

Associate Degree in Education

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY & GUIDANCE

Unit No 1-9

Code No 6402



FACULTY OF EDUCATION



**ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
ISLAMABAD**

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND GUIDANCE

Code: 6402

Units: 1–9



**Department of Education
Allama Iqbal Open University Islamabad**

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FOREWORD

Psychology is the scientific study of human behaviour and mental processes. Educational Psychology is a specialized area of psychology which mainly focuses on understanding teaching and learning in educational settings. The field of educational psychology was founded by several pioneers in psychology just before the beginning of twentieth century. Over the period of past twelve decades, “Educational Psychology” has emerged as developing science — a body of knowledge of its own concepts, theories and practices constructed on applications of psychology to effectively educate children.

The major objectives of educational psychology are the scientific underpinnings, understanding and improving the processes of teaching. Having a sound knowledge of psychology is essential for educationalists and teachers to achieve the above narrated objectives of educational psychology. Educational psychology is a vital subject of study for students and teachers of education. Educational psychology is a critical foundation of becoming a competent teacher to impart quality education to children. The theoretical corpus of educational psychology — its concepts, theories and principles are the main tools and techniques that help educationalists/teachers select the most effective teaching strategy and create conducive teaching environment to make the overall process of learning thought provoking, interesting and productive.

In considering the importance and vitality of educational psychology for teaching and learning processes, “Educational Psychology and Guidance” is offered as a foundation course for ADE and four year B.Ed programs. This book on educational psychology and guidance written by the team of eminent Psychologists and teachers is intensively reviewed and revised. This is an invaluable source of information in the field of educational psychology, for educationists, teachers and students, to equally benefit from it.

The sincere efforts, dedication and the professional contribution of the Dean, Faculty of Education and his team really deserve appreciation and congratulation on production of this valuable book.

Vice Chancellor

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INTRODUCTION OF THE COURSE

Psychology is an academic and applied field involving the study of behaviour, mind and thought and the subconscious neurological bases of behaviour. Psychology also refers to the application of such knowledge to various spheres of human activity, including problems of individuals, daily lives and the treatment of mental illness.

Educational psychology is the psychology that relates to education. It is the scientific study of human behaviour in educational situations. Educational psychology is that science which helps to provide a better background for understanding the total job of teaching in all its intricacies.

Educational psychology is an applied branch of psychology. It applies psychological principles and techniques to human behaviour in educational situation, to the development of educational strategies and programs and further to the solutions of educational problems.

Effort has been made regarding the course to highlight all the important aspects of educational psychology. Unit-1 provides the meaning and nature of psychology and Educational Psychology. It further clarifies that how the educational psychology has relevance for the classroom teacher in a number of ways. Unit-2 reveals the information regarding human development, particularly from childhood to adolescence. Unit-3 & 4 highlights the meaning, nature of learning and the role of Associative and Cognitive theories in learning processes.

Unit-5, deals with the concept of motivation, its different theories. It further discusses the role of teacher enhancing, student's motivation. Areas of individual differences, causes of individual difference and measurement of individual differences are discussed in Unit-6. Unit-7 describes the concept of mental health, adjustment mechanism and mental health in school and home. Unit-8 provides the concept of guidance modes and its importance in school and educational organizations. The last unit elaborates the nature of counselling and different therapies of counselling.

However, the course of Educational Psychology and Guidance is meant to remain open-ended. The course will be revised after in due course of time and all suggestions/recommendations and improvement will be considered for incorporation.

(Mrs. Amir Bano)
Assistant Professor

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

Hopefully, on completion of the course, the student will be able to:

1. Explain the significance, scope and role of Educational Psychology.
2. Describe the main stages of development (Cognitive, Social, Moral and Emotional with the help of different theories)
3. Define the term learning and differentiate between associative and cognitive theories of learning.
4. Identify the cause of individual differences.
5. Explain the concept of Mental Health.
6. Describe the need and characteristics of guidance and counselling process.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The Allama Iqbal Open University and the undersigned in capacity of Dean Faculty of Education is grateful to all scholars nationally and internationally and the publishers of various books, reports, and journals whose work were used as reference material in this course. The quotations used from their works are gratefully acknowledged.

I am grateful to Prof. Dr. Nazir Ahmed Sangi, Vice-Chancellor, Allama Iqbal Open University, for providing facilities, encouragement and inestimable contributions throughout the revision of this course.

It will be injustice if I do not acknowledge the efforts of Mrs. Amir Bano (ADE Program Coordinator) who revised this course provided feedback and fresh ideas in respect of its development.

Finally, thanks are due to all those who helped in developing the course.

(Prof. Dr. Tanveer-uz-Zaman)
Dean, Faculty of Education

Unit-1

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

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Reviewed By: Amir Bano

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INTRODUCTION

This unit has been written as an introductory text for ADE program studying through non-formal system. We have tried to write it in the simplest possible form. The central aim of the unit is to introduce teachers and students to elementary ideas in psychology, which have some relevance for their work with young people. In addition to drawing on my own experience in teaching and teacher training, we have benefited greatly from the publisher's findings in writing the unit. We have deliberately started with a chapter introducing the meaning and nature of psychology in educational setting. The main emphasis is laid on explaining the contribution of educational psychology to enhance effectiveness of teaching – learning process. Growth in application of psychological principles to educational problems has become rapid and diverse in recent years. New and illuminating concepts have been added to impart maximum knowledge to the students of education about psychology, which is the youngest science. The unit has several special features, which we hope will appeal to students and teachers. We also hope that the students will get personal satisfaction from knowledge of psychology both as a discipline and as a means of exploring his own qualities as a person as well as a potential teacher.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you would be able to:

1. Elaborate the meaning and nature of psychology.
2. Differentiate between psychology and other sciences.
3. Differentiate between definitions of psychology by prominent psychologists.
4. Define educational psychology.
5. Narrate influence of educational psychology on student- behavior.
6. Discuss importance of educational psychology for a teacher
7. Use of educational psychology in teaching, learning process.
8. Explain educational psychology – contribution to enhancement of teaching – learning process - effectiveness.

1. MEANING AND NATURE OF PSYCHOLOGY

The word “psychology” is derived from two Greek words, psyche (soul) and logos (study). So psychology literally means a “study about soul”. But although the literal meaning of the word “logos” is “talk” it is commonly used to mean “science”. Hence psychology literally means the science of soul. But why do we prefer to call psychology a science and not a talk? The reason is that a talk is usually muddled, vague and fragmentary. For example your talk with a friend on a subject, might have been quite clear and consistent, yet it could not possibly be as systematic and exhaustive as the science of that subject can be.

Psychology is an academic and applied discipline which deals with study of human behavior and mental process. It explains the subconscious neurological basis of behavior. It is the study of mind, thoughts and actions of individuals. It does not necessarily refer to brain or nervous system and can be purely framed in terms of phenomenological or information processing theories of mind. An understanding of brain function is being included in psychological theory and practices, particularly in artificial intelligence neuropsychological and cognitive neuroscience psychology attempts to explain consciousness behavior and social interaction. Psychology has been examining the relationship between consciousness, brain and nervous system. Theories of psychology are applicable to various activities and problems related to individual’s daily life and treatment of mental illness.

1.1 Definition of Psychology

Psychology is the study of the thoughts and actions of individuals. Psychology is the youngest of all the sciences. It is still in making and is far from being established in the sense in which other sciences are. Hence the definition of psychology has been, and probably still is, a matter of fierce controversy among psychologists. The largely differ from one another as indeed all scientists do, in the early stages of their sciences disagreements and controversies are almost inevitable and without the, perhaps scientific progress could not have been as great as it is. This is especially true of a young science like psychology, recently set free from psychology, philosophy, and not always distinguishable from physiology. As no one definition is agreed upon by common consent, there exist different definitions of psychology. It has been variously defined as the science of soul, the science of mind, the science of consciousness and the science of behavior. Let us examine these definitions one by one and see if any of them can enable us to understand accurately what psychology is and what it deals with.

1.1.1 *Psychology as a Science of Soul*

According to dictionary, psychology means “The science of soul” This is the oldest definition of psychology. The word “soul” is a very unsatisfactory term in psychology. It has changed its meaning. Aristotle used it for the living principal in all animate beings, but at the present day it is a term used in religion, for that part of us which is immortal

and which has special relation with God. Thus the use of the term “soul” implies certain theories of religion with regard to immortality and relationship to God, and such theories are just what we want to avoid in science of psychology, even though we may believe them to be true on other grounds.

Psychologists are not opposed to religion, but they certainly want to keep this young science free from religious terminology. “Soul” is a word of bad door to men of science, smelling too much of religion. As it has a religious flavor, it is unwelcome to modern psychology. If psychology aspires to be a science-and surely it does-it must adopt a scientific and not a speculative procedure. Science observes facts, and soul is not open to observation or experiment: The definition of psychology as the science of soul is, therefore, rejected as unscientific.

1.1.2 Psychology as the Science of Mind

To many, the word “Mind” is quite as vague as the word “soul”. If “Mind” means something mysterious inside us, it would be just the same as should, and this definition too, would deserve to be discredited. Ask the man in the street what he means by “Mind” and he will tell you that is it something in his body, or rather head, which thinks, feels and wills. So if we define psychology as the science of mind as a layman thinks, this definition have no improvement upon the previous definition of psychology as the science of soul. But like Hume and Titchener, we take mind in the sense of mental process, this definition would certainly be better than the previous one. Psychology would then mean the science of mental processes. But what are the mental processes? The answer is that they are our processes of knowing, feeling and willing. The processes which are commonly said to go on ‘in’ our mind. Let us illustrate them by example. If a wasp stings my finger, I know what has happened to me, feel a pain, run after the wasp and will to kill it. I know, I feel and I will. The processes of the mind are facts. There are real happenings, and there is no mystery about them. This conception of the mind is sometimes called the empirical conception, because mental process can be experienced. It is also called the scientific conception because they can be observed and experimented upon.

To sum up, the definition of psychology as the science of mental processes seems to be quite reasonable and therefore commands assent. This is subject to one objection, however, according to this definition, psychology is concerned with the study of mental processes. Now, even a superficial consideration shows that a person can study only his own mental processes. To know the mental process of other persons and animals, one has to see what they do and “what they do” is called their “behaviour”. I can say that the man is grieved only when I see him weeping. We can know the mental processes of others only through the observation of their behaviour.

“Thus psychology is concerned with the study of behaviour as well as mental process.”

The definition of psychology as the science of mental processes is a half-truth.

1.1.3 Psychology as the Science of Consciousness

Psychology has also been defined as the science of consciousness. What is consciousness? If you stop to reflect, you will be aware that you are sitting on a desk, that you are reading a book, and that you are either interested in it or bored by it. The present awareness is what we mean by consciousness? Does consciousness cover the whole field about mind? The answer is, No. Besides consciousness, mental there are processes and psychology cannot ignore them because they are also processes of mind the truth rather is that conscious processes form a very small part of our mind. They are so to speak the upper surface of the deep sea, the greater part of which lies below. In fact, more lies at the back of mind than at its front. This is also incomplete definition because we can study our own conscious processes; we cannot study mental processes of others. So, we must take “behaviour” into consideration.

The definition of psychology as the science of consciousness is too narrow, because it excludes the study of subconscious and unconscious mental processes and also that of behaviour.

1.1.4 Psychology as a Science of Behaviour

By ‘behaviour’ is generally understood anything that a living-does. It means “response”, “reactions” or “adjustment’s of an organism to various kinds of stimuli. A stimulus is the outside cause of mental process. It has already been said that in order to understand the minds of other persons and animals, we have to study their behaviour. Hence psychology has been defined as the science of behaviour — a definition that looks harmless enough.

This is the most modern of all the definitions and is put forward by the school of psychology known as behaviourism, the leading exponent of which is Dr. Watson. This school of psychology, in its extreme form, admits only the study of behaviour as its subject matter and ignores the study of consciousness and mental processes altogether. Dr. Watson writes: “state of consciousness, like the so called phenomena of spiritualism, are not objectively verifiable and for that reason can never become data for science — “The behaviourist finds no evidence for mental existence or mental processes of any kind.” Again, “consciousness is neither a definable nor a usable concept. It is merely word for the ‘soul’ of more ancient time.” “If it exists” he continues, “we can know nothing about it.”

This point of view has been prevalent in America under the able and aggressive leadership of Dr. Watson, and has come to be fairly widely held by psychologists in other countries as well. But although our mind is revealed in our behaviour, yet to study behaviour at the cost of mind is a mistake. The danger of behaviorism, particularly in its extreme form, has been its tendency to neglect consciousness and mental processes altogether.

The school of behaviourism is an exaggerated reaction against the purely subjective standpoint of those who are known as mentalists subjective standpoint means, the study

of what goes on in one's mind. This school has resulted in an equally purely objective standpoint. Objective standpoint means the study of what is observable and external to mind (i.e. behaviour). Infact, there can be no objective or external behaviour without the subjective or inner mental processes of which the former is expression. Hence this definition of psychology as science of behaviour is rejected as one-sided.

1.2 Psychology and Other Sciences

In Universe, there are found nonliving things (stones, rocks, rivers etc), living things without mind, plants, trees and living things possessing life and mind (human beings & animals).

Material things exist at the lowest level whereas living things having no mind exist at level higher than the level of existence of material things and the living things possessing life and mind are at the highest level of existence. The corresponding to these three levels of existence, there are three categories of sciences to explain them:

1.2.1 Physical Sciences

These sciences explain the existence of non-living things. They describe various properties of matter and composition of material things. They attempt to understand and explain physical phenomena in nature.

1.2.2 Biological Science

These sciences deal with life and living thing. They explain biological phenomena. They study of various forms of life-manifestation. They attempt to discover the conditions and laws of growth and development of plants, animals and human beings.

1.2.3 Mental Science

There are various physical sciences and biological sciences. Similarly there are several sciences which deal with mind. But there is one fundamental science lies at the basis of mind-sciences which to studies the essential nature of mind how does mind grow and function in human beings and animals, in individuals & societies, in normal and abnormal persons. This fundamental science is known as psychology.

1.3 Summary

Psychology is the youngest science. It had its formal beginning in Leipzig, Germany. Wilhelm Wudt founded the psychological laboratory in 1879. Psychology is concerned with the study of behaviour as well as mental process. It has been defined in many ways i.e. science of soul, science of mind, science of conscious and science of behaviour. It is composed of two Greek words Psyche and Logos, which means study of soul. It is becoming more and more complex with the complexity of society. It does not study human beings only it extends to the study of animals, birds, and all creatures possessing life. It has many branches, it is used in education, commerce, industry, health, and countless other fields. As psychology is involved in several different fields, psychologists do not agree upon one single definition of psychology.

1.4 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Define psychology briefly.
2. Briefly write four kinds of psychologies.
3. Do you agree that psychology is a science of soul?
4. Is psychology a science, how?
5. Which is the best definition of psychology according to this unit?

2. MEANING AND NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

2.1 An Overview

In the previous section, meaning and nature of psychology are discussed. There are many branches of psychology. One of them is educational psychology.

This branch of psychology is the scientific study of educational problems. Educational psychology, as a science consists of theories and principles applicable to teaching-learning process. It provides theoretical knowledge for better understanding of teaching – learning process in within the context of all its complexities and intricacies. In a few words educational psychology is a study of learning and teaching process. Education psychology is a posture applied social science. The educational psychologists study individual's teachers & taught as a social beings in varying social set-ups and situations. As an applied science, it draws on theories, principles and practices of psychology and constructs application in the area of education. The educational psychology studies the child's behaviour and suggests remedies to improve and to be an effective learner. The scope of educational psychology is confined to the study of individual's behaviour within context of educational institutional framework.

There are several pioneers who laid down the foundation of educational psychology before the beginning of 20th century. These pioneers stand out in the early history of educational psychology.

Soon after launching his first psychology textbook, "Principles of psychology" in 1890, William James (1842-1910) delivered a series of lectures called "Talks to Teacher" and discussed the applications of psychology to educate children. James argued that laboratory psychology experiments often tell us how to affectively teach children. He emphasized on importance of observing teaching and learning in classrooms for improving education.

A second major figure in shaping the field of educational Psychology was John Dewey (1859-1952), who became a driving force in the practical application of

psychology. Dewey stabilized the first major educational psychology laboratory in the United States, at the University of Chicago in 1894. Dewey believed that children learn best by doing. The Dewey advocated that education should focus on child as a whole. He laid emphasis on the child's adaptation to the environment. Dewey believed that children should not be just narrowly educated in academic topics. They should learn how to think and adapt to a world outside school. Children should learn how to be reflected problem solvers. Dewey was of a view that all children deserve to have a competent education. This democratic ideal was not in place at the beginning of Dewey's career. In the later part of nineteenth century, when quality education was reserved for small portion of children, especially boys from wealthy families, Dewey was one of the influential psychologist educators who pushed for a competent education for all children-girls and boys, as well as children from different socioeconomic and ethnic background.

A third pioneer was E.L. Thorndike (1874-1949), who initiated an emphasis on assessment and measurement. He promoted the scientific underpinnings of learning. He argued that one of the schooling's most important tasks is development of children's reasoning skills. He excelled at doing "exacting scientific studies" of teaching and learning (Beatty, 1998). Thorndike especially promoted the ideas that educational psychology must have a scientific base that it should focus strongly on measurement.

2.2 Definition of Educational Psychology

1. Dr. Abdul-Hai-Alvi writes in his book "Educational Psychology", "Educational Psychology means such education which explains about all those changes which take place right from birth till becoming adolescent at various stages of development. This knowledge tasks about all good or bad affects which effect upon a child's development, and in the light of this study forms such rules and regulations which are kept in mind during planning and management of the school. Study of human behaviour and inner mental processes are a specific of educational psychology.
2. Garrison has, defined it in these words, "Educational Psychology is name of that change which takes place as a result of social interaction which a child has developed on the basis of his experience and makes use of these during the process of learning.
3. Travees says, Educational Psychology is the name of educational process and action performed in a scientific manner.
4. Asubal has defined educational psychology in the following words, "It is such a knowledge which is related to student's reality, factors acting upon him and evaluation of all derived results in the class.

5. Gage and Barliner has very briefly defined educational psychology, “Educational psychology is such a knowledge which helps in solving teaching, learning process.

Educational psychology has been defined in so many ways to make you understand its boundaries and to bring you close to its clear concept. You must have noticed that some definitions are long and include training besides education. Some are so limited that they confine education to the classroom only and some take education only as the above definitions.

2.3 Scope of Educational Psychology

There are four main subjects of concern and interest of the educational psychologist:

- a) The Teacher
- b) The Learner
- c) The Learning Process
- d) The Learning Environment

2.3.1 The Teacher and Learner

Educational psychology is an organized study, its facts do not only depend upon teacher’s concepts of personal limited experience, they rather base upon vast experiences and deep observations evaluated in the light of scientific principles which prove its reality on scientific basis.

Educational psychology consists of vast concepts and its working area is not limited to the classroom only, but it deals with student and beyond the classroom too. It is not taught through formal methods only but is spreading through non-formal methods.

Teacher is the center of educational psychology which is the resultant of his personal concepts and environment, and study of the two resultants is essential to understand it.

By bringing a specific change in teacher’s behaviour, information and personality educational psychology provides scientific foundation. It means that changes in children are not the result of an abrupt action. Their foundation is based on mutual relationship of cause and action and all individual differences and their consideration during teaching is included in its success. It is not wrong to say that the basic difference in ancient and modern educational system is that the teacher of the past never considered individual differences of the children and presumed that all students were very intelligent, quiet, patient and tolerant, therefore each child must be able to understand difficult methods of languages, logic and mathematical formulas quite easily, where as today educational psychology has advised the teacher that neither each child can study every subject nor he should be taught forcefully. To teach each child, teacher has to bring a change in his teaching methods very carefully. Besides this learning period for each child can also differ from child to child i.e. one child has potentiality to pick up mathematics at the age of 6 years while other at the age of 7 years, and perhaps the third one at the age of 8 years.

Educational psychology plays a special attention towards abnormal children. Sometimes individual differences create a very difficult situation as some children are very intelligent, whereas others are dull or retarded children. For abnormal children educational psychology has emphasized upon separate curriculum for retarded children. For proper and correct learning teaching process, separate teaching method is very necessary.

Students mean learners of all levels. As a teacher you would like to know what the characteristics of children of different ages are, and what kind of information they can easily understand, and how that information should be provided to them. And not only this, but besides this it is important to know how hard they are different from each other in abilities, strengths and weaknesses and stages of developments. You must have often heard students saying this “teachers treat us as if we are absolutely ignorant” “our teachers ought to know that we are totally ignorant” about his topic, and he should explain it more elaborately and clearly. Sometime they say see our teacher has wasted so much time for such an ordinary matter, even a child knows it. It is not easy for a teacher to know at any level how students have come prepared and what are their characteristics. Therefore educational psychology provides him this kind of information and teachers pay attention towards them. In the light of those instructions and information teachers prepare the objectives of their lessons, and select relevant methods of teaching. You teach one subject to two different classes and if you are unaware about educational psychology, you will use one teaching method in both classes. But if you keep in mind then those characteristics, which affect the learning process, you will certainly adopt two different methods of teaching in different classes. Because may be that the students in one section have come with preparation, they might be having good control over the language, and perhaps most of them are from urban area and in the other section may be that majority is from rural areas, have less control on language, and have been appearing privately. Now while teaching other section instead of audio-visual aids you will use blackboard more often, will give more examples, questions and answers will be asked more. You might ask first section for detailed study and to write a report on those topics, their topics for article writings will be given according to their characteristics otherwise it is obvious that the result of the second group will be in failure. In short educational psychology helps in understanding children’s characteristics, point out their individual characteristics, and tells about their relationship with each other and how they affect each other, and what effect it causes upon learning, which are from heredity and which are achieved (learned). Teaching learning process become easy by understanding this information and a road is paved for student education.

2.3.2 The Learning Process

Learning process is another important topic of the educational psychology. Educational psychology has played an important role in making teacher’s teaching responsibilities more and more effective. Teacher tries to understand child’s personality and behaviour in order to find out ways and means to part education to the child, along with his personality development side by side. Several questions come up for making effective learning for

example what to teach and what not to teach the child. Why children learn such things which teacher does not like why children forget or why they soon forget something that kind of information children can retain for a longer period there are many such questions which are related to learning. In short, study of teaching learning process environment and methods of teaching are some important topics of educational psychology.

A teacher cannot succeed in his purpose until and unless his taught knowledge does not retain properly in students minds and at the time of need students are able to utilize that knowledge properly. For effective lesson, it is necessary to make students quite familiar with teaching learning process. In this regard teacher himself should be familiar with this process i.e. how to teach a child so that his present teaching may combine with his last teaching material how the child should be taken from easy to difficult so that he may learn easily and his interest may remain in the lesson how it should be repeated and revised, so that children may learn more and more in an effective way in less time. Besides this teacher should teach children some important rules of learning i.e. best study time why not to study several subjects at a time which subjects can be learnt together if needed so.

In learning second the most important topic is methodology of teaching. Teacher should take guidance from psychology to select the method of teaching, countering the class, age level, aptitude environment and need of the students. He can teach many things during playing some games to the small children. Playing games is essential and most fundamental requirement for motivation of young children. Similarly during teaching process, use of Audio-Visual-Aids will prove to be helpful for secondary and higher secondary students.

Educational Psychology not only teaches to this extent, it rather guides how much teaching material is required and when and how to present to the students. In the light of educational psychology from introduction to revision and from the use of blackboard to the technique of questions, teachers are benefited.

The Learning Environment: Besides methods of teaching, learning environment is an important topic in educational psychology. Teacher's personality, building, classroom size ventilation, proper lighting arrangement, suitable furniture, good administration, curriculum planning etc play important role. Generally speaking not only school, but social environment and family background are also discussed in it.

Educational Psychology Guidance, Counseling: Several students face several different kinds of problems due to education, teachers, and their colleagues, and students, emotional, social and relationships. An average teacher does not pay any attention to the guidance and help of such students, in such cases educational psychologists provide help through child guidance clinics, guidance and counseling. For criminal minded, harsh, dull, quarrelsome, bewildered, and permissive and backward children psychological and help is provided through psychologists, brain specialists and social workers jointly.

