential for self-fulfilment. Every individual has a fundamental need to grow and attain the state of self-actualization.

Recent Trends

An American psychologist, Abraham Maslow has also discussed the humanistic approach in which the holistic view of the individual is elaborated.

Humanistic view places importance on improving interpersonal relationships and providing conditions that promote the development of a man's potential for constructive and cooperative actions.

Humanistic psychologists emphasize the individual approach therapy. According to this school of thought, an individual can improve his mental state by his own efforts. They can recognize their own potential and abilities.

5. Psychoanalytical Approach

The advances in medical psychology and the theories of hypnosis prompted the development of psychoanalysis.

The founder of psychoanalytic theory was an Austrian neurologist, Sigmund Freud. Sigmund Freud is considered as the father of modern psychology. Freud was from the medical field, he was a psychiatrist and a neurologist who was only interested in understanding the mental disorders. Freud was not very keen to study issues like perception, sensation, thinking and intelligence. He developed psychoanalysis which is considered to be the first systematic approach to therapy. Freud believed that mind had three sections – the conscious, the pre-conscious and the unconscious. Freud concentrated on problems of consciousness. He interpreted that the primary source of mental conflicts and disorders was the unconscious. In order to study the unconscious, he founded the technique of psychoanalysis. This theory of psychoanalysis is based on stream of thoughts and dream analysis. He believed that 90 per cent of human mind is the unconscious mind. He made three parts of personality – Id, Ego, Superego. Among these, Id follows pleasure and so is thought to be governed by pleasure principle. Ego is the rational part of Id and is determined by the reality principle. Superego is related to morals and ethics.

Freud was of the view that every action of a man has a cause which is most often some unconscious motive. Unconscious processes are those thoughts and wishes about which the person is unaware but which influences his behaviour.

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Check Your Progress

1. What is the basis of Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis theory?
2. State the premise of the humanistic approach of psychology.
3. What is response theory?

2.3 PSYCHODYNAMIC, EVOLUTIONARY AND SOCIO-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

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Let us discuss the evolutionary, psychodynamic and socio-cultural perspectives of psychology.

2.3.1 Evolutionary

The evolutionary perspective of psychology focuses on the relation between evolution and psychology. According to this perspective, mental processes exist because they enable evolution and help survival. This approach also considers the evolutionary changes that have led to changes in behavioural patterns. It studies the natural and sexual selection of behaviours.

According to this psychological perspective, traits developed in the past are passed down in the process of evolution. Adaptations developed from the need of survival or propagation evolves into traits that shape our behaviour.

2.3.2 Psychodynamics

Psychodynamics is another important perspective of psychology. Sigmund Freud proposed the concept of psychodynamics. He suggested that psychological processes are actually the flows of psychological energy in the brain. This perspective studies how psychological processes drive our feelings and behaviour. It focuses on the conscious and the unconscious parts of the human mind. Our mental forces could be emotional forces or those from interactions between the emotional and motivational forces acting at the subconscious level.

2.3.3 Socio-Cultural

Psychologist, Catherine A Sanderson defines the socio-cultural perspective as a perspective describing people's behaviour and mental processes as shaped in part by their social and/or cultural contact, including race, gender, and nationality. This perspective of psychology believes that our behaviour is influenced by the society, our culture, and our environment.

According to social psychologists, behaviour has a social and cultural context, and these factors play a major role in shaping one's perceptions and behaviour. This approach to psychology tries to find how social norms affect behaviour and how social groups such as race, religion, or gender can influence the way we behave. A cross-cultural perspective studies how behaviour changes across cultures.

Check Your Progress

4. What is the evolutionary perspective of psychology?
5. Define the socio-cultural perspective of psychology.

2.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The basis of Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis theory is based on stream of thoughts and dream analysis. He believed that 90 per cent of human mind is the unconscious mind. He made three parts of personality – Id, Ego, Superego.
2. The humanistic approach answers that every individual has freedom of creating his or her own future, a huge capacity for attaining growth at personal level, a huge amount of intrinsic worth, and a lot of potential for self-fulfilment. Every individual has a fundamental need to grow and attain the state of self-actualization.
3. Response theory is the basis of understanding the process of conditioning. An individual learns a particular response to a stimulus and becomes conditioned to it. This is how learning takes place in humans.
4. The evolutionary perspective of psychology focuses on the relation between evolution and psychology. According to this perspective, mental processes exist because they enable evolution and help survival.
5. The socio-cultural perspective of psychology describes people's behaviour and mental processes as shaped in part by their social and/or cultural contact, including race, gender, and nationality. This perspective of psychology believes that our behaviour is influenced by the society, our culture, and our environment.

NOTES

2.5 SUMMARY

- The biological approach to study human behaviour tries to relate the actions of human beings with the events taking place within the brain and nervous system.
- The biological approach emphasizes the relationship between mind and body and the influence of heredity on behaviour, these interactions act both ways, mind can affect body and body can affect mind.
- Biological approaches emphasize the role of heredity in various psychological disorders. It assumes that if parents are suffering from some disorder then, there are chances that the children also get affected by it.
- The behavioural approach to psychology is based on the works of an American psychologist, John B Watson in the early 1900s, whose initial interest had been animal experimentation in which the traditional approaches of the early psychologists through consciousness, introspection and the unconscious were of no practical value.

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- The behavioural psychologists assume that you can understand human by observing their behaviour rather than by studying the internal working of their brain.
- According to the behavioural approach, the cause of human behaviour is the reaction to some stimulus present in the environment.
- It is the environmental factor rather than genetic or biological differences that makes us behave differently.
- According to the behaviourists the stimulus – response theory is the basis of understanding the process of conditioning.
- Cognition refers to those processes which transforms the stimulus input in different ways, encodes it stores it and then retrieves it later when needed.
- Cognitive approach stresses on the fact that the brain actively processes the information it receives and transforms it into different forms.
- Cognitive psychologists explain the process of human behaviour on the basis of the assumption that behaviour is controlled by our own thought process, as opposed to genetic factors.
- Development of language, Problem solving, reasoning, heuristics and algorithms (step by step solution to solve the problems) are all part of cognitive psychology.
- The humanistic approach answers that every individual has freedom of creating his or her own future, a huge capacity for attaining growth at personal level, a huge amount of intrinsic worth, and a lot of potential for self-fulfilment.
- An American psychologist, Abraham Maslow has also discussed the humanistic approach in which the holistic view of the individual is elaborated.
- Humanistic view places importance on improving interpersonal relationships and providing conditions that promote the development of a man's potential for constructive and cooperative actions.
- Humanistic psychologists emphasize the individual approach therapy. According to this school of thought, an individual can improve his mental state by his own efforts.
- The advances in medical psychology and the theories of hypnosis prompted the development of psychoanalysis.
- Freud believed that mind had three sections – the conscious, the pre-conscious and the unconscious.
- Freud concentrated on problems of consciousness. He interpreted that the primary source of mental conflicts and disorders was the unconscious.
- Freud was of the view that every action of a man has a cause which is most often some unconscious motive. Unconscious processes are those thoughts

and wishes about which the person is unaware but which influences his behaviour.

Recent Trends

- The evolutionary perspective of psychology focuses on the relation between evolution and psychology.
- Psychodynamics is another important perspective of psychology. Sigmund Freud proposed the concept of psychodynamics.
- Psychologist, Catherine A Sanderson defines the socio-cultural perspective as a perspective describing people's behaviour and mental processes as shaped in part by their social and/or cultural contact, including race, gender, and nationality.

NOTES

2.6 KEY WORDS

- **Behaviourist:** It refers to a person who advocates or practices behaviourism, a school of psychology that confines itself to the study of observable and quantifiable aspects of behaviour.
- **Theory of Hypnosis:** It refers to a theory in which scientists and clinicians have proposed mechanisms to explain the phenomenon associated with hypnosis.
- **Theory of Psychoanalysis:** It refers to a theory which is based on stream of thoughts and dream analysis.
- **Evolutionary Psychology:** It refers to a theoretical approach to psychology that attempts to explain useful mental and psychological traits.
- **Psychodynamics:** It refers to an approach to psychology that emphasizes systematic study of the psychological forces that underlie human behaviour, feelings, and emotions and how they might relate to early experience.

2.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is the significance of the biological approach to the study of psychology?
2. Write a short note on the evolutionary perspective of psychology.
3. Who pioneered the works that led to behavioural approach?
4. What is the role of behaviourists in the study of psychology?
5. Write a short note on the humanistic approach in the study of psychology.
6. State the main role of psychodynamics in psychology.

NOTES

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the various approaches to the study of psychology.
2. Analyse Sigmund Freud's contribution to modern psychology.
3. Enumerate on the role of psychodynamics in the field of psychology.
4. Discuss in detail on the evolutionary perspective of psychology.
5. Elaborate with relevant references how social norms affect behaviour.

2.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3 EVOLUTION OF HUMAN LIFE

NOTES

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Conception
- 3.3 Prenatal Development
 - 3.3.1 Postnatal Development
- 3.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 Key Words
- 3.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 3.8 Further Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

In humans, the conception process begins with ovulation, when an ovum, matures and is released into the fallopian tube. Conception is defined as the movement in which a sperm cell breaches the ovum, from a female. It is also known as fertilization.

Prenatal development is defined as the process in which a baby develops from a single cell into an embryo and later into a foetus. It is important to take care of the mother during this stage as it helps to prevent any kind of complications and ensures that the baby and the mother are healthy. The World Health Organization (WHO) describes the postnatal period as the most critical and yet the most neglected phase in the lives of mothers and babies; most maternal and/or newborn deaths occur during the postnatal period. It is equally important that postnatal care should be given to the mother and the child. The child must adjust to the environment and the mother should adjust with changes related to her body and hormonal levels. Therefore, prenatal and postnatal development is necessary in the existing times.

In this unit, the conception process, the three stages of labour and the stages of prenatal development have been discussed. The importance of prenatal and postnatal development has also been explained.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the conception process
- Explain the stages of prenatal development

- Identify the three stages of labour
- Analyse the importance of prenatal and postnatal care

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3.2 CONCEPTION

The conception process is very complex and important for understanding human development. Conception, also known as fertilization, begins with the fusion of an egg cell and a sperm cell, or gametes. At birth, a female has all the immature eggs that she will use throughout the course of her life. A male human being starts producing sperm when he reaches puberty.

From 200 to 600 million sperm are released in the average ejaculation but a rare few make it to the actual egg, and only one sperm is needed to form a zygote (or a fertilized single-celled egg, the earliest form of human beings). As soon as that one sperm begins to penetrate the jellylike outer coating of the egg cell, the egg becomes defensive and the surface of the egg cell hardens to block out any other sperm cell from penetration. The sperm uses digestive enzymes to work its way through the egg's surface.

Though a female is born with all her eggs, not all these eggs will reach maturity. Approximately only 1 in 5,000 of a female's eggs reach maturity. When an egg reaches maturity, that egg is then able to produce offspring.

Cell division

Once the zygote is formed, the cell goes into the division process. The first division is called mitosis. In mitosis, the zygote divides to form two identical daughter cells. Later, the cell begins another form of division called meiosis. Meiosis produces four daughter cells, each daughter cell containing half the chromosomes of each original parent cell. Meiosis is necessary to keep the chromosome number constant from generation to generation. The divisions will continue, until a human being is formed. The cells move, or migrate, in relation to other cells, forming the first shape of the embryo; this migration is called morphogenesis.

Gene codes

Each gamete (egg and sperm) has 23 chromosomes, and when the human is completely developed, she will have 46 chromosomes. Your genes are located on your chromosomes. A gene is a small piece of one chromosome; it is a code for a specific sequence of amino acids in a protein. Each code is different and very complex, which brings about many different traits.

Most people are familiar with genes as a transportation of hereditary traits. Genes are the hereditary codes that are passed on to an offspring. Traits, which are caused by your genotype (or genes for a particular trait), can be dominant or recessive. Dependent upon the alleles carried on the chromosomes you received from your parents, your appearance will develop accordingly.

Check Your Progress

1. What is a gene?
2. Define morphogenesis.

NOTES

3.3 PRENATAL DEVELOPMENT

Over a relatively brief nine-month period, a single-celled zygote transforms into a fully formed foetus made up of around 1 trillion cells. This period of astonishing growth consists of three distinct phases: the germinal stage, the embryonic stage, and the foetal stage.

The entire zygote is contained within the zona pellucida, a delicate envelope that forms its boundaries.

Germinal Stage

The germinal stage is sometimes referred to as the ‘zygotic period’ and represents the first two weeks of development from the time of conception through the development of the cluster of cells known as the embryo. First, the zygote begins to divide and become a blastocyst, which will attach itself to the uterine wall during a process known as implantation.

This process takes place over 8 to 10 days to 2 weeks and ends with egg attachment to uterine wall. Cleavage—the mitotic division of the zygote into several cells; begins at 24 hours after conception. Division rates are different and this yields heterogeneity—variability in the rate of change of different parts.

1. As cleavage occurs, a cluster of cells called the morula take shape in the zona pellucida. After the 5th day post-conception, the cells begin taking in nutrients; this is the first interaction with the environment (the fallopian tube).
2. A fluid filled cavity forms in the morula thus, facilitating the change into a blastocyst —hollow sphere of cells. The blastocyst has two kinds of cells. One set of small cells are the inner cell mass, which gives rise to the organisms; whereas the other set of flat cells surrounding the inner cell mass called the trophoblast, form a protective barrier between the inner cell mass and the environment.
3. As the blastocyst moves further into the uterus, the trophoblast cells branch out into the mother’s uterus to the blood vessels. This begins implantation, the process by which the blastocyst becomes attached to the uterus. This action marks the transition to the embryonic period.

NOTES**Embryonic Period**

The embryonic period lasts from fertilization to the beginning of the third month. The human being begins to develop very distinctly after morphogenesis. Cells begin to take on specific functions and structures in a process called differentiation. For the first time, the actual size of the daughter cells begins to grow. Up until this point, the cells that were divided were no larger than the parent cells, causing no growth in size.

The cells begin to develop into layers. The upper layer is the ectoderm, which later becomes the skin and nervous system; the middle layer is the mesoderm, which becomes the muscles, circulatory system, and connective tissue; and the lower is the endoderm, which becomes the linings of the digestive and respiratory tracts.

At this point, the foetus also has developed a circulatory system; however, it is slightly different from adults in that it shunts blood away from its unused lungs. Organs like the spinal cord and heart have developed. The effect of the embryonic period on the mother is significant. This is the period when the mother may experience ‘morning sickness’ symptoms such as nausea, fatigue, and loss of appetite. The uterus at this time develops from the size of a hen’s egg to bigger than an orange and can be felt above the pubic bone up to 8 weeks; ends when all major organs have formed. The embryo is surrounded by the amnion, a thin, tough, transparent membrane that holds the amniotic fluid, which protects the embryo from damaging movements.

1. Surrounding the amnion is the chorion, the precursor to the placenta, a complex organ of tissue from the mother and embryo that acts as a filter allowing oxygen, nutrients, and waste to be exchanged. Waste is filtered through the mother’s kidneys and excreted.
2. While the trophoblast is forming the placenta and other membranes, the inner cell mass is busy evolving into organs. Then, the inner cell mass separates into two layers:
 - (a) **Ectoderm** – outer; skin, nails, teeth, eye lens, inner ear, and nervous system
 - (b) **Endoderm** – inner; digestive system and lungs

Then a third layer develops between these two:

 - (c) **Mesoderm** – Middle; muscles, circulatory system and inner skin
3. **Organogenesis:** It refers to the process of organ formation that takes place during first two prenatal months.
4. Human growth follows two patterns from now until adolescence:
 - (a) **Cephalocaudal** – Head to toe (arms then legs)
 - (b) **Proximodistal** – Inside to out (shoulder before wrists)

Foetal Period

Evolution of Human Life

The foetal period lasts from the third to the ninth month of pregnancy. From 9 weeks to birth (30 weeks); bones harden and infant is able to survive outside mother. At 17 to 18 weeks, foetal activity declines as the higher regions of the brain develop. This period of inhibited activity persists until six months. Then activity increases. At this point, the foetus experiences endogenous (internal to foetus) and exogenous (external) movement. Movement is essential for limb development.

The foetus looks more humanlike and grows to resemble a baby more every day. The growth of the body begins to speed up to catch up with the large size of the already developed head (from the embryonic period). The epidermis (outer layer of skin) begins to be polished, developing eyelashes, eyebrows, head hair, and fingernails.

NOTES

Month-by-month breakdown

During the third month of pregnancy, the difference between sexes is visible. By the fourth month, the foetus begins to look much more human. Beginning at the fifth month, the mother is able to feel the movements of the foetus. By the end of the seventh month, the foetus weighs about three pounds and its eyes open. Toward the end of the foetal period, the foetus usually begins to shift in position, with its head nearing the cervix of the mother. Fat accumulation beneath the skin causes weight gain in the foetus; it should weigh around seven pounds by the end of the ninth month.

Prenatal care

Appropriate prenatal care includes the following:

- Screening for conditions or disease
- Educational literature
- Information on social services
- Information on immunizations and future medical care
- Information on delivery and nursing

Sensory capacities

1. **Motion:** The vestibular system controls balance and develops and functions at five months. This helps foetus sense changes so it can adjust.
2. **Vision:** In the 26th week (6.5 months), the foetus senses light.
3. **Sound:** At 4th month the foetus responds to sound; foetuses prefer mother's voice postnatally because they are used to hearing it while in the womb.
4. **Learning:** Hard to investigate; studies have shown that newborns prefer their mother's heart rate over other heart rates, and when read 'Cat in the Hat' prenatally, newborns are calmed/comforted when it is read after birth.

Influences on prenatal development

Miscarriage/Spontaneous abortion

NOTES

- Pregnancy ends before developing organism is mature enough to survive outside the womb.
- Embryo separates from uterine wall and is expelled by the uterus.
- About 15–20 per cent of all pregnancies end in spontaneous abortion, most in first 2–3 months (some before mother comes to know of pregnancy)
- Elected abortions yield risk to mother as well.

Maternal characteristics

1. The mother's conditions (physical, emotional, psychological) can affect the growing foetus.
2. Evidence shows that mother's attitude about pregnancy affects child long-term; anxious mothers yield hyperactive and irritable infants
3. If foetus does not get sufficient nutrients before birth, MR and/or death can occur.
 - Not just Third World countries, there are many instances of poor prenatal care in USA.
 - Mothers are unusually concerned about their 'weight/figure'.
4. Mother's age is a factor. Prime child-bearing age is 22–28. Teenage mothers and women over 40 are more likely to have labour complications.

Teratogens

Environmental agents that 'can' cause deviations in normal development and can lead to abnormalities or death. There are many types of teratogens:

1. **Disease:** Illness and infections can affect the foetus prenatally and perinatally.
 - (a) **Rubella:** German measles; it is the fever that causes blindness in infants. We have vaccine.
 - (b) **AIDS:** About 50 per cent of infants born to HIV positive mothers acquire the disease; via prenatal barrier or during delivery.
 - (c) **Rh incompatibility:** Rh complex exists on surface of red blood cells. Mother and baby need to have same, either Rh+ or Rh-. If not, second child will be harmed because mother's body created antibodies to fight off the second child that mother's body perceives as an antigen (foreign substance). Only when mother is negative and infant is positive.
 - (d) **Fever:** If mother has high fever, foetus' core body temperature may get too high, and thus, brain damage occurs; if foetus or infant gets fever which may result in Mental Retardation (MR) or death.

2. Drugs: Nearly 60 per cent of all women take some form of drug during pregnancy. Here are 5 types of drugs and their known effects:

- (a) Prescriptions: Thalidomide was given for nausea to pregnant women; effects included no limbs, vision and hearing deficits. Aspirin can also cause abnormalities.
- (b) Tobacco: About 26 per cent higher chance of stillborn and death at birth. Infants have lower birth weight and more likely to die of SIDS.
- (c) Alcohol: A heavy drinker may take up to 3 ounces of pure alcohol per day. If so, 71 per cent of these infants were abnormal and/or have foetal alcohol syndrome – small head, underdeveloped brain, congenital heart disease, facial malformations, and joint anomalies.
- (d) Cocaine: Addictive stimulant; infants of cocaine using mothers are irritable, liable to react excessively to stimulation, uncoordinated, and slow learners (crack babies).
- (e) Methadone/Heroin: Infants are born addicted to these and must receive it after birth to aid with withdrawal; these infants are premature, underweight, prone to respiratory illness, and have low attention spans.

3. Environment

- (a) Abuse: Any trauma that mom receives can damage foetus and result in MR or death.
- (b) Radiation: High doses can cause prenatal death, spontaneous abortion, and/or MR.
- (c) Pollution: What mom breathes, foetus receives as well.

The Process of Birth

Let us now understand the process of birth.

A. Three stages of labour:

1. **First:** From first intense contraction until cervix (opening between uterus and vagina) is fully dilated.
2. **Second:** Begins when baby is pushed headfirst into vagina; contractions = 1 minute in duration and 1 minute apart.
3. **Third:** When baby emerges from vagina and uterus contracts, contractions expel placenta and other membranes

B. Perinatal hazards (Delivery Complications)

1. Forceps/suction
2. Oxygen deprivation (anoxia)
3. Long contractions
4. Infection

NOTES

5. Precipitate delivery – takes place too rapidly; too much force
6. Trauma (breech = butt first; transverse = lateral)

C. Use of drugs

NOTES

1. Different drugs have been used: anaesthetics, analgesics and sedatives.
2. Effects on infant may occur because drugs pass through placenta barrier, blood brain barrier, and through umbilical cord. Long-term effects are not supported empirically (1992).
3. Administration methods:
 - (a) IV
 - (b) IM
 - (c) Epidural (spinal block)

D. Childbirth strategies

1. **Standard:** Hospital; waiting room; strapped in; become dilated; fully effaced; doctor comes; wheeled to delivery room; have baby; taken and cleaned up; returned; wheeled to recovery/own room.
2. **Leboyer method:** French obstetrician:
 - No violence to infant
 - Doctor places infant on mother's stomach
 - Uses warm lights and/or bath
 - Mother caresses infant before cutting cord
3. **Natural or prepared:** It is based on parent confidence
 - Usually no drugs involved
 - Flexible; lots of variance
4. **Lamaze method:** French obstetrician; strategies (mainly breathing) to help cope with pain during delivery so to use less or no medication
5. **The Doula:** Greek word for woman helper; are part of birthing team; like midwives

E. Family participation: Traditional childbirth methods have left family members out of delivery process.

Now, fathers go to regular doctor appointments, attend all prenatal classes, Lamaze classes, are labour 'coaches,' usually in delivery room.

The same changes are occurring for siblings as well (for example, doctor visits, and hospital tours)

F. Prematurity and low birth weight

Evolution of Human Life

These are two very different concepts:

1. **Prematurity:** When infant is born before 38th week of gestation. Leading cause of death to preterm babies is immature lungs; second is weak immune system.
2. **Low birth weight:** When infant weighs 2500 grams (83 oz; 5.5 lbs) or less at birth regardless if it is premature or not.

NOTES

3.3.1 Postnatal Development

Postnatal is the period beginning immediately after the birth of a child and extending for about six weeks. Another term would be postpartum period, as it refers to the mother (whereas postnatal refers to the infant). Less frequently used is puerperium.

It is the time after birth, a time in which the mother's body, including hormone levels and uterus size, returns to a non-pregnant state. Lochia is postpartum vaginal discharge, containing blood, mucus and placental tissue.

In scientific literature, the term is commonly abbreviated to PX. So that 'day P5' should be read as 'the fifth day after birth'. This is not to be confused with medical nomenclature that uses G P to stand for number of pregnancy and outcome of pregnancy.

Health, Actions and Reactions of the Neonate

Upon its entry to the air-breathing world, without the nutrition and oxygenation from the umbilical cord, the newborn must begin to adjust to life outside the uterus. Also starts his or her adaptation to extra uterine life, the most significant physiological transition until death.

Measures of Neonatal Health

One's infant might look deformed at first. Average weight of newborn in the US is 7–7.5 lbs.

1. **Infant's viability:** After birth, hospital staff assesses infant's vital signs: heart rate, lung capacity, startle response, and other reactions.
2. **Physical state:** Apgar scale is used throughout USA: heart rate, respiratory effort, muscle tone, reflex responsiveness and colour; used at 1 and 5 minutes after birth; rating scale = 0–2; higher scores (7–10) indicate good health.
3. **Behavioural state:** Brazelton Neonatal Assessment Scale assesses physical, psychological and neurological functioning; 20 reflexes are assessed; 27 items making 4 subscales: physiological, motoric, state and interaction. Low scores can reflect brain damage.

Neonate Reflexes

The infant is born with basic reflexes that are genetically carried survival mechanisms. Some reflexes are coughing, blinking and yawning which persist through life.

NOTES

There are four primary reflexes (disappear around 3–4 months):

1. **Sucking reflex:** Such type of reflexes aids with nutrition before associations are learned.
2. **Rooting reflex:** Such type of reflex is touch cheek; will turn towards touch to suck.
3. **Moro reflex:** Such type of reflex is a startle response to intense or quick movements; stretches out all limbs; alerts parent infant is uncomfortable.
4. **Grasping reflex:** Such type of reflex is touch infant's palm and it will grasp finger; aids in attachment.

Postpartum Period in Mothers

Birth marks the beginning of the parent–child relationship.

1. **Appearance:** How the infant is shaped and looks can determine the parents' response to it.
2. **Attachment:** Primary bond between infant and primary caregiver (usually mother) that is thought to need to take place immediately after birth; it is physical, emotional, and psychological bond. This is another example of a critical period of development.
3. The postpartum period is the adjustment period after delivery. Varies but on average, lasts 6 weeks, when return to pre-pregnancy state (more like 9 months). Changes occur very quickly.

A woman in the Western world delivering in a hospital may leave the hospital as soon as she is medically stable and chooses to leave, which can be as early as a few hours postpartum, though the average for spontaneous vaginal delivery (SVD) is 1–2 days, and the average caesarean section postnatal stay is 3–4 days. During this time, the mother is monitored for bleeding, bowel and bladder function, and baby care. The infant's health is also monitored.

Physical Adjustments

- (a) Involution is a process in which the uterus returns to its pre-pregnancy size 5–6 weeks after birth. Nursing helps to contract the uterus at a fast rate.
- (b) Sudden and dramatic hormone production changes; if not nursing, will menses 4–8 weeks after birth. If nursing, menses are delayed (but one still can conceive).
- (c) On average, no sexual intercourse for 6 weeks (for many, it is a lot longer).

The mother is assessed for tears, and is sutured if necessary. Also, she may suffer from constipation or haemorrhoids, both of which would be managed. The bladder is also assessed for infection, retention, and any problems in the muscles.

The major focus of postpartum care is ensuring that the mother is healthy and capable of taking care of her newborn, equipped with all the information she needs about breastfeeding, reproductive health and contraception, and the imminent life adjustment.

Some medical conditions may occur in the postpartum period, such as Sheehan's syndrome and peripartum cardiomyopathy.

In some cases, this adjustment is not made easily, and women may suffer from postpartum depression, posttraumatic stress disorder or even puerperal psychosis.

Postpartum urinary incontinence is experienced by 23.4 per cent to 38.4 per cent, likely higher during pregnancy.

Emotional and Psychological Adjustment

Due to all the changes involved with a newborn, many women experience anxiety, depression, or difficulty in coping with stress. Postpartum depression affects as many as 70 per cent of women; less often long-term with working mother who return to work.

Early detection and adequate treatment is required. Approximately 25–85 per cent of postpartum women will experience mood swings for a few days. Between 7 per cent and 17 per cent may experience clinical depression, with a higher risk among those women with a history of clinical depression. Rarely, in 1 in 1,000 cases, women experience a psychotic episode, again with a higher risk among those women with pre-existing mental illness. Despite the wide spread myth of hormonal involvement, repeated studies have not linked hormonal changes with postpartum psychological symptoms. Rather, these are symptoms of a pre-existing mental illness, exacerbated by fatigue, changes in schedule and other common parenting stressors.

Postpartum psychosis (also known as puerperal psychosis), is a more severe form of mental illness than postpartum depression, with an incidence of approximately 0.2 per cent.

Psychological adjustments are also delayed in terms of:

- (a) Mother's time; newborns are extremely demanding
- (b) Mother's lifestyle changes; activities revolve around child
- (c) Budget changes
- (d) Network of friends may change.

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Check Your Progress

3. What are the two types of cells in blastocyst?
4. Define organogenesis.
5. What are the four main types of primary reflexes in an infant?
6. How does cell formation takes place in an embryo?

3.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. A gene is a small piece of one chromosome; it is a code for a specific sequence of amino acids in a protein. Each code is different and very complex, which brings about many different traits.
2. The cells move, or migrate, in relation to other cells, forming the first shape of the embryo; this migration is called morphogenesis.
3. The blastocyst has two kinds of cells. One set of small cells are the inner cell mass, which gives rise to the organisms; whereas the other set of flat cells surrounding the inner cell mass called the trophoblast, form a protective barrier between the inner cell mass and the environment.
4. Organogenesis refers to the process of organ formation that takes place during first two prenatal months.
5. The four main types of primary reflexes in an infant are as follows:
 - (a) Sucking reflex: Such type of reflexes aids with nutrition before associations are learned.
 - (b) Rooting reflex: Such type of reflex is touch cheek; will turn towards touch to suck.
 - (c) Moro reflex: Such type of reflex is a startle response to intense or quick movements; stretches out all limbs; alerts parent infant is uncomfortable.
 - (d) Grasping reflex: Such type of reflex is touch infant's palm and it will grasp finger; aids in attachment.
6. The cell formation takes place into layers in an embryo. The upper layer is the ectoderm, which later becomes the skin and nervous system; the middle layer is the mesoderm, which becomes the muscles, circulatory system, and connective tissue; and the lower is the endoderm, which becomes the linings of the digestive and respiratory tracts.

3.5 SUMMARY

- The conception process is very complex and important for understanding human development. Conception, also known as fertilization, begins with the fusion of an egg cell and a sperm cell, or gametes.
- Once the zygote is formed, the cell goes into the division process. The first division is called mitosis.
- In mitosis, the zygote divides to form two identical daughter cells. Later, the cell begins another form of division called meiosis.
- Each gamete (egg and sperm) has 23 chromosomes, and when the human is completely developed, she will have 46 chromosomes.
- A gene is a small piece of one chromosome; it is a code for a specific sequence of amino acids in a protein. Each code is different and very complex, which brings about many different traits.
- Most people are familiar with genes as a transportation of hereditary traits. Genes are the hereditary codes that are passed on to an offspring.
- Traits, which are caused by your genotype (or genes for a particular trait), can be dominant or recessive.
- Over a relatively brief nine-month period, a single-celled zygote transforms into a fully formed foetus made up of around 1 trillion cells.
- The entire zygote is contained within the zona pellucida, a delicate envelope that forms its boundaries.
- The germinal stage is sometimes referred to as the ‘zygotic period’ and represents the first two weeks of development from the time of conception through the development of the cluster of cells known as the embryo.
- The zygote begins to divide and become a blastocyst, which will attach itself to the uterine wall during a process known as implantation.
- Cleavage—the mitotic division of the zygote into several cells; begins at 24 hours after conception.
- Division rates are different and this yields heterogeneity—variability in the rate of change of different parts.
- The embryonic period lasts from fertilization to the beginning of the third month. The human being begins to develop very distinctly after morphogenesis.
- Cells begin to take on specific functions and structures in a process called differentiation.
- The embryo is surrounded by the amnion, a thin, tough, transparent membrane that holds the amniotic fluid, which protects the embryo from damaging movements.

NOTES

NOTES

- Surrounding the amnion is the chorion, the precursor to the placenta, a complex organ of tissue from the mother and embryo that acts as a filter allowing oxygen, nutrients, and waste to be exchanged.
- During the third month of pregnancy, the difference between sexes is visible. By the fourth month, the foetus begins to look much more human.
- Environmental agents that ‘can’ cause deviations in normal development and can lead to abnormalities or death known as teratogens.
- Postnatal is the period beginning immediately after the birth of a child and extending for about six weeks.
- Lochia is postpartum vaginal discharge, containing blood, mucus and placental tissue.
- The infant is born with basic reflexes that are genetically carried survival mechanisms. Some reflexes are coughing, blinking and yawning which persist through life.
- Involution is a process in which the uterus returns to its pre-pregnancy size 5–6 weeks after birth.
- The major focus of postpartum care is ensuring that the mother is healthy and capable of taking care of her newborn, equipped with all the information she needs about breastfeeding, reproductive health and contraception, and the imminent life adjustment.
- Postpartum depression affects as many as 70 per cent of women; less often long-term with working mother who return to work.
- Postpartum psychosis (also known as puerperal psychosis), is a more severe form of mental illness than postpartum depression, with an incidence of approximately 0.2 per cent.

3.6 KEY WORDS

- **Involution:** It refers to a process in which the uterus returns to its pre-pregnancy size 5–6 weeks after birth.
- **Lochia:** It refers to a postpartum vaginal discharge, containing blood, mucus and placental tissue.
- **Postnatal:** It refers to the period beginning immediately after the birth of a child and extending for about six weeks.
- **Zona Pellucida:** It refers to a delicate envelope that forms the boundaries of the zygote.

3.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Why is meiosis an important part in the cell division process?
2. How are genes different from traits?
3. What is the effect of the embryonic period on the mother?
4. State the role of amniotic fluid.
5. Write a short note on the importance of prenatal care.
6. What are the various types of childbirth techniques?
7. Why are psychological adjustments delayed in women?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss in detail the process of conception.
2. Explain the embryonic period of the foetus.
3. Analyse the types of teratogens.
4. What is postpartum period in mothers? Discuss in detail.
5. Explain the stages of the birth process.

NOTES

3.8 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - II
**HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT: CONCEPT
AND STAGES, LEARNING**

**UNIT 4 HUMAN GROWTH AND
DEVELOPMENT**

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
 - 4.1 Objectives
 - 4.2 Concept, Meaning, Nature and Importance
 - 4.2.1 Developmental Task
 - 4.3 Psychological Aspects of Various Stages: Stages of Development
 - 4.4 Physical Development
 - 4.5 Emotional and Social Development
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4.0 INTRODUCTION

Developmental psychology is defined as the scientific study of how human beings change during the course of their lifetimes. It originally focussed on infants and children only, however, its scope expanded gradually. It included various stages such as adolescence, adult development and the entire lifespan. Psychologists aim to interpret how human beings develop their thinking, feelings and behaviours and changes throughout their lifespan.

The stages of development have also been explained by three prominent psychologists which discusses the intellectual development from infancy to adulthood. There are three main fields related to the development of developmental psychology and are social and emotional development, cognitive or mental development and physical development.

In this unit, the meaning, importance and nature of development has been analysed. The unit will explain the stages of development given by Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Jean Piaget and Erik Erikson. The concept of physical, cognitive and social and emotional development have been discussed in detail.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of development and its importance
- Explain the various stages of development
- Analyse the dimensions related to physical development
- Interpret the meaning of emotions and its characteristics
- Discuss the concept of social development
- Identify the area and aspects of mental development

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4.2 CONCEPT, MEANING, NATURE AND IMPORTANCE

Education aims at all-round and harmonious development of an individual. The development of a nation depends largely upon the development of its children and there is no doubt that childhood is the foundation upon which the development of an individual depends. Every child is unique. There are individual differences in children that have a great bearing on their development. Needs of each individual child must be attended to for his or her optimum development. To a great extent, development of proper attitudes, habits and patterns of behaviour that are formed during the early years determine how successfully an individual will adjust to the environment as he grows older. It is, therefore, imperative that the teachers who are charged with the responsibility of the development of the child should be acquainted with the meaning and characteristics of various facets of development.

The United Nations International Children Fund (UNICEF) is an important organization of the United Nations, which measures the progress of a nation on the yardstick of the development of its children. It is of interest to note that this organization gives secondary importance to per capita income.

Under the auspices of UNICEF, an Italian Committee organized a workshop at Rome in 1990 for promoting the movement of child growth and development. The workshop prepared the Development Tree, which represents the rights of children that must be taken into consideration. The roots of the tree represent the basic needs of children, (health, food and water), the trunk represents the right to social and economic development, and the branches represent the complementary rights (the right to information, to play, to live in peace and so on)

Definitions of Development

In the words of author, E B Hurlock (1959), the term development means ‘a progressive series of changes that occur in an orderly predictable pattern as a result of maturation and experience.’

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According to author, J E Anderson (1950), ‘Development does not consist merely of adding inches to one’s height or improving one’s ability. Instead, development is a complex process of integrating many structures and functions’. Renowned authors, Robert M Liebert, R W Poulos and G S Marmor (1979) state, ‘Development refers to a process of change in growth and capability over time, as function of both maturation and interaction with the environment’. Thus, development of an individual includes:

- Growth
- Capability
- Maturation
- Interaction with the environment

Psychologist, Harold Stevenson (1968), a prominent development psychologist has explained the concept of development as; ‘Developmental psychology is concerned with the study of changes in behaviour throughout the life span’. An American psychologist, G W Allport (1948) thinks, ‘The developing individual cannot be thought of a thing in himself. Development, insofar as it is considered to be produced from within the individual himself alone, is only a convenient abstraction’. An American psychiatrist, AAngyal (1941) is of the view, ‘Development cannot be considered in terms of the mind alone but rather in terms of the individual as a whole in relationship with his experience with others’. Thus, development is concerned with the biological total process taking place in the subject-object interrelation.

To sum up, development is a series of orderly progression of change towards maturity. ‘Orderly’ refers to the arrangement of the changes. Therefore, each change at each stage is dependent upon what preceded it and thereafter, it affects what comes after. Development does not take place haphazardly. The term ‘progressive’ signifies that changes are leading forward and that the direction is towards adaptation which is conducive to survival of the individual.

Development has four basic elements which are as follows:

1. Growth
2. Maturation
3. Experience
4. Social transmission (Learning through language, schooling or training by parents)

Difference between Development, Growth and Maturation

Development, growth and maturation are terms that are commonly used to convey the same meaning but there is great difference between them.

An American clinical psychologist, Arnold Gessel (1929) wrote, ‘Growth is a function of the organism rather than that of the environment as such. The

environment furnishes the foil and the milieu for the manifestation of development, but these manifestations come from inner compulsion and are primarily organized by inherent inner mechanics and by an intrinsic physiology of development. The very plasticity of growth requires that there be limiting and regulator mechanisms. Growth is a process so intricate and so sensitive that there must, be powerful stabilizing factors, intrinsic rather than extrinsic, which preserve the balance of the total pattern and direction of the growth trend. Maturation is, in a sense, a name for this regulatory mechanism'.

Psychologists, L D Crow and A Crow (1962) suggest that growth refers to structural and physiological changes and development is concerned with growth as well as those changes in behaviour that result from environmental situations.

Essentially, growth takes place when a child grows taller, and his bones, muscles and other parts of the body increase in size. Maturation is the unfolding of the characteristics with which the individual is endowed. As the child grows, his mind and body mature and he is able to function at a higher level. Development is a product of maturation and learning.

Growth: Growth refers to change in size.

Maturation: Maturation involves qualitative change.

Development: Development involves a series of progressive, orderly and meaningful changes leading to the goals of maturity. Usually, growth contributes to development but not always. A person can develop even after physical growth ceases and maturity is attained.

Growth does not always contribute to development. A child or an adult may grow very fat and heavy, but such growth can hardly be considered development in the sense of advancement to a higher level of maturity. Actually, a person has developed if he or she is physically healthier and/or has more sensorimotor skills so that his physical condition is conducive to greater personal effectiveness. Thus, by improving his or her sensorimotor skills and thereby, better utilizing the capacities he or she has inculcated from about two decades of growth, a person can develop even after physical growth stops. Physical growth is quantitative in nature and is usually measured in inches and pounds or their equivalents.

Physical development is both qualitative and quantitative and implies increasing capacities and abilities, maturing, functional improvement and progress towards higher levels of potentiality and effectiveness. Growth can be 'measured', development can be observed by noting changes in shape as they occur and modes of behaviour as their maturation is completed.

Goals of Development

The basic goal of development is to enable the individual to adjust to the environment and if needed, an individual may even change the environment.

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Characteristics of Development

Development has some essential characteristics which are as follows:

- Childhood is the foundation period for the development of an individual.
- Development is the result of maturation and learning.
- Development follows a definite and predictable pattern.
- All individuals are different and their development takes different courses according to their capability and environment.
- Certain characteristic traits are associated with each phase of development.
- Each period of development involves its own hazards.
- Traditional beliefs exist about individuals of different age groups.
- There is development from generalized to more specific forms of response.
- Development further makes it possible for the child to differentiate the movements.
- Development in body structure as well as its functions proceed from head downward
- Development also proceeds from the trunk outward towards the more distant parts.
- Development of behaviour is the result of growth and learning.
- Development is gradual and it takes place over a period of time.
- Development follows a definite sequence. The child crawls before he or she creeps, stands before he or she walks, babbles before he or she utters a word.
- There is interaction among different aspects of development.
- Development is not uniform in all individuals.
- Development depends both on heredity as well as environment.

Principles of Growth and Development

The general principles of growth and development of individuals are as follows:

1. *Principle of Individual Differences*: There are individual differences in the development of children. The difference is mostly in their intellectual capacity, as seen in all human beings. Differences in special aptitudes are most marked. It is caused by differences in heredity (genetic make-up), physical endowments and environmental differences.
2. *Principle of Continuous Growth and Development Process*: The foetus's growth and development starts from the moment of conception of the individual in the mother's womb and continues till the individual expires. It is a continuous process of development. Development proceeds by stages but it is a continuous process. Changes in the body and patterns of behaviour

take place throughout life. Emergence of each type of behaviour is dependent on the development that has gone before.

3. *Principles of Uneven Tempo of Growth and Development:* Growth is continuous but the rate of development is uneven; it does not proceed at a uniform pace over the individual's lifetime, being quick in early stages, but slows down in the later part of infancy. Again, at the stage of puberty, there is a sudden spurt in the person's growth and development.
4. *Principle of Uniformity of Developmental Pattern:* Although development differs from one individual to another, it nevertheless follows a definite sequence common to the offspring of human beings. The outstanding example is that the heads of human children develop first, and other parts of the body develop later on. It is also correct to say that motor and language development in human offspring has a definite sequence.
5. *Principle of Development from General to Specific Responses:* If one examines the different developmental aspects of the child, we find that general activity precedes specific activity in all the child's actions. The movements of the child are of a general nature in the beginning but become specific later on.
6. *Principle of Inter-relation:* It has been observed that the growth and development in various aspects like physical, mental and social are interrelated and interdependent. Growth and development of the child in one aspect leads to the development in other aspects as well. It has been observed that children, who are highly intelligent, generally have a robust health, whereas children with a lower intelligence have a weak health and regress in their emotional and social development.
7. *Principle of Developmental Direction:* There are two important principles of development: (a) Cephalocadal, and (b) Proximodistal. These principles have been discussed in detail in the following section.
By *cephalocadal* development, we mean that it has a longitudinal axis, i.e., human development is from head to foot. This implies that control of the body as well as improvements in the structure itself develop first in the head and progress later to parts further from head. Another example of this aspect of development is that a child can lift his head by means of its neck muscles before it can do so by lifting its chest.
Proximodistal tendency means that a child develops from the centre of the body, i.e., the spinal cord to the periphery of the body, viz., the fingers. In the beginning, the child is able to control its large fundamental muscles, but control over smaller muscles only comes later. The outstanding example is that control over fingers comes after control over the arm and the hand.
8. *Principle of Integration:* Principle of integration implies that the development of the child proceeds both from general to specific and from

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specific to general. The child, while busy in his or her specific activities, arrives at a general rule. Again, he or she applies his or her general rule, almost as if on an experimental basis, to certain specific activities. Thus, the development of the child integrates both general and specific activities.

9. *Principle of Predictability of Development:* We know that every child develops in his or her own way, which process continues all through life. It is with this presumption that we can also predict his future range of development. This prediction is only possible in the case of children of average or normal development. It would be unwise to risk a prediction in the case of abnormal or highly intelligent children.
10. *Principle of Spiral and non-linear Development:* Principle of spiral or non-linear development implies that if the development of the child were to be expressed graphically, it would be seen to proceed, not in a straight line (linearly), but in the form of a spiral or corkscrew. One stage may show marked advances in his development, but another period would see little progress. This staggered process of development enables him or her to consolidate his or her development.
11. *Principle of Struggle:* While the child is developing towards maturity, there are conflicting impulses and demands. The child struggles against these as climbs towards maturity.
12. *Principle of Indigenous Motivation:* As the child matures in his or her capacity to act, think and feel, he or she has an impulse to put his newly gained proficiencies to use, which he does wholeheartedly. This has been described by Jersild as ‘Indigenous Motivation.’
13. *Principle of Anticipation:* In his or her process of development, the child also uses his or her capacity for self-repair. He or she modifies his or her behaviour and even his habits, keeping in view what he or she is going ‘to become’ in future. Thus, he or she consciously anticipates his or her future direction of development.
14. *Principle of Interaction of Heredity and Environment:* The development of the child is a product of both heredity and environment. This is true at all times and stages of his development.

4.2.1 Developmental Task

A renowned physicist and educator, R H Havighurst (1900–1991) has defined a development task in these words, ‘A development task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness and difficulty with later tasks’. Development tasks are based on the aspiration and needs of the society. An American psychologist, B L Neugarten (1916–2001) has explained,

Every society is age-graded and every society has a system of social expectations regarding age-appropriate behaviour. The individual passes through a socially-regulated cycle from birth to death as inexorably as he passes through the biological cycle; and there exists a socially prescribed time-table for the rendering of major life events. Although the norms vary somewhat from one socioeconomic, ethnic or religious group to another, for any social group it can easily be demonstrated that norms and actual occurrences are closely related.

In simple words, a development task may be explained as:

- Every society or culture has certain norms.
- Every society or culture expects its members to follow these norms.
- These norms are in terms of certain essential skills.
- Mastery over these skills leads to happiness and failure leads to unhappiness.
- Skills are related to age groups.
- Norms vary somewhat from one socio-economic group to another.

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List of Developmental Tasks

We will in this section discuss the developmental tasks.

Birth to 6 years

1. Learning to walk
2. Learning to take solid food
3. Learning to talk
4. Learning to control the elimination of body wastes
5. Learning gender differences
6. Achieving physiological stability
7. Forming simple concepts of social and physical reality
8. Learning to relate oneself emotionally to parents, siblings and other people
9. Learning to distinguish right and wrong and developing a conscience.

6 to 12 years

1. Learning physical skills, ordinary games
2. Building wholesome attitudes towards oneself as a growing organism
3. Learning to get along with age-mates
4. Learning an appropriate sex role, i.e. masculine or feminine role
5. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing and calculating
6. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living

7. Developing conscience, morality and values
8. Achieving personal independence
9. Developing attitudes towards social groups and institutions

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Adolescence (12 to 20 years)

1. Accepting one's physique
2. Accepting a masculine or a feminine role
3. Gaining emotional independence from parents and other adults
4. Establishing new relations with age-mates of both sexes
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence
6. Selecting and preparing for a vocation
7. Developing necessary concepts for civic competence
8. Developing intellectual skills
9. Developing socially acceptable behaviour
10. Preparing for marriage and family life
11. Developing harmonious moral and scientific values

Check Your Progress

1. What are the four basic elements of development?
2. State the basic goal of development.
3. What are the two important principles of development?

4.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF VARIOUS STAGES: STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT

Eminent educators and psychologists have pointed out different ways of describing stages of development in the life span of an individual. A brief account of these stages is given below to show how children behave differently at successive stages. The theories of Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Erik Erikson and Jean Piaget are well known and accepted. This outline indicates how children learn new and more complex tasks as they grow older.

I. Rousseau's (1712–1778) Views

The earliest effort at marking out the stages of development was made by a Genevan philosopher, Jean-Jacques Rousseau. He attempted to divide the individual's development into four stages as follows:

Table 4.1 Rousseau's Views on Stages of Development

Human Growth and
Development

Stage	Approximate Age	Characteristics
1. Infancy	1 to 5 years	1. Free wandering stage 2. Play with things or toys which are simple 3. Physical development
2. Childhood	5 to 12 years	1. Development of senses 2. No verbal lessons 3. Activity and experience
3. Pre-adolescence	12 to 15 years	1. Period of developing intellect 2. Study of natural sciences 3. Manual work and industrial arts
4. Adolescence	15 to 20 years	1. Sexual instruction 2. Moral education through activities 3. Understanding of social complex relationships

Note: Development of girls takes place on slightly different lines.

II. E H Erickson's Eight Stages of Psycho-Social Development

A German-American developmental psychologist, Erik Erikson's theory out of the eight stages of development of a child lays great stress on the epigenetic principle, which talks of the influence of environmental factors on the original situation. The stages are as described in the following section. One cannot consider these as sharp-edged cut-off stages; they are a gradual process, with contiguous stages merging seamlessly into one another.

- (a) Stage I: *Birth to One Year*. (Trust and Mistrust) This stage ranges from birth to one year or so. The stage is of infancy wherein the child is totally dependent on others for his or her basic needs. It is in this stage that the child develops trust and faith in himself and the environment. If his needs are not met, he or she is bound to lose faith in the world around him.
- (b) Stage II: *Two to Three years*. (Autonomy and Shame) During this period the child tends to develop autonomy. He or she likes doing things himself or herself without external help and support. Too much of liberty to do things in his or her own way would see him or her displaying a tendency towards permissiveness if not autonomy. Too much laxity in gentle supervision and disciplining would be inadvisable conversely, too much firmness can result in the child losing his or her self confidence and doubting his or her ability to perform even simple actions well, at which point he or she would tend to become more cautious and self conscious and developing a sense of shame at his 'weakness' getting exposed.
- (c) Stage III: *Four to Five Years*. (Initiative and Guilt) This stage sees rapid growth in the child across all dimensions—physical, intellectual, emotional and social. His or her environment expands beyond the home. This is the stage when children begin to express their autonomy in behaviour, also known as initiative. They develop a sense of right and wrong based on praise or criticism. Too much moralistic dominance by parents and teachers during this stage and they would tend to develop negativity and guilt.

