

# DMI – ST.EUGENE UNIVERSITY

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"The greatest discovery of my generation is that human beings can alter their lives by altering their attitudes of mind." William James (1842-1910)

"There is nothing either good or bad, but thinking makes it so." - Shakespeare (Hamlet)

# **Unit-I**

## **Dynamics of Individual Development**

### **Concept of Human Development:**

The concept of human development was first laid out by Amartya Sen, a 1998 Nobel laureate, and expanded upon by Martha Nussbaum, Sabina Alkire, Ingrid Robeyns, and others. Development concerns expanding the choices people have, to lead lives that they value, and improving the human condition so that people have the chance to lead full lives.

Thus, human development is about much more than economic growth, which is only a means of enlarging people's choices. Fundamental to enlarging these choices is building human capabilities—the range of things that people can do or be in life. Capabilities are "the substantive freedoms a person enjoys to lead the kind of life they have reason to value." Human development disperses the concentration of the distribution of goods and services that underprivileged people need and center its ideas on human decisions. By investing in people, we enable growth and empower people to pursue many different life paths, thus developing human capabilities.

The most basic capabilities for human development are: to lead long and healthy lives, to be knowledgeable (e.g., to be educated), to have access to the resources and social services needed for a decent standard of living, and to be able to participate in the life of the community. Without these, many choices are simply not available, and many opportunities in life remain inaccessible. An abstract illustration of human capability is a bicycle.

A bicycle itself is a resource- a mode of transportation. If the person who owns the bicycle is unable to ride it (due to a lack of balance or knowledge), the bicycle is useless to that person as transportation and loses its functioning.

If, however, a person both owns a bicycle and has the ability to ride a bicycle, they now have the capability of riding to a friend's house, a local store, or a great number of other places.

This capability would (presumably) increase their value of life and expand their choices. A person, therefore, needs both the resources and the ability to use them in order to pursue their capabilities. This is one example of how different resources and/or skills can contribute to human capability. This way of looking at development, often forgotten in the immediate concern with accumulating commodities and financial wealth, is not new.

Philosophers, economists and political leaders have long emphasized human well being as the purpose, or the end, of development. As Aristotle said in ancient Greece, "Wealth is evidently not the good we are seeking, for it is merely useful for the sake of something else

### **Man as individual in socio-cultural context:**

Most 19th-century and some 20th-century approaches to socioculture aimed to provide models for the evolution of humankind as a whole, arguing that different societies have reached different stages of social development. The most comprehensive attempt to develop a general theory of social evolution centering on the development of socio-cultural systems, the work of Talcott Parsons(1902-1979), operated on a scale which included a theory of world history. Another attempt, on a less systematic scale, originated with the world-systems approach.

## **Understanding the process of individual development in a social context:**

### **Social development principles**

1. We define social development in its broadest social terms as an upward directional movement of society from lesser to greater levels of energy, efficiency, quality, productivity, complexity, comprehension, creativity, choice, mastery, enjoyment and accomplishment. Development of individuals and societies results in increasing freedom of choice and increasing capacity to fulfill its choices by its own capacity and initiative.
2. Growth and development usually go together, but they are different phenomena subject to different laws. Growth involves a horizontal or quantitative expansion and multiplication of existing types and forms of activities. Development involves a vertical or qualitative enhancement of the level of organization.
3. Social development is driven by the subconscious aspirations/will of society for advancement. The social will seeks progressive fulfillment of a prioritized hierarchy of needs – security of borders, law and order, self-sufficiency in food and shelter, organization for peace and prosperity, expression of excess energy in entertainment, leisure and enjoyment, knowledge, and artistic creativity.
4. Development of society occurs only in fields where that collective will is sufficiently strong and seeking expression. Development strategies will be most effective when they focus on identifying areas where the social will is mature and provide better means for the awakened social energy to express itself. Only those initiatives that are in concordance with this subconscious urge will gain momentum and multiply.
5. Development of the collective is subconscious. It starts with physical experience which eventually leads to conscious comprehension of the process. Conscious development based on

conceptual knowledge of the social process accelerates development and minimizes errors and imbalances.

6. Society is the field of organized relationships and interactions between individuals. Only a small portion of human activity is organized for utilization by society, so only a small portion of development potential (of technology, knowledge, information, skills, systems) is tapped.
7. Every society possesses a huge reservoir of potential human energy that is absorbed and held static in its organized foundations—its cultural values, physical security, social beliefs and political structures. At times of transition, crises and opportunities, those energies are released and expressed in action. Policies, strategies and programs that tap this latent energy and channel it into constructive activities can stir an entire nation to action and rapid advancement.
8. The act is the basic unit of social organization. The evolution of more complex and productive activities woven together by people to form systems, organizations, institutions and cultural values constitute the fabric or web of social organization.
9. The essential nature of the development process is the progressive development of social organizations and institutions that harness and direct the society's energies for higher levels of accomplishment. Society develops by organizing all the knowledge, human energies and material resources at its disposal to fulfill its aspirations.
10. The process of formation of organization takes place simultaneously at several levels: the organization of peace and physical security in society, the organization of physical activities and infrastructure, the organization of productive processes through the application of skills and technology in agriculture, industry and services, the organization of social processes we call systems, laws, institutions and administrative agencies, the organization of data as useful information, the organization of knowledge through education and science, and

the organization of higher social and cultural values that channel human energy into higher forms of expression.

11. Each of these levels of organization admits of unlimited development. Each of these levels of organization depends upon and interacts with the others. Elevating the organization at any of these levels increases the utilization of resources and opportunities and accelerates development.
12. Development requires an enormous investment of energy to break existing patterns of social behavior and form new ones. Development takes place when surplus social energies accumulate beyond the level required for functioning at the present level. The social energy may be released in response to the opening up of a new opportunity or confrontation by a severe challenge. Where different cultures meet and blend, explosive energies for social evolution are released.
13. Expression of surplus energy through existing forms of activity may result in growth—a quantitative expansion of society at the existing level of organization. Channeling the surplus energy into more complex and effective forms of organized activity leads to development—a qualitative enhancement in the capabilities of the society. The fresh initiatives that lead to this qualitative enhancement usually occur first in the unorganized activities of society that are not constrained and encumbered by the inertia of the status quo.
14. The rate and extent of development is determined by prevalent social attitudes which control the flow of social energies. Where attitudes are not conducive, development strategies will not yield results. In this case the emphasis should be placed on strategies to bring about a change in social attitudes—such as public education, demonstration and encouragement of successful pioneers.
15. The social gradient between people at different levels of power and accomplishment in society represents a ‘voltage differential’ that stimulates less accomplished sections of the population to seek what the more accomplished have achieved. The urge to



maintain this voltage gap compels those at the top to seek further accomplishments. At the same time, the overall development of society is determined by its ability to make accessible the privileges and benefits achieved by those at the top to the rest of its members.

16. Development proceeds rapidly in those areas where the society becomes aware of opportunities and challenges and has the will to respond to them. Increasing awareness accelerates the process.
17. Social progress is stimulated by pioneering individuals who first become conscious of new opportunities and initiate new behaviors and activities to take advantage of them. Pioneers are the lever or spearhead for collective advancement. Pioneers give conscious expression to the subconscious urges and readiness of the collective.
18. Development occurs when pioneering individual initiatives are imitated by others, multiplied and actively supported by the society. Society then actively organizes the new activity by establishing supportive laws, systems and institutions. At the next stage it integrates the new activity with other fields of activity and assimilates it into its educational system. The activity has become fully assimilated as part of the culture when it is passed on to the next generation as values through the family.
19. Development is a process, not a program. Development is an activity of the society as a whole. It can be stimulated, directed or assisted by government policies, laws and special programs, but it cannot be compelled or carried out by administrative or external agencies on behalf of the population. Development strategy should aim to release people's initiative, not to substitute for it.
20. All resources are the creation of the human mind. Something becomes a resource when human beings recognize a productive or more productive use for it. Since there are no inherent limits to human inventiveness and resourcefulness, the potential productivity of any resource is unlimited.

21. Human beings are the ultimate resource and ultimate determinant of the development process. It is a process of people becoming more aware of their own creative potentials and taking initiative to realize those potentials. Human awareness, aspiration and attitudes determine society's response to circumstances. Development occurs only at the points where humanity recognizes its power to determine results.
22. The development of social organization takes place within a larger evolutionary context in which the consciousness of humanity is evolving along a continuum from physical to vital to mental. This evolution expresses as a progressive shift in emphasis from material resources to technological and information resources; from the social importance of land to the importance of money and knowledge; from hereditary rights of the elite to fundamental rights for all human beings; from reliance on physical forms of authority to laws and shared values. As society advances along this continuum, development becomes more conscious and more rapid.
23. Infinity is a practical concept. Human potential is unlimited. Development potential is infinite.
24. The same principles and process govern development in different fields of social life – political, economic, technological, scientific, cultural, etc.
25. The same principles and process govern development at the level of the individual, the organization and the society.

## **Development of knowledge:**

Develop your knowledge, skills and competence

This standard is about taking responsibility for developing your own knowledge, skills and competence to meet the current and future requirements of your work and to support your personal and career development. This standard is relevant to all managers and leaders.

## **Performance Criteria:**

- ❖ Monitor trends and developments in your sector and area of professional expertise and evaluate their impact on your work role
- ❖ Evaluate, at appropriate intervals, the current and future requirements of your work role, taking account of the vision and objectives of your organization
- ❖ Identify the learning methods which work best for you and ensure that you take these into account in identifying and undertaking development activities
- ❖ Identify any gaps between the current and future requirements of your work role and your current knowledge, skills and competence
- ❖ Discuss and agree, with those you report to, a development plan which both addresses any identified gaps in your knowledge, skills and competence and supports your own career and personal goals
- ❖ Undertake the activities identified in your development plan and evaluate their contribution to your performance
- ❖ Get regular feedback on your performance from those who are able to provide objective, specific and valid feedback
- ❖ Review and update your development plan in the light of your performance, any development activities undertaken and any wider changes

## **Knowledge & Understanding**

### ***General knowledge and understanding***

- ❖ The principles which underpin professional development
- ❖ How to evaluate the current requirements of a work role and how the requirements may evolve in the future
- ❖ How to monitor changes, trends and developments
- ❖ How to evaluate the impact of different factors on your role
- ❖ How to identify development needs to address any identified gaps between the requirements of your work role and your current knowledge, understanding and skills

- ❖ What an effective development plan should contain and the length of time that it should cover
- ❖ The importance of taking account of your career and personal goals when planning your professional development
- ❖ The range of different learning methods and how to identify the methods which work best for you
- ❖ The type of development activities that can be undertaken to address identified gaps in your knowledge, skills and competence
- ❖ How to evaluate the extent to which development activities have contributed to your performance
- ❖ How to update development plans in the light of your performance, any development activities undertaken and any wider changes
- ❖ How to identify and use appropriate sources of feedback on your performance
- ❖ *Industry/sector specific knowledge and understanding*
- ❖ Industry/sector requirements for the development or maintenance of knowledge, skills and competence
- ❖ *Context specific knowledge and understanding*
- ❖ The requirements of your work role including the limits of your responsibilities
- ❖ Your own career and personal goals
- ❖ Your preferred learning methods
- ❖ Your current levels of knowledge, skills and competence
- ❖ Identified gaps in your current knowledge, skills and competence
- ❖ Your personal development plan
- ❖ Available development opportunities and resources in your organization
- ❖ Your organization's policy and procedures in terms of personal development
- ❖ Possible sources of feedback in your organization
- ❖ Behaviors
- ❖ Recognize changes in circumstances promptly and adjust plans and activities accordingly
- ❖ Seek opportunities to improve performance

- ❖ Develop knowledge, understanding, skills and performance in a systematic way
- ❖ Encourage and welcome feedback from others and use this feedback constructively
- ❖ Reflect on your experiences and use the lessons to guide your decisions and actions
- ❖ Agree challenging but achievable objectives
- ❖ Demonstrate awareness of your own values, motivations and emotions
- ❖ Give a consistent and reliable performance
- ❖ Recognise and make the most of your own strengths
- ❖ Recognise your limitations and seek to minimize their impact
- ❖ Make effective use of available resources
- ❖ Seek new sources of support when necessary

#### **Skills**

- Communicating
- Evaluating
- Learning
- Obtaining feedback
- Planning
- Reflecting
- Reviewing
- Self-assessment
- Setting objectives

#### **Value orientation:**

The benefits of understanding the contribution of values to successful individual and organizational behavior change.

“Cultures, as well as countries, are formed by the emergence of value systems (social stages) in response to life conditions. Such complex adaptive intelligences form the glue that bonds a group together, defines who they are as a people, and reflects the place on the planet they inhabit.” – Don Beck, international expert on the psychology of values.

The answers to the most puzzling aspects of human behaviour are often to be found in the examination of peoples' values and beliefs. In countries with diverse cultures, knowledge of how to recognize different value systems and their impact on behaviour is essential in order to:

- Understand organizational and individual behaviour and successful adaptation to the environment.
- Avoiding misunderstandings and suspicion about intended changes.
- Know how to communicate change through anticipating how people evaluate issues.
- Avoid embarrassment of using verbal and non-verbal communication that is out of step with the audience.

Frequently asked questions of Values in Personal and Organizational Development

- Why should my organization be interested in knowing about people's values and drivers?
- How are Values and Drivers identified and measured?
- What are the Value Systems?
- Where do I find out more?

Why should my organization be interested in knowing about people's values and drivers?

Your business or organization must constantly adapt in order to remain viable and profitable in a changing environment. Knowledge of people's motivational drivers and their propensity to embrace change is important because you will not succeed if you do not take staff and other key people with you.

In order to service the needs of customers effectively, the organization must understand and respond to the values and needs of its stakeholders.

If the organization is to respond effectively to these needs, then staff attitudes and values must be in alignment with those of the organization.

The Value Management process works at the individual and the group level to understand how individuals and groups embrace certain values and reject others, providing a coherent basis for attitudes and behaviors. Understanding the underlying values makes behaviour predictable and understandable. When these values are no longer suitable or do not promote positive adaptation to current needs and interests of individuals and groups, values and value systems can be changed in order to accommodate changed demands.

Values underpin all behaviour. People act in accordance with their *belief systems*, which are organizing systems for individuals and organizations. These systems can be in harmony or disharmony.

For example, if the organization has a value system that rewards performance, and most of your people have a value system that emphasizes nurturance and belonging rather than achievement of goals, then the misalignment of values could be catastrophic. Staff will expect rewards based on conformity and loyalty, whereas the organization will seek to reward innovation and achievement. The organization will be dysfunctional because the value systems are out of alignment.

Excellence in Human Resources Management can only be achieved with a sound knowledge of corporate and individual value systems. This will enable management to define the gaps and design development activities, which will maximize investment in training and development. Without such knowledge, the Human Resource Management function is likely to be a costly overhead, with little impact on the bottom line of the business.

## **Development of Attitude, Interest, and adjustment:**

The terms *interest* and *attitude* often are used together to express an individual's pattern of reactions toward himself, his physical environment, his associates, and the situations in which he may find himself. Interests and attitudes have much in common. Except as certain potentials can be considered to be inherited characteristics, a person's interests and attitudes develop from early childhood onward as a result of experience. Interests and attitudes are personal.

Although one or another group may seem to possess similar interests and to give evidence of likeness in attitude toward this or that factor of environmental experiences, each member of the group can be regarded as evincing his own particular interest in, or attitude toward, a person, thing, or condition. His interest or attitude may be influenced, of course, to some degree by his association with other members of the group. There are differences as well as likenesses, however, between the connotations of these terms. An interest can be interpreted roughly as a motivating force that stimulates an individual to participate in one activity rather than in another.

As a result of influences outside himself, he may engage in certain behavior in which he personally is not interested.

A situation of this kind may reflect a habitual attitude on the part of the individual to be willing to satisfy the interests of others rather than his own. Left to himself, he might act very differently. The term *attitude* refers to a person's feeling toward other people, conditions, or situations. Attitudes are specific and born of experience. They are personal and tend to reflect themselves in the individual's relations with his fellows. Certain attitudes become so habituated that they influence much of an individual's behavior. A motivating interest that has resulted in successful achievement in a particular situation may become the basis of a pleasant attitude toward the elements that constitute the situation. Lack of success in attempts to realize a felt interest may lead to the development of unpleasant attitudes, biases, or prejudices toward the people or things comprising the situation that resulted in failure to achieve.



Moreover, a strong attitude may give rise to an equally strong motivating interest. One difference between interest and attitude, however, must be kept in mind. Given an opportunity to express an interest, an individual usually is conscious of his interest in expressing it; contrariwise, an individual's attitude may be consciously recognized by himself, or he may be unaware of the real attitude that influences his behavior. With this brief interpretation of what constitutes an interest or an attitude, we shall proceed to discuss those interests and attitudes that seem to be characteristic of adolescents.

### **Attitude is everything:**

Are you excited and ready to get started? If not, why not? Your attitude is everything because it will affect the actions you take. Do you believe the thing you want is possible and will produce a positive outcome? You won't be motivated to act if you don't believe your actions will have a positive result.

### **What are Attitudes?**

Attitudes are learned biases to evaluate something or someone negatively or positively. You developed them based on your past experiences and now you use them to interpret your current experiences. Attitude is everything because it forms the lens through which you see your world.

### **It has three components based on your existing beliefs, experienced feelings and resulting behavior:**

- ❖ Cognitive - your beliefs about something or someone
  - ❖ Affective - your feelings when presented with situation
  - ❖ Motivational - your predisposition to act in a certain way
- Attitudes Affect Your Behavior

Whether or not you look at a situation favorably or unfavorably will determine how you will feel and act. That is why attitude is everything.

Because attitudes directly affect your motivation and subsequent behavior, they have a great impact on your goals. Do you truly desire a goal? Do you believe it's possible? How do you feel about putting forth the effort and taking the steps needed to attain it? If your answers to these questions are all positive, then you are likely to feel excited and raring to get going. You have a positive mental attitude toward this goal and success is likely.

However, things aren't always so clear cut. You may not care about the goal because it was someone else's idea; maybe you don't believe it's possible or you fear negative consequences; or you're not willing to spend your time and energy on it. Perhaps, there's another goal that you prefer.

If you don't care for a goal or believe it's possible, then you will have a negative attitude toward it which won't be conducive to taking action. It's also possible to have mixed feelings and be ambivalent.

In either case, you will experience a motivational conflict. Some parts of yourself will try to move forward, while other parts will hold you back. You can drop the goal or change it to something more favorable if it's under your control. However, changing the goal isn't always possible if others are involved, or there is some reason you really must accomplish it.

### **Attitude Adjustment:**

Because attitude is everything, you may need to adjust your attitude to manage your motivation in a situation. Although attitudes are biases, they are beliefs that you constructed that you can change in one of the following ways:

Social persuasion - you can change your beliefs when you are faced with a convincing argument, including one you consciously construct yourself.

Being around others - you can adopt the attitudes of others to whom you are continually exposed, such as bosses and colleagues. Attitudes can be contagious so spend time with positive people.

Conflicting experiences - you can change your attitudes when you are faced with conflicting evidence that disconfirms what you expected. So, you can prove yourself wrong and adjust your attitude to match your new experiences.

## **Attitudes for Goal Achievement**

Some attitudes related to goals include organizational commitment, job satisfaction, mindset, optimism, and goal orientation. Because attitude is everything, you will most likely want to manage your attitudes to attain your goals.

## **Organizational Commitment**

Even if the goal isn't your own or one that you are looking forward to tackling, you can develop a positive attitude by believing in the goals of your organization or at least by seeing the rationale for setting the goal.

You need commitment to persist, so try to adopt the goal as your own so you will be motivated to attain it.

## **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction has a major influence over one's attitude for work. It can be affected in many ways, including your own life satisfaction. Other ways include the nature of the job itself and how you're compensated.

If you feel any negativity toward your job, then it would be best to identify the reasons for it. You can then take proactive measures to address your dissatisfaction.

You can also act to maximize pleasing aspects, such as recognizing opportunities to experience feelings of mastery, autonomy and relatedness.

## **Mindset**

People who believe they can improve their ability to obtain results have a growth mindset. They believe they create their own luck through effective action. Needless to say, they are then motivated to act. Even if they fail, they can learn from failure and improve their ability for the next time.

You can adapt a growth mindset gradually by experimenting with different strategies to get what you want and prove to yourself that you can improve your ability.

## **Optimism**

People who expect positive outcomes have an optimistic attitude. Because they believe they can handle whatever situations they encounter, they expect success. If failures do occur, their optimism causes them to bounce back. As a result, they are resilient in the face of stressful circumstances and persevere to attain their goals.

You can enhance your optimism by recalling the many good things that occurred in your life and how you played a role in creating those circumstances. You can also recall how you overcame difficult situations to prove that you are strong.

## Goal Orientation

When faced with something to be done, you can interpret the kind of opportunity you have and manage your motivation by seeing the task as one or more of the following:

- ❖ **Learning opportunity** - to stir your interest and increase your feelings of competence
- ❖ **Accomplishment opportunity** - to feel efficacious and ready for more challenges
- ❖ **Competitive opportunity** - to show superiority and/or win a reward

## Attitude is everything Bottom Line

Attitude is everything because it can greatly influence goal-related behavior.

If you have conflicting thoughts regarding your supposed desired outcome(s), you need to identify what they are so you can address them. Otherwise, you will be fighting against yourself. Your motivation won't be optimal.

You can override your current attitudes and adjust them by looking for the positive aspects of situations. If you'd like to learn more about the importance of attitude in your life, visit Marie Grabowiecki's Free to Rise. She has some good ideas for you to use.

## Interest:

Interest as a cognitive and affective motivational variable that develops and can be supported to develop. Interest and interest development as described by Hidi and Renninger's (2006) Four-Phase Model of Interest Development are (a) defined and then (b) contextualized in light of other conceptualizations that focus on specific aspects of interest (such as emotion, experience, task features, value, and vocational interest) and issues pertaining to the operationalization and measurement of interest.

Following this, research addressing the development of interest is overviewed, with particular attention to

- (a) The triggering of interest in both earlier and later phases of interest,
- (b) Maintaining interest once it has been triggered,
- (c) Fluctuations in interest, and
- (d) Shifts between phases in the development of interest.

Finally, a Punnett square is employed to suggest next steps and open questions in the study of interest development.

### **Importance of individual differences:**

The significance of individual differences in education has long been recognized. The extensive experimental work that has been undertaken, began by Galton and carried on up to the present time, has so increased our knowledge concerning individual differences and has so enhanced their significance to education that their existence and importance are now a matter of general acceptance.



Now knowledge of these differences, their amount, interrelations, and causes, is very important and necessary in planning the education of a particular child. Exact knowledge of just what differences do exist between individuals and of the causes of these differences is important.

Education is furthermore concerned with individual differences resulting from the differing degrees of maturity or growth, and those which previous education and training have caused.

Education can only be made efficient with a minimum of effort, time, and expense by knowledge of which of the differences between people and the achievements of a given person are due to training, and which are due largely to the degree of maturity.

Exact knowledge, not opinion, along all these lines is essential, if progress is to be made. Individual differences must be kept in mind by the teacher if the needs of the individual pupil are to be met. It should be remembered that physical and emotional differences must be met, as well as intellectual differences.

The teacher must be familiar with many approaches to adjusting the learning situation to the individual needs of the pupil. Any program of instruction must take into consideration the important facts about differences in individuals and traits.

There exists in any realm of activity a wide range in endowments of individuals. However, individuals cannot readily be classified into specific types since the various levels merge gradually and are not sharply differentiated.

The evidence is clear that the degree to which the individual possesses different traits also varies. The wide range of capacities, abilities, needs, and interests in any classroom necessitates a differentiated approach to instruction at all school levels and in all areas of learning.

Until the differences among the pupils in a given class are recognized, instruction cannot be on a sound and systematic basis. A significant part of the dilemma in modern education has been brought about by a failure to admit differences by treating all the pupils alike.

The traditional methods of group teaching have tended to over-emphasize the similarities and to ignore the difference. To ignore the fact that people differ in ability, intelligence, interest, social training, and strength, as well as in age and sex, would be a serious mistake.

If training is to be shifted to the nature and needs of the individual, care must be taken to keep the function of the school flexible and adaptable. No child in school can realize his educational growth and development without a carefully planned and administered adjustment so wide individual differences that exist among pupils.

### **Theory of multiple intelligence:**

The Theory of Multiple Intelligences is a theory of intelligence that differentiates it into specific (primarily sensory) "modalities", rather than seeing intelligence as dominated by a single general ability. This model was proposed by Howard Gardner in his 1983 book *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. Gardner articulated eight criteria for a behavior to be considered an intelligence.

These were that the intelligences showed: potential for brain isolation by brain damage, place in evolutionary history, presence of core operations, susceptibility to encoding (symbolic expression), a distinct developmental progression, the existence of savants, prodigies and other exceptional people, and support from experimental psychology and psychometric findings.

Gardner chose eight abilities that he held to meet these criteria: musical–rhythmic, visual–spatial, verbal–linguistic, logical–mathematical, bodily–kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalistic. He later suggested that existential and moral intelligence may also be worthy of inclusion. Although the distinction between intelligences has been set out in great detail, Gardner opposes the idea of labeling learners to a specific intelligence. Each individual possesses a unique blend of all the intelligences. Gardner firmly maintains that his theory of multiple intelligences should "empower learners", not restrict them to one modality of learning.



According to Gardner, intelligence is "a biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture."

Many of Gardner's "intelligences" correlate with the *g* factor, supporting the idea of a single dominant type of intelligence. According to a 2006 study, each of the domains proposed by Gardner involved a blend of *g*, cognitive abilities other than *g*, and, in some cases, non-cognitive abilities or personality characteristics. Empirical support for non-intelligences is lacking or very poor. Despite this lack of evidence, the ideas of multiple non-*g* intelligences are attractive to many due to the suggestion that everyone can be smart in some way. Cognitive neuroscience research does not support the theory of multiple intelligences

### **Important of Individual difference:**

Learning and teaching styles

Others studies examined the role of Psychological Type for choosing specific learning and teaching styles (e.g., Salter, Evans, & Forney, 2006). Capretz (2002) developed recommendations for teaching methods, tasks, and assignments in order to reach different personality types among students of software engineering.