Educational Psychology and Mental Health: Where educational psychology has provided better rule and regulations of students educational activities has pointed out all such factors, causes and stimuli directly or indirectly effect upon the student's mental health. If they not only become retarded in education, they also lack behind in practical life. Mental regardless and backwardness is usually caused by bad environment, impure food, unsatisfactory emotional and social demands or due to unavailability of satisfactory biological and psychological needs. If children are not permitted to perform educational activates according to their potentialities even then their mental health is inversely affected. Precautionary measures can be taken for children's mental Hygiene with the help of psychological research.

2.4 Summary

There are many common tasks in teaching. Educational psychology gives us help in solving the problems that arise in performing those tasks. These problems can be found in all phases of teaching. Before teaching, during teaching, and post-instructional-and in all parts of teaching process-setting objectives, understanding student characteristics, appreciating the nature of the learning process, selecting and using teaching methods, and evaluating learning.

Educational objectives reflect the purpose of schooling in general and of teaching in particular. Educational psychology deals with ways of stating, classifying, and using these objectives in teaching. Student characteristics must be considered in understanding the different ways students learn. How they develop intellectually, socially and emotionally. Individual differences effect the teaching, learning process. It also influence teachers choice of teaching methods and ways in which teachers use and combine these methods to achieve the best results.

Finally, educational psychology helps us evaluate learning by means of tests, projects, or demonstrations of various kinds. The teaching tasks and the problems related to them set the research agenda for educational psychologists as they investigate effective teaching and learning.

2.5 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Define educational psychology.
2. Define individual differences.
3. What is the role of environment in learning?
4. Is mental health necessary for learning?
5. Are student characteristics necessary to know for effective teaching? If yes then how?

3. ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN TEACHING LEARNING PROCESS

Educational psychology does not treat teaching and learning as separate from each other. They are seen as closely related, mutually inclusive, interactive aspects of education.

Educational psychology plays a vital role in making teaching-learning effective. Educational psychologists examine several theories and techniques of learning skills and problem-solving. Educational psychology helps teachers to impart the subject matter to the students effectively. The teacher requires mastery over the subject matter and command over methods of teaching to effectively communicate and manage students in a classroom. A teacher must have adequate and sound knowledge of different theories and principles of teaching learning for achievement of better results of teaching – learning process.

3.1 Understanding the Learner

Teachers are to understand students, their behaviour, their level of understanding, their growth & development and their psychology. The study of psychology is imperative for a teacher to function as behavioural scientist to understand influence of school environment on children behaviour, and to have a deeper and critical understanding of educational process.

3.2 Understanding Instructional Problem

Educational psychology facilitates a teacher to understand instructional problems and to promote learning in and out of class rooms. A teacher has to provide guidance and counseling to students. The intensive study of educational psychology adequately equips a teacher with skills of guidance and counseling. A teacher must have knowledge of growth and development of a child and his or her requirements at different stages of development. The child is the central theme in educational psychology. The main concern of a educational psychologist how a child learns effectively, what changes happen in a child as a result of learning, why a child learns what motivates a child to learn and change, what a child wants to learn and why. There is always the same concern of an effective teacher.

3.3 Understanding Educational Process

The learners are also interested to have understanding of educational process. But their understanding of educational process may be considered as incomplete and to large extent pre-scientific. Educational psychology enhances the student's understanding of educational process and rectifies misconceptions. A teacher having analytical critical understanding of teaching – learning process is expected to be more effective than a teacher having not studied educational psychology. Having sound knowledge and strong grip over the subject matter is not sufficient to make a teacher competent and effective; it is very vital and imperative to know theories, principles, practices and applications of educational psychology. These help a teacher to understand material, social and

psychological being of the learner. An understanding of the psychological complications of what a teacher seeks to accomplish. Enhances competence and effectiveness of a teacher.

3.4 Self-Understanding as a Teacher

In addition to understanding of human behaviour and teaching-learning climate, self-analysis and self-understanding extend, convenience and comfort to manages class and ensures effective deliverance within the given learning situation. Knowledge of educational psychology enables a teacher to have better understanding of oneself, both as a person and as a teacher.

A teacher & possessing knowledge of educational psychology develops and adopts scientific attitude and view-point to deal with professional issues and academic pursuits. This encourages a teacher to proceed methodical while teaching students. Besides a teacher initiates to trace course effect relationship to resolve whatever happens in classroom. A teacher learns to approach academic issues and problems with open-mind and clear-thinking.

The contribution of educational psychology to enhancement of teaching-learning process-effectiveness and efficiency cannot be denied and ignored.

“Psychology serves as a foundational discipline in education just as physical sciences serve engineering”.

Just as the physical sciences serve engineering. Engineers designing a bridge or a refinery must have knowledge of physics and chemistry, of course but also must have aesthetic, economic, and political understanding. Similarly teachers must combine insights from educational psychology with their thinking about what is good for their students and for society with sociological awareness of community dynamics, economic analysis of costs, and political knowledge about the connections between government and education. So a teacher might combine psychological knowledge about the probable effects of his or her expectations on the achievement of boys and girls in an auto-mechanic course with:

- Philosophical ideas about the nature of equality.
- Sociological understanding of the community’s opinion about female mechanics.
- Economic information about job market for women and about the cost of training mechanics.
- Political insights into problems of obtaining financial support from the schools.

3.4.1 Effects of Educational Psychology

Educational psychology can provide insight into many aspects of educational practices. It offers important ideas about learning and about influence in learning in families, business and industry, and the community. It also bears on educational administration, curriculum development, counseling, and other educational activities. But this unit of educational psychology is most concerned with the teaching and learning processes in classroom.

Educational psychology is applied while making decisions or choices in the following basic tasks involved in teaching-learning process:

- Choosing and setting objectives.
- Understanding and billing the nature of learning process.
- Selecting and using teaching-methods
- Evaluating and assessing students learning and academic performance.

3.5 Summary

Teaching and learning are closely related with each other. They are mutually inclusive and interactive components of education. Knowing of educational psychology theories, principles, applications and practices, enables a teacher to make teaching-learning process effective. The study of psychology is essential for a teacher to understand learners, to provide guidance and counseling to them and to create positive & learning-teaching environment. Equipped with theories and concepts of educational psychology, a teacher can better understand himself or herself as a person and as a teacher. This enables a teacher to effectively manage a class. An understanding of the psychological implications of what a teacher attempts to accomplish enhances his/her competence and effectiveness.

3.6 Self-Assessment Questions

1. “The study of psychology is comparative for a teacher to function as behavioural scientist”. Disuses.
2. “Knowing theories & concepts of educational psychology enables a teacher to manage class-environment better”. Comment.

4. METHODS OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Inefficient teaching methods are particularly disastrous at a time when society is in a state of rapid change. Technology is currently altering the quality of everyday life in ways that could not have been foreseen even a few decades ago with extension of automatic controls, some human skills are becoming obsolete almost overnight while new needs of production are created with equal speed. It would appear that we must be prepared not only for continuous change, but for the possibility of constantly increasing rate of change.

Education cannot remain static under such conditions if it is to survive as a prime shaper of human destiny. What the current situation requires, above all else, is a comprehensive approach to the problems of maintaining efficiency in an ever-changing context. I shall discuss the past and future place within psychology of two historic streams of method, thought, and affiliation, which run through the last century of our science. One stream is experimental psychology; and other correlation psychology. Dashiell optimistically forecast a confluence of these two streams, but that confluence is still in the making.

The job of science is to ask questions of nature. A discipline is method of asking questions and of testing answers to determine whether they are sound. Scientific psychology is still young, and there is a rapid turnover in our interests, our experimental apparatus and our tests, and our theoretical concepts. But our methods of inquiry have become increasingly stable and it is these methods which qualify us as scientists rather than philosophers or artists.

4.1 The Separation of the Disciplines

The experimental method—where the scientist changes conditions in order to observe their consequences. Everyone knows what experimental psychology is and who the experimental psychologists are. Correlational psychology, though fully as old as experimentation, was slower to mature. It qualifies equally as a discipline, however and has technical methods of examining whether the question has been properly put and the data properly interpreted. In contrast to the Tight Little Island of the experimental discipline, Correlational psychology is a set of Holy Roman Empire, whose citizens identify mainly with their own principalities. The discipline, the common service in which the principalities are united in the study of correlations presented by Nature. While the experimenter is interested only in the variation, he himself creates.

The well-known virtue of the experimental method is that it brings situational variables under tight control. It thus permits rigorous tests of hypothesis and confident statements about causation.

4.2 The Correlational Method

The correlational method, for its part, can study what a person has not learned to control or can never hope to control. Nature has been experimenting since the beginning of time, with a boldness and complexity far beyond the resources of science.

The correlator's as a minimum outcome, such correlations improve immediate decisions and guide experimentation. At the best, a Newton, a Lyell or Darwin can align the correlations into a substantial theory.

During our century of scientific psychology, the correlators have marched under many flags, in perhaps the first modern discussion on scientific method in psychology (1984) Wundt (54) showed how "Experimental Psychology" and "Ethnic Psychology" (i.e. cross-cultural correlations) supplemented each other. In one of the most recent (1953) Bindra and Scheir (4) speak of the interplay of "Experimental" and "Psychometric" methods. At the turn of the century, the brand names were "Experimental" and "Genetic" Psychology although, experimenters were also beginning to contrast their "General Psychology" with the "individual psychology" of Stern and Binet.

In 1913, Yerkes made the fundamental point that all the correlational psychologies are one. His name for this branch was "Comparative psychology". Even in advocating research on animals (56) Yerkes is emphatic in defining the goals as correlation across

species. In France, psychology continues to include all of differential psychology; but in America as Beach has lamented, Comparative psychology degenerated into the experimental psychology of the white rat and thereby lost the power of the correlational discipline.

Except the defection of animal psychologists, the correlational psychologists have remained loosely federated. Developmental been well acquainted both personally and intellectually. They study the same courses, they draw on the same literature,

“Experimental and correlational psychologists, however, grew far apart in their training and interests.”

Certainly the scientific values of psychologists are sharply divided Thorndike recently asked American psychologists to rate various historic personages by indicating, on a forced-choice questionnaire. A true federation of the disciplines is required. Kept independent, they can give only wrong answers or no answers at all regarding certain important problems. It is shortsighted to argue for one science to discover the general laws of mind or behaviour. The tide of separation in psychology has already turned. The perceiver has reappeared in perceptual psychology. The students of personality have been designing subtle combination may ultimately prove to be our parallel to the emergence of physical chemistry.

4.3 Science for Psychology

Psychologists have chosen science as their method for gaining knowledge. Psychologists are interested in explaining, predicting, and controlling behaviour, and they found that scientific method is the best method for reliably and validly accomplishing this end.

Psychology has several features that should be stressed. It is concerned with accumulating and explaining facts systematically. It is not the amassing of facts itself that is important, but rather the organization of the facts into explanatory system. People have known the fact that rocks, rain, books and other objects fall down when dropped, but cataloging the objects that fall does not lead to any scientific understanding. Adding the concept of gravity provides the component that is critical to science,

“Science uses explanatory concepts together with facts to provide knowledge.”

In a similar fashion Pavlov observed a fact that many other people had observed: Animals often salivate before they are fed. He also observed the fact that the noise of preparing to feed the dogs always preceded that actual feeding. Putting these two facts together, Pavlov concluded that salivation occurred because the dogs had learned that the sounds meant that food was about to be served. This is called classical conditioning. Psychology uses empiricism, science is concerned with studying only those things that can be observed or inferred from such observations. A variety of tools used in science today are to extend our abilities to change them.

4.4 Scientific Method

The scientific method is a special approach for solving problems and may be pictured as a continuous process involving the six steps. These are considered basic in problem, solving process.

(i) To Identify the Problem

To delineate the problem clearly and to assess whether the scientific method can be used to answer the problem i.e. the scientific method cannot be used to determine whether slavery or freedom is better. It cannot be used with problems requiring moral judgment.

(ii) Hypothesis

Hypothesis is formed by using all available reformation (such as other research and theories to state a possible solution to the problem.

(iii) Definition of Term

All terms should be clearly defined to avoid ambiguity so that there is little question about the problem, because so many terms have values attached to them. Punishment is good example; others are success, conservative, development and right.

(iv) Observation

Study is conducted to make observations, relevant to the variables of interest. This may require and extensive search of the research literature, detailed observations, or an experiment in which all variables are carefully controlled.

(v) Analysis

The fifth step is to analyze the data that are obtained from observations. Several forms of analysis may be performed on the same data to assess different aspect of them. Scrutinizing the data carefully is critical to the scientific method.

(vi) Conclusion

The final step is to draw conclusions by interpreting the data collected. Facts are desirable in psychology, but facts must be organized in relation to one another before they can be used to understand, explain, or control behaviour. Therefore, the researcher must address a series of questions at this stage.

- Do the data relate to the research problem originally posed?
- What do the data indicate the variable relationships are?
- Can the data interpretations be generalized to other people or situations?
- Does a theory needs to be revised or a new one created to take into account the interpretation of the data?
- What future research is suggested by data interpretation?

If a researcher cannot answer any or all of these questions, then the steps will probably to be repeated and additional observations made in order that they may be answered in the future.

People have always sought to understand, explain and control the things and events around them. Common sense, reason, authority, magic and science are among the systems that have been used.

4.5 Different Strategies of Knowing

Ways of knowing:

- (i) Common Sense
- (ii) Metaphysics
- (iii) Authority
- (iv) Science

(i) Common Sense

The early understanding through common sense-from practical judgment and experience in everyday life. Common sense may be defined as a connected series of concepts that help people to make sense out of a chaotic environment and function more effectively in it. Common sense:

“Common sense is a connected series of concepts that help people to make sense out of a chaotic environment and to function more effectively in it.”

Deductions probably led to the use of fire and the development of the wheel.

Although common sense conclusions have been and can be valuable, they can be wrong. For example, early observations of learning process by educators and psychologists led to the common sense conclusion that practice enhances (increases) learning- “practice practice makes a man perfect”. Observations of highly skilled individuals such as musicians and artists, who practice a great deal to perfect their abilities, probably contributed to this belief. As a result students have been asked to recite alphabet and multiplication tables and to complete large homework assignments. Although these practices may contribute to learning, pioneering learning theorists such as Thorndike (1930) pointed out that the result may not always be positive. He argued that the consequences of practice determine (at least in part) the effectiveness of practice. For example, students must know that their recitations of the alphabets are accurate before practice will improve their performance. Merely repeating behaviour without feedback only produces fatigue and decrease motivation to practice.

General examples of the shortcomings of common sense evaluate how effective the following Maxims are as guides for behaviour:

- 1.a Absence makes the heart grow fonder.
- 1.b Out of sight, out of mind.
- 2.a Look before you leap.
- 2.b He who hesitates is lost.
- 3.a Opposites attract
- 3.b Birds of a feather flock together.

(ii) Metaphysics

Metaphysics is a system (more accurately, a group of systems) by which knowledge is gained by reason and not by experiencing the world; It is a rational approach to knowledge of ultimate causation and reality. It deals with the cause and principles of existing things, not with experience. Rationalists do not

“Rationalism, a metaphysical system, regards human reason as the only reliable guide to knowledge not faith or experience.”

Believe that it is necessary to verify knowledge by either faith or experience.

(iii) Authority

Some individuals believe that they cannot find the answers they seek on their own turn to and authority. Thus, we ask lawyers for advice only legal matters and doctors for advice on medical problems we turn to political leaders, parents, scholars and religious leaders for answers. For example religion is used as a system.

(iv) Science

Scholars, unhappy with the weakness of existing ways of knowing, learned to integrate the strength of these ways of knowing into a new approach: the scientific method of particular importance is that deductive and inductive reasoning were incorporated into the scientific method. In induction observed facts are used to generate theories or hypothesis that is consistent. With those facts; in deduction, specific implications are derived from a theory Charles Darwin is generally considered the first person to combine the deductive and inductive processes together to acquire knowledge.

“According to Kerlinger (1973, p.11) science is the “systematic, controlled, and 1 critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about presumed relations among natural phenomena”.

Thus, science is what scientist’s do-science is a dynamic process. As such, it is based on the cause and-effect laws. This assumption is called determinism. The concept of determinism is sometimes misunderstood and often confused with predeterminism.

4.6 Summary

With the rapid change in society method of educational psychology need to be changed. As education is a prime shaper of human behaviour, it is necessary that it should change its methodology to cope with the rapid changes in technology. Education psychology a key to effective education must also change accordingly. Job of science is to ask questions in a disciplined way. It is done in two separate ways (a) experimental (b) correlational. In experimental method scientist changes conditions in order to observe their consequences. In correlational method distinctive type of questions are asked which are tested technically to find the authenticity of the questions put. The virtue of experimental method is that it brings situational variables

under tight control and rigorous tests of hypothesis and confident statements are done. The correlator's mission is to observe and organize the data from nature's experiments. It has marched under many flags. Psychologists differ in their point of view but in 1913 Yerkes made the fundamental point that all the correlational psychologies are one.

Psychology is concerned with accumulating and explaining facts systematically. It is not the amassing of facts itself that is important but rather the organization of the facts into explanatory system. Psychology follows six steps in problem solving just like scientific method in all other sciences. It observes the facts and then tests it rigorously. A researcher must address series of questions before use.

People have always sought to understand, explain and control the things and events around them and have used different systems like, common sense, reason, authority and science.

4.7 Self-Assessment Questions

1. What different methods are used to acquire knowledge?
2. What different steps are in scientific method?
3. Differentiate between experimental and correlational discipline?

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Unit-2

HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The study of Human Development enables to understand oneself and the people around. Human beings undergo many complex processes of growth and development throughout life. Individuals have the potential to grow, to change, and to develop.

The main focus of the unit is to elucidate human development, particularly from childhood to adolescences. The unit intends to trace influences and choices that constitute and construct personality traits and forces that may affect on individual's person.

In this unit, the students are introduced to the most prominent theories relating to human development and how to study people as a social scientist.

The unit also attempts to discuss the physical and moral development at various age levels.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you would be able to:

1. Differentiate between "Growth and "Development"
2. Explain social learning theory
3. Elaborate theoretical perspectives about development
4. Describe patterns of social behaviour during different development stages
5. Elaborate moral development with the help of different theories.

1. FUNDAMENTALS OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

1.1 Meaning of Growth and Development

(a) Meaning of Growth

The physical development of human body is referred to as growth. It is manifested in the form of enlargement of some parts of the body or the body as a whole. For example, increase in weight or in height indicates growth. As a result of growth, human body becomes larger and heavier. A change in the organism which can be observed and measured quantitatively is termed as growth.

(b) Meaning of Development

The term development refers to “a progressive series of changes that take place as a result of maturation and experience”. (Hurlock, 1980) Development implies qualitative changes. But all changes in behaviour are not developments (Dash & Neena, 2003) some of the changes in behaviour may be temporary and transient such changes cannot be called developments. Those changes in behaviour or traits that seem to emerge in an orderly manner and sustain for a reasonable long period of time are considered as development. (Conger and Kagan, 1979). These changes in behaviour are more stable well organized, more complex and healthier. Such changes lead to greater maturity and more advancement. Development starts from childhood, does not cease at adolescence, rather continues throughout life. According to Peary London, “Development means the whole sequence of life from conception to death.

(c) Distinction between Growth and Development

A Clearcut line of demarcation can be drawn between “Growth” and “Development” is more comprehensive than the term growth.

- (i) Growth refers to changes in the particular aspect or aspects of the body whereas development implies the organization as a whole.
- (ii) Growth stop at a certain stage of life where as development continues throughout life. Development means a progressive, an orderly and coherent pattern of changes till death.
- (iii) Growth usually constitutes to the development, but not always. A human body may become fat and heavier with accompanied by any development.
- (iv) Development may be possible without any significant growth. For example, some children do not grow in size but they do develop ability.
- (v) Growth is structural whereas development is functional. But a structure is of no use without its functions and function is a meaningless without structure.

These differences between “Growth” and Development are not real. These terms are very much related interchangeable and commonly used in the same sense.

The study of human development is the scientific study of quantitative and qualitative way people change over time. The field of human development has itself developed as scientific discipline. Today development attempts to explain why certain patterns of behaviour occur. By learning about the usual course of development, we can understand

and look at different factors in an individual life, their influence on human life and predict future behaviour.

Understanding adult development and transaction of adulthood help professional and lay persons alike to be prepared for life's situation.

1.2 Aspects of Development

Human development is complex, for growth and change occur in different facts of the self. We will discuss separately about physical, cognitive, personality and moral development in coming chapters. There is a great deal of overlap among these since each type of development affects development in the other spheres.

(a) Physical Development

Changes in height, weight more abilities, brain development and health related issues all part of physical development, exert a major influence on both personality and intellect.

(b) Cognitive Development

Mental abilities such as learning, memory, reasoning, and thinking (our intellectual capabilities) change one time and are closely related to both the physical and the emotional aspects of our being.

(c) Personality Development

Our unique way of dealing with the world, the way we get along with other people and our feeling, and emotional development affect both the physical and the cognitive aspects of functioning. A person's anxiety while taking a test, for example, can result in a poor performance and an underestimation of intellectual competence.

1.3 Theoretical Perspectives about Development

The way we explain development, depends on the way we view the basic nature of the human being. Different thinkers have seen as through different prisms and their ideas about our fundamental nature have given rise to different explanations, or theories. Theories are attempts to organize data or information, to explain why certain events occur.

Theories can range in scope from simple "Bunches" about why something happens to more complex multiplications to elaborate explanation. They try to integrate a great deal of information about a number of related events.

There is no one theory that is universally accepted by all the developmentalists. Nor is there any one theory that explains all facts of development. Different theories have different perspectives for looking at the way people develop. These perspectives dictate the question they ask, the research methods they use, and the way they interpret their data.

(a) The Mechanistic Perspective

It's view of humanity equates people with machines, it sees people as reacting, rather than initiating. We are what our environment makes of us. Mechanistic theories see

change as quantitative (change in the amount rather than kind) and development as continuous. This view is held by Social Learning Theorists and Behaviourists.

Behaviourists focus on behaviour that can be seen, measured and recorded. They believe that human beings learn about the world in the same way as animals by reacting to the rewards, reinforcements or punishments of their environments. According to these theorists conditioning is the basic mechanism determines human behavior. Two kinds of conditioning are

(i) Classical (Respondent) Conditioning

This was first demonstrated by Ivan Pavlov (1839-1946). A previously neutral stimulus comes to elicit a response, not ordinarily associated with it. According to this theory our personality and we developed through such associations, or conditioned situations.

(ii) Operant Conditioning

This was shown by B.F. Skinner (1904). A system of rewards and punishments shapes a response. New responses are acquired in their way. For attaining different rewards and avoiding different punishment, we perform different some specific acts, which ultimately become the parts of our personality.

Behaviourism emphasizes the role of environment in producing behaviour. It only considers quality of behaviour and the possibility of qualitative change, it is not a true developmental theory, since it applies the same basic learning laws to explain behaviors at all ages. It is however a powerful tool for enhancing development along certain lines and has been useful in desiring behaviour modification programmes and programmed learning. Applying behaviorist's principles, parents and teachers can shape children's behaviour by rewarding the actions they consider desirable and by punishing or ignoring the undesirable ones.

Alert Bandura share the mechanistic perspective of behaviorist, but disagrees that all behaviors are redmible to simple principles of conditioning and reinforcement. The social learning theorists maintain that children learn most, if not all of their behaviour by observing and immitating models, like their parents children's identification with their parents, who shape their behaviors through a system of rewards and punishments is the most important element in the way they learn a language, deal with aggression, and develop a sense of morality.

Social learning theories are also clearly defined and generated differences research methods and also had many application for child rearing. But these are incomplete because of their lack of attention to heredity influences and to what children are like in various stages of their development.

(b) The Organismic Perspective

In direct contrast to mechanistic model, the organismic model sees people as active organisms who, by their own actions, set their own development in motion. The mechanist believe organists are more interested in process than in product in how an

individual comes to believe certain things and acts in certain ways, rather than in the specifics of a person's thought or behavior. They are more interested in qualitative change rather than quantitative, in the leaps from one stage of development to another.

Jean Piaget (1896—1980) was the most prominent advocate of the organismic world view. Much of what we know about the way children learn is due to the creative inquiry of this semi-psychologist. Piaget explained many aspects of children's thought and behaviour by considering them as going through definite stages. Each stage represents a qualitative change from one type of thought or behaviour to another. Such stage theories have certain characteristics points to make. All individuals go through the same stages in the same order. Even though the actual timing will vary from one person to another making any age demarcation only approximate. Each stage builds on the one that went before and constructs the foundation for the one that comes next. And each stage has many facets to it.