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- (d) Stage IV: *Six to Eleven Years.* (Industry and Inferiority) This stage sees the child devoting his or her energies to self improvement and to garnering admiration of people around him or her. The child applies himself or herself to various skills and tasks, and this effort to master whatever he or she does is called ‘Industry’. However, if his or her efforts meet with repeated failure, he or she might tend to develop an inferiority complex.
- (e) Stage V: *Age 12 to 18 Years.* (Identity and Role Confusion) Age of adolescence and puberty. Having gained and assimilated the values and ways of the culture and society he or she lives in, it is at this stage and during this time that the young person starts to seek his own identity by means of independent thought and action. He or she tries to establish his or her identity by his or her own efforts, being concerned about his or her future role and status. The drive to express his or her independence and individuality, ironically, often leads him or her to imitating others in his or her peer group, which itself may be trying to carve out a separate identity by means of distinctive clothes, outlandish language and mannerisms, rebellious behaviour or even anti-social activities. Too many failures or negative results at establishing an identity for him or her may lead to frustration, when the individual runs the risk of getting thoroughly confused about his or her role in society.
- (f) Stage VI: *Early Adulthood.* (Intimacy and Isolation) This is the stage when the child generally moves beyond parental control. Social interaction is the fundamental influencing factor at this stage. Success and identity leads to a need to share it with someone, and thus, intimacy develops. The young adult at this stage is ready to commit to companionship. On the other hand, failures and desperation lead the individual towards despondency and isolation.
- (g) Stage VII: *Adulthood.* (Generativity and Stagnation) The stage of adulthood sees the individual involving himself in productivity. There is purpose in his or her doings; he or she tries to gain control over others and even help people. This stage also sees him or her involved with his or her offspring. His or her efforts are focused towards ensuring that there is no stagnation as the regression from Generativity often leads to Stagnation.
- (h) Stage VIII: *Late Adulthood or Maturity.* (Integrity and despair) The individual starts to reflect upon the times gone by, the life he has lived so far and the future that lies ahead, which sometimes includes the thought of death. This is the time to realize the aspect of fulfilment achieved through establishment of identity and intimacy. A positive feeling of having successfully resolved all crises leads to ‘Integrity’, in the absence of which a person may ‘disintegrate’, lapsing into despondency and perhaps even despair.

A tabulated version (Table 4.2) of the above described stages would be helpful in comprehending Erikson’s ‘Theory of Psychosocial Stages’ more easily.

Table 4.2 E H Erickson's Eight Stages of Psycho-social Development*Human Growth and Development*

<i>Psycho-social stage</i>		<i>Task or crisis</i>	<i>Social condition</i>	<i>Psycho-social outcomes</i>
Stage I (Birth to 1 year)	Oral	Can I trust the world?	Support and provision of basic needs. Lack of support and deprivation	Basic trust Basic mistrust
Stage II (2-3 years)	Muscular Anal	Can I control my behaviour?	Permissiveness and support Over-protection and lack of support	Autonomy Shame and doubt
Stage III (4-5 years)	Locomotor Genital	Can I become independent of my parents by exploring my limits?	Encouragement to explore. Lack of opportunity to explore.	Initiative Guilt
Stage IV (6-11 years)	Latency	Can I master the necessary skills to adapt?	Adequate training and encouragement. Poor training and lack of support	Industry Inferiority
Stage V (12-18 years)	Puberty and adolescence	Who am I? What are my beliefs and attitudes?	Internal stability and feedback that is positive. Confusion and unclear feedback	Personal identity. Role confusion
Stage VI Young adulthood		Can I give fully of myself to another?	Warmth and sharing Loneliness	Intimacy Isolation
Stage VII Adulthood		What can I offer to succeeding generations?	Purposefulness and productivity. Lack of growth and repression	Generativity Stagnation
Stage VIII	Maturity	Have I found contentment and satisfaction through my life's work and play?	Unity and fulfillment Disgust and dissatisfaction	Integrity Despair

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(Source: Bourne and Ekstrand, Psychology)

III. Jean Piaget's (1896–1980) Four Stages of Development

Jean Piaget, a Swiss educator, observed children for about 50 years and wrote over 20 books on the various aspects of development. He suggested four stages of development as below.

Table 4.3 Jean Piaget's Development Stages

Stage	Age	Characteristics
1.	Sensory motor stage	Birth to 2 years. Manipulation of objects in the environment.
2.	Pre-operational stage	Between 2 to 6 years. Child begins to acquire vocabulary.
3.	Concrete operational stage	Between 6 and 11/12. Child learns to add, subtract and multiply and divide.
4.	Formal operational stage	Between 11/12 to 14/15. Child begins to think logically.

Summing up: If we include the pre-birth period, the lifespan or stages of development of human organism can be divided conveniently into the following stages:

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Table 4.4 Modern Thinking on Stages of Human Development

Name of the Stage	Period and Approximate Age
1.Pre-natal (pre-birth) stage	From conception to birth
2. Infant stage	From birth to 3 years of age
3. Childhood stage (i) Pre-childhood stage (ii) Early childhood stage (iii) Later childhood stage	From 4 to 12 years of age or to the onset of puberty From 4 to 6 years of age From 7 to 9 years of age From 10 to 12 years of age
4. Adolescence	From the onset of puberty to the age of maturity-Generally 13 to 19 years of age
5. Adulthood	From 20 years of age or onset of maturity till productivity lasts
6. Old Age	From the end of productivity till death

It is observed that there is no rigidity in the mentioned classification in terms of either the division of life span into stages or the duration of the period mentioned against each stage. There are great individual differences and it should not be presumed that every child will necessarily have each stage according to the period indicative above. These are common generalizations drawn. Nevertheless these generalizations indicate broad outlines of the course to be followed in the development of human organisms.

4.4 PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

‘Healthy mind lies only in a healthy body’, is an old adage and is true to the core. The physical development of the child is very important for a number of reasons. Appropriate physical development gives an invaluable contribution to the all-round development of an individual. When a child is busy in some physical activity, he or she is emotionally as well mentally involved in it. Physical development of the individual is important both for the individual and social development. It is also important for ethical, moral and spiritual development. A physically unhealthy person, other things being assumed equal, is unable to perform his or her duties to himself or herself, to the community and to God. He or she cannot offer his or her prayers effectively.

By not giving proper attention and care to the physical development of the child, we may be guilty of causing serious handicaps to his or her total development, including his or her emotional, intellectual, social, ethical and even spiritual development. Knowledge of the process of the physical growth of the child and development will enable the teacher to equip him or her for setting his/her programmes according to the needs of the children.

Meaning and Dimensions of Physical Growth and Development

Physical growth and development refer to processes which bring about bodily and physiological changes—which are internal as well as external—in an organism from the conception till his or her death.

Generally, these changes take place in the following dimensions:

- **Gross physical structure or physique:** It involves changes in height, weight, body proportions and the general physical appearance.
- **Internal organs:** It involves changes in the functioning of glands, nervous system and other body systems such as circulatory, respiratory, digestive, muscular, lymphatic and reproductive.

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General Pattern of Growth and Development

Although there are wide individual differences among children, physical growth and development seem to follow to some extent a general pattern. This general pattern of growth and development may be summarized as follows:

(i) **Increase in height and weight:** There are differences of weight and height at all ages, for all species. On an average, a human baby is about 56 cm in height and between 4 and 5 kg at birth. In weight, boys can be slightly taller and heavier. During the first two years, there is rapid increase in both height and weight. There is a steady and slower growth from the third year till the on-set of puberty. By the age of five years, the height of the child approximately increases by 80 per cent and he or she acquires almost $3\frac{1}{2}$ times his or her birth weight. During the period of adolescence, we find a sudden increase in both height and weight. Girls reach puberty about a year or two earlier than boys. Therefore, at the age of twelve they are found slightly taller and heavier than boys. But they are again surpassed by the boys at the age of fourteen. By the end of adolescence, the young men are generally higher and heavier than the young women. Generally, both men and women get their maximum height and weight till the end of adolescence. There can be variations in weight as it is more susceptible to environmental influences. Therefore, it is no surprise to note the sudden increase or decrease in weight in later years after attaining maturity.

The weight of the brain increases rapidly in the early years of life. By the time the child completes four years, his or her brain gains almost 80 per cent of its final weight, another 10 per cent is added by the time he or she completes his or her eight years. By the twentieth year, the brain gains almost all its weight.

(ii) **Changes in body proportions:** There are changes not only in the size of the body of the child but also marked changes in the proportion of the different parts of the body. For instance, the head constitutes about one-fourth of the height of the body at birth. The size of the head is relatively much larger than the arms and legs. As the child grows older, the proportion of the head decreases. By the end of the adolescence, head becomes one-eighth of the body. The other parts of the body, legs and arms also change in proportion.

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Anatomical Growth and Development

Anatomical Growth and Development is essential to understand for the purpose of understanding development as a whole. The various parts of the body and their growth and development process are listed as follows:

- **Bones:** Most of the bones are soft at birth. The child's bones contain relatively, a great amount of water and smaller quantity of mineral matter than those of an adult. More blood flows through the bones of a child than through the bones of an adult. Children are, therefore, more pliable.
- **Teeth:** Teeth begin to appear in a systematic order after the age of six months. On an average, at around seven months of age, the first two front teeth in the lower jaw erupt and are followed by four molars, one on both sides of the front teeth on both jaws. By the time the baby is between two to two and half years old he/she will have twenty teeth. Girls show more advanced growth of teeth than boys, except in the wisdom teeth, where boys are usually ahead of girls.

Growth and Development of Internal Organs

Internally, the body undergoes a wide range of changes during the growth phases. Each organ multiplies and grows within itself and performs its functions simultaneously. The growth pattern of the internal organs is outlined as follows:

- (i) *Nervous System:* There is a marked growth in the nervous system during the pre-natal period and the first four years after birth. Before birth, the development primarily consists of increase in the number and size of nerves. After the age of four years, the growth of the nervous system proceeds at a relatively slow rate.
- (ii) *Muscular System:* Muscles at the time of birth are more delicate and less firmly attached to the bones than those of adult muscles. The movements of the muscles are random and uncoordinated. Gradually muscles get themselves changed in shape, size and composition and become firmer and stronger.
- (iii) *Circulatory and Respiratory System:* During early childhood, both the lungs as well as the heart are very small but gradually they grow in volume and height. The veins and arteries do not follow the same growth pattern as that of the heart and lungs. They grow rapidly prior to adolescence but show little growth during adolescence.
- (iv) *Digestive System:* The young child has a small tabular-shaped stomach as compared with the bag like shape stomach of the adult. A young child needs more feeding in the earlier years.
- (v) *Lymphatic System:* It is concerned with the elimination of waste and destruction of bacteria in the body. From birth onwards, this system shows the sign of rapid development until it reaches to its maximum between the

age of eleven and twelve years. After twelve years of age, it decreases rapidly.

- (vi) *Reproductive System:* The development of sex organs is very slow during early childhood but it picks up its speed as the child advances towards adolescence.

An American psychologist, G Stanley Hall has given the following description of children from eight to twelve years of age in his book, *Adolescence*, ‘The age from 8 to 12 years constitutes the unique period of human life.... The brain has acquired nearly its adult size and weight, health is almost at its best, activity is greater and more varied than ever before or it will ever be again and there is peculiar endurance, vitality and resistance to fatigue. The child develops a life of his own outside the home circle and its natural interests are never so independent of adult influence’.

Author, George G Thompson (1979) has described the physical development in childhood in these words, ‘Neither shoulder breadth nor pelvic breadth increases as rapidly as trunk length, but the pelvis broadens, more rapidly than the shoulders. The total configurational change is a longer-legged, longer-bodied and more rectilinear and flatter-bodied child’.

Table 4.5 Development of Males and Females

Boys	Girls
1. Growth of pubic hair	1. Growth of pubic hair
2. Growth of hair on the under arms	2. Growth of hair on the under arms
3. Growth of hair on the face	3. Light growth of hair under the face
4. Growth of larynx	4. Light growth of larynx
5. Change in voice	5. Moderate lowering in voice
6. Widening of shoulders	6. Widening of hips
7. Thickening of muscles	7. Slight thickening of muscles
8. Increase in perspiration	8. Increase in perspiration
9. Sometimes slight and temporary development around breasts and nipples.	9. Development of breasts

Special needs of both the sexes require different treatment.

Table 4.6 Physical Characteristics and Needs of Children

Boys	Girls
From 5 to 8 years	
1. Average increase in height of about 5 cm.	1. Adequate sleep for ten to twelve hours.
2. Girls mature faster than boys.	2. Frequent periods of rest and recreation.
3. Legs lengthen rapidly.	3. Active play and large space for play
4. Nose and throat difficulties are frequent.	4. Guidance in eating and protection of health .
5. Tend to consume more food than their stomachs can hold.	5. Preventive measures against childhood diseases like measles.
6. Show resistance in taking a bath.	6. Appropriate clothing according to weather.
7. Average gain in health.	7. Care of teeth, hair, etc.
8. Gradual improvement in speed, steadiness of movement and accuracy.	

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- | From 9 to 11 years | |
|---|--|
| 1. Children are extremely active. | 1. Careful eye examination. |
| 2. Relatively free from diseases. | 2. Correction of postures. |
| 3. Relatively healthy and sturdy. | 3. Frequent change of physical activity. |
| 4. Choosy about food but eat a great deal. | 4. Independence in caring for physical needs. |
| 5. Girls increase steadily in physical skills. | 5. Adequate nutrition. |
| 6. Girls usually have less stamina than boys. | 6. Supervision of strenuous physical activities. |
| 7. Interested in competitive games which require skill. | |
| 8. More easily fatigued after physical activity. | |

Important General Characteristics of Child's Development

Some of the important general characteristics of child's development are as follows:

- Development is very rapid during infancy (from birth to three years).
- Period of pre-childhood (four to six years) is the period of fixation i.e., what is acquired in infancy is fixed or stabilized.
- Period of early childhood (seven to nine years) shows again a period of growth and development but the speed is slow in comparison to infancy.
- Later childhood (ten to twelve years) is again a period of fixation.
- The first three years of adolescence are marked as the years of rapid growth and development. This is followed by a period of slow growth.
- All the sensory and motor organs of the child's body are in the process of growth.
- The urge for motor activities like walking, running, jumping, catching, throwing, etc., is at its peak.
- Muscular development takes place rapidly.
- In the middle and later stages of childhood, coordination of hands and fingers becomes possible.
- Children take delight in strenuous physical activities.
- Children enjoy movement.
- There is an urge among children to participate in activities which involve speaking, seeing and manipulating.

Common Causes of Delayed Motor and Physical Development

There are some causes which causes delay in the physical development. The causes are listed as follows:

- Poor physical conditions caused by illness, malnutrition and so on.
- Lack of opportunities to develop manual skills.

- Nagging, scolding and ridiculing of the child by parents and teachers when he does not succeed in an activity.

Factors Affecting Physical Growth and Development

The factors which affect physical growth and development are as follows:

- The traits and characteristics inherited at the time of conception.
- The physical as well as mental health of the mother during pregnancy.
- Nutrition received by the embryo within the womb of the mother.
- Conditions and care at the time of delivery.
- Normal or abnormal delivery.
- Single birth or multiple births.
- Care of the baby and its mother.
- Presence or absence of physical defects.
- Presence or absence of illness and disease.
- Proper or improper medical care.
- Nutrition received by the child after birth.
- The living conditions of the child—physical, social and cultural.
- The opportunities for recreation, self expression, play and exercise.
- Adequate or inadequate rest and sleep.
- Emotional and social adjustment of the child.

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Check Your Progress

4. What are the factors which cause delay in physical development?
5. List the characteristics related to a child's general development.

4.5 EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Emotions play an important role in life and contribute to the personal and social development of an individual. Continuous emotional disturbance affects the individual's growth and development and gives rise to mental, physical, social and other problems. It also tends to hamper intellectual training. On the other hand, an emotionally stable individual leads a happy, healthy and peaceful life. He or she is at ease with himself or herself, his or her surroundings and other fellow beings. Therefore, the development of emotions is extremely important for the harmonious development of the personality of an individual. Emotions influence all the aspects of an individual's personality. Proper training and education will go a long way to

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enable the young people to control their emotions and obtain mental balance and stability. Emotions are the prime motive forces of thought and conduct and their control is very important. It is often said, ‘To keep one’s emotions under control and be able to conceal them is considered a mark of strong character’.

Child A is a **happy** child.

Child B gets **angry** over small things.

Child C always looks **sad**.

Child D is very **jealous** of his or her younger brother.

All these children show signs of expressing emotions.

Meaning of Emotions

Etymologically the word emotion is derived from the Latin word **Emovere** which means to **stir up, to agitate** or to excite. An American academic psychologist, R S Woodworth (1945), by making use of this explanation has defined emotion in this way, ‘Emotion is a **moved** or **stirred up** state of an organism. It is a stirred up state of feeling, that is, the way it appears to the individual himself. It is a disturbed muscular and glandular activity—that is the way it appears to an external observer’.

According to psychologists, Crow and Crow (1973), an emotion ‘is an effective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment and mental and psychological stirred up states in the individual, and that shows itself in his own behaviour’.

Psychologist, William McDougall (1949) says, ‘An instinct is an inherited or innate psycho-physical disposition which determines its possessor to perceive and to pay attention to, objects of a certain class, to experience an emotional excitement of a particular quality upon perceiving such an object, and to act in regard to it in a particular manner, or, at least, to experience an impulse to such an action’. This statement gives us the nature of emotions as well. According to McDougall, an instinctive behaviour has three aspects:

- (i) Cognitive or knowing or the perceptual aspect.
- (ii) Affection or feeling or emotional effects.
- (iii) Conative or doing or striving or executive, active or the behavioural aspect.

Let us take an example. A child sees a bull coming towards him or her. He or she experiences an instinctive fear and undergoes the above three processes. Firstly, he or she perceives the bull, secondly he or she experiences an emotion of fear and thirdly he or she tries to run away. It is, therefore, concluded that an emotion is an affective experience that one undergoes during an instinctive excitement.

McDougall discovered 14 basic instincts and pointed out that each and every emotion, whatever may be, is the product of some instinctive behaviour.

Table 4.7 shows the instincts with their associated emotions are listed alphabetically as follows:

Table 4.7 Instincts with their Associated Emotions are Listed Alphabetically

No.	Instinct	Emotion Accompanying an Instinct	NOTES
1.	Acquisition	Feeling of ownership	
2.	Appeal	Distress	
3.	Construction	Feeling of creativeness	
4.	Curiosity	Wonder	
5.	Flight or Escape	Fear	
6.	Food seeking	Appetite	
7.	Gregariousness	Feeling of loneliness	
8.	Laughter	Amusement	
9.	Parental	Tenderness, Love	
10.	Pugnacity or Combat	Anger	
11.	Repulsion	Disgust	
12.	Self-assertion	Positive feeling or elation	
13.	Sex, Mating	Lust	
14.	Submission	Negative feeling	

Author, Kimball Young notes, ‘Emotion is the aroused psychological state of the organism marked by increased bodily activity and strong feelings directed to some subject’.

Chief Characteristics of Emotions

There are several characteristics associated with humans and emotions. Some of these important ones are given as follows:

- Emotional experiences are associated with some instincts or biological drives.
- Emotions, in general, are the product of perception.
- The core of an emotion is feeling which is essentially linked with some sort of urge or impulsive act to do. There is only a difference of degree between feeling and emotion.
- Every emotional experience involves several physical and psychological changes in the organism. Some of these changes, like bulge of the eyes, flush of the face, flow of tears, pulse rate, are easily observable. Also, there are internal physiological changes such as circulation of blood, impact on the digestive system and changes in the functioning of some glands.
- Emotions are frequent.
- Emotions are expressed in relation to concrete objects or situations.
- Emotions are temporary.

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- Emotional expressions in early childhood are intense irrespective of the intensity of the stimulus.
- Small children fail to hide their emotions and express them indirectly through different activities like crying, nail-biting, thumb-sucking and speech difficulties.
- Emotions are prevalent in every living organism.
- Emotions are present at all stages of development and can be aroused in young as well as in old people.
- Emotions differ from person to person.
- The same emotion can be aroused by a number of different stimuli—objects or situations.
- Emotions rise abruptly but die slowly.
- Emotions are subject to displacement. The anger aroused on account of one stimuli gets transferred to other situations. The anger caused by the rebuking of the officer to his subordinate may be transferred in beating of his children at home.
- One emotion may give rise to a number of likewise emotions.

Effects of Emotions on the Developing Individual

The important effects of emotions on the developing individual are as follows:

- Emotions provide energy to an individual to face a particular situation.
- Emotions work as motivators of our behaviour.
- Emotions influence our adjustment in the society.
- Highly emotional conditions disturb the mental equilibrium of an individual.
- Highly emotional conditions disturb the reasoning and thinking of an individual.

Inter-relation of Physical and Emotional Factors

There is a close relationship between the physical and emotional factors. An imbalance or disturbance in the child's physical growth will most likely be reflected in his or her intellectual functioning and personality adjustment. An unhealthy emotional climate is likely to affect the physical health of the child and it may hinder his normal physical growth. A child under emotional strain is likely to be physically unhealthy and shows signs of physical ailments.

Social development implies the development of an individual in a way in which he or she becomes a useful member of society or the group to which he or she belongs. He or she conforms to the norms of the group or the society to which he or she belongs. An individual becomes a human being only as a member of the society. By nature, he or she cannot live alone in isolation. He or she is compelled by biological, psychological and social needs to live in a group or society. Each of

us is largely a social product. The process of the development of such qualities which bring desirable changes in the social behaviour is referred to as social development or socialization of the child.

Various thinkers and psychologists have tried to define social development in the following ways:

1. Freeman and Showel (1940) wrote, ‘Social development is the process of learning to conform to group standards’.
2. L D Crow and A Crow (1944) wrote, ‘Social development means acquisition or the ability to behave in accordance with social expectations’.
3. Herbart Sorenson (1948) thought, ‘By social growth and development we mean increasing ability to get along well with oneself and others’.
4. James Drever (1952) stated, ‘Socialization (social development) is a process by which the individual is adapted to his social environment (by attaining social conformity), and becomes a recognized, cooperating and efficient member of it’.
5. E B Hurlock (1956) noted, ‘Social development means the attaining of maturity in social setting’.
6. H E Garret (1968) was of the view that, ‘Socialization or social development is the process whereby the biological individual is converted into a human person’.

Characteristics of Social Development

From the mentioned definitions, the following characteristics of social development are as follows:

- Social development begins with the infant’s first contact with other people.
- Social development continues throughout life.
- Social development is the net result of the child’s constant interaction with his social environment.
- Social development helps in learning and acquiring social qualities of character.
- Social development enables the child to adjust himself to his social environment and to maintain social relationships.

According to psychologist Gessel, bright children accelerate in social development while children with special needs are retarded in their progress towards social maturity.

Social Behaviour of the Pre-School Child

The child at this stage is ready to expand his or her social contacts. By the age of two years, he or she can obey certain commands given to him. He or she calls

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attention of other persons to objects he feels interested in. He or she is more or less self-centred. The pre-school child is active. A pre-school child has usually one or two friends. He or she plays through only for short intervals. Race, caste, colour or sex or social and economic status have no effect in the selection of friends at this stage. Nursery school experiences contribute in acquiring acceptable social habits.

Social Behaviour of the Elementary School Child

By the time a child enters school, he or she wants to have many friends. At this stage, he or she is not just satisfied by the company of his or her parents. He or she is interested in the play activities of his or her group, of the same age and sex. However, quarrels are also common among **friends**. However, Boys of this stage tend to be more aggressive. Bullying and teasing are more common. Children are interested in group activities and team work. Team **games** become more interesting than individual work. The social behaviour of the **child is** greatly influenced by the social environment in which **he or she** lives.

Social Development of the Child during the Early Stages of Schooling

- The period is marked by a greater degree of social awareness.
- There is a great expansion of child's social world.
- A child tries to be independent of his parents and other elders.
- A child becomes an active member of a peer group
- There is a sort of segregation among boys and girls of the same age.
- Up to the end of the stage of childhood, i.e., 11th or 12th year, the child enters the peak of 'gang age'. There is increasing loyalty towards his or her own gang and conflict with other gangs. The gang life develops many good as well as bad social qualities in the child.

Hindrances in the Social Development of the Child

1. Social evils such as untouchability and caste prejudices
2. Coeducation
3. Language barriers
4. Miscellaneous factors like income, occupations and religion of the family

Factors Affecting Social Development of the Child

The factors which affect the social development in children are as follows:

- **The Family:** Among the various social groups, the family makes the first and the most significant influence on the social development of the child. It provides the hereditary transmission of basic potential for his or her development. It also provides environmental conditions and personal

relationship Parent-child relations have various dimensions of interaction. As such, they remain basic for social development of the child. Parent-child relationships determine behavioural adjustment of the child in the family as well as outside.

- **Religion:** Like home, religion has long been regarded as a primary social institution. Religion plays a dominant role in the social development of the child.
- **Peer Groups:** The child is introduced to the social world outside his or her family, mainly for play purposes. The peer groups satisfy various needs of the children like acceptance, achievement, affection, approval, belongingness, fame, recognition, expression of thoughts and opinions. According to psychologist, A T Jershid (1947), peer association is a meaningful process through which the child changes with his age group into youth and adulthood.
- **School:** The school life plays an important role in the social development of the child. Its curriculum, co-curricular activities and teacher's influence have a great bearing on the social development of the child.
- **Community and Neighbourhood:** The environment prevailing in the community has a great influence on the social development of the child.
- **Mass Media:** Agencies like cinema, newspapers, radio and television also play a vital role in bringing about social changes in children.
- **Bodily Structure and Health:** A healthy child has more ability and strength to make him or her adjust in the challenging social settings. A child with poor health or any physical deformity or defect develops feeling of inferiority as well as insecurity in social settings.
- **Intelligence:** The more intelligent a person is the more chances of his or her social adjustment.
- **Emotional Development:** Emotional development of the child bears a positive correlation with his or her social development. Emotional adjustability is one of the very important elements of social adjustment.

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Influence of Culture on Social Development

A child's social behaviour is regulated and influenced by the culture of the society he or she lives in. The ways of behaving by the people of one generation, pass on from generation to generation. Our sanskaras shape our outlook and finally, personality. There are two ways in which the behaviour patterns of culture are transmitted to the next generation, (a) Directly and formally as in educational programmes at various stages of education and (b) Informally through interactions between parents and their children which occur in the course of bringing up children. These interactions include the parent's expression of attitudes, beliefs, interests and values. Some of the informal social development takes place through interactions with relatives, neighbours, peer groups and teachers.

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Check Your Progress

6. State the aspects of instinctive behaviour.
7. What are the characteristics of social development?

4.6 COGNITIVE OR MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

Mental development implies progressive changes in the mental process which goes on from birth to death. The mental process is an activity on the part of the organism which is of a psychological nature or is involved in the mind. There are mental tests to evaluate a specific ability or performance. Mental development includes various aspects such as development of concepts, perception, language, memory, reasoning, thinking, imagination and intelligence. On account of the greater importance and intensive work done in the area of intelligence and the technicality involved in its measurement, it is imperative to discuss the topic of intelligence in a separate chapter. Likewise, Piaget's theory of cognitive or mental development is also taken up separately. However, various dimensions of mental development are inter-related. Therefore, mental development of children includes overall development of various abilities.

Mental development is sometimes described as adding to the stock of information and knowledge. But if it is not accompanied by understanding and wisdom, such knowledge is barren. Mental development or intellectual development is the development of the mental abilities and capacities which help an individual to adjust his behaviour to the ever changing environmental conditions or enable him to accomplish a task that needs complex cognitive abilities. According to American psychologist, J S Bruner (1964), 'Intellectual development is the capacity to deal with several choices at the same time'.

Areas and Aspects of Mental Development

The areas and aspects of mental development are as follows:

- 1. Intelligence and mental development:** Mental development implies increase in intelligence. The results of intelligence tests show that mental or intellectual growth is rapid in infancy, moderate in childhood and slow in youth. As observed earlier various aspects of intelligence are discussed separately.
- 2. Sensation and perception:** Both sensation and perception are considered important aspects of mental development. Senses are the elementary impressions gathered by sense organs. Impressions take the form of perception when they are interpreted and some definite meanings are attached to them.

Through experience, a child's sensations become perceptions and he or she is able to give meaning to it. A child's sensory equipment becomes mature at the age of five. He or she shows great interest in seeing, hearing, touching, smelling and tasting. However, the child's sensations do not automatically assume meaning. During his or her early childhood, the child is more likely to misrepresent things and objects because of lack of experience. For example, when viewed from a distance, a train may appear to a child as a toy train. But gradually, the child's perceptions become more and more accurate through the right kinds of experiences. By the time, a child enters school; he or she has gained enough experience. Yet he or she needs assistance and guidance to improve their ability to perceive by having first hand experiences and observations of objects, persons and situations around him or her. Gradually, he or she develops a proper perception of space, time, form, movement and distant.

Perception patterns become more organized and refined when an individual passes through the early years to his adolescence. Then they tend to become more definite, detailed and rich. They need not be associated necessarily with objects. Perception begins to be influenced by the individual's beliefs, ideals and opinions.

3. Concept Formation: Another important aspect of the child's mental development is the acquisition of concept. A concept is the generalized meaning that is attached to an object or idea. It is the result of one's perceptual experiences. It involves both discrimination and generalization.

Discrimination begins sometimes after the child tries to generalize his or her perceptual experiences. Thus, he or she begins to acquire concepts. Experience is an important factor in concept formation. In the early childhood, a child tries to develop various concepts from the concrete experiences in the form of actual objects.

Normally, concept formation proceeds from concrete to abstract, from vague to clear and from inexact to exact, depending on the type of experiences a child receives. The child has a very poor concept of time. As stated by Crow and Crow, 'Time as such means little to the young child. He cannot distinguish among "today", "tomorrow", and "next week" except as they represent words rather than actual duration of time"

In later years, various experiences provided by reading, lecturing and motives help in the formation of concepts. Generally, concepts may be broadened, and developed. They may even take a new shape. Wrong concepts can be abandoned altogether. Gradually, as a result of learning and maturation, the child's concepts become clear, definite and specific.

4. Development of Language: The development of language contributes to the mental growth and development of the child. Important aspects of language development are speech, vocabulary and length of responses.

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5. Development of Memory: Memory is also an important element of mental development. There is little memory at birth but it gradually increases with maturation and experience. This has been explained by psychologists, Hurlock and Schwartz in these words, 'Memory of an impressionistic kind appears in the first half of the year and instances of the true remembrance appear by the end of first year. During the first year, memory is only aroused by sensory stimuli. With the learning of speech the child is able to remember ideationally by the end of the second year. During the first and second years the memory is stronger for persons and objects than for situations. In pre-childhood from three to six years, situations become significant factors. Also the emotional quality of the impressions influences memory. By the age of three years, the child can recount the story heard a few days ago and he can also give information about past experiences'.

A child has a good memory in the earlier stages but this memory is generally a rote memory. His or her memorization is without reasoning. He or she seldom uses logic and insight in memorization. A child can cram and reproduce the matter easily. The memory tends to function more logically during later childhood and adolescence. A selection process of remembering and forgetting begins to operate. After that memory tends to decrease.

Memory depends upon person to person. It is generally affected by health and the situation of the child. The stimuli which are associated with a kind of memory influence significantly, its remembrance or forgetting.

6. Creativity: It may be stressed that creativity is the most single ability which is at the root of human progress. Like many other activities, it can be developed at a young age. In a general sense, creativity is the ability to think in novel ways which result in some new and original solution. Various aspects of creativity have been discussed separately.

7. Problem Solving: All thinking and reasoning involve meeting difficulties, facing complex situations and finding out solutions. An individual is beset with all these since childhood. Thinking and reasoning powers are used in problem solving and these begin to grow as early as two and a half or three years of age. Gradually the ability to reason grows.

Stages of Mental Development

Various stages of mental development are given as follows:

1. Period of Infancy: Beginning of Awareness: In the beginning, mental activity consists of awareness of oneself. Later on, this awareness extends to the environments. The nervous system begins to grow during the prenatal period. As the nervous system keeps on growing before and after the birth, the process of mental development also goes on accordingly.

2. **Before three years of Age:** During these years, the process of mental development is much faster. Important characteristics of this stage are (*i*) Curiosity, (*ii*) Rote memory, (*iii*) Creativity, (*iv*) Time concept not yet developed, (*v*) Very little development of powers of observation, perception and concentration.
3. **Period of Pre-school Age:** During the age of two and half or three to six years, the mental abilities of the child develop very rapidly. His or her perceptual powers increase and his or her curiosity is aroused to a great extent.
4. **Childhood and before Adolescence:** During this period, the sensory powers increase rapidly and the child becomes more accurate in his observations. From a make-believe type of imagination, he or she now starts thinking on creative lines. During this period, the likes and dislikes of the child, his or her interests, thoughts and plans begin to shape themselves. He or she begins to imagine things. His or her power of deductive and inductive reasoning increases and he or she is able to generalize from the data given to him. He or she develops the concepts of length, time and distance and learns to express him in various ways.
5. **During Adolescence:** During this stage, children ages 12 to 18 being to do more complex thinking. This type of thinking is also known as formal logical operations.
6. **During Early Adulthood:** The most important mental abilities needed for learning and for adjustment to new situations, such as recall, reasoning and creative thinking reach their peak during the twenties and then begin a slow and gradual decline.
7. **During Middle Ages:** Studies conducted by psychologists, LM Terman and M H Oden (1959) on a group of individuals followed from preschool years to middle life have shown that mental decline does not set in during middle ages among those with high intellectual abilities.
8. **During Old Age:** Old people take more time to integrate their responses. They tend to lack the capacity for or interest in creative thinking. Old people tend to have poor recent memories but better remote memories. There is a slight deterioration in vocabulary as well. The mental rigidity that sometimes sets in during middle age, often becomes more pronounced as the person grows older.

Cessation of Mental Growth

Psychologists have tried to give various ages ranging from thirteen to the early twenties or even much later as the age after which there is no further mental growth, psychologist, Sorenson (1948) has tried to arrive at some conclusion regarding the age of cessation of mental growth. He writes, ‘It is probably safe to conclude

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that a person reaches his maximum mental level around the age of twenty or perhaps a little before or a little after twenty. It is true that during the late teens there is only a little mental growth on the average—nevertheless, this small amount may be very important'.

Concluding Observations: It may be remembered that all the changes in mental development do not occur all of a sudden or they strictly conform to a specific stage. The changes that are mentioned here are no doubt, signs of increasing maturity but no distinct stages in mental development are noticeable. An individual or the child does not pass from the stage immediate and concrete to the stage of the remote or the abstract, at a particular level of his development. The process of maturity continues throughout all stages of development. At the same time, it must be kept in view that there are certain behaviour patterns and certain development trends which are absent at one stage but are visible in the next stage or still in another higher stage.

Factors Affecting Mental Development

The factors which affect mental development are as follows:

- 1. Heredity:** Intellectual development of an individual is greatly affected by the interaction between inherited intelligence and the individual's experience.
- 2. Physical growth:** There is a strong relation between physical growth and intellectual development. A healthy person is likely to have a better intelligence than a person who has a poor physique.
- 3. Physical environment:** Physical environment like fresh air, sufficient light and ample space has a great bearing on intellectual development.
- 4. Family environment:** The kind of discussions held in the family, type of reading material like books and magazines read by the family affect the intellectual development.
- 5. Socio-economic status of the family:** Parents of high socio-economic group have better access to send their children to good schools.
- 6. School environment:** The methods of teaching, availability of good reading material in the library, attitudes of teachers and school discipline affect intellectual development.

It is concluded that intellectual development is the result of a large number of factors. It is not an automatic process. It is a gradual and painstaking process.

Check Your Progress

8. What do you understand by the term, 'mental development'?
9. State any three factors which affect mental development.

4.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The four basic elements of development are growth, maturation, experience and social transmission (learning through language, schooling or training by parents).
2. The basic goal of development is to enable the individual to adjust to the environment and if needed, an individual may even change the environment.
3. The two important principles of development are Cephalocadal, and Proximodistal.
4. The factors which cause delay in the physical development are as follows:
 - (a) Poor physical conditions caused by illness, malnutrition and so on.
 - (b) Lack of opportunities to develop manual skills.
 - (c) Nagging, scolding and ridiculing of the child by parents and teachers when he does not succeed in an activity.
5. The characteristics related to a child's general development are as follows:
 - (a) Muscular development takes place rapidly.
 - (b) In the middle and later stages of childhood, coordination of hands and fingers becomes possible.
 - (c) Children take delight in strenuous physical activities.
 - (d) Children enjoy movement.
 - (e) There is an urge among children to participate in activities which involve speaking, seeing and manipulating.
6. The aspects of instinctive behaviour are as follows:
 - (a) Cognitive or knowing or the perceptual aspect.
 - (b) Affection or feeling or emotional effects.
 - (c) Conative or doing or striving or executive, active or the behavioural aspect.
7. The characteristics of social development are as follows:
 - (a) Social development begins with the infant's first contact with other people.
 - (b) Social development continues throughout life.
 - (c) Social development is the net result of the child's constant interaction with his social environment.
8. Mental development or intellectual development is the development of the mental abilities and capacities which help an individual to adjust his behaviour to the ever changing environmental conditions or enable him to accomplish a task that needs complex cognitive abilities.

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9. The factors which affect mental development are as follows:
 - (a) Heredity: Intellectual development of an individual is greatly affected by the interaction between inherited intelligence and the individual's experience.
 - (b) Physical growth: There is a strong relation between physical growth and intellectual development. A healthy person is likely to have a better intelligence than a person who has a poor physique.
 - (c) Physical environment: Physical environment such as fresh air, sufficient light and ample space has a great bearing on intellectual development.

4.8 SUMMARY

- The development of a nation depends largely upon the development of its children and there is no doubt that childhood is the foundation upon which the development of an individual depends.
- To a great extent, development of proper attitudes, habits and patterns of behaviour that are formed during the early years determine how successfully an individual will adjust to the environment as he grows older.
- The United Nations International Children Fund (UNICEF) is an important organization of the United Nations, which measures the progress of a nation on the yardstick of the development of its children.
- In the words of author, E B Hurlock (1959), the term development means 'a progressive series of changes that occur in an orderly predictable pattern as a result of maturation and experience.'
- Development is a series of orderly progression of change towards maturity. 'Orderly' refers to the arrangement of the changes.
- The term 'progressive' signifies that changes are leading forward and that the direction is towards adaptation which is conducive to survival of the individual.
- Development, growth and maturation are terms that are commonly used to convey the same meaning but there is great difference between them.
- Essentially, growth takes place when a child grows taller, and his bones, muscles and other parts of the body increase in size.
- Maturation is the unfolding of the characteristics with which the individual is endowed.
- Development involves a series of progressive, orderly and meaningful changes leading to the goals of maturity.
- Physical development is both qualitative and quantitative and implies increasing capacities and abilities, maturing, functional improvement and progress towards higher levels of potentiality and effectiveness.

- The basic goal of development is to enable the individual to adjust to the environment and if needed, an individual may even change the environment.
- Although development differs from one individual to another, it nevertheless follows a definite sequence common to the offspring of human beings.
- There are two important principles of development: (a) Cephalocadal, and (b) Proximodistal.
- By *cephalocadal* development, we mean that it has a longitudinal axis, i.e., human development is from head to foot.
- *Proximodistal* tendency means that a child develops from the centre of the body, i.e., the spinal cord to the periphery of the body, viz., the fingers.
- Principle of integration implies that the development of the child proceeds both from general to specific and from specific to general.
- Principle of spiral or non-linear development implies that if the development of the child were to be expressed graphically, it would be seen to proceed, not in a straight line (linearly), but in the form of a spiral or corkscrew.
- A renowned physicist and educator, R H Havighurst (1900–1991) has defined a development task in these words, ‘A development task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness and difficulty with later tasks’.
- A German-American developmental psychologist, Erik Erikson’s theory out of the eight stages of development of a child lays great stress on the epigenetic principle, which talks of the influence of environmental factors on the original situation.
- Physical development of the individual is important both for the individual and social development. It is also important for ethical, moral and spiritual development.
- Physical growth and development refer to processes which bring about bodily and physiological changes—which are internal as well as external—in an organism from the conception till his or her death.
- Anatomical Growth and Development is essential to understand for the purpose of understanding development as a whole.
- Emotions play an important role in life and contribute to the personal and social development of an individual.
- Continuous emotional disturbance affects the individual’s growth and development and gives rise to mental, physical, social and other problems. It also tends to hamper intellectual training.
- Emotions are the prime motive forces of thought and conduct and their control is very important.

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- There is a close relationship between the physical and emotional factors. An imbalance or disturbance in the child's physical growth will most likely be reflected in his or her intellectual functioning and personality adjustment.
- Mental development implies progressive changes in the mental process which goes on from birth to death.
- Mental development includes various aspects such as development of concepts, perception, language, memory, reasoning, thinking, imagination and intelligence.

4.9 KEY WORDS

- **Concept:** It refers to the generalized meaning that is attached to an object or idea. It is the result of one's perceptual experiences.
- **Principle of Integration:** It refers to a principle which implies that the development of the child proceeds both from general to specific and from specific to general.
- **Physical Development:** It refers to the development processes which bring about bodily and physiological changes—which are internal as well as external—in an organism from the conception till his or her death.
- **Social Development:** It refers to the development of an individual in a way in which he or she becomes a useful member of society or the group to which he or she belongs.

4.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. How has development been defined by various psychologists?
2. What are the factors which affect physical growth and development?
3. Why is physical development both qualitative and quantitative?
4. What is a developmental task?
5. List the characteristics of emotions.
6. What are the two main dimensions of physical growth and development?

Long-Answer Questions

1. 'Development is a product of maturation and learning'. Explain the statement.
2. Analyse the characteristics of development.

3. Discuss the principles of growth and development.
4. Explain the various stages of development.
5. Discuss the patterns of growth and development.
6. Identify the factors which affect the social development of children.

*Human Growth and
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4.11 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 5 LEARNING

NOTES**Structure**

- 5.0 Introduction
 - 5.1 Objectives
 - 5.2 Concept, Nature and Definition
 - 5.2.1 Transfer of Learning
 - 5.2.2 Remembering and Forgetting
 - 5.3 Theories of Learning
 - 5.3.1 Trial and Error Theory
 - 5.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
 - 5.5 Summary
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-

5.0 INTRODUCTION

It is universally acknowledged, a good memory and an efficient retentive function are of great help in everyday life to all of us who heavily lean on their facility in acquiring and retaining information. For psychologists to scientifically study human learning, retention has been defined as remembering now what has been learned before. It entails the process of preserving and maintaining effects of earlier learning experience and later using them. Memory is a comprehensive process which includes learning, retention, recall and recognition. It is the habit states of a subject that give the capability for correct occurrences of a criterion response. There is an initial acquisition session in which the subject makes a discriminative response to a stimulus, followed by a period of time. Rehearsal is used both to maintain short-term store and to transfer information about the items to a semi-permanent long-term store.

The problem of improvement in learning has been experimentally studied and the results have invariably shown wide individual differences in the rate of improvement. This is true in the acquirement of both knowledge and skill. Forgetting occurs because the information stored in the memory cannot be brought to the conscious mind. There can be a number of reasons because of which the information cannot be recalled. Failure of recollection can be partial or temporary forgetting; the failure of retention is complete or permanent forgetting.

The study of classical conditioning began in the 20th century with the work of the Noble Prize winner Russian Physiologist, Ivan Pavlov. In his experiment on a dog, Pavlov observed that just prior to being fed, the dog secreted saliva from its mouth. The dog salivated in response to a number of stimuli associated with the food. Pavlov identified many key elements that must be responsible for conditioning

to take place. Renowned psychologist, Martin Seligman and his colleagues accidentally discovered an unexpected phenomenon while experimenting on dogs using classical conditioning.

In this unit, the meaning, characteristics, types and goals of learning have been discussed. The unit will also explain the concept of transfer of learning and forgetting. The causes of forgetting and the prominent theories of learning have been explained in detail. The process of learning has also been analysed.

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5.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning and goals of learning
- Identify the characteristics and types of learning
- Discuss the concept of transfer of learning
- Analyse the causes of forgetting
- Explain the theories of learning

5.2 CONCEPT, NATURE AND DEFINITION

It is generally observed that in the determination of a child's behaviour, there is no process more important than learning. However, psychologists differ on the concept of learning. Several attempts have been made to define learning. The following definitions by various psychologists give a comprehensive view of learning.

1. **According to R S Woodworth (1945)**, 'Any activity can be called learning so far as it develops the individual (in any respect, good or bad) and makes his behaviour and experiences different from what that would otherwise have been'.
2. **H L Kingsley and R Garry**, (1946) said, 'Learning is the process by which behaviour (in the broader sense) originates or changes through practice and training.'
3. **Gates and Others** (1946) observed, 'Learning is the modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirements'.
4. **F S Freeman** (1958) defined, 'Learning is the process of developing the ability to respond adequately to a situation which may or may not have been properly encountered'.
5. **B L Hilgard** (1958) was of the view, 'Learning is the process by which an activity originates 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 responses, tendencies, maturation or temporary states of the organism (for example, fatigue or drugs)'.

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6. **H Faigan** (1958) believed, ‘Learning is a sequence of mental events or conditions leading to changes in the learner’. As a sequence of events, the learning process is as follows:
 - (i) The individual has needs and is therefore, in a state of readiness to respond. These are antecedent conditions within the learner.
 - (ii) He or she meets a learning situation or problem. A new interpretation is required because previously learned responses are not adequate for reaching the goal and satisfying his or her needs. He or she encounters something new or unexpected, and must search for a different response.
 - (iii) He or she interprets the situation with reference to his or her goals, and tries a response or responses which seem to satisfy his need. The way he or she perceives the situation and the response he or she makes depends both on his or her ‘readiness’ and on the external conditions of the situation.
 - (iv) If his or her response leads to devised goals or satisfaction, he or she will tend to interpret and respond to similar future situations in the same way. If not, he or she keeps on trying and reinterpreting until consequences are attained. The learning process is this whole sequence
7. **H J Klausmeir** (1961) opined, ‘Learning is a process whereby a change in behaviour results from some form of experience, activity, training, observation and the like’.
8. **H P Smith** (1962) observed, ‘Learning is the acquisition of new behaviour or the strengthening or weakening of old behaviour as the result of experience’.
9. According to **E A Peel** (1962), ‘Learning is a change in the individual following upon changes in the environment’.
10. **Hunter and Hilgard** (1964) opined, ‘Learning is the process by which an organism in satisfying its motivations, adopts and adjusts its behaviour, in order to overcome obstacles or barriers’.
11. **Blair, Jones and Simpson** (1964) defined ‘Any change of behaviour which is a result of experience, and which causes people to face later situations differently may be called learning’.
12. **Pressey, Robinson and Horrocks** (1967) wrote, ‘Learning is an episode in which a motivated individual attempts to adapt his behaviour to succeed in a situation which he perceives as requiring action to attain a goal’.
13. **W C Morse and G M Wingo** (1968) observed, ‘Learning can be defined as changing one’s potential for seeing, feeling, and doing through experiences partly perceptual, partly intellectual, partly emotional and partly motor’.

14. According to **J F Travers** (1972), ‘Learning is a process that results in the modification of behaviour’.
15. **Crow and Crow** (1973) opined, ‘Learning is the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes. It involves new ways of doing things, and it operates in an individual’s attempts to overcome obstacles or to readjust to new situations. It represents progressive change in behaviour. It enables him to satisfy interests to attain goals’.

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Characteristics of Learning

Authors Yoakman and Simpson enumerated nine general characteristics of learning. These are explained as follows:

- (i) **Learning is Growth:** The word ‘growth’ is generally associated not only with the body which is growing physically, but with the mental growth of an individual. Through his or her daily activities, a child grows both mentally and physically. Therefore, we say that learning is growth through experience.
- (ii) **Learning is Adjustment:** Learning helps an individual to adjust himself adequately to new situations. Children come across new situations which demand effective solutions. Life is full of experiences, and each experience leaves behind some effects in the mind, which in turn, modify our behaviour.
- (iii) **Learning is Experience:** Learning is not mere addition to knowledge and acquisition of facts and skills through drill and repetition. It is the reorganization of experience.
- (iv) **Learning is Purposeful:** True learning is based on purpose. Purpose plays a big role in learning. According to psychologist, Ryburn, ‘This purpose is always connected with the use of some instinctive power, with the use of the energy with which we are endowed with birth’. We do not learn anything and everything that comes in our way, in a haphazard manner. All school activities should be purposeful so that a child feels the real urge for learning.
- (v) **Learning is Intelligence:** Meaningless efforts do not produce permanent result as work done mechanically is without any soul. When a child learns something unintelligently, he or she is likely to forget it soon. He or she does not assimilate but simply memorizes. Only efforts made intelligently have lasting effects.
- (vi) **Learning is Activity:** Learning does not take place without a purpose and self-activity. In the teaching-learning process, the activity of the learner counts more than the activity of the teacher. This is the main principle of learning and it has been recommended by all modern educationists. In fact, all progressive methods of education such as the Dalton, the Project, the Montessori and the Basic are based on this idea.
- (vii) **Learning is both Individual and Social:** Learning is more than an individual activity; it is a social activity too. An individual’s mind is affected by the

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group mind consciously as well as unconsciously, as he is influenced by his friends, relatives, classmates, parents and so on and learns their ideas, feelings and notions. Social agencies like the family, church, playmates, social networking including media, have a tremendous influence on a child's mind.