For example, for Sensing Types the suggestion reads: "As they rely on experience rather than on theory, provide sensors with ... practical examples each time they face a new concept. Use audio-visuals..." whereas for the contrary, the Intuitive type, the recommendation is: "As they need opportunities to be creative and original, challenge intuitive students with problem-solving activities for which there are multiple solutions or different perspectives" Jesse, O'Neill, and Dosch (2006) found that Judging and Sensing types were the most common ones among dental students and developed recommendations for teaching the various types most effectively. Malloy (2009) examined learning styles in nursing students and found that Introverts preferred an independent learning style, whereas Extroverts preferred an interactive one; Feeling types preferred spontaneous and Judging types a highly structured learning style. Replicating results by Ehrman and Oxford (1989),

## **Culture and Personality:**

Wakamoto (2007) found different strategies for learning English among Japanese students; for example, Extroverts rather than Introverts used “socio-affective” strategies in language learning. Feeling types were more satisfied than Thinking types with certain aspects of Web-based instruction (Lucas, 2007), and psychological type predicted achievement in hypermedia teaching (Ellis, Howard, & Donofrio, 2012). Introverts, however, did not differ from Extroverts with respect to their choices of traditional versus online learning in business courses (Toole, 2007). According to Kelly and Lee (2005), among undecided first year university students, E, N, and P types were over-represented and Fields (2003) found that Thinking rather than Feeling types reported cheating at college.

## **Teachers’ personality:**

Less evidence has been accumulated with respect to the personality of faculty. In a study by Radmacher and Martin (2001), teachers’ Extraversion predicted positive evaluation by their students. Rushton, Morgan, and Richard (2007) found an exceptionally high proportion of ENFP and ENFJ profiles in a sample of teachers who had been nominated for their excellence by their colleagues. The authors go into some detail in praising their teaching style.

## **The importance of culture;**

The work of Jung has particular significance for psychology in the East as it provides a basis how gnosis and logos are intricately woven in human thinking (Pirta, 2014). A significant aspect of Jung’s work that has lost attention of psychologists is the concept of association and its measurement. The most important thing regarding this concept is that it is central to psychology and also to eastern psychologies. As far as the first aspect is concerned, this empirical insight came during the early part of Jung’s career. Jung’s experiments on word association and measurement of galvanic skin response foresaw developments in modern clinical practice and “anticipated methods in cognitive psychology and behavioral

neurology” (Compston, 2011). Even now in clinical (Upmanyu, Bhardwaj, & Singh, 1996) and forensic psychology (lie detection) in India as well as other parts of the world, this procedure is in vogue to gain some insight about hidden complexes in a client. At the same time, in verbal learning experiments, it is imperative to find out the associative value of words used in an experiment.

## **Human variability and aptitude:**

**Human variability**, or **human variation**, is the range of possible values for any measurable characteristic, physical or mental, of human beings. Differences can be trivial or important, transient or permanent, voluntary or involuntary, congenital or acquired, genetic or environmental. This article discusses variabilities that characterize a person for all or much of his or her lifetime, and are perceived as not purely learned or readily changed (such as religion, language, customs, or tastes). Each person being different is so essential a part of human experience that it is difficult to even imagine a human existence in which other people are identical. Furthermore, the social value put on these differences by the society in which one lives affects every aspect of a person's life.

### **Cultural Variability**

“The range of variations between cultures is almost endless and yet at the same time cultures resemble one another in many important ways” -Dean Champion and Associates

## **Self Concept:**

The term self-concept is a general term used to refer to how someone thinks about, evaluates or perceives themselves. To be aware of oneself is to have a concept of oneself.

Baumeister (1999) provides the following *self concept* definition: "the individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is".

Self Concept is an important term for both social psychology and humanism.

Lewis (1990) suggests that development of a concept of self has two aspects: -

### **(1) The Existential Self**

### **(2) The Categorical Self**

#### **(1) The Existential Self**

*This is the most basic part of the self-scheme or self-concept; the sense of being separate and distinct from others and the awareness of the constancy of the self” (Bee, 1992).*

The child realizes that they exist as a separate entity from others and that they continue to exist over time and space. According to Lewis awareness of the existential self begins as young as two to three months old and arises in part due to the relation the child has with the world. For example, the child smiles and someone smiles back, or the child touches a mobile and sees it move.

#### **(2) The Categorical Self**

Having realized that he or she exists as a separate experiencing being, the child next becomes aware that he or she is also an object in the world. Just as other objects including people have properties that can be experienced (big, small, red, smooth and so on) so the child is becoming aware of him or her self as an object which can be experienced and which has properties. The self too can be put into categories such as age, gender, size or skill. Two of the first categories to be applied are age (“I am 3”) and gender (“I am a girl”).

In early childhood. The categories children apply to themselves are very concrete (e.g. hair color, height and favorite things). Later, self-description also begins to include reference to internal psychological traits, comparative evaluations and to how others see them.

**Carl Rogers (1959) believes that the self concept has three different components:**

- ❖ The view you have of yourself (**Self image**)
- ❖ How much value you place on yourself (**Self esteem** or self-worth)
- ❖ What you wish you were really like (**Ideal self**)
- ❖ **Self Image**

**(What you see in yourself)**

This does not necessarily have to reflect reality. Indeed a person with anorexia who is thin may have a self image in which the person believes they are fat. A person's self image is affected by many factors, such as parental influences, friends, the media etc.

**Kuhn (1960) investigated the self-image by using *The Twenty Statements Test*.**

He asked people to answer the question 'Who am I?' in 20 different ways. He found that the responses could be divided into two major groups. These were *social roles* (external or objective aspects of oneself such as son, teacher, and friend) and *personality traits* (internal or affective aspects of oneself such as gregarious, impatient, and humorous).

The list of answers to the question “Who Am I?” probably include examples of each of the following four types of responses:

**1) Physical Description:** I’m tall, have blue eyes...etc.

**2) Social Roles:** We are all social beings whose behavior is shaped to some extent by the roles we play. Such roles as student, housewife, or member of the football team not only help others to recognize us but also help us to know what is expected of us in various situations.

**3) Personal Traits:** These are a third dimension of our self-descriptions. “I’m impulsive...I’m generous...I tend to worry a lot”...etc.

**4) Existential Statements** (abstract ones): These can range from "I'm a child of the universe" to "I'm a human being" to "I'm a spiritual being"...etc.

Typically young people describe themselves more in terms of personal traits, whereas older people feel defined to a greater extent by their social roles.

### **Self Esteem and Self Worth:**

**(The extent to which you value yourself)**

Self esteem refers to the extent to which we like accept or approve of ourselves or how much we value ourselves. Self esteem always involves a degree of evaluation and we may have either a positive or a negative view of ourselves.

**HIGH SELF ESTEEM** i.e. we have a positive view of ourselves.  
This tends to lead to

- ❖ Confidence in our own abilities
- ❖ Self acceptance
- ❖ Not worrying about what others think
- ❖ Optimism

**LOW SELF ESTEEM** i.e. we have a negative view of ourselves.  
This tends to lead to

- ❖ Lack of confidence
- ❖ Want to be/look like someone else
- ❖ Always worrying what others might think
- ❖ Pessimism

**Argyle (2008) believes there are 4 major factors that influence self esteem.**

1) **THE REACTION OF OTHERS.** If people admire us, flatter us, seek out our company, listen attentively and agree with us we tend to develop a positive self-image. If they avoid us, neglect us, tell us things about ourselves that we don't want to hear we develop a negative self-image.

2) **COMPARISON WITH OTHERS.** If the people we compare ourselves with (our reference group) appear to be more successful, happier, richer, better looking than ourselves we tend to develop a negative self image BUT if they are less successful than us our image will be positive.

3) **SOCIAL ROLES.** Some social roles carry prestige e.g. doctor, airline pilot, TV. presenter, premiership footballer and this promotes self-esteem. Other roles carry stigma. E.g. prisoner, mental hospital patient, refuse collector or unemployed person.

4) **IDENTIFICATION.** Roles aren't just "out there." They also become part of our personality i.e. we identify with the positions we occupy, the roles we play and the groups we belong to.

## **Self-development strategies:**

### **How to Change Your Behaviour**

Every self improvement aspect requires change in behaviour. There are many ways to change it, but the easiest way is by starting to observe your thinking process.

When you learn how to do that, you will find no difficulty in preventing negative thoughts from coming to your mind. This way you will gradually start feeling better inside, causing the outside world manifest according to how you feel.

All the strategies and tips on how to control your mind can be found in the Mind Power section of this website.

Also, whilst trying to change your behaviour, you should be very careful in dealing with negative people. They are able to get you into negative state of mind very quickly, therefore you may become doubtful about wanting to change.

It is very important to stay positive no matter what situation you are facing, because your well-being depends on it. Therefore even if faced by negative people, you should try your best to remain in a positive state of mind.

You can also change your behaviour by changing your actions first rather than paying attention to your current mood. This personal development strategy is very useful to people that find it hard to change their mind habits.

By changing your actions you will cause your brain to make new connections and thus your thinking will slightly change. When you constantly behave in a different way to your usual one you will cause an entire mindset shift.

You should consider reading my article about self improvement activities. The actions listed there will certainly improve your personality and lifestyle.

Whichever personal development strategy you will choose, it is a good idea to start recording your internal changes in journal or any notebook that you have.

This way you will keep track of your progress and it would be a good reference point to check if you are slowing down or speeding up in the changing of your behaviour.

Staying motivated is another essential element to being able to change yourself. It may be hard to do this; therefore I have written an article that will help you maintain high motivation.

### **Personal Development Strategy on learning new skills**

So you have decided to learn a completely new skill. The problem is, you don't know where to start. I will help you here.



Lets say, you want to become good at public speaking.

Firstly you would need to improve your confidence level if you have low self-esteem.

Seek information about the new skill you want to acquire.

You can go to the networking events with current public speakers. They will give you tips that could not be found in books.

People who have 'been there, done that' are more than happy to share information about what they know.

Many people think that experts are not willing to disclose the secrets and tips of their industry. This is not true. If you show your genuine interest in them, they will be more than happy to give you invaluable information.

This personal development strategy works if you show to the experts that you respect and like them. This way they will naturally start liking you. And you may even get a mentor! That would surely make you learn fast.

**If this advice does not fit you, you can always seek information using other personal development strategies:**

- ❖ Search for advice online (read articles, join specific forums, associations, sign up for newsletters of relevant organisations).
- ❖ Apply the 80/20 rule to get best results with least effort.
- ❖ Do not waste your time on unnecessary activities.
- ❖ Read books about the skill that you want to acquire.
- ❖ Learn to become productive.
- ❖ Read niche magazines.

Books and articles may inspire you to take that step forward. You may become more inclined to learn the new skill. And, of course, it will give you deeper understanding about it.

But nothing can replace the real experience. So as soon as you gather some information, act on it! Do not let the information rest without any use – accelerated personal development is a great way to gain new skills. Don't feel like you know enough? Still go ahead. You will pick up relevant information along the way. The best way to learn new skill is by constantly moving forward.

### **Personal Development Strategy on Completely Changing Personality**

To completely change your personality requires more work than any other personal development strategy. You will need to radically change your thinking about life. A good place to start would be to read these personal development ideas to form a good foundation for a different personality.

Usually people understand that they need to change after doing something for far too long. Or they may realize that they are constantly going in loops through life.

They may understand that they are stuck in a dead end job and see no way out. Or they may realise that the relationship they are in simply does not work. Yet years pass by before they really face such reality.

But here's the good news. If you are in such situation, you are quite likely to succeed in changing yourself.

This is because you have finally realised that you have wasted years of your life. Now you really understand that every minute of your life is valuable. From now on, you will not let anyone stop you from change. ...Right?

**Word of caution:** After reading the steps below you will happily act on them. However, there will be days where you will feel down.

In those moments stop and think.

Do you really want to become your old self? Will you really let this one-off mood ruin the rest of your life?

You will probably ask: 'So what should I do in such case?'

Simple. Put some favourite music on. Think about your pet. Think about a happy day in your life. Think about your friends. Do something pleasing to yourself: have a haircut, go to the spa or just have a hot relaxing bath at home.

Meditation works wonders too. I have been meditating for a long time, and benefits are countless. But that's a whole new article:)

Gratitude will also change your mood. Whenever you feel upset, start thanking for what you have. This will shift your focus from negative things to what makes you happy. Thank about every good thing in your life. Keep being grateful until your mood changes. You will not understand how gratitude works until you try. So you might as well just try it now!

After the caution, you can proceed to the actual personal development strategy. Read it fully and print it off (together with the caution note). Keep this paper with you wherever you go.

**The change will require mix of methods. Here is the personal development strategy you should use:**

- ❖ Read my article about shifting comfort zones. It will explain how to transition from where you are to where you want to be.
- ❖ Every day read at least one inspirational article. This will keep your mood high.
- ❖ Talk to people that is successful and makes you feel good.
- ❖ Talk to people who think that you are a great person. This way you will feel great about yourself.

- ❖ Completely eliminate negative people from your life. This may include some of your relatives too. (You want to change, right?)
- ❖ Use affirmations. Keep repeating that you are in your desired situation although you are not there yet. Constant use of affirmations will get you in the right mindset.
- ❖ Seek advice and help from people that are in your desired circumstances.
- ❖ Read self-help books about your subject. Read the ones that are best sellers or at least have been published second time. This indicates that the book was popular and useful to others. (Probably you know that anyway, but I thought I will just quickly remind you:)

### **Personality: Meaning and Determinants of Personality!**

Man is not born a person. At birth he is an infant possessing the potentiality of becoming a person. After birth he associates with other human beings and comes under the influence of their culture. As a result of a variety of experiences and social influences he becomes a person and comes to possess a personality.

The nature of personality and to show the role of culture and social experience in the formation of personality along with the problem of personality disorganization. Since socialization plays the most important part in the development of personality and we have discussed it already, the present discussion, therefore, can only be brief.

#### **I. The Meaning of Personality:**

The term 'personality' is derived from the Latin word 'persona' which means a mask. According to K. Young, "Personality is a .... patterned body of habits, traits, attitudes and ideas of an individual, as these are organised externally into roles and statuses, and as they relate internally to motivation, goals, and various aspects of selfhood." G. W. Allport defined it as "a person's pattern of habits, attitudes, and traits which determine his adjustment to his environment."

According to Robert E. Park and Earnest W. Burgess, personality is “the sum and organization of those traits which determine the role of the individual in the group.” Herbert A. Bloch defined it as “the characteristic organisation of the individual’s habits, attitudes, values, emotional characteristics..... which imparts consistency to the behaviour of the individual.” According to Arnold W. Green, “personality is the sum of a person’s values (the objects of his striving, such as ideas, prestige, power and sex) plus his non-physical traits (his habitual ways of acting and reacting).” According to Linton, personality embraces the total “organised aggregate of psychological processes and status pertaining to the individual.”

Personality, as we understand it, says MacIver, “is all that an individual is and has experienced so far as this “all” can be comprehended as unity.” According to Lundberg and others, “The term personality refers to the habits, attitudes, and other social traits that are characteristic of a given individual’s behaviour.” By personality Ogburn means “the integration of the socio psychological behaviour of the human being, represented by habits of action and feeling, attitudes and opinions.” Davis regards personality “a psychic phenomenon which is neither organic nor social but an emergent from a combination of the two.”

According to Anderson and Parker, “Personality is the totality of habits, attitudes, and traits that result from socialization and characterizes us in our relationships with others.” According to N.L. Munn, “Personality may be defined as the most characteristic integration of an individual’s structure modes of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes.” According to Morton Prince, “Personality is the sum total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses tendencies and instincts of the individual, and the acquired disposition and tendencies acquired by experience.”

According to Young, “Personality is the totality of behaviour of an individual with a given tendency system interacting with a sequence of situations.”

Lawrence A. Pewin has given a working definition of personality in these words, “Personality represents those structural and dynamic

properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situations.”

**On the basis of these definitions it may be said there are two main approaches to the study of personality:**

(1) The psychological, and

(2) The sociological.

Although there is also a third approach, the biological approach, but the biological definition of personality which comprehends only the bio-physical characteristics of the individual organism is inadequate. The psychological approach considers personality as a certain style peculiar to the individual. This style is determined by the characteristic organisation of mental trends, complexes, emotions and sentiments.

The psychological approach enables us to understand the phenomena of personality disorganization and the role of wishes, of mental conflict, and of repression and sublimation in the growth of personality. The sociological approach considers personality in terms of the status of the individual in the group, in terms of his own conception of his role in the group of which he is a member. What others think of us plays a large part in the formation of our personality.

Thus personality is the sum of the ideas, attitudes and values of a person which determine his role in society and form an integral part of his character. Personality is acquired by the individual as a result of his participation in group life. As a member of the group he learns certain behaviour systems and symbolic skills which determine his ideas, attitudes and social values

These ideas, attitudes and values which an individual holds, comprise his personality. The personality of an individual denotes an adult's inner construction of the outer world. It is the result of the inter-action processes by which standards of ethical judgment, belief and conduct are established in social groups and communities.

## **To sum up we would say that:**

- ❖ Personality is not related to bodily structure alone. It includes both structure and dynamics
- ❖ Personality is an indivisible unit.
- ❖ Personality is neither good nor bad.
- ❖ Personality is not a mysterious phenomenon.
- ❖ Every personality is unique.
- ❖ Personality refers to persistent qualities of the individual. It expresses consistency and regularity.
- ❖ Personality is acquired.
- ❖ Personality is influenced by social interaction. It is defined in terms of behaviour.

## **The Types of Personality:**

Some attempts have been made to classify personalities into types. In the 5th century B. C., the Greek physician Hippocrates divided human beings into four types: the sanguine, the melancholic, the choleric, and the phlegmatic. The Swiss psychoanalyst, Carl Gustav Jung, distinguished between two main types, the introvert and the extrovert. The introvert is preoccupied with his own self; the extrovert with things outside self.

In these two types there is a third type—the ambiverts who are neither the one nor the other but vacillate between the two. The majority of people are ambiverts. According to Ernest Kretschmer the German psychiatrist, the extrovert personality is a stout person while the introvert one is a tall and slender person.

The first type of persons he called “pyknic” the second type he called “leptosomic” W.I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki distinguished among the Bohemian, the Philistine, and the Creative.

## **II. Determinants of Personality:**

Personality is a result of the combination of four factors, i.e.,

- ❖ Physical environment,
- ❖ Heredity,
- ❖ Culture,
- ❖ Particular experiences.

Here we discuss each factor determining personality separately.

### **Personality and Environment:**

Above we described the influence of physical environment on culture and pointed out that geographical environment sometimes determines cultural variability. That the Eskimos have a culture different from that of the Indians is due to the fact that the former have geography different from the latter.

Man comes to form ideas and attitudes according to the physical environment he lives in.

To the extent that the physical environment determines cultural development and to the extent, that culture in turn determines personality, a relationship between personality and environment becomes clear. Some two thousand years ago, Aristotle claimed that people living in Northern Europe were owing to a cold climate, full of spirit but lacking in intelligence and skill. The natives of Asia, on the other hand, are intelligent and inventive but lack in spirit, and are, therefore, slaves.

Montesquieu, in the eighteenth century, claimed that the bravery of those blessed by a cold climate enables them to maintain their liberties. Great heat enervates courage while cold causes a certain vigour of body and mind. At high temperatures, it is said there is disinclination to work and so civilizations have grown up where the temperatures have been average near or below the optimum.



The people of mountains as well as deserts are usually bold, hard and powerful. Huntington's discussion of the effects of physical environment on man's attitudes and mental make-up is very exhaustive. However, as told previously, the physical conditions are more permissive and limiting factors than causative factors. They set the limits within which personality can develop.

Thus, climate and topography determine to a great extent the physical and mental traits of a people, but it cannot be said that they alone determine human behaviour. Most kinds of personality are found in every kind of culture. The fact remains that civilizations have appeared in regions of widely different climate and topography. Christianity knows no climate belts.

Peoples are monogamous in high altitudes and flat lands, under tropical temperate and arctic conditions. Men's attitudes and ideas change even when no conceivable geographic change has occurred. Proponents of geographic determinism oversimplify the human personality and so their interpretations are to be accepted only after close scrutiny.

#### **Heredity and Personality:**

Heredity is another factor determining human personality. Some of the similarities in man's personality are said to be due to his common heredity. Every human group inherits the same general set of biological needs and capacities. These common needs and capacities explain some of our similarities in personality. Man originates from the union of male and female germ cells into a single cell which is formed at the moment of conception.

He tends to resemble his parents in physical appearance and intelligence. The nervous system, the organic drives and the ductless glands have a great bearing upon personality. They determine whether an individual will be vigorous or feeble, energetic or lethargic, idiot or intelligent, coward or courageous.

A man with a good physical structure and health generally possess an attractive personality. A man of poor health, pigmy size and ugly physical features develops inferiority complex.

The growth of his personality is checked. Rejected and hated by the society he may turn out to be a thief, dacoit, or drunkard. It is also probable that he may become a leader, or a genius like Socrates and Napoleon. Likewise the nervous system and glandular system may affect the personality of an individual.

The nervous system affects the intelligence and talent of the individual. The hormones affect the growth of personality. Too many or too less of hormones are harmful. Some men are over-patient, overzealous, overactive and overexcited while others are lazy, inactive, and weak. The reason may be secretion of more hormones in the first case and less hormones in the latter case. For a normal personality there should be a balanced secretion of hormones.

Heredity may affect personality in another way, i.e., indirectly. If boys in a society prefer slim girls as their companion, such girls will receive greater attention of the society providing them thereby more opportunities to develop their personality. According to Allport, Gordon, W. no feature of personality is devoid of hereditary influence.

However, heredity does not mould human personality alone and unaided. "For the present, we can only assume that there are -genes for normal personality traits just as there are genes for other aspects of human make-up and functioning. Where in members of the same family, in a similar environment, we can see great differences in personality; we may ascribe these in part at least to differences in gene contributions.

We can also guess that some of the family similarities in personality are genetically influenced. But we are still a long way from identifying specific 'personality' genes, gauging their effects or hazarding predictions as to what the personality of a given child will be on the basis of what we know about its parents." However, according to a news report (Times of India, Jan. 3, 1996) the scientists have identified a gene which influences impulsiveness, excitability and extravagance.

In short, heredity can never be considered as charting a fixed and definite course of anyone's personality. At the best, what anyone inherits are the potentialities for a wide range of personalities, the precise form into which a personality will "jell" being determined by circumstances. Ogburn and Nimkoff write, "It would be an error to hold, as' endocrine enthusiasts do, that the glands determine the whole personality, include rich things, as one's opinions, one's habits, and one's skills." It is possible to over-activate or under-activate some of these kinds by injecting certain kinds of hormones and thereby affect human personality. In other words, it may be said that the available evidence does not support the dogmatic view that personality is biologically transmitted.

Of course, there are some traits which seem to be more directly affected by heredity than others. Manual skills, intelligence and sensory discriminations are some of the abilities which appear more highly developed in some family lines than others. But other traits such as one's beliefs, loyalties, prejudices and manners are for the most part the result of training and experience.

Heredity only furnishes the materials out of which experience will mould the personality. Experience determines the way these materials will be used. An individual may be energetic because of his heredity, but whether he is active on his own belief or on behalf of others is a matter of his training.

Whether he exerts himself in making money or in scholarly activity is also dependent upon his bringing. If personality is a direct consequence of heredity tendencies or traits then all the sons and daughters of the same parents brought up in the same environment should have identical personalities or at least personalities that are very much alike.

But investigation shows that even at the tender age of three or four years they show quite distinct personalities. The new born human being is, to use the phrase of Koenig, Hopper and Gross, a "candidate for personality." It is, therefore, clear that an individual's heredity alone would not enable us to predict his traits and values.

**Personality and Culture:**

There can be little doubt that culture largely determines the types of personality that will predominate in the particular group. According to some thinkers, personality is the subjective aspect of culture. They regard personality and culture as two sides of the same coin.

Spiro has observed, ‘The development of personality and the acquisition of culture are not different processes, but one and the same learning process.’

Personality is an individual aspect of culture, while culture is a collective aspect of personality.” Each culture produces its special type or types of personality.

In 1937 the anthropologist Ralph Linton and the psychoanalyst Abram Kardinar began a series of joint explorations of the relationship between culture and personality by subjecting to minute study reports of several primitive societies and one modern American village. Their studies have demonstrated that each culture tends to create and is supported by a “basic personality type.” A given cultural environment sets its participant members off from other human beings operating under different cultural environments.

According to Frank, ‘culture is a coercive influence dominating the individual and moulding his personality by virtue of the ideas, conceptions and beliefs which had brought to bear on him through communal life.’ The culture provides the raw material of which the individual makes his life. The traditions, customs, mores, religion, institutions, moral and social standards of a group affect the personality of the group members. From the moment of birth, the child is treated in ways which shape his personality. Every culture exerts a series of general influences upon the individuals who grow up under it.

Ogburn as we noted above, divided culture into “material” and “non-material.” According to him, both material and non-material culture have a bearing on personality. As for the former he provides examples of the influence of plumbing on the formation of habits and attitudes favorable to cleanliness and the relation of time-pieces

to punctuality. The American Indians who have no clocks or watches in their culture have little notion of keeping appointments with any exactness.

According to him, they have no sense of time. The personality of an American Indian differs from that of a white man in the matter of punctuality and this is because of differences in their culture. Similarly, some cultures greedily value cleanliness as witnessed by the saying: "Cleanliness is next to godliness." This trait of cleanliness is greatly encouraged by the technology of plumbing and other inventions that are found with it.

The Eskimos are dirty because they have to hang a bag of snow down their backs to melt it in order to get water. A man who has just to turn on a tap of water will naturally be more clean than an Eskimo. Cleanliness, therefore, is a matter not of heredity but of the type of culture. As for the connection between the non-material culture and personality, language affords an instructive example. We know that one of the principal differences between man and animals is that he alone possesses speech.

Language can be learnt only in society. People who cannot speak exhibit warped personality. Since language is the essential medium through which the individual obtains his information and his attitudes, therefore, it is the principal vehicle for the development of personality. Moreover, speech itself becomes a trait of personality. The coarse voice of woodcutter can be readily distinguished from the hushed tones of a man.

The short, crisp, guttural speech of the German seems to be part of his personality, as does the fluid, flowing voluble speech of the Spaniard. Movements of the hands and shoulders in speech are regarded as part of the very core of the personalities of Italians and Jews. The Jews use their gestures for emphasis only, while Italians depend upon them to convey part of the meaning.

Another illustration of the influence of culture on personality is the relationship of men and women.