According to Piaget at each stage of development, an individual's personal representation, of the world-or, to use the Piagetian term, his or her Scheme will become more complex, more abstract and more realistic. This cognitive growth results from a two-step process of taking in new information about the world and changing one's ideas to include this new knowledge.

Piaget's four major stages of cognitive development are.

(i) Sensori Motor (0 to 2 Years)

Infants acquire knowledge about the world through their senses and their motor activity. During sensori motor stage the infant changes from a being who respond primarily through reflexes to one who can organize his/her activities in relating to the environment. The major cognitive acquisition is the realization that the world is a permanent place and that the people, places and things in it continue to exist even when they are out of view.

(ii) Pre-Operational (2 to 7 Years)

In this stage the child develops a representational system and uses symbols such as words to represent people, place and events. The thinking of the preoperational child is still immature. Because of his egocentrism, the child has difficulty considering the point of view of others.

(iii) Concrete Operations (7 to 11 Years)

The child begins to understand and use concepts that help him deal with the immediate environment during this stage. The child can solve problems logically if they are focused on actual things and events. The most important cognitive skills acquired are conservation and the realization that two things that started off the same remain the same even if they are made to look different as long as nothing has been added or taken away from them.

(iv) Formal Operations (12 to 15 Years)

The individual can think in abstract terms and deal with hypothetical situation in this stage. He or she is able to consider many possibilities and solve complex problems in a systematic way.

(c) The Psychoanalytic Perspective

This model was presented by a Viennese Physician Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) and does not fit neatly into either of the above models. The psychoanalytic perspective holds that people are neither active nor passive but always in flux between the two states, always in conflict between their natural instincts and the constraints imposed upon them by society. The analytic thinker is conserved with unconscious drives and motives that underlie behaviour.

To the psychoanalyst, a child is a reactive organism whose development proceeds through stages. In Freudian thought the human being goes through several stages of psychosexual development, named for those parts of body that are primary sources of gratification in each phase. These phases are

(i) Oral Stage (Birth to 12–18 Months)

The infant gets pleasure in the oral stage through such oral activities as sucking eating & biting. The area of gratification is mouth. According to Freud sucking does not only provide nourishment but also provides a sexual gratification.

(ii) Anal Stage (12–18 Months to 3 Years)

During the second year the pleasure center shifts from the mouth to the anal area. The child finds sexual gratification in with holding and expelling feces. Toilet training is an important aspect of this stage.

(iii) Phallic Stage (3 to 5-6 Years)

This stage is time of the “Family romance” the Oedipus complex in boys and the Electra complex in girls. The child “falls in love” with the parents of the other sex (e.g. a boy may feel sexual attraction towards his mother), but eventually find this too anxiety arousing and as a result he or she represses these feelings and identifies with the same-sex parent. The zone of gratification shifts from the arms to the genital portion, even though mature sexuality has not yet arrived.

(iv) Latency Stage (5-6 Years to Puberty)

It is a time of relative sexual calm between the turbulence of the phallic and genital stage.

(v) Genital Stage (From Puberty On)

During the genital stage the hormonal changes in the body give rise to mature adult sexuality. Sexual urges reawaken to be directed toward heterosexual relations with people outside the family.

The experiences during these stages determine adjustment patterns and personality traits people will have as adults. According to Freud individuals may be **Fixated** at a particular stage if their needs are not met or if they are over indulged. **Fixation** is an arrest in development that occurs because a child has been gratified too much or too little that be stacked with the particular stage of development. For example, the infant who is weaved too early or who is allowed to suck too much may become fixated at the oral stage and may become overly dependent or distrustful.

Freud also conceptualized the human personality as being made up of three aspects.

(a) Id (Pleasure Principle)

Id: The id is the unconscious source of desires & motives which operates on “**Pleasure Principle**”. It demands immediate gratification of primary needs e.g. thrust hunger, sex etc.

(b) Ego (Reality Principle)

Ego: The ego represents reason or common sense, mediates between the id and the super ego. It operates on the “**Reality Principle**” and seeks an acceptable way to obtain gratification.

(c) Super Ego (Moral Values)

Super Ego: The superego, or conscience, caters the morals of society. Id is present at birth. Ego develops by the end of the first year and the superego does not develop until the age of 4 or 5.

Freud also described the existence of a number of **defense mechanisms**, psychological mind-sets that operate unconsciously distorting reality for the purpose of protecting the ego. Ego uses these defense mechanism usually against or for blaming the demands of id. Among the most common defense are regression repression sublimation, projection and so on e.g. people repress those thoughts which may produce guilt of they manifest them.

Freud’s original and creative thinking made us aware of infantile sexuality, the nature of our unconscious thoughts and emotions, our defense mechanisms, the significance of dreams, the important of parent child relationship in the early years and many other aspects of emotional functioning.

Yet in many ways Freud’s theory is not justifiable. e.g. his over emphasis on unconscious, sex and related conflicts.

Erick H. Erickson psychoanalyst who extended the Freudian concept of ego is interested in society’s influence on the developing personality. Erikson outlined eight stages of psychosocial development. Each of which depends upon the successful resolution of a turning point or crisis. According to Erickson’s theory, a person undergoes a different major conflict at each stage. The way each stage is or is not resolved influences the individual’s ultimate personality development. His theory gives credit to social and

cultural influences on development, whereas Freud's focuses on biological and maturational factors.

Another strength of Eriksson's theory is that it covers the entire life span, while Freud stops at adolescence Erickson has been criticized because some of his concepts are difficult to assess objectively to use as the basic for follow-up research.

Table 1.1 Developmental Stages According to Various Theories

Ages	Psychosexual Stages (Freud)	Psychosocial Stages (Erikson)	Cognitive Stages (Piaget)
10-18 Months	Oral	Trust Vs. Mistrust	Sensori Motor
18 Months to 3 Years	Anal	Autonomy Vs. Doubt/Shame	Sensori Motor
3-5 Years	Phallic	Initiative Vs. Guilt	Preoperational Stage
6-11 Years	Latency	Industry Vs Inferiority	Concrete Operational
12-17 Years	Genital	Identify Vs. Role Confusion	Formal Operational
Young Adulthood	—	Intimacy Vs. Isolation	Beginning to Develop
Maturity	—	Generality Vs. Stagnation	—
Old Age	—	Ego Integrity Vs. Despair	—

(d) Humanistic Perspective

In 1962, a group of psychologists founded the Association of Humanistic psychology as a reaction against what they considered the mechanistic and the psychodynamic theories. The humanistic perspective, like organism views people as having within them the ability to take charge of their lives and to foster their own development. Furthermore these theories emphasize the individual's abilities to do this in healthy, positive ways through the distinctively human qualities of choice, creativity valuation and self-realization. This theory stems from a belief that basic human nature is either neutral or good and that any bad characteristics are the result of damage that has been inflicted on the development self.

This theory presents a less developmental perspective than organismic and psychoanalytic views, since its proponents do not clearly distinguish stages of the life span, but make a broad distinction only between the periods before and after adolescence. However two principal leaders in humanistic psychology, Abraham Maslow and Charlotte Butter, do talk about sequential stages in the development of the individual. In the sense the theory describe the psychological growth of the person.

1.4 Factors Influencing Development

There are various factors which play important role in a child's development. These factors which affect a child's development are categorized as under:-

- a) Genetic Factors (Heredity)
- b) Physiological Factors (Maturation)
- c) Environmental Factors (Learning Experience)

(a) Genetic Factors (Heredity)

Every child is born with certain characteristics, which are inherited from the parents at the time of conception. Heredity is complex and complicated process of passing on biological and mental characteristic from parents to their children or from one generation to another. In other words, we can say that heredity is what nature contributes to an individual.

Life begins from the moment of conception means the union of two germ cells, one germ cell from the mother called the ovum or the egg and (one germ cell from the father called the sperm). The union of the particular ovum of the mother and the particular sperm of the father lays the foundation for the characteristic development of the child.

Each of these germ cells has nucleus which contains long threadlike structures called the chromosomes. The pairing of chromosomes at the moment of conception occurs purely by chance and varies from conception to conception. This is why children in the same family differ from each other so widely.

Each chromosome contains thousands of tiny structures called the genes. The genes are the real carriers of hereditary characteristic. There are millions of genes in a single chromosome. Each gene carries a specific or characteristic, such as the colour of the eye, the shape of the nose, the height of the body, the spread of fingers, the chin, the forehead, etc. Children inherit characteristics from their parents through combination of genes. Combination of genes varies from conception to conception and this produces variation in children's growth and development.

In the process of genes combination, some genes are dominant and some are recessive. Either the father's genes are dominant or the mother's genes are dominant. It happens that some genes of the father and some genes of the mother are dominant. The dominant genes determine the characteristic of the child. Suppose the father is tall, and the mother is short. If the father's genes are dominant, the child will be tall, if the mother's genes is dominant, the child will be short. This is why tall fathers have tall children and at times tall fathers have short children.

The child inherits traits not only from his near parents but also from his ancestors. This is why a child has the chin of his mother, the forehead of his father, the eyes from his grandfather, the nose from his grandmother. A child may not resemble any near parents but he may inherit his traits from some remote member of his ancestry. In fact, a child owes $\frac{1}{2}$ of his original equipment to his parents, $\frac{1}{4}$ to his grandparents, $\frac{1}{8}$ to his great-grandparents and so on.

(b) Physiological Factors (Maturation)

Development of physiological and anatomical structures of human body is called as maturation. Maturation remarkably influences the development of specific patterns of behaviour. When first time a child walks or talks, this reflects that maturation is at work. The child first creeps, then crawls and then walks. The first behaviour creeping takes place only when the infant is mature to do so. Whatever training may provided, the infant cannot perform the act until the child body is matured to do it.

(c) Environmental Factors (Learning Experience)

Environmental factors are as equally important as genetic and physiological factors in child's development. Environment is a broad term which includes the home, the school, the locality, the social and moral surrounding, all types of events, circumstances and influences, all types of stimulations, encouragement, guidance, opportunities, enrichment activities and deprivations, training, education and experiences, and in fact, everything that is externally operated either consciously or unconsciously by parents, teachers community and others to influence or help the child to develop along the desired line.

A child grows in education determined by heredity, develops his potentialities by appropriate environmental stimulation. Genetic factors determine base, physiological factors determine sequence of development and environmental factors influence the pace and limit of development.

1.5 Summary

The study of human development is the scientific study of the quantitative and qualitative ways people change over time although we can look separately at various aspects of development (e.g. physical, intellectual personality/social/emotional), we must remember that these do not occur in isolation. Each effect the other, different theoretical approaches cover the developmental span. The mechanistic position holds that human beings are reactive rather than initiative. The focus is on contributors to their own development. These theorists view development as occurring in a series of qualitatively different stages. There is from the psychoanalytic perspective are interested in the underlying forces that motivate behaviour.

1.6 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Explain the terms “growth” and “development”. State the differences between the two terms.
2. Discuss different aspects of development.
3. Critically evaluate different theoretical perspective about development.
4. Discuss the factors influencing a child's development.

2. PHYSICAL GROWTH & DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Fertilization (The parental period)

The prenatal period lasts roughly 280 days and is divided into three stages.

- a) The Germinal Stage
- b) The Embryonic Stage
- c) The Fetal Stage

(a) The Germinal Stage

Conception marks the beginning of the first prenatal stage, the germinal stage. **Conception** involves **fertilization** of an ovum (egg) by a sperm and usually occurs in fallopian tube. During the next 10–14 days the zygote (fertilized egg) repeatedly divides as it travels to the uterus. The divisions are mitotic; meaning that the cell merely replicates itself. The mass of cells that implants in the lining of the uterus is therefore a mass of undifferentiated cells, each one exactly like the others.

(b) The Embryonic Stage

When the cells mass implants the embryonic stage begins. For the next six weeks the cells differentiate in both structure and function.

Some cells develop into protective structures, including the placenta the umbilical cord, and the amniotic sac. The placenta is the protective organ that surrounds and supports the embryo and facilitates nourishment and waste elimination. The umbilical cord carries blood containing nutrients from the mother to the embryo via the placenta. It discharges wastes from the embryo in suspension of fluid called amnion.

Other differentiating cells develop into an actual body structure. By eight weeks past conception a rudimentary form of each body structure is present, although many of them are nonfunctional.

(c) The Fetal Stage

The fetal stage begins when a basic form of each structure is present. For the remaining 32 weeks, cells continue to divide and differentiate to produce functional body structures and to increase in the size and weight of the fetus development proceeds in a cephalocaudal (“head to tail”) fashion. This is why the newborn’s head is so large relative to the rest of the body at birth.

The fetus is still totally dependent on the mother for nutrients and discharge of wastes.

Problems in Prenatal Development

Although the course of prenatal development is genetically determined, the developing child is susceptible to pollutants resulting from the uterine environment. Because the blood supplies of mother and child interact, substances in her blood can be passed into the child’s body. The placenta functions as a primitive filtration system, but many substances

including drugs and viruses, can enter the child's blood stream and affect the course of parental development. For example;

- Smoking during pregnancy is associated with low birth weight and prematurely.
- The viral infection rubella (German measles) is associated with blindness and deafness.
- **Birth**
The birth process begins some 266 days after conception and occurs in three stages.
 - (i) During the first stage uterine contractions cause the cervix to dilate.
 - (ii) During the second stage, the baby descends from the uterus and emerges from the mother's body.
 - (iii) During the third stage the placenta and umbilical cord are expelled.

Obstetric medicine can have harmful effects on the newborn. Natural and prepared birth is beneficial both physiologically and psychologically. For normal births cesarean is an effective technique. Such birth are called "Birth without violence" it is a childbirth technique designed to minimize the trauma of birth.

Birth trauma and low birth weight can influence a child's early adjustment to life outside the womb and may even exert an influence on later development.

2.2 Heredity and Environment

Today there is a less emphasis on the question of which factor heredity or environment, determines development. Most researchers view development as the result of an interaction of heredity and environmental factors. Behaviors & characteristics are seen as resulting from the combined effect of genetic inheritance and experience. Although some researchers attempt to determine the relative amount of each influence, usually as a percentage (the heritability ratio, many believe that each factor affects the other to produce a result not equal to the sum of the two influences.

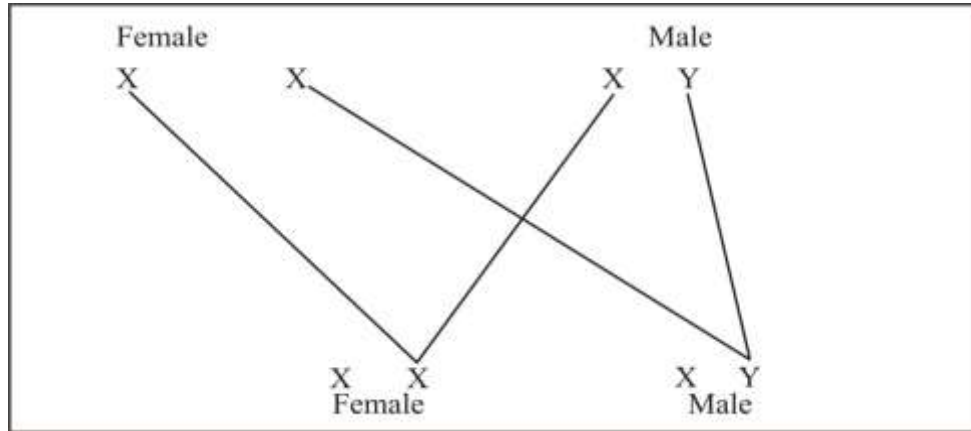
The Role of Genetics

Genes are the basic elements of genetic transmission. A chromosome is a chain formed by a combination of nearly 20,000 genes. Chemically genes consist of de-oxyribnucleic acid, usually abbreviated DNA, which contains codes for synthesizing the proteins that form the body and guide its functioning. In essence DNA, defines our genetic inheritance. Mature reproductive cells or genetic-sperm for male and ova for females-have 23 chromosomes at each. At conception a fertilized egg is formed with 23 pairs of chromosomes one number of each pair having be contributed by each parent. From this point on, all body cells except gametes contain the same 23 pairs of chromosomes.

Determination of Sex

At the moment of conception, every human being receives a total of 46 chromosomes or 23 pairs. 23 form the sperm and twenty from the ovum. Two Pairs are **autosomes** the twenty third pair, the sex chromosomes, determines the child's sex. The sex chromosomes of every ovum (female) is an X chromosomes but the sperm (male) may carry either and X or a small sized Y chromosomes. When an ovum (X) meets an (X)

carrying sperm. The zygote is XX a female. When an ovum is fertilized by a Y carrying sperm the zygote is XY, a male. So it is the father who determines the child's sex.



Dominant and Recessive Genes

Because each cell contains pairs of chromosomes, each cell contains pairs of genes. Many genes come in two forms differing in potency. The more powerful form is called dominant gene. The weaker form is called the recessive gene. The code of recessive gene will be expressed only if its dominant counterpart is absent.

Genotype and Phenotype

The actual genetic pattern in the chromosomes is the child's genotype. Many genetic messages are there but are not exhibited because they are weak in that progeny. While the apparent characteristics exhibited comprise the child's phenotype.

Direct and Indirect Influences

Hereditary factors can affect behaviour directly. For example, colorblindness result from a hereditary defect that presents detection of certain lines (colours). But heredity can also influence behaviour indirectly. A person with particularly long fingers may become a pianist because this genetic feature facilitates acquiring a particular behaviour.

Studying Genetic Influence

Much of our information about the role of heredity comes from the study of twins. Identical twins (from one fertilized egg or "mono-zygotic") have the same genotype and a common environment. Fraternal twins (from two fertilized eggs or "dizygotic") are no more similar genetically than siblings, but they do share a common environment. Twin studies indicate a genetic element in certain psychiatric disorders, such as manic depressive disorder and schizophrenia. The biological children of schizophrenic mothers are more likely to suffer from the disorder themselves than are people in the general population, identical twins are more likely to be concordant for it than are fraternal twins. Other nearest or blood relations are also a significant cause of inherited diseases.

Some personality characteristics, such as sociability, introversion and extroversion and temperament also are likely to be genetically influenced. Perhaps the most widely researched attribute, intelligence test score, appears to have a significant genetic component.

The Role of Environment

From the moment of conception throughout our lives, we are shaped by our environment even before birth, environment influences the child.

The Prenatal Environment

Now we shall look at some of the most important prenatal influence:

Maternal Nutrition

The typical pregnant women needs an increase of 300 to 500 calories daily and should use seven different food groups daily like milk, vegetables fruits, cereals, fats and oils. For a healthy child all these food substances are necessary, many studies have found that mother who eat well have fewer complications of pregnancy and childbirth and bear healthier babies, while mothers having inadequate diets are more likely to bear premature or low birth weight infants, or babies who are born dead or die soon after birth. (Burke, Beal, Krikwood & Stuarti 1943, Read, Haich, Lechting & Klein, 1973).

The effects of malnutrition on brain development have been demonstrated by many researchers. They have found that malnourished infants contained fewer cells than normal, (Winck, Brasel & Rosso 1972), it may cause mental retardation or development problems.

Maternal Drug Intake

Many antibiotics some hormones, birth control pills, caffeine, Nicotine, Alcohol, Marijuana and Addictive drugs may cause some abnormalities in the fetal development and also later development. e.g. maternal smoking is implicated in health problem as cleft lip and palate. (Ercson, Kaller and Western Holm, 1979). Smoking and drinking during pregnancy may also cause low birth weight and low I.Q. Alcoholic women have given birth to babies who suffer from **fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS)**, a combination of facial abnormalities and mental, motor and growth retardation. (Jones, Smith, Ullerland and Streissguter 1973 Holden, Sokol, Kuhnert & Bottones 1988: Etaly 1983).

Women addicted to such drugs as morphine, heroine and codeine are more likely to bear premature babies, who have become addictive to the drugs with in the womb. They can often be cured of the addiction by administering certain other drugs in gradually decreasing amounts but have long term negative effects huger at lead until the age of 6.

Other Maternal Factors

Stress, illness, maternal birth weight and blood, type incompatibility are some other factors which also cause some abnormalities or problems in development e.g. grew

measles may cause blindness or deafness in the infant. Stress, economical or social is another reason of physical if mother remains under stress during pregnancy.

2.3 The Neonate

The neonatal period, the first two to four weeks of life, is a time of transition from intra uterine to extra uterine life. At birth, the neonate's to extra uterine respiratory, gastro intestinal, and temperature regulation systems become independent from the mothers. At one and five minutes after birth, the neonate is assessed medically by the Apgar Scale, unlike measure five factors. (Appearance, pulse, grimace, activity and respiration) that indicate how well the new born is adjusting to extra uterine life. The neonate may also be screwed for one or more medical conditions.

2.4 Stages of Physical Development

(i) Infancy

Infancy spans the first two years, beginning with the newborn (neonatal) period (first month). The new born infant is amazingly competent. Although the cerebral cortex is not yet mature, newborns exhibit a variety of inborn, coordinated motor behaviors called reflexes. The sucking reflex enables the infant to operate a nipple, while the rooting reflex permits the infant to locate a nipple in spite of poor vision. If an object touches a newborn's cheek, the head automatically "roots" or turns in the direction of the object.

New born also have well developed senses of hearing and smell that can be used to identify people.

The first two years of life continue the rapid course of growth begun parentally. Body propitious changes as the legs and arms grow to "Catch up" with the head and trunk. Development of muscles and the motor centers of the cortex enable the infant to reach, grasp, sit, crawl, walk and vocalize. The order of these physical and motor changes is surprisingly regular throughout the world, and they are viewed as evidence of the role of maturation, growth due to aging rather than learning.

(ii) Childhood

Childhood is the period from about two to twelve years. Although physical growth slows markedly, changes in behaviour average almost daily. Individual differences in skills and abilities average, providing a dramatic illustration of the effects of varying genetic endowment & experience.

Overall growth declines to a slow but steady rate by age five to six. Improvements are seen in gross and fine motor coordination and in eye hand coordination. By age five, children can catch a ball, cut with scissors, and write letters and numbers. Children also begin acquiring their permanent teeth around five or six.

Individual differences in skills are common during the period. Depending on their experiences, children can become proficient at tasks such as playing the piano, playing soccer, or playing Nuilkudo.

(iii) Adolescence

Adolescence is the stage between childhood and adulthood roughly from twelve to eighteen.

Adolescence is associated with both sexual maturation (Purberty) and an overall growth spurt. Both of these results from a sequence of hormonal changes initiated by the hypothalamus and orchestrated by the pituitary gland.

The Fining of Puberty

There are group and individual differences in the ages when these changes occur. For example, changes generally appear earlier in girls than boys and earlier in southern as compared to northern climates.

At present the mechanism determining the actual tuning of the changes is unknown. It is clear, however, that being an individual at either extreme of the age range for One's group is psychologically stressful.

The Growth Spurt

Girls typically begin the height and weight growth spurt around age 10, reach a peak at about 12, and decelerate markedly by 14. The spurt occurs almost two years later in boys; thus girls are typically taller and heavier than boys from about age 10 and a life to 13.

The growth spurt also changes body proportions and body shape, a source of embarrassment and concern for many, adolescents. Arms and legs grow rapidly, sometimes producing a temporary awkwardness of clumsiness. Chest and shoulder tissue grows rapidly in boys, as does link and light tissue in girls. Adolescents concerned about these changes in body build, many diet or exercise compulsively in an effort to Vega in what they view as an attractive shape serious eating disorders such as anorexia (abnormal fasting an self-starvation) many emerge at this stage.

Secondary Sex Characteristics

In girl enlargement of breasts is usually the first external sign of impending the age of onset of menstruation, along with the age of onset of other physical changes has been steadily decreasing for the past 100 years. Most girls today reach menarche, the first menstrual cycle, within six months of their 13th birthday, as compared to between ages 15-17 a century ago.

Boys typically begin their growth spurts at about twelve and half. Impending sexual maturation is marked by enlargement of testes, scrotun, and penis and the development of

pubic hair. This is followed by enlargement of the larynx and ticking of the vocal cords, producing a transitional period in which the voice many “Crack”.

2.5 Summary

Developmentalists seek to describe the patterns of changes that characterize human behaviour through the life span. A central issue in development is the relative contributions of heredity and the environments. Genetic predis position starts the time of conception or after fertilization of the egg. Twin studies have been useful in identifying the effects of genetics in physical and psychological process. Environmental influences are also important, and such factors as diet or cultural influence can be critical in all stages of development.