- (viii) **Learning is the Product of the Environment:** Environment plays an important role in the growth and development of an individual. A conducive healthy and educative environment should be provided for effective learning.
- (ix) **True Learning Affects the Conduct of the Learner:** There is a change in the mental structure of the learner after every experience.

When and Where Learning Takes Place

Learning is not limited to school only; it begins long before and may continue long after school days. Thus the ability to speak one's mother tongue begins in early infancy. On the other hand, the ability to practise a profession, such as that of a doctor, is acquired after leaving the medical college. Similarly, one learns the art of walking before one goes to school. The behaviour towards the one's family is learnt at home, but to behave as a member of society, is learnt in school.

Goals of Learning

Goals of learning can be classified in three broad categories: (i) Acquisition of knowledge, (ii) Acquisition of skills, and (iii) Acquisition of attitudes and ideals.

In the following section, these categories have been discussed in detail.

- (i) **Acquisition of knowledge:** Acquisition of knowledge includes (a) Perception, (b) Conception, (c) Associative learning.
 - (a) *Perception:* Perception refers to the acquisition of specific knowledge about objects or events, directly stimulating the senses at any particular moment. An object comes before our sense organs. We get its sensation and attach meaning to it on the basis of our past experiences. This is called perception and the type of learning is known as perceptual learning.
 - (b) *Conception:* Conception means the acquisition of organized knowledge in the form of general ideas or concepts. Perception refers to an individual or specific situation and conception to general or universal situation. The child gets the perception of an apple, banana, and orange and so on and is able to locate certain general qualities in them. On the basis of these qualities, he forms a conception of fruits.
 - (c) *Associative learning:* Associative learning corresponds to memory, both as the deliberate recall and recognition, past experience and a habit or automatic memory due to association. Associative learning is fundamental to all other learning.

- (ii) **Acquisition of skills:** Acquisition of skills includes the sensory-motor processes such as writing, reading, musical performance, language acquisition in its vocal aspect, art, drawing and handwork.
- (iii) **Acquisition of attitudes and ideals:** This is present in the affective or feeling element. An ideal is a concept which is attached with some worthwhile value.

NOTES**Types of Learning**

Learning has been classified in a number of ways into various categories. However, it is difficult to divide learning into clear cut categories because one category overlaps the other. Some of the important categories are as follows:

1. **Deliberate or Conscious learning:** Deliberate or conscious learning includes learning of a skill or subject, which can be of two types:
 - (i) *Primary learning:* Primary learning includes learning of facts, principles and theories which forms the main basis of lessons.
 - (ii) *Associated learning:* Associated learning consists of learning of facts and other objective materials because they are related to primary learning and are logically brought into the lesson.
2. **Unconscious or Concomitant learning:** Unconscious or concomitant learning includes learning of likes and dislikes, attitudes. This type of learning is as important as conscious learning.
3. **Development learning:** Depending on the type of development, learning is classified into the following categories:
 - (i) Academic learning
 - (ii) Emotional learning
 - (iii) Intellectual learning
 - (iv) Moral learning
 - (v) Motor learning
 - (vi) Sensory learning
 - (vii) Social learning
4. **General concept of Learning:** General concept of learning includes categories such as Knowledge and Skills, Attitude and Value.
5. **Hierarchical learning:** An American educational psychologists, R M Gagne (1970) classified learning into eight categories: (i) Signal learning, (ii) Stimulus-Response (S-R) learning, (iii) Chain learning, (iv) Verbal learning, (v) Discrimination, (vi) Learning of concepts, (vii) Learning of principles and (viii) Problem-solving. These categories are explained in the following section:
 - (i) **Signal learning:** Signal learning is usually termed as classical conditioning which was developed by a Russian physiologist, Pavlov. In classical conditioning, unconditioned stimulus (food) and conditioned

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stimulus (sound of the bell) were paired together and presented to a dog a number of times. The result obtained was that when conditioned stimulus, i.e., CS (the sound of the bell) was presented alone, it elicited saliva from the mouth of the dog. This modification of behaviour which caused salivation to the sound of the bell was called conditioning. (More details on this are given while discussing the theory of classical conditioning).

- (ii) **Stimulus-Response (S-R) learning:** An American psychologist, Edward Thorndike initiated the study of instrumental conditioning with puzzle box experiments on cats. B F Skinner, an American psychologist conducted a series of experiments on animals and prepared ground for the application of those principles in human learning.
- (iii) **Chain learning:** Chain learning consists of motor and verbal chaining. *Verbal chaining* is connecting together, in a sequence, two or more previously learnt stimulus responses (S's - R's), in which the first member or element of the sequence seems firmly tied with the second. Some examples are: a boy and a girl, daddy and mummy, horse and buggy, etc., among others. *Motor chaining* may be illustrated with the stimulus response connections in the process of unlocking a door: (a) Key in hand, (b) Facing the lock, (c) Checking the side of the key to be inserted, (d) Inserting the key into the lock until the end of the lock is reached, and finally, (e) Pushing the door to open it. However, it must be remembered that for establishing a chain, one must be capable of performing the individual links.
- (iv) **Verbal learning:** Verbal learning can be explained by the following example: A child is shown an object, say a doll. The next time he or she sees this particular object, he will be able to say that it is a 'doll'. Thus, two chains are involved here:
 - (a) Observing response (Ss-R) connection that connects the appearance of the object and distinguishes it from other objects,
 - (b) Ss-R connection that stimulates the child himself to say 'doll'.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \Rightarrow & \text{R} \\ \text{Object} & & \text{Observing} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \text{S} & \Rightarrow & \text{R} \\ \text{Doll} & & \text{Doll} \end{array}$$

- (v) **Discrimination:** When behaviour shows a specificity of response to one given stimulus to the exclusion of others, we may say that discrimination has taken place. From the very beginning, an infant learns to discriminate between a feeding bottle and a simple bottle, between walking and talking. Gradually, the child learns to discriminate more objects and ideas. Discrimination involves higher mental processes. In discrimination, the emphasis is not on the stimulus side but on the response side and in differentiation.

(vi) **Concept learning:** In concept learning, we deal with a set of objects as the stimuli. We form concepts by finding properties which a set of objects have/share in common. Thereafter, we learn generalizations within groups and gradually learn discrimination between them. First, we learn about a dog, then various breeds of dogs and then cats.

(vii) **Learning of principles:** Learning of principles depends on learning of concept formation and other forms of learning. Principles denote regular relationship among two or more concepts.

(viii) **Problem-solving:** Problem-solving comes at the higher stage in the hierarchy of learning process. In fact, all the earlier steps lead to problem-solving.

6. Cognitive Learning: Cognitive learning is based on how an individual processes and reasons information. It is based on various factors such as memory retention, problem-solving skills and the perception of the learned material.

7. Sensory Learning: *In Sensory learning, an individual or an animal is trained to respond to changes or differences between some aspects of a physical stimulus presented to one of the sense organs.*

5.2.1 Transfer of Learning

Transfer of learning is important for future development. When we learn to perform a task, we sometimes feel that it is influenced by our previous learning. The skills acquired in one activity are possibly transferred to the next situation. It is known as transfer of learning.

According to psychologists, Sorenson (1948): ‘Transfer refers to the transfer of knowledge, training and habits acquired in one situation to another situation.’

Sometimes, we feel that our previous knowledge was actually a barrier in the present learning. Thus, transfer of learning is not always positive but can have negative effects also. So transfer of learning can be positive, negative or there can be no transfer at all.

If the previous knowledge or learning helps or benefits the current learning, then it is termed as positive transfer, if the former learning interferes or is an obstacle in the present learning, then it is termed as negative transfer and if there is no effect of past learning either positive or negative in performing the present activity, then it is called zero transfer.

In some situations, there can be both positive as well as negative transfer.

5.2.2 Remembering and Forgetting

Forgetting occurs because the information stored in the memory cannot be brought to the conscious mind. There can be a number of reasons because of which the information cannot be recalled. Failure of recollection can be partial or temporary forgetting; the failure of retention is complete or permanent forgetting.

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Forgetting is important for us also as unless we forget the incorrect responses we cannot learn the correct ones. Thus, forgetting can be considered to be a boon for us. Let us look at some of the definition of forgetting given by renowned psychologists.

Munn (1967): ‘Forgetting is the loss, permanent or temporary, of the ability to recall or recognize something learned earlier.’

Drever (1952): ‘Forgetting means failure at any time to recall an experience when attempting to do so or to perform an action previously learned.’

Does quick learning also contribute to forgetting? There is an old saying: ‘Quick learners are quick forgetters also.’ This is not always true. If a learner fully understands and grasps the information quickly, then it cannot be forgotten. Slow learning, on the other hand, may create monotony and it is a sign of unsystematic learning.

According to a German psychologist, Hermann Ebbinghaus, forgetting is a passive mental process.

On the basis of many researchers conducted, the following can be the causes of forgetting:

I. Disuse

According to the theory of disuse, any learnt material if not rehearsed or practiced regularly will decay due to disuse. This theory is also called as natural decay theory. Thus, decay theory asserts that information is forgotten because of the gradual disappearance rather than displacement of the memory trace unless some effort is made to keep it intact. Forgetting is considered to be a natural and universal phenomenon. Some psychologists also agree that with the passage of time there is a decay of the memory. The rate of decay increases with the passage of time. Ebbinghaus (1885) studied the phenomenon of forgetting. He conducted many experiments to describe the process of forgetting and plotted a curve of forgetting.

Ebbinghaus concluded that after twenty minutes of time, forty-seven percent information is forgotten. After one day sixty six per cent information is lost; after two days, seventy two percent information is forgotten; after six days, seventy five percent information decays and after thirty one days, seventy nine percent information is forgotten. Ebbinghaus plotted these results on a graph paper.

There are many arguments against the decay theory of forgetting because many psychologists assert that forgetting is not only due to disuse but also other activities after learning.

II. Interference effects

According to the interference theory of forgetting, the information cannot be retrieved not just because of the passage of time but also because there has been a new learning. New learning has a negative effect on recalling past learning. This is called as retroactive inhibition. Retroactive inhibition is effected by the similarity

between past learning and interpolated activities. Retroactive inhibition is also effected by the amount of past learning and interpolated activity.

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If the amount of interpolated activity is more than the past learning, the hindrance to recall will be more.

A second kind of interference is proactive interference or proactive inhibition. Proactive inhibition occurs before meaning of the-to-be remembered material. According to Underwood (1957), the amount of proactive interference generally climbs with increase in the length of time between when the information is retrieved.

The recency effect means the subject's ability to recall words at and near the end of a list. The primacy effect is the superior recall of words at and near the beginning of a list. Both the recency effect and the primacy effect influence the process of recall.

III. Motivated forgetting

Another facet to forgetting is the aspect of the motives of the person. The principle of repression is applicable when some memories cannot be retrieved because they cause personal discomfort. The psychoanalysts emphasize that the major cause of forgetting is repression. Repression means pushing of the experiences and thoughts into the unconscious. According to an Austrian neurologist and the founder of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud, it is natural for human beings to repress sorrowful thoughts because of the pain of the cause if remembered.

The memories are not lost but can be traced under appropriate conditions. For example, the individual forgets all personal references because of some severe emotional shock.

Check Your Progress

1. What are the two types of conscious learning?
2. How does purpose help in learning?
3. What is associative learning?
4. State the major cause of forgetting.

5.3 THEORIES OF LEARNING

Classical conditioning is a learning process in which a neutral stimulus associates with another stimulus through repeated pairing with that stimulus. The study of classical conditioning began in the 20th century with the work of the Nobel Prize winner Russian Physiologist, Ivan Pavlov. In his experiment on a dog, Pavlov observed that just prior to being fed, the dog secreted saliva from its mouth. In his experiment Pavlov daily placed meat powder in the dog's mouth, causing it to salivate. Pavlov noticed that meat powder was not the only stimulus that causes

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salivation. The dog salivated in response to a number of stimuli associated with the food. Pavlov identified many key elements that must be responsible for conditioning to take place. They are mentioned as follows:

- **Unconditional stimulus:** Unconditioned denotes unlearned or the naturally occurring stimulus, which leads to the reflex, involuntary response. Food is the unconditioned stimulus here.
- **Unconditioned response:** It is unlearned and occurs because of genetic wiring in nervous system. Salivation of the dog is an example of an unconditioned response.
- **Conditioned stimulus:** Stimulus that is able to produce a learned reflex response by being paired with the original unconditioned stimulus. Conditioned stimulus means learned.
- **Conditioned response:** It is a learned reflex response to a condition stimulus. In his experiment, Pavlov used meat powder as the original unconditioned stimulus, which produced salivation in his dog. Pavlov placed the meat powder in the dog's mouth and rang the bell. Later on, he first rang the bell and little after that he placed the food. He increased the time interval between the sound stimulus (the bell) and the food stimulus (meat powder), and noticed that the sound stimulus produced salivation. After a certain number of such paired administrations of two stimuli, Pavlov presented only the sound stimulus and every time the sound stimulus produced salivation (saliva from the dog's mouth). He called the original stimulus the unconditioned stimulus (USC) and its response the unconditioned response (UR). He called the new stimulus, the conditioned stimulus (CS) and the old response, when attached to the CS, was called conditioned response (CR).

The connection between the CS and CR—the sound stimulus and the salivary response—could be established only when the UCS—the food stimulus—was also subsequently applied. The UCS was therefore called the reinforcement stimulus. CS gained the strength or force from the UCS, which was paired with it, to produce the conditioned response. The paired presentation of the two stimuli could alone establish the new connection. The conditioned reflex principle, when applied to learning of new responses, came to be called the Conditioning Theory of Learning.

The findings of Pavlov have been tabulated in Table 5.1

Table 5.1 Conditioning Theory of Learning

Before Conditioning		
	CS (Sound)	No response or/irrelevant response.
	UCS (Food)	UCR Salivation
After Conditioning		
	CS (Sound)	CR Salivation

Classical conditioning works in the following manner:

- **Stimulus generalization:** Generalization in classical conditioning is the tendency of a new stimulus that is similar to the original stimulus to elicit a response that is similar to the conditioned response (Nicholas Jones, Ildiko Kemenes and Paul Benjamin, 2001). Pavlov found that the dog not only salivated to the tone of the bell, but also to other sounds that are similar to the original sound of the bell. The similar the bell sounded, the more the dog salivated.
- **Discrimination:** Stimulus generalization cannot continue for a long period of time. When the dog did not receive only food on hearing the similar bell, real CS was followed. With food appearing only after the real bell, the dog started to differentiate between the fake bells and the real one. This process is called stimulus discrimination; the process of learning to respond to a particular stimuli and not to others (R A Murphy, A G Baker and N A Fouquet, 2001).
- **Acquisition:** The time interval between the CS and UCS is one of the most important aspects of classical conditioning (S Kotani, S Kawahara and Y Kirino, 2002; G Weidemann, A Georgilas and E J Kehoe, 1999). Conditioned responses develop when the CS and UCS occur close together; often optimal spacing is a fraction of a second (G.A. Kimble, 1961). In Pavlov experiment, the bell rang 15 minutes before the presentation of food. The dog probably would not have associated the ringing of the bell with the food.
- **Extinction:** It means learning that the CS no longer predicts the UCS; it is not unlearning like original learning. It involves formation of a new CS-no UCS memory that inhibits expression of the CS-UCS association. Hence, the dog gradually stopped salivating to the sound of the bell. When the CS (bell) was repeatedly presented in the absence of UCS (food), the salivation (CR) died out
- **Spontaneous recovery:** It refers to the reappearance of a learned response after extinction has occurred. If Pavlov had followed the ringing of the bell with the food—after the dog had stopped salivating to the sound of the bell—the dog's spontaneous salivation would have reoccurred. This is called retraining. Retraining is made simpler by the fact that the extinguished response is not gone, just suppressed.
- **Higher order conditioning:** This occurs when a strong conditioned stimulus is paired with a neutral stimulus. The stronger CS can actually play the part of a UCS, and the previous neutral stimulus becomes a second conditioned stimulus. For example, previously the dog was conditioned to salivate at the sound of the bell. If the dog is put in a situation wherein it is exposed to a

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light followed by the bell on each trial, the light alone will eventually elicit a CR, even though it has never been paired with food. The existence of second-order conditioning greatly increases the scope of classical conditioning especially in human beings, for whom biological significant UCS occurs relatively infrequently.

Application of Classical Conditioning

The following are the applications of classical conditioning:

- **Survival value:** Classical conditioning has a great deal of survival value (Vernoy, 1995). Due to classical conditioning, we jerk our hands away before they are burned by fire. Pavlov conducted his experiments and concluded that individuals have been conditioned to respond to the sound of a buzzer, a glimpse of light, a puff of air or the touch of a hand (Woodruff-Pak, 1999).
- **Health problems and mental disorders can be attributed to classical conditioning:** B. Watson and Rosalie Rayner (1920) brought to light the role of classical conditioning in phobias (irrational fear). They conducted the 'Little Albert' that included a white rat. They concluded that if we can produce fears through classical conditioning we can eliminate them using conditioning procedure. Counter conditioning is a classical conditioning procedure for weakening a CR by associating a fear-provoking stimulus with a new response incompatible with the fear. Classical conditioning is not restricted to unpleasant emotions. We become conditioned with the pleasure moment of our life. Certain physical complaints can also be partly the products of classical conditioning. Classical conditioning can be involved in certain aspects of drug use.
- **Classical conditioning used by contemporary advertisers:** Many contemporary advertisers use classical conditioning (J Perner, 2001). For example, whenever males see a beautiful woman (UCS) their emotion or the UCR is arousal. Therefore, many times a beautiful woman (UCS) is paired with an automobile (not yet a CS). In such a case, the automobile becomes the CS that results in arousal (CR).

Recent research has shown that if the CS is encountered outside the ads, it does not predict the UCS (J R Bettman, 2001). Thus, classical conditioning may work best for infrequently encountered products and cases in which the UCS is associated with only one brand. Classical conditioning may work best for infrequently encountered products and cases in which the UCS is associated with only one brand. It also works best when the CS precedes the UCS in ads.

Instrumental/Operant Conditioning

Classical conditioning occurs with reflexive, involuntary behaviour. Learning which is due to voluntary behaviour is called operant conditioning. The concept of operant

conditioning was developed by the American psychologist B F Skinner (1938). Operant conditioning, also known as instrumental conditioning, is a form associative learning in which consequences of behaviour change the probability of occurrence of behaviour. Skinner described the term operant as the behaviour of the organism—the behaviour operates in the environment, and the environment in turn operates on the behaviour. Operant conditioning consists of voluntary behaviour that acts or operates on the environment and produces rewarding or punishing stimuli. Contingency is an important aspect of classical conditioning, the occurrence of one stimulus is dependent on the presence of another one.

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Cognitive Learning

Cognitive learning is a powerful mechanism that provides the means of knowledge and goes well beyond simple imitation of others. Conditioning can never explain what we are learning at any given time. This learning illustrates the importance of cognitive learning. Cognitive learning is defined as the acquisition of knowledge and skill by mental or cognitive processes—the procedures we have for manipulating information ‘in our heads’. Cognitive processes include creating mental representations of physical objects and events, and other forms of information processing.

Purposive Theory

An American psychologist, Edward Tolman (1932) emphasized on the purposiveness of behaviour, in other words, much behaviour is goal directed. Tolman (1948) believed that an organism’s expectations about which actions are needed to attain a goal, take the form of cognitive maps. A cognitive map is an organism’s mental representation of the structure of physical space. His experiments with rats in maze led him to conclude that rat developed mental awareness of physical space and the elements in it and then used these cognitive maps to find the food at the end of the maze, which is their goal.

By conducting experiment in latent learning, cognitive map in learning was obtained. Latent learning is unreinforced learning that is not immediately reflected in behaviour. In one study, three groups of rats in the same maze—one at a time—were studied. In the first group, each rat was placed in the maze and rewarded with food for making its way out the other side. The rat was then placed back in the maze, rewarded every time the maze was solved, until the rat could successfully solve the maze with no errors. The second group of rats was treated exactly like the first, except that they never received any reinforcement upon exiting the maze. They were simply put back in repeatedly, until the tenth day of the experiment. On the tenth day, the rats in the second group began to receive reinforcement for getting out of the maze. The third group of rats, serving as a control group, was also not reinforced and was not given reinforcement for the entire duration of the experiment. A strict Skinnerian behaviourist would predict that only the first group of rats would learn the maze successfully because learning depends on reinforcing

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consequences. At first, this seemed to be the case. The first group of rats did indeed solve the maze after a certain number of trials, whereas the second and third groups seemed to wander aimlessly around the maze until accidentally finding their way out.

On the tenth day, however, something happened that would be difficult to explain using only Skinner's basic principles. The second group of rats, upon receiving the reinforcement for the first time, should have then taken as long as the first group to solve the maze. Instead, they began to solve the maze almost immediately. Tolman concluded that the rats in the second group, while wandering around in the first nine days of the experiment, had indeed learned where all the blind alleys, wrong turns, and correct paths were in the maze. They had simply not demonstrated this learning because there was no reason to do so. The learning had remained hidden, or latent, until the rats had a reason to demonstrate their learning by getting to the food. Tolman called this latent learning.

Insight Theory of Learning

Wolfgang Kohler (1887–1967) was a Gestalt psychologist. In one of his more famous studies (Kohler, 1925), he set up a problem for one of the chimpanzees. Sultan, the chimp was faced with the problem of how to get to a banana that was placed just out of his reach outside his cage. Sultan solved this problem relatively easily, first trying to reach through the bars with his arm, then using a stick that was lying in the cage to rake the banana into the cage. As chimpanzees are natural tool users, this behaviour is not surprising and is still nothing more than simple trial-and-error learning.

Then, the problem was made more difficult. The banana was placed just out of reach of Sultan's extended arm with the stick in his hand. At this point there were two sticks lying around in the cage, which could be fitted together to make a single pole that would be long enough to reach the banana. Sultan first tried one stick, then the other (simple trial-and-error). After about an hour of trying, Sultan seemed to have a sudden flash of inspiration. He pushed one stick out of the cage as far as it would go toward the banana and then pushed the other stick behind the first one. Of course, when he tried to draw the sticks back, only the one in his hand came. He jumped up and down and was very excited. When Kohler gave him the second stick, he sat on the floor of the cage and looked at them carefully. He then fitted one stick into the other and retrieved his banana. Kohler called this Sultan's rapid 'perception of relationships' insight and determined that insight could not be gained through trial-and-error learning alone (Kohler, 1925). Although Thorndike and other early learning theories believed that animals could not demonstrate insight, Kohler's work seems to demonstrate that insight requires a sudden 'coming together' of all elements of a problem in a kind of 'aha' moment that is not predicted by traditional animal learning studies. More recent research has also found support for the concept of animal insight (B Heinrich, 2000; C

Heyes, 1998; T R Zentall, 2000), but there is still controversy over how to interpret the results of those studies (Wynne, 1999).

Learning

5.3.1 Trial and Error Theory

An American psychologist, E L Thorndike (1874–1949) was the chief exponent of the theory of connectionism or trial and error. The basis of learning, accepted by Thorndike, was an association between the sense impressions and impulses to action. This association came to be known as a ‘bond’ or a ‘connection’. Since it is these bonds or connections which become strengthened or weakened in the making and breaking of habits, Thorndike’s system is sometimes called a ‘bond’ psychology or simply ‘connectionism.’ As it believed in stimulus and response type of learning, it was also called ‘SR Psychology of Learning’. Thorndike called it learning by selecting and connecting. It is also known as trial and error theory as learning takes place through random repetitions.

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Thorndike propounded his theory on the basis of experiments conducted on cats, chickens, dogs, fish, monkeys and rats. He placed them under different learning situations and studied them carefully. With the help of these experiments, he tried to evolve certain laws and evolved his theory of connectionism or trial and error. It is interesting to know the type of experiments he carried out with these animals. One such experiment is mentioned below.

He put a hungry cat in a puzzle box. There was only one exit door which could be opened by correctly manipulating a latch. A fish was placed outside the box. The smell of the fish worked as a strong ‘motive’ for the hungry cat to come out of the box. Consequently, the cat made every possible effort to come out. Thorndike observed, the cat tries to squeeze through every opening; it claws and bites at the bars or wires, it thrusts its paws through any opening and claws at everything it could reach. In this way, it made a number of random movements. In one of such movements, by ‘chance’, the latch was manipulated; the cat came out and got its ‘reward’.

For another trial, the process was repeated. The cat was kept hungry and placed in the same puzzle box. The fish and its smell again worked as ‘motive’ for getting out of the box. It again made random movements and frantic efforts. But this time, it took less time in coming out. On subsequent trials, incorrect responses—biting, clawing and dashing gradually diminished and the cat took less time on every succeeding trial. In due course, it was in a position to manipulate the latch as soon as it was put in the box. In this way, gradually, the cat learnt the art of opening the door.

An analysis of the trial and learning indicated the following characteristics:

1. Where there is drive or motive, there is learning. In the experiment, the cat was hungry, so its motive was to get food by learning to come out of the cage.

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2. An organism makes a number of varied types of responses. The cat made these responses—clawing, scratching, walking around, pawing and pulling.
3. When some responses lead to the goal, they are known as satisfying responses. The response of pulling the string by the cat was satisfying. Some do not lead to the goal and they are known as annoying responses. The responses of clawing, pawing, scratching, and walking were annoying for the cat.
4. Satisfying responses are better learnt as they lead to the attainment of the goal.
5. Annoying responses tend to be eliminated gradually as they do not lead to the goal.

The experiment summed up the following stages in the process of learning:

1. **Drive:** In the present experiment, drive was hunger and was intensified with the sight of the food.
2. **Goal:** The goal was to get the food by getting out of the box.
3. **Block:** The cat was confined in the box with a closed door, which was the main blockage.
4. **Random Movements:** The cat persistently made random movements, by trying to get out of the box.
5. **Chance Success:** As a result of this striving and random movement, the cat, by chance, succeeded in opening the door.
6. **Selection of Proper Movement:** Gradually, the cat selected the proper way of manipulating the latch out of its random movements.
7. **Fixation:** At last, the cat learnt the proper way of opening the door by eliminating all the incorrect responses and fixing the only right responses. Now it was able to open the door without any error or in other words, it learnt the way of opening the door.

Thorndike named the learning of his experimental cat as ‘Trial and Error Learning’. He maintained that learning is nothing but the stamping in of the correct responses and stamping out of the incorrect responses through trial and error. In trying for the correct solution, the cat made so many vain attempts. It committed errors and errors before getting success. On subsequent trials, it tried to avoid the erroneous ways and repeat the correct way of manipulating the latch. Thorndike called it, ‘Learning by selecting and connecting’ as it provided an opportunity for the selection of the proper responses and corrected or associated them with adequate stimuli. In this context, Thorndike wrote, ‘Learning is connecting. The mind is man’s connection system.’ Learning is, thus, caused by the formation of connection in the nervous system between stimuli and response.

Check Your Progress

5. What is classical conditioning?
6. State any one aspect of classical conditioning.
7. How has generalization been defined in classical conditioning?

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5.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Conscious learning is of two types, i.e., primary leaning and associated learning.
2. True learning is based on purpose. Purpose plays a big role in learning. According to psychologist, Ryburn, ‘This purpose is always connected with the use of some instinctive power, with the use of the energy with which we are endowed with birth’. We do not learn anything and everything that comes in our way, in a haphazard manner. All school activities should be purposeful so that a child feels the real urge for learning.
3. Associative learning corresponds to memory, both as the deliberate recall and recognition, past experience and a habit or automatic memory due to association. Associative learning is fundamental to all other learning.
4. The major cause of forgetting is repression. Repression means pushing of the experiences and thoughts into the unconscious.
5. Classical conditioning is a learning process in which a neutral stimulus associates with another stimulus through repeated pairing with that stimulus.
6. Contingency is an important aspect of classical conditioning, the occurrence of one stimulus is dependent on the presence of another one.
7. Generalization in classical conditioning is the tendency of a new stimulus that is similar to the original stimulus to elicit a response that is similar to the conditioned response.

5.5 SUMMARY

- It is generally observed that in the determination of a child’s behaviour, there is no process more important than learning.
- If a man has not learnt the art of living harmoniously with others, he or she would be beset with difficulties than the person who has learnt to establish social relations with his or her fellows.

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- The word ‘growth’ is generally associated not only with the body which is growing physically, but with the mental growth of an individual. Through his or her daily activities, a child grows both mentally and physically.
- Learning helps an individual to adjust himself adequately to new situations. Children come across new situations which demand effective solutions.
- Learning is not mere addition to knowledge and acquisition of facts and skills through drill and repetition. It is the reorganization of experience.
- Meaningless efforts do not produce permanent result as work done mechanically is without any soul.
- Learning does not take place without a purpose and self-activity. In the teaching-learning process, the activity of the learner counts more than the activity of the teacher.
- Learning is more than an individual activity; it is a social activity too. An individual’s mind is affected by the group mind consciously as well as unconsciously, as he is influenced by his friends, relatives, classmates, parents and so on and learns their ideas, feelings and notions.
- Goals of learning can be classified in three broad categories: (i) Acquisition of knowledge, (ii) Acquisition of skills, and (iii) Acquisition of attitudes and ideals.
- Perception refers to the acquisition of specific knowledge about objects or events, directly stimulating the senses at any particular moment. An object comes before our sense organs.
- Conception means the acquisition of organized knowledge in the form of general ideas or concepts.
- Associative learning corresponds to memory, both as the deliberate recall and recognition, past experience and a habit or automatic memory due to association.
- Transfer of learning is important for future development. When we learn to perform a task, we sometimes feel that it is influenced by our previous learning. The skills acquired in one activity are possibly transferred to the next situation. It is known as transfer of learning.
- Forgetting occurs because the information stored in the memory cannot be brought to the conscious mind.
- Forgetting is important for us also as unless we forget the incorrect responses we cannot learn the correct ones.
- According to the theory of disuse, any learnt material if not rehearsed or practiced regularly will decay due to disuse. This theory is also called as natural decay theory.
- According to the interference theory of forgetting, the information cannot be retrieved not just because of the passage of time but also because there has been a new learning.

- Another facet to forgetting is the aspect of the motives of the person. The principle of repression is applicable when some memories cannot be retrieved because they cause personal discomfort.
- Classical conditioning is a learning process in which a neutral stimulus associates with another stimulus through repeated pairing with that stimulus.
- Generalization in classical conditioning is the tendency of a new stimulus that is similar to the original stimulus to elicit a response that is similar to the conditioned response (Nicholas Jones, Ildiko Kemenes and Paul Benjamin, 2001).
- Classical conditioning occurs with reflexive, involuntary behaviour. Learning which is due to voluntary behaviour is called operant conditioning.
- Operant conditioning, also known as instrumental conditioning, is a form of associative learning in which consequences of behaviour change the probability of occurrence of behaviour.
- Operant conditioning consists of voluntary behaviour that acts or operates on the environment and produces rewarding or punishing stimuli.
- Contingency is an important aspect of classical conditioning, the occurrence of one stimulus is dependent on the presence of another one.
- Cognitive learning is a powerful mechanism that provides the means of knowledge and goes well beyond simple imitation of others. Conditioning can never explain what we are learning at any given time.
- An American psychologist, E L Thorndike (1874–1949) was the chief exponent of the theory of connectionism or trial and error.
- The basis of learning, accepted by Thorndike, was an association between the sense impressions and impulses to action.
- Learning is, thus, caused by the formation of connection in the nervous system between stimuli and response.

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5.6 KEY WORDS

- **Cognitive Learning:** It refers to a powerful mechanism that provides the means of knowledge and goes well beyond simple imitation of others.
- **Cognitive Map:** It refers to an organism's mental representation of the structure of physical space.
- **Learning:** It refers to a process whereby a change in behaviour results from some form of experience, activity, training, observation and the like.
- **Perception:** It refers to the acquisition of specific knowledge about objects or events, directly stimulating the senses at any particular moment.
- **Spontaneous Recovery:** It refers to the reappearance of a learned response after extinction has occurred.

5.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the characteristics of learning?
2. How is primary learning different from associated learning?
3. What are the main types of development learning?
4. Write a short note on the concept of transfer of learning.
5. What are the key elements of classical conditioning?
6. Define operant conditioning.

Long-Answer Questions

1. How has learning been defined by various psychologists? Discuss in detail.
2. Analyse the goals of learning.
3. Explain the eight categories of hierarchical learning.
4. Discuss the causes of forgetting.
5. Explain the working of classical conditioning.
6. Interpret the characteristics of trial and error theory.

5.8 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - III

MOTIVATION, ADJUSTMENT AND PERCEPTION

UNIT 6 MOTIVATION

NOTES

Structure

- 6.0 Introduction
 - 6.1 Objectives
 - 6.2 Concept, Meaning and Definition
 - 6.3 Types of Motives
 - 6.4 Theories of Motivation
 - 6.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
 - 6.6 Summary
 - 6.7 Key Words
 - 6.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
 - 6.9 Further Readings
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6.0 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is defined as an internal process which helps an individual to move towards a goal. It is the reason for people's actions and willingness. It is derived from the word 'motive' which means to move. It directs individual's behaviour or a set of force which helps to attain the motives set by individuals. Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. It is considered as one of the main reason which inspires people to move towards the goals set by them.

Abraham Maslow, in his paper, *A Theory of Human Motivation* proposed that healthy human beings have some specific needs. These needs are arranged in a specific order such as safety needs were more primitive as compared to other needs. These needs later came to be known as 'Hierarchy of Motivation'.

In this unit, the meaning and characteristics of motivation have been discussed in detail. Maslow's five basic needs and the concept of hierarchy of motivation have been highlighted. The types of motivation and its theories have been also dealt in this unit.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of motivation
- Identify the characteristics of motivation

- Analyse Maslow's hierarchy of motivation
- Interpret the types of motivation
- Explain the theories of motivation

NOTES**6.2 CONCEPT, MEANING AND DEFINITION**

Motivation is the very heart of the learning process. Adequate motivation not only sets in motion the activity which results in learning, but also sustains and directs it. It has been stated, 'Motivation arouses interest. Interest is the mother of attention and attention is the mother of learning. Thus, to secure learning you must first catch the mother, grandmother and great grand-mother'. Motivation is an indispensable technique for learning. It energizes and accelerates the behaviour of learner. Desirable changes in learner's behaviour are only possible when a learner is properly motivated. No learning is possible without motivation.

The word motivation has been derived from the Latin word '*movers*' which means to move. Motivation is an internal force which accelerates a response or behaviour. Some learners learn the same subject-matter or task more efficiently than others, some find it more rewarding and interesting than others; and some enjoy it more than others. At any given time learners vary in the extent to which they are willing to direct their energies to the attainment of goals, due to difference in motivation.

Tremendous research has been conducted on motivation in the last five decades and a number of definitions and theories have been given to explain motivation. Author, K B Madson (1975) in his book, *Theory of Motivation* has given twenty-four definitions and theories of motivations which provide different explanations of learning and human behaviour. Some of the important definitions are given here for having an adequate understanding of the term motivation.

1. *C F Skinner* (1947): 'Motivation in school learning involves arousing, persisting, sustaining and directing desirable behaviour'.
2. *G M Blair and Others* (1947): 'Motivation is a process in which the learner's internal energies or needs are directed towards various goal objects in his environment'.
3. *J P Guilford* (1950): 'A motive is any particular internal factor of condition that tends to initiate and sustain activity'.
4. *A H Maslow* (1954): 'The self-actualization tendency is growth motivation. Self-actualization is the development of personality which frees the person from the deficiency problems of growth. Motivation is constant, never ending, fluctuating and complex and that it is an almost universal characteristic of particularly every organic state of affairs'.

5. *W A Kelly (1955)*: 'Motivation is the central factor in the effective management of the process of learning. Some type of motivation must be present in all learning.'
6. *L D Crow and A Crow (1962)*: 'Motivation is considered with the arousal of the interest in learning and to that extent is basic to learning'.
7. *K Lovell (1964)*: 'Motivation in school learning involves arousing, persisting, sustaining and directing desirable behaviour'.
8. *H W Bernard (1965)*: 'Motivation is the stimulation of actions towards a particular objective where previously there was little or no attraction to that goal'.
9. *T W Atkinson (1966)*: 'The term motivation refers to the arousal of tendency to act to produce one or more effects'.
10. *F G McDonald (1972)*: 'Motivation is an energy change within the person characterized by affective arousal and anticipatory goal relations'.
11. *C W Good (1973)*: 'Motivation is the process of arousing, sustaining and regulating activity'.
12. *D O Hebb (1975)*: 'The term motivation refers (i) to existence of an organized phase sequence (ii) to its direction and content (iii) to its persistence in given direction or stability of content'.
13. *Bernard (1980)*: 'Motivation is the stimulation of actions towards a particular objective where previously there was little or no attraction to that goal'.
14. *Arun Monappa and Mirza S Saiyadain (1985)*: 'Motivation is propensity or the level of desire of an individual to behave in a certain manner at a certain time and in a certain situation'.

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Characteristics of Motivation

The following are the characteristics of motivation:

- Motivation is arousing interest in learning.
- Motivation is sustaining interest in learning
- Motivation is directing behaviour.
- Motivation initiates and energizes activity in learning.
- Motivation leads to self-actualization in learning.
- Motivation arouses, sustains and directs behaviour.
- Motivation stimulates learning activity.
- Motivation is the arousal of tendency to act and produce result.
- Motivation is directed to a selective goal.

- Motivation provides the energy and accelerates the behaviour of the learner.
- Motivation releases the tension and helps in satisfying the needs of the learner.
- Motivation is the internal condition or factor of learning.

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Human Needs and Motivation

Abraham Maslow, an American psychologist (1954) suggested a hierarchical set of five basic needs which must be satisfied to reach the highest level of motivation. These needs are:

- (i) Physiological
- (ii) Safety
- (iii) Love and Belongingness
- (iv) Self-esteem
- (v) Self-actualization

Higher needs can be satisfied only after the lower needs are satisfied.

- (i) *Physiological Needs*: Psychological needs are like hunger, thirst and so on and serve the function of the maintenance of the organism. A severe deprivation of food, for example, can deprive the child of various opportunities of his intellectual and other developments.
- (ii) *Safety Needs*: Children want to have a safe environment. If the safety needs are not satisfied, the child feels a sense of insecurity and develops mistrust.
- (iii) *Love and Belonging Needs*: When the child has his or her sense of security and trust, he or she develops affectionate relationships with other people (parents, peers and teachers) and has the desire to belong to a wider group. Children need affection from all quarters.
- (iv) *Self-esteem*: The child at this level is able to function well in interpersonal situations. He or she develops the desire for achievement and competence, for independence and freedom, for reputation and prestige.
- (v) *Self-actualization*: This is the highest level of motivational goals. It refers to a child's desire for self-fulfilment, to realize his or her potentialities. It has a special significance at the adolescence stage.

Check Your Progress

1. What do you understand by the term 'self-actualization'?
2. How has H W Bernard defined motivation?

6.3 TYPES OF MOTIVES

In recent years, psychologists being dissatisfied with the concept of drives as an explanation of human behaviour and the concept of goal-directed behaviour as the separate explanation introduced the concept of motive which incorporates the meanings of both drive and goal-directed behaviour. Motives have been used in a different sense. The *Oxford Dictionary* defines a motive as: ‘That which moves or induces a person to act in a certain way; a desire, fear, or other emotion or a consideration of a reason which influences or tends to influence a person’s volition; also often applied to a contemplated result or object, the desire of which tends to influence volition’. In our daily life, we use the term motive as our determination to act in some specific way, to carry out an intention, to arrive at a goal. Suppose ‘A’ says that he or she has a motive to get high grade in the examination; this conveys A’s determination to reach the goal he or she has set for himself, for which he or she will plan and follow specific strategy to accomplish it. According to an American social psychologist, Theodore Mead Newcomb, motive like non-technical terms ‘want and desire’ is a word which points both inward and outward conditions such as dissatisfaction (tension and disequilibrium) and to something in the environment which serves to remove the dissatisfaction. He says that an organism is motivated when and only when it is characterized both by a state of drive and by a direction of behaviour towards some goal which is selected in preference to all other possible goals. Motive is a concept which joins together drive and goal.

Motives can be grouped in the following categories:

1. *Physiological motives*: In this category, we can put those motives which are essential for the survival of the organism. They include food, oxygen, water, sex, elimination, warmth in the body and emotions.
2. *Social motives*: Man is a social animal. He or she lives in groups which shape his or her behaviour according to a definite pattern. Social motives are learned in the social environment. They are influenced by cultural heritage and philosophy of life of the people. They are rooted in physiological motives and emerge out of them gradually with advancing age of the child. Social motives are the sources which bind human beings and social progress depends on their proper development.
- Some of the important social motives are social approval, affection, respect, prestige and money.
3. *Personal motives*: In addition to the social motives which are necessary for socialization, every person has special categories of motives which are dependent on the unique structure of the personality of the person. There may be a long list of personal motives depending upon individual differences which motivate individuals for action. Some of the common personal motives include interests, attitudes, values, goals, and self-concept.

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Another classification of motives may be made as conscious and unconscious. Conscious motives may be inferred from one's behaviour but unconscious motives influence our behaviour unconsciously and we are not aware of them.

Conscious motivation is defined as a motivation which inspires others and heightens individual's consciousness so that people can change their passion and dreams. It can be encouraged by inhabiting the heart and mind. Unconscious motivation plays an important role in Sigmund Freud theories of human behaviour. He believed that the desires of an individual have been repressed into an unconscious state which influences their actions.

6.4 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Experimental psychologists confined their studies to the phenomena of sensation and perception. They used the method of introspection which was, later on, discarded by psychologists. There was no concept of motivation in classical psychology. In the following section, we will describe different psychological explanations of motivation.

The Instinct Doctrine

One of the oldest answer to the question of 'why' of behaviour within psychology is the doctrine of instinct. Some psychologists, notably McDougall, James and Burt, advanced the theory of inborn and unlearned response tendencies which determine the behaviour of the organism. Charles Darwin was the first biologist who proved that no fundamental difference exists between man and higher animals in terms of their mental faculties. He held that the most fundamental instincts of human beings are inherited rather than acquired. McDougall, the main exponent of the doctrine of instinct, developed instinct theory in the early years of the present century. He held that instincts are the spring of human behaviour. He developed a list of 12 original instincts which was later on expanded to 18 basic propensities such as parental, gregariousness, mating, self-assertion, submission and acquisitiveness. He defined instinct as complex inherited tendencies common to all members of a species compelling each individual (i) to perceive and pay attention to certain objects and situation; (ii) to experience positive or negative emotional excitement on perceiving them; and (iii) thereupon to act in a way which was likely in the long run to preserve the individual. McDougall proposed that each instinct is accompanied by specific emotional disposition as fear with escape, anger with pugnacity and so on. These emotional dispositions get organized by experiences in the environment and form sentiments. Most of human behaviour is determined by sentiments. According to him, all behaviour is purposive. The doctrine of instinct flourished before and after the First World War but an anti-instinct movement started which is associated with the names of psychologists, Kuo and Dunlop. They rejected the theory of instinct on the following grounds:

- Each theorist developed his own list of instincts and insisted that his list alone was correct. 849 instincts had been proposed by 1924 to explain behaviour.
- Adult behaviour is generally affected by learning and experiences. It is not innate.
- A Chinese psychologist, Zing-Yang Kuo found in an experiment that kitten and rat brought together fondled each other.
- An American psychologist, J B Watson once remarked on instincts, ‘To say that animal fights because of an instinct of pugnacity . . . it is merely a redundant and circular description of behaviour’.
- Social anthropologists assert that human behaviour is shaped by cultural patterns in which the child is reared. It is not influenced by universal instincts as proposed by instinct theorists.

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Drive Concept

Being dissatisfied by the doctrine of instinct as an explanation of human behaviour, psychologists developed the concept of drive. The concept of drive became popular to explain behaviour. Drive has been defined in several ways. Author P T Young in his book, *Motivation and Emotion* listed six meanings of the term ‘drive’ as: (i) Drive is the energy which moves the body. (ii) It is internal stimulus which moves the body. (iii) It is internal tissue condition which releases energy and finally leads to activity. (iv) It is general activity. (v) It is behavioural tendencies. (vi) It is specific goal-directed activity of the organism. Finally for the purpose of human psychology he defined drive as a motivating factor within the personality, purpose, or a wish, and interest.

The concept of drive is broad and general. It has been accepted by several psychologists. Different concepts have been developed by psychologists as regards the mechanism of drive. Some think that drive is physical energy. An American academic psychologist, R S Woodworth was the first American psychologist who introduced the term ‘drive’ in psychology. He meant by ‘drive’ physical energy which activates the organism for action. Holt pointed out that drive has two meanings. One is that it is physical energy and second, it is an agency which releases stored up energy. Drive is a source of energy which is created within the body cells, organs and tissues of the body. Bodily structures determine the pattern and course of behaviour.

Drive-reduction doctrine is appealing on the theoretical level but when put into practice, many difficulties appear. The following are its imitations:

- It fails to describe the complex human behaviour.
- The proposition that there are few primary drives, out of which other motives are derived, has been seriously attacked by experimental psychologists. Harlows’ studies have proved that monkeys can learn mechanical problems in absence of drive reduction.

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- The assumption that all learning depends on drive-reduction is no longer true.
- The assertion that people will act fully to reduce drives is no longer tenable. Experiments indicate that people seek more stimulating environment rather than less. Heron in 1957 proved that normal psychological functioning seems dependent upon continual and uneasing sensory stimulation.

Need Theories

Closely related to the concept of drive is the concept of need. In a sense, both characterize a person as striving to maintain equilibrium. Both the theories were undoubtedly influenced by the ideas of Cannon, a physiologist. He described the autonomic regulatory devices that operate to keep the internal environment of the person in equilibrium, for example, sugar enters the body and the blood sugar level rises; autonomic regulatory processes effect a return of the blood sugar to its resting state. Cannon referred to those multi-farious physiological processes as 'homeostatic process'. One can think them as very much like modern feedback system such as thermostat. If homeostatic principles could accurately describe physiology of the person, it seemed reasonable by analogy to move to the psychological level that is since one could consider the person a collection of waxing and waning physiological needs seeking always to maintain homeostatic balance. One could also assume that persons could be considered as a collection of psychological needs; psychological needs then become a driving force behind human behaviour. If one could but discover what a person's needs were, one might be in a position to predict his behaviour. An American psychologist, Henry Murray developed the need theory. According to him, need is a hypothetical force that serves to organize perception, intelligence and action of the individual. Unsatisfied needs would arouse the person to work that would be sustained until satisfaction had been attained.

Several explanations of human behaviour have been developed by psychologists in recent years which throw light on the problem of motivation from different angles.

Arousal Theory

Arousal theory states that the level of arousal in an individual can influence our performance. It is known as Yerkes-Dodson Law. It asserts that the level of arousal improves the performance, however, only until the optimum arousal level is reached.

Incentive Theory

Incentive theory states that our behaviour is motivated because of incentives or reinforcements. Psychologists, Hockenbury and Hockenbury opined that, 'building on the base established by drive theories, incentive theories emerged in the 1940s and 1950s. Incentive theories proposed that behaviour is motivated by the "pull"

of external goals such as rewards, money or recognition. It's easy to think of many situations in which a particular goal such as a promotion at work, can serve as an external incentive that helps activate particular behaviours'.

Motivation

Cognitive Theory

Cognitive theory states that the behaviour is directed as a result of processing and interpretation of information. It is not observed as a mechanical or innate sense of processes but as persistent set of behaviours based on the information available. Expectations based on past experiences, helps to direct behaviour towards specific goals.

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Check Your Progress

3. What are the limitations of drive theory?
4. State the premise of cognitive theory.
5. How are conscious motives different from unconscious motives?

6.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Self-actualization is defined as a child's desire for self-fulfilment, to realize his or her potentialities. It has a special significance at the adolescence stage.
2. H W Bernard defined motivation as 'the stimulation of actions towards a particular objective where previously there was little or no attraction to that goal'.
3. The following are the limitations of drive theory:
 - (a) Drive theory fails to describe the complex human behaviour.
 - (b) The proposition that there are few primary drives, out of which other motives are derived, has been seriously attacked by experimental psychologists. Harlow's studies have proved that monkeys can learn mechanical problems in absence of drive reduction.
 - (c) The assumption that all learning depends on drive-reduction is no longer true.
4. Cognitive theory states that the behaviour is directed as a result of processing and interpretation of information. It is not observed as a mechanical or innate sense of processes but as persistent set of behaviours based on the information available.
5. Conscious motives may be inferred from one's behaviour. On the other hand, unconscious motives influence our behaviour unconsciously and we are not aware of them.