In the earlier period when farming was the principal business, women generally had no occupations outside the home, and naturally, therefore, they were economically dependent upon their fathers or husbands. Obedience was a natural consequence of such conditions. But today hundreds of women work outside the homes and earn salaries.

They enjoy equal rights with men and are not as dependent upon them as they were in the past. Attitude of independence instead of obedience has today become a trait of women's personality. With the growing realization of the importance of culture for personality, sociologists have recently made attempts to identify the factors in particular cultures which give a distinctive stamp to the individuals within the group. Ruth Benedict analyzed the cultures of three primitive tribes and found that cultures may be divided into two major types—The Apollonian and the Dionysian.

The Apollonian type is characterised by restraint, even temperances, moderation and co- operativeness, whereas the Dionysian type is marked by emotionalism, excess, pursuit of prestige, individualism and competitiveness. The Zuni culture is classified as Appollonian, while the Kwakiuti and Dobuans as Dionysian.

The personality of the Hindus in India differs greatly from that of Englishmen. Why? The answer is 'a different Hindu culture'. The Hindu culture lays emphasis not on material and worldly things, but on things spiritual and religious. In every Hindu family there is a religious environment. The mother gets up early in the morning, takes bath and spends an hour in meditation. When the children get up, they go and touch the feet of their parents and bow before the family gods or goddesses. The Hindu child from the very birth begins to acquire a religious and philosophical personality built on the "inner life."

From the various illustrations cited so far it is thus clear that culture greatly moulds personality. The individual ideas and behaviour are largely the results of cultural conditioning. There is a great difference of ideas between the Hindu devotee immersed in religion and the Russian Communist who thoroughly rejects it.

However, it should not be concluded that culture is a massive die that shapes all that come under it with an identical pattern. All the people of a given culture are not of one cast. Personality traits differ within any culture, some people in any culture are more aggressive than others, and some are more submissive, kind and competitive. Personality is not totally determined by culture, even though no personality escapes its influence. It is only one determinant among others. Ruth Benedict writes, "No anthropologist with a background of experiences of other cultures has ever believed that individuals were automatons, mechanically carrying out the decrees of their civilizations.

No culture yet observed has been able to eradicate the difference in the temperaments of the persons who compose it. It is always a give and take affair." Linton classified cultural influence into the universals, specialties and alternatives and came to the conclusion that culture makes for uniformity of personality only through the universals and since universals are few in number as compared with specialties and alternatives, the effect of culture is to make for variety as well as uniformity.

### **Personality and Particular Experiences:**

Personality is also determined by another factor, namely, the particular and unique experiences. There are two types of experiences one, those that stem from continuous association with one's group, second, those that arise suddenly and are not likely to recur.

The type of people who meet the child daily has a major influence on his personality. The personality of parents does more to affect a child's personality.

If the parents are kind, tolerant of boyish pranks, interested in athletics and anxious to encourage their child's separate interests the child will have a different experience and there shall be different influence on his personality than the one when the parents are unkind, quick tempered and arbitrary.

In the home is fashioned the style of personality that will by and large characterize the individual throughout his life.

Social rituals,' ranging from table manners to getting along with others, are consciously inculcated in the child by parents. The child picks up the language of his parents. Problems of psychological and emotional adjustments arise and are solved appropriately by each child in terms of the cultural values and standards of the family. The family set up tends to bring the child into contact with his play-mates and teachers. What his play-game members are, and his school teachers are will also determine his personality development.

Group influences are relatively greater in early childhood. This is the period when the relationships of the child with his mother, father and siblings affect profoundly the organization of his drives and emotions, the deeper and unconscious aspects of his personality.

A certain degree of maturation is needed before the child can understand the adult norms. The basic personality structure that is formed during this period is difficult to change.

Whether a person becomes a leader, a coward, an imitator? Whether he feels inferior or superior, whether he becomes altruistic or egoistic depends upon the kind of interaction he has with others. Group interaction moulds his personality.

Away from the group he may become insane or develop queer attitudes. As a child grows he develops wish for response and wish for recognition. To his organic needs are added what are called 'sociogenic' needs which are highly important motivating forces in personality. How the idea of self develops in the child is an important study. The self does not exist at birth but begins to arise as the child learns something of the world of sensation about him.

He comes to learn of what belongs to him and takes pride in his possessions. He learns that parts of his body belong to him. He becomes acquainted with his name and paternity and comes to distinguish himself from others.



The praise and blame he receives from others account in large measure for his conduct. The development of self leads to the growth of conscience and ego.

Our view of self conception is usually based on the opinion of others about us. It does not, however, mean that we value all opinions about our conduct equally. We attach importance only to the opinions of those whom we consider for one reason or the other significant than others.

Our parents are usually most significant than others since they are the ones who are intimately related to us and have greatest power than others over us especially during the early years of life. In short, our early experiences are very important in the formation of our personality. It is in early life that the foundations of personality are laid.

Why are the children brought up in the same family differ from one another in their personality, even though they have had the same experiences? The point is that they have not had the same experiences. Some experiences are similar while others are different. Each child enters a different family unit.

One is the first born; he is the only child until the arrival of the second. The parents do not treat all their children exactly alike.

The children enter different play groups, have different teachers and meet different incidents. They do not share all incidents and experiences. Each person's experience is unique as nobody else perfectly duplicates it. Thus, each child has unique experiences exactly duplicated by no one and, therefore, grows a different personality.

Sometimes a sudden experience leaves an abiding influence upon the personality of an individual. Thus a small child may get frightened at the view of a bloody accident, and even after the accident he may be obsessed of the horror of fear. Sometimes a girl's experience with a rapist may condemn her to a life of sexual maladjustment.

A book may not uneaten challenge a man to renounce the world and seek God.

If a man meets an accident which cripples or weakens him, he may come to entertain the feelings of inadequacy. Lord Buddha is said to have been led to renunciation by the sight of a funeral procession. In this way experiences also determine one's personality.

However, it may be noted that one's own personality that one has acquired at any moment will in part determine how the experiences influence his pre-acquired personality. Thus a child who is robust, outgoing, athletic would find his parents in the first case a model for behaviour, a model that would deepen the already apparent personality traits. But if the child is shy, retiring and bookish he may find such parents' personality distasteful and intensify the opposed personality trends already apparent.

It may also be referred that personality is a matter of social situations. It has been shown by social researchers that a person may show honesty in one situation and not in another. The same is true for other personality traits also. Personality traits tend to be specific responses to particular situations rather than general behaviour patterns. It is a dynamic unity with a creative potential.

Heredity, physical environment, culture and particular experiences are thus the four factors that explain personality—its formation, development and maintenance.

Beyond the joint influence of these factors, however, the relative contribution of each factor to personality varies with the characteristic or personality process involved and, perhaps, with the individual concerned.

Genetic or hereditary factors may be more critical for some personality characteristics, while environmental factors, (cultural, financial), may be more important for others. Furthermore, for any one characteristic, the relative contribution of one or another factor may vary from person to person.

Also there is no way yet known to measure the effect of each factor or to state how the factors combine to produce a given result. The behaviour of a juvenile delinquent is affected by his heredity and by his home life. But how much is contributed by each factor, cannot be measured in exact terms.

### **Assessment of personality:**

The measurement of personal characteristics. Assessment is an end result of gathering information intended to advance psychological theory and research and to increase the probability that wise decisions will be made in applied settings (*e.g.*, in selecting the most promising people from a group of job applicants). The approach taken by the specialist in personality assessment is based on the assumption that much of the observable variability in behaviour from one person to other results from differences in the extent to which individuals possesses particular underlying personal characteristics (traits). The assessment specialist seeks to define these traits, to measure them objectively, and to relate them to socially significant aspects of behaviour.

A distinctive feature of the scientific approach to personality measurement is the effort, wherever possible, to describe human characteristics in quantitative terms. How much of a trait manifests itself in an individual? How many traits are present? Quantitative personality measurement is especially useful in comparing groups of people as well as individuals. Overt behaviour is a reflection of interactions among a wide range of underlying factors, including the bodily state of the individual and the effects of that person's past personal experiences.

Hence, a narrowly focused approach is inadequate to do justice to the complex human behaviour that occurs under the constantly changing set of challenges, pleasures, demands, and stresses of everyday life. The sophisticated measurement of human personality inescapably depends on the use of a variety of concepts to provide trait definitions and entails the application of various methods of observation and evaluation.

Personality theorists and researchers seek to define and to understand the diversity of human traits, the many ways people have of thinking and perceiving and learning and emoting. Such nonmaterial human dimensions, types, and attributes are constructs—in this case, inferences drawn from observed behaviour. Widely studied personality constructs include anxiety, hostility, emotionality, motivation, and introversion-extroversion. Anxiety, for example, is a concept, or construct, inferred in people from what they say, their facial expressions, and their body movements.

Personality is interactional in two senses. As indicated above, personal characteristics can be thought of as products of interactions among underlying psychological factors; for example, an individual may experience tension because he or she is both shy and desirous of social success. These products, in turn, interact with the types of situations people confront in their daily lives.

A person who is anxious about being evaluated might show debilitated performance in evaluative situations (for example, taking tests), but function well in other situations in which an evaluative emphasis is not present. Personality makeup can be either an asset or a liability depending on the situation. For example, some people approach evaluative situations with fear and foreboding, while others seem to be motivated in a desirable direction by competitive pressures associated with performance.

### ***Measuring constructs:***

Efforts to measure personality constructs stem from a variety of sources. Frequently they grow out of theories of personality; anxiety and repression (the forgetting of unpleasant experiences), for example, are among the central concepts of the theory of psychoanalysis. It is understandable that efforts would be made to quantify one's degree of anxiety, for example, and to use the score thus obtained in the assessment of and in the prediction of future behaviour.

Among the major issues in the study of personality measurement is the question of which of the many personality constructs that have been quantified are basic or fundamental and which can be expected to involve wasted effort in their measurement because they represent poorly defined combinations of more elemental constructs; which measurement techniques are most effective and convenient for the purpose of assessment; and whether it is better to interview people in measuring personality, or to ask them to say, for example, what an inkblot or a cloud in the sky reminds them.

Efforts to measure any given personality construct can fail as a result of inadequacies in formulating or defining the trait to be measured and weaknesses in the assessment methods employed.

An investigator might desire to specify quantitatively the degree to which individuals are submissive in social and competitive situations. His effectiveness will depend on the particular theory of submissiveness he brings to bear on the problem; on the actual procedures he selects or devises to measure submissiveness; and on the adequacy of the research he performs to demonstrate the usefulness of the measure. Each of these tasks must be considered carefully in evaluating efforts to measure personality attributes.

The methods used in personality description and measurement fall into several categories that differ with regard to the type of information gathered and the methods by which it is obtained.

While all should rely on data that come from direct observations of human behaviour if they are to have at least the semblance of scientific value, all may vary with regard to underlying assumptions, validity, and reliability (consistency, in this case).

### **Assessment methods:**

Personality tests provide measures of such characteristics as feelings and emotional states, preoccupations, motivations, attitudes, and approaches to interpersonal relations. There is a diversity of approaches to personality assessment, and controversy surrounds many aspects of the widely used methods and techniques.

**These include such assessments as the**

- ❖ Interview,
- ❖ Rating scales,
- ❖ Self-reports
- ❖ Personality inventories,
- ❖ Projective techniques,
- ❖ Behavioral observation.

**The interview:**

In an interview the individual under assessment must be given considerable latitude in “telling his story.” Interviews have both verbal and nonverbal (*e.g.*, gestural) components. The aim of the interview is to gather information, and the adequacy of the data gathered depends in large part on the questions asked by the interviewer. In an employment interview the focus of the interviewer is generally on the job candidate’s work experiences, general and specific attitudes, and occupational goals. In a diagnostic medical or psychiatric interview considerable attention would be paid to the patient’s physical health and to any symptoms of behavioral disorder that may have occurred over the years.

Two broad types of interview may be delineated. In the interview designed for use in research, face-to-face contact between an interviewer and interviewee is directed toward eliciting information that may be relevant to particular practical applications under general study or to those personality theories (or hypotheses) being investigated. Another type, the clinical interview, is focused on assessing the status of a particular individual (*e.g.*, a psychiatric patient); such an interview is action-oriented (*i.e.*, it may indicate appropriate treatment). Both research and clinical interviews frequently may be conducted to obtain an individual’s life history and biographical information (*e.g.*, identifying facts, family relationships), but they differ in the uses to which the information is put.

## **Rating scales:**

The rating scale is one of the oldest and most versatile of assessment techniques. Rating scales present users with an item and ask them to select from a number of choices. The rating scale is similar in some respects to a multiple choice test, but its options represent degrees of a particular characteristic.

Rating scales are used by observers and also by individuals for self-reporting (see below Self-report tests). They permit convenient characterization of other people and their behaviour. Some observations do not lend themselves to quantification as readily as do simple counts of motor behaviour (such as the number of times a worker leaves his lathe to go to the restroom). It is difficult, for example, to quantify how charming an office receptionist is. In such cases, one may fall back on relatively subjective judgments, inferences, and relatively imprecise estimates, as in deciding how disrespectful a child is. The rating scale is one approach to securing such judgments. Rating scales present an observer with scalar dimensions along which those who are observed are to be placed. A teacher, for example, might be asked to rate students on the degree to which the behaviour of each reflects leadership capacity, shyness, or creativity. Peers might rate each other along dimensions such as friendliness, trustworthiness, and social skills. Several standardized, printed rating scales are available for describing the behaviour of psychiatric hospital patients. Relatively objective rating scales have also been devised for use with other groups. Rating scales often take a graphic form:

A number of requirements should be met to maximize the usefulness of rating scales. One is that they be reliable: the ratings of the same person by different observers should be consistent. Other requirements are reduction of sources of inaccuracy in personality measurement; the so-called halo effect results in an observer's rating someone favourably on a specific characteristic because the observer has a generally favourable reaction to the person being rated.

One's tendency to say only nice things about others or one's proneness to think of all people as average (to use the midrange of scales) represents other methodological problems that arise when rating scales are used.

### **Self-report tests:**

The success that attended the use of convenient intelligence tests in providing reliable, quantitative (numerical) indexes of individual ability has stimulated interest in the possibility of devising similar tests for measuring personality.

Procedures now available vary in the degree to which they achieve score reliability and convenience. These desirable attributes can be partly achieved by restricting in designated ways the kinds of responses a subject is free to make. Self-report instruments follow this strategy.

For example, a test that restricts the subject to true-false answers is likely to be convenient to give and easy to score. So-called personality inventories (see below) tend to have these characteristics, in that they are relatively restrictive, can be scored objectively, and are convenient to administer. Other techniques (such as inkblot tests) for evaluating personality possess these characteristics to a lesser degree.

Self-report personality tests are used in clinical settings in making diagnoses, in deciding whether treatment is required, and in planning the treatment to be used. A second major use is as an aid in selecting employees, and a third is in psychological research. An example of the latter case would be where scores on a measure of test anxiety—that is, the feeling of tenseness and worry that people experience before an exam—might be used to divide people into groups according to how upset they get while taking exams.

Researchers have investigated whether the more test-anxious students behave differently than the less anxious ones in an experimental situation.



## PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

Among the most common of self-report tests are personality inventories. Their origins lie in the early history of personality measurement, when most tests were constructed on the basis of so-called face validity; that is, they simply appeared to be valid. Items were included simply because, in the fallible judgment of the person who constructed or devised the test, they were indicative of certain personality attributes. In other words, face validity need not be defined by careful, quantitative study; rather, it typically reflects one's more-or-less imprecise, possibly erroneous, impressions. Personal judgment, even that of an expert, is no guarantee that a particular collection of test items will prove to be reliable and meaningful in actual practice.

A widely used early self-report inventory, the so-called Woodworth Personal Data Sheet, was developed during World War I to detect soldiers who were emotionally unfit for combat. Among its ostensibly face-valid items were these: Does the sight of blood make you sick or dizzy? Are you happy most of the time? Do you sometimes wish you had never been born? Recruits who answered these kinds of questions in a way that could be taken to mean that they suffered psychiatric disturbance were detained for further questioning and evaluation. Clearly, however, symptoms revealed by such answers are exhibited by many people who are relatively free of emotional disorder.

Rather than testing general knowledge or specific skills, personality inventories ask people questions about themselves. These questions may take a variety of forms. When taking such a test, the subject might have to decide whether each of a series of statements is accurate as a self-description or respond to a series of true-false questions about personal beliefs.

Several inventories require that each of a series of statements be placed on a rating scale in terms of the frequency or adequacy with which the statements are judged by the individual to reflect his tendencies and attitudes.

Regardless of the way in which the subject responds, most inventories yield several scores, each intended to identify a distinctive aspect of personality.

### **Projective techniques:**

One group of assessment specialists believes that the more freedom people have in picking their responses, the more meaningful the description and classification that can be obtained. Because personality inventories do not permit much freedom of choice, some researchers and clinicians prefer to use projective techniques, in which a person is shown ambiguous stimuli (such as shapes or pictures) and asked to interpret them in some way. (Such stimuli allow relative freedom in projecting one's own interests and feelings into them, reacting in any way that seems appropriate.)

Projective techniques are believed to be sensitive to unconscious dimensions of personality. Defense mechanisms, latent impulses, and anxieties have all been inferred from data gathered in projective situations.

Personality inventories and projective techniques do have some elements in common; inkblots, for example, are ambiguous, but so also are many of the statements on inventories such as the MMPI. These techniques differ in that the subject is given substantially free rein in responding to projective stimuli rather than merely answering true or false, for example. Another similarity between projective and questionnaire or inventory approaches is that all involve the use of relatively standardized testing situations.

While projective techniques are often lumped together as one general methodology, in actual practice there are several approaches to assessment from a projective point of view. Although projective techniques share the common characteristic that they permit the subject wide latitude in responding, they still may be distinguished broadly as follows: (1) associative techniques, in which the subject is asked to react to words, to inkblots, or to other stimuli with the first associated thoughts that come to mind; (2) construction techniques, in which the subject is asked to create something—for example,

make up a story or draw a self-portrait; (3) completion techniques, in which the subject is asked to finish a partially developed stimulus, such as adding the last words to an incomplete sentence; (4) choice or ordering techniques, in which the subject is asked to choose from among or to give some orderly sequence to stimuli—for example, to choose from or arrange a set of pictures or inkblots; (5) expressive techniques, in which the subject is asked to use free expression in some manner, such as in finger painting.

Hidden personality defense mechanisms, latent emotional impulses, and inner anxieties all have been attributed to test takers by making theoretical inferences from data gathered as they responded in projective situations. While projective stimuli are ambiguous, they are usually administered under fairly standardized conditions. Quantitative (numerical) measures can be derived from subjects' responses to them. These include the number of responses one makes to a series of inkblots and the number of responses to the blots in which the subject perceives what seem to him to be moving animals.

### **Behavioral assessment:**

Objective observation of a subject's behaviour is a technique that falls in the category of behavioral assessment. A variety of assessments could be considered, for example, in the case of a seven-year-old boy who, according to his teacher, is doing poorly in his schoolwork and, according to his parents, is difficult to manage at home and does not get along with other children.

The following types of assessment might be considered:

- (1) A measure of the boy's general intelligence, which might help explain his poor schoolwork;
- (2) An interview with him to provide insights into his view of his problem;
- (3) Personality tests, which might reveal trends that are related to his inadequate social relationships;

- (4) Observations of his activities and response patterns in school;
- (5) Observations of his behavior in a specially created situation, such as a playroom with many interesting toys and games;
- (6) An interview with his parents, since the boy's poor behaviour in school may be symptomatic of problems at home;
- (7) Direct observation of his behaviour at home.

Making all of these assessments would be a major undertaking. Because of the variety of data that are potentially available, the assessor must decide which types of information are most feasible and desirable under a given set of circumstances. In most cases, the clinician is interested in both subjective and objective information. Subjective information includes what clients think about, the emotions they experience, and their worries and preoccupations. Interviews, personality inventories, and projective techniques provide indications of subjective experience, although considerable clinical judgment is needed to infer what is going on within the client from test responses.

Objective information includes the person's observable behaviour and usually does not require the assessor to draw complex inferences about such topics as attitudes toward parents, unconscious wishes, and deep-seated conflicts. Such objective information is measured by behavioral assessment. It is often used to identify behavioral problems, which are then treated in some appropriate way. Behavioral observations are used to get information that cannot be obtained by other means. Examples of such observations include the frequency of a particular type of response, such as physical attacks on others or observations by ward attendants of certain behaviours of psychiatric patients. In either case, observational data must meet the same standards of reliability as data obtained by more formal measures.

The value of behavioral assessment depends on the behaviours selected for observation. For example, if the goal of assessment is to detect a tendency toward depression, the responses recorded should

be those that are relevant to that tendency, such as degrees of smiling, motor activity, and talking.

A type of behavioral assessment called baseline observations is becoming increasingly popular. These are recordings of response frequencies in particular situations before any treatment or intervention has been made. They can be used in several ways. Observations might be made simply to describe a person's response repertoire at a given time. For example, the number of aggressive responses made by children of different ages might be recorded. Such observations also provide a baseline for judging the effectiveness of behaviour modification techniques.

A similar set of observations, made after behaviour modification procedures have been used, could be compared with the baseline measurement as a way of determining how well the therapy worked. Behavioral observations can be treated in different ways. One of these is to keep track of the frequency with which people make designated responses during a given period of time (*e.g.*, the number of times a psychiatric patient makes his own bed or the number of times a child asks for help in a novel situation). Another approach involves asking raters to support their judgments of others by citing specific behaviour (critical incidents); a shop foreman, for example, may rate a worker as depressed by citing incidents when the worker burst into tears.

Critical incidents not only add validity to ordinary ratings, but they also suggest behavioral details that might be promising predictors of success on the job, response to psychiatric treatment, or level of academic achievement.

Behavioral observations are widely made in interviews and in a variety of workaday settings. Employers, supervisors, and teachers—either formally or informally—make use of behavioral observations in making decisions about people for whom they have responsibility. Unfortunately the subject may know he is being studied or evaluated and, therefore, may behave atypically (*e.g.*, by working harder than usual or by growing tense). The observer may be a source of error by being biased in favour of or against the subject. Disinterested observers clearly are to be preferred (other things being equal) for research and clinical purposes.

The greater the care taken to control such contributions to error, the greater the likelihood that observations will prove to be reliable.

### **Cognitive assessment:**

The types of thoughts experienced by individuals are reflective of their personalities. Just as it is important to know what people do and how their behaviour affects others, it is also necessary to assess the thoughts that may lie behind the behaviour. Cognitive assessment provides information about thoughts that precede, accompany, and follow maladaptive behaviour. It also provides information about the effects of procedures that are intended to modify both how subjects think about a problem and how they behave.

Cognitive assessment can be carried out in a variety of ways. For example, questionnaires have been developed to sample people's thoughts after an upsetting event. Beepers (electronic pagers) have been used to signal subjects to record their thoughts at certain times of the day. There are also questionnaires to assess the directions people give themselves while working on a task and their theories about why things happen as they do.

The assessment of thoughts and ideas is a relatively new development. It has received impetus from the growing evidence that thought processes and the content of thoughts are related to emotions and behaviour.

Cognitive assessment provides information about adaptive and maladaptive aspects of people's thoughts and the role their thoughts play in the processes of planning, making decisions, and interpreting reality.

### **Bodily assessment:**

Bodily responses may reveal a person's feelings and motivations, and clinicians pay particular attention to these nonverbal messages. Bodily functions may also reflect motivations and concerns, and some clinicians also pay attention to these.

Sophisticated devices have been developed to measure such physiological changes as pupil dilation, blood pressure, and electrical skin responses under specific conditions. These changes are related to periodic ratings of mood and to other physiological states that provide measures of stability and change within the individual. Technological advances are making it possible to monitor an individual's physiological state on a continuous basis. Sweat, heartbeat, blood volume, substances in the bloodstream, and blood pressure can all be recorded and correlated with the presence or absence of certain psychological conditions such as stress.

### **Personal facts:**

One type of information that is sometimes overlooked because of its very simplicity consists of the subject's life history and present status. Much of this information may be gathered through direct interviews with a subject or with an informant through questionnaires and through searches of records and archives. The information might also be gathered by examining the subject's personal documents (*e.g.*, letters, autobiographies) and medical, educational, or psychiatric case histories. The information might concern the individual's social and occupational history, his cultural background, his present economic status, and his past and present physical characteristics. Life-history data can provide clues to the precursors and correlates of present behaviour. This information may help the investigator avoid needlessly speculative or complex hypotheses about the causation of personality traits when simple explanations might be superior. Failure on the part of a personality evaluator to be aware of the fact that someone had spent two years during World War II in a concentration camp could result in misleading inferences and conjectures about the subject's present behaviour.

### **Process of Socialization:**

Human infants are born without any culture. They must be transformed by their parents, teachers, and others into cultural and socially adept animals. The general process of acquiring culture is referred to as **socialization**. During socialization, we learn the language of the culture we are born into as well as the roles we are to

play in life. For instance, girls learn how to be daughters, sisters, friends, wives, and mothers. In addition, they learn about the occupational roles that their society has in store for them. We also learn and usually adopt our culture's norms through the socialization process. **Norms** are the conceptions of appropriate and expected behavior that are held by most members of the society. While socialization refers to the general process of acquiring culture, anthropologists use the term **enculturation** for the process of being socialized to a particular culture. You were enculturated to your specific culture by your parents and the other people who raised you.

Socialization is important in the process of personality formation. While much of human personality is the result of our genes, the socialization process can mold it in particular directions by encouraging specific beliefs and attitudes as well as selectively providing experiences. These very likely accounts for much of the difference between the common personality types in one society in comparison to another.

### **How are Children Socialized?**

Socialization is a learning process that begins shortly after birth. Early childhood is the period of the most intense and the most crucial socialization. It is then that we acquire language and learn the fundamentals of our culture. It is also when much of our personality takes shape. However, we continue to be socialized throughout our lives. As we age, we enter new statuses and need to learn the appropriate roles for them. We also have experiences that teach us lessons and potentially lead us to alter our expectations, beliefs, and personality.



## Unit-II

### Dynamics of Social Development

**Social Development theory** attempts to explain qualitative changes in the structure and framework of society that help the society to better realize its aims and objectives.

Development can be defined in a manner applicable to all societies' at all historical periods as an upward ascending movement featuring greater levels of

- ❖ Energy,
- ❖ Efficiency,
- ❖ Quality,
- ❖ Productivity,
- ❖ Complexity,
- ❖ Comprehension,
- ❖ Creativity,
- ❖ Mastery,
- ❖ Enjoyment
- ❖ Accomplishment.