Prenatal development inverse three stages of physical growth. The germinal stage, the embryonic stage, and the fetal stage. Throughout these stages, the individual in wholly development on the mother for nourishment and waste elimination. Injury is a time of rapid growth although neonates are surprisingly competent. Being born with many reflexes and sensory operations. Physical development proceeds in a cephalocaudal (head to-toe) direction and motor development likewise proceeds in sequence whose regularity attests to the rote of maturation.

During childhood physical growth shows down. Motor coordination improves and children develop varying skills. Adolescence is marked by the physical changes of puberty, the development of secondary sex characteristics, and the growth sport towards young adulthood.

2.6 Self-Assessment Questions

1. What is fertilization? Explain three stages of pre-natal development.
2. Discuss different stage of development from birth to adolescence.
3. Describe the role of environment in development.

3. COGNITIVE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

3.1 What is Cognition

The term ‘Cognition’ is used to cover a broad range of abilities, all of which involve internal, mental activities. These include processes such as reasoning, interpreting, assessing and representing. The approach now favoured by cognitive psychologists focuses upon how the individual represents information mentally, with one aim being to explain behaviour of the level of the reasons, judgments and rationale used.

This term also refers to the mental events involved in knowing about the world. Roughly, the word is synonym for “thinking”.

3.2 Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development

The most comprehensive account of cognitive development is the work of Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist. A proponent of the genetic-structure lost view. Piaget proved that cognitive development is the result of an adaptation process. Just as animals adapt their appearance or behaviour to a changing environment. Piaget saw the child as adapting cognitively as his or her world expands. To Piaget, intelligence is the result of adaptation to one's environment. In its simplest sense adaptation is the maintenance of an equilibrium or state of balance between the organism and environment. When the child encounters a new object, a new idea that balance is disrupted. This loss of equilibrium impels the child to grow cognitively and so come to understand these new elements.

Assimilation and Accommodation

Adaptation involves two complementary

Processes: Assimilation and Accommodation

Assimilation: occurs when new information is incorporated into existing knowledge and is dealt with through existing behaviors. A breast fed infant can assimilate a bottle nipple, identify it as nipple and operate it through the existing seeking routine.

Accommodation: Accommodation occurs when new information produces a reorganization of existing knowledge and the acquisition of new responses.

Both processes are necessary for cognitive or intellectual growth. Children must integrate new information into existing knowledge and expand existing knowledge to encompass new and different elements.

Organization: After experiencing assimilation or accommodation the child organizes the materials. Piaget calls the units into which people organize information schemes or schemata (a scheme is a summary of knowledge about a particular concept).

Adaptation then, involves incorporating information into existing schemata (assimilation) and modifying existing schemata (accommodation).

Piaget's Developmental Stages

Piaget proposed that intelligence develops through a sequence of four cognitive stages maturationally related to age. Children progress through the stages as they experience uncertainty and attempt to adapt their understanding of the world to reduce mental effort.

(i) The Sensorimotor Stage (0-2 Years)

For Piaget, the sensorimotor stage is composed of six sub stages.

During the sensorimotor stage, children's understanding of the world is based totally on their sensory and motor interactions with it. Schemata at this stage are all organized systems of overt behavior. The earliest schemata are composed of basic reflexes, such as seeking through which children explore the world around them. As the body and brain mature children become better able to control and direct

their movements and to coordinate sensory and motor information schemata expand to include coordinated voluntary action. Children learn to discriminate between and classify objects based on their perceptual properties: such as “feels smooth” and the ways they respond to motor actions such as “it rolls”.

Linking actions with object to produce reactions, for example, kicking a mobile to make it spore, leads to a basic understanding of cause-effect relationship.

A child at this stage is egocentric, unable to conceptualize a world existing outside his or herself that is affected by the actions of others. Sensorimotor children also lack an appreciation of the permanence of objects. To the young infant, “out of sight is out of mind”. The disappearance of an object is not troublesome, attention moves rapidly elsewhere. However, after a child’s first birthday, the protests after when mother leaves the room or a toy is taken away demonstrate the emergence of the concept of object permanencies. The child “knows” these things or people continue to exist “somewhat” and express this in demanding to have them.

The other major achievement of that stage is the emergence of the symbolic function the ability to represent object and events mentally. This skill is an important for language acquisition.

(ii) The pre-operational Stage

The pre-operational stage is divided into two sub-stages: the pre-conceptual phase (2-3 Years) and the intuitive phase (4-5 Years).

(a) Pre-Conceptual Phase

Pre-conceptual children are capable of symbolic schemata, rather than being limited to the behaviour schemata of infancy. They can organize information mentally by thinking about the properties of objects and events or about the relationships between them.

Language appears, and children begin to draw pictures that represent things. However they tend to be egocentric in that they use their own experiences and ideas as the basis for this organization. Thus a drawing of three trees of different sizes is said to depict the “daddy”, “mummy” and “baby” tree. Although they understand the concepts of classification of objective systems for organization information. To a three-years-old, a bird cannot be a bird if it cannot fly. The sun goes down to make it dark so we can sleep. These interpretations seem perfectly logical to the pre-concept child.

(b) The Intuitive Phase

In the intuitive phase, thinking begins to become more logical and objective classification and problem solving skills improve and egocentrism begins to decline. However intuitive phase children still cannot represent a series of actions mentally and thus cannot solve problems requiring attention to sequences.

(iii) The Concrete Operational Stage (6 to 12 Years)

During this stage the ability to use logic becomes mature. Locatable operational children are much less egocentric and are more objective about the world around them. Their representational skills have improved to the point that they can follow a sequence of actions and coordinate information about more their one dimension of an object or event.

Concrete operational children have mastered the idea of conservation, understanding that changes in the appearance of objects do not necessarily imply changes in properties. For example, one cup of fruit juice is same amount whether it is poured into a tall thin glass or a short squat cup.

Concrete operational children have also mastered hierarchical classification, as in understanding that the class of “birds” may have two sub groups, “flying birds” and non flying birds.

They are able to use logical rules or operation, such as addition and subtraction, and to see relationship between rules, such as subtraction being the opposite of addition. Thinking at this stage is present-oriented and tied to concrete, physical evidence. Although much of their problem solving is often trial and error, their performance improves greatly.

(iv) The Formal Operational Stage (12 Through Adulthood)

In formal operation, thinking becomes more abstract, systematic and probabilistic. Adolescents are able to think hypothetically (making guesses about explanations for events) to consider possibilities and to image picture outcomes of present actions.

Adolescents learn to solve problems by systematically generating and testing hypotheses a far cry from the more random trial and error approach of childhood. They can use past experiences and present Evans to assign probabilities to possible outcomes and they can reason deductively. This type of logical reasoning is the basis of the scientific method. It also contributes to the self absorption show by many adolescents.

3.3 Language Development

Theories of Language Acquisition

- a. Learning Theory:** B.F Skinner offered a learning theory explanation for language changes using the principles of operant conditioning. In this view, children are reinforced first of making sounds, then for combining sounds, and later for using these sound combination as words win appropriate contexts. Parents and others continue conditioning language behaviour by later reinforcing children’s combinations of words in grammatical sentences.

- b. Social Learning:** Many psychologists see operant conditioning as an unlikely explanation of language change. Children learn language so quickly that it is difficult to imagine enough conditioning experiences occurring in such a short time. They included further processes for language development link process of imitation. They argued that in addition to being reinforced for appropriate language children imitate the language of the models around the explanation has its our limitations such as research indicators that children are limited in ability to imitate language that is more sophisticated than their usual speech.

The Language Acquisition Device (LAD): Noom Chomsky claims that humans have innate (inborn) ability for language acquisition. This human pre-disposition for learning language like the pre-disposition to walk upright on two legs, results from our species genetic heritage. It is independent of our level of intelligence or our frequency of contracts with adult speakers. This genetic ability or language acquisition device (LAD) enables us to learn any human language one we have contact with its sounds and can control our vocal apparatus.

Major Features of Language Development: There are a variety of systems for categorizing the course of language development. The following sections describe what cognitive describe what cognitive developmental psychologists see as qualitatively different types of language behavior.

- (i) Pre-babbling Phase (0-6 Months):** During the first three months of life, infants communicate primarily by crying. They lack sufficient neuromuscular development to control their vocal apparatus and produce individual speech sounds. Crying is an effective means of communication. Experienced parents and observers can discriminate between cries associated with such states as hunger, pain, or fear.

Towards the end of this phase infants begin making speech – like sounds including the vowels “a”, “b” and “P”. The order or emergence of speech sounds, or phonemes, is determined to a great extent by the infant’s motor abilities. The vowels “a” and “e” are produced in the back of the mouth and require little control. The consonant “m” for example, simply requires closing the lips and allowing air to vibrate in the nasal cavity. Compared to later phonemes, such as “r” or “t”, early phonemes require minimal control of the lips, tongue and air passages. These developments are cross culturally regular.

By eight months, infants begin to combine sounds and repeat combinations over and over, producing such common babbles as “mama” and “dada”.

Infants six to eight months old will babble endlessly to themselves in bed or while rowing around, the babbles do not appear to be efforts to communicate with others. Although initially infants produce the same babbles begging all eight months the

variety of sounds produced changes to better match the sounds commonly occurring in the language the infant hears.

The period from eight to twelve months is characterized by counting changes in phoneme production and increasingly word like babbles.

First Words (12 To 18 Months):

Semi-Words: The first words children use are idiosyncratic and typically are not the words they have heard other people use. These invented words or Semi-words, approximations of adult words, demonstrate the creative quality of language production and underscore the belief that child language is not simply an imitation of language of adults.

Specificity Vs Generalization: Children learn words at an intermediate level of specificity first, such as “dog” rather than “animal” (more General or “Buster” (more specific)

Children 12-18 months often over-generalize words, as in calling a cow a “dog”. Such behaviour implies that early words are defined in terms of perceptual features, such as “four legs”, brown and white” and “has a tail”.

Holophrastic Speech: First words are often used as holophrases at this age, single words used to convey whole thoughts (or words meant to be “whole phrases”). The word, combined with intonation, gestures, and context, functions as a sentence would for an adult context is therefore important. For example, a child who says “Sock” in a whiny voice, while moving arms and indicating bare feet, means, something quite different from a child who says the same word, with the same intonation and gestures, but is wearing socks.

Early Sentences (18-24 Months)

Telegraphic Speech: Children typically begin producing two to three word sentences at 18-24 months. These sentences are telegraphic in that they contain only the minimum number of words important to expressing the underlying idea, similar to the space style of a telegram whose length is calculated the word.

Function words (e.g. articles and prepositions) and grammatical suffixes are eliminated even in Speakers of language that require suffixes to identify parts of speech. The universality of telegraphic speech clearly implies maturational constraints on children’s language behavior.

Expansion: Intonation, gestures, and context are still important to interpreting children’s speech at this age. Adults often engage in expansion, repeating a child’s telegraphic sentence in its complete, grammatical form. When asked to imitate a complete sentence, children usually continue to produce a telegraphic version of the modeled sentence.

Baby Talk vs. Adult Speech: Although expansion does not explain how children move from telegraphic speech to grammatical speech, exposure to grammatical speech at this age is important for later language development. Children exposed primarily to “baby talk” do not advance to the next stage as quickly as children exposed to more adult grammar.

Emergence of Grammar (2 to 5 Years): By the age of two, children may have a vocabulary of 250-300 words. Between the ages of two and five, children acquire the function words (e.g. preposition and modifiers) and suffixes necessary for grammatical speech.

Over-Regularization: An important distinction in grammar is the difference between regular and irregular words. Some words are regular in that they are changed according to standard rules that apply to many other words. e.g. the plural of “hand” is “hands” and the past tense of “walk” is “walked”. In contrast, other words are irregular, and are changed in unique ways rather than “according to the rules”. e.g. the plural of “foot” is “feet” and the past tense of “go” is “went”. The distinction between regular and irregular words (apply common rules to words that are exception to those rules). For example, a child might form the past tense of “go” by adding the regular ending producing “goed”.

Cognitive development psychologists see over regularization as a reflection of the child’s active attempt to organize language information, and to formulate and test language hypotheses. It is unlikely to reflect either the effects of operant conditioning or modeling, and is a cross-cultural phenomenon.

Communications: Children also are learning more about the pragmatics of language, the social rules of communication. Listing skills, topic focus taking turns in conversations, and politeness all improve during this period.

Refinement of Language (Beyond Age 5): Children at age five are amazingly competent speakers of language. Beyond age five, most language changes involve increasing vocabulary and mastering the five points of grammar and syntax, the rules of combining words into meaningful sentences.

Children become able to produce longer sentences with more complex grammatical structures and to understand passive and embedded sentences. The child’s environment, including the family, mass media, involvement in reading, and school, greatly influence rate of progress and level of sophistication attained. At this age, experience clearly surpasses maturation as a determinant of language behavior.

3.4 Summary

Developmentalists explore human changes over time, providing a unique approach to the study of human behavior. Early influential paradigms in this field were psychoanalytic

theory and learning theory. More recently, cognitive-development theory has provided its own perspective, emphasizing the roles of operations and maturation in individual development. Piaget's theory of cognitive development is one of the most influential approaches in developmental psychology. According to Piaget's theory, children adapt and maintain balance through the process of assimilation and accommodation. In growing from infancy to adulthood, children develop their cognitive abilities through a sequence of stages. In the sensorimotor stage infants rely on behavioral schemata and must acquire a sense of object permanence. In the preoperational stage, children develop better language; rely on symbolic schemata, and master conservation and hierarchical classification. In the concrete operational stage children develop trial and error-problem solving and concrete logic.

Finally, in the formal operational stage, children develop abstract reasoning and hypothesis testing.

Language acquisition has been explained in terms of operant learning, imitative social learning, a uniquely human "language acquisition device", and the interaction of maturation with developmental stages. As language develops, children move from crying to babbling to first words, to early sentences, and finally to more and more sophisticated use of grammar.

3.5 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Define Cognition. Discuss the processes of assimilation and accommodation proposed by Jean Piaget.
2. Critically evaluate different theories of language development.
3. Describe language development in detail.

4. SOCIAL, MORAL AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Meaning of Social Development

Social development refers to socialization process a child has to go through. Social development implies how a child grows social being, how learns to relate, deal and cope with other individuals, how interacts with others, how adjusts to social environment, and conforms to norms & values of society to which or she belongs. In short, social development refers to the development of social behaviours among children.

4.2 Social Development and Pre-School Period

During the period of 2 to 5 years, children experience various new types of interpersonal relationships. They begin to recognize and adopt socially approved behaviours. They become capable of forming various distinctive attitudes, preferences and manners. They become rapidly aware of themselves, of their bodies, their sexual identities, of what

others think about their bodies. The process of self-awareness starts during this period. They develop new interpersonal relationship. They learn to share with their siblings and compete with peers and indulge in rivalries. Early childhood is a crucial period of socialization. During early childhood, children acquire social judgment and self-discipline to be responsible adult.

4.3 Social Development and Childhood

During Childhood, social development becomes slow and steady process. The child starts to enjoy pleasures, spends substantial time in playing discovering his/her world and learning about people. This is a period of entrance into school. The child starts going to school and become relatively independent less depending on the parents. Interpersonal relationships start to shift from the family members to the peers. They begin to spend more time with their friends and other community members than their family members. They start to learn facing challenges and opportunities. They develop sense of belongingness or of alienation. They begin to develop a psychological identity as fellows of either one or other sex.

4.4 Social Development and Adolescence

During the period of adolescence, accelerated physical growth and major bodily changes take place and visibly start appearance. This is period when social relationships begin to expand and liberation from the family starts to increase. The children strive for freedom and independence. They initiate to determine their own values; love to be their own person, to plan their own future and to preserve their privacy. At this stage, neither being children nor being adults, they more rely on peer-group acceptance for sense of belongingness. During adolescence, hetro-sexual relationships gain prominence. The young boys and girls love to mix with each other and participate in male-female social functions. During this period, adolescents develop a sense of identity and self-image. Most of adolescents find them in conflict with their parents in relation to the value systems.

4.5 Morality

Morality constitutes an important aspect of development, it has three major faces: cognitive behaviour and emotional. Cognitively, people think about what is or is not the right thing to do in a situation. This aspect of morality has its basis in cognitive development, its concepts, reasoning, attitudes and values. Behaviourally, people act in ways that may or may not be consistent with their moral reasoning. Emotionally people have “feelings” about what is right or wrong, and these feelings in turn may or may not accord with their thinking and behaviour. So moral development is the process by unlike children acquires knowledge of right and wrong.

4.6 Early Theories

Early development theories proposed different processes to underlie moral development.

Psychoanalytic Theory

This theory proposed that morality resided in the super ego a part of the psyche formed through identification with the same sexparent during preschool. This identification was an attempt to reduce anxiety created by the central conflict of the phallic stage of psychosexual development. Freud proposed that the intrinsically sexual nature of the human animal led to unconscious child hood desires for exclusive control of an opposite sex parent. Such devises pleased children in direct competition with some sex parents, and this produced high levels of anxiety by identifying with the same- sex parent, and becoming like that parent. Children protected themselves from possible retaliation by that parent. It is difficult to evaluate the psychoanalytic proposal empirically since both a phallic conflict and its resolution through identification occur unconsciously. Although children and adults do differ in super ego strength, a psychoanalytic construct, it difficult to relate supper ego strength to specific experiences or use it to predict obedience to rules or values.

Learning Theory

Learning theory proposed that morality or a set of values was a meaningless concept. Instead, children acquire patterns of responses to specific situations base on the exercise with reinforcement, punishment and models. This doctrine of specify predicts that children with not necessarily ach in morally consistent ways in different situations.

There appears to be some validity to this proposal. Although current research indicates that children can evaluate situations and explain why a course of action is “right” or “wrong” there is little relationship between a child’s stated values and his or her behaviour.

4.7 Cognitive-Developmental Theories

Cognitive-developmental theories form on the emergence of moral judgment or reasoning, the child’s ability to understand and apply concepts of “right” and “wrong” to specific situations.

The tiny most influential theories of development of moral reasoning are those of Jean Piaget and Laurence Kohloberg. Piaget work came earlier and strongly influenced Kohlberg.

Piaget’s Theory of Moral Development

Through Piaget’s major work concerns developmental changes in thinking, some of his earlier studies investigated children’s understanding and judgmental of right and wrong. He observed children planning marbles for example, and asked question to probe their moral thinking. What are the rules of this game? Where did they come from?. Do you have to follow the rules? Can they be changed? Piaget pointed out those moral reasoning changes significantly from early childhood to adolescence, that the changes appear to be orderly and predictable and that they roughly coincide with development changes in thinking. The first stage moral realism is characterized by a belief that rules are fixed, unchangeable and must be followed: to break or try to change rules is wrong, to follow

rules is right often children in this stage approximately 2 to 7 Years of age fully understand rules and may be unable to follow their even though they imagined they do.

Children in this stage view right and wrong as fixed and mutually excluding either something is right or it is wrong. And they take it for granted that everyone else sees right and wrong as they do this is often termed as “belief in moral absolutes”. Pre-school children decide whether an act is right or wrong by the magnitude of the outcome. Young children also judge an act is right or wrong according to whether or not it will be punished.

In the second stage **Autonomous Morality** or the **Morality of Reciprocity**, children acknowledge situational and personal factors in deciding right and wrong. Children, in this stage, no longer conceive of rules as unchangeable. They know that rules are arrived at by agreement and may be changed by the same process. Children in the second stage no longer believe in imminent punishment but do believe punishment should be just and fit the crime. Thinking of children become more flexible and abstract. At this stage they have an exaggerated sense of fairness and become increasingly aware of the right of other.

Piaget’s theory is important as an initial effort to describe the development of moral reasoning. As research progressed, it became clear that the two stage model was unable to capture the variety of judgments seen in childhood, adolescence and adulthood.

Kohlberg’s Theory:

Lawrence Kohlberg’s noted that there was not the age related to consistency in moral judgments predicted by Piaget’s theory. Infact when confronted with “**Moral Dilemmas**” word problems posing two possible courses of action; some subjects in each age group could reason in ways to support either choice.

There were however define pattern in the types of reasons generalized. Kohlberg subsequently developed a model of moral reasoning counting three levels of moral development, each containing two stages. Kohlberg’s stages were viewed as sequential and universal across cultures both to cognitive development and social experiences although Kohlberg’s theory has been criticized by Carl Ligancy as biased against woman. It remains the dominant model of moral development today.

The Preconventional Level:

In level 1, the preconventional level (age 4 to 10 Years), children

Kohlberg’s Stages of Moral Development		
Ages	Level, Stage and Orientation	
4-10 Years	Level 1:	Preconventional
	Level 1:	Obedience and Punishment Orientation
	Stage 2:	Naïve Hedonistic and Instrument
10 +	Level 2:	Conventional

	Stage 3:	Good Boy/Good Girl Orientation
	Stage 4:	Law and Authority Orientation
13 +	Level 3:	Post Conventional
	Stage 5:	Social Contract Orientation
	Stage 6:	Universal Ethical Principle Orientation

Reasoning does not reflect an awareness rules as a system with inherent benefits to those who use it. Thinking reflects an emphasis on the physical consequences of action the power of authority figures.

At Stage 1: The obedience and punishment orientation, children make choices based on principles of avoiding punishment and obeying authority figure.

In Stage 2: Native Hedonistic and instrumental orientation, choices are governed by the principle of self satisfaction governed by the principle of self-satisfaction (hedonism: seeking pleasure and avoiding pain), and satisfying the needs of other who are important in the life of the child.

The Conventional Level: At level 2 (beyond 10 years of age), reasoning reflects not only the pressure to conform for personal gain but also a loyalty to codes of behaviour base on a sense of belonging to a family or society. Doing “the right thing” become, an end in itself.

In Stage 3: The good boy/good girls orientation, Children make choices reflecting a desire for the approval of other.

At Stage 4: Law and authority orientation, the decisions reflect a sense of “duty” to obey recognized authority and the avoidance of actions that might under-mine the social order. According to Kohlberg’s research, most adolescents and adults demonstrate some form of level 2 thinking.

The Post Conventional Level: Level 3 probably can be attained only by adults who are formal operational and have had experience both with freedom of choice and the effects of the lack of such freedom. Individuals at this level are guided by concern for the rights of the individuals rather than loyalty to the group.

In Stage 5: Social contract orientation, Concern is focused on balancing the value of social stability with the rights of the individual. Morality is viewed as a social contract in which individuals drive benefits from compliance with rules. Rules can and should be adjusted when adherence to those rules fails to protect the rights of individuals.

At Stage 6: Universal ethical principle orientations, decisions are based on conscience and principles such as justice, reciprocity, human rights, and personal dignity violation of principles, rather than law is condemned.

4.8 Social Learning Theory

Because cognitive developmental psychologists have been concerned mainly with moral reasoning and decision making, they have gathered information on how moral thinking changes as children grow older and what factors influence the changes. Other psycholinguists have focused on the behaviour and emotional aspects of moral development.

Social Learning theorists have concentrated on investigating factors that influence children's moral behaviour and effects of models, parental nurturance, punishment, presence or absence of rules and reasons, authority figures and so on. Emotional aspect of moral development has not received compatible research attention.

Social learning theorists have criticized Kohlberg's theory, arguing the people behave differently under different circumstances; and their actions may reflect one stage or another depending on the situation social learning psychologists have been concerned with; social factors that influence moral and immoral behaviour. Those factors include modeling, reinforcement punishment and permissiveness.

There are a number of important experiments conducted from the social learning point of view. Studies of the animal indicate that the more painful the punishment and the sooner it is given the greater its effect in inhibiting forbidden behaviour (Cheyne & Walkers 1970). Research with children as subject has produced similar results, but many additional factors appear to be important, including the characteristics of the people doing the punishing their relationship to children and the frequency, context and consistency of the punishment (Jagieslak: 1977). By this process **Cognitive Structuring** is possible.

Punishment creates a fear or anxiety response in children and if it is administered when they commit a certain act, the punishment become linked mentally with that act. The more severe the punishment, the greater the children's negative emotional reaction and avoidance of the punished behaviour moreover if the punishment becomes early, that is when the forbidden act is initiated, it has a **stable effect** which may increase the emotional response to the point where even the thoughts and actions learning up to the behaviour become associated with the anxiety reaction (Cheyne 1971, Cheyne and Walkers, 1970).