NOTES**6.6 SUMMARY**

- Motivation is the very heart of the learning process. Adequate motivation not only sets in motion the activity which results in learning, but also sustains and directs it.
- Motivation is an indispensable technique for learning. It energizes and accelerates the behaviour of learner.
- Desirable changes in learner's behaviour are only possible when a learner is properly motivated. No learning is possible without motivation.
- The word motivation has been derived from the Latin word 'movers' which means to move.
- Motivation is an internal force which accelerates a response or behaviour. Some learners learn the same subject-matter or task more efficiently than others, some find it more rewarding and interesting than others; and some enjoy it more than others.
- Psychologists, G M Blair and Others defined motivation 'as a process in which the learner's internal energies or needs are directed towards various goal objects in his environment'.
- Psychologist, J P Guilford defined motive as 'any particular internal factor of condition that tends to initiate and sustain activity'.
- Psychologist, D O Hebb states that the term motivation refers (i) to existence of an organized phase sequence (ii) to its direction and content (iii) to its persistence in given direction or stability of content'.
- Motivation provides the energy and accelerates the behaviour of the learner.
- Motivation releases the tension and helps in satisfying the needs of the learner.
- According to an American social psychologist, Theodore Mead Newcomb, motive like non-technical terms 'want and desire' is a word which points both inward and outward conditions such as dissatisfaction (tension and disequilibrium) and to something in the environment which serves to remove the dissatisfaction.
- Psychological motives are those motives which are essential for the survival of the organism. They include food, oxygen water, sex, elimination, warmth in the body and emotions.
- Social motives are learned in the social environment. They are influenced by cultural heritage and philosophy of life of the people. They are rooted in physiological motives and emerge out of them gradually with advancing age of the child.

- In addition to the social motives which are necessary for socialization, every person has special categories of motives which are dependent on the unique structure of the personality of the person.
- Another classification of motives may be made as conscious and unconscious. Conscious motives may be inferred from one's behaviour but unconscious motives influence our behaviour unconsciously and we are not aware of them.
- The concept of drive is broad and general. It has been accepted by several psychologists. Different concepts have been developed by psychologists as regards the mechanism of drive.
- Drive is a source of energy which is created within the body cells, organs and tissues of the body.
- Closely related to the concept of drive is the concept of need. In a sense, both characterize a person as striving to maintain equilibrium. Both the theories were undoubtedly influenced by the ideas of Cannon, a physiologist.
- An American psychologist, Henry Murray developed the need theory. According to him, need is a hypothetical force that serves to organize perception, intelligence and action of the individual.
- Arousal theory states that the level of arousal in an individual can influence our performance. It is known as Yerkes-Dodson Law.
- Incentive theories proposed that behaviour is motivated by the “pull” of external goals such as rewards, money or recognition.
- Cognitive theory states that the behaviour is directed as a result of processing and interpretation of information.

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6.7 KEY WORDS

- **Cognitive Theory:** It refers to a theory which states that behaviour is directed as a result of processing and interpretation of information.
- **Motive:** It refers to a way which moves or induces a person to act in a certain way; a desire, fear, or other emotion or a consideration of a reason which influences or tends to influence a person's volition; also often applied to a contemplated result or object, the desire of which tends to influence volition.
- **Motivation:** It refers to a process in which the learner's internal energies or needs are directed towards various goal objects in his environment.
- **Social Motives:** It refers to a motive which binds human beings and social progress depends on their proper development.

6.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the characteristics of motivation?
2. How is a social motive different from personal motive?
3. What are the limitations of instinct theory of motivation?
4. Write a short note on need theories.
5. What are the five basic needs according to Abraham Maslow?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Why is all behaviour purposive? Discuss with reference to instinct theory of motivation.
2. How has motivation been defined by various psychologists? Explain in detail.
3. ‘Motive is a concept which joins together drive and goal’. Elucidate the statement.
4. Discuss Maslow’s hierarchy of motivation with the help of an example.
5. What is drive concept? Explain in detail.

6.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 7 ADJUSTMENT

Structure

- 7.0 Introduction
- 7.1 Objectives
- 7.2 Concept of Adjustment and Maladjustment
- 7.3 Frustration and Conflict
- 7.4 Mental Health and Community Health
 - 7.4.1 Stress
 - 7.4.2 Coping Mechanisms
- 7.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 7.6 Summary
- 7.7 Key Words
- 7.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 7.9 Further Readings

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7.0 INTRODUCTION

Adjustment is defined as the behavioural process which helps in balancing the needs which are challenged by obstacles in the environment. It is important for humans to adjust to the environment in order to fulfill their goals and be a part of the social norms of the society. People who are unable to adjust to the environment suffer from feelings of hopelessness, difficulty in concentrating, sleeping problems, clinical depression. A psychological disorder can be characterized by the development of emotional symptoms such as anxiety, depression, stress and so on.

Mental health comprises of our emotional, social and psychological well-being. It affects how people think, act and feel. It helps an individual to determine how one handles the stress and make their choices in difficult environment. Mental health is an important aspect at every stage of life.

In this unit, the concept of adjustment and maladjustment has been highlighted. The characteristics of a well-adjusted person and the concept of mental health have been discussed in detail. The unit will also explain the forms of stress, the techniques which help to overcome challenging environment.

7.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of adjustment and maladjustment
- Interpret the characteristics of a mentally healthy person
- Discuss the causes of frustration and conflict

- Explain the concept of mental health
- Analyse the forms of stress

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7.2 CONCEPT OF ADJUSTMENT AND MALADJUSTMENT

We will in this section, discuss the concept of adjustment and maladjustment. Let us have a look at the various definitions given by renowned psychologists.

According to James C Coleman, ‘Adjustment is the outcome of the individual’s attempts to deal with stress and meet his needs; also, his efforts to maintain harmonious relationships with the environment’.

A S Gates and A T Jersild, observed, ‘Adjustment is a continual process by which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between himself and his environment’.

B Vonhaller Geuner opined, ‘We can think of adjustment as psychological survival in much the same way as biologists use the term adaptation to describe physiological survival’.

L S Shaffer opined, ‘Adjustment is the process by which living an organism maintains a balance between his needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs’.

According to H C Smith, ‘A good adjustment is one which is both realistic and satisfying. At least in the long run, it reduces to a minimum the frustrations, the tensions and anxieties which a person must endure’.

Traxler observed, ‘Occasionally, in the use of the term adjustment we imply that the most desirable state of adjustment is the one in which the individual is perfectly happy and satisfied with all aspects of his life and one in which he has reached the level in all his contacts with his environment that he would be glad to see persist through his life’.

A perusal of the mentioned definitions of adjustment leads us to the following characteristics of adjustment:

- Adjustment helps us to keep balance between our needs and the capacity to meet these needs.
- Adjustment implies changes in our thinking and way of life to the demands of the situation.
- Adjustment gives us the ability and strength to bring desirable changes in the state of our environment.
- Adjustment is physiological as well as psychological.
- Adjustment is multidimensional.
- Adjustment brings us happiness and contentment.

Therefore, a comprehensive definition of adjustment would be, ‘Adjustment is a condition or state in which one feels that one’s needs have been (or will be) fulfilled and one’s behaviour conforms to the needs of a given environment or the environment is changed (or will be changed) in a manner as it conforms to the needs of the individual’.

We will in the following section discuss the concept of adjustment in detail.

A Well-adjusted Individual: From the mentioned definition, it may be inferred that an adjusted individual seems to be one who has established some reasonable goals in line with his or her interests and abilities and who has settled down to work towards those goals seriously and steadily but without tension.

Multidimensional Nature of Adjustment: The concept of adjustment was originally biological and was concerned with adaptation to physical environment for survival. Adaptation to physical environment is, of course, a person’s important concern, but he or she has also to adjust to social pressures and demands of socialization that are inherent in living interdependently with others. The demands from a person’s internal nature, his or her physiological needs like hunger, thirst, sleep, sex and elimination and psychological needs like self-esteem and self-actualization, influence the psychological functioning and adjustment of the person.

Complicated Process of Adjustment: The process of adjustment is complicated because a person’s interaction with one demand may come in conflict with the requirement of another. Conflict can arise either because two internal needs are in opposition, or because two external demands are incompatible with each other, or because an internal need opposes an external demand.

Conflict presents special problems of adjustment. Satisfaction of one need as opposed to other needs may not provide full satisfaction. On the other hand, failure to gratify a strong need or to respond to a strong external demand may result in painful tensions. These tensions can disturb psychological comfort, produce physical symptoms, or result in abnormal behaviour.

Adjustment as an Achievement and as a Process: Adjustment may be viewed from two angles. From one angle, adjustment may be viewed as an achievement or how well a person handles his or her conflicts and overcomes the resulting tension. From another angle, adjustment may be looked upon as a process or how a person adjusts to his conflicts. In the first case, we ask whether a person’s adjustment is adequate and efficient. In the second case, we ask how does he or she adjust or what are the modes of adjustment to various demands.

Adjustment as a Psychological Process

Adjustment as a psychological process is of major interest to psychologists who want to understand a person and his or her behaviour. The way one tries to adjust himself or herself to his or her external environment, at any point of time, depends upon the interaction between the biological factors in growth and his social experiences.

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In general, there are three broad types of adjustment processes in the event of a conflict between a person's internal needs and environmental demands:

- (a) The person may modify or inhibit the internal impulse.
- (b) The person may try to alter the environmental demand in some manner so that he resolves the conflict.
- (c) The person may 'escape' through unconscious resources to mental mechanisms like fantasy, compensation, projection, rationalization and sublimation.

However, none of these modes of adjustments can be regarded as the most superior. Neither any one of them used in isolation, to the exclusion of others, is helpful in adjustment, nor is the excessive use of one of them likely to help in adjustment. Human beings in order to reconcile to their needs or the environmental demands must modify or inhibit their own impulses sometimes, alter or modify the environment at other times; and use some mental mechanisms at other times and at times a combination of all the three.

Areas of Balanced Adjustment

The following are the areas in which balanced adjustment works:

- Good physical health
- Emotionally balanced, free from conflicts and frustrations
- Work efficiency or full use of one's occupational skills
- Socially acceptable behaviour such as obtaining sexual satisfaction through marriage
- Competence in interpersonal relations
- School adjustment

Characteristics of a Well-adjusted Person

A well-adjusted person is expected to possess the following characteristics:

- Adequate philosophy of life.
- Awareness of one's assets and limitations.
- Balanced level of aspiration—neither too high nor too low.
- Satisfaction of basic needs.
- Rational and appreciative attitude.
- Flexible behaviour.
- Strong will to face challenges.
- Realistic perception of life.
- Respect for self and others.
- Warm and contented feeling with the environment.

Maladjustment means the degree of disharmony between the individual and the environment. Maladjustment always results from frustration caused by the non-satisfaction of the needs. When we are unable to provide situations in the school which enable the child to satisfy his needs, maladjustment takes place.

In the words of an associate professor of education, Herbert Sorenson, ‘A person is not in harmony with his work if it is too hard or too easy. If it is too hard or if the student has too little capacity, excessive failure is experienced. If it is too easy or if the student has too high ability for his work, the work is dull and dreading’.

NOTES**Check Your Progress**

1. What are the factors which influence psychological functioning and adjustment of the person?
2. Why is the process of adjustment complicated?

7.3 FRUSTRATION AND CONFLICT

Mental health is defined as the full and harmonious functioning of a person who is able to adequately function and is satisfied and contented with who he or she is and is able to meaningfully contribute back to the society. It is a broad concept and involves many debatable theoretical issues. There are broadly two ways of defining mental health—one as freedom from mental disorders and the other referring to various factors that directly contribute to mental health. Recently there has been a growing concern about the long neglected positive aspects of mental health and it is argued that not just absence of mental illness can be regarded as mental health as to be able to think and act positively one can attain all good things of life, including mental health.

Positive mental health may mean different things to different people. It is much easier to recognize it in persons around us through its manifestations only and that too to a limited extend. Yet, it is still remains a desired and a desirable quality.

Thus, a mentally healthy person is expected to be a well-adjusted one, living in harmony within as well as without. He or she is expected to be quiet, happy at ease with everyone and in all spheres of life (home, work, society self as a person). The two concepts positive mental health and well adjusted have much in common but the two are not identical and certainly not interchangeable. For example, one may be at odds with the society at large, yet be at peace with oneself and mentally healthy. On the other hand, one may be at peace with the world and apparently successful by ordinary standards in all spheres of life, be it home, work or society, and yet may not be a self-actualized person as his or her

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real potentials are concerned. It is not essential that one may be fully adjusted in all spheres to be mentally healthy.

A mentally healthy person is expected to be productive, constructive, and a useful member of the society at large. However, it is quite possible that a highly successful business man may be quite productive and popular in the world outside but may be unhappy, dissatisfied, and disillusioned with life in general and with himself or herself as well. He or she may still not know what after all he is looking for, or really wants to achieve and where and how he or she could achieve his or her goal.

A mentally healthy person is expected to be happy, contended, satisfied, and with a high sense of subjective well being, enjoying every bit of his or her life—drinking the ‘cup of life to the full’. But all such persons with those much sought after desirable traits may not be mentally healthy. A deluded psychotic may also think that he or she has all of them and feel on top of the world if allowed to do so.

Mentally healthy individuals are also expected to be able to stay relatively calm in the face of crises of life, show endurance towards stress and tolerance for frustration. A mentally healthy person may be striving for knowledge but all knowledgeable persons may not necessarily be mentally healthy.

A mentally healthy person is likely to have better quality of life than someone who is mentally unhealthy or sick. The quality of life is defined as the relative excellence achieved by the person in life that again is characterized by a number of related terms like satisfaction, well-being adjustment, stress tolerance and sense of belongingness. It is an elusive concept that is difficult to measure in its totality.

A mentally healthy person is not just a mere consumer of health services provided in the community, but as someone who also contributes to it and is perceived as a producer of health and providing emotional or social supportive roles. He or she makes creative use of leisure time and has no regrets whatsoever even for failures if occurred, in spite of his or her best possible efforts. He or she is someone who is able to see failures in life as learning lessons and thus, stepping stone towards success in future.

A mentally healthy individual is capable of making the best of the existing circumstances, however adverse they may be. He or she is flexible, adaptable, loving, and a lovable person. It is possible to have good positive mental health, irrespective of one’s position with regard to negative mental health, for example, even a mentally retarded child by his or her innocent smile can give a sense of happiness or usefulness in a short period which could be a joy forever. Only in this, there lies a ray of hope even for the persons with physical and mental disorders/disabilities/dysfunctions. A mentally healthy person is able to rise above his or her disabilities and handicaps and is able to help others too to overcome their disabilities and to realize one’s own potentials in spite of these limitations.

A mentally healthy individual is able to overcome frustration and resolve conflicts. Frustration is a common emotional response to some type of opposition.

It is related to disappointment and anger, and is born of the perceived resistance to the achievement of individual will. The more the obstruction, the more is the will, and the more is likely to be frustration. There are internal as well as external causes of frustration. Internal frustration might be caused by challenges in completing personal targets and desires, instinctual drives and requirements, or the situation born of dealing with perceived deficiencies, like the lack of confidence or insecurity caused by social situations. Conflict may also be one of the internal sources of frustration—when one possesses competing targets which interfere with one another, leading to cognitive dissonance. The external causes of frustration comprise situations outside the person, for example, a tough task or a blocked road. While handling frustration, some people might show passive-aggressive behaviour, thus making it hard to recognize the primary cause(s) of their frustration, since the responses are not direct.

Frustration is born when one's individual priorities are restrained, either by obstacles which thwart progress towards a desired objective or even by the absence of a suitable goal. Various types of obstacles, both internal and environmental, result in frustration. The examples of the environmental factors that cause frustration are inflation, group prejudice and discrimination, and death of near and dear ones. Physical handicaps, shortage of the required competencies and insufficient self-control are the causes of frustration which result from our own personal (internal) limitations. A person possessing sound mental health is supposed to handle these internal and external frustration-causing factors with reasonable effects.

The mental health condition defined 'frustration' as a result of psychological barriers in the form of moral or ethical constraints. The frustrations faced by the individuals largely depend upon the factors such as age, personal characteristics, particular life situations, and the society at large. Another critical aspect of modern-day mental health is the stress factor. Generally, stress is the result of the perplexing requirement of having to choose between two goals or needs. Under these circumstances, the option of one alternative means frustration regarding the other. Nonetheless, the requirement for making a choice generally involves 'cognitive strain'. It is many a time hard 'to make up one's mind', particularly when all the alternatives provide values that the others do not, and the choice is a very critical one. These aspects of the modern-day humans have definitely put a big strain on the mental health of the people around the world.

A mentally sound human being is capable of managing conflicts and confrontations. It is a common part of our lives to get into disagreement with others. It is understandable, because we are different individuals possessing distinct requirements and opinions. Mentally sound people have to ensure that the disagreements do not snowball into something unmanageable and unpleasant. In fact, one of the most suitable manners for conflict resolution is not to allow it develop into a huge problem in the first place. Basically, it needs that you reflect about the circumstances wherein you had problems and issues with others in the

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past. There is a possibility that you might find one or more themes common among these situations. Largely, conflicts happen when individual requirements and expectations from others are not fulfilled, or individual limits get stretched too far. For instance, you might need understanding or sympathy from a loved one or a close friend, and when it is not done, you might get upset. You may expect somebody to keep quiet while you are reading or putting up an effort to find the appropriate word during a conversation, only to get frustrated when they do not stay calm. Or you might expect someone's help to complete a specific task, and you are liable to get angry when they do not do so. You may also become resentful if others make too many demands of you. These are some simple examples of the things and issues that may result in conflicts, and hence, possess the propensity of affecting your mental health in varying degrees over a period of time.

The Dual Factor Theory of Mental Health

It postulates that there are different sets of factors that contribute to negative and positive mental health. Some factors when present only contribute to negative mental health but their absence does not lead to positive mental health. These negative factors could be manifested as mental disorders (like neurosis, psychoses, drug and alcohol dependence, personality disorders and psycho-physiological disorders) or as mental symptoms (like anxiety, depression, obsession, compulsion, phobias, delusion, hallucination, de-realization and depersonalization) or even as negative states (like anger, hostility, dissatisfaction, jealousy, irritability, fear, prejudices, inferiority feelings, loneliness, hate, anxiety and depression)

Similarly, some factors when present contribute only to positive mental health but their absence does not necessarily mean a negative mental health. The positive mental health could be manifested as a general feeling of well-being, self-confidence, personal competence, satisfaction, happiness, self-worth, belongingness, worthwhileness, achievement, ego strength, superego, co-operativeness, security, quality of life, creativity, originality, and productivity, adjustment (home, school, occupational, social, and personal). Many of these factors show considerable overlap. Further positive mental health is not a mere sum total of all these desirable characteristics but also of how these factors are organized to characterize an individual as a distinct entity from others and yet making the person a meaningful contributing part of this wonderful universe.

Characteristics of Mentally Healthy Individuals

Mental health is not mere absence of mental illness. A mentally healthy person has the following characteristics:

- He or she feels comfortable about himself or herself, that is, he or she feels reasonably secure and adequate.
- The person neither underestimates nor over estimates his or her own ability.
- The person accepts his or her shortcomings and has self-respect.

- A mentally healthy person feels right toward others, that is, he or she is able to be interested in others and to love them.
- The person has friendships and relationships that are satisfying and lasting.
- The person is able to feel a part of a group without being submerged by it.
- The person is able to like and trust others and takes responsibility for his neighbours and fellow-men.
- A mentally healthy person is able to meet the demands of life and is able to do something about the problems as they arise.
- The person is able to think for self and is able to take his or her own decisions.
- The person is able to set reasonable goals, shoulder daily responsibility, and regulate their emotions of fear, anger, love, or guilt.

Adjustment

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Check Your Progress

3. What are the two ways in which mental health can be defined?
4. What are the environmental factors which result in frustration?
5. State the premise of the dual factor theory of mental health.

7.4 MENTAL HEALTH AND COMMUNITY HEALTH

According to authors, Norma E Cutts and Nicholas Mosely, ‘Mental health is the various strains of the environment we meet in life and mental hygiene is the means we take to assure the adjustment’.

Right from the beginning, mental health has attracted attention of psychologists and others engaged in the study of human nature. Approaches to treatment of mentally ill people, have, however, been different from age to age and from person to person.

Notwithstanding advances in all branches of knowledge, numerous categories of people still have belief in the age-old practices such as demons, ghosts or in witchcraft as a means of driving away the evil spirit from the mentally ill.

It is interesting to note that the study of mental health dates back to the times of early Greeks. Hippocrates, a Greek physician in the 5th century BC, made the study of the mentally ill people and pointed out that they suffered from the mental illness because of a lesions in the brain or some decay of the nervous system.

In 1791, Pinel, the director of an institute of the insane in Paris, revived the ideas of Hippocrates. He insisted that the mental disorders were to be considered like disorders of the body. He classified mental disorders.

The views of early workers on mental health were either physiological or physical. Psychological explanation of mental illness was first emphasized by an

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Austrian physician in 1760. His system of treatment came to be known as mesmerism which in simple words consisted in the treatment of the mentally ill through suggestion.

Two persons namely, Janet and Morton Prince in America anticipated many ideas which later became essential elements in the system of psychoanalysis built up by Freud.

7.4.1 Stress

Stress has been defined by different authors differently. Stress is a dynamic condition in which a person is faced with constraint and strains. Stress is the discomfort of an individual. Emotional disequilibrium is stress. Real life disequilibrium will not take the form of stress unless it is realised from the heart and mind. In a wider sense, stress is discomfiture whether it creates problems or not. Stress does not always have a negative impact. It is also a source for deep inspiration to work. In that sense, stress is tension which leads to action and performance. Stress in its mild form leads employees to perform better but stress in its gravest form reduces the working capacities of employees. The Greek word for stress is ‘eustress’ which means ‘good form stress’ as ‘eu’ means good in the Greek language. Stress in a broader sense is the interaction of the organism with the environment. The interaction may be for good or bad. Stress in the initial form may be good for a person and an organization. But, it becomes troublesome for the employees if it continues for a long time. Authors, Beehr and Newman define job stress as ‘a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterised by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning’. Stress makes people deviate from normal functions. It may take the form of inspiration as well as degradation depending on how the stress achiever realises the stress. The environment, apart from mental realisation, also plays a significant role in shaping the stress behaviour. Stress, without doubt, has been accepted by many authors as having a psychological impact. There are examples when employees develop an immunity against an adverse environment and are not adversely affected by the stress factors. They do not get tense in their behaviour. However, such immunity is a rare phenomenon which is developed through constant experience and training. Renowned authors, John M Ivancevich and Michael T Matteson have defined stress as ‘an adaptive response, mediated by individual characteristics and / or psychological processes, that is a consequence of any external action, situation or event that places special physical and / or psychological demands upon a person’. This definition has clearly laid down the causes and impacts of stress. Moreover, it comes through as an adaptive response which is the result of certain external factors. As the causes are external, it has internal impacts on the body and mind. The mediation by people is a significant tenet of stress as it is the outcome of only the realisation by employees. If they do not realise the external factors as compelling, stress is not formed. The physical and psychological demands refer to the feelings of employees on their body and mind. If the demand or feeling does not occur, the stress does not take place.

Based on the physical and psychological demands, it is specifically mentioned as constraints and desire. If the employee desires something routine, it is normal behaviour. When it is realised by employees due to the external factors, it becomes constraint. Desire arises when people confront some good opportunities. The constraints and desire take the form of stress if they are not smoothed out or fulfilled in the routine way of working. Opportunities do not lead to stress; but when opportunities are not realised in the normal course of time, it is stress. Stress is visible when there is an uncertainty of the result and the result is very important. When the employees are doubtful about the result and achievement of opportunities, stress sets in. People who do not bother about uncertainty or certainty or its outcome do not feel stress. People having apathy or indifference to the outcome, i.e. about the good or bad results, have no stress. It is the uncertainty and importance of any outcome which creates stress in the person. Employees with an indifferent attitude toward promotion, performance and placement have no stress.

Stress should not be confused with anxiety or nervous tension and damaging functions. They occur as regular features in many cases and have no long-lasting impacts on the working capacities of the employees. Anxiety may remain purely psychological and may not cause any physical impact. Similarly, only physical impacts will not be stress unless it is felt by the mind and heart. The psychological and physical impacts are visible in the form of stress. Anxiety is the cause of stress but not stress itself. Similarly, stress is not simply tension. Unconsciousness is a nervous breakdown, but it is not stress, although stress may cause unconsciousness. Stress is not always bad. Distress is preventable. Stress may create anxiety, nervous tensions and damaging impacts but these are not stress itself.

Forms of Stress

Stress is understood by its different forms which may be either temporary or long-term, mild or severe.

The form of stress, if temporary and mild, cannot be distressing. One can recover from it easily. Many employees find stress merely superfluous but they suffer temporarily with such strenuous work. When an employee finds himself or herself under a new and unknown situation with a different environment, he or she faces mild stress. He or she is unable to cope with the new situation. Conflicts take place and he or she becomes restless. When he or she becomes accustomed with the new situation and adjusts to it, the stress diminishes gradually. The forms of stress are mild, stiffer and chronic.

Milder form: The milder form of stress is visible in digestive problems, high blood pressure, nervousness and inability to relax and insomnia.

Stiffer form: If the stress is not prevented at the initial milder stage, it becomes the stiffer form.

Chronic form: Chronic worry, insomnia, frustration, instability and uncooperative attitude are developed if stress is not checked initially. If high intensity stress continues for an extended duration, problems arise. An individual suffering

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from high intensity stress cannot cope with problems, as the human body cannot rebuild its strength for a longer period. Stress is removed by the body as it has the capacity of homeostasis. Long stressed body weakens people psychologically. This is known as Burn-out. The next chronic form of stress is Trauma.

Burn-out: Individuals are emotionally exhausted under ‘Burn-out’. They are detached from work and are unable to achieve their objectives. There are many jobs wherein burn-outs are experienced often. Intellectuals and professionals face burn-out because they suffer from continuous high stress. Managers and executives in an organization are prone to burn-out. They have to resort to physiological and psychological therapy to reduce the recurrence of burn-out. Employees prone to burn-out experience certain symptoms. They face irritation, errors in work, frustration and apathy. They find their job monotonous. Often, they tend to leave their present job and face many problems while taking up new jobs. Organizations have to prevent situations which indicate symptoms of burn-out. Employees are told how to cope with stressful situations. Many organizations arrange yoga and meditation programs to prevent their employees from reaching this condition of a ‘burn-out’.

Trauma: The most serious form of stress is ‘trauma’. It occurs in a hostile atmosphere wherein employees do not find adjusting easy with the continuous stress. The workplace contributes significantly in the development of trauma—the work strains, social reactions to jobs, acute insecurity at workplace and beyond. The increasing incidence of terrorism and extortion has caused trauma to highly placed employees. Any hazardous occupation creates trauma at work as well as after work. Post-traumatic stress disorder is equally disturbing. The workplace trauma is often visible in the form of harassment, wrongful termination, biased attitudes and discrimination. Many times, employees assume responsibilities and find themselves in an emotional tailspin. Organizations witnessing the symptoms of trauma take serious steps to prevent its recurrence. Satisfaction, clarification and mutual help avoid trauma.

7.4.2 Coping Mechanisms

A defence mechanism is one through the adoption of which an individual tends to defend his anxieties and inadequacies in life. It is a sort of ‘escapism’ from the realities of the situation for ‘a while’.

There are several such types related to the concept of coping mechanism. A few important techniques of adjustment which are considered significant in reducing mental tension and also maintaining mental health are described as follows:

1. **Sublimation:** Sublimation of innate drives, emotions and instincts are considered to be one of the most significant and socially acceptable techniques. This concept owes its origin to Freud. In this technique, an individual’s inner urges are diverted to appropriate channels.

Sublimation process has been described as, 'If an individual's conduct has met with interference, it may be possible to resolve the resulting conflict by a substituted form of activity'. For example, sex instinct can be sublimated by utilizing this energy in games, sports and active outdoor life. In sublimation, control is put over the natural flow of drives, needs, instincts or impulses. The person develops insight and a rational attitude and thus sublimates his lower urges towards higher ends. 'When activities are raised from lower to higher level of integration and when there is harmony in the process, the resulting behaviour is referred to as sublimated activity'.

Gregarious instinct in the adolescent is very predominant. This expresses the desire of the growing boys to behave socially. If no suitable opportunities are provided to them, they will form their own gangs. This grouping may be harmful to them and the society also. Their energies will be misdirected. Participation in suitable co-curricular activities such as self-government, social service leagues and scouting will be very conducive to sublimate the gregarious instinct.

2. **Repression:** Author, White William defined repression as, 'the forgetting or ejection from consciousness of memories of threat and especially the ejection from awareness of impulses in oneself that might have objectionable consequences'. Repression implies denying oneself of some need-gratification with a view to escape the pains of a frustrating situation. Repression may be defined as the unconscious process, by which impulses or ideas which would be painful if their reasons were known, are excluded from consciousness and direct motor expression. One gets temporary relief by pushing down the painful experiences into our unconscious mind. It is, however, clear that there is a limit to it. The flow of energy may be checked for sometime but excess of energy will burst out. The flow of water of a flowing river may be checked by building a dam over it but in case the dam is weak, it may collapse with the overflow of water. Similar is the case of our energy. Too much repression should always be avoided.
3. **Regression:** It is the process of going backward or retreating to the past. It is defined as 'an unconscious back tracking either in memory or behaviour, which might have been successful in the past'. An adolescent who has been frustrated in fulfilling his needs, may cry like a child. An old man, by talking of the 'good olden days' shows the mechanism of regression. Regression is sometimes very helpful for the teachers when they talk of their old experiences. Regression, in its extreme form, may pose a serious threat to an individual.
4. **Compensation:** It is a process of making up deficiency of one area or trait development in another. A student who does not show

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satisfactory results in the academic work may compensate this in excelling in co-curricular work like games. A father, who wanted to be a doctor but failed, enjoys his son's success as a doctor.

5. **Identification:** Hero worshipping, by an individual, is a sort of identification where an individual identifies himself with a popular hero or an actor. It is a process which may operate outside and beyond conscious awareness. In identification, an individual seeks satisfaction in associating himself in some way with the success of others.
6. **Displacement:** An individual does something as a substitute for something else. An example of displacement may be found in the behaviour of a student who is rebuked by his teacher, and when back home, he or she rebukes his or her younger brother or sister who in turn punishes the doll by throwing it away.
7. **Rationalization:** In this defence mechanism, an individual tries to justify his or her failure by giving some excuses. A student makes use of rationalization when he tries to blame his or her teacher for the hard paper or 'out of course' questions. He or she tries to disguise his or her weakness. Atypical example is '*grapes are sour*'. This mechanism is usually resorted to by those who are more adept in verbal facility. This mechanism leads to self-delusion.
8. **Projection:** In this mechanism, an individual puts the blame of his own failure on the shoulders of others or upon unfavourable factors in his environment. A student who is late in coming to school excuses himself by saying that the bus was late or running slow. The fact may be that he or she started late for school from his or her home. A player making a false stroke, projects his failure to something wrong with the racket. This mechanism should not be used too often.
9. **Withdrawal or Seclusion:** In this mechanism, an individual tends to withdraw him or her from the situation that causes failure or frustration. By doing so, he or she makes himself or herself safe by running away from difficult situations. Frequent withdrawals from difficult situations may make an individual timid and weak in facing real life situations.
10. **Sympathies:** An example will explain this mechanism. A student who is not working hard may evoke the sympathy of his colleagues by telling them that he or she remains busy in attending to his or her father who is seriously ill. Such individuals tend to magnify their difficulties and try to evoke sympathy of others.
11. **Day-dreaming:** While indulging in day-dreaming, the individual usually imagines about pleasant events. The imagining of unpleasant events is an exception. A limited amount of such fantasy serves as a constructive defence mechanism.

Check Your Progress

6. What is the most serious form of stress?
7. Define repression.
8. What are the three main forms of stress?

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7.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The factors which influence the psychological functioning and adjustment of the person are his or her physiological needs like hunger, thirst, sleep, sex and elimination and psychological needs like self-esteem and self-actualization, influence the psychological functioning and adjustment of the person.
2. The process of adjustment is complicated because a person's interaction with one demand may come in conflict with the requirement of another. Conflict can arise either because two internal needs are in opposition, or because two external demands are incompatible with each other, or because an internal need opposes an external demand.
3. The two ways of defining mental health are one as freedom from mental disorders and the other referring to various factors that directly contribute to mental health.
4. The environmental factors which result in frustration are inflation, group prejudice and discrimination, and death of near and dear ones.
5. The dual factor theory of mental health postulates that there are different sets of factors that contribute to negative and positive mental health. Some factors when present only contribute to negative mental health but their absence does not lead to positive mental health.
6. The most serious form of stress is 'trauma'. It occurs in a hostile atmosphere wherein employees do not find adjusting easy with the continuous stress.
7. Repression may be defined as the unconscious process, by which impulses or ideas which would be painful if their reasons were known, are excluded from consciousness and direct motor expression.
8. The three main forms of stress are mild form, stiffer form and chronic form.

7.6 SUMMARY

- According to psychologist, James c Coleman, 'adjustment is the outcome of the individual's attempts to deal with stress and meet his needs; also, his efforts to maintain harmonious relationships with the environment'.

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- Adjustment helps us to keep balance between our needs and the capacity to meet these needs.
- Adjustment gives us the ability and strength to bring desirable changes in the state of our environment.
- Adjustment is a condition or state in which one feels that one's needs have been (or will be) fulfilled and one's behaviour conforms to the needs of a given environment or the environment is changed (or will be changed) in a manner as it conforms to the needs of the individual.
- The concept of adjustment was originally biological and was concerned with adaptation to physical environment for survival.
- Adjustment as a psychological process is of major interest to psychologists who want to understand a person and his or her behaviour.
- Maladjustment means the degree of disharmony between the individual and the environment. Maladjustment always results from frustration caused by the non-satisfaction of the needs.
- Mental health is defined as the full and harmonious functioning of a person who is able to adequately function and is satisfied and contented with who he or she is and is able to meaningfully contribute back to the society.
- There are broadly two ways of defining mental health—one as freedom from mental disorders and the other referring to various factors that directly contribute to mental health.
- Positive mental health may mean different things to different people. It is much easier to recognize it in persons around us through its manifestations only and that too to a limited extend.
- A mentally healthy person is expected to be a well-adjusted one, living in harmony within as well as without.
- A mentally healthy person is expected to be productive, constructive, and a useful member of the society at large.
- A mentally healthy person is not just a mere consumer of health services provided in the community, but as someone who also contributes to it and is perceived as a producer of health and providing emotional or social supportive roles.
- Frustration is a common emotional response to some type of opposition. It is related to disappointment and anger, and is born of the perceived resistance to the achievement of individual will.
- Conflict may also be one of the internal sources of frustration—when one possesses competing targets which interfere with one another, leading to cognitive dissonance.
- Stress has been defined by different authors differently. Stress is a dynamic condition in which a person is faced with constraint and strains.

- Stress in a broader sense is the interaction of the organism with the environment. The interaction may be for good or bad. Stress in the initial form may be good for a person and an organization.
- Stress should not be confused with anxiety or nervous tension and damaging functions. They occur as regular features in many cases and have no long-lasting impacts on the working capacities of the employees.
- A defence mechanism is one through the adoption of which an individual tends to defend his anxieties and inadequacies in life. It is a sort of ‘escapism’ from the realities of the situation for ‘a while’.
- Sublimation of innate drives, emotions and instincts are considered to be one of the most significant and socially acceptable techniques.
- Repression implies denying oneself of some need-gratification with a view to escape the pains of a frustrating situation.

Adjustment

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7.7 KEY WORDS

- **Adjustment:** It refers to a condition or state in which one feels that one’s needs have been (or will be) fulfilled and one’s behaviour conforms to the needs of a given environment or the environment is changed (or will be changed) in a manner as it conforms to the needs of the individual.
- **Compensation:** It refers to a process of making up deficiency of one area or trait development in another.
- **Maladjustment:** It refers to the degree of disharmony between the individual and the environment.
- **Mental Health:** It refers to the full and harmonious functioning of a person who is able to adequately function and is satisfied and contented with who he or she is and is able to meaningfully contribute back to the society.

7.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. How has adjustment been defined by psychologists?
2. What are the main types of adjustment process?
3. How does a conflict arise?
4. What are the two angles related to the process of adjustment?
5. List the internal and external causes of frustration.
6. Write a short note on stress and its causes.

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Long-Answer Questions

1. Interpret the main characteristics of adjustment.
2. Explain the concept of adjustment as a psychological process.
3. Identify the characteristics of a well-adjusted person.
4. Discuss in detail the concept of mental health and its importance.
5. Analyse the characteristics of a mentally healthy person.

7.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 8 PERCEPTION

Structure

- 8.0 Introduction
- 8.1 Objectives
- 8.2 Concept, Definition, Characteristics and Nature
 - 8.2.1 Perceptual Processes
- 8.3 Errors in Perception
- 8.4 Perception Space, Motion Perception, Auditory and Visual Attention
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- 8.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
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8.0 INTRODUCTION

Perception is the process of organizing and interpreting sensory information to give it meaning. Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information. It is the process whereby stimuli are received and interpreted by the individual and translated into a response. It can also be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impression in order to give meaning to their environment. Sensory information travels rapidly through the brain because of parallel processing, the simultaneous distribution of information across different neural pathways. Gestalt psychology contends that a whole object cannot be predicted simply by adding up our perceptions of the parts. The parts may become unobservable when combined with other parts. The Gestalt theory holds that we perceive form above all else. Gestalt psychology postulates that the whole is different from the sum of its parts.

According to figure-ground concept, perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background. The figure seems to be well defined, at a definite location, solid, and in front of the ground. In contrast, the ground seems to be indefinite, shapeless and continuous behind the figure. The common outline of the figure and the ground appears to belong to the figure rather than to the ground. Though learning has a bearing on what will be perceived as the figure and what as ground, the tendency to organize their perceptions into figure and ground is inborn, natural and inherent in people. Figure-ground segregation is essential for the perception of shape.

In this unit, the meaning of perception, the process of perception and the barriers related to the process of perception have been discussed. The principles

of perceptual organization and the role of learning in perception are also analysed. The concept of perception illusion and the factors which influence perception is also explained.

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8.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of perception
- Analyse the process of perception
- Identify the barriers of perception process
- Discuss the principles of perceptual organization
- Analyse the role of learning in perception
- Explain the concept of perception illusion
- Identify the factors which influence perception

8.2 CONCEPT, DEFINITION, CHARACTERISTICS AND NATURE

The psychological processes that allow an individual to adjust his or her behaviour is called perception. The behaviour of an individual is influenced by his or her personality, motives and efforts. The behaviour and performance provides satisfaction to the employee who gets stimulated to work more and develop his or her personality and work quality.

Behaviour is a victim of the environment, which is observed in the form of stimuli. The sensory organs perceive the stimuli as per their learning and personality. The reverse functions are also correct. The perceptions, if modified through adequate and qualitative stimuli, help to develop learning and personality. Improved behaviour has better performance and rewards which provide more satisfaction to the employees. A satisfied employee tries to learn and work effectively. An organization grows with the developed employees. Perception is therefore, an important and initial step for developing an organizational behaviour. It is a cognitive process which selects, organises and interprets the stimuli. It paves the base for behaviour. Although perception may not be a real-world presentation, it is an imaginary understanding of the situation. The behaviour of an individual is guided by perception. People perceive differently as per their learning and personality. The perceptual world of a manager is different from the perceptual world of employees. Social factors also influence the perception process. Employees coming from a poor family have different perceptions of an organization from those coming from rich families. The levels of education, family background and political situation have a direct impact on the perception level.

Perception may be defined as ‘a cognitive process by which people attend to incoming stimuli, organise and interpret such stimuli into behaviour’. Perception can also be defined as ‘a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment’.

The environment is a stimulus to influence behaviour, because the stimuli are attended, organised and interpreted to arrive at certain forms of behaviour. The sensory organs, i.e. eyes, nose, ears, skin and tongue, are used to change the stimuli into behaviour through their attention, recognition and interpretation processes. The information or stimuli are not accepted by individuals unless they are evaluated and interpreted by the mental processing system. Individuals attend to the stimuli, recognise and translate them into meaningful information, which inspires them to act and perform the job. These processes are known as perpetual process. When employees get satisfaction through their performance, either by meeting their physical or mental needs, they perceive the organization in the right perspective. It helps them understand the functions and achieve satisfaction.

8.2.1 Perceptual Processes

Perception is a process of sensory organs. The mind gets information through the five sense organs, viz. the eyes, ears, nose, tongue and skin. The stimulation coming to these organs may be through action, written messages, oral communication, odour, taste, touch of the product and people. The perception starts with the awareness of these stimuli. Recognising these stimuli takes place only after paying attention to them. These messages are then translated into action and behaviour.

We will in the following section discuss the behaviour process in detail.

- **Stimuli:** The receipt of information is the stimulus which results in sensation. Knowledge and behaviour depend on senses and their stimulation. The physical senses used by people are vision, hearing, touch, smell and taste. Intuitions and hunches are known as the sixth sense. These senses are influenced by a larger number of stimuli which may be action, information, consideration and feelings. The stimuli may be in the form of objects or physical commodities. The human body itself is developed through the acceptance of the stimuli. The mind and soul are the victims of these stimuli occurring in the surroundings of the people. The family, social and the economic environment are important stimuli for the people. The physiological and psychological functions are the result of these stimuli. The intensive and extensive forms of stimuli have a greater impact on the sensory organs. The physical work environment, socio-cultural environment and other factors have certain stimuli to influence the employee’s perception. The perception begins only when people confront stimuli; that is, stimulating factors give information about the situation.

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- **Attention:** Stimuli are selectively attended to by people. Some of the stimuli are reacted to while others are ignored without being paid any attention. The stimuli that are paid attention depend purely on the people's selection capacity and the intensity of stimuli. Educated employees pay more attention to any stimuli, viz. announcement of bonus, appeal for increasing productivity, training and motivation. The management has to find out suitable stimuli which can appeal to the employees at the maximum level. If the attention of the employees is not drawn, the organization cannot expect proper behaviour from the employees. An organization should be aware of all those factors which affect the attention of the employees. During the attention process, sensory and neural mechanisms are affected and the message receiver becomes involved in understanding the stimuli. Taking employees to the attention stage is essential in an organization for making them behave in a systematic and required order.
- **Recognition:** After paying attention to the stimuli, the employees try to recognise whether the stimuli are worth realising. The messages or incoming stimuli are recognised before they are transmitted into behaviour. Perception is a two-phase activity, i.e. receiving stimuli and translating the stimuli into action. However, before the stage of translation, the stimuli must be recognised by the individual. The recognition process is dependent on mental acceptability. For example, if a car driver suddenly sees a child in front of his or her running car, he or she stops the car. He or she recognises the stimuli, i.e. the life of the child is in danger. His or her mental process recognises the danger after paying attention to the stimuli. If he or she does not pay attention to the stimuli, he or she cannot recognise the danger. After recognising the stimuli, he or she translates the message into behaviour.
- **Translation:** The stimuli are evaluated before being converted into action or behaviour. The evaluation process is translation. In the above example, the car driver after recognising the stimuli uses the clutch and brake to stop the car. He or she has immediately translated the stimulus into an appropriate action. The perception process is purely mental before it is converted into action. The conversion is translation. The management in an organization has to consider the various processes of translating the message into action. The employees should be assisted to translate the stimuli into action. For example, the announcement of bonus should be recognised as a stimulus for increasing production. The employee should translate it into appropriate behaviour. In other words, they should be motivated by the management to increase productivity. During the translation period, psychological mechanism commonly known as sensory and mental organs is affected. They influence perception. The incoming stimuli are interpreted and perception is developed.

- **Behaviour:** Behaviour is the outcome of the cognitive process. It is a response to change in sensory inputs, i.e. stimuli. It is an overt and covert response. Perceptual behaviour is not influenced by reality, but is a result of the perception process of the individual, his or her learning and personality, environmental factors and other internal and external factors at the workplace. The psychological feedback that may influence the perception of an employee may be superior behaviour, his eye movement, raising of an eyebrow and the tone of voice. The behaviour of employees depends on perception which is visible in the form of action, reaction or other behaviour. The behavioural termination of perception may be overt or covert. The overt behaviour of perception is witnessed in the form of physical activities of the employees and covert behaviour is observed in the form of mental evaluation and self-esteem. The perception behaviour is the result of the cognitive process of the stimulus which may be a message or an action situation of management function. Perception is reflected in behaviour which is visible in different forms of employees' action and motivation.
- **Performance:** Proper behaviour leads to higher performance. High performers become a source of stimuli and motivation to other employees. A performance–reward relationship is established to motivate people.
- **Satisfaction:** High performance gives more satisfaction. The level of satisfaction is calculated with the difference in performance and expectation. If the performance is more than the expectation, people are delighted, but when performance is equal to expectation, it results in satisfaction. On the other hand, if performance is less than the expectation, people become frustrated and this requires a more appealing form of stimulus for developing proper employee work behaviour and high performance. It is essential to understand the factors that influence the perception process and mould employees' behaviour towards the corporate objectives and self-satisfaction.

Several stimuli are observed everyday by individuals. They confront these stimuli, notice and register them in their minds, interpret them and behave according to their background and understanding. Employees confronted with stimuli select only a few stimuli of their choice and leave other stimuli unattended and unrecognised. Factors influencing the selective process may be external as well as internal, organizational structures, social systems and characteristics of the perceiver.

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Check Your Progress

1. What is perception?
2. Why is perception a cognitive process?

NOTES**8.3 ERRORS IN PERCEPTION**

Human beings, as complex as they are, cannot be absolutely objective about their judgements regarding their environment. There are a number of factors that taint our judgements about other people and situations. Since, the success of our efforts and decisions is contingent upon the accuracy of the information, as well as the accuracy of impressions, it is necessary to know what the barriers to perceptual accuracy are, so that these can be considered in our judgements or can be eliminated, if possible. Some of these barriers are discussed as follows:

Stereotyping

It is perhaps one of the most common barriers in accurately perceiving others. In order to simplify matters, we often tend to classify people and events into already known or perceived general categories. As an example, suppose you get into an executive's office and notice a man and a woman talking to each other besides a secretary's desk. Our first reaction would generally be to assume that the woman is the secretary and the man is the executive even though the case may be just the opposite. This reaction is based upon our stereotyped impressions that the secretaries tend to be women and executives tend to be men.

In our minds we have established certain categories with certain characteristics or attributes. For example, the category of teenagers would have such attributes as independence, parental defiance, and sexual liberation and so on. Then we infer that all persons who fit in a category exhibit the attributes that are associated with that category. Similarly, people associate some positive attributes when they meet a doctor, a judge, a company president or a college professor and negative attributes when they meet a school dropout, a drug addict or an alcoholic, even though, not all people strictly fit into these categories.

Stereotyping is particularly critical when meeting new people, since so little about them is known to us and we tend to characterize them according to certain categories on the basis of age, sex, occupation, religion and ethnic background.

Halo Effect

The halo effect refers to the tendency of judging a person entirely on the basis of a single trait that may be favourable or unfavourable. Sometimes, we judge a person by our first impression about him or her. A charming smile may create a favourable impression about the person. Similarly, if we are conscious of how a person is dressed, then a poorly dressed person will create a negative impression on us and a well dressed person would impress us positively. The halo effect can colour a person's image of others with regard to many other 'unrelated' attributes based upon the impression regarding one attribute. In studies conducted by psychologist, Asch, two sets of personality traits of the same person were given to two groups of people. The two lists were the same except that one list contained the trait 'warm' and the other list contained the trait 'cold'. This difference of one

word led to significantly different evaluations of the person. The group with the list containing the word ‘warm’ described the person as friendly, humorous, imaginative and intelligent, and the group with the list containing the word ‘cold’ described him or her as aloof, serious and without many friends.

The halo effect is also likely to be related to our self image. A manager who is always at work on time would view his subordinates who are habitually punctual more favourably than those who are not. This one trait of punctuality can influence a supervisor’s rating of the employee’s productivity and quality of his product more favourably, even if the actual performance is not up to the mark.

In our social interaction, we sometimes change our impressions about our long-term friends on the basis of a single act. Many marriages have ended in a divorce on the basis of a single unlikeable trait of the partner.

Expectancy

Expectancy is a tendency to perceive people, objects or events on the basis of what we expected them to be in the first place. It is sometimes referred to as ‘pygmallion effect’. Pygmallion was a mythical Greek sculptor who made a statue of a girl that he wanted and made her come to life so that what sprang to life was what he expected. Through expectancy, you may create certain things in the work situation that you expected to find to start with. This aspect is also known as ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’. For example, if you have become a member of an important committee and you have been told that it is a high-level committee with a membership of intellectuals, you would meet the committee members with certain perceptions and would try to find in the membership what you expect to find based upon these perceptions. On the other hand, if you were told that the committee was set up under pressure for political reasons, you would have different perceptions about the membership of the committee. Now, even if the behaviour of the members was similar, it would be interpreted according to your own preconceived perceptions.

Perceptual Defense

Perceptual defense is the mental process by which we tend to protect ourselves from such objects, situations or stimuli that are emotionally disturbing or perceptually threatening. We tend to ignore such disturbing part of our environment that does not require confrontation. For example, people who live near rail-road tracks may not even hear the trains, because they tend to become unaware or tend to ignore such happenings. Thus, through our perceptual defenses, we tend to distort or ignore information or a stimulus that is culturally unacceptable or is in conflict with our established beliefs.

In a study conducted by psychologists, Haire and Grunes, some college students were provided with a description of some factory workers. Included in the list of characteristics was the word ‘intelligent’. Since, the word ‘intelligent’ is perceived to be contrary to the established belief about factory workers, the

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students chose to reject the description by using conceptual defenses. Four types of rejections were reported:

Denial: Some of the students out rightly rejected the notion that factory workers could be intelligent.