Development is a process of social change, not merely a set of policies and programs instituted for some specific results. During the last five centuries this process has picked up in speed and intensity, and during the last five decades has witnessed a marked surge in acceleration.

The basic mechanism driving social change is increasing awareness leading to better organization. When society senses new and better opportunities for progress it develops new forms of organization to exploit these new openings successfully.

The new forms of organization are better able to harness the available social energies and skills and resources to use the opportunities to get the intended results.

Development is governed by many factors that influence the results of developmental efforts. There must be a motive that drives the social change and essential preconditions for that change to occur.

The motive must be powerful enough to overcome obstructions that impede that change from occurring. Development also requires resources such as capital, technology, and supporting infrastructure.

Development is the result of society's capacity to organize resources to meet challenges and opportunities. Society passes through well-defined stages in the course of its development. They are nomadic hunting and gathering, rural agrarian, urban, commercial, industrial, and post-industrial societies. Pioneers introduce new ideas, practices, and habits that conservative elements initially resist.

At a later stage, innovations are accepted, imitated, organized, and used by other members of the community. Organizational improvements introduced to support the innovations can take place simultaneously at four different levels—physical, social, mental, and psychological. Moreover four different types of resources are involved in promoting development. Of these four, physical resources are most visible, but least capable of expansion. Productivity of resources increases enormously as the quality of organization and level of knowledge inputs rise.

Development pace and scope varies according to the stage society is in. The three main stages are physical, vital (*vital* refers to the dynamic and nervous social energies of humanity that propel individuals to accomplish), and mental.

Economic development and human development need not mean the same thing. Strategies and policies aimed at greater growth may produce greater income in a country without improving the average living standard.

Four related but distinct terms and phenomena form successive steps in a graded series: survival, growth, development, and evolution.

Survival refers to a subsistence lifestyle with no marked qualitative changes in living standards. Growth refers to horizontal expansion in the existing plane characterized by quantitative expansion—such as a farmer increasing the area under cultivation, or a retailer opening more stores. Development refers to a vertical shift in the level of operations that causes qualitative changes, such as a retailer turning into a manufacturer or an elementary school turning into a high school.

### **Human development:**

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Development is a human process, in the sense that human beings, not material factors, drive development. The energy and aspiration of people who seek development forms the motive force that drives development. People's awareness may decide the direction of development. Their efficiency, productivity, creativity, and organizational capacities determine the level of people's accomplishment and enjoyment. Development is the outer realization of latent inner potentials.

The level of people's education, intensity of their aspiration and energies, quality of their attitudes and values, skills and information all affect the extent and pace of development. These factors come into play whether it is the development of the individual, family, community, nation, or the whole world.

Society can be conceived as a complex fabric that consists of interrelated activities, systems, and organizations. Development occurs when this complex fabric improves its own organization. That organizational improvement can take place simultaneously in several dimensions.

- ❖ Quantitative expansion in the volume of social activities
- ❖ Qualitative expansion in the content of all those elements that make up the social fabric
- ❖ Geographic extension of the social fabric to bring more of the population under the cover of that fabric
- ❖ Integration of existing and new organizations so the social fabric functions more efficiently

Such organizational innovations occur all the time, as a continuous process. New organizations emerge whenever a new developmental stage is reached, and old organizations are modified to suit new developmental requirements. The impact of these new organizations may be powerful enough to make people believe they are powerful in their own right—but it is society that creates the new organizations required to achieve its objectives.

### **Role of technological development:**

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When the mind engages in pure creative thinking, it comes up with new thoughts and ideas. When it applies itself to society it can come up with new organizations. When it turns to the study of nature, it discovers nature's laws and mechanisms.

When it applies itself to technology, it makes new discoveries and practical inventions that boost productivity. Technical creativity has had an erratic course through history, with some intense periods of creative output followed by some dull and inactive periods. However, the period since 1700 has been marked by an intense burst of technological creativity that is multiplying human capacities exponentially.

Though many reasons can be cited for the accelerating pace of technological inventions, a major cause is the role played by mental creativity in an increasing atmosphere of freedom. Political freedom and liberation from religious dogma had a powerful impact on creative thinking during the Age of Enlightenment. Dogmas and superstitions greatly restricted mental creativity. For example, when the astronomer Copernicus proposed a heliocentric view of the world, the church rejected it because it did not conform to established religious doctrine. When Galileo used a telescope to view the planets, the church condemned the device as an instrument of the devil, as it seemed so unusual. The Enlightenment shattered such obscurantist fetters on freedom of thought. From then on, the spirit of experimentation thrived.

Though technological inventions have increased the pace of development, the tendency to view developmental accomplishments as mainly powered by technology misses the bigger picture.

Technological innovation was spurred by general advances in the social organization of knowledge. In the Middle Ages, efforts at scientific progress were few, mainly because there was no effective system to preserve and disseminate knowledge. Since there was no organized protection for patent rights, scientists and inventors were secretive about observations and discoveries. Establishment of scientific associations and scientific journals spurred the exchange of knowledge and created a written record for posterity. Technological development depends on social organizations.

### **Limits to development**

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The concept of inherent limits to development arose mainly because past development was determined largely by availability of physical resources. Humanity relied more on muscle-power than thought-power to accomplish work. That is no longer the case. Today, mental resources are the primary determinant of development. Where people drove a simple bullock cart, they now design ships and aircraft that carry huge loads across immense distances. Humanity has tamed rivers, cleared jungles and even turned arid desert lands into cultivable lands through irrigation.

By using intelligence, society has turned sand into powerful silicon chips that carry huge amounts of information and form the basis of computers. Since there is no inherent limit to the expansion of society's mental resources, the notion of limits to growth cannot be ultimately binding.

### **Three stages of development:**

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Society's developmental journey is marked by three stages:

- ❖ Physical,
- ❖ Vital,
- ❖ Mental.

These are not clear-cut stages, but overlap. All three are present in any society at time. One of them is predominant while the other two play subordinate roles. The term 'vital' denotes the emotional and nervous energies that empower society's drive towards accomplishment and express most directly in the interactions

between human beings. Before the full development of mind, it is these vital energies that predominate in human personality and gradually yield the ground as the mental element becomes stronger. The speed and circumstances of social transition from one stage to another varies.

### **Physical stage:**

The physical stage is characterized by the domination of the physical element of the human personality. During this phase, society is preoccupied with bare survival and subsistence. People follow tradition strictly and there is little innovation and change. Land is the main asset and productive resource during the physical stage and wealth is measured by the size of land holdings.

This is the agrarian and feudal phase of society. Inherited wealth and position rule the roost and there is very little upward mobility. Feudal lords and military chiefs function as the leaders of the society. Commerce and money play a relatively minor role. As innovative thinking and experimental approaches are discouraged, people follow tradition unwaveringly and show little inclination to think outside of established guidelines. Occupational skills are passed down from parent to child by a long process of apprenticeship.

### **Vital stage:**

The vital stage of society is infused with dynamism and change. The vital activities of society expand markedly. Society becomes curious, innovative and adventurous. During the vital stage emphasis shifts from interactions with the physical environment to social interactions between people. Trade supplants agriculture as the principal source of wealth.

The dawning of this phase in Europe led to exploratory voyages across the seas leading to the discovery of new lands and an expansion of sea trade. Equally important, society at this time began to more effectively harness the power of money. Commerce took over from agriculture, and money replaced land as the most productive resource. The center of life shifted from the countryside to the towns where opportunities for trade and business were in greater abundance.

**Mental stage:**

This stage has three essential characteristics: practical, social, and political application of mind. The practical application of mind generates many inventions. The social application of mind leads to new and more effective types of social organization. The political application leads to changes in the political systems that empower the populace to exercise political and human rights in a free and democratic manner. These changes began in the Renaissance and Enlightenment, and gained momentum in the Reformation, which proclaimed the right of individuals to relate directly to God without the mediation of priests. The political application of mind led to the American and French Revolutions, which produced writing that first recognized the rights of the common man and gradually led to the actual enjoyment of these rights.

Organization is a mental invention. Therefore it is not surprising that the mental stage of development is responsible for the formulation of a great number of organizational innovations. Huge business corporations have emerged that make more money than even the total earnings of some small countries. Global networks for transportation and communication now connect the nations of the world within a common unified social fabric for sea and air travel, telecommunications, weather reporting and information exchange.

**Nature of socio cultural environment:**

The socio-cultural environment was carefully analyzed and it was concluded that most people in the region would value our service greatly.

The core beliefs of a particular society tend to be rigid. It is difficult for businesses to change these core values, which become a determinant of its functioning. Some of the important factors and influences operating in this environment are as follows:

a) Social concerns, such as the role of business in society, environmental pollution, corruption, use of mass media, and consumerism.

- b) Social attitudes and values, such as expectations of society from business, social customs, beliefs, rituals and practices, changing lifestyle patterns, and materialism.
- c) Family structure and the changes in it, attitude towards and within the family, and family values.
- d) Role of women in society, position of children and adolescents in family and society.
- e) Educational levels, awareness and consciousness of rights, and work ethics of members of society.

### The Sociocultural Perspective Defined

Psychologists use many different approaches that work together to understand and explain human behavior. The **sociocultural perspective** is one approach to understanding why humans behave the way they do. The sociocultural perspective seeks to understand human behavior and personality development by examining the rules of the social groups and subgroups in which the individual is a member. These rules are often unwritten guidelines that direct a person's actions.

### Groups Can Affect Behavior:

Race and ethnicity, religion, gender, social class, family traditions, peer groups, and age are some of the subgroups that may influence someone's behavior. Do students from poverty-stricken areas learn differently than students in wealthy homes? Do religious beliefs play a role in a teen's decision to delay premarital sex? Do families that eat dinner together every night have more successful children than families who don't eat together? A psychologist could use the sociocultural perspective to help answer these questions.

If you looked outside your window and saw a man speaking earnestly to a tree, what conclusions might you draw? You may argue the man could be suffering from mental illness and needs medication or treatment in a mental institution.



## Social security and Health facilities:

Social security may also refer to the action programs of government intended to promote the welfare of the population through assistance measures guaranteeing access to sufficient resources for food and shelter and to promote health and well-being for the population at large and potentially vulnerable segments such as children, the elderly, the sick and the unemployed. Services providing social security are often called **social services**.

- Survival beyond a prescribed age, to be covered by *old age pensions*;
- The loss of support suffered by a widow or child as the result of the death of the breadwinner (*survivor's benefit*);
- Responsibility for the maintenance of children (*family benefit*);
- The treatment of any morbid condition (including pregnancy), whatever its cause (*medical care*);
- A suspension of earnings due to pregnancy and confinement and their consequences (*maternity benefit*);
- A suspension of earnings due to an inability to obtain suitable employment for protected persons who are capable of, and available for, work (*unemployment benefits*);
- A suspension of earnings due to an incapacity for work resulting from a morbid condition (*sickness leave benefit*);
- A permanent or persistent inability to engage in any gainful activity (*disability benefits*);
- The costs and losses involved in medical care, sickness leave, invalidity and death of the breadwinner due to an occupational accident or disease (*employment injuries*).

People who cannot reach a guaranteed social minimum for other reasons may be eligible for *social assistance* (or welfare, in American English).

Modern authors often consider the ILO approach too narrow. In their view, social security is not limited to the provision of cash transfers, but also aims at security of work, health, and social participation; and new social risks (single parenthood, the reconciliation of work and family life) should be included in the list as well.<sup>[2]</sup>

## **Social security may refer to:**

- **Social insurance**, where people receive benefits or services in recognition of contributions to an insurance program. These services typically include provision for retirement pensions, disability insurance, survivor benefits and unemployment insurance.
- **Services** provided by government or designated agencies responsible for social security provision. In different countries, that may include medical care, financial support during unemployment, sickness, or retirement, health and safety at work, aspects of social work and even industrial relations.
- **Basic security** irrespective of participation in specific insurance programs where eligibility may otherwise be an issue. For instance, assistance given to newly arrived refugees for basic necessities such as food, clothing, housing, education, money, and medical care.

## **Educational facilities:**

One of the most powerful means of propagating and sustaining new developments is the educational system in a society. Education transmits society's collective knowledge from one generation to the next. It equips each new generation to face future opportunities and challenges with knowledge gathered from the past. It shows the young generation the opportunities ahead for them, and thereby raises their aspiration to achieve more. Information imparted by education raises the level of expectations of youth, as well as aspirations for higher income. It also equips youth with the mental capacity to devise ways and means to improve productivity and enhance living standards.

Society can be conceived as a complex fabric that consists of interrelated activities, systems, and organizations.

Development occurs when this complex fabric improves its own organization. That organizational improvement can take place simultaneously in several dimensions.

- ❖ Quantitative expansion in the volume of social activities
- ❖ Qualitative expansion in the content of all those elements that make up the social fabric
- ❖ Geographic extension of the social fabric to bring more of the population under the cover of that fabric
- ❖ Integration of existing and new organizations so the social fabric functions more efficiently

Such organizational innovations occur all the time, as a continuous process. New organizations emerge whenever a new developmental stage is reached, and old organizations are modified to suit new developmental requirements. The impact of these new organizations may be powerful enough to make people believe they are powerful in their own right—but it is society that creates the new organizations required to achieve its objectives.

The direction that the developmental process takes is influenced by the population's awareness of opportunities. Increasing awareness leads to greater aspiration, which releases greater energy that helps bring about greater accomplishment.

### **Influence of media:**

Mass media—newspapers, magazines, comic books, radio, video games, movies, and especially television—present a very different form of socialization than any other, because they offer no opportunity for interaction. Television is an influence on children from a very young age and affects their cognitive and social development (Elkind, 2007; Wright et al., 2001).

Television is the medium with the greatest socialization effect, surpassing all the other media by far in its influence on the young child. The very fact that television is not an interactive agent is greatly significant to the development of young children. While watching, children have the feeling that they're interacting, but they're not. That's one of the disadvantages of television as a socialize—it satisfies social needs to some extent, but doesn't give children the social skills (or the real-life practice in those skills) that allow them to function effectively with people.

Since the average child watches 3 to 4 hours of television a day, the time left for playing with others and learning social skills is drastically reduced. Even infants average about an hour and a half of television viewing a day between the time they are born and age 2 (Wright et al., 2001).

Of course, parents can control the time their children spend watching television, but many don't. They can monitor the selection of programs, but some allow their children to watch whatever happens to be on. Some parents don't consider how they can use television to teach decision making.

They don't make children aware that when one program ends they can either weigh the various merits of the next offerings or turn the set off. Some children, especially those with a remote control in hand, flick through the channels periodically, randomly stopping at whatever catches their interest at the moment. That's very different from critically examining options and consciously deciding on one. This is where parent education could be effective. Some parents who grew up with television themselves haven't given much thought to the effects of that medium, and how to decrease these effects.

Children learn through watching television. Some of the things they learn are beneficial; others are not. They learn about the world and the ways of the society.

They learn something about occupations, for example, getting an idea about what a nurse does, what a doctor does, and how the two relate to each other. They learn about the institutions of the society—what goes on in court, for example. They learn the language to go with these roles and settings—and they learn some language you'd rather they didn't know!

Children also learn about current themes and issues, both from newscasts and dramas—issue such as kidnapping, the homeless, and the spread of AIDS. Most of these issues and themes are not happy ones, and many are very frightening, especially when children watch programs that are intended for adults.

Children learn more than facts from television; they also get a good daily dose of stereotypes and a lot of misleading information about their world. Most of all, they get a big helping of violence and another of commercial advertising.

## **Influence of democratic polity-their impact on school and classroom:**

Schools should be viewed not only as institutions that impart certain knowledge and skills to students, but also as environments that socialize them.

Socializing students to achieve just what "aims" is the subject of current debates among educators, politicians, and business leaders alike.

This debate can be understood as a conflict among three points of view:

- 1.) That education is an extension of market forces that helps to prepare students for employment opportunities;
- 2.) That schools should not socialize but should be limited to providing basic academic skills and knowledge;
- 3.) That education is a democratizing force that helps to prepare students to participate actively in all aspects of democratic life.

The John Dewey Project on Progressive Education grounds its work in Dewey's assumption that the aims of education should be oriented towards preparing young people to be full and active participants in all aspects of democratic life.

A particular form of curriculum of place that has received growing attention in recent years is "service-learning."

"Service-learning is a set of pedagogical practices that attempts to synthesize and connect community service experiences to specific spheres of knowledge for the dual purposes of mastering that knowledge and developing citizen skills that support one's active participation in democratic processes."

The Community Trust Act of 1993 defines service-learning as:

1. A method whereby students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service that is conducted in and meets the needs of the community;
2. Coordinated with an elementary school, secondary school, institutions for higher learning, or community service program and the community;
3. Helps foster civic responsibility;
4. Integrated into and enhances the academic curriculum of the students, or the education components of the community service program in which the participants are enrolled; and
5. Provides structured time for students or participants to reflect on the service-learning.

### **Social Perception:**

Social perception allows individuals to make judgments and form impressions about other people. These judgments are primarily based on observation, although pre-existing knowledge influences how observed information is interpreted. "Social perception" refers to the first stages in which people process information in order to determine another individual's or group's mind-set and intentions.

These early stages help us interpret each other's actions so that additional information can be quickly inferred in order to predict behavior. Social perceptions can influence an individual's behaviors and attitudes.

### **General Research Interests:**

Social psychologists research the factors that lead people to behave in a given way in the presence of others, and look at the conditions under which certain behaviors and feelings occur.

This field is specifically concerned with the way feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions, and goals are constructed, and how such psychological factors, in turn, influence interactions with others.

Social psychology attempts to understand the complex relationship between minds, groups, and behaviors in three general ways.

- ❖ First, it aims to describe how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others. This includes areas like social perception, social interaction, and social influence (including trust, power, and persuasion). There is a strong interest in how perceptions and thoughts, as well as social cues, affect individual behavior in this area.
- ❖ Second, social psychology attempts to describe the influence that individual perceptions and behaviors have on the behavior of groups. This includes research on areas such as group productivity and decision making.
- ❖ Third, social psychology explains the dynamics of groups as behavioral entities. Research in this area investigates the relationships that one group has with another group, and/or the influence one group has on another group.

**Some of the topics of focus within social psychology are listed below:**

- ❖ Attribution
- ❖ Persuasion
- ❖ prejudice
- ❖ Social perception
- ❖ Conformity
- ❖ Social influence
- ❖ Group dynamics
- ❖ Interpersonal attraction

Social psychology uses strictly controlled experiments, correlation methods, and observational methods to study these factors. The most common approach is experimental research. In order to try to limit unwanted social influences, deception is often used.

## What is Conformity?

Conformity is a type of social influence involving a change in belief or behavior in order to fit in with a group.

This change is in response to real (involving the physical presence of others) or imagined (involving the pressure of social norms / expectations) group pressure.

**Conformity** can also be simply defined as “*yielding to group pressures*” (Crutchfield, 1955). Group pressure may take different forms, for example bullying, persuasion, teasing, criticism, etc.

Conformity is also known as majority influence (or group pressure). The term conformity is often used to indicate an agreement to the majority position, brought about either by a desire to ‘*fit in*’ or be liked (normative) or because of a desire to be correct (informational), or simply to conform to a social role (identification). There have been many experiments in psychology investigating conformity and group pressure.

**Jenness (1932)** was the first psychologist to study conformity. His experiment was an ambiguous situation involving a glass bottle filled with beans. He asked participants individually to estimate how many beans the bottle contained. Jenness then put the group in a room with the bottle, and asked them to provide a group estimate through discussion.

Participants were then asked to estimate the number on their own again to find whether their initial estimates had altered based on the influence of the majority.

Jenness then interviewed the participants individually again, and asked if they would like to change their original estimates, or stay with the group's estimate. Almost all changed their individual guesses to be closer to the group estimate.



## **Types of Social Conformity**

**Man (1969)** states that “*the essence of conformity is yielding to group pressure*”.

He identified **three types of conformity**:

- ❖ Normative,
- ❖ Informational
- ❖ Ingratiation.

**Kelman (1958)** distinguished between three different types of conformity: Compliance, internalization and identification.

### **Normative:**

- This type of conformity usually involves compliance – where a person publicly accepts the views of a group but privately rejects them. This usually occurs when a person lacks knowledge and looks to the group for guidance.
- Or when a person is in an ambiguous (i.e. unclear) situation and socially compares their behavior with the group. E.g. Sherif's Study.
- This type of conformity usually involves internalization – where a person accepts the views of the groups and adopts them as an individual.

### **Informational:**

- Publicly changing behavior to fit in with the group while privately disagreeing.
- In other words, conforming to the majority (publicly), in spite of not really agreeing with them (privately).

- This is seen in Asch's line experiment.
- Publicly changing behavior to fit in with the group and also agreeing with them privately.
- This is seen in Sherif's autokinetic experiment.

### **Ingratiation:**

- Where a person conforms to impress or gain favor/acceptance from other people.
- It is similar to normative influence, but is motivated by the need for social rewards rather than the threat of rejection, i.e., group pressure does not enter the decision to conform.

Conforming to the expectations of a social role.

- Similar to compliance, there does not have to be a change in private opinion.
- A good example is Zimbardo's Prison Study.

Conformity is the most common and pervasive form of social influence. It is informally defined as the tendency to act or think like members of a group.

In psychology, conformity is defined as the act of matching attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors to group norms.

A number of factors are known to increase the likelihood of conformity within a group. Some of these are as follows:

- ❖ *Minority influence*
- ❖ *Importance of stimuli*
- ❖ *Age*
- ❖ *Gender*
- ❖ *Culture*
- ❖ *Cohesion*
- ❖ *Status*
- ❖ *Unanimity*
- ❖ *Group size*

- **Group size**—larger groups are more likely to conform to similar behaviors and thoughts than smaller ones.
- **Unanimity**—individuals are more likely to conform to group decisions when the rest of the group's response is unanimous.
- **Cohesion**—groups that possess bonds linking them to one another and to the group as a whole tend to display more conformity than groups that do not have those bonds.
- **Status**—individuals are more likely to conform with high-status groups.
- **Culture**—cultures that are collectivist exhibit a higher degree of conformity than individualistic cultures.
- **Gender**—women are more likely to conform than men in situations involving surveillance, but less likely when there is no surveillance. Societal norms establish gender differences that affect the ways in which men and women conform to social influence.
- **Age**—younger individuals are more likely to conform than older individuals, perhaps due to lack of experience and status.
- **Importance of stimuli**—individuals may conform less frequently when the task is considered important. This was

suggested by a study where participants were told that their responses would be used in the design of aircraft safety signals, and conformity decreased.

- **Minority influence**—minority factions within larger groups tend to have influence on overall group decisions. This influence is primarily informational and depends on consistent adherence to a position, the degree of defection from the majority, and the status and self-confidence of the minority members.

## **Social identity in schools: Enhancing leadership, learning and well-being"**

To build identity safety in classrooms and schools, educators can draw on the practices spelled out below, organized into four domains :

**1. Child-centered teaching** promotes autonomy, cooperation and student voice.

- *Listening for student voices* ensures that each student can contribute to and shape classroom life.
- *Teaching for understanding* assures students learn new knowledge and incorporate it into what they know.
- *Focusing on cooperation rather than competition* encourages students to learn from and help others.
- *Classroom autonomy* promotes responsibility and belonging in each student.

**2. Cultivating diversity as a resource** provides challenging curriculum and high expectations for all students in the context of the regular and authentic use of diverse materials, ideas and teaching activities.

- *Using diversity as a resource for teaching* draws from all students' lives as part of the curriculum and daily life in the classroom.

- *High expectations and academic rigor* support all students in learning to analyze, synthesize, evaluate and strive to grow intellectually at every academic level.
- *Challenging curriculum* motivates students with meaningful, purposeful learning as opposed to rote teaching and remediation.

**3. Classroom relationships** are based on trusting, positive interactions with the teacher and among the students.

- *Teacher warmth and availability to support learning* builds a trusting, encouraging relationship with each student based on belief that he or she can succeed and achieve at high levels.
- *Positive student relationships* promote interpersonal understanding and caring among students in a climate free of bullying and social cruelty.

**4. Caring classroom environments** are ones where social skills are taught and practiced help students care for one another in an emotionally and physically safe classroom.

- *Teacher skill* is the capacity to establish an orderly, purposeful classroom that facilitates student learning.
- *Emotional and physical comfort* are crucial so that each student feels safe and attached to school and to other students.
- *Attention to prosocial development* incorporates social and emotional learning (SEL) into all aspects of daily life, teaching students how to live with one another, feel empathy for one another and solve problems with respect and care for others.

### **Conflict:**

The interconnection of development factors often causes further conflict escalation. For example, administrative chaos in under-financed governmental bodies often causes the transference of

responsibilities from the central state to NGOs, local governments, and the private sector.

The result is that such organizations assume duties that may go well beyond their capacities, which causes further conflict. For example, NGOs, local governments, and the private sector lack training in facilitation, mediation, and negotiation, as well as the theoretical knowledge of conflict resolution. So conflicts escalate, with no one knowing what to do about it.

**International levels to eliminate the roots of conflict:**

- 1) Fostering a culture of peace through education,
- 2) Promoting sustainable economic and social development
- 3) Promoting respect for all human rights
- 4) Ensuring equality between women and men
- 5) Fostering democratic participation
- 6) Advancing understanding, tolerance and solidarity
- 7) Supporting participatory communication and the free flow of information and knowledge
- 8) Promoting international peace and security the values of peace and tolerance are an essential part of quality basic education.

Basic education not only provides the skills of literacy and numeracy, but also provides the values and attitudes needed for self-development, improving the quality of life, and for active participation in society.

Most importantly, basic education provides the ability for continuous learning, giving people the power to think, to form opinions and to work towards the promotion of peace, tolerance and universal respect for human rights.

Although basic access to education is essential for attaining a culture of peace, it is not enough. Educational and training programs must be available to people at all levels, both formally and non-formally.

## **Violence and role of peace education:**

**Peace education** is the process of acquiring the *values*, the knowledge and developing the attitudes, skills, and behaviors to live in harmony with oneself, with others, and with the natural environment.