Punishment produces two different sources of control: emotional control and cognitive control (Cheyne & Walkers 1969). In the long run it seems that cognitive control is most effective and most desirable because it is based on internal reasoning rather than external consequences. Moreover punishment appears to produce more **generalized inhibition** in the children, so that they begin overdoing other behaviour as well as the one for which they were punished Cognitive structuring helps children discriminate appropriate from inappropriate conduct.

4.9 Emotional Development

(a) Meaning of Emotion

The term “emotion” is derived from a Latin word “emovere” which means to stir up, agitate, excite and move.

According to modern psychologists, emotion refers to an activating or energizing state of organism. The degree of activation varies and depend upon the level of emotionality. Emotion does not refer to a specific behaviour pattern but it stands for a wide range of behaviour like love, anger, jealousy, etc.

(b) Emotional Development

Emotional development should be started at an early age as soon as children start kindergarten and pre-school so that their interaction with others will help to develop them in both social and intellectual ways. Emotional and intellectual development normally go hand in hand to help the child develop socially because it is the interaction amongst both children and adults that creates a healthy emotional state. The difference between positive and negative feeling towards any given situation may be due to emotional development. Some children respond very well to a multitude of different social situations and interaction which would suggest they have a strong emotional development while still many children today have quirks and ticks from emotional problems or trauma which causes them to have difficulty interacting in social scenes and find daily routine difficult to deal with. Some people lacking in emotional development are the complete contrast and suffer when their routine is interrupted. This is typically seen in children with autism who cope up better when regular routine is kept.

From the age of 2 onward the child begins to test himself or herself and the boundaries that the world has put before them. This is standard child like behaviour which is a good way to start the process of emotional development. Not all emotional development is done through interaction and children should be left to discover things on their own from time to time. Problem solving then becomes a strong part of their day to day life where for children every first attempt at routine or duty is a problem solving challenge. Positive reinforcement is encouraged for both good results and poor results and will encourage the child to persist in problem solving.

(c) Stages of Emotional Development

Emotional development of babies have shown that infants can actually understand more than people usually imagine. The emotional development of an infant is considered to be the foundation of the social behaviour of the adult, being at the same time an important influential factor on the way children are able to relate with other individuals, both in the early and middle-childhood and in adolescence. Parents have an important influence on the emotional development of infants and the newest studies in this field have proved that babies possess a wide range of emotions. Through emotions, infants are actually able to communicate with their parents, even before learning to speak. Infants can accurately interpret the facial expressions and the voice tone of their parents. Babies are able to

show both positive and negative emotions. The positive emotions of a baby will most likely be shown through smiles and laughing, while the negative ones will be indicated by crying and sadness, as well as anxious behavior. Parents usually manage to interpret well their infants' emotions. For example, a baby will cry when feeling hunger or tiredness, but also when experiencing new, strange situations. For a normal emotional development, infants need a lot of care and attention, mostly during the first two years of life. A baby who has never been neglected will have a normal emotional development and will become an emotionally strong child and later on, a secure adult. During the first months of life, the baby learns to recognize the touch of a person. Picking up the child is important for a normal emotional development, as the baby will be comforted this way. Starting with the fourth month of life, an infant will be able to recognize his family. If the baby becomes very curious about everything happening around him, parents should encourage him, as this is part of his normal emotional development. Grabbing things to put them into his mouth is also very normal for all babies. At eight months, a baby will start developing a sense of self, while his emotional development continues with the young child becoming more independent of his parents, as he develops self-consciousness. At eighteen months, the child will start remembering things. All strong emotional events in this stage of emotional development will most likely have long lasting effects on the behaviour of a child, this is why parents should offer the baby constant care and attention, while understanding all steps of a normal emotional development.

Children going to school for the first time go through a series of stages and emotions. There are many factors that influence this event and that can make it either easy or difficult for the child. It is very important that you handle the emotional development of your children prior to enrolling them in school. As a new step in their young lives, the first year of school can bring a variety of new factors and elements into the lives of the little ones. In order to make sure that this does not become a traumatic event, you have to check their emotional development before and throughout the year. There are many factors which will affect the emotional development during the first school year. To start off, you have to think about what you are going to tell them about school and the way other explain this new stage. If anyone will tell your child that school is hard and that there are mean children and so on, the child might have a negative emotional development around the idea. Leaving from the start with a negative impression over this stage can only create problems for the children throughout the first year and even until they finish school. Another factor that can influence the emotional development related to the first year of school is the medium. The children have to be stimulated from home to like school and appreciate the learning programs that they are enrolled in. However, there are factors of the emotional development that you cannot control. For example, if the first grade teacher is more severe and mean to the children, their development will surely be affected by this. On the same note, if the other children are cruel, they can create damage to the normal emotional development. In the first year of school, the emotional development built up can affect the rest of your children's lives in a good or in a bad way. This means that you have to pay a great deal of attention to the changes presented by the children throughout the year.

Intellectual and emotional development go hand in hand to help the child develop socially, because it is the interaction amongst children and adults that creates a healthy emotional state. There are some tips that might help you better deal with the emotional development of your child, so that he would have a healthy social and intellectual future. You should be purposeful in guiding the emotional life of your child. This means that you should focus intentionally on his emotional needs. These needs are just as important as his cognitive, physical and spiritual needs. Moreover, you should build a strong bond by spending quality time with your child. This is a positive reinforcement in the emotional development, meaning that the more parents interact with their child from an early stage, the stronger the bonds between them will be. You should also try to connect to your child to an emotional level. Try to better understand what your child is feeling. Thus, the emotional development of your child will go to a whole new level. For example, if your child is happy, be happy for him, or if your child is sad, cry with him or encourage him to move on. It is a well known fact that children mimic everything that adults do. Therefore, by managing your own emotions in a positive way, your children will also learn to do so as well. Emotional development is also connected with teaching children how to handle negative emotions. It is not an easy task. Children need to be taught how to handle defeat, deal with a conflict or be angry in a healthy way. Children who are taught these skills as early as possible, are better able to handle negative feelings as adults.

As you can see, the emotional development is very important for the development of a child and it reflects in how he will act as an adult. For a child, emotions are something very new. As they grow and mature, the process of emotional development becomes complete. The experiences they live make children better able to handle turmoil when it happens. Emotional development is also a way of learning to deal with emotions in a proper way, especially when their range of emotions is so wide: from happiness to anger. When we talk about emotional development in children, we are referring to the children's growing ability to identify and understand their feelings, accurately read and understand the feelings of others, manage and shape the way they behave and feel, develop empathy for the others, and building and keeping good relationships with friends, family and others. One of the most important aspects of emotional development is that in the first years, children are not able to manage for themselves the way they feel. Thus, the parents are the ones who keep these feelings under control. Especially with young children, there can be a feeling of frustration, because there is a large gap between the things they want to do and the things they are allowed to do. More often than not, this results in the child throwing a tantrum. The emotional development of children is greatly influenced by the quality of the relationship that is developed between themselves and the parents. The way in which parents interact with their child has a lot to do with the child's emotional development.

Children learn to manage their emotions by watching how the other members of the family express and manage their emotions. In terms of emotional development, parents are the key role players in modeling how to respond to strong feelings. Here are some tips

on how to support the emotional development of your child. First of all, you should keep the emotional climate of your home calm, warm and predictable. According to Erik Erikson, there are eight stages of emotional development that should help the child develop into a healthy human being. Each stage builds on the successful completion of earlier stages. The challenges of emotional development stages, if not completed successfully, may unlock problems in the future. The first step in emotional development centres around the infant's basic needs that are met by the parents. The infant depends on the parents, especially the mother for food, sustenance and comfort. Should the parents fail to provide a secure environment and to meet the child's basic needs a sense of mistrust will result. As the child gains control over the eliminative functions and motor abilities, they begin to explore the surroundings. The parents still provide a strong base of security from which the child can venture out to assert the will. If caregivers encourage self-sufficient behaviour, then the emotional development is characterised by a sense of autonomy. One of the very first steps in the emotional development is communication. It is the most important aspect. A good communication can lead to a good and healthy social and emotional development. Without passing through all these stages of emotional development, we would not be able to become the mature, healthy human beings that we are. Another important aspect is that parents should adapt their behaviour and actions according to the emotional development of their children. The emotional development will help the child in becoming more responsible and more independent in time.

Parents must acknowledge their child's independence, especially in the adolescent years, when it is more and more difficult to set boundaries for the child. The adolescence is a crucial period in every individual's life. Although individuals form and model their personalities throughout their entire lives, and all decisions are meant to help them find their real path, the education and the influences they receive during early and middle childhood, but also in their teen years, are crucial. In fact, one of the most important aspects of the adolescence is that this is a period of changes. And emotional development is a very complex process in adolescence, as in this period most children ask themselves the question "who am I?" and they have to discover themselves the answer to it. Of course, teens will not ask the question, but their entire behaviour will indicate their attempt to find the answer. The emotional development of adolescents is probably the most important part of the whole process, as mixed emotions describe this period in every individual's life. Strong emotions, mixed feelings and a continuous struggle are what describe best the emotional development of adolescents. As a parent, you should not worry at all if your child becomes moody and adopts a negative attitude. It is part of his or her normal emotional development, but you should know that in most cases, teens are going to cope with all changes in a positive manner. However, most teens want to gain independence from their parents, as the adolescence marks the end of childhood and prepares the beginning of young adulthood. So, during a normal emotional development of a teen, conflicts with parents actually are a normal behavior. Parental support is very important in the emotional development of an adolescent. However, rules and boundaries need to be set, for parents to make sure that their child is not going to fall on a negative path. Still, as a parent, you need to support the normal emotional development of your

child, by letting him become more independent from you. He needs to discover who he is by his own and the only way you can support his emotional development is by making sure that the choices he makes, his own, are the right ones.

Children go through different emotional development stages, each stage being very important and there are many signs that a child uses to communicate with us such as smiling, crying, moving in different ways, looking at us and parents have to be very responsible and to know how to react. There are many theories about emotional development, which is a new field, but its importance increases day by day. Social learning theory, differential emotion theory and social constructionism seem to explain what happens during the complex emotional development process. Emotional development refers to a child's capacity of expressing his own feelings, thoughts, opinions about many things, even about himself. Plus, it also means the way in which a child interacts with other people. These things are very important as they help a child become independent. Babies begin to socialize and to learn as soon as they are born and each emotional development stage is very important for their proper psychological development. Month after month and year after year, our children change, but parents have to be very well informed about what happens during each stage and to know what to do. Parents do not have to underestimate their babies, thinking that they are too small. Their emotions can be expressed through a wide range of ways, so the parents have to pay a lot of attention and to be very responsible because they are the adults who already have a life experience. In middle childhood, the key to a proper emotional development is finding a balance between the love, attention and support that children need, the encouragement, and the required boundaries as well. Remember though that there is a thin line between boundaries and criticism, so make sure that you do not cross it if you want your children to have the best emotional development in middle childhood.

4.10 Summary

Studies of moral development examine how children learn to make decisions about what is right or wrong. Psychoanalytic theory explains moral thinking in terms of operation of the super ego. Piaget suggested two ways of moral development: the way children actually practice the rules and the degree of their awareness of those rules. Kohlberg's argues that moral thinking develops over a series of stages in three level; pre-conventional, conventional and post conventional moral thinking. His major contribution is in conclusion that morality develops largely in the same way that cognition develops. Lighten has criticized Kohlberg's theory in terms of sexes and suggested that the genders are educated to pursue different values, not different levels of the same moral principle. Social learning theory also criticized Kohlberg's theory and stressed the social factors, which influence moral behaviour. The use of punishment and cognitive sterilizing lead to emotional control and cognitive control in resisting temptation. Emotional development and intellectual development normally go hand in hand to help the child develop socially because it is the interaction amongst both children and adults that creates a healthy emotional state. The difference between positive and negative feeling towards any given situation may be due to emotional development.

4.11 Self-Assessment Questions

- Q. 1 Define morality. Explain Carly Theory of moral Development.
- Q. 2 Compare and contrast Piaget's Moral Development Theory with Kohlberg's Development Theory.
- Q. 3 Discuss the drawbacks Kohlberg's Development Theory.
- Q. 4 Discuss Emotional Development.

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Unit-3

TEACHING LEARNING PROCESS

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INTRODUCTION

The popular belief is that “the mind is a storehouse for facts”, Teaching is thus a process of filling the storehouse with facts, and learning is the process of acquiring or absorbing facts. The more facts, the more learning.

Learning is an important phase of human life. It is a basic factor in education. It is growth in the adaptation of behaviour to a wide variety of situations and circumstances. Learning is a comprehensive term and includes varied activities and experiences, which have an important influence on the behaviour of an individual.

Every organism is born with a certain kind of instinctive behavior. But during their lifetime, men and animals come across certain situations to which an instinctive response is either impossible or inappropriate. Therefore, in addition to the unlearned instinctive behavior, they have to learn to respond to such situations. In other words, he has to modify the innate responses to adjust him with the changing conditions. All these changes or modifications of the responses of the individual are called learning. The function of the mechanism has been explained in a number of ways. A few of these will be described briefly in this unit.

OBJECTIVES

A close study of this unit will enable you:

1. To gain knowledge about the concept of learning.
2. To gain knowledge about the general characteristics and conditions of learning.
3. To explain the laws of learning.
4. Narrate the role of mastery learning, skill learning and concept learning in teaching.
5. Explain the problem solving and learning as information processing.

1. MEANING AND NATURE OF LEARNING

Learning means to bring changes in the behaviour of the organism. It is very difficult to give universally acceptable definition of learning because various theories developed by psychologists attempt to define the term from different angle. Learning in psychology has the status of a construct. Construct means an idea or image that cannot be directly observed like electrons or genes but which is inferred from the behaviour of the organism. Melvin H. Marx says; “learning is a relatively enduring change in behaviour which is a function of prior behaviour” (usually called practice).

The words given above emphasize four attributes of learning as a process the first is that learning is a permanent change in behavior. It does not include change due to illness, fatigue, maturation and use of intoxicants. The second is that learning is not directly observable but manifests in the activities of the individual. The third attribute of learning is that it results in some change of enduring nature. The fourth and the last is that learning depends on practice and experience. Hilgard defined learning as, a change in a subject’s behaviour to a given situation brought about this repeated experience in that situation, provided that the behaviour change repeated experiences in that situation, provided that the behaviour change cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation, or temporary states of the subject (e.g. fatigue, drugs, etc).

An Earlier View of Learning: An earlier view of learning regarded the teacher as a dispenser of information and the children as the passive absorbers. It was believed that the central nervous system could be developed through experience in much the same way as the muscular system reading and other communicable languages skills were taught principally by isolated drill in both phonics and phonetics. All this rendered learning somewhat distasteful task for the learner.

A Later View of Learning: A later view regarded learning “as a special form of activity in which children responded specifically to particular stimuli in certain prescribed situations.” According to this view, commonly referred to as stimulus-response psychology, learning occurs as a result of modification of the synaptic connections of then neurons or as a synthetic process of forms of reflex behavior. Accordingly, the subject matter and the skills to be learnt should be organized specifically for instructional purposes. The stimulus-response theory, developed by E.L. Thorndike made use of certain laws of learning, namely, readiness, exercise, and effect. Motivation is primarily extrinsic and frequently places emphasis on rewards and penalties instead of the activity itself or its purpose.

A Recent View of Learning: One of the recently developed views of learning is based on the biological concept. Accordingly, the living organism develops by the process of individuation from the central (central nervous system) to the peripheral areas (arms,

legs, hands, and feet). This view of learning is popularly known as the organismic, purposive theory. It is also referred to as one of the field theories of learning.

This leads us to define learning in the words of some of the experts on the subjects.

1.1 Learning Defined

Learning has been explained and defined in a number of ways. A few of the views regarding the nature of learning are given below.

1. **Munn's Views:** According to Munn, "Learning is more or less permanent incremental modification of behaviour which results from activity, special, training or observation."
2. **Skinner's View:** According to Skinner, "Learning is both acquisition and retention."
3. **View of Gates:** According to Gates, "Learning is modification of behaviour through experience."
4. **View of Daniel Bell:** In the words of Daniel Bell, "Learning is modification due to energies of organism and the environment impinging on the organism itself."
5. **View of Thorpe:** Thorpe says, "We can define learning as that process which manifests itself by adaptive changes in the individual's behaviour as a result of experience."
6. **Kimble's View:** G.A Kimble opines, "Learning refers to more or less permanent change in behaviour, which occurs as a result or practice."
7. **View of Kingsley and Garrey:** Kingsley and Garrey emphasize that the act of adjustment of environment is the process of learning. According to them, learning is a "a process by which an organism, in satisfying his motivation, adopts or adjusts to a situation in which it must modify its behaviour in order to overcome obstacles or barriers."

Thus, the process of learning includes the following:

- a. Acquisition of new experiences.
 - b. Retention of old experiences in the form of impressions, engrams or skills.
 - c. Development and modification of experience,
 - d. Synthesis and organization of the old and the new experiences, resulting in novel pattern called learning.
8. **A very comprehensive definition is given by Crow and Crow as under:** "Learning is the acquisition of knowledge, habits and attitudes. It involves new ways of doing things, and it operates in an individuals' attempt to overcome obstacles or to adjust to new situations."

The following points will help us to understand the nature of learning as modification behaviour.

- (i) **Learning versus Maturation:** All learning is change in behaviour but all change in behaviour is not learning. Certain changes in behaviour occur due to maturation, drug and fatigue, for example, after long hours of continuous work, individual

shows deterioration in his performance. This change in the individual's performance is not due to learning but due to fatigue. When a man drinks alcohol or bhang, or takes some intoxicating drug, his behaviour is changed. This change in behaviour is not due to learning but due to the effect of drug or alcohol. Similarly when a housewife is angry or depressed she performs very poorly in her homework. This change in the performance of the housewife is due to her temporary, mental state.

Besides fatigue, drug or temporary." Mental state, maturation also palsy an important role in bringing out change in behavior. For example the first time the child walks or talks, is an indication that maturation is at work. The swimming of tadpoles and the flying of birds also demonstrate the effect of maturation on behaviour.

Whatever training you may provide to an infant of 6 months old, he will not speak the language. The infant will speak the language only when a vocal organ is mature. The child first creeps, then crawls, and then walks. But the first behaviour creeping occurs only when the infant is mature to do. All these examples make it clear that changes in behaviour also occur due to maturation. Maturation, in this sense, means development of anatomical and physiological structures of the body. Learning refers to those changes in behaviour, which occur due to training, practice observation and experience but not due to maturation, drug, fatigue or temporary mental states of the individual. Moore, Manning and Smith (1978) have very rightly said, "Learning is limited to those changes in behaviour which are a result of training or experience, and not a result of maturation or temporary physiological or psychological states of organism."

Certain changes in behaviour occur due to both maturation and learning. For example, a child cannot walk until his legs are strong enough to support his weight and until the development of proper neural structures takes place, but children do not walk in the same manner. The manner of walking is learned; similarly, a child cannot speak before the vocal organs develop. But children do not speak the same language. Those who speak the same language, speak in different ways. Speech is also a learned behaviour.

Maturation helps in the learning process. We cannot learn anything without our bodies taking part. The things we learn, the speed with which we learn them and our ability to retain them all depend on the interaction between our maturation process and our learning experiences. There are different ages or stages of maturation and each stage certain "kinds of learning take place. Just as healthy maturation contributes to learning, immature physical systems also contribute to deficit in learning. For example, the muscles and other structures of the newborn baby are not sufficiently mature to permit walking. Since he cannot walk and get around in the world, he can obviously know very little about it. Thus maturation determines learning.

(ii) **Permanence of Learning:**

- Changes in behaviour may be temporary or permanent. But any real learning leads to permanent changes in behaviour. Learning to speak a language or to write in the language is an instance of permanent change in behaviour. But most classrooms learning situations do not support the idea that learning is permanent. Students learn a subject or a chapter; and after the examination they forget most of what they were taught. This happens so, because what is learned does not become a part of their daily life. By learning they mean 'memorization' or 'being able to pass an examination on the subject' it does not matter whether they remember the facts permanently or forget it after the examination.
- (iii) Changes in behaviour may take place in the desirable direction or in the undesirable direction. For example, children learn good habits as well as bad habits, desirable attitudes as well as undesirable attitudes. Education must aim at teaching children certain desirable behaviours, habits or attitudes and modifying their undesirable habits, attitudes or behaviour.
- (iv) Learning can be both incidental and intentional, the school curriculum, teaching methods and learning systems must be oriented to both intentional and incidental learning.
- (v) Learning involves both overt acts and covert processes. Children learn attitudes and values, which are covert processes. When we define learning as change in behaviour, it includes both overt acts and covert processes.
- (vi) Learning results from reinforced practice. Practice makes a man perfect. Practice, training or experience leads to improvement in present learning. But practice alone does not cause improvement. Children will learn to do those things for which they are rewarded (praised, honored, recognized) and will learn to avoid doing those things for which they are punished (blamed, or getting disapproval). Some type of reinforcement should therefore, follow practice. Learning should always be associated with reinforcement.
- (vii) Learning is both a process and a product. Learning as a process includes such things as how the child is learning (discovery learning, meaningful learning, rote learning, trial and error learning, conditioning, insightful learning etc), the nature of interaction between the child and the teachers, and many other factors such as coding and rehearsal which operate at the time of learning. Learning as a product includes the results or outcomes of learning. The outcomes of learning may be cognitive (learning a concept, a rule or principle, language, etc) affective (learning attitudes, emotions values etc), or motor learning (learning skills such as typing, playing basketball, etc. Outcomes of learning, not only include the types of achievement but also the level of achievement such as mastery over the task, or learning just the essentials. In short, learning as a product includes the level and type of competencies attained by the child in relation to the learning task.

1.2 General Characteristics of Learning

The following are the general characteristics of learning:

1. **Learning is Adjustment:** Learning involves adjustment of the individual to his environment. The individual must learn to adjust himself to the changes that take place around him.
2. **Learning is Growth:** Learning must result in the growth of the child. An immature child is developed into a mature person through the process of learning.
3. **Learning is Organizing Experience:** Learning is not like adding one experience to the other it is rather, organizing the new experience with the old ones, thus giving rise to a new form of behaviour. Thus, learning involves the proper organizing of experiences in manner.
4. **Learning is Purposeful:** The more intense the purpose of the individual, the more rapid the learning. Lack of purpose in learning will hamper learning. Thus, purposeful learning is always more rapid and permanent.
5. **Learning is Active.** Better learning will take place only if the learner is actively engaged in the learning process. Thus, active participation of the pupils is essential in the learning process.
6. **Learning is intelligent and Creative:** Learning involves an intelligent interpretation of the situation, and some selectivity in the response. This necessarily involves intelligent and creative thinking.
7. **Learning Affects the Conduct of Learners:** Learning affects individuals to adjust himself to the environment. This is brought about through some sort of change and modification of one's behavior. Thus the behaviour or conduct of the individual undergoes change on account of learning.
8. **Learning is the Product of the Environment:** Learning is essentially an adaptation and adjustment to the environment.

Thus, environment has a great influence upon learning; learning cannot be divorced from the environment.

1.3 Laws of Learning

Learning is a fundamental ingredient in the education of a child. Therefore, a teacher must understand fully, how learning takes place in the best possible manner, in this connection, it is imperative that the teacher should know what are called 'Laws of Learning' as given by Thorndike and others. They must be accepted and fundamental laws of learning are:

- (i) Law of Readiness
- (ii) Law of Exercise
- (iii) Law of Effect

In addition to these, certain other laws of learning will also be mentioned briefly.

- (i) **Law of Readiness:** This law emphasizes the importance of readiness to learn. "When a person feels ready to learn or to act, he learns or acts, more effectively and with greater satisfaction than when not ready". This implies that the learner must be mentally prepared to learn. This emphasizes the importance of motivation

in learning. The learner must be brought in the proper frame of mind, and his curiosity must be increased for bringing about effective learning.

Educational Implications

1. Arouse child's readiness to learn, Herbart, the giver of Herbartian Steps, emphasized that the apperceptive masses must be brought to the forefront before any learning takes place.
 2. The law calls upon the teacher to motivate the child before he undertakes any teaching work.
 3. The curricular activities should be according to the child's mental level of maturity. This will ensure readiness as well as arouse curiosity for new things to be learnt.
- (ii) **Law of Exercise:** Broadly speaking, this law implies that learning takes place by exercising, i.e. by doing or by actively participating in the performance. We learn what we do, and we do not learn what we do not do. That is why this law is also called 'Law of Use' and 'Law of Disuse.'
- (i) **Law of Use,** 'When a modifiable connection is made between a situation and a response, that connections strength is decreased, this emphasizes the need and importance of practice. In other words 'Practice makes perfect'.
 - (ii) **Law of Disuse.** 'When a modifiable connection is not made between a situation and a response over a length of time, that connection's strength is decreased, this law implies the negative value of lack of practice.