Modification and distortion: This was one of the most common forms of defense in which intelligence was accepted but the common modification was ‘not intelligent enough’ or no initiative to rise above the group to which they belonged.

Change in perception: Some students changed their perception of the worker because of the intelligence trait, though not very enthusiastically.

Recognition, but refusal to change: Some students stated that they recognized the conflict about what they knew about the factory workers and what was told to them regarding the trait of intelligence.

Projection

Projection refers to the tendency of people to see their own traits in other people, meaning that when they make judgements about others, they project their own characteristics into others. For example, while in America, an Indian person meeting another person from India would presume certain cultural characteristics in him or her that would be similar to his or her own characteristics. Similarly, when a professor meets another professor, he or she would make the same assumptions. As the saying goes, ‘to an honest man, everybody is honest’.

In the case of undesirable or threatening circumstances, projection can serve as a perceptual defense. A person, who cheats on his or her income tax return, can justify this action by thinking that ‘everybody is doing it’. The dishonest worker may say, ‘Sure, I steal from the company, but so does everybody else’.

Check Your Progress

3. What are the four main types of rejection?
4. State the premise of the halo effect.

8.4 PERCEPTION SPACE, MOTION PERCEPTION, AUDITORY AND VISUAL ATTENTION

Most psychologists describe perception as interpretation of sensation. Perception is the process of organizing and interpreting sensory information to give it meaning. The brain automatically perceives the information it receives from the sense organs. For this reason most psychologists refer to sensation and perception as a unified information processing system (Goldstein, 2002). According to the expert, A David (1982) the purpose of perception is to represent information from the outside world internally.

Sensory information travels rapidly through the brain because of parallel processing, the simultaneous distribution of information across different neural pathways (Beauchamp and other, 2002). Sensory system is designed to process information about sensory qualities one at a time (such as the shapes of image, their colours, their movements their location and soon) would be too slow to keep us current with a rapidly changing world.

Perceiving visual stimuli means organizing and interpreting the fragments of information that the eye send to the visual cortex. Information about the dimension of what we see is critical to this process. Shape and form are critical to perception. The terms ‘shape’ and ‘form’ are often used interchangeably. There are many questions before us related to the perception of shape such as how do we perceive shape and form innate, or how do we segregate figure from ground.

The shape or form is defined as one of visual field that is set off from the rest of the field by visible cortex. The figure-ground relationship is the principle by which we organize the stand out (figure) and those that are left over (background) (refer Figure 8.1).

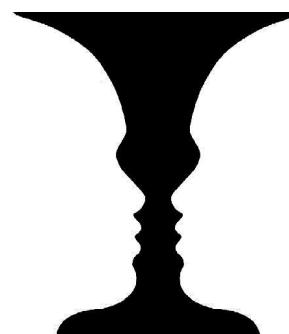


Fig. 8.1 The Figure and the Background

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Reversible Figure-Ground Pattern

Some figure-ground relationships are highly ambiguous, and it may be hard to tell between the figure and the ground. In our visual field (whatever we look out in the environment around us), some area is segregated to form figure and the rest is relegated to the background. Figure ground segregation is essential for the perception of shape. It is not only the characteristics of visual perception but comes under sense modalities. The following are the difference between figure and backgrounds:

- The ground seems to extend behind the figure.
- The figure has a shape, while the ground is relatively shapeless.
- The figure is more impressive, meaningful and better remembered.
- The figure usually tends to appear in front, the ground behind.
- The figure has some of the characteristics of a thing, whereas the background appears like unformed material.

NOTES**Principles of Perceptual Organization**

The Gestalt psychologists, Kohler, Koffka and Wertheimer (1886–1941) proposed that the brain has the innate capacity for organizing perception. According to them, people naturally organize their perceptions according to certain patterns. The main principle of Gestalt psychology is that the whole is different from the sum of its parts, for example, thousands of tiny dots (parts) make up an image (whole) in print or on computer screen. Similarly, when we watch a film, the frame moves a light source at a high rate, and we perceive the whole that is very different from the separate frames that are the film's parts. The factors that influence perception are as follows:

- **Proximity:** Tendency to perceive objects that are close to one another as a part of the same grouping (refer Figure 8.2).

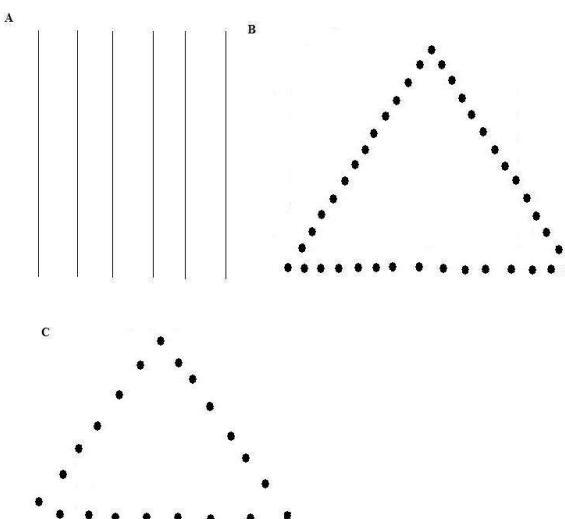


Fig. 8.2 Proximity of Figures

In Figure 8.2, A is perceived as three pairs of vertical lines not six vertical lines. The set of dots in B may be perceived as a triangle.

- **Similarity:** Similar stimuli are more likely to be perceived as one whole than dissimilar stimuli (refer Figure 8.3).

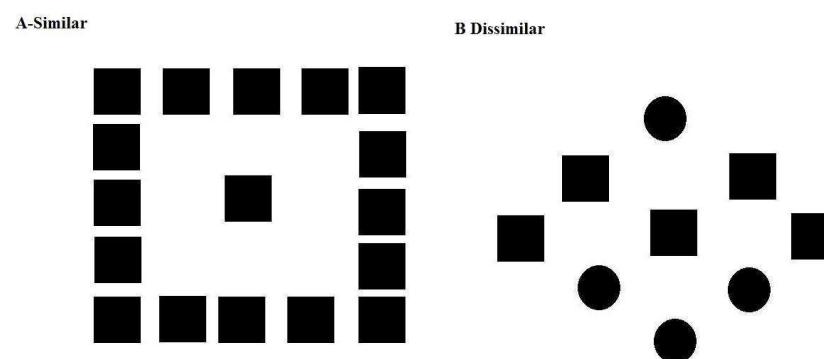


Fig. 8.3 Similar and Dissimilar Stimuli

In Figure 8.3, A and B have the same number and arrangements of parts. A is perceived as one whole. B contains dissimilar parts and it is perceived as dots and squares.

- **Good figure (Law of Pragnauz):** This law states that a perceptual organization will always be as good as the prevailing conditions allow. The simplest organization requiring the least cognitive effort will always emerge. Pragnauz means that we perceive the simplest organization that fits the stimulus pattern (refer Figure 8.4).

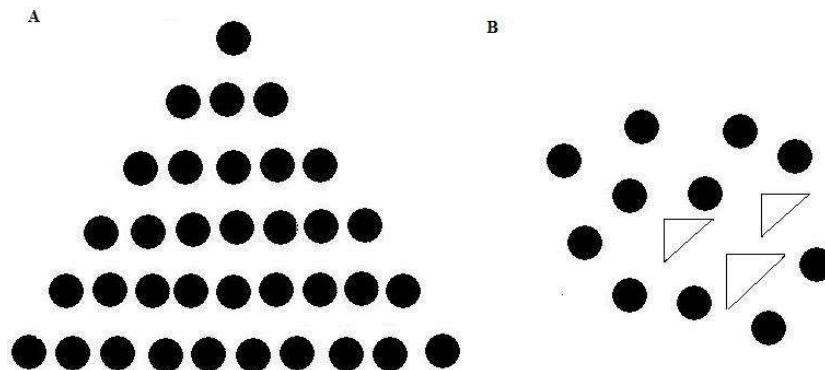


Fig. 8.4 Understanding the Law of Pragnauz

In Figure 8.4, A is perceived as a triangle of dots with another triangle. However, it fails to operate in B as the system parts have no symmetry. They do not form a good figure in B.

- **Closure:** It is the tendency to complete figure that are incomplete as it yields subjective contours (refer Figure 8.5)

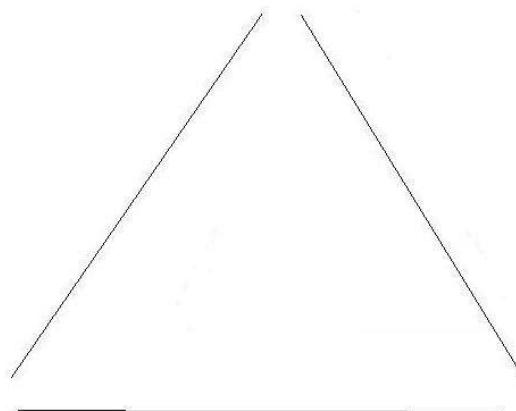


Fig. 8.5 A Closure

In Figure 8.5, the triangle does not exist; still it is compelling to perceive a triangle.

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- **Continuation common direction:** Stimuli that have a common direction are organized in perception as a separate object from those stimuli that have different direction (refer Figure 8.6).

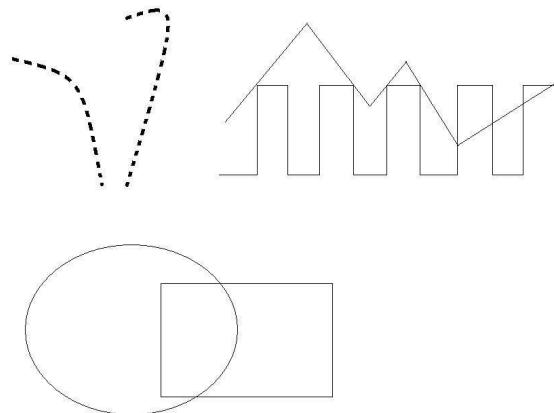


Fig. 8.6 Continuation Common Direction

In Figure 8.6, we perceive A as a set of dots forming an arc and another set of dots forming a straight line with a different direction. In B, we perceive two figures; one is superimposed on other. Each figure has different continuation. In C, we perceive a square and a circle.

- **Contiguity:** It involves nearness in space and time. Contiguity is the tendency to perceive two things that happen close together in time as being related. Usually, the first occurring event is seen as causing the second event.
- **Common region:** The coloured background defines a visible common region and tendency is to perceive objects that are in common area or region (refer Figure 8.7).

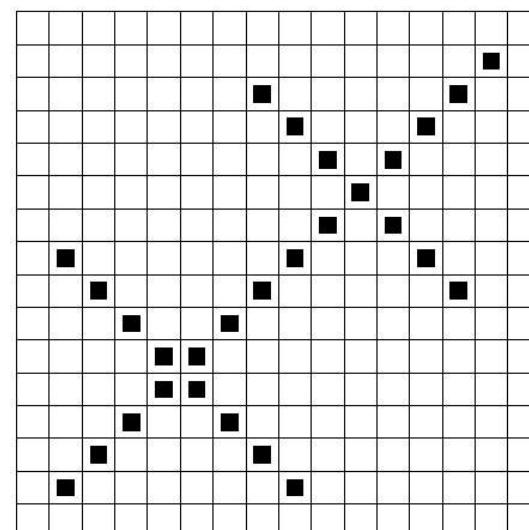


Fig. 8.7 Perception of Common Region

The stimuli sharing a common set of characteristics are likely to be organized as one object in perception. Apart from some factors are within the perceiver that account for organization in perception.

Perception

- **Past experience:** Past experience plays an important part in a person's perception. When a person already perceived a group of stimuli as one object, he is more likely to perceive it as the same object in future. If a child has been bitten by a dog, he or she perceives all dogs as dangerous and run away at their sight. His or her perception of dog becomes organized in the same way. Another child who has no such experience has a different perception of dogs.
- **Need and motives:** Need and motives are very powerful internal factors that influence perception organization. If a man is hungry, he or she is more likely to perceive the food object whereas a man having full meal is more likely to perceive objects in the shop other than food objects.
- **Depth perception:** The ability to see the world in three dimensions is called depth perception. The problem emerge from the fact that how the image of three dimensional world is projected on the two dimensional retina. The retina directly reflects height and width, but depth information is lost and reconstructed on the brain of depth cues, different kind of visual information that logically provide information about some object's depth. There are various cues for perceiving depth in the world which are as follows:
- **Monocular Cues of changes in perception:** It is known as a pictorial depth cue because they include the kind of depth information found in the photographs and painting. These are extensively used by the artists in their painting. Their cues are as follows:
 - a. **Aerial perspective:** Distant mountains often look fuzzy and building far in the distance is blurring than those that are close. However, the further away an object is the hazier the objects will appear. This is called aerial perspective.
 - b. **Linear perspective:** When parallel lines appear to be converging at a distance, it is called linear perspective. The converging line means a great distance away from where they start.
 - c. **Relative size:** When objects that people expect to be of certain size appear to be small and are, therefore, assumed to be much farther away.
 - d. **Light and shadow:** We are often aware of the source and direction of light. It is generally from above, as sunlight. The shadow cast by one object on another can indicate which object is farther away.
 - e. **Interposition:** If one object seems to be blocking another, people assume that the blocked object is behind the first one and therefore farther away. This is also known as overlap.

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- f. Texture gradient:** The object lying on a surface that look fine and smooth is texture and is perceived at a greater distance than those objects on a rough surface. The pebbles or bricks that textured, but as you look farther off into distance, their texture become smaller and finer.
- g. Motion parallax:** The discrepancy in motion of near-far objects is called motion parallax.
- h. Accommodation:** Accommodation makes use of something that happens inside the eye. The brain can use this information about accommodation as a cue for distance. Accommodation is also called muscular cue.

The Role of Learning in Perception

The older question about the role of learning in perception had to do with the nativism-empiricism problem. To what extent is perception natively given by way of our inherited structures and capacities, and to what extent is it the result of our experiences with the world of objects? However, a new question is now being asked about the reciprocal relationship between learning and perception. This new and contemporary question is: To what extent is learning, merely reorganized perception?

Learning brings about a qualitative change in regard to adaptation, the most generic and simple form of optimization at an individual scale. It implies the idea of new knowledge, in the sense that the organism links what formerly appeared as an undistinguished whole. In other words, it means the capability to change its own codes of meaning. Finally, we outline some basic ideas for modelling an adaptive sensor embedded in a (partially) autonomous system, which implies the former distinction between adaptation and learning. Cognition transfers progressively the functions of phylogenetic adaptation to the spatial and temporal scale of the lifetime of an organism (plasticity and structural change as learning in the cognitive subsystem). It establishes a new relation in the activity of the organism in its environment. This process appears internally as a functional hierarchisation, where the cognitive system operates as a function for the general regulation of the rest of them. Both aspects—the relation of the organism with its environment and the organization of its functions—are coupled in the development of a rich and versatile universe.

8.4.1 Perception Illusion

Perpetual illusions are misconceptions resulting from misinterpretation of sensory information. Sensory illusions are also known as false perception, for example, in a dark night a rope is perceived as a snake. Illusion is a normal phenomenon perceived by all human beings.

Illusion of Motion

Perception

Sometimes pupils perceive an object as moving when it is actually still. This is called the auto kinetic effect. A small stationary light in a darkened room will appear to move or drift because there are no surrounding due to indicate that the light is not moving. Another is the stroboscopes motion seen in motion picture. Another illusion related to stroboscope motion is the phi-phenomenon, in which light turned on and off in a sequence appear to move theatre marquee signs. For example, the best example of movement illusion is a series of blinking lights indicating direction.

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Geometrical Illusion

There are quite a few illusions that can be demonstrated by drawing some lines, Muller layer illusion is the most important example of that.

Moon Illusion

The moon on the horizon looks far bigger than moon in the zenith. The retinal image is the same for both the horizon. This happens due to size distance relationship.

8.4.2 Factors Influencing Perception

There are many different stimuli in the world which will catch our attention and result in perceptual organization. The stimulus characteristics are important as our own initial needs. The factors which influence perception are as follows:

Content

A given stimulus may provide radically different perception because of the immediate content. The content creates an expectation in our brain that influences our perception at a particular movement. For example, suppose in a noisy condition we hear a sentence, ‘eel is moving.’ We will perceive the word ‘eel’ as ‘wheel’ because of the content provided by the later part of the sentence. Similarly, verbally provided a stimulus, ‘eel the orange’, one will perceive ‘eel’ as ‘peel’. This is because the later word ‘orange’ provides an expectation for the perception of earlier word.

Perceptual Set

Perceptual set refers to our mental expectancies and predisposition to perceive one thing and not another. Our education, social and cultural experiences shape our perception. Our learnt assumptions and beliefs help us in organizing our perception. Similarly, stereotypes (a generalized belief about a group of people) help us to perceive people we meet first time. Much of our social interaction is determined by the stereotypes we hold about individuals and groups.

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Motives and Needs

Personal views matters a lot in perceiving things available in the environment.

8.4.3 Extra Sensory Perception

The perception without the involvement of series is called ESP. It is perception without stimulation. It includes phenomena like telepathy, clairvoyance and telekinesis, which are as follows:

- **Telepathy:** It refers to transfer of thought between two persons at different places.
- **Clairvoyance:** Perceiving objects and events without the involvement of senses.
- **Telekinesis:** Controlling objects without touching them.

ESP is considered a para-psychological phenomenon. Psychologists with scientific attitude are generally sceptical about the phenomena of ESP.

Check Your Progress

5. State the premise of the Law of Pragnauz.
6. What is the main principle of Gestalt psychology?

8.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The psychological processes that allow an individual to adjust his or her behaviour is called perception.
2. Perception is a cognitive process because it selects, organises and interprets the stimuli. It paves the base for behaviour. Although perception may not be a real-world presentation, it is an imaginary understanding of the situation. The behaviour of an individual is guided by perception.
3. The four main types of rejection are denial, modification and distortion, change in perception and recognition, but refusal to change.
4. The halo effect is the tendency of judging a person entirely on the basis of a single trait that may be favourable or unfavourable.
5. The Law of Pragnauz states that a perceptual organization will always be as good as the prevailing conditions allow. The simplest organization requiring the least cognitive effort will always emerge. Pragnauz means that we perceive the simplest organization that fits the stimulus pattern.

6. The main principle of Gestalt psychology is that the whole is different from the sum of its part, for example, thousands of tiny dots (parts) make up an image (whole) in print or on computer screen.

8.6 SUMMARY

- The psychological processes that allow an individual to adjust his or her behaviour is called perception.
- The behaviour and performance provides satisfaction to the employee who gets stimulated to work more and develop his or her personality and work quality.
- Behaviour is a victim of the environment, which is observed in the form of stimuli. The sensory organs perceive the stimuli as per their learning and personality.
- The perceptions, if modified through adequate and qualitative stimuli, help to develop learning and personality.
- Perception is therefore, an important and initial step for developing an organizational behaviour. It is a cognitive process which selects, organises and interprets the stimuli.
- Social factors also influence the perception process. Employees coming from a poor family have different perceptions of an organization from those coming from rich families.
- Perception may be defined as ‘a cognitive process by which people attend to incoming stimuli, organise and interpret such stimuli into behaviour’.
- The sensory organs, i.e. eyes, nose, ears, skin and tongue, are used to change the stimuli into behaviour through their attention, recognition and interpretation processes.
- Individuals attend to the stimuli, recognise and translate them into meaningful information, which inspires them to act and perform the job. These processes are known as perpetual process.
- Perception is a process of sensory organs. The mind gets information through the five sense organs, viz. the eyes, ears, nose, tongue and skin.
- The receipt of information is the stimulus which results in sensation. Knowledge and behaviour depend on senses and their stimulation.
- Stimuli are selectively attended to by people. Some of the stimuli are reacted to while others are ignored without being paid any attention.

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- Perception is a two-phase activity, i.e. receiving stimuli and translating the stimuli into action. However, before the stage of translation, the stimuli must be recognised by the individual.
- The stimuli are evaluated before being converted into action or behaviour. The evaluation process is translation.
- The perception process is purely mental before it is converted into action. The conversion is translation.
- Behaviour is the outcome of the cognitive process. It is a response to change in sensory inputs, i.e. stimuli. It is an overt and covert response.
- Perceptual behaviour is not influenced by reality, but is a result of the perception process of the individual, his or her learning and personality, environmental factors and other internal and external factors at the workplace.
- Perception is reflected in behaviour which is visible in different forms of employees' action and motivation.
- Most psychologists describe perception as interpretation of sensation. Perception is the process of organizing and interpreting sensory information to give it meaning.
- Sensory system is designed to process information about sensory qualities one at a time (such as the shapes of image, their colours, their movements their location and soon) would be too slow to keep us current with a rapidly changing world.
- Perceptual set refers to our mental expectancies and predisposition to perceive one thing and not another.
- The perception without the involvement of series is called ESP. It is perception without stimulation.
- ESP is considered a para-psychological phenomenon. Psychologists with scientific attitude are generally sceptical about the phenomena of ESP.

8.7 KEY WORDS

- **Contiguity:** It refers to a tendency to perceive two things that happen close together in time as being related.
- **Expectancy:** It refers to a tendency to perceive people, objects or events on the basis of what we expected them to be in the first place.
- **Perceptual Set:** It refers to our mental expectancies and predisposition to perceive one thing and not another.

- **Proximity:** It refers to a tendency to perceive objects that are close to one another as a part of the same grouping.
- **Projection:** It refers to the tendency of people to see their own traits in other people, meaning that when they make judgements about others, they project their own characteristics into others.

Perception

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8.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. How does social factor influence the perception process?
2. Why is perception a two-phase activity?
3. How does environment influence behaviour?
4. State the purpose of perception.
5. Why is shape and form critical to perception?
6. Differentiate between figure and background.
7. Write a short note on the role of learning in perception.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the perception process.
2. Analyse the barriers related to the process of perception.
3. What are the main principles of perceptual organization? Discuss in detail.
4. Interpret the factors which influence perception.
5. Explain the concept of perception illusion.

8.9 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - IV

ATTITUDE, INTELLIGENCE AND STRESS

UNIT 9 ATTITUDE

NOTES

Structure

- 9.0 Introduction
- 9.1 Objectives
- 9.2 Attitude: Concept and Nature
 - 9.2.1 Attitude Formation
- 9.3 Components and Characteristics of Attitude
 - 9.3.1 Attitude and Behaviour
 - 9.3.2 Process of Attitude Change in Individuals and Groups
 - 9.3.3 Stereotyping
 - 9.3.4 Prejudice
- 9.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 9.5 Summary
- 9.6 Key Words
- 9.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 9.8 Further Readings

9.0 INTRODUCTION

Attitude is defined as a set of beliefs, behaviours and emotions which one holds for a particular idea, person, thing or an object. It can be either positive or negative. Explicit attitudes can help us form conscious beliefs which further helps in decision-making while implicit attitude can influence our decisions. Attitude formation helps to evaluate the behaviour of people, places or things. It helps to analyse how and why an individual behave in a certain way. The theories of instrumental conditioning, classical conditioning and social learning help in the process of attitude formation.

Prejudice refers to an incorrect attitude towards a person solely on the basis of his or her social group. On the other hand, discrimination is defined as the ability to perceive and respond to differences among stimuli.

In this unit, the meaning of attitude, process of attitude formation and its characters and components have been explained in detail. The process of attitude change and the relationship between behaviour and attitude has been analysed. The unit will also explain the concept of prejudice and discrimination.

9.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

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- Discuss the meaning of attitude
 - Explain the process of attitude formation
 - Analyse the characteristics and components of attitude.
 - Explain the process of attitude change in individual and group
 - Discuss the concept of prejudice and discrimination
-

9.2 ATTITUDE: CONCEPT AND NATURE

Attitude is the bent of one's mind toward an object or subject. It involves liking or disliking people, work and objects. Desire is an attitude which directs people to adopt a certain behaviour. Attitude is developed through learning, although the family, society and nation exert great influence in the attitude formation of people. Attitude is a combination of popular belief and interest. For example, the attitude of male workers is that female workers cannot perform hard work. Attitude is learned and expressed, apart from being primarily acquired by people through interaction with members of family and society. Attitude formation is related to the cognitive aspects of behaviour. Stimuli are used for developing attitudes of employees, which are attended, recognised, evaluated and enacted. Attitude has three different formation stages, i.e. cognitive, affective and conative. Cognitive is recognizing the stimuli after paying attention to them. Affective is an evaluative process, and a conative attitude is a behaviour-based process. This section discusses the nature of attitude, attitude formation and change.

Nature of Attitude

Attitude is an unexpressed evaluative statement. It is behaviour-driven. Attitude is an expression of inner feelings towards an object or subject. People may have a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards an organization. A favourable attitude refers to liking and an unfavourable attitude indicates disliking an organization. Attitudes are generally hidden in the minds and hearts of people and may be expressed or inferred in some situations. Behaviour is the real outcome of attitude. Thus, learned behaviour is the outcome of learned attitude. A predisposition to behave in a way with respect to a given object is primarily attitude which can be developed through learning. The object or subject may be the organization, employees, relationship, monetary compensation, rewards, experience, manager's attitude and behaviour.

The first characteristic of attitude is that it is an expression directed towards some object or subject matter of behaviour. Hidden feelings always refer to

something visible or non-visible. When the feeling comes to light, it becomes attitude, which if expressed takes the form of behaviour. The attitude may take any form, namely cognitive, affective and conative. Cognitive is the primary stage of opinion or belief formation. A cognitive attitude is the secondary part of stage formation which critically examines the attitude. It may be expressed as sentiment, emotion or feeling. Conative is the behaviour aspect.

The second characteristic of attitude is that it is learned through the cognitive process. The stimuli provided by parents, friends, teachers and peers are attended, recognised and evaluated to form attitudes based on these stimuli. People initiate attitudes. The right attitudes are strengthened by the source group. They work as reinforcers of attitude. The attitude is classically learned or instrumentally accepted. The Stimuli-Response model helps understand the attitude. It becomes motivational based on reward Response Stimuli (R-S) relationship. Predisposed attitudes are modified to get reward and satisfaction. Attitude is learned for getting reward and satisfaction. All the three methods of learning—classical, operant and social—are used in the formation of attitude.

The characteristic of attitude is relatively consistent. This does not mean that it cannot be changed. Attitudes can be changed and modified, but basically they have a firm foundation in liking or disliking of objects. If employees believe that honesty is the best policy, they will always adhere to it in all situations. Some small modifications may take place as per the environment and situation. Behaviour is a true reflection or expression of attitude. Behaviour may be polished and modified more rapidly than the attitude, i.e. the formation of behaviour. Research has revealed that attitudes are consistent. Employees seek to reconcile divergent attitudes and rationalise the discrepancy.

The fourth feature of attitude is that it occurs in a particular situation, event, circumstance and environment. A particular situation may cause employees to behave in a certain fashion. Even a simple and obedient employee can be arrogant if the manager is uncordial and anti-functional. Managers emphasising performance for self-promotion may irritate sincere workers who are devoted to work for the development of the organization. The situation may cause an adverse as well as a positive attitude towards an object. The learning process, being an event, may change a negative attitude to a positive attitude. Situations also include time and place which are instrumental in shaping behaviour. Attitudes are influenced by different factors such as people, salary, workplace, relationship, object, reward, performance and so on.

9.2.1 Attitude Formation

Attitude formation is related to attitude learning and behaviour development. Attitude is formed through the three methods of learning—classical learning, operant learning and cognitive learning theory.

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In the following section, the three methods of learning are discussed in detail.

- ***Classical attitude formation:*** Some stimuli are accompanied by natural stimuli to form a habit. Unconditioned and conditioned stimuli are simultaneously demonstrated to arrive at a conditioned response. After some time, the unconditioned stimuli are withdrawn to establish a stimulus-response connection. Repetition of conditioned stimuli and response provides an opportunity to form the desirable attitude. Conditioned stimuli through repetition and reinforcements result in a favourable attitude. This is known as stimulus generation and attitude formation.
- ***Instrument or operant attitude formation:*** The attitude is developed to achieve a certain reward or response. Employees work hard to get more money. The attitudes of hardwork and sincerity are developed to achieve rewards and responses. Similarly managers fully utilise their time for getting distinctive recognition in the organization. If the rewards are not attached, the conditioned attitude may not take the form of a habit. Positive and negative reinforcements help attitude formation. The way in which stimuli is administered creates a positive or negative attitude. Therefore, an organization has to be very careful in administering the stimuli and response or reward in such a way as to create a positive attitude. Once a negative attitude is developed, it is very difficult to be changed.
- ***Cognitive attitude formation:*** Employees have the tendency of information search and their cognition. If they find their problems solved by certain behaviour, they develop positive attitudes and otherwise develop negative attitudes. Cognitive attitude is based on observation and self-realisation of an object, whether satisfactory or not. If more and more information is available about an object, the attitude developed will be much stronger. Society and past experience provide an opportunity for cognition of knowledge or beliefs.

The direct and indirect experiences of employees whether it is within the organization, management, working conditions and pay role influence attitude formation. Family members and friends also stimulate attitude formation. They provide basic values which are sources of attitude. Attitudes are the reflection or expression of general values. People tend to know and understand the persons who come in contact with them. This cognitive need helps in attitude formation. Self-images and inner feelings are strengthened to give birth to attitudes. Employees have changing behaviour patterns and conflicting attitudes which may produce new attitudes. Personality factors and components are important deciding factors of attitude. Employees having different personality traits have different attitudes.

Check Your Progress

1. What are the three main stages of attitude formation?
2. State the basis of cognitive attitude.

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9.3 COMPONENTS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDE

We will in this section discuss the components and characteristics of attitude.

Characteristics of an attitude

- It is a point of view, substantiated or otherwise, true or false which one holds towards an idea, object, or person.
- It includes certain aspects of personality such as interest, appreciations and social conduct.
- An attitude is learnt.
- An attitude is adopted.
- An attitude has aspects such as, direction, intensity, generality or specificity.

Attitude scales have been prepared for the measurement of attitude. The two most frequently used methods for the measurement of social attitude are: (a) The Method of Equal Appearing Intervals developed by Thurston and (b) The Method of Summated Ratings developed by Likert. A number of statements are included in the tests. The individuals respond to each.

An attitude has a well-defined object of reference. For example, one's views regarding religious customs or democracy are attitudes.

Components of attitudes

Attitudes consist of three basic components which are discussed as follows:

- 1. Emotional component:** It involves a person's feelings, or affect—positive, neutral, or negative—about an object. Thus, emotion is given the greatest attention in the organizational behaviour literature in relation to job satisfaction.

In addition, the expression of emotions—positive, like a customer service representative; negative, like a bill collector or a police officer; or neutral, like an academic administrator or public servant—is also important to work behaviour.

- 2. Cognitive component:** It comprises the beliefs and information the individual has about the object. A teacher may believe that six months intensive practice

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teaching is necessary for a pupil teacher to start teaching. In reality, the average teacher may be able to start the teaching immediately. Yet, the information the teacher is using (that six months is necessary) is the key to his/her attitude about training.

- 3. Behavioural component:** It consists of a person's tendencies to behave in a particular way towards an object. For example the teacher in the above paragraph may assign two weeks of machine training to all his or her new students.

9.3.1 Attitude and Behaviour

One tends to assume that people behave in accordance with their attitudes. However, social psychologists have found that attitudes and actual behaviour are not always perfectly aligned. After all, plenty of people support a particular candidate or political party and yet fail to go out and vote.

Researchers have discovered that people are more likely to behave according to their attitudes under certain conditions:

- When attitudes are the result of personal experience
- When we are an expert in the subject
- When we expect a favourable outcome
- When the attitudes are repeatedly expressed
- When one stands to win or lose something due to a certain issue

In some cases, people may actually alter their attitudes in order to better align them with their behaviour. Cognitive dissonance is a phenomenon in which a person experiences psychological distress due to conflicting thoughts or beliefs. In order to reduce this tension, people change their attitudes to reflect their other beliefs or actual behaviours.

Suppose an individual who has placed a high value on financial security, but starts dating someone who is very financially unstable. In order to reduce the tension caused by the conflicting beliefs and behaviour, one has two options. One may choose to end the relationship and seek out a partner who is more financially secure, or we can deemphasize the importance of fiscal stability. In order to minimize the dissonance between one's conflicting attitudes and behaviour, one either needs to change the attitude or change our actions.

9.3.2 Process of Attitude Change in Individuals and Groups

While attitudes can have a powerful effect on behaviour, they are not set in stone. The same influences that lead to attitude formation can also create attitude change.

(a) Learning Theory of Attitude Change

Classical conditioning, operant conditioning (through reinforcement and punishment), and observational learning can be used to bring about attitude change.

Classical conditioning can be used to create positive emotional reactions to an object, person, or event by associating positive feelings with the target object. Operant conditioning can be used to strengthen desirable attitudes and weaken undesirable ones. People can also change their attitudes after observing the behaviour of others.

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(b) Elaboration Likelihood Theory of Attitude Change

Theory of attitude change of persuasion suggests that people can alter their attitudes in two ways. First, they can be motivated to listen and think about the message, thus, leading to an attitude shift. Or, they might be influenced by characteristics of the speaker, leading to a temporary or surface shift in attitude. Messages that are thought-provoking and that appeal to logic are more likely to lead to permanent changes in attitudes.

(c) Dissonance Theory of Attitude Change

Dissonance Theory of Attitude Change suggests that one can also change their attitudes when they have conflicting beliefs about a topic. In order to reduce the tension created by these incompatible beliefs, people often shift their attitude. This can be understood with concept map described in Figure 9.1.

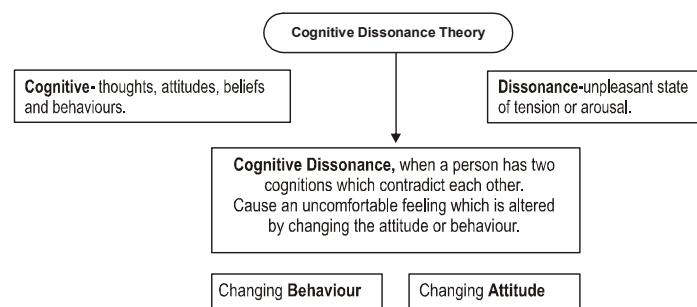


Fig. 9.1 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

(d) Beliefs and Attitudes

One tends to make assumptions about a person's attitudes and beliefs based on a known belief. For example, if one knows one's colleague is against abortion, one might conclude that he or she believes in gun control, is against capital punishment, and believes drugs use should be severely penalized. This way of thinking is based on cognitive consistency—the theory that all people try to be consistent in their beliefs and attitudes as reflected by the consistency of their behaviour.

(e) Consistency between Beliefs and Attitudes

One way to look at the consistency between beliefs and attitudes is to examine how people rationalize things. If one believes that a particular television produces the best picture, colour, and sound, one starts to persuade oneself that these are the most desirable qualities. Wishful thinking, on the other hand is when you believe

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that the television is acceptable; therefore, one persuades self that it has the qualities one is looking for and is indeed acceptable. Both rationalization and wishful thinking show how one can affect the other, and in turn, account for how one perceive things on a somewhat unrealistic basis.

(f) Consistency between Attitudes and Behaviour

Attitudes are a combination of beliefs and feelings and can be affected when confronted with social pressures. An example of inconsistency between attitudes and behaviour can be seen in a study conducted by psychologist and author, R Lappierre during the 1930s and published in the journal, *Social Forces*. A white professor travelled the United States with a young Chinese couple. At that time, prejudice against Asians was strong and there was no law against denying guests accommodations based on race. The three commuters stopped at over 200 hotels, motels, and restaurants and were served at all the restaurants and all but one hotel without any hassles. Later, a letter was sent to all the businesses that they visited asking them if they would be willing to provide services to a Chinese couple. Of the 128 replies received, 92 per cent said they would not. In conclusion, the business owners displayed behaviour that was far different from their actual beliefs.

Similarly, peer pressure can induce actions that aren't consistent with what one believes, but are consistent with one's attitudes toward social situations and what others think of you. Teenagers often drink alcohol to 'fit in' and may put their beliefs aside in order to conform to the social pressure. Although attitudes don't always predict behaviour, attitudes based on direct experience can influence it. For instance, a person whose mother died in a drunk-driving accident may advocate harsher penalties for drunk drivers and take part in the annual drunk-driving awareness campaign.

One of the chief objectives of the society is to develop the desirable attitudes among its citizens. It is therefore, obvious that the teachers must understand the various dimensions of an attitude. It is also to be kept in view that one is required to develop several attitudes in the students—attitudes towards studies, family, self, society and colleagues.

(e) Crowd Psychology

It is a theory which explains the ways in which crowd behave in a situation and how their behaviour is different as compared to someone behaving individually. Some of the major theorists of crowd psychology are Sigmund Freud, Gustave Le Bon, Steve Reicher and Gabriel Tarde. It analyses the thought process of individual members of the crowd and the behaviour of the crowd as a whole.

9.3.3 Stereotyping

Stereotyping is a tendency to assign attributes to someone solely on the basis of the category in which the person has been placed. People generally expect someone identified as a doctor, a president of a company, or a professor to have certain

positive attributes, even if they meet someone who does not. A person categorized as a dropout, an exconvict, or an alcoholic, by default, is perceived negatively.

Attitude

Even the identification of an employee based on such broad categories as Asian, older worker, or female, which should not bring to mind any attributes beyond the obvious physical characteristics, can lead to misperceptions. The perceiver may dwell on certain characteristics expected of that category, and fail to recognize the characteristics that distinguish the person in question as an individual. Since, stereotypes influence how people respond to others; managers need to consciously avoid relying on them. One such stereotype typically experienced is based on gender.

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9.3.4 Prejudice

Prejudice and discrimination are often used interchangeably in daily speech. Yet, they are different. Prejudice involves a negative attitude towards the members of some social group, merely because of their membership in that group; for example, old people, mentally challenged people and widows. There is also an effective response involved in these negative attitudes. Discrimination is the unfair treatment of members of a given groups, because of their membership.

Nature of Prejudice and Discrimination

The following are the nature of prejudice and discrimination:

- Prejudice is a negative attitude while discrimination is prejudice in action. When there is a possibility of punishment, then the prejudice does not always lead to discrimination; for example, caste based discrimination in public life is punishable and therefore held under control, but it operates in personal/social life.
- Some of our attitudes are ambivalent; they contain negative and positive elements; for example, attitudes towards working women.
- Prejudice being a special type of attitude (generally negative) it operates as a schema. This is a cognitive framework for organizing, interpreting, storing and recalling information, So, prejudiced individuals tend to notice, encode, store and remember certain kinds of information towards members of a particular group, that is consistent with their prejudiced orientation (Bodenhausen and Wyer 1985).

Components of prejudice and discrimination

Prejudice as an attitude has three components. The cognitive component includes the beliefs and expectations about members of a given group, as well as the way in which information is processed. The affective component refers to the negative feelings experienced by prejudiced persons when they are in the presence of members of the despised group. Even the thought of this is sometimes enough to arouse negative emotions. The behavioural component involves the tendencies to act in negative ways against the members of this group. This constitutes discrimination.

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As prejudice and discrimination are frowned upon in modern, civilized life, it has driven both these inclinations underground. Thus, subtle ways in which they manifest are noticeable. Prejudiced people wish to harm the targets of their prejudice without any cost or difficulties for themselves. So, they discriminate in subtle ways, while concealing their negative attitudes. Three of these common forms of subtle discrimination are as follows:

- (i) ***Withholding aid from people:*** Withholding aid from people who need it. For example, diverting development funds from the poor needy.
- (ii) ***Engaging in tokenism:*** It involves engaging in trivial acts of favour giving to members of a prejudiced group, so as to deny any major affirmative actions towards this group. For example, hire a person who is physically challenged for an innocuous job, so that others need not be considered for major employment. Promoting one woman to a managerial position, to silence critics about sexual gender discrimination, is a good example of tokenism.
- (iii) ***Reverse discrimination:*** People, who fit into a particular category, are given favours; for example, teachers grade students of a special category, more favourably in school not only as a way of encouraging them, but also because the expectations from such categories of students are low. So, average students of a given category are rated more favourably as compared to average students of the general category, Fayardo (1985).

Competing Prejudice and Prejudice Based on Gender

Prejudice is a deadly poison that affects society. It drains the resources of any group. It is negative and unhealthy. Several plans of action have been studied and suggested, some of them are listed as follows:

- **Learning not to hate or have a prejudice:** Since bigotry has been learned from parents, teachers, friends, media and other such significant sources, (classical, instrumental conditioning and modelling), it is possible to unlearn the prejudices through these techniques. Parents and teachers can be sensitized about their role in the development of prejudices and discrimination. This awareness could lead to discouraging their wards from learning prejudiced attitudes.

Teachers can provide opportunities for students to experience the unfair discriminations that can be faced if prejudice and discriminations are mounted on them, in role play situations.

Through these procedures, the chain of hate can be broken. The result could be an understanding of the evils of prejudice and discrimination and thereby a reduction in such behaviour and thinking.

- **Direct inter-group contact:** The presence of prejudice leads to segregation of people of both sides. The victims as well as the perpetrators. This

separation could result in increasing the negative attitudes about each other. Since no social interactions exist between the two groups who are hostile to each other, neither gets to see the other in fair and non-prejudicial terms. Psychologist, Stephan (1985) proposed the contact hypothesis wherein the two group members could get better acquainted with the other and realize that they are similar to each other than was thought to be. People who are perceived to be similar are more likely to view each other favourably. Contact would also throw up inconsistent information on a regular basis. This could challenge the negative schema and change could arise. Direct contact would also lead to the destruction of the perception of out-group homogeneity. All these raise hope for attacking prejudices.

However, a few conditions of contact have to exist for prejudices to be lowered. They are as follows:

- a) Contact must be between groups who are equal in terms of social, economic and task-related status. For example, similar vocations, incomes, education and other standing in society. Contact between owners of an industry and the employees are not on equal relationship. Here, contact would not help in prejudice reduction. If there is unequal status, the contact could lead to strengthening of the existing prejudicial attitudes.
- b) Contact should involve cooperation and interdependence. These conditions would lead to the pursuit of shared goods. Hence, competition would ease and each group might be more favourably disposed to the other. This can foster change.
- c) The contact should occur on an informed note. This would make people shed their roles and expectations associated with it. This one-on-one interaction is ideal for breaking stereotypes and initiating changes.
- d) The contact must happen in a setting where the group norm would favour equality and closer associations between the groups. For example, a sporting event, or a cultural meet.
- e) The groups must consciously act in ways that disconfirm the stereotypes that are held by each other; for example, teachers can wear casual clothes and dance and display less rigidity, show more openness and friendliness besides engaging in activities that students, prefer (games, jokes, watching movies and going for picnics are suitable activities, for disconfirming prejudices).
- f) Each person must view the member of the other group as typical representative of their respective groups. This would help in generalizing these pleasant contacts to other person and situations, also.

Psychologist, Cook (1985) found that prejudice between groups does get reduced if contact occurs in some or most of these conditions. In real life the cases of integrated schooling is an example of attempts at

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prejudice reduction, through direct contact. The concept of inclusive education also has this as the basis.

- **Mindfulness in thinking:** Since people are ‘cognitive misers’ in terms of processing information, we quickly categorize and allow the stereotypes to operate in thoughtless manner. This results in the maintaining of the existing prejudiced attitude. Since, the group membership is the most important basis of the categorization, one fails to notice the other characteristics of the individual in question. So to combat this, people are trained to see and behave more mindfully toward others.

Psychologist, Longer, Bashner and Chanowitz (1985) taught children to think and act towards children with challengers in a thoughtful way. They found that those who were coached to adopt a mindful set demonstrated less prejudice towards this group of persons. This entire process aims at getting people to think of challenged persons in terms of their skills and abilities and not in terms of the social category to which they belonged.

Becoming aware of individuals and their particulars is a sure way to lessen prejudice that occurs due to mindless categorization.

Prejudice based on gender

The division of men and women is biological. However, the stereotypes involving the female gender, is highly culturally dependent. Because men are physically muscular and stronger, and women gentler and delicate, the traits associated with men and women are different. Men are seen as assertive, confident, decisive and ambitious while women are perceived as passive, dependent and indecisive. These are stereotypes and in keeping with these cognitive make up, positive traits are associated with men and negative traits with women. Once the stereotype is in place, the male group perceives himself as being superior to women. Differences in the stereotypes between men and women may be partly true, but the extent to which they exist are more a myth than in reality, psychologist Eagly and Carli (1981).

Adjustment

Adjustment is defined as the process of balancing conflicting needs or needs which are challenged by obstacles in the environment. We have already discussed the concept of adjustment in detail in the previous units.

Check Your Progress

3. What are the methods used for measuring social attitude?
4. State any one use of classical conditioning.
5. What is the cognitive component of prejudice?
6. State the dissonance theory of attitude change.

9.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The three main stages of attitude formation are cognitive, affective and conative.
2. Cognitive attitude is based on observation and self-realisation of an object, whether satisfactory or not. If more and more information is available about an object, then the attitude developed will be stronger.
3. The two most common methods for measuring social attitude are (a) The Method of Equal Appearing Intervals developed by psychologist, Thurston and (b) The Method of Summated Ratings developed by psychologist, Likert.
4. Classical conditioning can be used to create positive emotional reactions to an object, person, or event by associating positive feelings with the target object.
5. The cognitive component of prejudice includes the beliefs and expectations about members of a given group, as well as the way in which information is processed.
6. The dissonance theory of attitude change suggests that one can also change their attitudes when they have conflicting beliefs about a topic. In order to reduce the tension created by these incompatible beliefs, people often shift their attitude.

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9.5 SUMMARY

- Attitude is the bent of one's mind toward an object or subject. It involves liking or disliking people, work and objects.
- Attitude formation is related to the cognitive aspects of behaviour. Stimuli are used for developing attitudes of employees, which are attended, recognised, evaluated and enacted.
- Affective is an evaluative process, and a conative attitude is a behaviour-based process. This section discusses the nature of attitude, attitude formation and change.
- Attitude is an unexpressed evaluative statement. It is behaviour-driven. Attitude is an expression of inner feelings towards an object or subject.
- Attitudes are generally hidden in the minds and hearts of people and may be expressed or inferred in some situations.
- Behaviour is the real outcome of attitude. Thus, learned behaviour is the outcome of learned attitude.
- A predisposition to behave in a way with respect to a given object is primarily attitude which can be developed through learning.

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- A cognitive attitude is the secondary part of stage formation which critically examines the attitude. It may be expressed as sentiment, emotion or feeling. Conative is the behaviour aspect.
- The characteristic of attitude is relatively consistent. This does not mean that it cannot be changed.
- Attitude is formed through the three methods of learning—classical learning, operant learning and cognitive learning theory.
- One tends to assume that people behave in accordance with their attitudes. However, social psychologists have found that attitudes and actual behaviour are not always perfectly aligned.
- Cognitive dissonance is a phenomenon in which a person experiences psychological distress due to conflicting thoughts or beliefs.
- Classical conditioning, operant conditioning (through reinforcement and punishment), and observational learning can be used to bring about attitude change.
- Operant conditioning can be used to strengthen desirable attitudes and weaken undesirable ones. People can also change their attitudes after observing the behaviour of others.
- Dissonance Theory of Attitude Change suggests that one can also change their attitudes when they have conflicting beliefs about a topic.
- Attitudes are a combination of beliefs and feelings and can be affected when confronted with social pressures.
- One of the chief objectives of the society is to develop the desirable attitudes among its citizens. It is therefore, obvious that the teachers must understand the various dimensions of an attitude.
- Stereotyping is a tendency to assign attributes to someone solely on the basis of the category in which the person has been placed.
- Prejudice is a deadly poison that affects society. It drains the resources of any group. It is negative and unhealthy.

9.6 KEY WORDS

- **Cognitive Dissonance:** It refers to a phenomenon in which a person experiences psychological distress due to conflicting thoughts or beliefs.
- **Illusory Correlation:** It refers to a process which perceives connections of relationship where none exist.
- **Stereotyping:** It refers to a tendency to assign attributes to someone solely on the basis of the category in which the person has been placed.

9.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the main features of attitude?
2. Write a short note on the relationship between attitude and behaviour.
3. How is prejudice different from discrimination?
4. What is illusory correlation?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the three methods of learning.
2. Explain the components of attitude.
3. How does attitude change in individuals and groups? Discuss in detail.
4. Identify the perspectives related to prejudice.

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9.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 10 INTELLIGENCE

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Structure

- 10.0 Introduction
- 10.1 Objectives
- 10.2 Definition and Types of Intelligence
- 10.3 Theories of Intelligence
- 10.4 Measurement of Intelligence
 - 10.4.1 Classification of IQ
- 10.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 10.6 Summary
- 10.7 Key Words
- 10.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 10.9 Further Readings

10.0 INTRODUCTION

Intelligence is defined as a process which tests an individual's mental capabilities such as the ability to learn, plan, solve, reason and think abstractly or comprehend ideas. In psychology, the study of intelligence primarily focuses on behavioural trait. Intelligence can be measured by intelligence tests, popularly known as IQ. These tests are considered as one of the most reliable psychological tests.