### **Conflict resolution training:**

Peace education programs centered on conflict resolution typically focus on the social-behavioural symptoms of conflict, training individuals to resolve inter-personal disputes through techniques of negotiation and (peer) mediation. Learning to manage anger, “fight fair” and improve communication through skills such as listening, turn-taking, identifying needs, and separating facts from emotions, constitute the main elements of these programs. Participants are also encouraged to take responsibility for their actions and to brainstorm together on compromises

### **Democracy education:**

Peace education programs centered on democracy education typically focus on the political processes associated with conflict, and postulate that with an increase in democratic participation the likelihood of societies resolving conflict through violence and war decreases. At the same time, “a democratic society needs the commitment of citizens who accept the inevitability of conflict as well as the necessity for tolerance”

Approaches of this type train participants in the skills of critical thinking, debate and coalition-building, and promote the values of freedom of speech, individuality, tolerance of diversity, compromise and conscientious objection. Their aim is to produce “responsible citizens” who will hold their governments accountable to the standards of peace, primarily through adversarial processes.

Activities are structured to have students “assume the role of the citizen that chooses, makes decisions, takes positions, argues positions and respects the opinions of others”: skills that a multi-party democracy are based upon. Based on the assumption that democracy decreases the likelihood of violence and war, it is assumed that these are the same skills necessary for creating a culture of peace.

### **Human rights education**

Peace education programs centered on raising awareness of human rights typically focus at the level of policies that humanity ought to adopt in order to move closer to a peaceful global community. The aim is to engender a commitment among participants to a vision of structural peace in which all individual members of the human race can exercise their personal freedoms and be legally protected from violence, oppression and indignity.

### **Worldview transformation**

New approaches to peace education are starting from insights gleaned from psychology which recognize the developmental nature of human psychosocial dispositions. Essentially, while conflict-promoting attitudes and behaviours are characteristic of earlier phases of human development, unity-promoting attitudes and behaviours emerge in later phases of healthy development.

"Integrative Theory of Peace" in which peace is understood as a psychosocial, political, moral and spiritual reality. Peace education, he says, must focus on the healthy development and maturation of human consciousness through assisting people to examine and transform their worldviews.

Worldviews are defined as the subconscious lens (acquired through

- ❖ Cultural,
- ❖ Family,
- ❖ Historical,
- ❖ Religious
- ❖ Societal influences



**Through which people perceive four key issues:**

- 1) The nature of reality,
- 2) Human nature,
- 3) The purpose of existence,
- 4) The principles governing appropriate human relationships.

Surveying a mass of material, Danesh argues that the majority of people and societies in the world hold conflict-based worldviews, which express themselves in conflicted intrapersonal, interpersonal, intergroup, and international relationships.

He subdivides conflict-based worldviews into two main categories which he correlates to phases of human development: the Survival-Based Worldview and the Identity-Based Worldview.

It is through the acquisition of a more integrative, Unity-Based Worldview that human capacity to mitigate conflict, create unity in the context of diversity, and establishes sustainable cultures of peace, is increased - be it in the home, at school, at work, or in the international community.

## **UNIT-III**

### **Group Dynamics and Individual**

#### **Group Dynamics:**

People may underestimate the importance of society and group memberships on their lives. Whilst people sometimes undertake solo journeys yet by and large much of our experiences of life involves being engaged with others and groups.

Within an organization we do find number of groups. Individuals joining group (s) is a reality – may be formal or informal groups. People work in groups quite frequently and in many different areas of their life e.g. at work, school/college, sport, hobbies. The managers need to understand Group Dynamics that can enable managers to adopt the right approach of interacting with them.

#### **What is Group Dynamics?**

Group dynamics deals with the attitudes and behavioral patterns of a group. Group dynamics concern how groups are formed, what is their structure and which processes are followed in their functioning. Thus, it is concerned with the interactions and forces operating between groups.

#### **What is A Group?**

Every organization is a group unto itself. A group refers to two or more people who share a common meaning and evaluation of themselves and come together to achieve common goals. In other words, a group is a collection of people who interact with one another; accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity.

## **Characteristics of a Group:**

**Regardless of the size or the purpose, every group has similar characteristics:**

- (a) 2 or more persons (if it is one person, it is not a group)
- (b) Formal social structure (the rules of the game are defined)
- (c) Common fate (they will swim together)
- (d) Common goals (the destiny is the same and emotionally connected)
- (e) Face-to-face interaction (they will talk with each other)
- (f) Interdependence (each one is complimentary to the other)
- (g) Self-definition as group members (what one is who belongs to the group)
- (h) Recognition by others (yes, you belong to the group).

### **Process/Stages of Group Development/Evolution:**

Group Development is a dynamic process. How do groups evolve?  
There is a process of five stages through which groups pass through.

**The process includes the five stages:**

- ❖ Forming,
- ❖ Storming,
- ❖ forming,
- ❖ performing,
- ❖ adjourning.

**Forming:**

The first stage in the life of a group is concerned with forming a group. This stage is characterized by members seeking either a work assignment (in a formal group) or other benefit, like status, affiliation, power, etc. (in an informal group). Members at this stage either engage in busy type of activity or show apathy.

**Storming:**

The next stage in this group is marked by the formation of dyads and triads. Members seek out familiar or similar individuals and begin a deeper sharing of self. Continued attention to the subgroup creates a differentiation in the group and tensions across the dyads / triads may appear. Pairing is a common phenomenon. There will be conflict about controlling the group.

**Norming:**

The third stage of group development is marked by a more serious concern about task performance. The dyads/triads begin to open up and seek out other members in the group. Efforts are made to establish various norms for task performance.

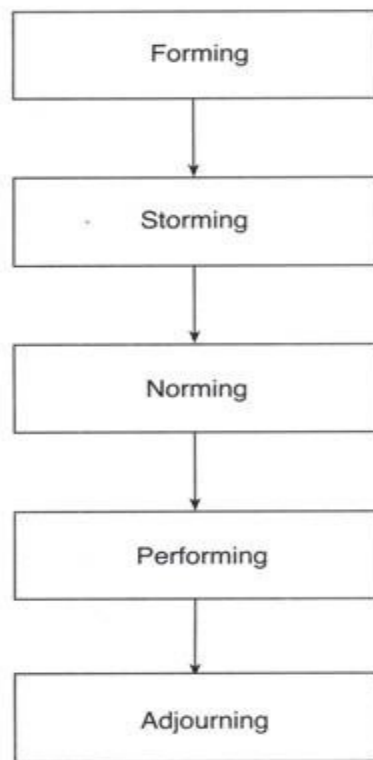
Members begin to take greater responsibility for their own group and relationship while the authority figure becomes relaxed. Once this stage is complete, a clear picture will emerge about hierarchy of leadership. The norming stage is over with the solidification of the group structure and a sense of group identity and camaraderie.

**Performing:**

This is a stage of a fully functional group where members see themselves as a group and get involved in the task. Each person makes a contribution and the authority figure is also seen as a part of the group. Group norms are followed and collective pressure is exerted to ensure the Process of Group effectiveness of the group.

The group may redefine its goals Development in the light of information from the outside environment and show an autonomous will to pursue those goals.

The long-term viability of the group is established and



**Figure 12.1 : Process of Group Deveopment**

nurtured.

### **Adjourning:**

In the case of temporary groups, like project team, task force, or any other such group, which have a limited task at hand, also have a fifth stage, This is known as adjourning.

The group decides to disband. Some members may feel happy over the performance, and some may be unhappy over the stoppage of meeting with group members. Adjourning may also be referred to as mourning, i.e. mourning the adjournment of the group.

The readers must note that the four stages of group development mentioned above for permanent groups are merely suggestive. In reality, several stages may go on simultaneously.

### **Types of Groups:**

One way to classify the groups is by way of formality – formal and informal. While formal groups are established by an organization to achieve its goals, informal groups merge spontaneously. Formal groups may take the form of command groups, task groups, and functional groups.

#### **1. Command Groups:**

Command groups are specified by the organizational chart and often consist of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to that supervisor. An example of a command group is a market research firm CEO and the research associates under him.

#### **2. Task Groups:**

Task groups consist of people who work together to achieve a common task. Members are brought together to accomplish a narrow range of goals within a specified time period. Task groups are also commonly referred to as task forces. The organization appoints members and assigns the goals and tasks to be accomplished.

Examples of assigned tasks are the development of a new product, the improvement of a production process, or designing the syllabus under semester system.

Other common task groups are ad hoc committees, project groups, and standing committees. Ad hoc committees are temporary groups created to resolve a specific complaint or develop a process are normally disbanded after the group completes the assigned task.

#### **3. Functional Groups:**

A functional group is created by the organization to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional groups remain in existence after achievement of current goals and objectives. Examples of functional groups would be a marketing

department, a customer service department, or an accounting department.

In contrast to formal groups, informal groups are formed naturally and in response to the common interests and shared values of individuals.

They are created for purposes other than the accomplishment of organizational goals and do not have a specified time frame. Informal groups are not appointed by the organization and members can invite others to join from time to time.

Informal groups can have a strong influence in organizations that can either be positive or negative. For example, employees who form an informal group can either discuss how to improve a production process or how to create shortcuts that jeopardize quality. Informal groups can take the form of interest groups, friendship groups, or reference groups.

**i. Interest Group:**

Interest groups usually continue over time and may last longer than general informal groups. Members of interest groups may not be part of the same organizational department but they are bound together by some other common interest.

The goals and objectives of group interests are specific to each group and may not be related to organizational goals and objectives. An example of an interest group would be students who come together to form a study group for a specific class.

**ii. Friendship Groups:**

Friendship groups are formed by members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values, or other common bonds. Members enjoy each other's company and often meet after work to participate in these activities. For example, a group of employees who form a friendship group may have a yoga group, a Rajasthani association in Delhi, or a kitty party lunch once a month.

### iii. Reference Groups:

A reference group is a type of group that people use to evaluate themselves. The main objectives of reference groups are to seek social validation and social comparison. Social validation allows individuals to justify their attitudes and values while social comparison helps individuals evaluate their own actions by comparing themselves to others. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behavior. Such groups are formed voluntarily. Family, friends, and religious affiliations are strong reference groups for most individuals.

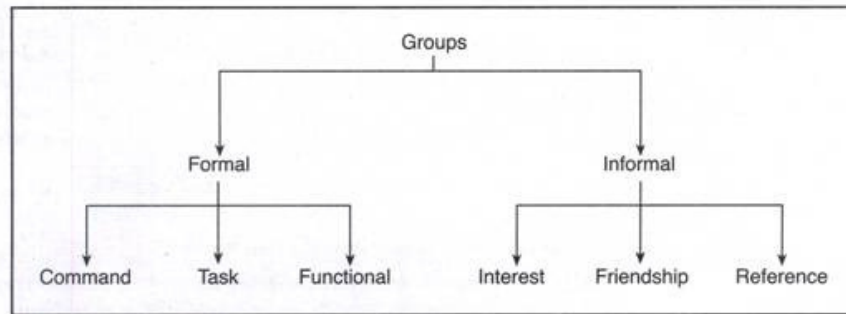


Figure 12.2 : Types of Groups

### Factors Affecting Group Behaviour:

The success or failure of a group depends upon so many factors. Group member resources, structure (group size, group roles, group norms, and group cohesiveness), group processes (the communication, group decision making processes, power dynamics, conflicting interactions, etc.) and group tasks (complexity and interdependence).

#### 1. Group Member Resources:

The members' knowledge, abilities, skills; and personality characteristics (sociability, self-reliance, and independence) are the resources the group members bring in with them. The success depends upon these resources as useful to the task.

#### 2. Group Structure:

##### Group Size:

Group size can vary from 2 people to a very large number of people. Small groups of two to ten are thought to be more effective because each member has ample opportunity to take part and engage actively



in the group. Large groups may waste time by deciding on processes and trying to decide who should participate next.

Evidence supports the notion that as the size of the group increases, satisfaction increases up to a certain point. Increasing the size of a group beyond 10-12 members' results in decreased satisfaction. It is increasingly difficult for members of large groups to identify with one another and experience cohesion.

### **Group Roles:**

In formal groups, roles are always predetermined and assigned to members. Each role shall have specific responsibilities and duties. There are, however, emergent roles that develop naturally to meet the needs of the groups.

These emergent roles will often substitute the assigned roles as individuals begin to express themselves and become more assertive. Group roles can then be classified into work roles, maintenance roles, and blocking roles.

Work roles are task-oriented activities that involve accomplishing the group's goals. They involve a variety of specific roles such as initiator, informer, clarifier, summarizer, and reality tester.

Maintenance roles are social-emotional activities that help members maintain their involvement in the group and raise their personal commitment to the group. The maintenance roles are harmonizer, gatekeeper, consensus tester, encourager, and compromiser.

**Table 12.1 Roles within Group(s)**

Initiator	Takes initiative in defining problems, proposing action, and suggesting procedures.
Informer	Finding facts and giving advice or opinions.
Interpreter	Interprets ideas, define terms, and clarify issues.
Summarizer	Restates suggestions, offers decisions, and comes to conclusions.
Reality Taster	Analyzes ideas and tests the ideas in real situations.
Harmoniser	Reduces tension in the group, reconciles differences, and explores opportunities.
Gatekeeper	Keeps communication channels open and makes suggestions that encourage participation.
Consensus tester	Asks if the group is nearing a decision and tests possible conclusions.
Encourager	Being friendly, warm, and responsive to other group members.
Compromiser	Modifies decisions, offers compromises, and admits errors.
Aggressor	Criticizes members' values and makes jokes in a sarcastic, derogatory, or semi-concealed manner.
Blocker	Stubbornly resists the group's ideas, disagrees with group members for personal reasons.
Dominator	Controls conversations by patronizing others.
Comedian	Attention-getters in ways not relevant to group's objectives.
Avoidance Behaviour	Pursuing goals not related to the group and changing the subject to avoid commitment to the group.

Blocking roles are activities that disrupt the group. Blockers will stubbornly resist the group's ideas, disagree with group members for personal reasons, and will have hidden agendas. They may take the form of dominating discussions, verbally attacking other group members, and distracting the group with trivial information or unnecessary humour.

Often times the blocking behaviour may not be intended as negative. Sometimes a member may share a joke in order to break the tension, or may question a decision in order to force group members to rethink the issue. The blocking roles are aggressor, blocker, dominator, comedian, and avoidance behaviour.

Role conflicts arise when there is ambiguity (confusion about delegation and no specific job descriptions) between the sent role and the received role which leads to frustration and dissatisfaction, ultimately leading to turnover; inconsistency between the perceived role and role behaviour (conflict between work roles and family

roles); and conflicting demands from different sources while performing the task.

**Group Norms:**

Norms define the acceptable standard or boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, shared by group members. They are typically created in order to facilitate group survival, make behaviour more predictable, avoid embarrassing situations, and express the values of the group.

Each group will create its own norms that might determine from the work performance to dress to making comments in a meeting. Groups exert pressure on members to force them to conform to the group's standards and at times not to perform at higher levels. The norms often reflect the level of commitment, motivation, and performance of the group.

The majority of the group must agree that the norms are appropriate in order for the behaviour to be accepted. There must also be a shared understanding that the group supports the norms. It should be noted, however, that members might violate group norms from time to time.

If the majority of members do not adhere to the norms, then they will eventually change and will no longer serve as a standard for evaluating behaviour. Group members who do not conform to the norms will be punished by being excluded, ignored, or asked to leave the group.

**Group Cohesiveness:**

Cohesiveness refers to the bonding of group members or unity, feelings of attraction for each other and desire to remain part of the group. Many factors influence the amount of group cohesiveness – agreement on group goals, frequency of interaction, personal attractiveness, inter-group competition, favourable evaluation, etc.

The more difficult it is to obtain group membership the more cohesive the group will be. Groups also tend to become cohesive when they are in intense competition with other groups or face a

serious external threat to survival. Smaller groups and those who spend considerable time together also tend to be more cohesive.

Cohesiveness in work groups has many positive effects, including worker satisfaction, low turnover and absenteeism, and higher productivity. However, highly cohesive groups may be detrimental to organizational performance if their goals are misaligned with organizational goals.

Highly cohesive groups may also be more vulnerable to groupthink. Groupthink occurs when members of a group exert pressure on each other to come to a consensus in decision making. Groupthink results in careless judgments, unrealistic appraisals of alternative courses of action, and a lack of reality testing.

Evidence suggests that groups typically outperform individuals when the tasks involved require a variety of skills, experience, and decision making. Groups are often more flexible and can quickly assemble, achieve goals, and disband or move on to another set of objectives.

Many organizations have found that groups have many motivational aspects as well. Group members are more likely to participate in decision-making and problem-solving activities leading to empowerment and increased productivity. Groups complete most of the work in an organization; thus, the effectiveness of the organization is limited by the effectiveness of its groups.

**Table 12.2: Dysfunctions of a Group**

Norms' violation and Role Ambiguity	Role ambiguity and role conflict lead to achieving group goals rather than the organisational goals.
Groupthink and conformity Problem	Illusion that they can do no wrong, illusion that group is in agreement, Seeks consensus and ignore/suppress alternative ideas
Social Loafing	Members reduce their performance levels

### **3. Group Processes:**

Decision-making by a group is superior, because group generates more information and knowledge, generates diverse alternatives, increases acceptance of a solution, and increases legitimacy.

Decisions take longer time, minority is dominated, pressure is applied to conform to group decisions, and none is responsible for the decisions. Group processes also include communication, conflict management, and leadership that we shall discuss in details in the chapters to follow hereafter.

### **Turning Groups into Effective Teams:**

All teams are groups but not all groups are teams. Teams often are difficult to form because it takes time for members to learn how to work together.

People in every workplace talk about building the team, working as a team, and my team, but few understand how to create the experience of team work or how to develop an effective team.

Belonging to a team, in the broadest sense, is a result of feeling part of something larger than oneself. It has a lot to do with your understanding of the mission or objectives of your organization.

In a team-oriented environment, one contributes to the overall success of the organization. One works with fellow members of the organization to produce these results.

Even though you have a specific job function and you belong to a specific department, you are unified with other organization members to accomplish the overall objectives.

The bigger picture drives your actions; your function exists to serve the bigger picture.

It is on record that teams are better than groups, because they are more flexible and responsive to dynamic environment. A work group has no opportunity to involve in collective works.

It is the work team whose members ‘work intensely on a specific, common goal using their positive synergy, individual and mutual accountability, and complementary skills’.

**Table 12.3: Difference between a Group and a Team**

<i>Group</i>	<i>Team</i>
<b>No opportunity to engage in collective work</b> , which requires joint effort.	<b>Members work intensely</b> with individual and mutual accountability and complementary skills.
<b>No positive synergy</b> to create.	Generates <b>positive synergy</b> due to capability of group members to bounce ideas off one another to correct one another's mistakes, to bring a diverse knowledge base to bear on a problem, and to accomplish work that is too vast for any one individual to achieve.
<b>Performance not greater than the sum of inputs</b>	<b>Generates greater outputs with no increase in inputs</b>
<b>Less responsive</b> to dynamic environment	<b>More flexible and more responsive</b> to dynamic environment

Team-building helps to increase intra-group and inter-group effectiveness to bring members together, make them share their perception of each other and understand each other's point of view.

Thus, resolve problems and work together in a cooperative and collaborative mode.

Teams can be of four types –

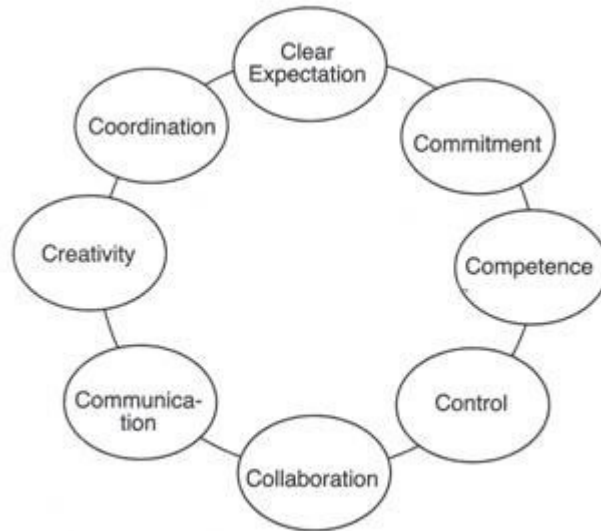
- ❖ Problem-solving teams (only making suggestion),
- ❖ self-managed, teams (operate without a manager),
- ❖ Cross-functional teams (a group of experts from different specialities),
- ❖ Virtual team (members collaborate online).

In terms of size, teams may be institutional (comprising of hundreds of members) and operational (a small, cooperative group, in regular contact and contributes responsibly to achieve task at hand).

## **Eight Cs for Team Building:**

To show business results and profitability, ways are explored by the executives to improve their productivity.

**Successful team building, that creates effective, focused work teams, requires attention to each of the following:**



**Figure 12.3: Effective Team**

### **1. Clear Expectations:**

The managers must clearly tell the team members of the expected performance and the team members must understand the reason for its creation. For it the organization must support the team with resources of people, time and money.

### **2. Commitment:**

Team members must participate in the team, feel that the team mission is important, and show commitment to accomplishing the team mission and expected outcomes. Commitment will come if team members perceive their service as valuable to the organization and to their own careers.

**3. Competence:**

Team members must have the knowledge, skill and capabilities, the resources, strategies and support needed to accomplish its mission to address the issues for which the team was formed.

**4. Control:**

The team must have not only enough freedom and empowerment to feel the ownership necessary to accomplish its charter, but also the accountability. There has to be a defined review process.

**5. Collaboration:**

The team should understand group processes and work effectively and cooperatively with other members of the team. For it they have to understand the roles and responsibilities of team members, team leaders, and team recorders.

**6. Communication:**

To make team members clear about the priority of their tasks, and receive regular feedback, team members must clearly and honestly with each other. Diverse opinions be welcome and conflicts be taken up positively.

**7. Creativity:**

The team should value creative thinking, unique solutions, and new ideas; and reward members who take reasonable risks to make improvements. If necessary, it should provide the training, education, access to books and films, and field trips to stimulate new thinking.

The creative development of new products, new technologies, new services, or new organizational structures is possible because teams may have variety of skills needed for successful innovation.

Team members can uncover each other's flaws and balance each other's strengths and weaknesses. Managers should empower the team and make it accountable for the innovation process.



## **8. Coordination:**

Teams should understand the concept of internal customer to whom they provide a product or a service. Team efforts need to be coordinated by a central leadership team that assists the groups to obtain what they need for success.

The cross- functional and multi-department teams must work together effectively. The organization should develop a customer-focused and process-focused orientation and move away from traditional departmental thinking.

Spend time and attention on each of these eight tips to ensure your work teams contribute most effectively to your business success. Your team members would love you, your business will see new heights, and empowered people will “own” and be responsible to their work processes

### **Informal Group:**

In every organization along with formal groups there exists informal groups which emerge naturally due to the response and common interests of the members who can easily identify with the goals or independent activities of the informal groups.

Sometimes the efforts may be driven by a common goal that may compliment or work against the goals of the formal group. An informal group can be defined as a group that evolves spontaneously, not shown in the organization's structure, with the objective of fulfilling personal and social need of its members.

### **Informal Group Vs Informal Organization:**

An informal group is a voluntary group of people casually acquainted with each other for their own personal fulfillment because they have some common and shared backgrounds, characteristics and concerns (values / interests / hobbies / friendship).

Whilst it is easy to differentiate between a formal group and a formal organisation, the differences between informal group and informal organisation tend to be difficult. The difference between informal organization and informal group is that informal organisation is a larger entity consisting of all informal groups in an organization.

Informal Organisation= Sigma Informal Groups:

An informal group is the nucleus of informal organization. When an informal group adopts a formally defined structure and group processes, it no longer remains an informal group.

### **Informal Group vs. Formal Group:**

The two are different in very many ways.

**Table 12. : Difference between formal and Informal Groups**

<i>Basis</i>	<i>Formal Group</i>	<i>Informal Group</i>
Formation	Legally constituted, rationally designed, and consciously planned	Emerges naturally and spontaneously
Existence	Normally formal group does not arise because of informal Group	Informal group emerges while working in a Formal Group
Purpose	Well-defined and centres around survival, growth, profit, Service to Society	Ill-defined and centres around friendship, goodwill, unity and so on
Relationship	Superior-subordinate relationship	Personal and social relationship
Influenced by	Rationality and leaves no scope for personal, social, and emotional factors	Personal, social, and emotional factors
Communication	Unity of Command and line of authority followed	Pattern is grapevine, which is natural, haphazard and intricate
Leadership	Based on formal authority and position	Based on individual competence and group acceptance
Boundaries	Operates within set boundaries	No bounds, operates in different directions
Nature & Emphasis	Normative and idealistic, emphasis on efficiency, discipline, conformity, consistency and control bring in rigidity and bureaucracy in processes and practices	Reflects actual functioning, characterised by relative freedom, spontaneity, homeliness and warmth

## **Characteristics of Informal Groups:**

### **1. Creation:**

It is not created by the organisation but springs up spontaneously.

### **2. Satisfaction of Needs:**

The needs which cannot be satisfied within the framework of formal organisation, like social and psychological needs of people, such people create informal groups.

### **3. Voluntary Membership:**

Nobody is compelled to join an informal organization.

### **4. Multi-Group Membership:**

A member of an informal group can be a member of more than one informal group to pursue different interests.

### **5. Systems and Processes:**

Members of such groups follow their own norms, leadership, communication, etc. to remain cohesive. The communication channels are referred to as 'Grapevine'. Grapevine i.e., informal channel runs very fast to spread the information across the organization.

### **6. Leadership:**

Every informal group has a leader, selected by the group, and who is capable of helping to realize their goals. The moment it is realized that the leader is incapable, (s) he is replaced with a new leader.

## **Reasons for the Emergence of Informal Groups:**

1. People working together may come together.
2. People with similar values, beliefs, attitudes, and interests often feel attraction to come together.
3. Need satisfaction – to belong, to associate, etc.

4. Removal of monotony of routine tasks – to get rid of monotony and psychological fatigue, job-related boredom and frustration provides an opportunity to behave in a natural and relaxed manner.
5. Promotion of other interests and pursuit of goals – People join Rotary or Lions Club to expand their contacts which may help them to satisfy their personal goals.

### **Benefits of Informal Groups:**

#### **The benefits of an informal group are as follows:**

1. Blending with formal group allows people to work for the formal organisation.
2. Informal work group lightens the workload for the formal manager.
3. Brings satisfaction and stability to the organisation as a whole.
4. Provides a useful channel of communication.
5. Encourages managers to plan and act more carefully.