The educational implications of the laws of exercise are great. This emphasizes the value of repetition, drill and practice for memorizing and mastering of something. This also emphasizes that much time should not elapse between one practice and the subsequent one, because long disuse may cause forgetfulness.

Educational Implications

1. If learnable acts are repeated, they become habit.
 2. Bad habits can be eradicated. It is believed that if the children are made to practice consciously their bad habits, they automatically tend to leave them.
 3. Forgetting can be delayed or diluted.
 4. Skills like typing, shorthand, athletics and so on can be developed to the maximum.
 5. The teacher must ensure that the act of repetition is carried out with a pleasant effect. An act of repetition, which is accompanied by a satisfying state, strengthens a connection.
- (iii) **Law of Effect:** This law implies that if our efforts are accompanied by a feeling of achievement or satisfaction, we are further inspired to learn, and therefore, effective learning takes place, if our efforts are not accompanied by a feeling of satisfaction, not much of real learning will take place. In other words we may say that a response, which gives achievement of the goal and thus provides satisfaction, will be stamped in, while those, which are accompanied by dissatisfaction, will be stamped out.

Thorndike defines it as follows:

“When a modified connection between a situation and response is made, and is accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs, that connection’s strength is increased, but when made and accompanied by an annoying ‘state of affairs, its strength is decreased”.

Thus, the learners, feeling or emotional state affects learning. In other words success and failure condition the learning to a great extent.

Education Implications

1. Children get to form good habit and attitude by associating with reward, satisfaction and praise.
2. Undesirable attitudes or acts of behaviour can be removed by associating them with unsatisfying desirable condition.
3. The acts of rewarding and punishing take this law into consideration.
4. Behaviour problems can be improved by associating them with annoying state of affairs.
5. Interest is directly related to this law. Children get interested in things which bring pleasant results.

Law of Recency

Recency occurrences are most vivid in our mind. The process of forgetfulness sets in as more and more time is elapsed. We remember these things better, which are comparatively recent.

This emphasizes the importance of revision. The students should revise occasionally so that the things are again refreshed in their mind. Revision should be done after short intervals and also just before the examination. Without revision a student is apt to forget even the best assimilated matter.

Law of Intensity of Stimulus

The stronger the stimulus, the greater the learning. Thus, if stimulus is strong, the response will be strong. A student, who is more serious and enthusiastic about his studies, will make greater progress and achievement. The more serious and enthusiastic a student, the greater this achievement.

Thus, the function of the educator is to provide greater stimulus to the students. Setting high and lofty objectives before the students proves to be great stimulant. Genuine praise and appreciation also act as great stimulants. Periodic tests and examinations also serve the same purpose. Thus, we may say ‘that the success or the achievement of an individual is directly, proportional to stimulus or the interest that he takes in his work.

1.4 Learning as Modification of Behaviour

Learning is a very comprehensive term. Learning does not mean only the acquisition of knowledge or skill; it means much more than that. Thus, it includes acquiring of attitudes,

values, likes dislikes, and a many other habits. A number of psychologists have defined learning as ‘change or modification of behavior. Thus, learning is the process by which an organism, as a result of its interaction with a situation, acquires a new mode of behavior, which tends to persist and affect the general behavioral pattern of the organism to some degree.

According to G.A Kimble, “Learning refers to a more or less permanent change in behaviour which occurs as a result of practice.”

Munn says. “Learning is more of less permanent, incremental modification of behaviour which results from activity, special training or observation.”

Thorpe defines learning as that “process which manifests itself by adoptive changes in individual’s behaviour as a result of experience”.

The above cited definitions emphasize that learning results in change or modification of behavior. But a pertinent question in tiffs connection is: Do all changes in behaviour occur due to learning? The answer is definitely ‘No’ there are so many other causes of change in behaviour e.g. fatigue, drugs, anxiety, emotion and so on. An individuals, after long hours of continuous work shows marked deterioration in his efficiency and performance. Radical changes in behaviour are noticed under the influence of intoxicants; a child in a state of fear and anxiety shows poor performance, and so on. In addition to these, there are other factors, which result in the change of behaviour e.g. the natural process of maturation.

Thus, all learning is modification of behavior, but all modification of behaviour is not learning. We may conclude by saying that learning is limited to those changes in behavior, which are a result of training or experiences, and not a result of maturing or temporary physiological or psychological states of the organism.

It must be noted that learning stands for relatively permanent change or modification of behavior. The temporary, changes and behaviour does not constitute learning.

Moreover, modification of behaviour may take place in the desirable direction or in the undesirable direction. For example, children learn good habits as well as bad habits. Of course, teachers and parents must always encourage children to learn desirable behaviour patterns.

It is not practice, alone which causes learning. In fact, learning occurs under conditions of reinforcement. Thus, learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour and is the result of reinforced practice.

Basis of Behaviour

Human behaviour results from two basic forces: Forces ‘inside’ the individual, and forces ‘outside’ the individual. The ‘inside’ forces mean man’s physical hungers, and his

psychological urges the 'outside' forces are one's aims and objectives, expectation of rewards, and other requirements of the society. An individual tries to modify his behaviour to meet his internal and external needs. Needs and requirements therefore are the basic causes of learning. These needs can also be classified in the following way:

- (1) Basic needs food, shelter, sex, etc.
- (2) Psychological needs satisfaction of urges and desires, pleasures and happiness.
- (3) Normative needs, attainment of aims and objectives, observing norms and values, acting according to the standards set by adults and society.

Behaviour, therefore, is prone to modification due to need-oriented learning, and is both, complex and purposeful. Therefore, the modification of behaviour through learning towards the fulfillment of the individual's needs and socially approved way is the main concern of a teacher.

1.5 Conditions of Learning

Now, learning depends upon a number of factors or conditions. The more important one's discussed below:

(1) Motivation

Motivation is one of the basic conditions of learning. Motivation, in simple language, means interest. Learning is directly proportional to our interest in learning. Therefore, the fast and foremost function of a teacher is to create interest of the students in learning. The students must be brought in the proper frame of mind before they can learn anything effectively and successfully. The teacher to motivate the students for acquiring the new knowledge can use a number of devices. This includes questioning and the use of audio-visual aids. Successful motivation means successful learning.

i. Clarity of Presentation

The subject matter must be presented clearly before the students, so that they understand it properly. This is a very important condition of learning. Let us analyze the teaching-learning process. The teacher has a mental image of the subject matter that he likes to teach to the students. He uses the media of verbal explanations aided by various types of devices of teaching and audio-visual aids to get this mental image of knowledge conveyed to the minds of the pupils. The success of teaching as well as learning will depend upon the clarity of this mental image. If a clear image is formed in the minds of the students, the impression on their mind will be clear and lasting, which means better learning. Therefore, the presentation of the subject matter should be as clear as possible to make learning effective and successful.

ii. Providing Direct Experiences

Nothing teachers like an experience and personal observation. Therefore, wherever possible, the students should be taught by the method of personal observation and experience. For example, no amount of verbal explanation will give us a clear

picture of the Tarbela Dam; the best way, to know and appreciate it is, to see it personally. Let the students observe and experience; and rest assured, true and effective learning will automatically take place.

iii. Level of Intelligence

Learning, to a considerable extent, depends upon the level of intelligence of the learners. Though the teacher cannot do much in this regard because the level of one's intelligence is determined by heredity, the knowledge of the level of intelligence is determined by heredity, the knowledge of the level of intelligence of the learner can greatly help the teacher to devise methods of teaching suited to the learner's level of intelligence. For example, a student with high IQ can easily learn through verbal explanations of the teacher; but a student with comparatively low, IQ needs the help of audio-visual aids and other devices of teaching in learning. The methods of teaching, therefore, have to be adapted to the level of intelligence of the learners.

iv. Academic Atmosphere

A very important and significant condition of learning is the provision of academic and intellectual type of atmosphere for the learners. The academic type of atmosphere prevailing at home and the school is a perpetual inspiration for the children to learn more and more. The reason is that the children imbibe an intellectual type of frame of mind from the academic atmosphere and that type of atmosphere can be created by providing a separate room for a study, providing books and journals and having intellectual talks and discussions. A good school library and a reading room can go a long way in creating academic type of atmosphere in the school.

v. Effective Methods of Teaching

Better and effective methods of teaching are essential for learning. Mostly, poor learning is the result of faulty methods of teaching. Instead of the old and traditional methods of teaching, modern and psychological methods of teaching should be used. A good method of teaching is that which makes the subject-matter is not clear to students on account of employing faculty' methods of teaching. Best methods of learning will result in best type of learning.

vi. Reinforcement

Reinforcement is a procedure of associating pleasant or unpleasant experiences objects or events with the responses, made by the learner. The basic idea of reinforcing a response is either to strengthen a response or to weaken it. Appreciation and rewards help in the strengthening of certain behaviour in the child punishment and reproof help in the elimination of undesirable behaviours in children. Thus, reinforcement can be positive such as appreciation and rewards, and negative such as reproof and punishment. The idea of providing reinforcement in learning was first popularized by Edward Thondike and later by B.F. Skinner,

Reinforcement plays a significant part in learning and therefore, the teacher should make use of this technique in the learning process.

vii. Practice

There is a great truth in the dictum that 'Practice makes a man perfect'. We learn things by doing them over and over again. A long experience makes a person skilled and proficient, practice therefore, is one of the most important conditions of learning.

The importance of practice is rightly emphasized in learning. Practice implies repetition of a particular response in the presence of the stimulus. It is not possible for the child to learn the response correctly just performing the activity only once. He has to repeat the performance over and over again to fix and learn it properly and completely. This is also essential for longer retention. The learner will be able to perform the activity easily, properly, correctly and gracefully only through long and constant practice.

These are some of the most important conditions for promoting learning.

1.6 Imitation in Learning

The most common general innate tendency of the child is imitation. It involves copying others, it implies "doing as others do". Imitation is cognitive in nature. Suggestion two has been described as unconscious imitation, but the important thing in imitation is that it is action oriented. All actions are borrowed. We generally imitate those who are elder to us or whom we held in esteem this is particularly true of children. They like to copy their teachers and parents. It is manifested in their dress and talk. There is no logically conceived ground in imitation. It is a unconscious process but can be easily, noticed by others.

Type of Imitation

Drever has mentioned two types of imitation i.e. deliberate imitation and unconscious imitation. In the deliberate imitation, a person imitates deliberately. We put on hair-styles of famous film stars; imitate their modes of action deliberately. In the unconscious imitation one imitates others unconsciously. Children generally imitate others unconsciously.

McDougall has given to main types of imitation-primary imitation and secondary imitation. Primary imitation includes three types:

(i) **Sympathetic Imitation**

When one feels as others feel (Quite Unconsciously), we have sympathetic imitation. A child cries when he sees others crying.

(ii) **Ideo-Motor Imitation**

In the Ideo-Motor type of imitation, one imitates the actions of others, when in a match one person raises his hockey stick, spectators raise their arms.

(iii) **Deliberate Imitation**

Deliberate imitation has been explained earlier.

In the secondary imitation McDougall includes two types' i.e. meaningless imitation, and unconscious imitation. In the meaningless imitation, one imitates others without being able to understand the significance of copying. This is mainly, seen in children. Unconscious imitation has been explained earlier.

Laws of Limitation

Imitation follows the following laws:

1. Imitation grows from higher to lower, urban to rural, rich to poor
2. All the aspects of imitation are borrowed
3. Imitation is more action than thinking
4. It goes from internal to external
5. Imitation grows rapidly

Imitation of Learning

It is only recently that we have recognized the worth of imitation in the sphere of education. Formerly, it was thought that imitation kills originality and initiative of the child, ready-made learning is no learning. It is a low method of learning and the child only picks up second hand knowledge. It leads to stagnation. But now-a-days, we feel that imitation is of great utility in learning. It is economical and saves time. It is a great socializing agent. The following points will highlight its use:

(1) **The Teacher**

The behaviour of the teacher should be worthy of imitation. He must be expert in his subject. He should be jack of all trades and master of one. He must have noble sentiments and character. His habits should be commendable. One thing is particularly desired in language teachers. i.e. their good handwriting so that children imitate this.

(2) **Method of Teaching**

Although imitation is an unconscious process but sometimes we have to teach some skills deliberately. This should make the purpose of the lesson clear. Teacher should explain all steps so that the students are able to imitate quickly. It will lead to their efficiency.

(3) **Weak Students**

Imitation can help dull and weak student if they copy the brighter ones. Teacher should encourage such case. Let them adopt those study habits. Healthy competition can be encouraged in the class, prizes can be instituted.

(4) **Perfection**

It should be noted that there should not be cent percent imitation. The teacher should not insist on ideal and perfect imitation. He will kill initiative of the children. He will create problem for children this way.

(5) **School**

The school should provide models for children to copy. It must recruit best teachers having correct pronunciation and good handwriting. Model lectures should be arranged. The company of the child in the school must be good, for imitation is a great socializing force, if a child has bad friends he will very soon become a

delinquent. There must be number of hobbies in the school. Drawings be hung on the walls and let the child copy those.

(6) **Good Books**

Encourage the students to read good books particularly biographies, and incorporate those ideas in themselves.

1.7 Summary

1. After describing the interpretations of learning, we explained a definition of learning as a change in behaviour that results from experience.
2. Certain changes in behaviour occur due to both maturation and learning.
3. The real learning leads to permanent changes in behavior.
4. The following are the general characteristics of learning:
 - (i) Learning is adjustment
 - (ii) Learning is growth
 - (iii) Learning is organizing experience
 - (iv) Learning is purposeful
 - (v) Learning is active
 - (vi) Learning is intelligent, .etc
5. Learning depends upon a number of factors, such as:
 - (i) Motivation
 - (ii) Clarity of presentation
 - (iii) Direct experiences
 - (iv) Intelligence
 - (v) Atmosphere
 - (vi) Methods of teaching, etc.
6. The most common general innate tendency of the child is imitation. It involves copying others. It implies “doing as others do”.

2. SKILL AND CONCEPT LEARNING

2.1 Nature of Skill Learning

Many important human activities require precision, timing and co-ordination of muscular movements. The acquisition of these qualities of action, precision, timing and coordination is required for all proficient performances and is known as skill learning. In other words skills imply proficient performance or the level of proficiency needed for a specific task. Skill learning, Motor learning and Psycho-motor learning are synonymous. Merrill (1972) has proposed the following five categories of skills, which are pertinent to schools.

- (i) Physical education and recreation skills (sports, and exercise).
- (ii) Communication skill (typing, hand-writing, shorthand).
- (iii) Language skills (speech and gestures).
- (iv) Vocational skills (crafts, tool usage, machine usage).
- (v) Fine art skills (painting, singing, using musical instruments).

Dececco and Crawford (1975) list three characteristics of skill.

- (1) A skill involves muscular or body movements. Some skills involve gross body movement as in walking, running, jumping swimming, etc. some other skills involve movement of a segment of the body as in holding and playing a musical instrument.
- (2) Skilled behaviour involves the co-ordination of hand and eye movements. For example, in typing there is co-ordination of hand (finger) and eye movement.
- (3) A skill involves a hierarchy of responses or organization of individual sub-tasks or sub-routines. For example, swimming involves a number of sub-tasks like arm strokes, breathing and leg kicks. The individual must learn each of these sub-tasks in a hierarchical way before he becomes a swimmer. Like swimming all complex skills are the result of learning subordinate skills
- (4) A skill involves some amount of trial and error behavior.
- (5) Learning a skill depends upon development and experience.
- (6) Different tasks require different combinations of abilities. For example long distance running demands stamina. Mechanical drawing requires precision, steadiness, aiming etc.

2.1.1 Stages of Skill Learning

A skill is not learned all of a sudden. It is learned through stages or phases. Fitts and Posner (1967) observed learners during practice, and also interviewed some skill instructors. As a result of their observation and interview they distinguished three phases or stages of skill learning. These are:

- The early or cognitive phase,
- The intermediate or associative phase, and
- The final or autonomous phase

The Early or Cognitive Phase:

The beginning learner attempts to understand the task and what it demands. The instructor provides verbal guidance directing the learner's attention to the proper sequence of action, the procedure of performing the action and putting together the various parts. This phase is also called the phase of instruction and intellectualization. The duration of this phase varies from learner to learner depending upon one's capacity, to intellectualize the task.

The Intermediate or Associative Phase:

This second stage of learning skills: during this stage the learner practices the skill. He practices the individual sub skills, puts together, associates or co-ordinates the various part skills into a meaningful pattern. This phase may last for days or months.

The Final or Autonomous Stage:

During the final stage the skill becomes autonomous which means it can be executed while the individual is engaged in some other activity like conversing. Improvements in smoothness and precision of the skill continue to take place gradually. During the second stage, outside activities may interfere with the learning of a skill. But in the final stage the

skill becomes automatic and thus outside activities do not interfere with the present performance.

These three stages are not unrelated and discontinuous; on the contrary each stage depends on its preceding one. For example, improvement in performance depends on practice and practice depends on effective instruction.

2.1.2 Conditions of Skill Learning

Like any other learning skill learning depends on certain conditions Gagne (1976) recognizes certain internal conditions and certain external conditions necessary for skill learning.

Internal Conditions

Recall of Part skills: In learning a skill the child must first learn and practice over the part skills. In order that a total skill is learned, these component skills or part skills must be recalled. Even the execution of a simple skill such as the drawing of a square by a child depends on recall for part-skill of holding the pencil and making directional marks on paper.

Recall of Sequence: In the execution of a motor skill involve a pattern of movements. A sequence of movements. The child must be able to recall the sequence of vicarious movements so that smoothness and precision are acquired. A bowler, in a cricket match, must follow a procedure of positioning the ball, approaching the release zone, selecting an aiming point, imparting a twist to the ball, and so on,

External Conditions

Verbal Instructions: Verbal instructions have an important role in the early phase of learning. The instructor has to explain “what to do” what procedures to follow before the child had practice over the skill verbal instructions help to increase the distinctiveness of various features for the skill.

Pictures: Moving and still picture of the movements involved in a motor performance may serve functions similar to those of verbal instructions Often pictures can accomplish these purposes more effectively than words can.

Demonstrations: Actual demonstrations of the execution of a motor performance can serve useful purposes. The learner must observe the demonstration of the steps in performing the act and engage in mental practice after watching a demonstration.

Practice: An essential external condition of skill learning is the provision for repeated practice of the motor performance. A motor skill is acquired in a gradual fashion. Increasing degrees of smoothness, timing, and precision of movement are acquired in successive practice periods. Practice may be distributed or massed practice. Whether the learner has distributed practice or continuous practice, the amount of practice is very

important. It is better to have a period of no practice or rest in between successive practice periods.

Feedback: Practice contributes to learning only when learners receive feedback from their performance of its results. Thus, one of the most important external conditions for the learning of a motor skill is the provision of informative feedback, providing reinforcement for the motor performance. It is better to provide knowledge of results to a learner immediately after or doing the practice about his performance. For example a child has drawn a square and may view it as perfectly good. Feedback can be given by comparison of his square with a printed square on a paper. The degree of precession of his drawing becomes immediately apparent only when he gets direct feedback from the teacher.

2.1.3 Teaching Skill

Skill learning has a definite part to play in education. During the pre-school years and elementary grades, skills are involved in many personal and social activities. The child learns to manipulate clothing. Articles of furniture and equipment, and other physical objects. In addition, printing, writing, drawing, and pronunciation of language are essential motor skills which children need to learn. Earlier in this section the skills pertinent to schools have been mentioned. The teacher has the following important role in the teaching of skills.

Preparation

- (i) The teacher has to analyse the skill to be taught. He should break it down into subtasks or part skills.
- (ii) He should then try to determine the extent of student's preparation, previous knowledge and abilities in respect of the skill to be taught.

Instruction

- (iii) Now the teacher has to start formal instruction. He must explain what to and what procedure to follow. It is better to teach the basic skills or part skills first and the complex skills, which are built on the earlier part skills.
- (iv) The teacher can use relevant pictures and films to explain difficult skills.
- (v) Actual demonstration of the skill or the part skill by the teacher helps in understanding learning. The teacher may also demonstrate with the help of student. It is better to demonstrate the total skill first, then the part skills individually and gain the total skill.

Practice

- (vi) The teacher should allow sufficient practice for students. The students can either have distributed practice or continuous practice, but not too much of it. There should be rest periods between practice trails.
- (vii) The teacher should devise a variety for practicing the same skill.
- (viii) During and after practice the teacher should provide feedback to the students about how well they are doing. Feedback can eliminate errors and increase the

smoothness and precision. Too much practice without feedback spoils the spirit of learning.

- (ix) While providing feedback, the teacher should emphasize right movements more than the wrong ones. A positive approach of appreciating the improvements and correctness is more helpful than the negative approach of finding fault with the students.

2.2 Concept Learning

A concept is a mental image formed by generalization from particulars. Concepts involve the ability of persons to distinguish between objects so that they are classified as belonging or not belonging to a particular group of objects a concept represents a class of stimuli, which have common characteristics. These stimuli may be objects, events or animals. Thus we have the concepts of 'Book' 'Man' Chair, 'Teacher' etc. these concepts do not refer to a particular stimulus but a class of stimuli having certain common characteristics, the process by which we organize and classify, stimuli, by which we come to perceive sets of stimuli as unified wholes and by which we come to put a number of instances into one category such as 'chair' is called concept formation or concept learning.

2.2.1 Characteristics of Concept

- (i) Concepts are generalizations. The individual must have experience with a large number of objects, events or people of the same type. He must find the common elements or attributes so that he classifies them and forms the concept.
- (ii) Concepts are learned more effectively by proceeding from simple to complex. The individual should not rush into complex experiences with the concept until they have been exposed to more simple experiences.
- (iii) A combination of abstract and concrete examples results in greater functional efficiency than the use of either alone. Telling an individual, the common elements in any concept is unsatisfactory. The individual must have concrete experiences with the concept as well.
- (iv) Concepts have three attributes such as size, shape, and colour. These distinctive features vary from concept to concept. Every attribute must have several values. For example, colour may be red, white, blue; shape may be rectangular, square, etc, size may be small, large and medium. A particular concept may have attributes with two or three values. There are concepts, which do not have these attributes, e.g. Kindness, Honesty etc.
- (v) Concepts may be two-dimensional or three-dimensional. For example, 'Blue square' is two-dimensional as it has two attributes-colour and shape. Similarly, 'Orange' has four dimensions such as colour, size, shape and texture. Complex concepts are multidimensional. As the number of dimensions increases the difficulty of learning the concept also increases.
- (vi) Concepts may have dominant attributes or obscure attributes. Dominant attributes are more easily learnt than the obscure attributes. But the teacher can make the obscure attributes clear through oral or visual emphasis.

- (vii) Concepts are symbolic for human beings. Words, numbers chemical symbols have symbolic significance. For the chemist, the symbol 'o' is not just a circle; it represents the element 'Oxygen'. Sometimes objects have complex symbolic meaning such as the crucifix a V sign, road sign.
- (viii) Concepts can be formed horizontally or vertically. An example of a horizontal classification would be if we give children some examples of reptiles-snakes, lizards, and crocodiles. They all belong to the same major group of animals because they possess certain attributes in common.

Vertical classification results from the province of hierarchies, that is, categories, which increase in complexity as we proceed through the classification. A dog belongs to the family of animals called Canis, which is subordinate to the order of animals called carnivore, which is subordinate to the class of animals called mammals, which in turn are vertebrates, which are animals. Thus higher order concepts or vertical classification of objects is very complicated.

Concepts function in at least two ways – extensionally and intentionally. When we form a concept we give a meaning to the object. When the meaning given is the widely acknowledged one or universal one, we call it the extensional use of concepts. Sometimes an individual gives a meaning as a result of his personal or subjective experiences. Here the meaning is not universally accepted but it has a personal significance. We call this the intentional use of concepts. A botanist might view the plant from a technical standpoint; an artist from a creative, aesthetic angle.

2.2.2 Development of Concept

L. Vygotsky (1962) who made a fascinating study in Russia on more than 300 children, adolescent and adults concluded that concept formation occurs in the following three basic steps.