In this unit, the meaning of intelligence according to the four distinct concepts have been explained. The theories of intelligence and the main forms of intelligence have been analysed. The unit will also discuss the concept of intelligence measurement, the process of measurement of intelligence and its classification.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning and types of intelligence
- Explain the theories of intelligence
- Identify the seven primary mental abilities
- Analyse the types of intelligence
- Discuss the concept of intelligence measurement
- Explain the various classifications of IQ

10.2 DEFINITION AND TYPES OF INTELLIGENCE

There is no unanimity among writers and psychologists regarding definition on intelligence. In fact, there are as many definitions of intelligence as there are writers

on the subject. A renowned author, P B Ballard (1913) observed, ‘While the teacher tried to cultivate intelligence and the psychologist tried to measure intelligence, nobody seems to know what intelligence was’. On account of the different ways in which intelligence is interpreted, it has become less acceptable and more exposed to criticism by psychologists. Nevertheless, it is traditionally acknowledged by parents and teachers that intelligence is the most important single variable which affects success in school and in life. In general terms, intelligence means the manner with which an individual deals with facts and situations. Intelligence is the aggregate or the global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment. According to Professor R R Kumria, ‘Call it practical wisdom, call it commonsense, and call it genius—it is just the same in different names and grades’.

Four-fold Classification of Definitions of Intelligence

A variety of definitions of intelligence have been suggested by the psychologists, which can be classified into at least four distinct groups.

The first group of definitions places the emphasis upon the adjustment and adaptation of an individual to his total environment or to its limited aspects. According to this group, intelligence is general mental adaptability to new problems and to new situations of life.

The second group of definitions stresses on the ability to learn. The more intelligent a person, the more readily and extensively he or she is able to learn and enlarge his or her field of activity and experience.

The third group of definitions maintains that intelligence is the ability to carry on abstract thinking. This implies the effective use of ideas and efficiency in dealing with symbols, specially numerical and verbal symbols.

The fourth category refers to the operational definitions.

These categories of definitions, are not, and perhaps cannot be, mutually exclusive. They intersect and overlap at many points.

Let us look at some of the definitions of intelligence given by great scholars and thinkers.

I. Ability to Adjust

1. *A Binet* (1905) defined intelligence as, ‘The ability of an individual to direct his behaviour towards a goal’
2. According to *Boyniton*, ‘It is an inherited capacity of an individual which is manifested through his ability to adjust and reconstruct the factors of his environment in accordance with the most fundamental needs of himself and his group’.
3. *Burt* (1949) observed, ‘It is the power of readjustment to relatively novel situations by organizing new psycho-physical coordination’.

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4. *F N Freeman* (1937) said, ‘Intelligence is represented in behaviour by the capacity of the individual to adjust himself to new situations, to solve new problems, to learn’.
5. According to *Johnson*, ‘It stands for an ability to solve the general run of human problems to adjust to new situations’.
6. *J Piaget* (1926) defined intelligence as ‘Adaptation of self to physical and social environment’.
7. *Peterson* was of the view, ‘It is a mechanical means for adjustment and control’.
8. For *Pinter* (1921) intelligence meant, ‘The ability of the individual to adapt adequately to relatively new situations to life’.
9. According to *Stern* (1941), ‘Intelligence is a general capacity of an individual, consciously to adjust his thinking to new environment’.
10. *William James* (1907) observed, ‘It is the ability to adjust oneself successfully to a relatively new situation’.
11. *William McDougall* (1923) defined, ‘It is the capacity to improve upon native tendency in the light of past experience’.

II. Ability to Learn

12. According to *Buckingham* (1921), ‘Intelligence is the learning ability’.
13. *Calvin* believed, ‘It is the ability to learn’.
14. *Spearman* (1927) said, ‘Intelligence may be thought of in terms of two abilities, i.e., ‘g’ or general and ‘s’ or specific’.
15. *L L Thurstone* (1946) defined ‘intelligence in terms of five primary abilities’.
16. *Woodrow* observed, ‘It is the capacity to acquire’.

III. Ability to Do Abstract Reasoning

17. For *C Spearman* (1927) intelligence was the ‘General intelligence which involves mainly the education of relations and correlates’.
18. *E L Thorndike* (1931) said, ‘We may define intelligence in general as the power of good responses from the point of view of truth or fact’.
19. *Gates and Others* (1955) observed, ‘It is a composite organization of abilities to learn, to grasp broad and subtle facts, especially abstract facts, with alertness and accuracy, to exercise mental control and to display flexibility and sagacity in seeking the solution of problems’.
20. *Henry Garrett* (1946) was of the view, ‘The abilities demanded in the solution of problems which require the comprehension and use of symbols, i.e., words, numbers, diagrams, equations, formulae’.
21. *J M Hunt* (1966) defined, ‘The technique that a child acquires for processing information supplied by his senses’.

22. *L M Terman* (1921) pointed out, ‘An individual is intelligent in proportion as he is able to carry on abstract thinking’.
23. According to *Munn*, ‘Intelligence is the flexibility or versatility to the use of symbolic processes’.
24. *P E Vernon* (1927) defined intelligence as, ‘All round thinking capacity or mental efficiency’.

IV. Operational Definitions

25. In the words of *Boring* (1948) ‘Intelligence is what intelligence tests’.
26. *Dockell* (1970) observed, ‘Intelligence might be taken to mean ‘ability’, i.e., what a person can do at a moment’.
27. *D O Hebb* (1949) described ‘three situations in which the term intelligence could be used’.
28. According to *D W Wechsler* (1950), ‘Intelligence is the aggregate or the global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment’.
29. *GD Stoddard* (1943) said, ‘Intelligence is the ability to undertake activities’.
30. According to *Hein*, ‘Intelligence is the activity consisting in grasping the essentials in a situation and responding approximately to them’.
31. *P E Vernon* (1927) defined, ‘Intelligence is what intelligence test measures’.
32. *Well* observed, ‘Intelligence is the property of recombining our behavioural pattern as to act later in novel situations’.

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10.3 THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE

Psychologists have attempted to understand the structure of intelligence for which they have formulated several theories. Among the important theories, the following deserve special mention.

1. Spearman’s Two-Factor Theory or Eclectic Theory.
2. Thurstone’s Group Factor Theory or Anarchic Theory.
3. Unitary Theory or Monarchical Theory.
4. Oligarchic Theory or Sampling Theory.
5. Guilford’s Theory of Structure of Intellect
6. Thorndike’s Multifactor Theory

We will discuss the theories in detail in the following section.

1. Spearman’s Two-Factor Theory or Eclectic Theory

In 1904, Spearman, an English psychologist produced strong evidence based on his own researches that there was one fundamental ability underlying all cognitive functions. According to him, every task involving intellectual activity depended

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upon a general ability or ‘g’ factor and a separate ability or ‘specific’ factor. This view is popularly known as two-factor theory of intelligence, i.e., ‘g’ factor and ‘s’ factor. This ‘g’ factor represents native intelligence. Thus, when we respond to any situation or perform an intellectual task, our general mental ability or ‘g’ factor is responsible for part of our reactions and our specific ability in that particular task is responsible for the rest, as shown in Fig. 10.1.

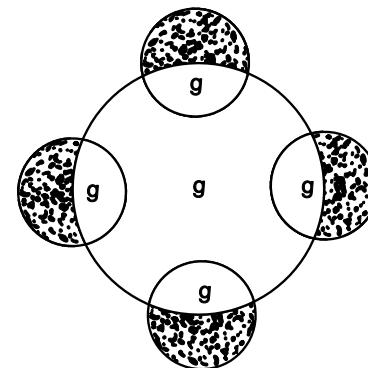


Fig. 10.1 Eclectic Theory or Two-Factor Theory



Fig. 10.2 Thurstone's Anarchic Theory, or Multiple Factor Theory

There are a large number of specific abilities, such as ability to draw inferences, ability to complete sentences, ability to continue series of numbers and ability to code messages.

2. Thurstone's Group Factor Theory or Anarchic Theory

L L Thurstone, an American psychologist, propounded the group factor theory of intelligence. According to him, intellectual activity is neither an expression of numerous highly specific factors as claimed by Thorndike, nor the expression primarily of a general factor which prevails in all mental tasks as Spearman believed. Instead, as revealed by factor analysis, certain mental operations have in common, a primary factor which gives them psychological and functional unity, and which distinctly separates them from other mental operations. These mental operations are said to constitute a group ‘A’, similarly, another group of mental operations have their own unifying primary factor and may be said to constitute a group ‘B’

and so on. Thus, there are a number of groups of mental abilities, each of which has its own primary factor.

Intelligence

Thurstone proposed seven factors and called them primary mental abilities. These primary mental abilities are listed as follows:

- a) M—*Memory*: To be able to learn and retain information. Also, to be able to recall the learned material.
- b) N—*Number*: To be able to understand quickly and with accuracy simple arithmetic computations.
- c) P—*Perceptual*: To be able to identify objects quickly and accurately.
- d) R—*Reasoning*: To be able to perceive and utilize abstract relationships. To be able to put together past experiences in the solution of new problems.
- e) S—*Spatial*: To be able to deal with objects in space.
- f) V—*Verbal*: To be able to understand and utilize verbal ideas.
- g) W—*Word fluency*: To be able to think of words rapidly.

Spearman's theory is also known as '*electic theory*' because it harmonizes elements from all the main types of abilities. Thurstone's theory is also known as the '*anarchic theory*' because he conceived that the mind consists of a number of independent facilities.

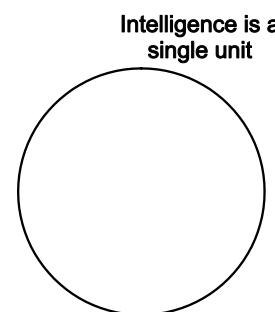


Fig. 10.3 Unitary Theory or Monarchic Theory of Intelligence

3. Unitary Theory or Monarchic Theory

According to monarchic attitude, intelligence is regarded as an adaptability which enables a creature to adjust itself to the changing environment. This is a popular view which regards intelligence as a unitary (monarchic) faculty that determines the level of man's achievement in any intellectual enterprise he may take. Accordingly, inborn all round mental efficiency is a sign of intelligence. Accordingly, had Newton turned his mind to poetry, he could have as well been a poet.

4. Oligarchic Theory or Sampling Theory

Oligarchic theory or Sampling theory is criticized by the advocates of Oligarchic Theory. A person cannot be expert in all fields; moreover, a single factor alone cannot be mentioned which means intelligence.

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This theory is sometimes known as sampling theory of intelligence. It was put forward by Professor Thompson. According to it, intellectual abilities belong to certain groups. It maintains that cognitive abilities are manifestations not of a single commanding faculty, but of a few main intellectual powers or a group of abilities. For example, a child who is intelligent in one group of knowledge may not be intelligent in the other group. But he or she may be equally intelligent in the various subjects of that particular group.

5. J P Guilford's Theory of Structure of Intellect (SOI)

This three-dimensional theory was developed by Professor, Guilford and his associates in psychology laboratory at the University of Southern California in 1966. However, the work on it began in 1956. Guilford conceived the idea of intellectual functioning as having three dimensions which are as follows:

- a) **Operations** are the processes involved in intellectual behaviour-cognition, memory, divergent thinking, convergent thinking and evaluation.
- b) **The content** of these operations may be figural, symbolic (letters, numbers), verbal (information about other persons), behaviour, attitudes and needs.
- c) **The products** may be—units, classes, relations, systems, transformations and implications. Thus, the model contains 120 cells (5 operations 4 contents 6 products); each of which represents a distinct factor which is measured by a separate test.

Guilford suggested that the five processes act on the four units to produce one of six cognitive products. The six products are units of a single word or idea, classes, a relationship between or among units or classes, systems, an organized sequence of ideas, transformations, a change or redefinition or a unit or class, and implications, predictions of the future.

Guilford believed that each person is a unique composite of a great many different intellectual abilities. Each intellectual functioning involves three components: a cognitive operation, specific content and a specific product.

6. Thorndike's Multifactor Theory

An American psychologist, E L Thorndike originated the multifactor theory of intelligence. As the name suggests, intelligence is said to be a multitude of separate factors or elements, each one being a minute element of ability.

According to this theory, any mental or intellectual activity involves a number of these minute elements of ability operating together. Another mental activity would also involve a number of these minute elements operating together. If these elements are common elements in activity *A* and *B*, there will be a perfect correlation between the two. The more common elements between the two mental activities are there, the higher will be the correlation. Thus, this theory is in complete contrast to Spearman's Two-Factor Theory. According to this theory, there is no such factor

as ‘general intelligence’ or ‘g’. There are highly specific elements of intelligence; their number depending upon how refined a classification we wish to make or are capable of making.

Thorndike made a factor analytical study of intelligence at the Chicago University and distinguished four attributes of intelligence.

- (i) Level:** This attribute of intelligence refers to the difficulty of a task that can be solved. Level is an important factor of intellect, but we cannot measure it alone.
- (ii) Range or Width:** Range denotes the number of tasks that can be solved at any given degree of difficulty. The range of intellectual growth is determined not only by level but also by the opportunity to learn and breadth of experience. In intelligence tests, range is represented by items of equal difficulty. Altitude cannot be measured without range or width.
- (iii) Area:** Area in a test denotes the total number of situations at each level to which the individual is able to respond. It is the sum of all the ranges at each level of intelligence possessed by an individual. In general, it is highly correlated with altitude level.
- (iv) Speed:** Speed refers to the rapidity with which we can respond to test items. There is a positive correlation between speed and altitude. The coefficient comes to 0.50.

Every intelligence test comprises the above-mentioned four attributes. While testing an individual, he is given a number of tasks (areas) which vary in difficulty levels (altitude). There are a number of items at each level of difficulty (range) which are responded to in a given time (speed). Emphasis on the aspect of these attributes varies from one test to another.

Types of Intelligence

E L Thorndike concluded that intelligence can be classified into three types:

- a) Social Intelligence:** Social intelligence implies the ability to understand and deal with persons.
- b) Concrete Intelligence:** Concrete intelligence denotes the ability to deal with things as in skilled trades and specific appliances.
- c) Abstract Intelligence:** Abstract intelligence is the ability to understand and deal with verbal and mathematical symbols.

In general, abstract intelligence receives more significance.

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Hierarchical Theory

Hierarchical theory of intelligence states the abilities of individual based on a series of levels that is arranged from general to specific.

NOTES**Check Your Progress**

1. What is two-factor theory of intelligence?
2. State the premise of the multi-factor theory.
3. Why is Spearman's two-factor theory also known as '*electric theory*'?

10.4 MEASUREMENT OF INTELLIGENCE

The main purpose of intelligence tests is to measure intelligence of an individual. It is important to note that intelligence is inferred from a variety of elements, i.e., behaviour and speed of doing things correctly. An intelligence test is an objective and a standardized measure.

Intelligence is measured through a complicated process. It involves a comparison and establishment of a relationship between CA (Chronological Age) and MA (Mental Age). This relationship is expressed by the term IQ (Intelligence Quotient). When the mental age is divided by the chronological age and the quotient is multiplied by 100, the result is IQ.

$$IQ = \frac{MA}{CA} \times 100$$

When we want to calculate the mental age of a student, all questions assigned to that age are put to him or her. (In the individual scale of Binet a certain number of questions are assigned to that age). If he or she answers all the questions assigned to that age correctly, his mental age is equal to his chronological age and that child is considered to be an average one. Suppose you have to test a child of CA 8 on Binet scale. You will start with questions assigned to the sixth year and then go up. The child may be successful in answering correctly all the questions assigned to years 6, 7, 8 and may stop at 9. His or her mental age will be 8.

Intelligence is measured on the following factors:

- **Vocabulary:** Choosing a synonym or antonym or near-synonym or near antonym.
- **Verbal analogies:** For example, Branch is to a tree as brook is to river.
- **Sentence completion:** For example, India has states.
- **Arithmetic reasoning:** Simple arithmetic sums.
- **Number series:** For example, what next? 11, 13, 15 (17, 19, 21).
- **Picture arrangement:** Arranging pictures of a story in proper sequence.
- **Comprehension:** For testing common sense, certain cards or paragraphs are given in which some absurdity is shown.

- **Similarities:** For example, In what way are cotton and silk alike?
- **General information:** From everyday life.
- **Digit span:** For testing memory, digits are orally mentioned and the subject is asked to repeat them in the same order.
- **Digit-Symbol substitution:** A code is given and substitution is to be carried out.
- **Figure analogies**
- **Classification:** For example, which word on the right belongs to the group on the left?
Pen, table, book, stone, pencil, radio
- **Multimental:** For example, Of some given figures which one does not belong to the other four.

Intelligence

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10.4.1 Classification of IQ

(a) Terman's Classification of IQ

<i>IQ Limits</i>	<i>Classification</i>
Above 140	Genius or near genius
120–140	Very superior intelligence
110–120	Superior intelligence
90–110	Average or normal intelligence
80–90	Dull, backward
70–80	Borderline or dull
50–70	Moron or feeble-minded
30–50	Imbecile
Below 30	Idiot

(b) Wechsler's Classification of IQ

<i>IQ Limits</i>	<i>Classification</i>
128 and above	Very superior
120–127	Superior
111–119	Bright, normal
91–100	Normal
80–90	Dull
66–79	Border line
66 and below	Defective

NOTES**(c) Garret's Classification of IQ**

<i>IQ Limits</i>	<i>Classification</i>	<i>%age of Population</i>
140 or above	Very superior	1.5%
120—139	Superior	11.0%
110—119	Bright	18.0%
90—109	Average or normal	48.0 %
80—89	Dull or backward	14.0 %
70—79	Very dull	5.0 %
0—69	Feeble-minded	2.5%

(d) Dr V V Kamat's Classification (Indian Children in the Bombay Presidency)

<i>IQ Level</i>	<i>Classification</i>
140 and above	Near genius or genius
130—139.9	Extraordinary
120—129.9	Very superior
110—119.9	Superior
99—109.9	Average or normal
80—98.9	Backward
70—79.9	Very backward
60—69.9	Borderline
40—59.9	Moron
20—39.9	Imbecile
Below 20	Idiots

(e) Dr C Rice's Classification (Indian Children in Punjab)

<i>IQ Level</i>	<i>Classification</i>
165 and above	Genius
140—165	Very superior
120—140	Superior
85—120	Average
70—85	Dull
55—70	Border line
Below 55	Feeble-minded

(f) Generally Acceptable Classification of Intelligence on the Basis of IQ and Percentage of Population

<i>IQ Limits</i>	<i>Classification</i>	<i>%age of Population</i>	
Above 130	Very superior	3.40	
116-129	Superior	12.47	
86-115	Normal	68.26	
71-85	Borderline	12.47	
56-70	High grade amentia	3.00	
26-55 Subnormals	Middle grade amentia	0.30	3.40
Below 25	Low grade amentia	0.10	

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Check Your Progress

4. How is intelligence measured?
5. What is the main purpose of intelligence tests?

10.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Spearman, an English psychologist believed that every task involving intellectual activity depended upon a general ability or 'g' factor and a separate ability or 'specific' factor. This view is popularly known as two-factor theory of intelligence, i.e., 'g' factor and 's' factor.
2. Multi-factor theory states that any mental or intellectual activity involves a number of minute elements of ability operating together. Another mental activity would also involve a number of these minute elements operating together. If these elements are common elements in activity A and B, there will be a perfect correlation between the two. The more common elements between the two mental activities are there, the higher will be the correlation.
3. Spearman's two-factor theory is also known as '*electic theory*' because it harmonizes elements from all the main types of abilities.
4. Intelligence is measured through a complicated process. It involves a comparison and establishment of a relationship between CA (Chronological Age) and MA (Mental Age). This relationship is expressed by the term IQ (Intelligence Quotient). When the mental age is divided by the chronological age and the quotient is multiplied by 100, the result is IQ.
5. The main purpose of intelligence tests is to measure intelligence of an individual. It is important to note that intelligence is inferred from a variety of elements, i.e., behaviour and speed of doing things correctly. An intelligence test is an objective and a standardized measure.

NOTES**10.6 SUMMARY**

- In general terms, intelligence means the manner with which an individual deal with facts and situations. Intelligence is the aggregate or the global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment.
- Intelligence is the ability to carry on abstract thinking. This implies the effective use of ideas and efficiency in dealing with symbols, especially numerical and verbal symbols.
- Psychologists have attempted to understand the structure of intelligence for which they have formulated several theories.
- In 1904, Spearman, an English psychologist produced strong evidence based on his own researches that there was one fundamental ability underlying all cognitive functions.
- Every task involving intellectual activity depended upon a general ability or ‘g’ factor and a separate ability or ‘specific’ factor. This view is popularly known as two-factor theory of intelligence, i.e., ‘g’ factor and ‘s’ factor.
- LL Thurstone, an American psychologist, propounded the group factor theory of intelligence. According to him, intellectual activity is neither an expression of numerous highly specific factors as claimed by Thorndike, nor the expression primarily of a general factor which prevails in all mental tasks as Spearman believed.
- Spearman’s theory is also known as ‘*electric theory*’ because it harmonizes elements from all the main types of abilities.
- Thurstone’s theory is also known as the ‘*anarchic theory*’ because he conceived that the mind consists of a number of independent facilities.
- According to monarchic attitude, intelligence is regarded as an adaptability which enables a creature to adjust itself to the changing environment.
- Oligarchic theory or Sampling theory is criticized by the advocates of Oligarchic Theory. A person cannot be expert in all fields; moreover, a single factor alone cannot be mentioned which means intelligence.
- According to sampling theory, intellectual abilities belong to certain groups. It maintains that cognitive abilities are manifestations not of a single commanding faculty, but of a few main intellectual powers or a group of abilities.
- The theory of structural-intellect was developed by Professor, Guilford and his associates in psychology laboratory at the University of Southern California in 1966.

- Abstract intelligence is the ability to understand and deal with verbal and mathematical symbols.
- Hierarchical theory of intelligence states the abilities of individual based on a series of levels that is arranged from general to specific.
- It is important to note that intelligence is inferred from a variety of elements, i.e., behaviour and speed of doing things correctly. An intelligence test is an objective and a standardized measure.
- Intelligence is measured through a complicated process. It involves a comparison and establishment of a relationship between CA (Chronological Age) and MA (Mental Age).

Intelligence

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10.7 KEY WORDS

- **Area:** It refers to a test which denotes the total number of situations at each level to which the individual can respond.
- **Intelligence:** It refers to the aggregate or the global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment.
- **Operations:** It refers to the processes involved in intellectual behaviour—cognition, memory, divergent thinking, convergent thinking and evaluation
- **Speed:** It refers to the rapidity with which we can respond to test items. There is a positive correlation between speed and altitude.

10.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is ‘g’ factor symbolic of in the two-factor theory of intelligence?
2. What are the seven primary mental abilities?
3. Why is Thurstone’s theory also known as ‘anarchic theory’?
4. Write a short note on monarchic theory.
5. What are the three main dimensions of intellectual functioning?
6. What are the educational implications of multi-factor theory?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the meaning and nature of intelligence in detail.
2. Explain in detail any two theories of intelligence.

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3. Why is oligarchic theory criticized by the advocates of oligarchic Theory? Discuss in detail.
4. Describe the main types of intelligence.
5. Discuss the factors related to measurement of intelligence.

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UNIT 11 STRESS

Structure

- 11.0 Introduction
- 11.1 Objectives
- 11.2 Meaning, Causes and Effects of Stress
 - 11.2.1 Factors Influencing Stress
- 11.3 Mental Illness: Concept, Definition
 - 11.3.1 Conflict
 - 11.3.2 Defence Mechanism
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11.0 INTRODUCTION

Stress is defined as a feeling of pressure or strain. However, small amount of stress can also be beneficial and healthy for individuals or organizations. Positive form of stress helps to motivate an individual to perform better and helps to adapt the environment. However, excessive stress can cause physical or mental damage to people.

Stress can be either caused by environment or internal perceptions which may cause anxiety issues in an individual. Human beings experience stress when they do not believe that their resources for coping with obstacles are enough for what the situation demands. When they believe that the demands are beyond their capabilities, they then perceive stress.

In this unit, the meaning of stress and factors influencing it are discussed. The ways to overcome stress are also explained. The unit will also discuss the importance of mental health and the concept of defence mechanism.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of stress
- Identify the strategies related to stress reduction
- Discuss the factors which causes stress
- Discuss the concept and importance of mental health
- Analyse the causes of mental illness
- Identify the causes and sources of conflicts

11.2 MEANING, CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF STRESS

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Stress is a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person. The intensity of such demands that require a readjustment of resources or operational styles would determine the extent of stress. Such environmental events or conditions that have the potential to induce stress are known as 'stressors'.

Medical researcher, Hans Selye first used the term 'stress' to describe the body's biological response mechanisms. He defined stress as 'the nonspecific response of the body to any demand'. It must be understood that for the stress to occur, the response should be non-specific. All responses require utilization of energy. Any demand made on the body that is for some specific activity that is natural, expected and a part of daily routine, does not necessarily create stress. Even walking, thinking, writing and doing physical activities that are a part of personal and organizational existence, require energy consumption of the body but are not necessarily stress producing forces.

Stress does not necessarily occur due to undesirable developments. All situations that produce increased demand on a vital activity requiring adaptation to a new situation, produce stress in the form of a stereotyped pattern of biochemical, functional and structural changes in the human organism. These situations could be fear, pain, fatigue, emotional arousal, humiliation, frustration, need for concentration, loss of blood, drugs, loss of a loved one, non-occurrence of an expected event and even unexpected successes that require a change in the operational style.

The stress created by desirable and successful events is called 'eustress' and the stress created by undesirable outcomes is known as 'distress'. It is primarily the distress form of stress that requires examination and steps to cope with it. Eustress is a positive, healthy and developmental stress response. Thus, just as tension on muscles causes them to strengthen, some level of stress may lead to better performance and a more adjusted personality. Since, we learn how to deal with our problems better, it improves our capacity to confront distress better. However, even though some levels of stress are necessary for psychological growth, creative activities and the acquisitions of new skills such as learning to drive a car or learning the use of a computer, it is the highly stressful situations that weaken a person's physical and psychological capacity to cope with the stressors that have dysfunctional consequences. Just as high-level stress is damaging to the physical and psychological well-being of the person, extremely low levels of stress are equally undesirable for they cause boredom, and result in lack of stimulation, innovation and challenges. Thus, moderate level of stress is necessary for higher level of performance.

It is necessary for the physical and psychological well-being of the person to reduce or eliminate the negative effects of stress. It is possible to manage stress, at least in the sense that a person can either avoid stressful conditions, change them or learn to cope with them. There are a number of ways by which stress can be managed so that the person has control over his or her life. Some of these strategies deal with the individual himself or herself and focus on improving his or her physical and mental strength to deal with stress from all sources and some strategies deal specifically with job-related stress.

Some of the stress reducing strategies that strengthen the individual's well-being are as follows:

- **Readjustment of life's goals**

Due to severe competition to 'get ahead', most individuals set very high standards and goals for themselves. They are always trying to do too much in too little time. They have tremendous fear of failing and they are running to nowhere. These high expectations and limited resources to reach such expectations result in stress. Accordingly, people must readjust their goals and make sure they have the ability and proper resources to reach such goals. Perhaps the goals should be established after resources have been analysed.

- **Social support**

There is a saying that, 'a friend in need is a friend indeed'. Good friends become highly supportive during times of stress and crisis. Close and reliable friends may give a sympathetic hearing to your problems, a more objective assessment of the situation and support your sagging self-confidence or self-esteem. Many people turn to God for support during times of difficulties, believing God to be their 'best friend'. The idea of confession to a priest in the Catholic religion is primarily meant to receive moral support for stress created by some individual actions. Thus, God, priests, family, friends can all be a source of great comfort during times of stress.

- **Planning life in advance**

While the attitude of 'whatever will be, will be' is a way to accept the unexpected difficulties in life. It is better to project events in life and plan to confront them when they occur. Many times, people create situations that induce stress because they either did not plan or they did a bad job of planning; for example, students who plan the pace of their studies during the semester seldom find exams excessively stressful. Accordingly, if we plan the proper utilization of our resources of time and money, the chances are that we will have less stress.

- **Physiological fitness**

There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise and so strengthen their endurance and cardiovascular system, are much less likely to suffer from certain

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types of stress-related illnesses. As the correlation between physical fitness and stress resistance has become clear, many organizations have added facilities for physical exercise in their premises. With proper exercise, diet control and non-smoking habits, blood pressure and cholesterol levels become low and the body becomes more resistant to pressure. People are more likely to get physically sick or emotionally depressed if they are overweight or poorly nourished.

- **Yoga**

During the last twenty-five years, there has been a growing interest in yoga as a stress reduction strategy. The word ‘yoga’ means union and according to Amarjit Sethi, it ‘implies union with the ultimate where the process of desiring has come to an end and where stress is non-existent.’ To a common man, yoga is a structured set of exercises and body movements with deep breathing and mind concentration, so that it is a way of getting away from the stressors. To a serious student of yoga, it is a methodology to integrate body and mind forces to bring them into a state of harmony with the ultimate goal of being in unison with the Infinite. At the lower levels of physical and mental fitness, yoga consists of certain postural habits (known as *asanas*) and these postures are non-dynamic, passive and stable, resulting in increased flexibility of skeletal structure. This in turn stimulates the nervous system. Accordingly, with proper ‘asanas’ and controlled breathing, the neuromuscular coordination is strengthened, affecting glandular activity that is responsible for physical as well as mental health. Thus, the development of a sound mind in a sound body improves the stress coping capabilities.

- **Meditation**

Meditation involves concentration of mind away from stress producing areas, sitting in a comfortable position, closing the eyes and clearing the mind from all disturbing thoughts. Any form of concentration that redirects our thought processes away from daily concerns can be considered meditation. Primarily, it involves silently repeating a single syllable or ‘mantra’ over and over again. This concentration on the ‘mantra’ shuts out other distractions and results in physical and mental relaxation at its peak. The place of meditation should be such that the meditator is not disturbed by any outside force such as telephone, children or visitors. This technique was popularized by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi, an Indian mystic, and the method is known as ‘Transcendental Meditation’ or TM.

11.2.1 Factors Influencing Stress

Stress at the organizational level can emanate from different factors. A few of these factors are discussed in this section.

Task demands: Stress from the task demand emerges from changes enforced on employees. Change often brings in uncertainty and unpredictability. Change emerges from changes in the economic condition, technology, leadership, and structure. Any kind of change requires adjustments from the employees. If one is not able to respond to these changes effectively, it adds on to the level of stress.

Role demands: Certain negative characteristics of a person's role at work can increase the likelihood of his or her experiencing stress. Job role demands include high workloads, idle period of time, job ambiguity, and conflicting performance expectations. Stress caused by the excessive demands at work starts affecting his or her health.

Overload: When there is an expectation from the organization to accomplish more than the ability of the person, it results in work overload. It has been found that for top- and middle-level managers, unreasonable deadlines and constant pressure are the frequent stressors in their jobs (Zemke 1991). Quantitative overload exists when people are requested to do more work than they can comfortably do in the allocated time, and qualitative overload happens when the job requires them to perform beyond their levels of competence and skills.

Underload: Most people wish to remain occupied and face optimum challenges while performing their jobs. Work underload occurs when people have insufficient work to fill their time or are not allowed to use enough of their skills and abilities. Employees who are underloaded often feel bored, weary, are prone to injury, and frequently absent from work. Machine-based assembly lines are an example of such a work environment. Operating nuclear power plants involves periods of boredom that must be endured simultaneously with sufficient alertness to respond to potential emergencies. Awareness of the costs of an ineffective response to an emergency makes these jobs all the more stressful (Cooper 1987).

Role conflict: Role conflict exists when job functions contains duties or responsibilities that conflict with one another. It is most commonly found among middle managers, who find themselves caught between top-level management and lower-level managers (Giordano et al. 1979). A typical example of a role conflict would be when an employee has to decide between the demands made by the boss to put in extra effort while doing the job or a demand made by the colleagues to restrain one's effort while doing the job. Sometimes, role conflict is also experienced when one has to act contrary to one's own belief and value system; for example, when an individual is expected to take unethical or illegal decisions to safeguard the interests of the organization at the cost of his own principles and beliefs.

Physical demands: The physical demands of the workplace can also have a devastating impact on the mental and physical health of the employees. Poor working conditions in the form of extreme temperatures, loud noises, too much or too little lighting, radiation, and air pollutants are some examples of working conditions that can take a toll on employees. The first impact of these factors is on job performance, which starts deteriorating. High travel demands or long-distance commuting, excessive travel, and long hours all add up to increased stress and reduced performance. In addition to this, advancements in technology which provides immense relief and efficiency to people who are proficient at it can cause damage and stress to those who are averse to it.

Career development: One of the major sources of stress in organizations today is the aspiration level of employees. The issues related to career planning

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and development such as job security, promotions, transfers and other developmental processes like under-promotion (failure to grow in the job as per the aspiration levels) or over-promotions (promotion to a job that exceeds the competency levels of employees) can create high anxiety and stress among the persons concerned. Whenever any change is introduced in the organization, employees are concerned about its effects on their future.

Organizational politics: Each and every employee of the organization is a part of a formal or an informal group or team. Good working relationship with peers, subordinates, and superiors is very crucial for the successful performance of the organization and to help employees to achieve their personal and organizational goals. The disregard for each other in the organization results in rude behaviour and becomes a cause for stress. A high level of political behaviour or office politics can also be a source of stress for managers and employees. A by-product of power struggles within an organization is heightened competition and increased stress for participants. Managers who are caught up in power games and political alliances also pass on pressure to subordinates (Matteson and Ivancevich 1987).

Aggressive behaviour: A very common form of aggressive behaviour in organizations is observed in the form of violence and sexual harassment. Aggressive behaviour that intentionally threatens or causes physical harm to other employees has been defined as workplace violence. It has been found to be one of the major sources of stress in firms (Atkinson 2001).

Sexual harassment is unwanted contact or communication of a sexual nature (Mink 2000). Today, with more number of women employees entering the corporate world, this issue has become very pertinent and has to be dealt with in right ways. Management, therefore, has a strong responsibility to prevent sexual harassment from happening in organizations. If at all it occurs, it has to be dealt with quickly and firmly. Ignoring genuine complaints can prove to be costly. Mitsubishi had to pay \$34 million to 350 female workers at its Illinois plant because it repeatedly ignored their complaints about a sexually hostile working environment. Infosys had to make a \$3 million payout to settle a sexual harassment case filed against it and its former director, Phaneesh Murthy.

Environmental Factors

The environment in which the organizations operate has a profound impact on their working. The economic, political, and technological events happening in the external environment cause stress in varying degrees as they have many uncertainties associated with them. The anxiety aroused by uncertain environmental factors carries over into the workplace and then to our personal lives. Some of these factors are discussed as follows:

- **Economic uncertainty:** Downsizing, rightsizing, retrenchment, restructuring and so on are all done in the name of efficiency and cost reduction to improve profitability. The employees who are made redundant as a result of these exercises are forced to look for other means of sustenance. With the

regulatory announcement made by the government, organizations are left to find ways to manage these uncertainties which can cause anxiety and stress both for the employer and the employees.

- **Technological changes:** Advancements in technology in the form of automation, computerization, and robotics has contributed immensely to the productivity and profitability of organizations. However, it also has caused displacement of skilled workers who have to now unlearn and learn new skills to match up with the expectations of the organization. The knowledge of advanced technology also creates a disparity between the new breed of workers and the old masters of the game. Older employees are generally resistant to learning necessary technical skills and competing against the younger employees who are proficient in them. This gap creates a feeling of negativity and antagonism between the two breeds of workers, thereby generating stress.
- **Political uncertainty:** Political disturbance in the external environment has tremendous impact on the working of business organizations. The philosophies, policies, and the systems approved by the political party which is in power determine the ways organizations have to operate. This is more visible in government-funded organizations like aerospace, defence, and science and technology. Even unemployed persons can feel stressed out about political uncertainties as they might affect their social security and welfare.

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Coping Drives

Some of the ways we can cope with stress are as follows:

- **Time management:** Time management is an effective technique of managing stress. Proper and adequate time utilisation is a preventive as well as a curative device. On the other hand, poorly managed time creates stress and strain. Time management helps to reduce tension because individuals easily achieve their objectives within a specified time. The time management principles involve making daily lists of activities, priority activities, scheduling activities according to priority lists, knowing daily cycle and daily job nature. Allocation of time schedule and quantum of time to each activity of the day makes people understand as to how to use time most effectively.
- **Physical exercises:** Routine and relaxed exercises reduce the tension of employees. Competitive exercises increase tension and non-competitive exercises relax people. Non-competitive physical exercises include aerobatics, walking, jogging, swimming and riding a bicycle. Suitable physical exercises are suggested by physicians to reduce a particular type of tension. For example, blood pressure is controlled by jogging and heart disease is prevented by regular morning walks and so on. Moreover, all types of physical exercises divert the mind from tension and stress. Physical exercise is reactive and proactive to lessen the problems of stress.
- **Behavioural self-control:** Learning and personality development help manage tension. Proper behaviour prevents stress. Behaviour has a direct impact on

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performance which causes satisfaction and stress. Frustrated employees resort to unethical and immoral practices. People have the capacity of self-control by deliberately managing the antecedents. Individuals, if they so desire, can control their own behaviour by adopting exemplary paths of successful persons. Self-introspection makes people behave properly.

- ***Relaxation training:*** People adopt certain relaxation techniques such as biofeedback and meditation for getting relaxation from stress and tension. Meditation involves quiet, concentrated inner thoughts in order to rest the body and mind. It includes muscle and mental relaxation. Transcendental Meditation (TM) is practiced to reduce stressful situations. It involves meditation or sitting relaxed for fifteen to twenty minutes in a day. While concentrating, people recite certain mantras. Yoga is also used for relaxation. Meditation reduces stress and tension. It helps to maintain peace and control one's heartbeat.
- ***Social support:*** People are benefitted by social support. It reduces job stress. Good listeners and confidence builders are essential for managing stress. The expansion of social support network is a means of reducing tension.

Check Your Progress

1. How has Hans Selye defined stress?
2. What is the most common form of aggressive behaviour in organizations?
3. Why is it believed that time management is an effective technique of managing stress?
4. State any one advantage of meditation.

11.3 MENTAL ILLNESS: CONCEPT, DEFINITION

Mental health is considered to be the balanced development of an individual's personality and emotional attitudes that enable one to live harmoniously with one's fellow-men. Mental health is not only a matter of the relationship between persons, but also a matter of the relationship between an individual and his community, towards the society of which the community is a part of, and towards social institutions that considerably guide his/her life, determine one's way of living, working, leisure, and the way one earns and spends one's living, the way one perceives happiness, stability, and security.

In 1950, a WHO experts committee on mental health reviewed various definitions of mental health and observed 'Mental health, as the committee understands it, is influenced by both biological and social factors. It is not a static condition but subject to variations and fluctuations of degree; the committee's conception implies the capacity in an individual form, harmonious relations with others, and to participate in, or contribute constructively to changes in his/her

social and physical environment. It implies also his/her ability to achieve a harmonious and balanced satisfaction of his/her own potentially conflicting instinctive drives in that it reaches an integrated synthesis rather than the denial of satisfaction to certain instinctive tendencies as a means of avoiding the thwarting of others'.

The concept of 'mental health' involves a reasonable level of psychological well-being, or the non-existence of a mental disorder. From the viewpoint of 'holism' or 'positive psychology', mental health might involve a person's capability to enjoy life, and maintain a balance between various activities of life and the consequent efforts to attain psychological resilience. It may also be viewed as an expression of emotions, and can highlight a successful adaptation to different types of demands.

Mental illness is a vast subject, broad in its limits and even more difficult to define precisely. The different types of mental illness can be broadly classified as psychosis, neurosis, and personality and character disorder. These types are discussed in the following section:

- The term '**Psychosis**' refers to illnesses that are quite severe in nature and the individual having psychosis is out of touch with reality.
- The term '**Neurosis**' refers to comparatively less severe illnesses in which the person is in touch with reality but fails to react normally to the various life situations at hand.
- '**Personality and Character Disorders**' refer to a group of disorders that have a legacy of unfortunate childhood experiences and perceptions and negatively affect the personality makeup of an individual.

Causes of Mental Illness

There are multiple causes of mental illness such as:

- **Organic conditions:** Mental illness may have their origin in organic conditions such as cerebral arteriosclerosis, neoplasm, metabolic diseases, endocrine diseases and chronic diseases such as tuberculosis, leprosy and epilepsy.
- **Heredity:** Heredity may be an important factor in some cases. For example, the child of two schizophrenic patients is 40 times more likely to develop schizophrenia than is the child of healthy parents.
- **Socio-pathological causes:** it is believed that for an illness to occur, there must be a combination of genetic and environmental factors. The social and environmental factors associated with mental ill-health comprise worries, anxieties, emotional stress, tension, frustration, unhappy marriages, broken homes, poverty, industrialization, urbanization, changing family structure, population mobility, economic insecurity, cruelty, rejection, neglect, and the like. The social environment not only determines the individual's attitudes but also provides the 'framework' within which mental health is formulated.
- **Environmental factors:** Some environmental factors other than psychological ones capable of producing abnormal human behaviour are:

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- i. **Toxic substances:** carbon disulfide, mercury, manganese, tin, lead compounds etc.
- ii. **Psychotropic drugs:** barbiturates, alcohol.
- iii. **Nutritional factors:** deficiency of thiamine, pyridoxine.
- iv. **Minerals:** deficiency of iodine.
- v. **Infective agents:** infectious diseases (for example, measles, rubella) during the prenatal, perinatal and post-natal periods of life may have adverse effects on the brain's development and the integration of mental functions.
- vi. **Traumatic factors:** road and occupational accidents
- vii. **Radiation:** nervous system is most sensitive to radiation during the period of neural development.

11.3.1 Conflict

Some of the famous definitions of conflict give by scholars are given in the following section.

1. O B Douglas and B F Holland observed, 'Conflict means a painful emotional state which results from a tension between opposed and contradictory wishes'.
2. According to Katz, Barney and G F Lehner, 'Psychological conflict is a state of tension brought by the presence in the individual of two or more opposing desires'.
3. L F Shaffer said, 'Conflict may be defined as a state of affairs in which two or more incompatible behaviour trends are evoked that cannot be satisfied fully at the same time'.
4. Kurt Lewin defined, 'Conflict is usually a clash of motives'.

From the mentioned definitions, one can conclude that conflict is a painful condition or state of an individual. During this state, an individual feels intense emotional tension. Emotional tension results on account of the presence of two or more desires of the individual. These desires are contradictory in nature and it is not possible to satisfy these completely simultaneously. An individual, who is not able to choose between these opposing two desires, becomes a victim of conflict.

Types of Conflicts

The following are the main types of conflicts:

1. **Approach-Approach Conflict:** The conflict is between two positive valences — two equally attractive choices in strength. A child may have to choose between reading an interesting book and preparing a project. There is little danger in this type of conflict.
2. **Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict:** It is just like being caught between the devil and the deep sea. Conflict of this type is evoked by two negative

valences. Both tendencies are to either retreat from or to avoid something. For example, a child who neither wants to study nor wants to displease his or her parents by not studying at the same time, may experience some conflict. Usually, conflicts of this type are more serious than the Approach-Avoidance type conflict.

3. **Approach-Avoidance Conflict:** In this type of conflict, approaching and avoidance tendencies are evoked simultaneously. For example, a child wants to play cricket but is afraid of being hurt. An adolescent, belonging to an orthodox family, is invited by a girl. He looks upon such an invitation with anxiety. On the other hand, he does not wish to look conservative and backward in the eyes of his friends and is also afraid of his parents. The first attracts him and the second frightens him. This type of conflict is the most difficult to solve. Approach-avoidance conflict often leads to inferior adjustment or unreduced anxiety.

Common Sources of Conflicts

Some of the common sources of conflicts are as follows:

1. **Family:** This includes: (i) Under-protection (ii) Parents' wrong handling of their children, (iii) Feeling of inferiority, (iv) Sibling rivalry, (v) Overprotection, (vi) Strict discipline, (vii) Parental submission, (viii) Unattractive children, (ix) Conflicts between parents, (x) Constant financial strain, (xi) Moral standards.
2. **Sex:** (i) Gap between physical and social maturity, (ii) Lack of manliness, (iii) Ugliness, (iv) Strict training in early childhood, (v) Guilt of masturbation, (vi) Clash of cultures, i.e., Indian or western, rural or urban, etc.
3. **School Conflicts:** (i) Over-competition or under-competition in the school, (ii) Over-restriction or under-restriction within the class (iii) Teacher's method of handling the class, (iv) Co-education, (v) Children with special problems of adjustment.

11.3.2 Defence Mechanism

An Austrian neurologist, Sigmund Freud postulated that ego is able to deal effectively with reality anxiety but makes use of irrational protective measures called **defence mechanism** to deal with neurotic or moral anxiety. Defence mechanisms reduce anxiety by pushing painful ideas out of consciousness.

Defence mechanisms are techniques that protect the ego to deal with the instinctual demands of the Id and the pressures of the superego. Though various defence mechanisms distort reality, yet some are more adaptive than others. All defence mechanisms have two characteristics in common, as follows:

- They deny, falsify, or distort reality.
- They operate unconsciously so that the person is not aware of what is taking place.

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With the exception of sublimation, all defence mechanisms indicate an inner conflict. The various defence mechanisms are described below:

Repression: In repression, impulses or memories that are too threatening or painful are excluded from conscious awareness to the unconscious. Individuals are largely unaware of their repressed impulses or memories. For example, painful memories of sexual abuse may get repressed. Repressed memories may find expression in the form of a displacement. The defence mechanism of repression may contribute to poor physical health.

Several studies have shown that trying to suppress thoughts actually leads us to think about those thoughts more frequently than when we stop trying to suppress them (Wegner, Schneider, Carter, and White, 1987). In other words, there is a rebound effect whereby suppressed unwanted thoughts come back with greater force once the person's guard is down.

Repression leads to chronic arousals that make people vulnerable to illness in general and sometimes to even coronary heart diseases and a more rapid course of cancer (Bonnano and Singer, 1990).

Projection: It involves denial of one's own unacceptable desires and the discovery of evidence of these desires in the behaviour of other people. By this mechanism, moral and neurotic anxiety gets converted into an objecting fear. In projection, one tends to project ones feelings on to the other; as one may simply say 'she dislikes me' instead of 'I dislike her'. The defence mechanism of projection has two purposes—it reduces anxiety by substituting a lesser danger for a greater one and enables the projecting person to express his or her impulses under the guise of defending one against one's enemies.

Reaction formation: It is a defence mechanism in which an individual conceals a motive from himself or herself and instead gives strong expression to the opposite motive. For example, a mother who feels guilty about not wanting her child may become over-indulgent and over-protective to self-assure that she is a good mother.

Fixation and regression: In regression, a person who encounters traumatic experiences retreats to an earlier stage of development. For example, a child who is frightened by his/her first day at school may start behaving like a child much smaller than his current age. For instance, he/she may start weeping and sucking the thumb. Similarly, a man who has lost the job may seek comfort in alcohol.

According to Freud, 'people tend to regress to a stage upon which they have been previously fixated. It is these fixations and regressions that are responsible for unevenness in personality development.'

Rationalization: It is a defence mechanism that is used by people to make their thoughts and actions that are based on unacceptable motives acceptable by giving or coming up with socially acceptable reasons for these thoughts or actions. For example, a man who feels guilty for purchasing a magazine containing pictures obscene may try to justify it by saying that he did not buy the magazines for the

pictures. He rather bought it to read the interesting and enlightening articles it contains. The defence mechanism of rationalizations serves two purposes, namely:

- Easing out disappointments when one fails to reach a goal.
- Providing an individual with acceptable motives for their behaviour and thus reduce anxiety.

Denial: It is a defence mechanism which is used by people ‘when they face an external reality which is too unpleasant to face.’ Thus, instead of facing the reality, an individual may deny that it exists. For example, the parents of a fatally ill child may refuse to admit that anything is seriously wrong even though they are fully informed about the diagnosis and the expected outcome. This defence mechanism serves an important function. Occasionally, denial of facts may be better than confronting them. In the case of severe crisis, denial may give the person time to accept the grim facts at a more comfortable pace.

Mental Retardation

Mentally handicapped are those who lack average intelligence. They may be divided into two categories on the basis of intelligence test. In the first category come those who are a little below average, as far as intelligence quotient is concerned. In the second category come those persons who are known as moron, imbecile and idiot and whose intelligence quotient is less than 70, 50 and 25 respectively. The socially handicapped are those who are orphans without home or property, have no guardians and belong to the lowest order in the society.

Check Your Progress

5. What are the different types of mental illness?
6. State the characteristics of defence mechanism
7. What are the main types of conflicts?
8. Define the term ‘rationalization’.

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11.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Medical researcher, Hans Selye first used the term ‘stress’ to describe the body’s biological response mechanisms. He defined stress as ‘the nonspecific response of the body to any demand’.
2. The most common form of aggressive behaviour in organizations is observed in the form of violence and sexual harassment.
3. Time management is an effective technique of managing stress because proper and adequate time utilization is a preventive as well as a curative device.

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- Time management helps to reduce tension because individuals easily achieve their objectives within a specified time.
4. Meditation reduces stress and tension. It helps to maintain peace and control one's heartbeat.
 5. The different types of mental illness can be broadly classified as psychosis, neurosis, and personality and character disorder.
 6. The following are the characteristics of defence mechanism:
 - a) They deny, falsify, or distort reality.
 - b) They operate unconsciously so that the person is not aware of what is taking place.
 7. The three main types of conflicts are Approach-Approach Conflict, Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict and Approach-Avoidance Conflict.
 8. Rationalisation is a defence mechanism that is used by people to make their thoughts and actions that are based on unacceptable motives acceptable by giving or coming up with socially acceptable reasons for these thoughts or actions.