### **Limitations of Informal Groups:**

#### **The limitations are as follows:**

1. Resistance to Change because they do not want to deviate from existing norms and learn new ways.
2. Informal group provides most fertile ground for Rumour Mongering because of maliciousness, lack of proper communication systems and processes and ambiguous circumstances.
3. Since a member of an informal group is also a member of a formal group, at times it creates role conflict.
4. Creativity of group member (s) is restricted because of strong pressure for conformity applied by the group.

## **GROUP DYNAMICS IN CLASSROOMS**

Children and teachers do not have much control over how many students are in a class or where students will be paced. Cluster teachers are assigned an assortment of grades, several of which they may not want to teach. Children may be separated from friends. These conditions may make them feel unhappy and frustrated.

Add to this their personal ideas about authority figures, individual needs, mandated assignments, and personal expectations. Under these circumstances, class cooperation and cohesion are difficult goals to achieve. Following are several examples of classroom dynamics. In one case the holding environment was destroyed. In the other, the holding environment was restored.

### **DYNAMIC STRATEGIES FOR GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT**

Despite the challenges and resistances to be overcome, there have been many group strategies that have been successfully utilized within school settings. Some of them are described below.

Craig Stevens (1998) a school psychologist at a private school in Philadelphia, developed a model for children from first to sixth grades called "Feedback." This exercise is designed to encourage children and teachers to offer constructive ideas, feelings, and criticisms. Each child is offered the opportunity to ask a question or offer a comment to another child.

The child addressed has the right to refuse. In that case, the first child withholds comment and the procedure moves to the next child. The children learn to ask questions or make comments in a non combative way.

The model helps children become more verbally expressive, more responsible for their words and actions, and more sensitive to the feelings of others. The sessions take place once or twice a week, and last for 15 or 20 minutes, thus respecting the time limitations of a school day program.

## **Three types of resources**

1. Physical resources;
2. Financial resources;
3. Human resources;

Physical and Financial resources are the building, furniture, environment, money etc. Human resource is the most important resource that managers have to deal with efficiently and effectively.

Good human resource is capable and will be profitable for the organization. Suppose a situation arises that people within an organization don't get along with one another. There are conflicts over small and large issues, day in and day out.

Resolving these conflicts uses most of the energy of the employees and as a result physical and financial resources are not used to the optimum level.

How human relations or interpersonal skills affect the people in an organization and how they relate to one another and get things done in a congenial manner, not only affects its work environment but also have an impact for the profits/outcomes of the company.

### **HOW TO DEVELOP GOOD HUMAN RELATIONS:**

Some Guidelines for Effective Human Relations:

1. Keep a positive approach.
2. Be an optimistic person.
3. Be genuinely interested in others.
4. Call people politely by name.
5. Help other people whenever possible.

6. Create a Win-Win situation.
7. Think before you act.
8. Have open communication.
9. Develop a pleasant work environment.

One main question to develop and improve human relations is to understand yourself.

**There are three aspects of a person:**

1. Private Self: The personal life of a person.
2. Projected Self: What the person would like to project
3. Perceived Self: The way people see us

The Perceived self is important because people will behave the way they identify you. If you ask them to do something for you in a work place or in an office their behavior will be determined by what they perceive of you. If they know for example: that you mean business and want the work done in your particular way they won't ignore you but will act according to your instructions. Our relations with others will affect our perceived self and vice versa.

Communication has 3 meanings, in any form

1. Pure Meaning: The meaning which I use through words e.g. dictionary.
2. Intended Meaning: Which I want to convey to another person in written or spoken form.
3. Perceived Meanings: Those messages that we convey and how these are taken by the different people. "Pure meaning" may not be as important as the other two.

## **Social-Emotional Teaching Strategies:**

### **Role of the Teacher:**

You can promote social-emotional development in your classroom by embedding your teaching practices throughout the day. Remaining sensitive to children's needs helps them feel secure and confident, and act as a model for effective social behavior. For example, asking questions to help children find a solution to a social conflict helps them develop problem-solving skills. Reading a story and engaging children in a conversation about a socially challenging situation can also serve as a lesson in handling social problems as well as in literacy.

**Be Attentive to Each Child's Needs** - Be attentive to the social-emotional skills and needs of each unique child so you can respond with lessons and interventions tailored to help every child develop their skills. Your attention and presence as a teacher can be a pillar of confidence for children who are dealing with stressful life circumstances. Letting children know that you are there to help will build children's trust that you are a source of guidance. Keep in mind that children who are English language learners may need additional support to feel secure and self-assured in a learning environment that is responsive to their needs.

**Early Emotional Experiences Matter** - Recognize that the emotional domain is foundational to all other developmental domains. If children start school in an emotionally supportive environment, they will acquire the love of learning necessary for success in all areas of school. "As young children develop, their early emotional experiences literally become embedded in the architecture of their brains," therefore great care should be given to children's emotional needs, according to the **National Scientific Council on the Developing Child**.

If you seek children's opinions, allow children to initiate activities and are flexible about responding to children's ideas, you'll build children's feelings that they are competent and respected, and at the same time motivate their desire to learn.



**Promoting Consistent Structure with Play** - Providing your transitional kindergarteners with consistent structures and expectations about appropriate behavior through play activities helps them remember and follow classroom norms, and behave in ways that are conducive to learning. According to the American Academy of Pediatrics, “Play is integral to the academic environment. It ensures that the school setting attends to the social and emotional development of children as well as their cognitive development.” Creating routines of fun and meaningful activities such as songs, chants and games can minimize problems or stress during challenging times, such as when children wait in line or during transitions.

### **Building Relational Capacity and Importance of Close Relationships**

Positive relationships with peers and adults - including parents and teachers - are key to children’s social-emotional development. First, they make school a comfortable, secure safe place where children can focus on learning. Second, mutual, caring relationships provide opportunities for children to develop and practice important social skills.

**Positive and Consistent Relationships** - Social-emotional development is supported through positive and consistent relationships among teachers and children. Try going beyond expectations of compliance with school rules, and support social-emotional development by crafting a positive, emotionally supportive climate in the classroom that skillfully connects new experiences with children’s unique home experiences. According to the National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, “Children who develop warm, positive relationships with their [TK] teachers are more excited about learning, more positive about coming to school, more self-confident, and achieve more in the classroom.”

## **Children are more likely to develop positive relationships when teachers:**

- Model appropriate social behaviors;
- Provide opportunities for them to develop new social-emotional skills;
- Give explicit guidance;
- Offer curriculum that is engaging and relevant to children's lives and cultures;
- Engage with parents in a two-way relationship to build children's social-emotional skills; and
- Reflect an ethic of caring and nurturing.

## **Specific examples of productive teacher behaviors include:**

- ❖ Showing respect and valuing children's cultural and language backgrounds;
- ❖ Modeling the polite use of language and encouraging children to imitate your behavior;
- ❖ Encouraging empathic thinking with questions such as, "why do you think he is crying?";
- ❖ Promoting children's confidence and development of new skills by engaging them in problem solving, for example by asking, "can you think of a way to help you remember to wait for your turn?"; and
- ❖ Attending to signs of personal trauma and providing additional support to children who are experiencing unusual stress in their lives.

## **Seven Social-Emotional Teaching Strategies**

The teaching strategies below give concrete approaches for promoting social-emotional development in your classroom. They are designed to guide developmentally appropriate TK instruction, moving your students along a continuum of learning by bridging the **Preschool Learning Foundations** with the **Kindergarten Common Core**.

**Strategy 1:** Relationships and Social Interactions with Peers  
**Strategy 2:** Social and Emotional Understanding  
**Strategy 3:** Conflict Negotiation (Problem Solving)  
**Strategy 4:** Child Regulates Emotions and Behaviors  
**Strategy 5:** Engagement and Persistence  
**Strategy 6:** Responsible Conduct  
**Strategy 7:** Integrated Approaches for English Language Development and Family Engagement

**School violence** is widely held to have become a serious problem in recent decades in many countries, especially where weapons such as guns or knives are involved. It includes violence between school students as well as physical attacks by students on school staff.

### **The individual child:**

#### **Internalizing and externalizing behaviors**

A distinction is made between internalizing and externalizing behavior. Internalizing behaviors reflect withdrawal, inhibition, anxiety, and/or depression. Internalizing behavior has been found in some cases of youth violence although in some youth, depression is associated with substance abuse. Because they rarely act out, students with internalizing problems are often overlooked by school personnel. Externalizing behaviors refer to delinquent activities, aggression, and hyperactivity. Unlike internalizing behaviors, externalizing behaviors include, or are directly linked to, violent episodes. Violent behaviors such as punching and kicking are often learned from observing others. Just as externalizing behaviors are observed outside of school, such behaviors also observed in schools.

#### **Other individual factors:**

A number of other individual factors are associated with higher levels of aggressiveness. Compared to children whose antisocial conduct begins in adolescence, early starters have a worse prognosis in terms of future aggression and other antisocial activities. Lower IQ is related to higher levels of aggression. Other findings indicate that in boy's early problematic motor skills, attention difficulties, and reading problems predict later persistent antisocial conduct.

**Home environment:**

The home environment is thought to contribute to school violence. The Constitutional Rights Foundation suggests long-term exposure to gun violence, parental alcoholism, domestic, physical abuse of the child, and child sexual abuse teaches children that criminal and violent activities are acceptable. Harsh parental discipline is associated with higher levels of aggressiveness in youth.

There is some evidence indicating that exposure to television violence and, to a lesser extent, violent video games is related to increased aggressiveness in children, which, in turn, may carry over into school.

**Neighborhood environment:**

Neighborhoods and communities provide the context for school violence. Communities with high rates of crime and drug use teach youth the violent behaviors that are carried into schools. Dilapidated housing in the neighborhood of the school has been found to be associated with school violence. Teacher assault was more likely to occur in schools located in high-crime neighborhoods. Exposure to deviant peers is a risk factor for high levels of aggressiveness.

Research has shown that poverty and high population densities are associated with higher rates of school violence. Well controlled longitudinal research indicates that children's exposure to community violence during the early elementary school years increases the risk of aggression later in elementary school, as reported by teachers and classmates. Other, well controlled longitudinal research that utilized propensity score matching indicates that exposure to gun violence in early adolescence is related to the initiation of serious physical violence in later adolescence. Neighborhood gangs are thought to contribute to dangerous school environments. Gangs use the social environment of the school to recruit members and interact with opposing groups, with gang violence carrying over from neighborhoods into some schools.

## **School environment:**

Recent research has linked the school environment to school violence. Teacher assaults are associated with a higher percentage male faculty, a higher proportion of male students, and a higher proportion of students receiving free or reduced cost lunch (an indicator of poverty). In general, a large male population, higher grade levels, a history of high levels of disciplinary problems in the school, high student to teacher ratios, and an urban location are related to violence in schools. In students, academic performance is inversely related to antisocial conduct. The research by Hirschi and others, cited above in the section on the home environment, is also consistent with the view that lack of attachment to school is associated with increased risk of antisocial conduct.

## **What is School Violence?**

School violence is a subset of youth violence, a broader public health problem. Violence is the intentional use of physical force or power, against another person, group, or community, with the behavior likely to cause physical or psychological harm. **Youth Violence** typically includes persons between the ages of 10 and 24, although pathways to youth violence can begin in early childhood.

## **Examples of violent behavior include:**

- Bullying
- Fighting (e.g., punching, slapping, kicking)
- Weapon use
- Electronic aggression
- Gang violence

## **School violence occurs:**

- On school property
- On the way to or from school
- During a school-sponsored event
- On the way to or from a school-sponsored event

## Prevention and intervention:

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The goal of prevention and intervention strategies is to stop school violence from occurring. There are at least four levels at which violence-prevention programs can act: at the

- ❖ Level of society in general,
  - ❖ The school community,
  - ❖ The family,
  - ❖ The individual.
- *Society-level prevention strategies* aim to change social and cultural conditions in order to reduce violence regardless of where the violence occurs. Examples include reducing media violence, reshaping social norms, and restructuring educational systems. The strategies are rarely used and difficult to implement.
  - *School-wide strategies* are designed to modify the school characteristics that are associated with violence. An avenue of psychological research is the reduction of violence and incivility, particularly the development of interventions at the level of the school
  - Some prevention and intervention programs focus **on individual-level strategies**. These programs are aimed at students who exhibit aggression and violent behaviors or are at risk for engaging in such behaviors. Some programs include conflict resolution and team problem-solving. Other programs teach students social skills. The Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, while developing and implementing a universal anti-aggression component for all elementary school children, also developed and implemented a separate social-skills and academic tutoring component that targets children who are the most at risk for engaging in aggressive behavior.
  - **Peace education** includes the cultivation of peace building skills (e.g. dialogue, mediation, artistic endeavors).

- Peace educators, then, teach the values of respect, understanding, and nonviolence, present skills for analyzing international conflict, educate for alternative security systems, and use a pedagogy that is democratic and participatory.

### **Education for Peace: Values and Inquiry-based Learning and Teaching**

- Education for peace begins with questions. Who am I? How do I identify myself? What, if anything, represents me? To what communities do I belong? What is community? How do members define community? What are the assets of a community? What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats to a particular community? How do I solve conflicts? How do I involve myself with others in my community? What are examples of conflict and peace building in my community, and how do I harness the potential encapsulated within conflict to transform it? How do I define violence? How do I justify violence? When do I use violent means? How is violence taught? What are alternatives?

These questions are examples of the inquiry-based methodology and reflective practice that forms education for peace. Epistemologically, peace education focuses on the relationship between learning, violence, and cultures of peace. How do I learn? What do I learn? Who teaches the content? How is it taught? Who supports the content? In what spaces is peace learned? In what spaces is violence learned? What is done with the learning?

- As an anecdote: Many of my students begin courses with the cynicism that peace is naive and impossible. They perceive peace as a utopian concept rooted in the ideas of harmony, quietude and passivity. Herein lies the problematic: that on one hand society perceives peace as silent and non-confrontational, yet for practitioners peace building is dynamic, active and potentially agitating to the status quo.

Peace education is not necessarily education for activism, though its intent is to create an informed, active and engaged citizenry, where civic participation and citizen decision-making forms a strong community and a healthy democracy.

The process of peace education could be described as a process of revealing worldviews, biases and unmasking the intent behind education. Accordingly, many educators maintain that education is neutral, not political. However, by the very nature that education has objectives and social purposes it intends to foster among youth, education is political. The questions asked direct learning in a particular direction. The material teachers choose to teach directs the classroom discussion toward a specific sphere.

### **Peace Education Frameworks: The Content of Peace Education:**

While it is paramount that education for peace be specific to the teaching and learning context in which the learning is to take place and where the lessons are to be practiced, educators may nonetheless formulate their peace education lessons around common peace education themes.

**Burns and Aspeslagh (1996) describe these themes in five domains:**

- 1) The international system,
- 2) Peace,
- 3) Development,
- 4) Human rights,
- 5) The environment.

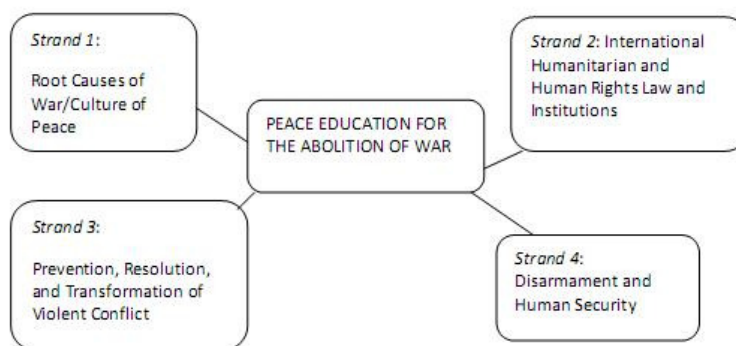


Additionally, there are several peace education frameworks to draw from as educators, as documented by the author (Kester 2008).

Two of these frameworks highlight peace education content as the exploration of root causes of conflict, knowing international humanitarian and human rights law, envisioning alternative structures of security, and learning skills for managing micro / macro conflicts without resorting to violence.

- This framework is particularly concerned with the role of international law in maintaining global justice, the construction of peace building mechanisms, and the formation of personal lifestyles and behaviors conducive to fostering a culture of peace. In this framework education for peace is education for the abolition of war.
- This education relies on an exploration of what constitutes peace, dialogue at the intersection of identity and violence, and a process of re-defining human security in terms of needs and social welfare in place of national security, the armaments industry and militarism. Peace education through this framework seeks to foster a commitment among educators to educate for non-violence and generate active citizenship among learners.

Figure-1. Learning to Abolish War Framework



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- The Flower-Petal Model of Peace Education (Figure 2) is another framework for forming education for peace programs. In this model, a culture of peace is placed at the center. A culture of peace may be defined as a set of values,

attitudes, traditions and modes of behavior and ways of life based on respect for life, ending of violence and promotion and practice of non-violence through education, dialogue and cooperation...promotion of all human rights and fundamental freedoms...commitment to peaceful settlements of conflicts...efforts to meet the developmental and environmental needs of present and future generations...respect for and promotion of equal rights and opportunities for women and men.

**The *Flower-Petal* model has six categories comprising a culture of peace, including:**

- 1) Dismantling the culture of war,
- 2) Environmental peace,
- 3) Education for justice and compassion,
- 4) Human rights education,
- 5) Cultivating intercultural solidarity,
- 6) Harnessing inner peace.

Dismantling a culture of war is concerned with mitigating all support for the war system, including competitive games, gender oppression, defense spending, oppressive security systems, and the sale of toys that mimic violence and teach children destructive behaviors (i.e. toy guns and knives, violent video games, excessive violence in film).

Education for human rights introduces students to their civil, economic, political, cultural and religious rights, among others, and assesses the nature of violations of these rights. Intercultural solidarity is concerned with interactions between differing groups and cultural norms, and national and international institutions that perpetuate violence or foster peace.

Education for inner peace allows students to evaluate their own physical, emotional, and spiritual states as well as the interplay between micro and macro conflicts.

The *Flower-Petal* framework focuses on intercultural solidarity, disarmament education, and the relationship between diverse forms of life and ways of living that subvert ethno-centrism, de-humanization, and pseudo-speciation while fostering peace, global environmental stewardship and contemplative practices.

Figure-2. Flower-petal Model of Peace Education



In addition to the conceptual frameworks outlined above, there are a number of normative frameworks (i.e. international standards) that serve as the basis for developing peace education programs..

## **The guidelines include:**

- ❖ Teaching with an international approach
- ❖ Teaching about forms of conflict, their causes and effects
- ❖ Teaching human rights and international standards (e.g. Constitutions, Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women)
- ❖ Teaching about democracy and civic participation
- ❖ Teaching about development, de-colonization and globalization
- ❖ Teaching the histories of nations and States
- ❖ Teaching about the United Nations and international institutions
- ❖ These conceptual and normative frameworks inform contemporary peace education programs and form the developmental basis of education for peace. Through referencing these documents educators may create a peace education program specific to their schools and non-formal learning environments.

## **Pedagogy for Peace: Involving Youth in Community**

Educators often find that the educational methods (e.g. lecturing and test-taking) do not match the intended social outcome, whether it relates to government, business, education, or technology, and that is largely what peace education concerns. Our schools and nations intend to create democracy and community interdependence, yet to do so educators often use tactics of war-making (e.g. obedience-drilling, secrecy, and competitive games) that reflect more fully the very ideologies the school system intends to transcend.

This education is fragmenting and divisive—it focuses on patriotism, militarism, and materialism—rather than holistic and interdependent. Such a lesson seems to value materialism above character. So we are presented with the ideological and existential contradiction that our means do not meet our intended ends, our content and pedagogy are in conflict, and democracy is compromised.

Education must consider this contradiction. In contrast, to teach cooperation, respect, the value of diversity, creativity and empathy, educators could use cooperative games, participatory pedagogy, and creative problem-solving activities that emphasize learning to work and live together.

The classroom spaces also pose a democratic contradiction. Consider that classrooms are often sites of oppression. Several frequent learning situations occur in our classrooms that undermine fair and democratic education. Take, for instance, the overly didactic classroom where material is lectured to students in an authoritarian style, with learners listening passively but not engaging each other, the instructor, or the material.

**There are a number of characteristics that might define an oppressive classroom, including:**

- 1) Teachers lecturing for the entire period without responses from learners, or without giving learners the opportunity to question the agenda,
- 2) Teachers allow one or a few students to dominate class time, which silences the majority,
- 3) Students are encouraged to memorize ‘facts’ rather than engage in critical thinking and inquiry,

4) Course material is not relevant to students' lived experiences

5) Student-bullying is allowed to flourish as 'boys just being boys' (Kester 2007).

### **Toward a Culture of Peace:**

<b><i>From A CULTURE OF WAR</i></b>	<b><i>Toward A CULTURE OF PEACE</i></b>
Power based on force	Power based on mutual agreements
Having an enemy, dualism, dichotomy	Tolerance, solidarity, and international understanding
Authoritarian governance	Democratic participation
Secrecy	Transparency, free flow of information
Armament	Disarmament
Exploitation of people	Human Rights
Exploitation of nature	Sustainable Development
Straight male domination	Gender equity and equality

Reardon describes education for a culture of peace:

Learners must be guided towards a clear comprehension of the major obstacles to a culture of peace: the normative and behavioral obstacles that lie at the heart of our discussion of capacities and skills; and the institutional and existential obstacles, the global problems that are the worldwide manifestations of the culture of war.

Together these problems comprise the problematic of creating a culture of peace.... One way of looking at the main tasks of creating a culture of peace is to think of the primary goals as reducing and eliminating violence, and enhancing and universalizing human dignity and equality by increasing gender justice.

Hence, the pedagogy of education for peace focuses on illuminating causal relationships, developing empathy, and nurturing students who are committed to democratic participation and nonviolence in their local and global communities. Educators should be aware of direct and indirect forms violence and the war system so that education may overcome systems of violence.

An education for peace program, thus, pedagogically emphasizes values (tolerance, respect, equality, empathy, compassion), capacities (cultural proficiency, sensitivity), skills (nonviolent communication, active listening, competence in a foreign language, gender-inclusive language), and knowledge (of history and cultures, peace movements) for peace. The pedagogy includes cooperative learning activities, gender perspectives, creative reflection and journaling, theatre games, role-plays, empathy-building activities, and alternative futures exercises.

Furthermore, the Declaration and Integrated Framework of Education for Peace (1995) suggests that education for peace must be trans-disciplinary and included in all learning spaces. Education for peace should not be limited to a single classroom or subject. Yet, the institution or space in which education for peace operates should be in harmony with the goals and lessons of peace education and peace education should be integrated into all learning spaces. That is the learning space should foster intercultural and international dialogue and respect, knowledge of national and global systems of governance, respect for all life, and a commitment to non-violence. Authoritarian and exclusive learning spaces work counter to the cooperative and inclusive goals of peace education.

## **UNIT-IV**

### **Mental Health and Adjustment**

#### **Introduction:**

Mental health and hygiene is the two sides of a coin. Hygiene is the pre-requisite condition for maintaining good and sound health. Besides these, this unit also deals with the various mechanisms of adjustment. In fact, adjustments mechanisms are the instrument for maintaining the balanced personality as well as the instrument to rescue from the various mal-adjusted behaviors and problems.

#### **Concept of mental health:**

The concept of mental health is as old as human beings. Our ancient scriptures are full of references to mental diseases. But this concept is comparatively new even in the West. Burmham who emphasizes the importance of integration or wholeness of personality said “a mentally healthy person is one who has a balanced personality, free from schism and inconsistencies, emotional and nervous tension, discords and conflicts. a well adjusted person can deal with his potentialities as well as he can accept his limitations.”

**Western Concept:** Though the concept of mental health is comparatively new yet different authors have given different views regarding sound mental health. Harry Stack Sullivaa says that a mentally healthy individual would place a major value on efficient social functioning.

From the above discussion we can easily distinguish between the mentally healthy and unhealthy person in the following ways –

#### **Mentally Healthy:**

1. Aware about their self and have some respect for others
2. Understand one's own limitation and also can tolerate others limitation.
3. They can understand that all behaviour is causal.
4. They can understand the basic needs that motivate behaviour.



## **Mentally Unhealthy:**

1. Not aware about their own self and have no respect for others
2. Can't understand one's own limitation and can't tolerate others limitation.
3. They can't understand the cause of behaviour.
4. They can't understand the basic needs which motivate behaviour.

Mental health is, thus, a condition of psychological maturity. It is a condition of personal and social functioning with a maximum of effectiveness and satisfaction.

A mentally healthy person is responsible, self reliant and has a true sense of individuality. He has a realistic life goal as well as philosophy of life and values. He can differentiate between the right and the wrong. According to Jacky Roy, a mentally healthy person possesses a good physical health. He can keep a good social relation too. He has insight into his action.

### **On the basis of the above discussion we can make the following observations.**

- ❖ Concept of mental health is subjective
- ❖ Mental health is depending on sound physical health.
- ❖ Measurement of mental health is difficult as we don't have any standard.
- ❖ Mental health depends on many factors.
- ❖ Criteria of mental health may be different from country to country.
- ❖ Mental health is synonymous to balance personality.
- ❖ Mental health is a dynamic concept
- ❖ Mental health is also related with stress and strain of life

### **Factors Affecting Mental Health:**

Let us see what are the factors which affect mental health.

Mental health plays a crucial role in the development of the personality but there are many factors which help in developing positive or negative development of mental health. Mental ill health is caused by different factors which have been described by different authors in different ways. Here we are presenting some of the models which explain the causes of mental ill health.

These are –

- ❖ Socio Cultural Model
- ❖ Medical Model
- ❖ Psycho Analytical Model
- ❖ Behaviouristic Model
- ❖ Interpersonal Model

- Socio Cultural Model emphasizes the role of social condition, such as poverty discrimination, casteism, violence etc. as the basic causes of poor mental health.
- Medical Model emphasizes the role of various organic conditions that affect our brain functioning.
- Psycho Analytical model emphasizes the stress situations that involve a threat to the individual's psyche. It gives importance to early childhood experiences as a major factor for mental ill health.
- Behaviouristic model gives importance to faulty learning such as the failure to learn necessary adaptive behaviour.
- The interpersonal model emphasizes the unsatisfactory interpersonal relationship among human beings.

Besides these models, different authors have given some more causes to understand the factors responsible for ill mental health.

These are:

- ❖ Primary
- ❖ Predisposing
- ❖ Precipitating
- ❖ Reinforcing

The primary cause is the condition without which the mental ill health would have not occurred. A predisposing cause is a condition that comes before and paves the way for later maladjustment. For example: if a child is very much rejected in his early childhood, he may develop some mental disorder.