A Synergetic form of Thinking

The first step in concept formation occurs when children group without any basis, a number of disparate objects. They thus unite diverse elements in-to one articulated image because of some chance impressions.

A Complex form of Thinking

Individual objects are combined in child's minds, not only because of personal chance of selection, but because of bonds actually existing between these objects. During this step, the bonds between objects are concrete and factual rather than abstract and logical.

The Formation of Potential and True Concepts

During this step the single attributes are abstracted; the true concept appears when abstracted attributes are synthesized and this synthesis becomes the chief instrument of thought.

Vygotsky summarize his study, by stating that the processes that result in concept formation begin in earliest childhood, but that the intellectual functions necessary for concept formation develop and ripen only at puberty. Thus Vygotsky recognizes the relationship between concept formation and the maturation process, Piaget also holds a similar viewpoint. His stages of cognitive development clearly indicated how the child proceeds from sensory – motor experiences to concrete experiences to logical thinking in learning concepts.

Klausmeier and his associates (1974) conducted laboratory experiments and classroom studies of children from 4 to 15 years. Based on their findings, they formed a model of conceptual learning and development (CLD). They recognized that the ability of children to acquire concepts depends on both external (appropriate instructions) and internal conditions (maturation and learning). The CLD model traces concept attainment through four successively higher levels: concrete, identity, classificatory and formal.

Concrete Level

Concept attainment at the concrete level means that individual recognizes an object previously encountered. For example, recognizing a red ball implies the cognitive operations of attending to the ball, discriminating it from other environmental objects, forming an image of it and then remembering the attributes.

Identity Level

Concept attainment at the identity level means that individual recognizes an object when viewed from a different perspective or sensed in bell, which you originally saw in the school.

Classificatory Level

Concept attainment at the classificatory level means that individuals can generalize that two or more things are somehow alike. For example, a young child treats a toy dog and an actual dog as dogs. We say, that the child has attained the concept of dog at a basic classificatory level. But at this level the child cannot define the word that represents the concept nor can he explain the basis of his classification.

Formal Level

Concept attainment at the formal level means that individuals can define both the name and the attributes of the concept. For example, when presented with examples of trees, shrubs, and herbs, they identify the trees, call them by name, define a tree's attributes, give an accepted definition of tree, and explain how trees, shrubs, and herbs differ.

The four levels of concept attainment emerge in an invariant sequence. The attainment of a particular concept varies among children. The same children acquire different concepts of different rates.

Klausmeier and his associates state the environmental conditions influence concept attainment. Instructional conditions can facilitate conceptual development. Teachers

should identify those concepts that students are to learn in a specific subject and decide at what a level each student should attain them. This means that instruction must match conceptual level and the maturation level of each student.

2.2.3 Teaching Concepts of Helping Children to Learn Concepts

Bruner and others say that it is possible to teach young children complicated concepts in a simple manner without waiting for a magic number of years to pass to bring the child to a stage of logical thinking. These concepts can be reintroduced in later years in a more and more complex fashion.

Planning Individualized Instruction

Sometimes teachers notice that some children tend to be abstract thinkers while other remains more concrete in their thinking even in higher grades. This is due to individual differences in conceptual styles. Teachers must be aware of these differences and plan individualized instruction.

Providing Opportunities for Experience

Learning of concepts varies with opportunities for experience both at home and in the school. Thus, there is need to expose the child to a wide, variety of stimuli during his early years. Since the early years are the foundation years of life, lack of opportunities during these critical stages may led to retardation in child's thinking abilities. Teachers and parents must provide a multiple of materials for manipulation and subsequent discovery by the child.

Teaching with Examples

Concept can be taught by both inductive and deductive methods. A purely inductive process (teaching purely by examples) is called the EG. EG approach while a purely deductive process (giving the rule of definition several different ways) is known as RUL-RUL approach. But a combination of both processes is often more effective. That is to say, a teacher can teach concepts by EG-RUL approach (examples followed by rule) and RUL-EG approach (rule followed by examples). In either case the teacher has to teach with examples.

Presenting Examples with Non-Examples

In teaching a concept by examples or by a combination of rules and examples it is important to present examples with non-examples, so that the students can identify, examples from non-examples. But the teacher should not show too few or too many different examples and non-examples as too few or too many makes learning difficult.

Proceeding from Simple to Complex

To make a concept easier to learn initially, teachers should reduce the number of dimensions or attributes, both relevant and irrelevant. As teaching progresses, these various dimensions should be increased. In other words, teachers should proceed from simple to complex examples as learning progresses.

Proceeding from Concrete to Abstract

Other things being equal, it is advisable to begin with concrete examples and move towards more abstract examples as learning progresses.

Varying Irrelevant Dimension

In teaching concepts by examples, irrelevant dimensions of the concept should be varied from one example to another, so that the relevant dimensions common to the examples may be identified more easily.

Encouraging Independent Learning

To teach concepts with examples and non-examples, the teacher can encourage passive learning or active learning on the part of students but it is more effective to seek active learning by the students. Active learning, which is an important element of independent learning, learning by discovery, must always be accompanied by feedback. Even if the students are learning independently, or by discovery. The teacher should provide some amount of guidance to them through giving hints, simplifying the examples, assisting them to some degree in answering and other ways.

Part to Whole Teaching

To teach a concept, it is important for the teacher to make sure that learners understand sub-concepts which make it up and if they do not understand the sub-concepts he should teach those first.

2.3 Main Points

- (1) Skill learning motor learning and psycho-motor learning are synonymous.
- (2) A skill involves muscular or body movements.
- (3) A Skill is not learned all of a sudden. It is learned through phases.
These are:
 - (i) Cognitive phase
 - (ii) Associative phase 1
 - (iii) Autonomous phase
- (4) The Teacher has the following important role in the teaching of skills:
 - (i) Preparation
 - (ii) Instruction
 - (iii) Practice
- (5) Concept represents loss of stimuli which have common characteristics, such as:
 - (i) Concepts are generalizations
 - (ii) Concepts are learned more effectively by proceeding from simple to complex.
 - (iii) Concepts have three attributes such as size, shape and colour.

3. PROBLEM SOLVING

In schools and colleges students learn concepts, rules and principles. Learning rules and principles helps them to learn new and higher order rules and principles in future. Learning rules and principles helps in solving problems of various types. Their activity of problem solving is thus a natural extension of rule learning. Robert M. Gagne (1976) states “Problem solving may be viewed as a process by which the learner discovers a combination of previously learned repulse which can be applied to achieve a solution for a novel situation.”

Problem solving is not simply a matter of applying learned rules. It is also a process that yields new learning. The learners are placed in a problem situation, or find themselves in one such situation. They recall previously acquired rules in the attempt to find a solution. In carrying out such a thinking process, they find a particular combination of rules that fit the situation. They not only solve the problem but also learn something new.

In fact, all learning is problem solving. There may be different forms of learning- psychomotor, verbal or affective. But these are differences in form the core remains identical. Problem solving is a complex form of learning. It is at the apex of hierarchies of human learning.

Solution to problems is not an easy or a sudden process. The individual may encounter difficulties or obstacles in achieving a solution to problems, problem-solving behaviour involves a process of overcoming difficulties that appear to interfere with the attainment of a goal-the solution to problem.

We can also view problem solving as a form of transfer of learning. When experience in one task influences performance in another task, transfer of learning is said to have occurred. Similarly experience in solving one problem facilitates the solution of similar new problems. Successful solution of similar problems is the evidence for positive transfer of learning as well as for successful problem solving behaviour.

3.1 Problem-Solving, Discovery and Creativity

Problem solving as a method of learning requires that the learners discover the higher-order rule in their own idiosyncratic manners. This does not mean that the learners will arrive at a solution by “pure discovery” without any guidance or verbal instruction. Problem solving behaviour occurs when the learners get some verbal instruction or guidance. Verbal instruction does not include a “verbally stated solution” but some hints about the nature of the problems.

The processes involved in problem solving and creativity are so similar that it is difficult to differentiate problem solving from creativity. A great scientific discovery or a great work of art is surely the result of problem solving activity. As problem solving behaviour, these creative acts are based on a tremendous amount of previously immersed themselves

deeply in the subject-matter of problem, often over considerable periods. The steps in creative thinking are almost similar to the steps in problem solving.

3.2 Conditions Influencing Problem Solving

The following are some of the conditions, which influence problem solving behaviour:

Principle Learning

Problem solving is closely related to principle learning since it combines two or more previously learned principles into a higher order principle. Thus one essential condition of problem solving is that the student must learn principles before he is able to solve problems for example, a student has to solve a problem hitting an under-water target. To do this he must have learned the principles of refraction.

A Period of Initial Efforts

There are two views regarding the means of solving problems. One view is that the solution to a problem is arrived at suddenly after some initial efforts. Another view is that a problem gets solved through gradually eliminating errors and putting together correct responses. Although considerable arguments have occurred concerning which is the correct interpretation, we can accept the view that certain problems, which are easy for the learner are solved with fewer trials and difficult problems take more trials for a solution.

Intelligence

Intelligence has been defined as the ability of an individual to solve problems. Thus, other things being equal, an older and more intelligent person can solve a problem with less fumbling and fewer errors than a younger and less intelligent child. Teacher can arrange learning situations to facilitate achieving the correct solutions with fewer errors.

Experience with Success and Failure

Problem solving is related to one's experience with success or failure in solving problems previously. Repeated failures result in giving up, substituting different goals, or showing other forms of unproductive behaviour. The problem solving processes of a student after failure are significantly inferior to those following successful experiences. Thus successful experiences in solving problems are easily, transferred to solving similarly new problems.

Set

Set influences problem solving. Set is usually defined as a predisposition to react to a situation in a certain way. That set influences problem solving has been demonstrated in a number of situations. It was found that when individuals were taught to solve a series of related problems by one method, they persisted in using that method in solving other problems, even when the method did not work. Persons taught by a single method and having experienced success repeatedly in solving series of related problems cling to that method even when repeated trials with it are found not to work in solving new problems of different types. The influence of set on problem solving points out the fact that we

should not be rigid in applying a particular and already established method in solving problems. We should be better flexible in our approach.

Group Work

Teacher generally works with groups as well as individuals. How do groups perform on problem solving in comparison with individuals? Most researches find the average performance of small groups to be superior to that of individuals. Sometimes the best individuals exceed the averages of groups. It is possible that group members would perform better after more experience in working together and after instruction. Why is the average performance of small groups superior to that of individuals in problem solving situations? During the initial learning, the small groups collectively arrive at an understanding of the problem more quickly than individuals, secure information more rapidly. Cognize them more effectively remember the relevant information better, bring a larger variety of methods to bear upon the solution, pose more solutions, and verify the solutions more reliable.

Productive and Reproductive Thinking

Problem solving involves both productive and reproductive thinking. When one is confronted with a problem, the problem is brought to focus, He than organizes his present and past experiences in order to reach a solution. If he is satisfied with his present meaning and organizations and solves the problem accordingly, reproductive thinking has occurred. If he is not satisfied with the present experiences or meaning, he needs to restructure his meaning, experiences or cognitive structure. This restructuring of the cognitive structure is the occurrence of productive thinking.

Convergent and Divergent Thinking

Problem solving also involves convergent and divergent thinking. In divergent thinking, we think in different directions and search for more than one answer to solutions. But in convergent thinking, the information leads to one answer or to a recognized or conventional answer. Convergent thinking is synonymous with reasoning and divergent thinking is associated with creativity. Thus, skinner said, “problem solving is the framework or pattern within which creative thinking and reasoning take place.

3.3 The Step in Problem Solving

There are many viewpoints regarding the steps of problem solving. It is not therefore easy to resolve problem solving into a series of orderly steps. Nevertheless, it is helpful to understand what the steps are, even though they are taken in reverse or mixed order.

These steps are:-

- First- A felt need
- Second- Locating or recognizing the problem situation
- Third- The accumulation of data
- Fourth- Formulating a hypothesis
- Fifth- Testing the hypothesis
- Sixth- Making a generalization

A Felt Need

The first step in problem solving is a felt need. The problem solver must first feel the difficulty with sufficient definiteness and speculate the probable solution.

Locating or Recognizing a Problem Situation

After the difficulty is felt, the next step is to locate or understand the nature of the problem. The more clearly an individual can state the nature of the problem and the more likely, he is to solve it. In locating the problem, the teacher may help students save time.

The Accumulation of Data

The third step in problem solving is to gather relevant information about the problem. Gathering data to solve a problem is not an easy undertaking. But there is no substitute for this tedious and time-consuming task. The teacher is required to instill in pupil a respect for factual knowledge and an appetite for its acquisition. The pupils must find out what others have done with the same or similar problems. Intelligent problem solving is always based on whatever progress has already been made. Thus the pupils must be encouraged to make a brief record of sources of information on cards rather than on full sheets of paper. This way of gathering information makes the tedious task effective and interesting.

Formulating a Hypothesis

A hypothesis is simply a theory or a tentative solution. It is a tentative solution, which may be accepted or rejected. It is not something, which must be supported. One may take many hypotheses. One of them may turn out to be the correct solution. The worth of these possible solutions depends largely on the originality and intelligence of the problem solver.

Testing of Hypothesis

After some tentative solutions accepted, the pupils can be asked to try to retest the possible solutions and their consequences. Thus, this is a step of judging and predicting. The pupils may test the possible solutions either in an actual situation, or in the laboratory or through group discussions. This testing whether theoretical, situational or experimental, gives additional information or data about the problem. The new information may result in an alteration of the hypothesis.

Making a Generalization

Testing the hypothesis is often the final step in the solution of a problem. However, higher forms of reasoning demand still another step making a generalization. This final step is an attempt to consolidate the conclusion in order to conserve the meaning. It is a verbal description of the salient information that has been obtained. The teacher must take the responsibility for impressing upon students the value of making sound generalizations. Making a generalization will help the students in solving other problems in future.

Whoever, these steps are not too difficult for children at the beginning of their school experiences. Small children may not find out correct solutions to problems but they can feel the problem they can gather data. They can make partially informed solutions. They can evaluate the solutions and their knowledge. It is, therefore, gratifying to remember that the correct solution of specific problems is typically no more important than the processes and interests involved.

3.4 Teaching Problem Solving in School

There are four different viewpoints regarding the chief purpose of teaching problem solving in school. These are:

- (a) Acquisition of knowledge of wide applicability,
- (b) Learning and using the techniques of problem solving,
- (c) Learning and transfer of skills, concepts and principles,
- (d) Development of the ability to transfer the skills acquired through problem solving in schools to the solution of personal and community problems.

Whatever may be the purpose of teaching problem solving, teachers must know the following points in providing instruction for problem solving:

- (i) The teacher must describe what the problem is and what constitutes the solution. This does not mean that the teacher will tell the students how to solve the problem. Rather he will help the students in locating the problem the students must construct the solution on their own though guided discovery.
- (ii) A necessary condition for successful problem solving is the acquisition of related concepts and principles. Thus while presenting a problem and encouraging the students to find solutions the teacher must assess the student's entering behaviour—the concepts and principles learned by the students which will be required in the solution of the problem, if the students have not understood these concepts and principles, they will fail to solve the problem.
- (iii) The teacher should help the students to recall all relevant concepts and principles. The students must recall these principles in the presence of the problem and discover the relationship between them, which will result in the problem solution. By question and demonstration the teacher can help the students recall the principles.
- (iv) While helping students to recall the relevant principles they should also be helped to apply these concepts and principles in the solution of the problem. Verbal direction and instruction by the teacher can help students apply the relevant principles in the problem situation.
- (v) After trying and solving the problem, the students should be required to give a full demonstration of the problem solution. In order to test their real understanding of problem solving the teacher should use other problems of the same class and verify their learning and understanding. This will also lead to test their generalization and transfer.

Problem solving behaviour can be fostered in children through the introduction of both general factors such as interest, persistence and self-confidence and specific factors such as ability in locating information, in formulating precise hypothesis and in defining terms,

etc. providing the child with a good background of information, particularly, of principles and generalizations, can lead to improved problem solving.

Some Teachers think that children are inadequate in their reasoning capacity and problem solving behaviour. This is partly true, primarily because of their lack of experience and understanding. Moreover, there are individual differences in reasoning capacity among children. Thus while encouraging problem solving behaviour among children, the teacher should see that the problem is within their understanding and experience, problems should deal with the situations difficult enough to be challenging and yet simple and familiar enough for children to grasp.

3.5 Main Points

1. The activity of problem solving is thus a natural extension of rule learning.
2. Problem solving, as a method of learning requires.
3. The following are the conditions, which influence problems solving behaviour:
 - (i) Principle learning
 - (ii) A periods of initial efforts
 - (iii) Intelligence
 - (iv) Experience with success and failure
 - (v) Set
 - (vi) Group work
 - (vii) Productive and reproductive thinking
 - (viii) Convergent and divergent thinking

4. LEARNING AS INFORMATION PROCESSING

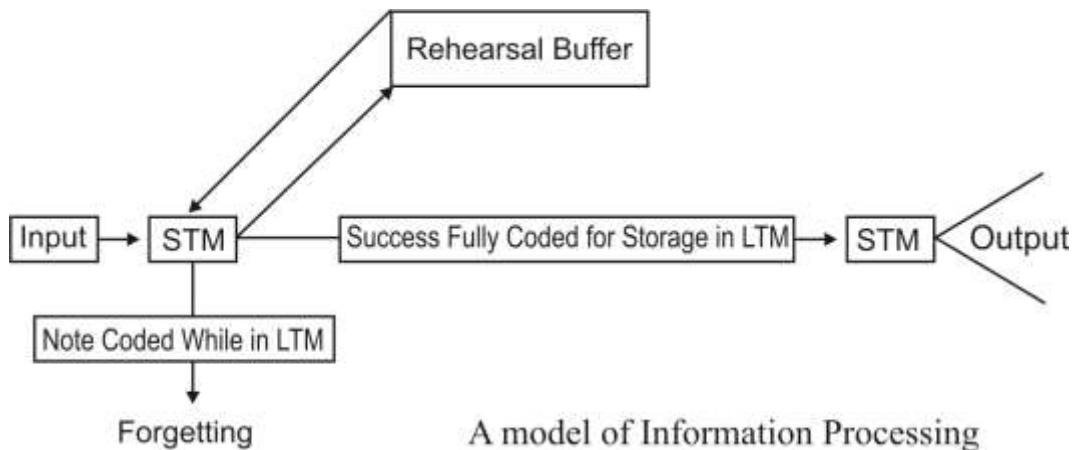
In recent years much interest has been directed towards explaining learning, memory, attention, perception and other areas of human behaviour through constructing models. The models are miniature systems which try to explain how a psychological system functions. The modern information processing theory considers human beings as computers and tries to explain learning and memory in terms of functions of a computer. In a computer system, three phenomena are important-the input, the output and the processing or transformation of input into output. Learning processing or transformation of input into output.

4.1 Input and the Output

In a learning situation, information first reaches the brain through our sensory channels. Such information that reaches the brain through our sensory organs can be termed, as 'input' the 'input' is then processed in some way to be a certain brain mechanism. This processing heads to storage of information and later to 'output'-what we do, say or behave. This transformation of input into output is made possible by a process known as memory. Since then, brain is involved in the processing of input into output, it is sometimes called as the information-processing machine. Learning and ultimately retention are the result of successful information processing.

4.2 The LTM and the STM

There are two memory storages: the short-term memory or STM and the long-term memory of LTM. LTM differs from STM in several respects. First of all, the STM has a limited capacity for storing information whereas the LTM has unlimited capacity for storage of information. Information in STM storage can stay for a very brief period of time say, about 15 seconds. But information in the LTM storage can stay for indefinite period. Secondly, almost any information can get into STM storage with ease, but it is much harder for information to get into the LTM storage. Information, which are properly coded or interpreted or given meaning are allowed to get into the LTM storage. But once information is inserted into the LTM storage, it probably has a permanent place there. Third, Information is stored in the STM in images and words whereas information in LTM storage is saved in terms of concepts and meanings.



The incoming information first reaches the STM storage mechanism and remains there for a very brief period of time. During its stay in the STM it may be recalled or retrieved perfectly. However, as indicated earlier, the STM has limited capacity and thus the information cannot stay there for a longer period. As new information reaches the STM it must be accommodated. This is done by pushing out the old information. Thus information can stay in the STM as long as it is not pushed out by incoming information. If the information is to be retained then during its brief stay in the STM it is to be coded and transferred to the LTM storage. If such coding or transformation does not occur during the stay of the input in the STM it is pushed out, lost permanently and forgetting of the learned material or information occurs, in other words forgetting at the STM level occurs due to (1) interference of new information with the old one and (2) absence of coding and transformation of input in the STM to LTM.

As indicated earlier, the LTM storage mechanism has unlimited capacity for storing information that is transferred from the STM. Actually, once information enters the LTM, it is never lost or forgotten. Sometimes, the information stored in the LTM is not available for recall. For example, at times we fail to remember or recall a very familiar

name or something that is on the tip of the tongue. In that case, can you say that the name has been forgotten? In the LTM a large number of information or input is stored. In order to recall an input we have to search for cues. In the absence of sufficient cues, it becomes difficult when only a part of the input was initially coded and transferred to the LTM. Thus, if the coding is incomplete before it is transferred to the LTM subsequent recall may be difficult.

4.3 Phases in Information Processing

When information is remembered, three things occurs (1) **Encoding**, The process by which information is put into the memory system: (2) **Storage**, the process by which information is retained until it is needed: and (3) **Retrieval**, the process by which information is re-gather when it is needed.

These components are assumed to operate sequentially. Incoming signals are transformed into a “state” where they can be stored. This is termed a TRACE. A trace is a set of information, it is the residue of an event that remains in memory after the event has vanished. When encoded, the trace is placed in storage. Finally, depending on environmental needs, the individual actively searches for stored material.

4.3.1 Encoding

Information processing has been linked to a filing system (Ellis, 1972: Hule, Deese, and Egeth, 1975: Higbee, 1977). Suppose you are an office clerk, and you have the task of filling a company’s correspondence. You have letter from an important customer suggesting a new product for the company. Under what category are you going to file the letter? If the contents of the letter involve something new, will you decide to create a new category “product suggestions” or will you file the letter under the customer’s name? The categorizing procedure you employ must be consistent. You cannot file this particular letter under the customer’s name and the next similar type of letter under “product suggestions”.

Encoding is a process that involves perceiving information, abstracting from it one or more classificatory, characteristics, and creating corresponding memory traces for it. As with a filing system, the manner in which we encode information has a profound impact upon our later ability to retrieve it. If we file an item haphazardly, we will have difficulty recalling it.

Since the encoding process occurs during the presentation of to-be-remembered materials, the distinction between learning and memory research is becoming blurred (Ellis and Hunt, 1977). Indeed, Endel Tulving (1968) suggests that learning constitutes an improvement in retention. Thus, according to Tulving. The study of learning is the study of memory.

An accumulating body of research suggests that the encoding process frequently, involves the active transformation and alteration of information. Thus, it should not be

assumed that encoding is simply a passive process whereby environmental events are mechanically registered upon some sort of memory trace or “Engram”. The physical-chemical processes that form the basis of learning and memory are still poorly understood (Thompson, 1975). Studies show that we have good retention of the meaning or gist of prose material but poor memory for the specific words (Bartlett, 1932; Ellis and Hunt, 1977). Verbatim recalls are the exception, while the usual mode of recall is the paraphrase. Hence, in information processing, we tend to abstract the general idea from material.

4.3.2 Storage and Retrieval

Although the distinctions among encoding, storage, and retrieval are widely accepted on a theoretical level, psychologists and educators have not reached the point where they can conclusively differentiate among them on an experimental level (Estes, 1976; Houston, 1976). Hence, in practice considerable overlap and interpenetration exist among the components involved in information processing.

From a strictly scientific standpoint; we cannot know that a memory exists unless it can be used in some way to affect perception, thinking, or behaviour. On logical grounds, however, the distinction between store and retrieval is clear-cut. We may store information. Yet it may not be accessible to us.