11.5 SUMMARY

- Stress is a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person.
- The intensity of such demands that require a readjustment of resources or operational styles would determine the extent of stress. Such environmental events or conditions that have the potential to induce stress are known as 'stressors'.
- Medical researcher, Hans Selye first used the term 'stress' to describe the body's biological response mechanisms. He defined stress as 'the nonspecific response of the body to any demand'.
- Stress does not necessarily occur due to undesirable developments. All situations that produce increased demand on a vital activity requiring adaptation to a new situation, produce stress in the form of a stereotyped pattern of biochemical, functional and structural changes in the human organism.
- The stress created by desirable and successful events is called 'eustress' and the stress created by undesirable outcomes is known as 'distress'.
- It is necessary for the physical and psychological well-being of the person to reduce or eliminate the negative effects of stress.
- While the attitude of 'whatever will be, will be' is a way to accept the unexpected difficulties in life. It is better to project events in life and plan to confront them when they occur.

- There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise and so strengthen their endurance and cardiovascular system, are much less likely to suffer from certain types of stress-related illnesses.
- To a common man, yoga is a structured set of exercises and body movements with deep breathing and mind concentration, so that it is a way of getting away from the stressors.
- Meditation involves concentration of mind away from stress producing areas, sitting in a comfortable position, closing the eyes and clearing the mind from all disturbing thoughts.
- Under individual strategies, employees take personal responsibilities for reducing their respective stress.
- Time management is an effective technique of managing stress. Proper and adequate time utilisation is a preventive as well as a curative device.
- Routine and relaxed exercises reduce the tension of employees. Competitive exercises increase tension and non-competitive exercises relax people.
- Mental health is considered to be the balanced development of an individual's personality and emotional attitudes that enable one to live harmoniously with one's fellow-men.
- The concept of 'mental health' involves a reasonable level of psychological well-being, or the non-existence of a mental disorder.
- Mental illness is a vast subject, broad in its limits and even more difficult to define precisely.
- A German-American psychologist, Kurt Lewin stated that conflict arises as a result of interaction between the individual and his or her environment.
- Defence mechanisms are techniques that protect the ego to deal with the instinctual demands of the Id and the pressures of the superego.
- Mentally handicapped are those who lack average intelligence. They may be divided into two categories on the basis of intelligence test.

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11.6 KEY WORDS

- **Stress:** It refers to a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person.
- **Yoga:** It refers to a structured set of exercises and body movements with deep breathing and mind concentration, so that it is a way of getting away from the stressors.
- **Psychosis:** It refers to illnesses that are quite severe in nature and the individual having psychosis is out of touch with reality.

- **Neurosis:** It refers to comparatively less severe illnesses in which the person is in touch with reality but fails to react normally to the various life situations at hand.

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11.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is the meaning of stress?
2. How is eustress different from distress?
3. How has conflict been defined by psychologists?
4. Why are low-levels of stress undesirable in an organization?
5. What is the most common cause of stress in an organization?
6. How is role conflict a cause of stress in organizations?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Interpret the environmental factors which causes stress in organizations.
 2. Explain the strategies related to stress reduction.
 3. Discuss the factors which causes stress in organizations.
 4. What are individual strategies of stress reduction. Analyse in detail.
 5. Explain the causes of mental illness.
 6. Discuss the various sources of conflicts.
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11.8 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - V
PERSONALITY, SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY
AND APPLICATION OF PSYCHOLOGY
FOR SOCIAL WORKS

NOTES

UNIT 12 PERSONALITY

Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Nature, Structure and Characteristics of Personality
 - 12.2.1 Theories of Personality
- 12.3 Influence of Heredity and Environment
- 12.4 Emotions
- 12.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 12.6 Summary
- 12.7 Key Words
- 12.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 12.9 Further Readings

12.0 INTRODUCTION

Personality refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. The study of personality focuses on two broad areas: One is understanding individual differences in particular personality characteristics, such as sociability or irritability. In this unit, the theories related to personality have been discussed in detail. The meaning of traits and its characteristics have been explained. The unit will also highlight the criticism raised against trait theory and the role of heredity and environment in shaping an individual's personality.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the meaning of personality
- Discuss the theories of personality
- Discuss the development and characteristics of human traits
- Analyse the features of trait theories and its criticism
- Discuss the advantages and limitations of Freud's theory of personality.
- Interpret the role of heredity and environment in influencing an individual's personality

12.2 NATURE, STRUCTURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF PERSONALITY

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There is no topic in the field of psychology which is more fascinating than personality. Tremendous research has been done on the topic but no final conclusions have been drawn as regards the nature of personality. If you ask a man, the meaning of the term personality, he would not be able to give answer to this simple question in clear and definite terms because the human personality is so complex a phenomena that it can be interpreted in many ways.

The term personality has been defined in various ways by the psychologists who worked on the problem of personality and the variables influencing its development.

Meaning of Personality

The meaning and definition of any term is arbitrary. This also holds true in case of the word personality. To arrive at its meaning, we have to trace the historical root of the word. The term personality has been derived from the Latin word ‘Persona’ that was associated with Greek theatre in ancient times. Persona means a mask which the Greek actors commonly used to wear covering their faces when they worked on the stage. In our own country, actors in *Ram Lila* and *Krishna Lila* use masks when they enact the role of a particular character from the epics.

The mask, worn by the actors, was called persona. According to the concept of mask, personality was thought to be the effect and influence which the individual wearing a mask left on the audience. Even today, for a layman, personality means the effect which an individual leaves on other people. Precisely, we can say that the mask or persona of the actor implied a cover for the real person behind it. It was developed on the basis of Plato’s idealistic philosophy who believed that personality is a mere facade for some substance.

Some Definitions

Some of the definitions of personality are listed as follows:

1. **Personality as a stimulus:** Some psychologists define personality in terms of its social stimulus value. How an individual affects other persons with whom he comes in contact, whether he is impressive or repulsive, or has a dominating or submissive personality. Personality, from this point of view, becomes identical to reputation and impression, mostly in terms of physical appearance, clothing, conversation and etiquette. Generally, we use this concept of personality in selecting applicants for various jobs and courses. The interviewers take into consideration the total picture of an individual’s organized behaviour.
- 2 **Summative approach:** The second approach of defining personality emphasizes the importance of sum total of different processes and activities of the individual as, for example, innate dispositions, habits, impulses and

emotions. This approach was criticized by Gestalt psychologists who objected to the idea of aggregation or sum total of parts without introducing the concept of organization and integration of parts into a total whole.

3. **Integrative approach:** The definitions of this category lay emphasis on the integrative of personality and its definite pattern of organization. Warren's dictionary defines personality as: 'Personality is the integrative organization of all the cognitive, affective, conative and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinction from others.'

Sociologist, G W Hartman said 'Personality is integrated organization of all the pervasive characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinctiveness to others.'

4. **Totality view:** Totality approach while defining personality puts more emphasis on integration than the first category of definitions given above. It forgets the part. According to this view, the general characterization or pattern of an individual's total behaviour is his personality. A man's personality is the total picture of his organized behaviour, especially, as it can be characterized by his fellowmen in a consistent way. A renowned author, Mark Sherman in his book, *Personality: Inquiry and Application* (1979) has defined personality as, 'the characteristic pattern of behaviours, cognitions and emotions which may be experienced by the individual and/or manifest to others.'
5. **Personality as adjustment:** An individual, since his birth, attempts to adjust to his environment. Behaviour of an individual can be defined as an adjustment to his environment. Every individual develops his own unique way of adjustment in the society. According to this approach, personality is an individual's characteristic pattern of behaviour. An individual, through his continuous reactions, attempts to adjust himself in his environment. We can say that sum of the individual's movements as he adapts himself to the environment is his personality.

We have described the various approaches to define the term personality. We will now examine important definitions of personality.

Author, Fredenburgh in his book, *The Psychology of Personality and Adjustment* tried to summarize the various definitions in a single definition which runs as, 'Personality is a stable system of complex characteristics by which the life pattern of the individual may be identified.'

Allport an American psychologist (1961) who devoted most of his time for research on personality defines: 'Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.'

The definition given by Allport is very comprehensive and includes all aspects of an individual's personality. Some terms used in the definition need explanation. Dynamic means that personality is undergoing a constant change but is still organized.

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It constitutes two types of systems, psycho (mental) and physical, and these two systems interact with internal and external environment. The word ‘determine’ lays emphasis that it is the psychophysical system that activates the organism for action. The unique adjustment of the individual to his environment means that each individual employs different methods of adjustment resulting in unique adjustment.

Guilford (1959) defines personality as, ‘An individual’s personality, then, is his unique pattern of traits A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another.’

Thus, we see that different approaches have been made to define personality but there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. Though there is diversity of views but even then all psychologists agree on certain common basic characteristics. One basic fact is that personality is unique. No two individuals, even identical twins, have alike personality. The second basic fact regarding personality is that it is the product of its own functioning. What we do today, depends on our accumulated experiences of the past. The experiences are accumulated day after day and shape our personality by continuous interaction with the external environment. The third common characteristic of most definitions is that they stress the need to understand the meaning of individual differences. Personality is what makes individuals unique: it is only through the study of personality that the relevant differences among individuals can be made clear.

12.2.1 Theories of Personality

Psychologists have developed several theories of personality to study the structure and growth of it. Some important theories of personality have been discussed in the following section.

1. Type Theories

It has been the nature of man, from ancient times, to name and classify objects of his environment and human beings into different categories called ‘Types’. The old system of typology still continues and even in modern times, psychologists have developed various typologies which will be described. Greek physicians were the first in the 5th century BC who classified people into four broad categories on the basis of emotional and temperamental characteristics. One of Aristotle’s pupils theorized that human body consists four fluids. The personality of an individual is typed by the dominance of one of them in the body. The four types are as follows:

S.No.	Humour	Temperament	Characteristics
1.	Blood	Sanguine	Active, hopeful
2.	Yellow bile	Choleric	Irritability, quick to anger
3.	Phlegam (Mucus)	Phlegmatic	Calm, temperamentally sluggish
4.	Black bile	Melancholic	Depressed, slow and pessimistic

If we study our own scriptures we find in ancient India, we had an advanced system of Ayurveda in which our ancient physicians broadly categorized all human beings on the basis of three elements in the body. The predominance of one of the three decided the category of the person. It appears that systems of Hippocrates and Indian physicians were, more or less, similar. The three elements which the Indian physicians theorized are *pitt* (bile), *bat* (wind), and *kuf* (mucus).

A number of typologies have been attempted for constitutional, temperamental and behavioural types of persons by philosophers and psychologists in the ancient and current literature. It is not possible to describe all types of typologies in this chapter so we will follow the sample approach.

Constitutional Type

Ernest Kretschmer, a German psychiatrist, classified human beings on the basis of physical constitution. He attempted to establish relationship between personality characteristics and body build.

S. No.	Type	Characteristics
1.	Pyknic	Stocky, full-chested, popular
2.	Asthenic (Leptosomic)	Weak, tall, sensitive and thin
3.	Athletic	Strong
4.	Dysplastic	Mixed type

Somato Type

William H Sheldon, an American surgeon, divided all human beings into three broad categories of physical dimensions and their corresponding temperamental characteristics. He believes that physical structure of the body is the determinant of personality characteristics.

S. No.	Physical characteristics	Temperament
1.	Endomorphic (soft, round)	Viscerotonic (sociable, extrovert affectionable), love of physical comfort
2.	Mesomorphic (muscular and strong)	Somatotonic (energetic and muscular, love of risk and chance)
3.	Ectomorphic (thin and tall)	Cerebrotonic (fearful, artistic introvert and restrained)

Spranger's Type

E Spranger, a German philosopher, divided human beings, on the basis of interests, in the following categories:

- **Theoretical:** Persons who are theoretical in nature, neglect social and political participation.
- **Economic:** Those persons who are interested in money-hoarding.
- **Aesthetic:** Those persons who are lover of beauty and are busy in sensuous gratification.

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- **Social:** Persons who are interested in social activities.
- **Political:** Dominating and desirous of power.
- **Religious:** Persons who devote themselves to religious activities and mysticism.

Jung's Typology

Jung, a Swiss psychiatrist, attempted to classify human beings on two behavioural dimensions: extrovert and introvert. His typology is widely known and is most influential among professional workers. The major characteristics of two types are as follows:

- **Introvert:** A person who tends to withdraw into himself, especially when faced with emotional conflicts and stress in his environment. An introvert is shy, avoids people and enjoys being alone. Scientists and philosophers may be termed as introverts.
- **Extrovert:** In contrast to the introvert type, an extrovert's orientation is towards the external world. He deals with people intelligently in social situations. He is conventional, outgoing, social, friendly and free from worries. Social workers, politicians, and business executives may be typed as extroverts. These two broad categories have been further classified on the basis of rational and irrational processes.

Jung's system of classification of human beings is eight-fold and not two-fold as is popularly known. A person, according to Jung, may be extrovert for one function, for example, feeling and the same person may be introvert in intuition. All persons can be divided into eight types, based on the dominance of one of the above factors.

Modern writers have introduced ambivert, another type in between two extreme poles of extroversion and introversion. Ambivert refers to those persons who could be classified as neither extroverts nor introverts.

Freud's Typology

Sigmund Freud, an Austrian neurologist, on the basis of his theory of psychosexual development, identified three types of personality. The type depends on the fixation of sexual energy at a particular stage of sex development. The three types are as follows:

- **Oral-erotic type:** According to Freud, sex in infancy is located in mouth. There is a membrane in the mouth which, when irritated, gives pleasure to the infant. Sexual gratification at this stage involves activities related to the mouth. Oral-erotic type of personality shows excessive degree of pleasures associated with oral activity. Sucking, biting or putting anything in the mouth gratifies the sex in infancy. Fixation at the oral stage results in two types of personality in later life:

- a) Oral passive type:** Oral passive type of person is dependent, optimistic and immature in his thinking and other activities like a child. He expects help from other persons.
- b) Oral sadistic type:** Oral sadistic type of person is pessimistic. He is suspicious and aggressive. He is often bitter in his dealings with others.
- **The anal type:** The second stage of sex development is anal when the child obtains gratifications through anal activities. These activities generally relate to the expulsion of faecal material through the anus or the retention of these materials in response to the social demands of toilet-training. Some traits of personality develop due to fixation of sex energy at this stage. These traits include obstinacy, miserliness, orderliness, etc. in later life.
 - **The phallic type:** The third stage of psycho-sexual development is phallic. This type of person shows self-love and exhibitionism. He tries to draw the attention of others. These characteristics are found in early adolescents.

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Evaluation of the Type Approach

Classification of human beings into types has been generally criticized by psychologists on the basis that typologies tend to place emphasis upon one or another phase of development. They deal with extremes rather than mediocrity of human nature. It is very difficult to categorise individuals under one of the types as proposed by some typologists. Two or three types are wholly inadequate to describe human beings. It is oversimplification of personality by forcing a great varieties of behaviour into a few limited categories. The second criticism of typology is that types are discontinuous and non-scaleable. There is multiplicity of type theories which are very difficult to apply in practice.

Criticism does not mean that typology is useless. Typology has its historical value in the sense that it was the first attempt to typify people which generated a great deal of research.

The second important contribution of typology is that it attempts to assess the personality of an individual as a whole. It does not study personality in fragments of traits. The type approach is very useful for psychologists who attempt to comprehend the personality of an individual as a whole.

The third advantage of typology is that types are useful and valuable from the point of view of experiments in physical sciences where attention to certain process is called in relatively pure form, uncontaminated by accidental and confusing factors.

Lastly, we can say that they serve one very important function as reference points or guides for the examination of dimensions of personality by different psychologists.

NOTES**2. Trait Theory**

Typology and trait approaches are interrelated to each other in the sense that typology includes a wide variety of traits in classifying human beings in broad types while in trait approach we label or call a person by a specific mode of behaviour which he shows in a wide variety of circumstances.

In modern psychology, type approach is not so widely used as trait approach to understand the development of personality. In our daily life, we label traits to our friends or other persons as honest, aggressive, fearful, dependent, lazy and dull, etc. In the simplest sense by trait we mean a mode of behaviour which is manifested in a number of life situations consistently. It is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual varies from other. Trait may be defined as, ‘a property within the individual that accounts for his unique but relatively stable reactions to environment.’

Author, Walter Michel in his book, *Introduction to Personality* defined, ‘trait is a continuous dimension on which individual differences may be arranged quantitatively in terms of the amount of the characteristics the individual has.’

Let us explain the process of development of trait.

Trait in daily life, first, is used simply as an adjective as Ram behaves in a lazy way in several situations. When this description is generalized from his behaviour to the person (Ram), we say that he (Ram) is lazy. Laziness becomes a trait of his personality, a characteristic mode of his behaviour.

Development of Friendliness

<i>Stimuli</i>	<i>Trait</i>	<i>Responses</i>
1. Meeting friends		1. Helpful
2. Meeting with strangers	<i>friendliness</i>	2. Pleasant
3. Dealing with poor, disabled children		3. Warm and interested

Some Properties of Traits

The characteristics of traits are as follows:

- **Scaleability:** Traits are scaleable. They can be measured and scaled quantitatively.
- **Inference from behaviour:** Personality traits are not directly observable but they are manifested in a number of activities and verbal expression. We infer a trait from the behaviour of the individual.
- **Flexibility:** Traits are not static in nature. They are flexible in childhood and become stable with the maturity of the person in age but some variability is always there.
- **Universality:** There are certain traits which are universal in nature as height and weight.

- **Functional unity:** The trait must have functional utility. It means that there must be different indications which may vary or are manifested consistently in the behaviour of the individual.
- **Traits are higher order habits:** Guthrie conceived that a trait is a higher order habit which recurs in the behaviour frequently.
- **Traits are mental sets:** Some psychologists define trait as a mental set. It is a readiness to respond to any variety of situations in a consistent way. Cason referred that there is generalized tendency in some people to be annoyed easily.
- **Traits are frame of reference:** The personality of an individual is an organized whole of beliefs, emotions, etc. about the environment. In this reference, traits are organized frames of references.
- **Traits are learned:** Traits are learned in the interaction with the environmental stimuli. They are biologically determined as neuroticism and other traits which depend on the disposition and intellectual potentialities of the individual.

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G W Allport's Classification

G W Allport, an American sociologist is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists. He has conceived that traits have a real and vital existence. He defined a trait as, 'a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to imitate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour.'

The definition given by Allport is a comprehensive one. It emphasizes that traits are not linked with a small number of stimuli but they are general and enduring in nature. Allport is also famous for his emphasis on functional autonomy and the concept of proprium. Functional autonomy means that motives of an adult may have their roots in the tension-reducing motives of the child. The adult grows out of them and becomes independent of these earlier tension-reducing efforts. The proprium includes the different aspects of the self (bodily self, self-identity, self-esteem) which the person seeks to organise into an integrated, unified whole. He classified all human traits into three broad categories which are as follows:

- **Cardinal trait:** Traits which appear in most of the behaviour of the organism are called cardinal. It may be illustrated with the example of achievement in life. Some people are so devoted to achievement that this trait pervades the whole life.
- **Central trait:** Central traits are less pervasive than cardinal traits but are quite generalized dispositions.
- **Secondary dispositions:** Secondary dispositions are specific narrow traits. They are called attitudes.

NOTES**Common Features of Trait Theories**

Though trait theorists disagree as regards the specific content and structures of the traits needed to describe personality but even then there is agreement on general concept of traits:

- **Consistency of traits:** All theorists agree that traits are consistent in an individual's behaviour. They are not temporary dispositions but enduring characteristics of the individual.
- **Trait dimensions:** There is agreement as regards the various dimensions of traits as source traits and surface traits, common and unique, broad and narrow. Traits vary in breadth and generality.
- **Traits are dispositions:** Traits fluctuate or change in a person's position with respect to a disposition. Each psychologist is committed to a search for broad and stable trait.

Criticism of Trait Theory

Trait theory of personality has been criticized by psychologists in recent years. The main points of criticism are as follows:

- There is no agreement among the psychologists as regards the use of the terms.
- There is a view that a trait is a behavioural disposition which is consistent and does not vary from situation to situation. In daily observation we find that if a man has friendliness as a trait, he does not behave in friendly manner in all the situations of his life. Trait is not a permanent or static characteristic of the individual because personality is undergoing perpetual change.
- Another difficulty is the quantification of human traits because there is no zero reference and equality of units in trait measurement. There is no suitable measuring tool of trait dimensions. Generally traits are measured with the help of paper-pencil tests which can be manipulated by the subject by giving fake information.
- ‘Halo effect’ operates when a person rates an individual very high on a specific trait. He may rate the same person on other traits equally high.
- Behaviour of an individual cannot be predicted on the basis of scores on trait inventory. Traits are only point of references. Examination of personal traits of an individual enables us to make only probability statements about what an individual may do.
- The last criticism against trait theory is whether a trait is viewed as an inner process which causes differences among the individuals or it is the situation which brings into play certain organizational tendencies which create the behaviour.

3. Psychoanalytic Theories of Personality

Personality

Let us discuss the theories of personality which place importance on dynamics of human behaviour. First, we will describe the views of classical psychoanalysis and then the views of neo-Freudians who deviate from Freud but claim to be psychoanalysts.

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(a) Freud's Theory

Freud was the first psychologist who placed great importance on instincts as the determinant of human behaviour. He proposed two instincts: (a) *Eros*, the love and self-preservation, and (b) *Thanatos*, the death instinct, as the ultimate cause of all human activities.

Psychic Structure

Psychic energy, according to Freud, comes from libido. It denotes sexual energy. When he revised his theory which includes two groups of instincts, the libido was defined as the energy of all the life instincts. The sexual libido was regarded as the source of primary driving force of the personality. The dynamics of personality is seen as largely governed by the need to gratify the libido.

The id: It is inborn. Its main function is the discharge of psychic energy which when pent up produces tension through the personality system. The id operates on animal level. It cannot differentiate between good and bad, and operates on pleasure principle.

The primary process thinking explains id behaviour as resulting from pent-up tensions which Freud described as frustration. The primary process attempts to discharge tensions by bringing into consciousness memories associated with the source of frustration.

The ego: The id knows only the subjective reality of the mind. The second concept of Freud is the ego which distinguishes between subjective reality and things in the external environment. It operates on the principle of reality. The ego is called the executive of personality. It obeys the reality principle and operates by means of secondary process. The pleasure principle is only concerned with whether an experience is painful or pleasant; the principle of reality is concerned with whether it is true or false. The ego formulates a plan for the satisfaction of the need and executes it, keeping into consideration the reality principle. It often integrates the conflicting demands of id, the superego and the external world.

The ego is an organised portion of the id which has been modified by the contact of external reality and experience. It comes into existence to forward the aims of the id. It brings a compromise between the instinctual urges of the id and demands and forces of the external environment. Freud remarked about the function of ego. ‘The poor ego ... has to serve three harsh masters, and has to do its best to reconcile the demands of all three.’

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Explaining the relationship between ego and the id, Freud once said, ‘Imagine that the relationship between the ego and the id is similar to the relationship between a horse (id) and its rider (ego). While the rider usually determines the direction of the horse, there are those times when it is the horse who leads the rider.’

The superego: The third concept is the superego. It is the agency which internalizes the parental influences and ideals of society through early childhood experiences. It represents the ideal rather than the real and strives for perfection. It works in accordance with the moral standards authorised by the agents of society.

Let us explain it with the help of an example: suppose there is a beautiful toy in the room; the child sees it and runs towards it. This is the id level. The second stage is that the parents instruct the child not to touch the toy. The child sees the toy but does not touch it out of fear of punishment in the presence of his parents. The third stage of development is when the toy is in the room. Parents are not there but the child does not touch the toy. It is the superego. The superego involves the internalization of parental control in the form of self-control.

We can say that id is biological and seeks pleasure, ego is psychological, and the superego is social-self and seeks perfection.

The superego develops gradually by the process of reward and punishment meted out by the parents to the child in early childhood training. The parental reward and punishment is substituted by self-control. The individual with a well-developed superego refrains from bad or evil temptations such as stealing or telling a lie, etc. even in the absence of punishing agent. The process of adoption of the moral and ethical standards of family and society is called the process of introjection.

Dynamics of Personality

According to Freud, the human organism is a complex energy system which derives its energy from the food it consumes. The energy created by biological factors may be transformed to psychic energy. Three parts of psychic structure—id, ego and superego—are in constant conflict. The dynamics of personality involve a continuous interaction and clash between id impulses seeking release and inhibition imposed by the superego. The individual is in quest for immediate gratification of impulses, seeks pleasure and avoids pain in order to reduce tension. The drive for immediate satisfaction of instinctual demands leads to early clash between the individual and his environment. Conflicts develop when the parents or other members impose restriction or control on expression. There is a perpetual warfare between the pressure of the environment and the demands of the id and superego. The ego, in order to adjust in the social environment, utilizes a number of mental mechanisms to it and the demands of the id and the superego which reduce tensions of the individual.

The Development of Personality

Freud organized his personality theory around psycho-sexual stages of development. Body pleasure or erogenous zones shift from one part of the body

to the other as the child advances in age such as mouth, anus and genitals. There are four distinctive stages of psycho-sexual development: oral, anal, phallic and genital through which the child moves. According to Freud, the person's experiences at each stage leave some characteristic impressions and imprints that influence his future personality development. The specific sex experiences at any of the stage either in the form of over-indulgence or deprivation may produce fixation which means an arrest of sexual impulses at any early stage of psycho-sexual development.

Evaluation of Freud's Theory

Freud's theory of personality has revolutionized theory and practice of psychology and made major contribution to understand personality mechanisms. It has greatly influenced all social sciences as regards their approach to human behaviour. Many researches have been conducted to test the theory of psycho-analysis. We will describe the advantages and weaknesses of the theory.

Advantages

The following are the advantages of Sigmund Freud's theory:

- It is a comprehensive theory of human behaviour which includes all aspects of personality and its complexities.
- It is a holistic approach to understand human personality. It does not divide the personality into specific traits. It gives more emphasis to functioning of the individual as a whole.
- It gives more freedom to the individual to respond in the form of free association.
- The theory recognizes the importance of unconscious motivation in the development of behaviour patterns. It has investigated and discovered underlying phenomena of personality by means of extensive observation of patients.

Weaknesses

There are psychologists who do not agree on the basic concepts and methodology used by Freud. Many research scholars have conducted studies on psychoanalytic approach to personality and pointed out the weaknesses of the theory in their studies. Some of the common weaknesses are summarized as follows:

- Some psychologists have criticized the theory on the basis of methodological procedure. The data of psychoanalysis consisted the reports of the patients without any verification from other sources. No systematic procedure was followed by him in data collection and its recording. He never validated his hypotheses against any criterion.
- The method of analysis by reconstructing the patient's history on the basis of what the patient says is a source of information that cannot be relied upon for scientific study of behaviour. Psychoanalysis is an interpretation of behaviour. It is not an explanation of behaviour.

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- He has laid more emphasis on sex as an explanation of human behaviour which has been discarded by psychologists.

(b) Jung's Analytic Psychology

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C G Jung (1875–1961) was a close associate of Freud and worked with him up to 1912. He was so important a member that he was made the President of International Psychoanalytic Association in 1910. After 1912 the personal relation between Freud and Jung began to cool down and finally they separated from each other. Though it is difficult to assess the causes of break-up in the relationship between them but one of the reasons, most probably, includes Freud's tremendous emphasis on sex as the principal motivating force in life.

Jung rejected 'Libido' as the only driving force in life. He developed his own system of psychology called 'Analytical Psychology'. He viewed the libido as a generalised energy. Besides sexuality, libido also includes other strivings for pleasure and creativity. The basic principles of his theory are as follows:

The Structure of Personality

According to Jung, there are three elements of personality: the conscious ego, the personal unconscious, and the collective unconscious. A brief description is given as follows:

- **The conscious ego:** The conscious ego is just like the concept of ego given by Freud. It is, in fact, the sense of 'being' which includes conscious aspects of thinking, feeling and remembering.
- **The personal unconscious:** It consists repressed and suppressed experiences of the individual which are accessible to the conscious. The personal unconscious is highly individualistic in nature. The variety of experiences individuals have in their social environment, constitute the personal unconscious.
- **The collective unconscious:** The most significant and controversial concept of Jung's Analytical Psychology is the concept of the collective unconscious. It is primitive in nature and is composed of the material which has never been conscious. Every individual is endowed with the collective unconscious which acts as a storehouse containing man's racial history, his pre-human and animal ancestry in the form of inherited neural patterns. He believed that all people have the same collective unconscious because of the similarity of born structure and racial experiences. It is impersonal, universal and archaic. It contains all good and bad, the low and lofty. According to Jung, the collective unconscious is the reservoir from which all other systems emerge.

Development of Personality

Man is more than a creature desiring power and gratification of his sex urges.

He is a member of a complex society. He tries to achieve self-actualization which is the ultimate goal. All behaviour is directed towards the goal one sets for himself. The present is determined not only by the past but by future expectations. Man is continually striving toward higher goal and development. The individual is engaged in the solution of universal problems in his own way.

In late thirties or early forties, spiritual and cultural values made their way into the life of individuals. Jung developed a full-fledged system of psychotherapy to treat mental patients. No doubt, Jung has explored the new dimensions of personality and his theory is famous for its new concepts of extroversion-introversion, self and purposeful goal-directed behaviour of the individual which have been accepted by modern psychologists but he is criticized for his concepts of archetypes, racial unconscious and mysticism. His concepts are not verifiable by means of scientific methods. His theory emphasizes the importance of religion, culture of the race and metaphysical concepts. His theory could not generate research studies after him but now efforts are being made to revive interest in his theory by publishing his original papers in a book form.

(c) Individual Psychology of Adler

Adler was also a member of Freudian group. He made valuable contribution to psychoanalysis in its infancy. He disagreed with Freud on some issues and afterward finally separated himself from him. He formed his own group of associates. Adler developed a system of thought called 'Individual Psychology'.

Basic Concepts

Adler was the first psychoanalyst who de-emphasized the concept of inborn instincts and gave full stress to social factors in the development of personality. He also developed the concept that personality of an individual is unique and the individual is aware of the reasons of his actions. He conceived of man as capable of consciously planning and guiding his actions toward self-actualization. He conceives 'Will to power' as the central force in the behaviour of the individual. He refers three types of adjustment which the individual makes in his life—to society, to vocation and to love. In making adjustment to these situations, an individual is helped or handicapped according to the experiences of childhood. Adler emphasizes the helplessness with which every child is born. There is an inherent urge in the child to grow, to dominate and to be superior.

Striving for Superiority

By superiority Adler means striving for perfection or self-actualization. In earlier writings he emphasized the 'will to power' as a motive but in later writings he replaced 'will to power' to striving for superiority. Every man is pushed by the urge to reach the higher levels of life. This striving for superiority is innate but it can manifest in various ways in the life of the person. The striving for superiority is innate in the child. Sometimes the feeling of inferiority compels the child to compensate his inferiority in that area or in any other area. In his early writings, he

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introduced the concept of compensation for bodily inferiorities. Adler quotes the examples of Beethoven who despite being slightly deaf from childhood, went on to become a great musician and Demosthenes who did not rest till he had overcome his stammering to become one of the greatest orator in history. He regarded feelings of inferiority as universal and the individual makes attempts to compensate for feelings of inferiority and inadequacy with which he is born. The feelings of inferiority help the individual to improve his circumstances.

Fictional Finalism

Adler believed that man is motivated by his expectations of the future goal. Fictional finalism means that man's actions are grounded in fictional ideas that necessarily do not conform to reality. Some examples of these fictions are belief in life after death or that evil actions are always punished. When such fictions are believed, they seem to help man to cope more successfully with life. He believed that expectations for future orient man more than events of the past. The future goals of man affect his present behaviour as for example, in India fiction of heaven, exercises enormous influence on our total behaviour.

The Style of Life

The style of life is an abstraction that includes everything of living within some characteristics, plan or means of attaining the life goal. It is a unique quality of personality which differentiates one person from the other. According to an Austrian psychotherapist, Alfred Adler, human aims are the same fundamentally and are embedded in the tendency to strive for superiority. There are many ways to reach the life goal. One person seeks them through social relation, another through education and science and many by other ways. These different ways, attempting to obtain the goal of life, represent a person's unique style of life, the route by which goal is sought. All aspects of an individual's life and details of his behaviour organize around this style of life.

The formation of lifestyle starts from the age of four or five years and later experiences are assimilated into this style of life. It is, therefore, difficult to change the lifestyle of an individual in later life. The lifestyle is formed on the basis of childhood experiences. Every child tackles his problems in a different way and the ways and means he uses form his style of life. Adler introduced the concept of creative self, which held that the efforts made by an individual to solve his basic problems grow out of the creative efforts of a person. The creative self-moulds the personality into a unique structure on the basis of hereditary capabilities and life experiences. He emphasizes the importance of nurture in the development of lifestyle.

Social Interest

Adler lays emphasis on social interests and relations of an individual. His conception of social relations includes co-operation, interpersonal, identification with a group and empathy. Social participation of man means to help the society to attain

perfection. Social interest, according to Adler, is latent and inborn characteristic of man. The innate predisposition will not appear and develop spontaneously without the guidance and experiences in social contexts. In neurotics selfish power goals subordinate healthy social interest.

He emphasizes the role of cultural factors which influence the development of personality in a unique pattern.

Evaluation

Adler's theory gives man more prospects to master his life. He emphasized creativity and natural altruism. He emphasized the importance of consciousness and that is why his theory is more understandable and acceptable to the lay person. He introduced the importance of birth order to understand the development of personality.

He had relatively little direct impact on psychoanalytic practice but considerable influence on psychological thought, especially with respect to teachers, doctors and lay persons. He emphasized the importance of social factors in the development of personality and gave a phenomenological view and molar approach to personality. His theory is teleological in nature but other psychologists did not accept his ideas of teleology in the absence of scientific support. His system is highly personalized and subjective. He denied the separation of conscious and unconscious form of mind. His theory leads us to the conclusion that personality is determined neither by the environment in a mechanical way nor by heredity. His important contribution is concept of life-style. His theory has been criticized as being very simple. Adler's point of view does not represent an active system of thought with many proponents or disciples. His theoretical formulations do not represent a clear-cut school of thought.

(d) Neo-Freudians

All neo-Freudians have rejected the 'libido' theory and pansexuality of Freud. They emphasize the importance of culture and social experiences in the development of personality. We will in brief mention the approach of Erikson to understand personality.

Erikson's View

Erikson developed eight distinct stages to his psychosocial development theory. Like Freud, Erikson assumes that a crisis occurs at each stage of development. These crises, for Erikson are of a psychosocial nature because they involve psychological needs of the individual (i.e. psycho) conflicting with the needs of society (i.e. social).

Successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and the acquisition of basic virtues. Basic virtues are characteristic strengths which the ego can use to resolve subsequent crises. Below is a table showing the different stages of psychosocial crisis:

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NOTES**1. Trust vs. Mistrust**

Erikson's first psychosocial crisis occurs during the first year or so of life. The crisis is one of trust vs. mistrust. The infant, during this stage is uncertain about the world in which he lives. To resolve these feelings of uncertainty the infant looks towards their primary caregiver for stability and consistency of care.

If the infant receives proper and consistent care, he will develop a sense of trust which will carry with them to other relationships, and they will be able to feel secure even when threatened. The case will be different in case of mistrust.

Success in case of trust will lead to the virtue of hope.

2. Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

The child in this stage develops physically and becomes more mobile. Between the ages of 18 months and three, children begin to assert their independence through many ways. Some examples are that they walk away from their mother, and make choices about what they like to wear, eat, drink, etc.

Along with the developing autonomy, there is also shame and doubt with the growing years.

3. Initiative vs. Guilt

Starting from the age of three and continuing to age five, children assert themselves more frequently. These are called the rapid-developing years in a child's life. This is a time of vigour, of action and of behaviours that may seem aggressive to the parents.

During this period, the child regularly interacts with other children at school. The children explore their interpersonal skills and initiate many activities.

It is at this stage that the child begins to ask many questions as his thirst for knowledge grows. If the parents treat the child's questions as trivial and embarrassing, the child may have feelings of guilt for 'being a nuisance'. Too much guilt can make the child slow to interact with others and may inhibit their creativity.

4. Industry (competence) vs. Inferiority

Children are at the stage between five to twelve years, children learn to read and write, to do sums, to do things on their own. Teachers, in this stage begin to take an important role in the child's life as they teach the child specific skills.

The child's peer group holds a major significance during this stage. The child feels the need to win approval by demonstrating specific competencies that are valued by society, and begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments. If this initiative and accomplishment is not encouraged, the child begins to feel inferior, doubting his own abilities and therefore may not reach his or her potential.

5. Identity vs. Role Confusion

Between the age of twelve to eighteen years, the transition from childhood to adulthood is most important. Children become independent, and begin to look at the future in terms of career, relationships and families. The individual tries to belong and fit in the society.

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This is a major stage in development where the child has to learn the roles he will occupy as an adult. Failure to establish a sense of identity within society can lead to role confusion. Role confusion involves the individual not being sure about themselves or their place in society.

6. Intimacy vs. Isolation

This is the stage between eighteen to forty years where we begin to share ourselves more intimately with others. We explore different relationships which lead toward longer term commitments with someone other than a family member.

Successful completion of this stage will lead to comfortable relationships and a sense of commitment, safety, and care within a relationship. If not, it might lead to isolation and loneliness.

7. Generativity vs. Stagnation

This stage is of middle adulthood between forty and sixty-five years. During this stage, we establish our careers, settle down within a relationship, begin our own families and develop a sense of being a part of the bigger picture. We become involved in community activities and organizations. If we fail to achieve these objectives, our life may seem stagnant and desolate to us.

8. Ego Integrity vs. Despair

After completing sixty-five years, we become senior citizens and tend to slow down our productivity, and explore life as a retired person. This is a crucial time as it is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments. If we develop integrity, we see ourselves as leading a successful life.

If we analyse our lives as unproductive, feel guilty about our past, or feel that we did not accomplish our life goals, we become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness.

Check Your Progress

1. What are cardinal traits?
2. State the three major techniques of adjustment.
3. What according to Freud is the main function of the Id?
4. Name the two personality types stated by Jung.

12.3 INFLUENCE OF HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

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A human being gives birth to a human being, a monkey gives birth to a monkey, a parrot gives birth to a parrot, and a goat gives birth to a goat. This applies to all animate objects in the world. The questions that come to the mind include: Why does it happen so or why is this phenomenon as it is? Why does a human being not produce a monkey or why does a goat not produce a parrot? Why are some of us born male and some female? Who does a child resemble more—parents or near relatives? Why does our voice or behaviour resemble that of a male or female? These differences are due to different hereditary conditions and environmental background through which a living being passes and develops. This means that necessary controls and methods of improvement should be based both on hereditary and environmental conditions, because the development of the living being depends both on heredity and environment.

Heredity and environmental conditions effective from the moment of fertilization

The effect of heredity is present from the moment of fertilization. Environmental conditions also start playing their role from that time. As a living being develops, he/she finds his/her environment more complex. What is meant by this is that environmental conditions do not exert their pressure all at once; as the individual gradually develops his/her capacity to show responses to stimuli, in the same order environment also exerts its influence in a gradual manner.

Interdependence of heredity and environment

Each trait and response of a living being is based on heredity and environment. Therefore, in order to understand a living being it is necessary to understand his/her heredity and environment. The question that arises is which of the two—the heredity or the environment is more important? In other words, one may ask as to what extent does an individual's success or development depend on heredity and environment? One school of thought wants to give the entire credit to heredity, while the other considers environment as the main factor. There is yet another school of thought which holds the view that an individual's physical traits like colour of the hair, height, weight, general structure are obtained from heredity, while mental traits like intelligence and efficiency are acquired through environment. All these three viewpoints are misleading. The truth is that both heredity and environment have their separate and important roles in an individual's development. If an individual belonging to a rich background is brought up in unsympathetic and unhelpful environment he/she will then generally fail to properly develop his/her different traits. Similarly, an individual coming from a poor family may not be able to develop properly even if he/she gets a good environment. This means that heredity has its own importance. However, one has to admit that both heredity

and environment have their own importance in an individual's development. In a way both are interdependent in an individual's development and neglecting any one of them will be dangerous for an individual's growth.

Meaning of Environment

In a broad sense **environment** means cultural, economic, intellectual, moral, physical, political, social, and religious factors which influence the development of the individual. In other words, it includes all those factors which in any way influence an individual's development. Ordinarily, environment may be divided into two categories—the natural and the social. Natural environment relates to all those things on the earth which influence the development of an individual or living being. A difference is clearly visible in the standard of living, features and complexion of people living in different environments. The human succeeds in creating a social environment with the help of his different qualities and abilities. This social environment of humans is as old as civilization. In the purview of this environment comes the civilization inherited from ancestors and the present human society. From the 'civilization, inherited from ancestors' one refers to all those things which a human sees around himself/herself in the society after becoming conscious of things around him/her or acquiring the power of understanding; for example, language, various arts, religion, means of communication and transport, wealth, facilities etc. Society refers to those institutions which man has established for his/her security. This includes home, school, caste, village, town, and other institutions and associations, etc.

No two individuals have the same environment

From a psychological angle, it is not possible to state that two brothers of age seven and twelve years present at the same time in a room for an interview have been given same type of environment. In this situation, a great psychological difference arises in their individual environment; the two showed different responses to the same board of interview. Also a lot will depend on their past experiences as to what they may have learnt or what type of response they may show in a certain situation. Clearly enough, despite being brought up in apparently the same environment there may be a wide range of differences in the interests, abilities, sentiments, etc. because two individuals have never had the same environment. Due to their nature and personality, persons get different responses from others and also show different responses towards their environment.

Hereditary

Let us begin by discussing the meaning of heredity.

1. Meaning of heredity

In the words of an American academic psychologist, R S Woodworth, 'Heredity covers all the factors that are present in the individual when he begins life, not at birth, but at the time of conception about nine months before birth'.

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Psychologist, O B Douglas defines heredity, 'One's heredity consists of all the structures, physical characteristics, functions, or capacities derived from parents and ancestors'.

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2. Mechanism of heredity

When two germ cells meet together, the life of an individual starts. But each germ cell has its own history. In a female's ovary, ovum exists. Ovum is a kind of female's egg cell. In the ovum there are twenty-four pairs or forty-eight chromosomes of different shapes and sizes. In the male's sperm there are numerous germ cells. In a single male germ cell there are twenty-four pairs of chromosomes like those in a female's ovum. When a female's chromosome meets a male's chromosome the fertilization of egg takes place or an individual's life starts. What a descendant inherits from his/her parents is chromosomes. So a descendant may not inherit a particular characteristic from his/her parents unless the chromosome has been affected by that particular characteristic or incident in his/her parents' life.

3. Determination of traits through chromosomes

It appears that chromosomes are the carriers of heredity. One often hears from others such things, as, the baby's nose is just like the father, or the eyebrows are like the mothers. However, sometimes one is surprised to see that a child has no traits of either parent. If the child resembles the parents in some respects then why is he/she dissimilar in other respects? Geneticists have proved on the basis of several investigations that chromosomes have many genes and these genes determine the nature of the inherited traits. Although no one has yet seen a chromosome, for a geneticist it is as real as an atom for a chemist or electron for a physicist.

Some genes help in the creation of skin colour and complexion and some help in the formation of other physical parts; limbs, nose, ear, eye, hair, etc. In this way different genes take part in the formation of an individual. How these genes will mix together in the development of an individual depends on the various genes coming from both the mother and the father. If in a pair of genes the qualities of black hair are present in both genes then the child will have black hair. In case in the pair of genes one has the quality of black hair and the other the quality of brown hair and the child gets black hair then it will mean that the black hair genes were stronger than the brown hair genes.

4. Inherited sex difference

According to geneticists there are two major chromosomes in the ovum of the female. They are chromosomes 'X' and 'Y'. In the male's sperm there is one 'X' chromosome. In the process of reproduction, if from the active sperm comes 'X' chromosome of the father and an 'X' chromosome of the mother then the child will be female. If from the active sperm comes an 'X' chromosome and a 'Y' chromosome, then the child will be a male.

The study of chromosomes has disclosed that the genes of the X chromosomes are stronger than the genes of the Y chromosomes. If a man is colour-blind, that is, he finds it difficult to distinguish between red and green colours, none of his sons or daughters will inherit this condition, because it is a recessive one. The genes relating to colour-blindness are generally suppressed by other genes of the X chromosome. In the second generation the children of the daughter may inherit colour-blindness, because the defective genes of 'X' chromosomes are passed on to sons and daughters. Much research has been carried out about the role of genes in determining the heredity traits but explaining of these researches falls within the area of genetics.

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5. Inheritance of special abilities

Does an individual inherit special abilities or does he/she acquire them through his/her efforts? In other words, it may be asked—are the special abilities based on genes or on the environment? It may be enquired, for example, whether an individual becomes a musician by being brought up in a musical environment or does he/she inherit the qualities of a musician from his/her parents. As discussed earlier, an individual's heredity depends on his/her parents' genes, i.e. whatever the individual inherits from his/her parent is in the form of genes. Therefore unless something influences the genes of the parents, the individual will not be able to inherit it. For acquiring a high efficiency in music one must possess good knowledge of pitch of the sound, rhythm, as also a good tonal memory. But, here one must also remember that an artist perfects his/her art in a favourable environment and that, too, after hard labour and continuous practice. Therefore, special ability depends on favourable environment, hard labour, and persistent practice. Some persons have greater capacity to put in hard labour and practice than others. One who possesses this capacity in a larger measure learns faster. The limit to which this capacity depends on genes may be considered as inherited to that extent. Therefore, we may conclude that efficiency in music depends on the concerned genes relating to good vocal organs and sweet sound, necessary favourable environment and constant practice. We must also note that only practice will not enable a person to acquire a high degree of efficiency in any subject. He may be able to acquire some efficiency only through constant practice, but it will remain limited to a certain extent. Side by side, it is also true that having the necessary genes, but lacking constant practice will also not enable an individual to acquire a high degree of proficiency.

6. Inheritance of personality traits

Personality traits depend on environment, but genes also affect them in some way. An individual resembles one or the other parent in some of his/her personality traits, but this similarity may be due to living in the same environment and not due to inheritance from parents. If the mother makes others do some work through love, it is possible that the child may also develop this habit. If the father exercises fear in a certain situation the child may also develop this habit. As a matter of fact,

one should always bear in mind that an individual only inherits genes and not habits of doing things. Whatever is the social personality of a person, it is because of family and social environment, and not because of genes.

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7. Intelligence and heredity

It has been seen that some students learn a task early and without much difficulty, while others may not. But it is also seen that many of those children who learn rapidly fail to project their views successfully in a debate, while others who are not good learners perform better in a debate. One often remarks that a certain child is very intelligent and the other one mediocre. Sometimes, one says that a certain boy possesses good intelligence, but his personality is unattractive. Thus when one gives such judgments, it is done without realizing that from the psychological viewpoint such judgments are simply misleading. What is the idea behind saying ‘that his intelligence is very good’? Is this good intelligence inherited? By good intelligence one means to say that the particular individual has the knack of adjusting himself/herself in a new situation. He/she learns various things rapidly. He/she also quickly realizes which things are to be remembered and which not. For a psychologist, all these things mean that the particular individual is more capable than others in showing responses towards various stimuli present in the environment. Consequently, intelligence stands for the action of the individual with whose help he/she faces difficult situations of his/her natural or social environment. In as much as this action depends on the natural structure of the individual and the extent to which one inherits one’s natural structure; to that degree it may be said that the individual has inherited his/her intelligence.

The viewpoint of psychologists regarding intelligence is that it indicates an individual’s capacity to learn various things in difficult situations. The capacity depends on individual’s structure. So it may be said that intelligence is inherited in the form of individual’s structure.

Impact of Culture

Culture has a significant impact on the development of the individual. This fact is easily perceived. Each family has its own particular culture. Every society wants to maintain its particular culture. The individual comes into direct and immediate contact of the family, because he/she is born and nurtured within it. The impact is therefore inevitable. If one is familiar with the culture of family, one can at once perceive its impact on the individual who has been brought up in it. Similarly, the racial culture also influences the growth of the individual. One can easily understand the distinction between children brought up in U.S.A. and those nurtured in U.K. The impact of the two distinct cultures will be quite evident on them. One of the particular characteristics of Indian culture is its spirituality and that of the western culture is its materialistic outlook. When the author had a chance to go to the United States for higher studies, the teachers and students there were eager to meet him particularly on the ground that a person from abundantly spiritual land of India would be before them for discussion on several matters. Evidently, in the western countries,

India is regarded as a country in which several people have attained spiritual consciousness. Hence it is quite natural for a westerner to hope to see some sort of spiritual impact on the Indian youth. Hence, there can be no denying that culture influences the pattern of personality or growth.

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Impact of Chronological Order of Birth

The eldest child in the family grows in a certain manner or imbibes certain attitudes and modes of behaviour, simply because he happens to be the eldest one and has some brothers or sisters trouble over. The middle child is likely to be a little adamant, because he/she resents the special position enjoyed by the eldest and harbours a feeling of rivalry against the youngest for enjoying more affection from parents. Similarly, the only child in the family grows in a particular manner. The distinctions between such children as regards their varying attitudes and modes of behaviour may be easily perceived.

1. The role of endocrine glands in growth

Endocrine glands play a vital role in the physical and mental growth of an individual. These glands influence the growth before and after the birth. During the prenatal period many of these glands are in the process of formation and some of them begin to influence the growth even in the mother's womb. After birth their impact may easily be understood. The thyroid and parathyroid glands in the neck regulate the proportion of calcium in the blood. The bones do not develop well if these glands are in an unhealthy shape. The secretions from these glands influence the physical and mental growth of the child. The inadequacy of secretions from these glands affects physical and mental growth adversely—the child may become either mentally retarded or physically handicapped due to malfunctioning of certain limbs. If there is too much secretion from thymus and pineal glands, natural growth may be impeded and even after reaching the adolescent age, the individual may behave like a small child of six or seven years old. If there are inadequate secretions from the genital glands, the dawn of adolescence may be delayed. If the secretion is profuse, the sex development will be accelerated.