A precipitating cause is a condition that proves too much to bear for the individual and triggers maladaptive behavior.

For example, the sudden death of one's father may cause mental disorder for that reason. A reinforcing cause is a condition that tends to maintain the maladaptive behavior already present such as playing a 'sick role' and relieved from unwanted responsibility say for family.

**Let us now mention the factors responsible for mental ill-health. They can be listed as shown below:**

**A. Hereditary**

- ❖ Genetic defects
- ❖ Chromosomal defects.
- ❖ Faulty genes
- ❖ Constitutional liabilities- physique, physical handicap etc.
- ❖ Physical deprivation- Malnutrition, sleep disturbances emotional disruption, Brain pathology.

**B. Psychological**

- ❖ Mental deprivation
- ❖ Institutionalization
- ❖ Deprivation in Home
- ❖ Defective family pattern structure etc.
- ❖ Early psychic Trauma
- ❖ Severe stress.

**C. Socio Cultural Factors**

**D. War and Violence**

**E. Group Prejudices**

**F. Economic and Employment Problems**

**G. Modernization and Globalization**

**Concept of mental hygiene:**

Mental hygiene is a Science which deals with the process of attaining mental health and preserving mental health in the society. The term mental health is closely related with the term mental hygiene as the main objective of mental hygiene is to attain mental health. In other words, mental hygiene is a means of mental health. That is why we can say that mental hygiene is the means and mental health is the end.

**Definition:**

There are many definitions of the term mental hygiene. Some of the definitions are mentioned below:

According to Klien, “Mental hygiene is an endeavour to aid people to ward off trouble as well as to furnish ways of handling trouble in intelligent fashion when it cannot be warded off.”

To him, these troubles may be :

- ❖ Illness
- ❖ Finances
- ❖ Social Position
- ❖ Religion
- ❖ Sex
- ❖ Economic Security
- ❖ Old age
- ❖ Inadequate shelter etc.

**According to Rivillin, mental hygiene –**

Means the application of a body of hygiene information and technique. It is taken from the sciences of Psychology, Child psychology, Education, Sociology, Psychiatry, Medicine and Biology.

It cares for the purpose of the preservation and improvement of mental health of the individual and community.

It is meant for prevention and cure of minor and major mental diseases and defects of mental, educational and social maladjustment.

**Objectives of Mental Hygiene:**

Mental Hygiene is a science. The main objective of mental hygiene is to build up one's ego rather than tearing down another's ego. It tries to develop the power of tolerance and praise and discourages the habit of blaming others. Hence, we can say that the approach of mental hygiene is positive rather than negative.

**The main objectives of the mental hygiene can be summarized as shown below-**

**❖ To help to realizes one's potentiality:**

Every individual possess certain potentialities. Mental hygiene tries to help each individual to develop his/her potentialities.

**❖ To develop self-respect and respect for others:**

Loss of self-respect is one of the factors for the great majorities of emotional disorders. A person who likes himself can like others and one who dislikes himself cannot like anybody. Hence, the main aim of mental hygiene is to help one to respect oneself.

**❖ To understand one's limitations and tolerate the limitations of others:**

Mental hygiene helps one to understand his own limitations as well as to tolerate others' limitations.

**❖ To cause harmonious development:** Mental hygiene aims at the harmonious development of the physical mental and spiritual capacities of the individual so that he can adjust himself in the environment.

**❖ To create happiness:** Another objective of mental hygiene is to develop a positive attitude towards life so as to create a sense of happiness in a person who can live happily in this world.

**❖ To enable one to make effective adjustment:** Mental hygiene also prepares an individual for effective adjustment in all sphere of life and all situations such as in school, home, society work and also with self.

**❖ To enable one to know his or her self :** Many of us do not know our own self. We are not at all aware about our potentialities, weaknesses, limitations etc. for which many individuals suffer from different types of confusion. Mental Hygiene helps an individual to know himself.

## Functions of Mental Hygiene:

Mental hygiene has four important functions.

These are:

**Prevention or preventive** –The most important function of mental hygiene is to prevent mental health problems by developing some programmes.

**Creative** – Another function of mental illness is to develop programme like counseling, psychotherapy to treat an individual or a group or to treat a mental patient.

**Preservative-** Not all people are mentally ill; rather of them possess sound mental health. So the third function is to develop programme through education for preserving mental health.

**Training-** Another function of mental hygiene is to train a set of personnel who can help the people with psychological problem by trying to understand their problems and then helping them to meet their needs.

## Principles of Mental Hygiene:

To formulate general principles of mental hygiene is a really difficult task as there is a wide range of differences among the individuals.

Some of the reasons for this are:

Human beings have multiple needs which grow in the course of development. These needs are contradictory in nature.

There is no single, also absolute standard to judge human behaviour or action. However, in spite of these difficulties, we can formulate some general principles.

These are

### **Adjustment in home:**

Every child should develop such type of behavior at home so that he can adjust himself in any type of situation. Parents should take utmost care because the behavior patterns that develop in early childhood leave permanent impression on the child. Parents should try to develop the desirable traits in their children and develop competence, security, adequacy, self esteem and discipline by catering to their basic needs.

### **Adjustment in school:**

After home, school plays an important role in the development of personality. The school through its various activities can go a long way in creating an environment for the children to preserve and develop their mental health.

### **Adjustment to Society:**

Man is a social animal and he has to adjust himself with the society. Without proper social interaction, harmonious development of personality cannot occur. Hence, parent's, teacher and society must provide socially acceptable channels for the release of pent up emotional feeling so that the children and adolescents develop healthy personality.

### **Adjustment to work-**

According to Freud, one is mentally healthy, if one can work successfully. School through its programme, should develop the proper mental state towards work in child.

### **Limitations of Mental Hygiene:**

Though mental hygiene is an important aspect in our educational system, yet there are many limitations in implementing the principles of mental hygiene. Some of these are:

Majority of our parents are not aware about mental hygiene. Hence they do not give importance how to keep their children's mental health preserved and un- impaired.

Teachers in our school system are so overloaded with work that they cannot devote time to organize different types of programmes which help the students in helping their mental health intact.

### **Mechanisms of adjustment:**

Every individual has different types of needs and goals which he always attempts to attain. But due to some external or internal factors it is not possible for him to achieve these goals all the time. In such cases sometimes people may suffer from frustration.

In such a situation an individual may react in different ways. He may attack physically the source of frustration to reduce his mental tension or he may destroy the object of frustration.

He may use different mechanisms to beat his frustration and adjust himself to protect his ego.

Thus adjustment mechanism is a device used to achieve an indirect satisfaction of a need in order to reduce his or her own tension. This mechanism is used by different individuals in their own ways. The types and frequency of the mechanism differ from individual to individual in his own ways.

The types and frequency of the mechanism differ from individual to individual. As for example, suppose a student wanted to become a doctor, but he could not manage a seat for the course.

In that case he may become frustrated as he could not be able to meet his need. In such case he may behave in the different ways. Either he may opt for a para-medical course or may give up his studies or he may even opt for Arts course.

Generally, the normal people adopt a healthy mechanism, to protect his ego, which is more or less socially accepted. Though there is no general agreement regarding the adjustment mechanism yet some common mechanisms are as follows:

- ❖ Compensation
- ❖ Identification
- ❖ Rationalization
- ❖ Negativism
- ❖ Day dreaming
- ❖ Regression



- ❖ Repression
- ❖ Projection

### **Compensation:**

Compensation is a tendency of human being to make up the deficiency of one area or trait of development in another area. When a person fails in one area, he tries to compensate for his failure by trying to succeed in another area. The most potent example is Napoleon's drive for power.

Probably his short figure and feminine build created in him a sense of inferiority which in turn made him a power monger. Compensatory behaviour is always based on the feeling of inadequacy. Compensation may be of the following types-

#### **Direct Compensation-**

It is a process when an individual removes his specific weakness and frustration in the same field by unusual effort. For example, a boy who is poor in Mahts may compensate directly when he tries to become strong in Maths by doing hard labour.

**Over compensation-** It is process when an individual moulds his outstanding weakness into an outstanding strength. Example-In spite of having early speech defect Demosthenes became a great orator by utilizing the mechanism of compensation.

**Indirect Compensation-** Many parents directed their children into vocations that they themselves aspired for but failed to get. A weak student who is poor in academic achievement may compensate in game.

### **Identification:**

It is a process by which an individual establishes a strong emotional tie

- With another person
- A group of persons
- Or an institutions

Adolescents identify themselves with some political leaders, youth leaders or actors or actress and attempt to acquire their characteristics.

The Members of the family of a famous person usually identify themselves closely with him and so increase the feeling of their own importance.

Identification is not desirable as it makes an individual lose his own identity and individuality. If this mechanism is used excessively, it is apt to affect the mental health of an individual.

**Rationalization:** It is a mechanism by which an individual devises socially acceptable reasons for some socially unacceptable act or opinion, belief, faith etc. It is very difficult to have a wholly rational man. We generally colour our reasoning by emotional factors which impel us to rationalize in order that our actual behavior will appear in a better light in our eyes and in the eyes of others.

**There are generally two types of rationalization.**

**These are:**

**(a) Sour grapes:**

When an individual fails to attain his goals after repeated efforts, he may say that he did not want it any way. He adjusts to the frustration by denying the existence of any desire in him to attain the original goals. See the following examples: A fox which could not reach the grapes and out of sheer frustration declares that grapes are sour. A boy when he fails to qualify himself in the school football team rationalizes his failure by saying that he does not want to play.

**(b) Sweet lemon:**

When an individual is not satisfied with his achievement or the situation he is in, then he uses this form of rationalization. The individual who uses this method tries to convince himself that what he has is exactly what he wants. The following examples make it clear.

A teacher before joining the teaching profession tried his best to get a better job than teaching but when he fails, he accepts teaching as a very good profession and thus rationalizes himself. Every child passes through the stage of saying 'No' to any request even though later he may carry out the assignment. If this refusal continues and if it is accompanied by tempertentums, there is a danger that a permanent negative mechanism is in the process of development.

**Day dreaming :**

This mechanism is used mostly by all people. An individual may turn to day dreaming in order to satisfy a need which he is unable to satisfy. For example, an adolescent boy desires popularity but is not liked by his peer group. In that case he may imagine himself in his daydream as the centre of the group whom everybody admires.

**Day dream may be of two types.**

- a) Conquering hero type
- b) Suffering hero type

In this type of daydream, the individual sees himself as confident and successful in all fields. For example, a person may see himself as a great musician who can make the audience spell bound.

In this type of daydream an individual develops sympathy for himself only. For example, a child who feels that he is being ill-treated at home may imagine himself as seriously ill.

**Regression:** It is a form of adjustment which involves a retreat from the complexities of the present to an earlier and simpler form of behavior. As example: an individual when frustrated can cry like a child and can have temper tantrums. The desire to regress is common to everyone, one example of which is selective forgetting.

**Repression :** In this mechanism an individual tries to repress the thoughts, experiences etc which are painful. Repression is an undesirable mental mechanism of adjustment because it is more tension producing than the tension reducing.

**Projection :** In this method an individual tries to defend himself against his repressed guilt feelings by projecting them into other things and people. Extreme use of projection is frequently observed in neurotic and psychotic personalities.

**CAUSES OF MALADJUSTMENT;**

Maladjustment is a complex problem of human behaviour. It is very difficult to find out the appropriate cause. Home, School and Society play an important role in causing maladjustment among the students. Freud, Adler Jung etc. described different factors for maladjustment. Some of those factors are given below:

**Causes of Maladjustment :** There are many causes of maladjustment. These can be categorized as-

**a. Personal**

**b. Social**

**c. School factors**

**a. Personal :**

**Physique:** If a child is very weak, ugly and possesses sensory handicap he may suffer from different types of handicap which may cause maladjustment.

**Poverty:** Poverty is also an important factor which develops maladjustment among children. The main cause behind it is that in a poor home, the parents cannot fulfill the legitimate needs of their children. Frustration owing to the non-fulfillment of the needs actually lead to maladjustment behavior.

**Personal inadequacy :** A nervous sense of inadequacy is a cause for mal-adjustment. Suppose a student is not so brilliant, but his parents are very ambitious and set high goals for them. This may lead him to frustration and as a result he may develop problems of maladjustment.

**Parental attitude :** If a child is rejected by their parents from an early childhood the child may develop the feeling of insecurity, helplessness and loneliness. Rejection and lack of affection may lead to maladjustment behavior.

**Emotional shock :** Children who experience emotional shocks, such as death, accident, riots, flood etc may manifest signs of maladjustment in their behavior.

**Prolonged sickness and injury :** Prolonged sickness may cause maladjustment among children.

**Broken home :** The children who come from broken homes (broken by death of parents, divorce and separation, physical or mental handicap) etc. may lead to maladjustment among children.

## **b. Social factors:**

**Religious Belief:** In this era of modernization, adolescents often get confused about the traditional religious beliefs for which they do not find any rational basis and as a result suffer from a lack of positive attitude and get frustrated.

**Mobility of Parents:** Children whose parents move from one place to another very frequently face different types of problems. This may lead to maladjustment on the part of the children who suffer from a feeling of insecurity.

**Employment insecurity:** Uncertain about proper employment opportunities after getting higher degrees is another important factor for causing maladjustment among the students.

## **C. School :**

School conditions also play a vital role in the lack of adjustment of children. Some of the factors in the connection are:

**Inadequate curriculum:** Our present curriculum is not meeting the psychological, social as well as the physical needs of our children at different stages. These rather create frustration in our children as a result of which the children find themselves maladjusted in their real life situations.

**Lack of proper recreational facilities:** Children who are not getting scope for extracurricular activities like play, library, debates discussion etc may suffer from maladjustment problem.

**Improper classroom climate:** If there is no good relationship between students and teacher, as well as among the peers, the students may suffer from emotional problems, which in turn lead to maladjustment.

**Inadequate training of teacher's for balancing the mental health and hygiene:** The teacher's are not properly trained in Educational Psychology and mental hygiene; they face tremendous problems in handling the children. They cannot properly deal with the problems of their students. This result in the problems of maladjustment for the students.

## **Interpersonal relationship among the staffs:**

If there is cooperation and mutual understanding among the administrator, teachers and other staff in an educational institution one finds a very conducive environment which helps develop good mental health. But this is lacking in most of the schools. Our educational institutions are beset with various problems of caste, creed, religion and regional feelings. It is not unusual for the students to suffer from serious problems of mental health under such circumstances.

There is favoritism, partial treatment on the basis of caste, creed religion, and region etc. which affects mental health of the student's body.

## **Concept, Sources and Categories of stress:**

Stress and related concepts can be traced as far back as written science and medicine. The stress system coordinates the generalized stress response, which takes place when a stressor of any kind exceeds a threshold.

The main components of the stress system are the corticotrophin-releasing hormone and locus ceruleus-norepinephrine/autonomic systems and their peripheral effectors, the pituitary-adrenal axis, and the limbs of the autonomic system.

Activation of the stress system leads to behavioral and peripheral changes that improve the ability of the organism to adjust homeostasis and increase its chances for survival.

There has been an exponential increase in knowledge regarding the interactions among the components of the stress system and between the stress system and other brain elements involved in the regulation of emotion, cognitive function, and behavior, as well as with the axes responsible for reproduction, growth, and immunity.

This new knowledge has allowed association of stress system dysfunction, characterized by sustained hyperactivity and/or hypoactivity, to various pathophysiologic states that cut across the traditional boundaries of medical disciplines. These include a range of psychiatric, endocrine, and inflammatory disorders and/or susceptibility to such disorders.

## **Causes of Stress:**

In this article

- Causes of Stress
- Effects of Stress on Your Health

Stress is actually a normal part of life. At times, it serves a useful purpose. Stress can motivate you to get that promotion at work, or run the last mile of a marathon. But if you don't get a handle on your stress and it becomes long-term, it can seriously interfere with your job, family life, and health. More than half of Americans say they fight with friends and loved ones because of stress, and more than 70% say they experience real physical and emotional symptoms from it.

### **Causes of Stress**

Everyone has different stress triggers. Work stress tops the list, according to surveys. Forty percent of U.S. workers admit to experiencing office stress, and one-quarter say work is the biggest source of stress in their lives.

#### **Causes of work stress include:**

- ❖ Being unhappy in your job
- ❖ Having a heavy workload or too much responsibility
- ❖ Working long hours
- ❖ Having poor management, unclear expectations of your work, or no say in the decision-making process
- ❖ Working under dangerous conditions
- ❖ Being insecure about your chance for advancement or risk of termination
- ❖ Having to give speeches in front of colleagues
- ❖ Facing discrimination or harassment at work, especially if your company isn't supportive

**Life stresses can also have a big impact. Examples of life stresses are:**

- ❖ The death of a loved one
- ❖ Divorce
- ❖ Loss of a job
- ❖ Increase in financial obligations
- ❖ Getting married
- ❖ Moving to a new home
- ❖ Chronic illness or injury
- ❖ Emotional problems (depression, anxiety, anger, grief, guilt, low self-esteem)
- ❖ Taking care of an elderly or sick family member
- ❖ Traumatic event, such as a natural disaster, theft, rape, or violence against you or a loved one

Sometimes the stress comes from inside, rather than outside. You can stress yourself out just by worrying about things. All of these factors can lead to stress:

- **Fear and uncertainty.** When you regularly hear about the threat of terrorist attacks, global warming, and toxic chemicals on the news, it can cause you to be stressed, especially because you feel like you have no control over those events. Fears can also hit closer to home, such as being worried that you won't finish a project at work or won't have enough money to pay your bills this month.
- **Attitudes and perceptions.** How you view the world or a particular situation can determine whether it causes stress. For example, if your television set is stolen and you take the attitude, "It's OK, my insurance company will pay for a new one," you'll be far less stressed than if you think, "My TV is gone and I'll never get it back! What if the thieves come back to my house to steal again?" Similarly, people who feel like they're doing a good job at work will be less stressed out by a big upcoming project than those who worry that they are incompetent.
- **Unrealistic expectations.** No one is perfect. If you expect to do everything right all the time, you're destined to feel stressed when things don't go as expected.



- **Change.** Any major life change can be stressful -- even a happy event like a wedding. More unpleasant events, such as a divorce, major financial setback, or death in the family can be significant sources of stress.

Your stress level will differ based on your personality and how you respond to situations. Some people let everything roll off their back. To them, work stresses and life stresses are just minor bumps in the road. Others literally worry themselves sick.

## **Effects of Stress on Your Health:**

When you are in a stressful situation, your body launches a physical response. Your nervous system springs into action, releasing hormones that prepare you to either fight or take off.

It's called the "fight or flight" response, and it's why, when you're in a stressful situation, you may notice that your heartbeat speeds up, your breathing gets faster, your muscles tense, and you start to sweat. This kind of stress is short-term and temporary (acute stress), and your body usually recovers quickly from it.

But if your stress system stays activated over a long period of time (chronic stress), it can lead to more serious health problems. The constant rush of stress hormones can put a lot of wear and tear on your body, causing it to age more quickly and making it more prone to illness.

If you've been stressed out for a short period of time, you may start to notice some of these physical signs:

- ❖ Headache
- ❖ Fatigue
- ❖ Difficulty sleeping
- ❖ Difficulty concentrating
- ❖ Upset stomach
- ❖ Irritability

When stress becomes long-term and is not properly addressed, it can lead to a number of more serious health conditions, including:

- ❖ Depression
- ❖ High blood pressure
- ❖ Abnormal heartbeat

- ❖ Hardening of the arteries
- ❖ Heart disease
- ❖ Heart attack
- ❖ Heartburn, ulcers, irritable bowel syndrome
- ❖ Upset stomach -- cramps, constipation, and diarrhea
- ❖ Weight gain or loss
- ❖ Changes in sex drive
- ❖ Fertility problems
- ❖ Flare-ups of asthma or arthritis
- ❖ Skin problems such as acne, eczema, and psoriasis

Managing your stress can make a real difference to your health.

### **Mechanisms of adjustment:**

Adjustment, in psychology, refers to the behavioral process by which humans and other animals maintain equilibrium among their various needs or between their needs and the obstacles of their environments.

Human beings are able to adjust to the physical, social and psychological demands that arise from having interred dependability with other individual.

Adjustment, as a process describes and explains the ways and means of an individual's adaptation to his self and his environment without reference to the quality of such adjustment or its outcome in terms of success or failure.

It is an organizational behavior in life situations at home, at school, at work in growing up and in ageing. It helps one to keep out basic impulses at tolerable levels, to believe in one's own abilities and to achieve desired goals.

Thus, adjustment helps for self-initiated growth and development along intellectual, emotional, social, physical, and vocational dimensions. Adjustment refers to the psychological process through which people manage or cope with the demands and challenges of everyday life.

It connotes conformity, it deals with the way an individual adapts to his environment and demand of life. This includes how he relates to other (interpersonal) and how he deals with his responsibilities and inner feelings.

Psychologically, adjustment helps the organism to cope with the demands and pressures of the outside world as well as the needs, desires and conflicts experiences from within.

In present, revolutionary changes are taking place in different fields and to cope up with such environment adjustment becomes necessary. To keep pace with the changing society, one has to make changes in our self or his environment. If the individual does not keep pace with the changing time, he is thrown back in the society. So the individual has to constantly make change in him to make the adjustment possible

Problematic adjustment occurs when an individual is unable to adjust to or cope with a particular stressor, such as a major life event. Individuals struggling with adjustment problems often have symptoms that depressed people do, such as the following:

- ❖ General loss of interest
- ❖ Feelings of hopelessness
- ❖ Frequent crying

This disorder is also sometimes known as situational depression. Unlike major depression however, the disorder is caused by an outside stressor and generally resolves once the individual is able to adapt to the situation. Therefore, adjustment problems are typically less intense and shorter in duration than an anxiety disorder, which lacks the presence of a stressor, or post-traumatic stress disorder and acute stress disorder, which usually are associated with a more intense stressor.

Common characteristics include mild depressive symptoms, anxiety symptoms, and possibly traumatic stress symptoms or a combination of the three. There are many different types of adjustment disorders that depend on the type of stressor and symptoms an individual displays.

## **School Adjustment:**

Students face many adjustments in school. From year to year, there are changes in teachers, classrooms, school and class rules and procedures, performance expectations, difficulty of the work, and peers. Their successes in negotiating these challenges predict school success.

School adjustment has been construed historically in terms of children's academic progress or achievement (Birch & Ladd, 1996). This outcome is important, but being very limited it narrows the search for precursors and events in children's environments that may affect adjustment.

In sum, there is good evidence that peers play a dynamic role in students' school adjustment.

- ❖ If you feel stress this means that you feel worried and tensed because of difficulties in your life
- ❖ If something frustrates you, it upsets you or angers you because you are unable to do anything about the problems it creates
- ❖ Anxiety is a feeling of nervousness or worry.
- ❖ Conflict is a serious disagreement and argument about something important

The term adjustment refers to the extent to which an individual's personality functions effectively in the world of people. It refers to the harmonious relationship between the person and the environment. In other words, it is the relationship that comes among the organisms, the environment and the personality.

A well adjusted personality is well prepared to play the roles which are expected of the status assigned to him within given environment. His needs will be satisfied in accordance with the social needs. Psychologists have interpreted adjustment from two important points of view.

- Adjustment as an Achievement.
- Adjustment as a process.

## **ADJUSTMENT AS AN ACHIEVEMENT**

Adjustment as an achievement means how effectively an individual could perform his duties in different circumstances. Business, military education and other social activities need efficient and well adjusted men for the progress and wellbeing of the nation.

If we interpret adjustment as achievement then we will have to set the criteria to judge the quality of adjustment.

## **ADJUSTMENT AS PROCESS:**

Adjustment as a process is of major importance for psychologists, teachers and parents. To analyze the process we should study the development of an individual longitudinally from his birth onwards. The child, at the time of his birth is absolutely dependent on others for the satisfaction of his needs, but gradually with age he learns to control his needs.

His adjustment largely depends on his interaction with the external environment in which he lives. When the child is born, the world for him is a big buzzing, blooming confusion. He cannot differentiate among the various objects of his environment but as he matures he comes to learn to articulate the details of his environment through the process of sensation, perception, and conception.

## **CHARACTERISTICS OF ADJUSTMENT MECHANISM**

Adjustment mechanism is almost used by all people. They are ideas which are inferred from the behavior of the individuals. All mechanisms are used to protect or enhance the persons self esteemed against dangers. They increase satisfaction and help in the process of adjustment if used within limit.

The danger is always within the person. He fears his own motives. The fear and danger are manifested in adjustment mechanism.

The overall effect of adjustment mechanism is to cripple the individual's functioning and development through falsifying some aspects of his impulses so that he is deprived of accurate self knowledge as a basis for action.

## **CONCEPT OF ADJUSTMENT:**

Adjustment is the relationship which comes to be established between the individual and the environment. Every individual plays certain position in his social relations. He is trained to play his role in such a way that his maximum needs will be fulfilled.

So, he should play his role properly and get maximum satisfaction. If he does not play his role according to standards and training Home Environment received his needs may not be fulfilled and he may get frustrated.

## **TYPES OF ADJUSTMENT:**

- Normal Adjustment
- Abnormal adjustment

## **NORMAL ADJUSTMENT**

When a relationship between an individual and his environment is according to established norms then that relationship is considered as normal adjustment.

A child who obey his parents, who is not unduly stubborn; who studies regularly and has neat habit is considered adjusted.

## **ABNORMAL ADJUSTMENT**

Abnormal Adjustment means problem behavior or popular speaking maladjustment. Maladjustment takes place when the relationship between an individual and his environment is not according to established standards or norms. A delinquent child adjusts with his environment but he is a maladjusted child because he is violating certain moral codes.

## **ADJUSTMENT MECHANISM**

An adjustment mechanism may be defined as "any habitual method of overcoming blocks, reaching goals, satisfying motives, relieving frustrations and maintains equilibrium". Adjustment mechanism is a device by which an individual reduces his tensions or anxiety in order to adjust himself properly with the environment.

## **Positive schooling:**

Snyder, Lopez and Pedrotti (2010) offer a visual representation of the components of positive schooling . This figure uses the imagery of a school to demonstrate how the components build upon one another. The foundations are formed of care, trust and diversity. At the ground level, plans and motivation are necessary, being driven by goals. Teachers inspire students to learn and to take their successes with them, instilling and empowering them with hope. Finally, the learner goes beyond the school and recognises that they are part of a larger society which they have the potential to change and improve.