2. The role of intelligence

The physical and mental developments are associated with each other and one affects the other both favourably and adversely. If the child has high intelligence, its physical development also appears to be quite satisfactory. More intelligent children learn various physical activities like sitting, standing, and running more quickly. Similarly, learning to speak in a meaningful manner is quicker in more intelligent children.

3. The role of sunlight and pure air

Abundance of sunlight and pure air is vital for the overall development of children which is apparent from the fact that while selecting the site of a school building, or while constructing or hiring a house for residing in it, the first attention naturally

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goes to the amount of sunlight and pure air that will be available. Children living in dirty localities are deprived of enough sunlight and pure air. Consequently their growth is hampered. Children who have to live in houses which are not well ventilated usually suffer from bad health and various types of periodic illnesses which could have been avoided by shifting to more well ventilated houses in cleaner localities. If the physical health is not good, the mental development cannot be satisfactory.

Check Your Progress

5. What is the role of endocrine glands in the growth and development of an individual?
6. How has R S Woodworth defined heredity?

12.4 EMOTIONS

It is very difficult to define emotion. In fact it is easier to understand it than to define it. Everyone realizes what kind of feelings one experiences when grief-stricken, happy, angry, afraid, or excited. Psychologists have named such experiences as emotions. Emotion is a powerful weapon in the hands of politicians, leaders, and teachers. They try to have desired effect by arousing emotions of children and citizens. Under an emotional fit, a person may commit murder, get angry with others, run away out of fear, or get senseless or become so happy that he/she may even dance. Emotion not only creates activity but also inspires other attitudes. The experiences of peace, happiness, and love are also counted as emotional experiences.

Everyone experiences various kinds of emotions. It is a difficult problem for psychology to explain and define emotional responses. Psychologists are studying intra-organic or physiological changes that occur in an individual during emotional responses since the last seven decades. But no satisfactory explanation has been found so far. Therefore, it is difficult to indicate a particular emotional experience on the basis of external symptoms. By seeing a player in action one feels that he/she is undergoing a very violent emotional experience. The same holds good in the case of an actor also. But neither the player nor the actor experiences any violent emotion.

Original Emotion: Fear, Anger, and Love

The behaviours of new-born infants are studied in order to understand some original emotions. Psychologist, Watson was one of the first psychologists to have studied the new-born infants. According to him fear, anger, and love are original emotions. The emotion of fear appears at a loud sound or when something falls down from the hand. According to Watson an infant feels anger when his/her arm or leg is

held. Patting generates love emotion. Psychologists have been greatly encouraged from Watson's viewpoint in the study of emotions.

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Emotional responses are complex. Difference of opinion is found in the number of emotions displayed by infants. Most of the psychologists agree that their original emotions are limited. With social development, some changes appear in their emotional responses. Physical development, too, greatly influences their emotional expressions. The impact of social and physical development on emotional expression of children may be noted because their entire development goes on in the shape of a unit. All kinds of developments generally go on simultaneously.

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Maturation and Emotional Development

Some psychologists have tried to understand the nature of emotions from external physical movements of infants, but this approach has not been very helpful. Psychologists have different views about the impact of physical maturation on the development of emotional behaviour. According to Gesell, physical maturation greatly influences emotional development. Some psychologists consider social interaction as the main cause for emotional development. About the behaviour of infants Gesell says that if a ten-week-old infant is placed in a closed place they do not protest. At the age of twenty weeks he/she moves the head from side-to-side and shows his/her resentment. At the age of thirty weeks infants cry in order to show resentment and disapproval. On the basis of his research Gesell has expressed the view that with improvement of environmental knowledge, social development and physical control, infants develop an ability to express their emotional feelings in a better manner.

The emotional behaviour of an infant starts at birth, but it is difficult to say when and what type of emotion the infant experiences. A four- or five-month-old infant is not able to show response against all types of stimuli. According to Bridges, the emotions of infants up to the age of a year and half cannot be definitely identified, although they experience some or the other kind of emotion in different situations. However, during the first two or three years some idea may be formed about an infant's emotions. If a one month old infant is turned upside down, then he/she cries showing displeasure. On this basis some investigators conclude that on experiencing some difficulties the child shows the emotion of distress. The three- or four- month-old weeping child often becomes silent when his/her mother takes him/her in her lap. From this behaviour of the child one may say that he/she experiences the emotion of delight. A child also tries to smile seeing others smiling at him/her. This is also the sign of emotion of delight. According to Bridges, a three-month-old infant may show delight and distress, the six-month-old the emotions of fear, disgust, and anger, and a one-year-old child may show affection and elation. At the age of a year and half children show the emotion of jealousy. At the age of two years they are able to show greater elation, anger, disgust, and fear.

With improvement in language, complexity comes in the nature of emotion. This complexity starts from the second year. As an individual grows in age and

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experience, he/she may show complex or mixed emotion. At times it becomes difficult to understand the nature of an adult's emotion, because many types of feelings get mixed up in the experience of emotions. Generally, it is seen that infants do not fear certain things which adults fear. For example, a year old infant will not fear a dead snake, but a five- or six-year-old child may fear the dead snake. As the child grows in age, fearful situations in the environment appear dreadful to him/her.

If a hasty approach is made to remove a fear contracted during childhood it will then become a permanent fear. Kartikeya aged about five years was very much afraid of a dark room. He had the idea that a ghost was always sitting in a dark room. The author took him in the dark room and through the torch light provided to him showed him that there was no ghost sitting there. Since then Kartikeya gave up fearing the dark room. If a child is afraid of a river or deep water then placing him/her into deep water suddenly, will make his/her fear permanent. It will be better if he/she is gradually persuaded and convinced sympathetically that the fear of river or deep water is not logical. He then might be taken into the river and helped to learn swimming. Thus his fear of deep water may be removed.

Some parents in order to silence their children create fear in them saying such things as 'keep quiet a lion has come' and the 'bear will carry you away'. This is a very non-psychological method for silencing a child. By this approach the child will become a coward and will lose self-confidence. Sometimes children act against the given suggestion so one should be careful while giving suggestions to them. If a child wants to put his/her hand into an electric fan then it is possible he/she will place his/her hand into it if asked not to do so. In this situation, instead of creating fear for the fan they should be explained the harmful result of doing so. It is not possible to keep a child away from realities of life. They have to face many fearful situations in life. So in the interest of good social development, children should be explained the pros and cons of a particular situation. Thus the child will begin to understand things and will not fear unnecessarily. If a child fears something, then in order to remove the fear, his/her attention should be diverted to other better things. Verbal appeal may also help in dispelling fear. For example, if a child is afraid of a dog, then the parents should themselves play with that dog in front of the child. Thus through social imitation the child will feel encouraged and fear for the dog will disappear. This is an example of removing fear through social situation.

Distress and weeping

Weeping or crying is generally a part of nature of children. The reason behind weeping may be distress, anger, fear, or jealousy. The emotional tension generated by these emotions is released by flow of tears from eyes. Perhaps, nature has made the provision in order to serve this purpose. Three year-old children cry less in schools. Four- to five-year-old children often cry when somebody interferes with their natural activity. Normally, children show three kinds of behaviour when in distress: (i) call an elder for help, (ii) protest against interference, or (iii) silently

express displeasure. Five- to six- year- old children may complain or inform the teacher about their emotions. Children also cry when teased by others.

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Jealousy

Emotions of distress and anger are mixed in jealousy. Children compete with one another for getting affection of parents. When a child sees that others are getting affection of his/her parents will feel jealous. This generally happens in a family with four or five children. The feeling of jealousy starts in an infant at the age of a year and a half. When the mother takes one child in her arms the other child also wants that he/she should have the same privilege and starts weeping. The feeling of jealousy starts developing in a child when his/her younger brother or sister is born and the attention of parents is directed towards the new born infant. Thus the psychological behaviour of parents is very helpful in preventing the development of jealousy in children.

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The feeling of jealousy among girls is more than in boys according to some psychologists. The reason for this is perhaps our own behaviour towards the girls. Under the present social values and traditions, girls are given less freedom than boys. The parents, too, have double standards in this respect. So, the boy thinks that he is superior to the girl in everything. This kind of attitude adversely affects the girl. However, feeling of jealousy does not disappear completely.

Competitive spirit is found in children when they start taking part in group plays. The emotion of jealousy is generated from the spirit of competition. The boy or the girl whose performance is superior in sports, games, and studies becomes an object of jealousy for other children. Brothers and sisters feel jealous of one another during childhood, but jealousy gradually disappears when they are twelve or thirteen years old. This is because they by now start realizing their abilities and limitations more and thus a feeling of compromise comes to their mind. However, this does not mean that the feeling of jealousy disappears altogether. In fact, this feeling never dies. Actually speaking, a person due to social restrictions does not express it openly. His/her behaviour at times may indicate the presence of jealousy.

Check Your Progress

7. What are the three kind of behaviour shown by children in distress?
8. Why are emotional responses of infants complex?

12.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Traits which appear in most of the behaviour of the organism are called cardinal. It may be illustrated with the example of achievement in life. Some people are so devoted to achievement that this trait pervades the whole life.

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2. The three major techniques of adjustment are:
 - a) Moving toward people
 - b) Moving away
 - c) Moving against
3. The main function of id is the discharge of psychic energy which when pent up produces tension through the personality system. The id operates on animal level. It cannot differentiate between good and bad, and operates on pleasure principle.
4. Jung is well known for two psychological types—the extrovert and introvert. The extroverted attitude represents an orientation toward the external world. This type is socially engaging, active, and venturesome. The introvert attitude involves an orientation toward the inner, subjective world. The introverted type is hesitant, reflective and cautious. Both are ordinarily present in the personality of an individual but one of them is dominant and conscious which becomes the basis of classification of personality.
5. Endocrine glands play a vital role in the physical and mental growth of an individual. These glands influence the growth before and after the birth. During the prenatal period many of these glands are in the process of formation and some of them begin to influence the growth even in the mother's womb. The bones do not develop well if these glands are in an unhealthy shape. The secretions from these glands influence the physical and mental growth of the child.
6. R S Woodworth defined heredity as, 'Heredity covers all the factors that are present in the individual when he begins life, not at birth, but at the time of conception about nine months before birth'.
7. The three kind of behaviour shown by children in distress are i) call an elder for help, (ii) protest against interference, or (iii) silently express displeasure.
8. Emotional responses of infants are complex as difference of opinion is found in the number of emotions displayed by infants. Most of the psychologists agree that their original emotions are limited. With social development, some changes appear in their emotional responses. Physical development, too, greatly influences their emotional expressions.

12.6 SUMMARY

- There is no topic in the field of psychology which is more fascinating than personality. Tremendous research has been done on the topic, but no final conclusions have been drawn as regards the nature of personality.
- The term personality has been defined in various ways by the psychologists who worked on the problem of personality and the variables influencing its development.

- The term personality has been derived from the Latin word ‘Persona’ that was associated with Greek theatre in ancient times.
- Persona means a mask which the Greek actors commonly used to wear covering their faces when they worked on the stage.
- Some psychologists define personality in terms of its social stimulus value. How an individual affects other person with whom he comes in contact, whether he is impressive or repulsive, or has a dominating or submissive personality.
- Jung, a Swiss psychiatrist, attempted to classify human beings on two behavioural dimensions: extrovert and introvert.
- Sigmund Freud, an Austrian neurologist, on the basis of his theory of psychosexual development, identified three types of personality.
- Classification of human beings into types has been generally criticized by psychologists on the basis that typologies tend to place emphasis upon one or another phase of development. They deal with extremes rather than mediocrity of human nature.
- Typology and trait approaches are interrelated to each other in the sense that typology includes a wide variety of traits in classifying human beings in broad types while in trait approach we label or call a person by a specific mode of behaviour which he shows in a wide variety of circumstances.
- G W Allport, an American sociologist is one of the most outstanding trait psychologists. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists.
- According to Allport, traits differ in intensity and magnitude in general population from individual to individual. No two individuals are alike in their behaviour. They operate in their unique way in the environment.
- Freud was the first psychologist who placed great importance on instincts as the determinant of human behaviour. He proposed two instincts: (a) *Eros*, the love and self-preservation, and (b) *Thanatos*, the death instinct, as the ultimate cause of all human activities.
- According to Freud, the human organism is a complex energy system which derives its energy from the food it consumes. The energy created by biological factors may be transformed to psychic energy.
- The most significant and controversial concept of Jung’s Analytical Psychology is the concept of the collective unconscious. It is primitive in nature and is composed of the material which has never been conscious.
- The concept of psychic energy of Freud and Jung is the same. Psychic energy originates from the metabolic process of the body.
- The style of life is an abstraction that includes everything of living within some characteristics, plan or means of attaining the life goal. It is a unique quality of personality which differentiates one person from the other.

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- The effect of heredity is present from the moment of fertilization. Environmental conditions also start playing their role from that time.
- It is very difficult to define emotion. In fact it is easier to understand it than to define it. Everyone realizes what kind of feelings one experiences when grief-stricken, happy, angry, afraid, or excited. Psychologists have named such experiences as emotions
- Emotional responses are complex. Difference of opinion is found in the number of emotions displayed by infants. Most of the psychologists agree that their original emotions are limited.

12.7 KEY WORDS

- **Personality:** It refers to the sum total of different processes and activities of the individual as, for example, innate dispositions, habits, impulses and emotions.
- **Source Traits:** It refers to the underlying structures or sources that determine the behaviour of an individual.
- **Surface Traits:** It refers to traits which can be easily recognized by overt manifestation of behaviour, are called surface traits as curiosity, integrity, honesty, tactfulness and dependability.
- **Unique Traits:** It refers to traits which are possessed by particular persons as temperamental traits, emotional reactions, and energy.

12.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**Short-Answer Questions**

1. How has E Spranger divided human beings in his typology?
2. List the advantages of typology.
3. How has Walter Michel defined trait?
4. What are the characteristics of traits?
5. What are the three main types of human traits according to G W Allport?
6. What are the features of trait theories?
7. Why is ego called the executive of personality?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the meaning of personality in detail.
2. Explain the theories related to the concept of personality.

3. Discuss the process of development of trait.
4. Why is trait theory of personality criticised? Discuss in detail.
5. Identify the advantages and disadvantages of Freud's theory of personality.
6. Discuss the role of heredity and environment on the growth and development of an individual.

Personality

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12.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 13 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND ITS APPLICATIONS

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Structure

- 13.0 Introduction
 - 13.1 Objectives
 - 13.2 Application of Social Psychology
 - 13.3 Collective or Group Behaviour: Nature, Reasons and Manifestations
 - 13.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
 - 13.5 Summary
 - 13.6 Key Words
 - 13.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
 - 13.8 Further Readings
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13.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the theories of personality. In this unit, the applications of social psychology and an understanding of the development of the group identity beyond the objects of literature have been discussed. As a practice, social psychology tries to examine the actions and the thoughts of individuals. But it should be kept in mind that these thoughts and action are dictated by many external forces. The meaning of group, its characteristics and classification have been discussed. The unit will also discuss the concept of group behaviour.

13.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyse the importance of clinical setting
 - Identify the psychological approaches to health
 - Discuss the process to of military setting
 - Interpret the meaning of goal and its characteristics
 - Identify the main types of groups.
 - Discuss the meaning of group behaviour and group interaction
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13.2 APPLICATION OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

We will in this section discuss the uses of social psychology.

Clinical Setting

A social psychologist plays a significant role within the clinical setting. Social and clinical psychology share some common points on topics such as behaviour,

adaptation and adjustment. This consists of a two-sided approach at the psychopathological as well as the development levels. Concerns relating to distress, maladjustment, and deviant behaviour form a part of the area just as concerns relating to the improvement of psychological well-being among the psychologically healthy individuals. Maladjustment among couples may lead to clashes in close relationships, self-defeating behaviours and even learned helplessness, may arise as a part of acculturation process. A little deviation in relationships may lead to controllable interpersonal conflict. However, if interpersonal conflicts become unmanageable then it may lead to bigger psychological issues requiring clinical attention. On the developmental side, social psychologists may utilize psychological coping methods such as self-regulation and self-management to be applied in daily life.

Factors that Influence the Accuracy of Clinical Judgements

The factors which influence the accuracy of clinical judgements are as follows:

1. Illusory Correlations

- If we expect certain responses from certain types of people, we may come to notice these more and believe a strong correlation exists.
- As an example, there is NO correlation between responses on a Rorschach ink blot test and ANY group.

2. Hindsight and Overconfidence

- Are mental health professionals able to tell the difference between those who are mentally healthy and those who aren't?
- Rosenhan wanted to know that if the patients were misdiagnosed, what the consequences were.
- He also wanted to know whether the characteristics that lead to psychological diagnoses reside in the patients themselves or in the situations and contexts in which the observers (those who do the diagnosing) find the patients.

3. Self-Confirming Diagnoses

If a clinician suspects a diagnosis, they will ask the patient if they have a particular symptom.

- The patient will often report the symptom.
- Whenever doctors ask my daughter if it hurts 'here', she says yes.
- The patient now confirms what the clinician suspected.
- Most clinicians believe they are better at diagnosing than statistical data would be, otherwise they'd be out of a job!
- Statistical prediction is usually better than clinical prediction.

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- Thickness of patients medical file is often a better predictor of readmission than clinical judgments.
- Insurance companies take advantage of this when determining your risks for life insurance.

Cognitive Processes that Accompany Behaviour Problems

- Nondepressed people display overconfidence in nearly everything.
- Depressive Realism: The tendency of mildly depressed people to make accurate rather than self-serving judgments, attributions, and predictions.
- Explanatory Style: One's habitual way of explaining life-events. A negative, pessimistic, depressive explanatory style attributes failure to stable, global, and internal causes.
- Loneliness: Awareness that our social relationships are less numerous or meaningful than we desire.
- One can feel lonely in the middle of a party.
- Adolescents experience more loneliness than adults.
- Lonely people more likely to rate another person negatively.

Inducing Internal Change through External Behaviour?

- Behaviour therapists try to shape behaviour on the theory that the client's inner disposition will also change after the behavioural change.
- Assertiveness training
- Self-help groups get people to act in new ways in front of a group of people.
- What we say about ourselves can affect how we feel about ourselves.

If depression, loneliness, and social anxiety maintain themselves through a vicious circle of negative experiences, negative thinking, and self-defeating behaviour, it should be possible to break the circle at any point—by changing the environment, by training the person to behave more constructively, by reversing negative thinking.

Maintaining Change through Internal Attributions for Success

- Once improvement is achieved, it endures best if people attribute it to factors under their own control rather than to a treatment program.
- Behaviour change can be created quite impressively using outside reinforcers, but once the reinforcers are removed, behaviours return to their original point.

Sometimes, the theories and findings from social psychology may seem a bit remote from the problems in society. However, many, if not most societal problems have social psychological aspects (for example, crime, racism and environmental pollution), and therefore, social psychology may not only help in clarifying such problems, but also contribute to finding solutions.

Military Setting

Social Psychology and its Applications

The military personnel have to go through various circumstances and situations that affect the mental health and well-being of the military people. Social psychologists try to look into these matters and find the possible problem and solutions associated with it. It can also help to interview or consult military personnel who might provide information that would help in enhancing the outcomes of the military operations. The social psychologists in the military setting have found out that there is a great need for mental health care in the military setting to help them in coping with the high-stress military environments.

Sociologists, historians, and even psychologists have long studied the **when** and **why** of major wars. Their theories range from economics to demographics to resources to religion to lust for empire. Psychological stress and disorders have always been a part of military life, especially during and after wartime, but the mental health section of military psychology has not always experienced the awareness it does now. Even in the present day there is much more research and awareness needed concerning this area. Military psychology is the research, design and application of psychological theories and experimentation data towards understanding, predicting and countering behaviours either in friendly or enemy forces or civilian population that may be undesirable, threatening or potentially dangerous to the conduct of military operations. Military psychology is applied towards counselling and treatment of stress and fatigue of military personnel or military families as well as treatment of psychological trauma suffered as a result of military operations. Another use of military psychology is in interrogation of prisoners who may provide information that would enhance outcomes of friendly military operations or reduce friendly casualties.

The goals and missions of current military psychologists have been retained over the years, varying with the focus and strength of intensity of research put forth into each sector. The need for mental health care is now an expected part of high-stress military environments. The importance and severity of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has finally gained more credibility than those suffering from it received in the past, and is being highlighted in treatment programs. More extensive post-deployment screenings take place now to home in on problematic recoveries that used to be passed unnoticed and untreated.

When looking at identity from a perspective of social psychology, one sees the specific role that identifying the self in relation to an ‘in-group’ and an ‘out-group’ plays in identity formation. You need to study, in addition to the social and psychological dynamics of impermanent identities, the contrast between personal identity and social identity, and the multiplicity of identities of one person, with particular focus on the application of these principles to identity formation within a military context. Identity formation owes a particular debt to the culture within which it is created and developed. In the essay *Social Identification*, author, Kay Deaux examines the specifics of forming a distinctly social identity in the context of ‘in-groups’ and ‘out-groups.’ A quote from an article in the *European Journal of Social*

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Psychology by author, H Tajfel et al. defines social identity clearly as ‘that part of the individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership’. As a practice, psychology examines the thoughts and actions of the individual, but it would be an incomplete science if it did not take into account the fact that these thoughts and actions are continually influenced by outside forces. Identity of the individual is always developed in collective terms: whatever words we choose to define ourselves are usually relative to some other person or group, whether implicitly or explicitly. Thus, as Deaux asserts, ‘our personal traits are rarely idiosyncratic’ (Deaux 780). New forms of identification could arise with any new perception of common qualities shared with another person or people. In the case of military indoctrination, this is especially true. In listing the process of social identification, Deaux makes poignant the importance of categorization as a cognitive process, the significance of emotional association, as well as the interdependence of behaviour within a group. In joining a group with a collective identity, candidates for membership must have a perception of similarity with the other members involved, an awareness of a common fate with these members, and finally the centrality of a particular identification. With these attributes taken into account, a person finds themselves identifying with an ‘in-group.’

13.3 COLLECTIVE OR GROUP BEHAVIOUR: NATURE, REASONS AND MANIFESTATIONS

Right from his or her birth, an individual becomes a member of a group. Beginning with the mother-child combination, and with growth, entering into the family group, peer group, community group, social class group, religious or ethnic group, each individual has a certain degree of identification with, and loyalty to the various groups to which he or she belongs. Many of his or her beliefs, attitudes and ways of behaving have their roots in and are nurtured and sustained by these group identifications. Each person’s behaviour pattern is the product of a complex interlacing of personal interests, attitudes, motives and aptitudes with his many formal and informal group memberships, identifications and loyalties.

We cannot think of ourselves as ever-having lived without a group. One cannot have an existence just on his own and apart from a group.

Definition and Meaning of a Group

The following are some of the definitions of group given by renowned scholars and psychologists:

According to Basz (1960), ‘A group is a social setting in which an individual satisfies some needs and considers the membership of the group as rewarding’.

Fielder (1967) defined, ‘By group we, generally, mean a set of individual who share a common fate, that is who are interdependent in the sense that an event which affects one member is likely to affect all’.

Kretch, Crutchfield and Ballachey regarded a psychological group ‘as two or more persons who meet the following conditions:

- (i) The relations among the members are independent-each member’s behaviour influences the behaviour of each of the others;
- (ii) The members ‘share an ideology’, which is a set of beliefs, values and norms which regulate their mutual conduct.’

MC David (1968) defined a group as, ‘A social psychological group is an organized system of two or more individuals who are interrelated so that the system performs some functions, has a standard set of the role relationship among its members and has a set of norms that regulate the function of the group and each of its members’.

M Smith (1945) considered a social group as ‘a unit consisting of plural number of separate organisms who have a collective perception of their unity and who have the ability to work together and are acting in unitary manner towards their environment’.

M Sherif and C W Sherif defined a group as ‘a social unit consisting of a number of individuals who stand in role and status relationships to one another, stabilized in some degree at the time and who possess a set of values or norms of their own regulating their behaviour, at least, in matters of consequence to the group’.

Essential Characteristics of a Group

From the mentioned definitions, essential characteristics of a group may be summarized as:

1. A group in the psychological sense is a unit of two or more individuals.
2. The members of a group share a set of beliefs or values.
3. The members share a common purpose, task or goal.
4. The relations among the members are interdependent.
5. There is a feeling of ‘belongingness’ or ‘togetherness or we feeling’ among the members of the group.
6. The members prescribe a set of norms of behaviour for themselves.
7. The group has some kind of structure to hold it together and attain the goals effectively. The structure is hierarchical where the functions and powers are distributed.

Classification of Groups

Some of the classifications of groups are given in the following section.

1. **‘We’ and ‘they’ Groups:** A professor in sociology, W G Summer classified the groups into two categories:
 - (i) In-group or we group with which we identify ourselves.

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(ii) Out-group or other's group is the group in which the members are considered as outsiders by us.

2. Degree of Intimacy as the Basis of classification: An American sociologist, C H Cooley made a three-fold classification:

- (i) Primary group in which there is an intimate face-to-face relationship among members and members have a 'we feeling' to the maximum. Family, play groups and the village community come under this category.
- (ii) Secondary group in which relationships among the members are more or less casual and marked by common interest. Examples of this type are trade unions, clubs etc.
- (iii) Tertiary group in which relationship is quite transitory—audience in a cinema hall.

3. Organized and Spontaneous Groups

- (i) The family, the school and so on are the examples of organized groups which are formed for specific purposes and careful planning.
- (ii) Spontaneous groups are formed without any careful planning. After listening to a speech, audience may form spontaneous groups.

4. Formal and Informal Groups

- (i) Formal groups are formed on the basis of specific norms, rules and values. School comes under the category of a formal group. The group of the students in a classroom also comes under the category of a formal group.
- (ii) Play groups, peer groups and social clubs are examples of informal groups. Here, rules are usually flexible.

An individual may belong to many groups.

Group Behaviour

The behaviour of an individual is different from the group behaviour. In the group behaviour, a person has to act according to the norms of the group. In fact in group behaviour, an individual may act in a manner which as an individual he would not otherwise like to act. For example, he may indulge in actions which he would feel very much shy of doing in an individual capacity. The level of intelligence goes down in group behaviour as only a few individuals may guide the behaviour of the group.

Group Interaction

According to sociologist, Brown, group interaction is a two-way process whereby each individual or group stimulates the other and in varying degrees modifies the behaviour of the participants. The behaviour and personality characteristics of the

individual members affect the behaviour of others and make a significant impact over the functioning of the group as a whole.

Check Your Progress

1. What are the common points between social and clinical psychology?
2. How has MC David defined social psychological group?
3. What are the characteristics of a group?

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13.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Social and clinical psychology share some common points on topics such as behaviour, adaptation and adjustment.
2. MC David (1968) defined a group as, ‘A social psychological group is an organized system of two or more individuals who are interrelated so that the system performs some functions, has a standard set of the role relationship among its members and has a set of norms that regulate the function of the group and each of its members’.
3. The following are the characteristics of a group:

A group in the psychological sense is a unit of two or more individuals.

- (a) The members of a group share a set of beliefs or values.
- (b) The members share a common purpose, task or goal.
- (c) The relations among the members are interdependent.

13.5 SUMMARY

- A social psychologist plays a significant role within the clinical setting. Social and clinical psychology share some common points on topics such as behaviour, adaptation and adjustment.
- Maladjustment among couples may lead to clashes in close relationships, self-defeating behaviours and even learned helplessness, may arise as a part of acculturation process.
- If depression, loneliness, and social anxiety maintain themselves through a vicious circle of negative experiences, negative thinking, and self-defeating behaviour, it should be possible to break the circle at any point—by changing the environment, by training the person to behave more constructively, by reversing negative thinking.

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- From a broader perspective, seemingly contradictory conclusions from experiments support the idea that humans are complex social beings with many different behavioural tendencies.
- The military personnel have to go through various circumstances and situations that affect the mental health and well-being of the military people.
- Social psychologists try to look into these matters and find the possible problem and solutions associated with it. It can also help to interview or consult military personnel who might provide information that would help in enhancing the outcomes of the military operations.
- Right from his or her birth, an individual becomes a member of a group. Beginning with the mother-child combination, and with growth, entering into the family group, peer group, community group, social class group, religious or ethnic group, each individual has a certain degree of identification with, and loyalty to the various groups to which he belongs.
- The behaviour of an individual is different from the group behaviour. In the group behaviour, a person has to act according to the norms of the group.
- According to sociologist, Brown, group interaction is a two-way process whereby each individual or group stimulates the other and in varying degrees modifies the behaviour of the participants.

13.6 KEY WORDS

- **Formal Groups:** It refers to a group which is formed based on specific norms, rules and values. School comes under the category of a formal group.
- **Health Psychology:** It refers to the study of the psychological roots of health and illness. Provides psychology's contribution to behavioural medicine.
- **Primary Group:** It refers to a group in which there is an intimate face-to-face relationship among members and members have a 'we feel' to the maximum.

13.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. State the role of social psychologist in clinical setting.
2. List the factors which influence the accuracy of clinical judgements?
3. What are the main types of groups?

Long-Answer Questions

*Social Psychology and
its Applications*

1. Discuss in detail the concept of clinical setting.
2. Analyse the goals and missions of military setting.
3. How has social psychological group been defined by scholars? Explain in detail.
4. Discuss the factors which influence clinical judgements.

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13.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 14 APPLICATION OF PSYCHOLOGY FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

Structure

- 14.0 Introduction
 - 14.1 Objectives
 - 14.2 Role of Social Workers in Promoting Mental Health
 - 14.3 Importance and Demands for Psychiatric Social Workers
 - 14.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
 - 14.5 Summary
 - 14.6 Key Words
 - 14.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
 - 14.8 Further Readings
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14.0 INTRODUCTION

The nature and scope of social work, the kind of problems it addressed, and the manner in which it dealt with them were known to very few people around the late 1950s. Even after so many decades, people are not fully aware of the kind of job a social worker is assigned and the kind of work he or she is expected to do. Despite the emergence of more than fifty schools of social work and the progress that has taken place in this field, social workers much like the general public are neither fully aware of nor certain about their own status, role, and responsibilities. Several questions in the field of social work remain unanswered.

Much like social work, mental health is an area that has not been able to establish its identity in the country. Till date, a large number of people who are in need of mental health services, especially in villages, are either left to their own fate or are taken to traditional healers or places of worship.

Mental health illness is considered more as a taboo in a country like India. Individuals affected by mental health illness are often treated as social outcasts. Thus, there is an essential need to treat such individuals with humanity, and social work along these lines must be carried out.

In this unit, the role of social workers in raising awareness about mental health has been discussed. The methods employed in social work and its applications have been analysed. The importance of psychiatric social workers and their role in India have also been highlighted in this unit.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of social work and its objectives
- Identify the methods of social works
- Discuss the applications of social work
- Analyse the role of psychiatric social workers in India

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14.2 ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN PROMOTING MENTAL HEALTH

Mental health illness is still a stigmatized area and hence, people do not bother to consult a mental health specialist because they either do not know about the psychiatric illness, are not aware of the psychiatric treatment, or because of the stigma attached to psychiatric illness, they prefer to take the patient to a shrine than to a mental hospital.

The condition of mentally ill people is not much different in cities too. Even the educated class living in the metropolitan cities avoids consulting a mental health professional. They may visit a psychiatrist when the mental condition worsens significantly and the family members are no longer able to handle the patient, to obtain medicines. They believe the medication is the only way to fix mental problems. The medical compliance is equally poor. In a clinical set-up, one further finds that many patients either take medicine when the symptoms are acute and soon discontinue them against the psychiatrist advice, the moment their condition begins to improve a bit. Some even discontinue medicine believing that if they eat it for long, the medicine may have more harmful effect on their brain and they may become insane forever. On the other hand, one may find people who have been taking medicines from ages yet do not have a clear understanding of the problem they are suffering from. One can even find few people who simply continue eating the same medicine and dosage for years together without a second psychiatric consultation. Some begin medicine and drop them on their own as and when symptoms appear or settle.

Even the educated class prefers to hide the mentally ill person from the society and lives a major part of their life in denial. Of the few who visit a psychiatrist, hardly ever are seen by psychologist or a social worker as they consider them as only aids of psychiatrist. Many are not even clear about the role of the psychologist and a social worker and how the two are different from the psychiatrist. Some fail to understand that therapies are quite different from simple talking and thus do not want to spend on consulting a psychologist or a social worker.

In the mental health set-up, seldom mentally ill patients consulted first consult a psychologist or a social worker. Similarly, psychiatrists too consider psychiatric

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treatment as their monopoly and usually do not bother to refer patients to social workers or psychologists, even if the patient needs social work or psychological intervention. This is quite a sad and an alarming situation. However, still a lot can be done to change the outlook of people who are in need of intervention and also the attitude of psychiatrists towards social workers. There is a massive need to spread awareness and remove myths associated with the mental illness and its various modalities of intervention.

The term social work refers to working for a social cause or working for the betterment of society in general. It is a field in which a social worker enhances an individual's awareness about their problems, helps them identify their worth, dignity, and enables them to lead a satisfactory and independent life which they find it difficult to live such a life on their own. Professor Friedlander has defined the field of social work as a 'service based upon scientific knowledge and skill in human relations which assists individuals alone or in groups to obtain social and professional satisfaction and independence.'

Social work as a profession has its origins from the time when people first began to take responsibility for their neighbours through activities which were termed as charity, poor relief, philanthropy and social reform. Social work aims to fight against so-called 'Five Evils' namely—physical wants, disease, ignorance, squalor, and idleness. To deal with these concerns, social work has the following objectives:

- To remove social injustice
- To relieve social injustice
- To reduce redress
- To prevent suffering
- To assist the weaker sections
- To rehabilitate the distress class people

Various methods are used in social work to attain the above the mentioned objectives. Some of the methods of social work are as follows:

- **Social case work:** Social case work is a method which helps people to have better social relationships with others in their surroundings. It facilitates social adjustment and helps them to lead a satisfying and useful life by **counselling** individuals. According to sociologist, Gordon Hamilton, 'the objective of social case work is to administer practical services and offer counselling in such a way as to arouse and conserve psychological energies of the client activity to involve him or her in the use of the service towards the solution of her/his dilemmas'
- **Social group work:** It is an activity that is undertaken in a group setting to facilitate the participant's intellectual, emotional, and physical growth. It aims to attain the desired goals of the groups. Through the medium of

social group work, the social worker enables various types of groups to function in a manner that the combination of group interaction and programme activities allows growth of the individual and the achievement of the desired social goals.

- **Community organization:** Community organization is the process of planning and developing social services in order to meet the health and welfare needs of a community or larger unit. According to sociologist, Mildred Barry, the community organization as a method in social work is the process of creating and maintaining a progressively more effective adjustment between community resources and community welfare needs.
- **Social action:** The term ‘social action’ refers to organized and legally permitted activities designed to mobilize public opinion, legislation, and public administration in favour of objectives believed to be socially desirable. These are actions undertaken to solve general social problems and to further social welfare objectives by legislative, social, health, or economic progress.
- **Social welfare research:** Social welfare research involves a systematic critical investigation of questions in the social welfare field with the purpose of yielding answers to problems of social work and of extending generally social work concepts. To conduct research in the area of social work, it uses methods that have to a large extent have been derived from related fields like Sociology and Social Psychology as well as from History and Anthropology.
- **Social welfare administration:** Social welfare administration process aims to organize and to direct a social agency. The administrative aspects of social work have to do with the organization and management of social agencies both public and private. It aims to establish general administrative relationships among units of the same organization, personal problems, questions of finance and so on.

The profession of social work has three main methods i.e. (i) case work, (ii) group work, and (iii) community organization, to achieve its goal. Of these three methods, community organization covers the largest number of clients at a time to solve their socio economic or psychosomatic problems.

The term community work/organization was first used in America before the First World War and was included in social work curriculum there as a subject in 1940. Community work began in England with organization charity to assist the needy and poor through settlement houses. It was in the middle of twentieth century that it came in practice in third world countries for developmental programmes and is now being used as a well-established professional method of helping people. Over these years it has achieved recognition and an accepted status of a method of social work in social work curriculum as well as in social work practice in

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developed nation and in under developed nations where social work is taught and practiced.

The exact location of community work within social work depends on the needs, demands, requirements, resources, facilities, willingness, feasibility, circumstances, and nature of the community to be served. When looked historically, one realizes that in the field of social work, case work came into practice first, followed by group work and lastly community work. Of these three methods, in developed countries, case work followed by group work methods are more popular and widely practiced but in developing and under developed countries of third world, community work is more prominent. However, no method is superior to the other, each has its own strengths and weaknesses.

Applications of Social Case Work

Case work was a mode of helping people on a person-to-person basis. It was present in every society from ancient times, but the professional method of casework originated in the US in the second decade of this century. ‘One of the earliest organized efforts in the US to help the poor was the establishment of the American Charity Organization Society in 1877 on the pattern of the Charity Organization of London, which was started seven years earlier’. To find out ways and means of helping the poor and needy and thus to organize individualized services fulfilling this purpose was one of the aims of the Society.

Several years back social case work was only method used by social workers in the area of mental health. In the earlier period, particularly after the First World War in the US, observes Aptekar (1955), the common interest of Psychiatry and at times social case work were recognized. In the field of social work a lot was borrowed from Psychiatry and at times the social case work practice became indistinguishable from Psychiatric practice.

In the forties, however, case work profession attempted to stand on its own and efforts were made to distinguish and differentiate case work and counselling by social workers from Psychotherapy and the practice of Psychiatry. In India as well as in many other developing countries of the world, social case work has been recognized neither suitable nor feasible both from financial as well as manpower point of view.

Volunteers, who were called ‘friendly visitors’ were used by society, to visit the homes of the poor for purposes of assessing their needs, for providing material assistance, and for giving them guidance and advice. ‘Paid agents’ subsequently supplemented the friendly visitors. Gradually systematic procedures for accomplishing these tasks were developed by them. Data was collected about the needy individuals and families, and they were helped after assessing their need. The paid agents also maintained records in which all the information including personal data, as well as the type of help rendered was kept. It was out of the practice of these early workers that the method of social casework was developed.

According to sociologist, Aptekar (1961), in India, unlike in the US, case work does not play a prominent part in the social work practice. In fact, social work is looked upon more generally. In India intensive training for case work would be a luxury, perhaps at this time, and may not be necessary for adequate functioning in many types of agencies. Sociologist, G R Banerjee (1961) had also stressed that ‘psychiatric social work in India should be the practice of social work and not just social case work in a psychiatric setting, for that is a narrow view of social work. In the practice of psychiatric social work other methods such as group work. Community organization and research are also made use of’.

Social case work is a primary method of social work which is concerned with the adjustment and development of individuals towards more satisfying human relations. Its purpose is to help individuals lead a better family life, provide them with improved schools, better housing, more hospitals and medical care facilities. It ensures protected economic conditions and better relations between religious groups and ultimately helps individual in their overall adjustment and development.

Each individual has a different reaction differently to his or her social, economic, and physical environment. The problems of one individual also differ from the other. The individual and his/her environment are intertwined. Changes in one bring changes in others. A problem results when disequilibrium between individual and his/her environment occurs. The social worker’s goal is, thus, to work in collaboration with the client and find an optimal fit between individual and his/her physical and social surroundings.

Based on the assumption that forces within the individual and forces external to him/her contribute for human suffering, often the adjustment and development of an individual depends on the use of the above mentioned resources by him or her.

Social case worker provides the needed help when due to certain internal or external factors, an individual fails to avail existing facilities. Thus, social casework is a one-to-one relationship, which facilitates an individual’s overall adjustment and development. The primary emphasis in psychosocial casework is based on understanding the client’s dilemmas and what has contributed to them. This understanding is called ‘**Psychosocial Study**’.

Thus, the practice of social case work can be regarded as a humanistic attempt for helping people who have difficulty in coping with the problems of daily living. It is one of the direct methods of social work which uses the case-by-case approach for dealing with individuals or families with respect to their problems of social functioning. Case work aims at individualized services in the field of social work in order to help the client to adjust with their environments.

If for a while the financial constraints and the available man power are ignored then case work approach in our country can be useful if the person using this approach can get all the possible cooperation from the family members of the patient. However, in actual practice many times this is rarely possible as the family members either out of fear or due to insecurities and lack of adequate awareness,

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knowledge about the illness and mental health interventions, and about the nature of social work. They do not co-operate and do not provide reliable and adequate information in this regard. Despite the best efforts of a social worker in clarifying the myths and notions people carry around these concerns, family members and the patient too at times fail to reveal all the needed information. Hence, not left with much option the social worker has to sometimes give up his efforts midway.

In a number of cases family member's apathy, ignorance, lack of knowledge and arrogant attitude create problems for the therapists and especially for the psychiatric social workers who are not authorized to prescribe drugs. This problem is further aggravated by the common belief that people hold about mental illness that only drugs and ECT can cure mental problems. If social workers want to help the patients by their own skills and methods, then they will have to go a long way and will have to change this deep-rooted and incorrect belief.

An experienced and a well-trained social worker is competent enough to diagnose psychiatric cases, to refer them to psychiatrists, psychologists and neurologists or may himself or herself take up the case if he thinks social work intervention with the patient will definitely bring about positive results.

Check Your Progress

1. What are the objectives of social work?
2. State the aim of social welfare administration.
3. What is the main purpose of social case work?

14.3 IMPORTANCE AND DEMANDS FOR PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORKERS

The fact that the real importance of mental health social workers and the kind of work they do is not valued the way it should be even today can be clearly seen in clinical practice, where professional social workers who are employed in mental health agencies and institutions, child guidance clinics, drug de-addiction centers and such other units are expected to perform duties assigned to them by the heads of the units in which they are working; and many times they are asked to do jobs which are not expected of them. Besides, diagnostic and therapeutic intervention with psychotics and neurotics, these professionals are engaged in helping mentally retarded, epileptics, drug addicts and chronic patients in their treatment and rehabilitation (Gupta, 1966; Gupta and Yadav, 1980). Social workers also assist a large number of their clients who have problems in their marital and sexual adjustments. They are also involved in research activities both at national and international levels.

Another concern that is worthy of attention is the fact that in India, in most of the institutions, there is still no post of a psychiatric social workers and in some

institutions where there are posts, often these posts are occupied by persons who are not professionally trained social workers. Professionally trained social workers are not enjoying the same status which their counterparts like other colleagues are enjoying. Also they do not get the same scale of pay which their other colleagues such as psychiatrists or psychologists are getting. In addition, psychiatric social workers are not treated at par with other professionals. In the work sphere they are unfortunately not given enough freedom and independence to work, which not only limits their potential but leads to further discontent and frustration. This hampers their efficiency, ability and skill to think, plan and use traditionally assigned techniques and develop new methods of dealing with people and their problems (Gupta and Bano, 1974).

Another factor that is responsible for the failure of psychiatric social work to attain the status that it deserves is the recruitment of untrained social workers on social workers position. These untrained workers are usually drawn from sociology, psychology or other discipline of social sciences and even from basic sciences. These persons have no theoretical base in professional social work. In many cases they do not have any practical experience also. Hence, the quality of work that they often produce is not up to the mark and it somewhere fails to bring the much needed recognition to this profession.

Many a times when psychiatric social workers are employed either in health or in mental health agencies or in institutions they are assigned simple odd jobs like registration of patients; distribution of medicines, supervision of food; arranging games, reading rooms, play grounds and picnics etc. for the patients or writing letters on behalf doctors or patients. The association of schools of social work in India and the Indian society of professional social work should take effective steps to stop malpractices in future and to take some active steps in this regard.

Community mental health with respect to social work involves the application of methods of social work especially group work, community organization, social action and social work research for the promotion of mental health, early diagnosis and treatment of mental ailments and rehabilitation of mentally ill and handicapped in the community. Considering the relevance of incorporation of community mental health in social work curriculum, the experts who participated in National Seminar on Psychiatric Social Worker's role in Implementation of National Mental Health programme for India held at NIMHANS, Bangalore, on March 27 and 28, 1986, made the recommendation that Medical and Psychiatric social work teachers need to be provided an in-service training programme in community mental health.

The first training programme for these teachers took place at NIMHANS from July 6 to 10, 1987. After their training was over, the participant teachers made the following recommendations:

- As far as possible, the contents of the field work practice in social work need to be enriched with community oriented health programmes in general and mental health programmes in particular.

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- All the teachers dealing with medical and psychiatric social work should have the opportunity to get an exposure to the modern trends in the community mental health.
- Trainees in social work should be guided to undertake simple and suitable service oriented research projects as part of their training.
- Teachers in social work need to be provided with opportunities for improving their knowledge and updating their professional skills by centers like NIMHANS.
- Schools of social work should think of upgrading and updating their syllabi based on the modern trends in mental health care in community settings.
- Trainees in the social work should be placed in the agencies extending community health and mental health services.
- Information pertaining to the persons , trainers, policy makers administrators being oriented in mental health care could be passed on to the participants, so that they could initiate collaborative efforts in the respective places.
- New ideas and research reports should be regularly made available to the teachers so that they could update their knowledge on community mental health.
- Review workshops should be organized periodically to assess the activities being carried out as a result of the training in community mental health.
- Collaboration between NIMHANS and schools of social work in India need to be strengthened in such a way that it leads to achievement of the objectives of National Mental Health Programme.

These training programmes should be continue and should be included in their refresher course for social work teachers. It is essential that NIMHANS or the Association of School of Social Work or the teachers of these schools, who teach medical and psychiatric social work to social work students, should take lead in revising and updating the curriculum along the above mentioned recommendations.

Check Your Progress

4. State any factor responsible for the failure of psychiatric social work.
5. What is the main function of community mental health with respect to social work?

14.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The following are the objectives of social work:
 - a) To remove social injustice
 - b) To relieve social injustice
 - c) To reduce redress
 - d) To prevent suffering
2. Social welfare administration aims to establish general administrative relationships among units of the same organization, personal problems, questions of finance and so on.
3. The main purpose of social case work is to help individuals lead a better family life, provide them with improved schools, better housing, more hospitals and medical care facilities. It ensures protected economic conditions and better relations between religious groups and ultimately helps individual in their overall adjustment and development.
4. One of the factors responsible for the failure of psychiatric social work is to attain the status that it deserves is the recruitment of untrained social workers on social workers position. These untrained workers are usually drawn from sociology, psychology or other discipline of social sciences and even from basic sciences.
5. The main function of community mental health with respect to social work is it involves the application of methods of social work especially group work, community organization, social action and social work research for the promotion of mental health, early diagnosis and treatment of mental ailments and rehabilitation of mentally ill and handicapped in the community.

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14.5 SUMMARY

- Mental health illness is still a stigmatized area and hence, people do not bother to consult a mental health specialist because they either do not know about the psychiatric illness, are not aware of the psychiatric treatment, or because of the stigma attached to psychiatric illness, they prefer to take the patient to a shrine than to a mental hospital.
- The condition of mentally ill people is not much different in cities too. Even the educated class living in the metropolitan cities avoids consulting a mental health professional.

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- In a clinical set-up, one further finds that many patients either take medicine when the symptoms are acute and soon discontinue them against the psychiatrist advice, the moment their condition begins to improve a bit. Some even discontinue medicine believing that if they eat it for long, the medicine may have more harmful effect on their brain and they may become insane forever.
- Even the educated class prefers to hide the mentally ill person from the society and lives a major part of their life in denial.
- In the mental health set-up, seldom mentally ill patients consulted first consult a psychologist or a social worker.
- The term social work refers to working for a social cause or working for the betterment of society in general.
- Social work is a field in which a social worker enhances an individual's awareness about their problems, helps them identify their worth, dignity, and enables them to lead a satisfactory and independent life which they find it difficult to live such a life on their own.
- The term 'social action' refers to organized and legally permitted activities designed to mobilize public opinion, legislation, and public administration in favour of objectives believed to be socially desirable.
- Social welfare research involves a systematic critical investigation of questions in the social welfare field with the purpose of yielding answers to problems of social work and of extending generally social work concepts.
- Social welfare administration process aims to organize and to direct a social agency.
- Community mental health with respect to social work involves the application of methods of social work especially group work, community organization, social action and social work research for the promotion of mental health, early diagnosis and treatment of mental ailments and rehabilitation of mentally ill and handicapped in the community.

14.6 KEY WORDS

- **Community Organization:** It refers to the process of planning and developing social services in order to meet the health and welfare needs of a community or larger unit.

- **Social Action:** It refers to organized and legally permitted activities designed to mobilize public opinion, legislation, and public administration in favour of objectives believed to be socially desirable.
- **Social Group Work:** It refers to an activity that is undertaken in a group setting to facilitate the participant's intellectual, emotional, and physical growth. It aims to attain the desired goals of the groups.
- **Social Work:** It refers to working for a social cause or working for the betterment of society in general.

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14.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Define the term 'community organization'.
2. What are the three main methods related to the profession of social work?
3. Why is it believed that the concept of case work is a failure in case of India?
4. What do you understand by the term, 'Psychosocial Study'?
5. What is the role of psychiatric social workers in India?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the various methods of social works.
2. Explain the emergence of community work and its importance.
3. What are the applications of social work? Analyse in detail.
4. 'The practice of social case work can be regarded as a humanistic attempt'. Discuss the statement.
5. Analyse the role of social case workers.

14.8 FURTHER READINGS

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