### **Components of positive schooling:**

Teachers who care provide supportive role-models for learners, giving the foundations from which learning can occur. We have all (I hope) experienced a teacher who really cares about our learning and about us; when you experience this, it is explicit and a wonderful feeling. In my opinion, something that the school of psychology at Bangor University does exceptionally well is having a teaching team who are accessible, supportive and willing to give time. The importance of this grounded in findings by Bjornesen (2000).

Trust is another critical foundation to enable learning. Bryk & Schneider (2002), in large-scale statistical study of school-improvement found trust elicits benefits both psychologically and in performance.

Goals, plans and motivation are three interrelated components, which are necessary for learning. Locke and Latham (2002) provide an excellent overview of goal-setting and task motivation.

It is important that teachers and pupils explicitly share and understand their outcomes together;

If both are involved in stating and detailing these, they have greater chance of success. Emphasis on grades can, however, undermine these efforts, leading to an emphasis of performance rather than learning. Snyder, Lopez and Pedrotti go on to underline the importance of motivation: a motivated teacher is necessary to motivate students; indeed the relationship should be seen as one where both teacher and student are learners.

This leads to hope, which an engaged learner can experience if they know that they are going to continue to learn and grow beyond the domain of the classroom walls. With these positive elements achieved, self-actualisation occurs, enabling the learner to look outward from themselves, which in-turn, results in sharing of learning & values and altruism.

### **Concept of Emotional Intelligence:**

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it is an inborn characteristic.

### **The Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence**

Salovey and Mayer proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion and the ability to manage emotions.

1. **Perceiving Emotions:** The first step in understanding emotions is to perceive them accurately. In many cases, this might involve understanding nonverbal signals such as body language and facial expressions.
2. **Reasoning with Emotions:** The next step involves using emotions to promote thinking and cognitive activity. Emotions help prioritize what we pay attention and react to; we respond emotionally to things that garner our attention.
3. **Understanding Emotions:** The emotions that we perceive can carry a wide variety of meanings. If someone is expressing angry emotions, the observer must interpret the cause of their anger and what it might mean.

For example, if your boss is acting angry, it might mean that he is dissatisfied with your work; or it could be because he got a speeding ticket on his way to work that morning or that he's been fighting with his wife.



4. **Managing Emotions:** The ability to manage emotions effectively is a crucial part of emotional intelligence.

Regulating emotions, responding appropriately and responding to the emotions of others are all important aspects of emotional management.

### **Measuring Emotional Intelligence**

"In regard to measuring emotional intelligence – I am a great believer that criterion-report (that is, ability testing) is the only adequate method to employ. Intelligence is an ability, and is directly measured only by having people answer questions and evaluating the correctness of those answers." --John D. Mayer

A self-report test designed to measure competencies including awareness, stress tolerance, problem-solving, and happiness. According to Bar-On, "Emotional intelligence is an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures."

**Power of positive teachers:** Positive educators have the power to transform lives and inspire young minds to believe they can and will change the world. In this spirit here are seven ways we can all choose to be a positive educator.

**1. Be Positively Contagious** – Research shows that emotions are contagious. Sincere smiles, kind words, encouragement and positive energy infect people in a positive way. On the flip side your students are just as likely to catch your bad mood as the swine flu. So each day you come to school you have a choice. You can be a germ or a big dose of Vitamin C. When you choose to be positively contagious your positive energy has a positive impact on your students, your colleagues and ultimately your school culture. Your students will remember very little of what you said but they will remember 100% of how you made them feel. I remember Mrs. Liota and her smile and love and it made all the difference.

**2. Take a Daily Thank you Walk** – It's simple, it's powerful, and it's a great way to feed yourself with positivity. How does it work? You simply take a walk . . . outside, in a mall, at your school, on a treadmill, or anywhere else you can think of, and think about all the things, big and small, that you are grateful for.

The research shows you can't be stressed and thankful at the same time so when you combine gratitude with physical exercise, you give yourself a double boost of positive energy.

You flood your brain and body with positive emotions and natural antidepressants that uplift you rather than the stress hormones that drain your energy and slowly kill you. By the time you get to school you are ready for a great day.

**3. Celebrate Success** – One of the simplest, most powerful things you can do for yourself and your students is to celebrate your daily successes. Instead of thinking of all things that went wrong at school each day focus on the one thing that went right.

Try this: each night before you go to bed think about the one great thing about your day. If you do this you'll look forward to creating more success tomorrow. Also have your students do this as well. Each night they will go to bed feeling like a success and they will wake up with more confidence to take on the day.

**4. Expect to Make a Difference** – When positive educators walk into their classroom they expect to make a difference in their student's lives. In fact, making a difference is the very reason why they became a teacher in the first place and this purpose continues to fuel them and their teaching.

They come to school each day thinking of ways they can make a difference and expecting that their actions and lessons will lead to positive outcomes for their students. They win in their mind first and then they win in the hearts and minds of their students.

**5. Believe in your students** more than they believe in themselves – I tried to quit lacrosse during my freshman year in high school but Coach Caiazza wouldn't let me. He told me that I was going to play in college one day. He had a vision for me that I couldn't even fathom. He believed in me more than I believed in myself. I ended up going to Cornell University and the experience of playing lacrosse there changed my life forever.

The difference between success and failure is belief and so often this belief is instilled in us by someone else. Coach Caiazza was that person for me and it changed my life. You can be that person for one of your students if you believe in them and see their potential rather than their limitations.

**6. Develop Positive Relationships** – Author Andy Stanley once said, “Rules without relationship lead to rebellion.” Far too many principals share rules with their teachers but they don’t have a relationship with them. And far too many teachers don’t have positive relationships with their students. So what happens? Teachers and students disengage from the mission of the school. I’ve had many educators approach me and tell me that my books helped them realize they needed to focus less on rules and invest more in their relationships.

The result was a dramatic increase in teacher and student performance, morale and engagement. To develop positive relationships you need to enhance communication, build trust, listen to them, make time for them, recognize them, show them you care through your actions and mentor them. Take the time to give them your best and they will give them your best.

**7. Show you Care** – It’s a simple fact. The best educators stand out by showing their students and colleagues that they care about them. Standardized test scores rise when teachers make time to really know their students. Teacher performance improves when principals create engaged relationships with their teachers.

Teamwork is enhanced when educators know and care about one another. Parents are more supportive when educators communicate with their student’s parents. The most powerful form of positive energy is love and this love transforms students, people and schools when it is put into action. Create your own unique way to show your students and colleagues you care about them and you will not only feel more positive yourself but you will develop positive kids who create a more positive world.

## **Unit-V**

### **Education-Development interface**

#### **The Interface between Adult Learning, Development, and Education**

Although the characteristics and qualities of adult development are increasingly of interest to developmental psychologists, and to adult educators, only recently have educational psychologists devoted much attention to adults.

This is due, primarily, to the large numbers of adults who are pursuing continuing education and training--whether due to occupational demands, avocational interests, or because--on average--adults are living longer, healthier lives.

This trend, combined with an increasingly earlier retirement and greater leisure time available to adults, have combined to send adults "back to school"--not just in formal educational settings, but through a variety of alternatives.

While adult educators have grappled with understanding the most effective ways to provide instruction to adult learners, who vary greatly in their learning needs, interests, and abilities, these practitioners can undoubtedly benefit from a greater understanding of the psychology of learning and development, as applied to educational contexts.

Educational psychologists are uniquely qualified to provide this kind of information to practitioners.

Adult education has been called a developmental enterprise, in that adult education is said to promote the development of adults in a variety of domains--

- ❖ Cognitive
- ❖ Intellectual,
- ❖ Social
- ❖ Emotional.

Still, there is very little evidence that adult educators are well-versed in developmental principles and that adult education does, in fact, serve to promote development.

## **Two Domains of Theory and Research:**

Traditionally, there are two domains of theory and research in adult development, according to Tennant & Pogson (1995): intellectual and cognitive development comprises one domain--and will be an emphasis of this course; personality and social development comprises the second domain of research and theorizing.

While the study of personality development in adulthood is important to a broader understanding of the impacts of adult education on adulthood, this has occupied less attention from adult educators. Adult social development through education has, however, been of much greater interest to adult educators.

In regards to adult intellectual development, two descriptive models have predominated in the literature: the stability model and the decrement model, according to Tennant and Pogson (1995). The stability model assumes that adult cognition remains essentially the same after maturity, with no qualitative or quantitative growth. The decrement model, on the other hand, assumes that there is a gradual decrease in the person's ability to utilize and organize information (likely due to biological deterioration of the cognitive system with age).

Peak intellectual functioning, from this perspective, occurs in the late 20s/early 30s. Because of the influence of the life span developmental perspective over the past 25 years (Baltes, 1987), an alternative model has replaced both the stability and the decrement perspectives on cognitive aging. This new model suggests that there is increasing cognitive ability with age.

Because adults are faced with a variety of socially determined problem-solving situations--at work, in the community, at home and in the family--there are multiple opportunities to exercise and improve one's cognitive and intellectual abilities. These kinds of socially defined problems rarely are found on the paper-and-pencil tests of intellectual functioning that are typically used in cognitive aging research.

Also, even more traditional theorists have modified their perspectives in regards to adult intellectual abilities--particularly those working from the cognitive developmental perspective of Piaget. Piaget, of course, argued that intellectual development reached its zenith with the full attainment of formal operations in late adolescence, and no further growth is possible, save for some specialization in areas of interest to the individual. Formal

operations, however, pertains to only one dimension of adult thinking, that is, logical-mathematical and scientific reasoning.

But most problems in adult life have little to do with formal logical or mathematical thinking, but are more often fuzzy, open-ended sorts of problems and issues within the social and interpersonal domains. Other forms of reasoning may, therefore, be equally or more important. Thus, a number of so-called post-formal models of adult thinking have been proposed over the past 25 years, including Labouvie-Vief (1980), Rybash, Hoyer & Roodin (1986); Riegel (1973), and Basseches (1984). Such models recognize the significance of real-life experience in problem-solving.

### **The Role of the Self in Learning:**

The course focuses primarily on adult cognitive development, rather than social and personality development in adulthood. However, we would be remiss if we didn't devote some attention to several theories and theorists that have been significant to adult educators and researchers concerned with adult learning.

These theorists have been primarily interested in describing various age-related stages, or phases, of self- and/or personality development over the course of adulthood. The theorists include Erik Erikson (1963), Daniel Levinson (1978), and George Vaillant (1977).

Their ideas are significant to adult educators because they tend to agree that the development of personality and social roles have origins in social practices, rather than innate psychological processes (Tennant & Pogson, 1995). Adult education, obviously, consists of a set of social practices that can, and do, operate to shape the development of the person in a variety of ways. Some Areas of Concern Regarding Relationships Between Adult Educators and Educational Psychologists

It is interesting to note that adult educators have, traditionally, been interested in understanding the different "styles" or modes of learning that adults demonstrate--much more so than they have been in understanding or assessing cognitive and intellectual abilities.

This has taken place despite the fact that the psychological research fails to find compelling evidence for quantitative--as opposed to qualitative--differences in these learning styles.

Educational psychologists have traditionally studied learning and instruction as these activities and processes occur in K-12 classroom and schools. Their work has resulted in a number of psychological and instructional principles in regards to cause-effect relationships between teaching and learning.

Because the best place to establish such relationships is in the laboratory, where many extraneous variables can be controlled or eliminated, educational psychologists' work has rarely been viewed as applicable to adult education, with its focus on authentic learning for real-world application.

In fairness, however, it must be said that, over the past generation or more, educational psychologists have returned to the classroom and have investigated a number of variables pertinent to learning, such as teacher expertise (Leinhardt, 1989), the effects of students' prior knowledge (Glaser, 1984), and motivation (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990).

A laboratory is not the real world with all of its inherent messiness, and so, adult educators have been reluctant to apply the principles derived from decades of educational psychology research with young learners to the teaching of adults.

The result of this state of affairs is that adult educators and educational psychologists rarely travel in the same circles. They don't attend the same professional conferences and they don't read the same journals. They rarely collaborate on research--although there is much evidence that both professions would benefit from such interactions.

For one thing, adult educators are loathe to assume that the teacher necessarily knows more than does the adult student, which is a fundamental assumption of pedagogy.

The adult educator is often viewed as a "facilitator" of learning rather than as one who imparts knowledge and facts to a passive adult learner (what Malcolm Knowles, 1984, called andragogy).

However, the traditional view of the active teacher-passive learner in regards to childhood education has fallen out of favor with the emergence--and dominance--of constructivist (neo-Piagetian models) and social-constructivist (i.e., Vygotsky) perspectives on learning and instruction in educational psychology over the past two decades.

Thus, there may be some areas of "common ground" between adult educators and educational psychologists.

Still, as adult educators have often pointed out, psychologists have generally been more concerned with understanding the "average" or "typical" performance of a group of learners rather than focusing on the phenomenological experience of the individual learner.

Despite these differences in emphasis, there is a lot of evidence that adult educators and educational psychologists can benefit from working together.

**Tennent and Pogson (1995) suggest that there are essentially three fundamental concerns of adult educators.**

These concerns are to:

- acknowledge the (life) experience of learners;
- establish an adult teacher-adult learner relationship
- promote the autonomy and self-direction of the adult learner.

No contemporary educational psychologist would suggest that the learner (at any age) comes into the learning situation as a “blank slate” given the impact of the social environment on the individual. Among the important questions, for the educational psychologist, are:

- What life experiences are most relevant to learning?
- How does a learner’s prior knowledge affect their current learning?
- How can instruction be conducted in order to capitalize upon the learners’ relevant experiences?

Few adult educational psychologists would ignore the role of the relationship between the teacher and student in the instructional situation. The teacher’s ability to motivate the student, the student’s sense of “attraction” to the teacher, the establishment of mutual trust (the teacher will teach, the student will learn)--all are relevant aspects of “relationship” to the educational psychologist. Finally, adult educational psychologists are also concerned with how individual autonomy and self-direction (“achievement motivation”) can best be fostered through effective teaching.

### **Development within Social Contexts:**

Abstract Standard conceptions of how the environment influences the person are constrained by the dominant view of representation - and, therefore, perception, cognition, and language - as fundamentally consisting of encodings.

This encoding view is logically incoherent. An alternative view of representation is presented, interactive, and shown to avoid the incoherencies of encodings.



The interactivity model of representation provides accounts for standard presumed encoding phenomena, and highlights processes and forms of influence of the environment on the person that are obscure or entirely absent from the encoding account. The multiplicity and complexity of the processes of environmental influence acquire a theoretically coherent organization and development from within the interactive perspective.

### **How Does the Environment Affect the Person?**

Mark H. Bickhard Introduction It is generally assumed that human beings perceive and understand the world through the senses, and that that epistemic connection with the world occurs via the transmission of information from the world through those senses into a mind. The converse perspective on this same assumption is that the environment influences individuals, both microgenetically and developmentally, via the information that is generated in that environment and transmitted into the minds of those individuals..

**How can we possibly know that our representations of the world are correct?** The only answer seems to involve checking those representations against the world to see if they in fact match, but, by assumption, the only epistemic contact we have with the world is via those representations themselves - any such check, therefore, is circular and provides no epistemic ground. Skepticism is generally relegated to philosophy, and, although philosophers periodically attempt to discredit the skeptical question, no one has in fact succeeded in solving it.

### **Increasing access to quality basic education for all children:**

Education is not only a human right, but it is also an essential tool for individuals to break the poverty cycle and to building the human capital of nations.

Zambia is one of the poorest countries in the world and is home to 6 million children under the age of 18 of which 4 million children are of the primary school age (7-14).

Though Zambia made commendable progress in increasing access and gender parity, more than a quarter million children are out of school and 47% of those enrolled in school do not complete the primary cycle.

The current UNICEF country programme (2011-2015) focuses on capacity and systems strengthening for improvement of quality of education, equity in participation and progression from pre-primary to primary and lower secondary education, particularly for girls, rural children, and other excluded groups. HIV prevention and behavioral change are promoted through life skills programme for children who are in school and out of school.

The programme has three results areas:

- Early Childhood Care and Development Education (ECCDE)
  - Quality Basic Education
  - HIV and AIDS and Life Skills Education
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### **Early Childhood Care and Development Education (ECCDE):**

UNICEF is providing support to help the GRZ promote Early Childhood Care and Development Education (ECCDE) for children aged six and below.

Children who participate in early childhood education are more likely to enroll and remain in primary school (and achieve better results) than those who cannot access comprehensive early childhood care.

UNICEF supports establishment of child-friendly early learning centers, developing national curriculum and learning and development standards, and training of teachers and care givers.

More than 40 centers are providing school readiness instruction to 7,000 children in 5 districts. ECCDE centers are also entry points for monitoring child health and nutrition.

## **Quality Basic Education:**

Since the introduction of the free basic education policy in 2002, enrolment in basic education levels has steadily increased. However, children from poor households, rural children and girls are the last to enroll in school and the first to drop out, and are significantly underrepresented in the upper grades of basic education as well as the secondary level.

UNICEF supports the Ministry of Education, civil society, and communities to ensure that children and adolescents are able to develop, learn and participate in a protective, inclusive and child-friendly enabling environments.

At the national level, support include training of teachers and school administrators on inclusive education, interactive teaching and other classroom subjects; technical assistance for curriculum and student assessment reviews; and advocacy for policy and systemic reforms.

At sub-national level, community schools that serve rural and marginalized children are the priority for UNICEF support: 10,000 children are learning in newly constructed child-friendly 60 classrooms with clean water and gender sensitive sanitation facilities and more than 20,000 pupils have received adequate teaching learning materials. 306 community School teachers (146 male, 160 female) have benefited from professional training on teaching skills.

## **HIV and AIDS and Life Skills Education**

As part of UNICEF's strategy to fight HIV and AIDS among youth, the programme includes Life Skills Education as a methodology assisting learners to have comprehensive knowledge on HIV prevention and risk reduction skills.

At national level, UNICEF assisted the Ministry of Education in the development of Life Skills materials for grades 1 to 9, development and implementation of HIV workplace policy and capacity development of teachers in life skills provision. As of 2009, 60% of the basic schools were providing life skills to learners.

Through NGOs UNICEF supports interventions that include life-skills through sports and peer to peer counselling which reaches over 500, 000 children in and out of school with Life skills and HIV prevention messages in 6 provinces.

In the Fifth National Development Plan 2006 to 2010, the Zambian government has allocated a substantial amount to education relative to total budget, but when you do the math the amount is far too short to make a dent.

In 2005, the Zambian population was projected at 11.5 million people. UNESCO projects that 50% of the Zambian population is below 18 years old, young people thus account for 5.2 million.

The government has budgeted 2.97 billion kwacha for education in 2010 and If 4.1 million young Zambians can have access to education that translates in K725.00 per child.

Let us go a step further and challenge government to detach teachers pay from the budget so we can see how much is actually directed at school construction and learning materials. My assumption is that the government cares about every child hence that should be reflected in the budget.

For far too long politicians have told Zambians, they cannot manage their affairs and thus every decision of their well being can only be decided in Lusaka. No wonder most political parties are based there. We have tried this formula for 44 years and maybe we should try letting the Zambian people to participate in the administration of education.

Government should consider breaking up current system in districts, with defined mandates on performance and adequate funding.

1. All districts should make sure all children are able to read and write at the fourth grade level.

2. No school districts will be allowed to send children in the streets just after grade 7 or 9. Thus the districts should make sure all children have access to education from the time they are born to 12th

grade. These ideas may sound simplistic but the idea that the country sends hundreds of thousands of its young population at age thirteen into the streets because they so called “failed” without looking at alternatives 44 years after independence, is unacceptable.

In breaking up the current system the lost innovation due to heavy centralized system will be loosened up. Some districts may lag behind, but many more will excel and thus be able to rescue our future from the outdated structure. The ideas can be applied to all sectors of our Zambian economy but this is the topic of discussion for some other time.

### **School Curriculum:**

Government introduce practical work at secondary school level as part of grading towards grade 12 finals, say 40% practical and 60% theory. This will equip our children with skills and sense of responsibility at an early age.

- Students can volunteer to work at the local hospitals, cleaning up our cities and villages, working in farms
- Students in grade 10, 11 and 12 can go to primary schools and help teach basic math and reading to primary schools kids and in some cases help street kids build up reading skills.
- Students in secondary schools should be given time off so they work in motor repair shops and learn mechanical work, work in bakery, work in farms, tailoring shops, hair dressing – all this can go towards their final grade.

At an early age we will be introducing responsibility and skills. We have students graduating from University of Zambia who have had no feel of the market place.

❖ **Suppose our curriculum included projects from grade one in:**

- I. Wire or wood toys
- II. Making grass mats
- III. Wood crafting
- IV. Pottery
- V. Hair dressing
- VI. Tailoring
- VII. Shoe repairs
- VIII. And the list goes on.

Most of these projects will not cost much to do, but by the end of the school year, the kids will have picked up some skill if not some trade. A wood toy car in Wal-mart stores USA, sells for \$5 to \$15.00

**Educational improvement:**

Programmes include:

- Early childhood education
- Pre-school education
- Non-formal education
- Formal education
- Distant education
- Technical and vocational education
- Adult education
- Collegiate education
- Quality of life through health improvement

**Community health education:**

Community health programmes include...

- Environment and ecological promotion
- Nutrition education cum services
- Immunization
- Reproductive and child health programme
- Promotion of herbal garden and herbal medicine
- HIV/AIDS prevention programme
- Alcoholic and de-addiction services

- Coordination with Government Primary Health Centres
- Periodical medical check-ups and treatment with referral services
- Training for grass root health workers

### **Poverty alleviation activities:**

This programme is mainly focused on utilizing the available local resources as well as enhancing skills for managing resources through a sustainable livelihood approach.

- Agro-based livelihood activities
- Animal husbandry programme
- Micro enterprises
- Credit units – people's financial institutions
- Entrepreneurship training
- Cooperative business undertaking
- Promotion of self-help groups
- Watershed management

### **Building the local organization:**

DEEDS aim to nurture and develop self-government principles among the deprived community, despite various barriers in the social system such as caste, multi-linguistic, multi-religious communities etc... Through democratization and human rights, this can be promoted at the community level. Sensitization and advocacy on various developmental areas are given focus.

To build a strong local organization DEEDS promotes the following local bodies:

- Women's associations (sanghas)
- Farmers' association
- Village Development Coordination Committee
- Youth association
- Children's club
- Credit and cooperative units

### **Role of Education in National Development:**

Education is a vital investment for human and economic development and is influenced by the environment within which it exists.

Changes in technology, labour market patterns and general global environment, all require policy responses. Traditions, culture and faith all reflect upon the education system and at the same time are also affected by them. The element of continuity and change remains perpetual and it is up to the society to determine its pace and direction.

We are living in an inquiring and innovation-oriented society. The demand of twenty first century is novelty, creativity, and integration of knowledge at global level, research, critical and analytical thoughts. Rapidly social changes are creating uncertainty and complexity in the society.

To prepare the children and youth to cope with the present situation needs to develop analytical and critical thinking, skill and attitude that would make them more flexible and innovative to deal with uncertainty and crises at national and global level.

The greatest need of the hour is to re design curriculum, textbooks, teaching methodology and children's literature, formal and non-formal educational systems. It has been demonstrated by researcher that active learning (questioning and investigate the nature of topic) develop creativity and stimulate for learning.

Cultural values of the majority of Pakistanis are derived from Islam. Since an education system reflects and strengthens social, cultural and moral values, therefore, Pakistan's educational interventions have to be based on the core values of religion and faith.

Curriculum plays crucial role in national integration and harmony. Curriculum role as observed in the National Education Policy (1979) should aim enable the learners to learn knowledge, develop conceptual and intellectual skills, attitudes, values and aptitudes conducive to the all round development of their personality and proportionate with the societal, economic and environmental realities at national and international level.

Whitehead (1962) says "culture is the activity of thought, and receptiveness to beauty and humane feeling". A child is a human being in embryo, a man to be and we are responsible to the future for him. It is considered that a child learns 90 percent of his personality by his nurturing.



It is, perhaps easier to educate a child in beginning than re-educated him when he has already formed. Therefore, books for children are not simply a source of entertainment rather inculcate intelligence and values.

In Russia, America and Japan children's literature is considered a great cultural and educational phenomenon, and creation of books for children is responsibility of the states. The manifest and latent functions of children's literature is to transmit knowledge, myth, mores, values, folkways, legendary personalities, superstitions and beliefs which are integral part of a culture.

Textbooks are the most widely used as a teaching tool which represent our national culture. Textbooks reveal our national values, culture, and ideology of a nation.

A good text book can be a "teacher in print", and sometime even superior to an average teacher. In fact they are influence towards national integration by sharing common national culture.

The selection, organization and presentation of subject matter in textbooks show philosophy, integrity, values and intellectual thoughts of a nation.

Questioning methodology is a powerful tool to built analytical and critical skills in pupils. In the world of knowledge the emphasis has not to be merely mastery to extant the knowledge but on the acquisitions of capacity to think and analyze facts logically and conclude its own.

Teachers must adopt such teaching methodology by which students must learn how to discard old ideas and replace them with modify ideas. As Toffler once said "learn how to learn".

Schools of the future will be designed not only for "learning" but for "thinking". More and more insistently, today's schools and colleges are being asked to produce men and women who can think, who can make new scientific discoveries, who can find more adequate solutions to impelling world problems, who cannot be brainwashed, men and women who can adapt to change and maintain sanity in this age of acceleration. This is a creative challenge to education.

## **Human Development and Education:**

The Human Development and Education (HDE) program prepares students to investigate children's learning and development as these occurs within the contexts of schooling and the family. Our faculty and students typically explore these phenomena through the application of psychological theory, and we ultimately seek to contribute to the fields of education and psychology.

Education for Sustainable Development allows every human being to acquire the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary to shape a sustainable future.

Education for Sustainable Development means including key sustainable development issues into teaching and learning; for example, climate change, disaster risk reduction, biodiversity, poverty reduction, and sustainable consumption. It also requires participatory teaching and learning methods that motivate and empower learners to change their behavior and take action for sustainable development. Education for Sustainable Development consequently promotes competencies like critical thinking, imagining future scenarios and making decisions in a collaborative way.

Education for Sustainable Development requires far-reaching changes in the way education is often practiced today.

Knowledge of human development is highly gratifying and valuable in itself; it can also greatly enhance your ability to make a meaningful difference in children's lives. To run an effective afterschool program for adolescent urban youth, for example, teachers and mentors need to understand the specific challenges of adolescent development as well as cultural variations in child-adult relationships.

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