By way of illustration, most of us have learned at one time or another names of the planets surrounding the sun. Try, for instance, recalling the names of all of them. They are very likely “in there,” but, for a variety of reasons, we may not be able to retrieve the information upon demand. In some respects, the retrieval process is comparable to a search through an office filing cabinet. We may first look for a letter under the customer’s name, next under “product suggestions,” and so on, similarly, our search for the names of the planets may take several routes. Some of us will initiate the search by starting with the planet nearest the sun and then work outward in space. Others will search for the “large” planets and then the “small” planets. Still others will employ idiosyncratic features to recall the planets such as Jupiter has twelve satellites, Saturn has a series of thin, flat rings, Venus is the most brilliant planet, and so on (Houston, 1976). Memory failure may occur at any phase in information processing. Returning to the illustration of the office filing cabinet, we may receive a letter from a customer. Inadvertently, we may place the letter with trash items that we then discard. Thus, the letter is never encoded, since it is not placed in the filing cabinet. It is both unavailable and inaccessible because it was never stored. Or we may place the letter in the filing cabinet but mistakenly put it in the wrong folder. It is now available although it is inaccessible because it was stored incorrectly. Finally, we may, file the letter under the customer’s name but later lack the proper cue to activate the category, under which we filed it.

4.4 Main Points

1. In a learning situation, information first reaches the brain through our sensor channels.
2. The short-term memory, has limited capacity for storing information and the long-term memory, had unlimited capacity storage of information.
3. When information remembered, three things occur:
 - (i) Encoding
 - (ii) Storage
 - (iii) Retrieval

4.5 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Learning is the modification of behaviour'. Explain.
2. What do you mean by 'Mastery Learning'? What are the conditions of mastery learning? State the role of the teacher in learning for mastery?
3. Explain the concept and nature of skill learning. What are the various phases of skill learning?
4. Discuss the various conditions of skill learning. How can the teacher teach skills to children?
5. What do you mean by concept? How do children learn concepts? How can the teacher teach concepts to children?
6. What do you mean by problem solving? What are the conditions influencing problem-solving behaviour among children?
7. Explain the information processing theory of learning.
8. Define learning. State the conditions for promoting learning.
9. What do you mean by learning for mastery? State the steps of learning for mastery.

Unit-4

THEORIES OF LEARNING

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INTRODUCTION

Learning takes place in many ways. Sometimes it is intentional, as when students acquire information presented in a classroom or when they look something up in the encyclopedia. Sometimes it is unintentional, as in the case of the child's reaction to the needle. All sorts of learning are going on all the time. As you (the reader) are reading this chapter, you are learning something about learning. However, you are also learning that educational psychology is interesting or dull, useful or useless. Without knowing it, you are probably learning about where on the page certain pieces of information are to be found. You may be learning to associate the content of this chapter with unimportant aspects of your surroundings as you read it, such as the musty smell of books in a library or the temperature of the room you are reading in. The content of this chapter, the placement of words on the page, and the smells, sounds, and temperature of your surroundings are all stimuli. Your senses are usually wide open to all sorts of stimuli, but you are consciously aware of only a fraction of them at any one time.

The problem faced by educators is not how to get students to learn; students are already engaged in learning every waking moment. Rather, it is to help them learn particular information, skill, and concepts that will be useful in adult life. How do we present students with the right stimuli on which to focus their attention and mental efforts so that they will acquire important skills? That is the central problem of instruction.

For this we will present some learning theories in this unit, which will be helpful for the teachers and students to overcome these problems.

OBJECTIVES

After completion of this unit, the student will be able to:

1. Describe experiments that led to the theories of Associative Learning and cognitive learning.
2. Differentiate between the associative and the cognitive learning theories.
3. Describe how teachers can use learning theories to help students learn complex skills.
4. Relate the importance of conditioning in learning.

1. ASSOCIATIVE THEORIES OF LEARNING

Psychologists have developed two principle types of learning theories to explain how individual learn: behavioural or associative and cognitive.

Behaviour learning theories tend to emphasize observable behaviour, such as classroom behaviour or new skills or knowledge that can be demonstrated. Behavioural learning theorist is particularly interested in the way pleasurable or painful consequences of behaviour change the individual's behaviour over time.

A major goal of the behaviourist is to determine the laws governing learning. The concern about the nature of learning has dominated academic psychology for most of this century. A number of ideas contributed to the behavioral view. The Greek philosopher Aristotle's concept of the association of ideas is one important origin of behaviourism.

1.1 Associationism

Suppose when Bomb-Blasts you remember the event of Ojri-Camp. The whole thought process reflects the concepts of association of ideas. Two events can become associated with each other; thus when you think of one event, you automatically recall the other.

Aristotle proposed that in order for an association to develop, the two events must be contiguous (Temporally Paired) and either similar to or opposite to each other.

As Aristotle said that learning is the result of association of two components, the "Conditioning" become synonymous with association.

1.2 Conditioning

Conditioning is considered by many psychologists to be the fundamental form of learning underlying the development of some of the earliest response patterns in newborn infants. Conditioning has been demonstrated to occur even before birth. Through conditioning the organism's responses to a great variety of stimulus situations are changed.

1.3 Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning may be defined as the formation (or strengthening) of an association between a conditional stimulus and a response through the repeated presentation of the conditional stimulus in a controlled relationship with an unconditioned stimulus that originally elicits that response.

The best known experiment in classical conditioning was performed by a Russian physiologist and Nobel prize winner, Ivan Pavlov, who accidentally discovered the conditioned response while performing a series of routine physiological experiments (Pavlov, 1927) Pavlov was studying digestion and salivation in dogs, using an apparatus which collected and measured the secretions of live animals by means of tubes implanted

in the stomach or cheek. In these experiments, meat powder was placed in a dog's mouth and his salivary response to the food was observed. Pavlov's assistants reported that after a number of trials with any particular dog, the animal would begin to salivate when he saw the food, before it was actually placed in his mouth. Soon he would salivate at the sight of the food dish, and finally even at the sound of the assistant's approaching footsteps. Pavlov, realizing that his phenomenon was of great significance, changed the course of his investigations.

In this series of experiments which followed his chance discovery, Pavlov established the terminology that is still used to describe this type of learning. He applied the term unconditioned stimulus (UCS) to the food in the mouth, which elicited the inborn unconditioned response (UCR), salivation. He demonstrated that after repeated occasions on which a bell was sounded immediately before the food was placed in the dog's mouth. The bell alone came to produce the increased flow of saliva. Pavlov called this change in the animal's behaviour a conditioned reflex or conditioned response (CR); the previously "neutral" stimulus, the bell, had become a conditioned stimulus (CS) by virtue, of having been presented with the food. A neutral stimulus is one that before conditioning does not produce the response that the investigator is seeking. It may, of course, produce other presences, such as pricking up the ears or turning the head.

Any stimulus that elicits an inborn response may be used as an unconditioned stimulus in a classical conditioning procedure. In the case of the meat powder, the stimulus is a pleasant one, but an aversive stimulus is a pleasant one, an aversive stimulus may be used instead. For example, if the bell is followed by an electric shock to the paw, the unconditioned response to the stimulus a flexion of the paw soon comes to be elicited by the bell alone.

Pavlov's studies have had a widespread influence on the development of psychological thought. The process of conditioning has since been demonstrated experimentally in countless experiments with both animal and human subjects, and the conditioned response has become a fundamental concept in modern psychology.

1.4 Extinction and Recovery

Two other important phenomena discovered in Pavlov's investigations were experimental extinction and spontaneous recovery. As long as the dog was given food after the sound of the bell, his salivary response to the bell continued. But repeated soundings of the bell without reinforcement (the presentation of food) resulted in the gradual disappearance of the contained response, a phenomenon known as experimental extinction. When the dog was allowed to rest for a day after intense extinction training, however, salivation again occurred at the sounding of the bell. The conditioned response was recovered "spontaneously". But on this second day, with continued lack of reinforcement, the point of zero salivation was reached in fewer trials; and within a few more days. The unrewarded trials resulted in permanent extinction of the conditioned response. Without

such extinction training, a dog might retain the conditioned response for three or four months with little decrease in its strength.

1.5 Conditioning Paradigms

Five different paradigms have been used in conditioning studies. These procedures, representing the varied ways in which a CS can be paired with the UCS, are not equally effective. The delayed conditioning paradigm usually is the most effective; the backward conditioning, the least effective.

(a) Delayed Conditioning

In delayed conditioning, CS on-set precedes UCS on-set. The termination of the CS occurs either with UCS onset or during UCS presentation. If, for instance, a darkening sky precedes a severe storm, this situation is an example of delayed conditioning. The darkening sky is the CS; its occurrence precedes the storm and it remains present until the storm occurs. Having experienced this type of conditioning, a person will be quite frightened whenever he or she sees a darkened sky.

(b) Trace Conditioning

With this conditioning paradigm, the CS is presented and terminated prior to UCS onset. A parent, who calls a child to dinner is using a trace conditioning procedure. In this example the announcement of dinner (CS) terminates prior to the presentation of food (UCS). As we will discover in the next section, hunger developed with this paradigm can be quite weak unless the interval between CS termination and onset is very short.

(c) Simultaneous Conditioning

The CS and UCS are presented together when the simultaneous conditioning paradigm is used. The example may be when you enter and walk into the fast food restaurant, in this setting, the restaurant (CS) and the food (CS) occur at the same time. And probably it would lead to weak hunger conditioned to the restaurant.

(d) Backward Conditioning

In Backward Conditioning paradigm, the UCS is presented and terminated prior to the CS.

(e) Temporal Conditioning

There is no distinctive CS in temporal conditioning. Instead the UCS is presented in regular intervals, and over time the CR will be exhibited just prior to the onset of the UCS. To show the conditioning has occurred, the UCS is omitted and the strength of CR Assessed. What mechanism allow for temporal conditioning? In temporal conditioning, a biological state provides the CS. When the same internal state precedes each UCS exposure, that state will be conditioned to elicit the CR.

Consider the following example for temporal conditioning procedure. You set your alarm to awaken you at 7.00 am for an 8.00 am class. After several months you will find that

you awaken prior to the sound of alarm. Your internal state present every day just before the alarm rings (CS) become condition to produce arousal; this arousal (CR) awakens you prior to the alarm's sounding.

1.6 Connectionism Theory by E.L. Thorndike

Thorndike viewed learning as a series of stimulus-response (S-R) connection, or bonds. His theories of learning describe the ways in which these (S-R) connections could be strengthened or weakened. He felt that learning was basically a trial-and-error enterprise, and he paid little attention to the possibility of concept formation or thinking.

Thorndike's Puzzle-Box Studies: Around 1900, Edward L. Thorndike conducted a series of studies on animal intelligence, a number of them involving cats in puzzle boxes. The general features of the research situation were as follows.

A hungry cat was placed in a cage with food placed outside the cage, which was so constructed that the door to the cage could be opened by pulling a string somewhere in the cage. Typically, the cat would make a direct and futile attempt to get the food by trying to squeeze through the bars, clawing at the string, and generally engaging in a fair amount of clawing and striking all over the cage. Given enough of such activity, the cat would eventually claw the string, thus opening the door and enabling the cat to get the food. When placed in the cage again after a time, the cat would behave quite similarly to its behaviour on the first occasion, clawing and striking about and eventually getting the door open. Over repeated trials in the puzzle box, the cat would gradually restrict its activity to the area containing the string and, only after a considerable number of trials, would eventually go directly to the string when placed in the cage observations and open the door. These observations led Thorndike to propose that problem solving is a matter of trial and error, with successful response gradually "stamped-in" and unsuccessful responses "stamped-out". There seemed to be no reason to attribute to the animal any insight, reasoning, or understanding of the situation, rather it appeared that the psychologist's task was to identify the principles underlying the strengthening and weakening of various responses to a stimulus situation.

Three Major Laws

Thorndike postulated three major laws of learning:

(i) The Law of Readiness

When an organism is in a state in which the conduction units (S-R connections) are ready to conduct, then the conduction is satisfying. If the conduction unit is not ready to conduct, then conduction is annoying. Thorndike was referring to a more momentary phenomenon, a kind of neurologically teachable moment.

(ii) The Law of Effect

This was by far Thorndike's most important law. It states that an S-R connection followed by satisfaction (reward) is strengthened. Also a connection followed by annoyance (punishment) is weakened. He came to feel that reward strengthened

learning far more than punishment weakened it. His evidence for changing his position on this issue was, to say the least, rather flimsy. It was based on a study of symbolic reward and punishment, where the reward consisted of saying “Right” and the punishment consisted of saying “wrong” to the students. The results might have been quite different if the reward had been a candy bar and the punishment a mild electric shock.

1.7 Edwin Guthrie: Behaviourist Associationist

The last of the early associationists was Edwin Guthrie. Guthrie was the behaviourist-associationist par excellence. Following directly in Waston’s footsteps, he rejected any psychological concept that might have “mentalistic” overtones. He postulated one law of learning: learning by association or, as he called it, contiguity. According to Guthrie, if a certain stimulus (or pattern of stimuli) is followed by a response, then the next time that stimulus appears, the same response will follow. That’s all there is to it stimuli and responses in sequence. There is no need to call on reward, reinforcement, or “effect” in order to explain how learning occurs. He also believed that learning occurs the first time the stimulus and response become associated.

To create conditions that will promote learning, Guthrie believed that the teacher should provide the stimulus and the student should respond. For example, the teacher might point to a map and the students would then reply with the name of the city. The important thing was for the appropriate stimulus to be presented before the desired response occurred.

A frenzied mother once brought her child to Guthrie. The child had been in the habit, on coming home from school, opening the door of his home, taking off his coat, and throwing it on the floor. The mother told Guthrie that no matter how many times she told her child to pick up coat and hang it in the closet, the child continued this behaviour. Guthrie did not reach for any deep psychological explanation, like finding out what throwing the coat on the floor symbolized, what it “meant” to the child. He simply told the mother to rearrange the stimulus response sequence. When the child throws his coat on the floor, he should not be told to hang it up. He should instead be told to put the coat on, go back outside, come through the door and, only then, hang up the coat. Thus hanging up the coat could become a response to the stimulus of entering the house, rather than to the stimulus of the mother’s command. “Take your coat off the floor and hang it up”.

The advice apparently worked, for then on the child hung up his coat correctly. Fortunately for Guthrie, and especially for the child, longer sequence of S-R associations did not form that is according to Guthrie’s system, the child might have forever learned to come home, open the door, throw the coat on the floor, pick it up, put it on, go back outside, come back in, their hang up the coat!

2. COGNITIVE THEORIES OF LEARNING

Include one's ideas, beliefs, thoughts and images. When we know, understand or remember something, we use cognition to do so. Cognitive processes are mental activities that involve forming, manipulating and using cognition or cognition is a term used to describe all of our mental processes such as perceptions, memory and judgment.

Cognitive approaches to learning emphasize changes that occur within an organism's system of cognition. Its mental representation of itself and the world cognitive learning involves the acquisition of knowledge or understanding and need not be directly reflected in behaviour. As the most important mental process is thinking and cognitivists focus most of their attention on studying how people think. In cognitive theories, however thinking plays the central role.

2.1 Max Wertheimer: Gestalt Psychology

Max Wertheimer, founded the school of psychology called Gestalism, or Configuration. Wertheimer insisted that it was useless to study small parts of psychological concepts, like perception or learning. Studying parts in isolation was unjustified, because changing any singly part necessarily changes the whole. Similarly, the whole may remain, even when all the parts have changed. For example, if we play a tune in two different keys, even though the individual notes are different each time, the tune retains its integrity.

Wertheimer was concerned with the way children learn, particularly in school. He was against the use of rote memorization, especially when it so often seemed to be an end in itself. Above all else, he wanted children to achieve understanding, to have insight into the nature of the problem.

2.2 Wolfgang Kohler: Learning by Insight

Wolfgang Kohler, who had worked with Wertheimer at the University of Frankfurt, spent a few years during World War I on the island of Tenerife, off the coast of Africa. There he performed Gestalt psychology's most famous animal studies. Kohler arranged an ape's cage so that there were bananas hanging from the top a couple of boxes on the floor. In order to reach the bananas, the ape had to stack one box on top of another and then climb to the top. The ape's solution to the problem appeared to Kohler not to be one of blind trial and error. Instead, the ape seemed to size up the situation and almost in a flash, it understood the problem and "saw" the solution. The ape displayed what Kohler called insight, and Kohler felt that this was more typical of learning especially human learning, than Thorndike's concept of blind trial and error.

In another experiment, Kohler put food outside the cage, beyond even an ape's long reach. Inside the cage, however, there were some sticks. At first the apes would throw the sticks at banana. Then they "realized" that by using the stick as a kind of tool they could reach out and rake the banana in one, especially intelligent ape, named Sultan, were even able to join two short sticks together to rake the food in.

Kohler explanation was that the apes were able to see problem as unified whole. In the box stacking problem, the ape did not see the boxes and bananas as separate elements but came to realize that they belonged together as part of a whole. Similarly the sticks and bananas were perceived as belonging together, and it was only after this reorganization of perceptions that insight into the solution to the problem occurred.

Insight has been called the “a-ha” phenomenon. Kohler made much of the concept of insight, perhaps too much. He felt that insight learning did not depend on past experience, that it was not just a special case of transfer.

2.3 Summary

Association Learning and Cognitive Learning

Now that the dust has settled on some of the great theoretical debates of the past, two main schools of thought on learning have emerged, though many variations still exist. These two main schools of thought are association learning and cognitive learning.

Association theorists, on the one hand, see learning as the result of connection (Associations) between stimuli (Sense impression) and responses, Dogs salivating When they hear the can opener opening their food, babies waving “bye-bye” on cue from their mothers, or fifth graders saying “seventy-two” to the stimulus “nine times eight” are all examples of association learning. A bond has been formed between two elements, a stimulus and a response.

Cognitive theorists, on the other hands, view learning as a recognition of a number of perception. This reorganization allows the learner to perceive new relationship, solve new problems and gain a basic understanding of a subject area. A fifth grade suddenly realizing that multiplication is successive addition; an ape suddenly understanding that by putting two short sticks together, a banana that was out of reach is now obtainable; or an eighth grader discovering a way to calculate the area of a parallelogram, these are all examples of cognitive learning.

These two views of learning parallel the two sides of another controversy that has historically split the field of psychology. The behaviorists have typically been associationists, whereas the gestaltists have been cognitive theorists.

2.4 Activities

1. Define Associationism:

2. How extinction takes place in classical conditioning

3. Enlist laws of learning:

- (i) _____
- (ii) _____
- (iii) _____

4. Why S-R is important for learning:

5. Define cognitive process:

6. Gestalt psychology is a combination of:

- (i) _____
- (ii) _____
- (iii) _____

7. Differentiate between associative and cognitive learning:

2.5 Self-Assessment Questions

- Q. 1 Define Conditioning. Explain the conditioning process explained by Ivon Pavlov.
- Q. 2 What do you understand by S-R. Theory and how it can help in classroom teaching?
- Q. 3 What is cognition, explain the theories of cognition?
- Q. 4 Differentiate between the associative learning theories and cognitive learning theories?
- Q. 5 Explain the role of associative and cognitive learning theories in teaching?
- Q. 6 Gestalt Psychology is important for learning. Discuss?
- Q. 7 Cognitive learning theories are important for intelligence. Justify your answer with arguments.

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Unit-5

MOTIVATION

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INTRODUCTION

We have studied in the one of the previous units about various kinds of learning. Which posses that no matter what kind of experience, a change in behaviour as a result of that experience is called learning. The basic question, which we will deal in this unit, is the ‘why’ of behaviour. Why an individual does what he does? What are the factors, which motivate an organism for action? This problem of why and wherefore of behaviour” brings us to the domain of motivation. The problem of motivation is central problem in psychology, which has been the subject of interest and enquiry since man’s existence on earth.

The knowledge about motivation will be helpful to educators what are commonly faced with a variety of problem in situations where students react differently to teaching-learning activities. Some plunge into new learning with glee, some accept learning tasks with resentment and resignation and some block themselves to learn anything offered by teachers. The differences in energy levels that students display in learning and performance and the areas they want to work in or avoid have to do with the concept of motivation. For answers to these questions, the teachers will have to understand the psychology of motivation. In this unit, therefore, we will give an overview of the complex concept of motivation as explained by modern psychologists and see the influence of motivation, especially on learning and generally on behaviour. We will also explore what factors interact to load to behaviour and learning. Each of these groups of factors has classroom implications for motivating the students. These factors are, to some extent, what make on student strive for excellence and another try to slip by. Then we will look at how operant learning with an emphasis on environmental contingencies, modifies motivational patterns. We will conclude this unit with some guidelines for teachers to use in their teaching. This unit should help teachers improve their motivational skills and provide them with ideas for organizing how to teach so as to have an enthusiastic class.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you would be able to meet the following objectives:

1. Briefly describe the philosophical ideas and psychological theories of motivation.
2. Explain the role and importance of motivation in behaviour and learning.
3. Describe how to develop achievement motivation in your students.
4. Distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and their educational significance.
5. Narrate the techniques of motivating students in the classroom.

1. CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION

1.1 Meaning and Nature of Motivation

A mother finds difficult to make her son sit at his lesson. She tries and applies many methods but cannot persuade her son to study. She is surprised one day seeing him busy with his lesson immediately after his return from school. She asks him to get up and take his food. The child replies that he would first do his homework, saying that his teacher gave him “good” at his class work and that he would get another ‘good’ tomorrow. He gladly shows his homework to his mother. This converts the boy from a poor worker to an active student. The teacher’s praise given the boy pleasure, feeling of success and satisfaction. What makes the boy behave in this manner? The answer to such question on why and how of behaviour lies in the key word ‘motivation’. He behaves as he is motivated to do so.

Motivation thus may be regarded as something, which prompts, compels, energises and activates an individual to act or behave in a particular manner at a particular time for attaining some specific goal or purpose.

Motivation is a process of arousing, directing, maintaining and controlling one’s interest in a certain activity. It means to push the right button to get desired reaction. Motivation varies in degree. It may be low, moderate or intense. Different degrees of motivation may be required for different levels of complexity of the task. For example, simple tasks require moderate motivation. It is easy to distinguish between highly motivated students and those having low motivation.

Motivation does not arise from any single factors. It is very complex process and refers to a combination of forces. Human beings are motivated in different ways at different times and for different purposes. The techniques of motivation should vary accordingly.

1.2 Definitions

Motivation is supposed to have its origination from the Greek word ‘Movere’ that means to drive forward. So motivation is an aroused state of the organism to act in a specific manner and direction.

In the words of H.W. Bernard “motivation refers to those phenomena which are involved in the simulation of action towards particular objectives, previously there was little or no movement towards those goals.

D. O. Hebb defines that motivation is an existence of an organized phase of sequence, its direction and contents, its persistence in a given direction.

According to young ‘the concept of motivation is exceedingly broad—so broad, in fact, that psychologists have attempted to narrow it singling out one aspect or another of the complex process of determination. The two most important aspects are the energetic aspect and—regulation and direction—we may—define the study of motivation broadly as a research for determinants—all determinants—of human and animal activity?’

H. A. Murrey regards motive as an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person’s behaviour.

Mc Donald describes three factors in motivation---energy change, affective arousal and anticipatory goals reaction.

Maslow states, “Motivation is constant, never ending fluctuating and compels and that it is an almost universal characteristic of particularly every organismic state of affairs.

Dececco defines motivation as referring to those factors, which tend to increase or decrease virus in an individual. It determines level of activity.

M. C. Geoch defines motive as “any condition of an individual which points or orients him towards the practice of a given task and which defines the adequacy of his activities and completion of the task.

Motivation emerges from needs. Every human being has to struggle to meet them the needs develop motives that generate a strong desire to do something including learning when hungry, we need to consume food. When an individual meets any motive, he/she experiences a tension and disequilibrium resulting in restlessness. He then becomes activated in certain way to reduce the felt tension and restore equilibrium.

Parents and teachers need to inculcate in the child such motives as to take them on describable lines. Learning is nothing but motivating children to do something.

1.3 Types of Motivation

Motivation is a complex phenomenon which may arise within the individual or outside the individual. Many factors affect it like psychological system emotions, habits, mental sets values and attitudes.

Motivation can be of two types

1. Intrinsic Internal or Natural
2. Extrinsic, External or Artificial

1.3.1 Internal Motivation

Internal motivation refer to interest for certain action to meet a desired need develops from within the individual automatically. Generally internal motivation is born with the

arise of biological needs. A teacher with help of certain measures can ensure internal motivation in the pupils.

(a) Specifying the Aims and Objectives

When objectives of a certain activity are made clear to the pupil interest to learn will develop in the knowledge of objectives, aims, benefits and uses arise the desire for progress in study among the students.

(b) Curiosity

Each child wants to know what lies hidden in the box. If curiosity is involved in a teaching activity, internal motivation can be ensured. The teacher may encourage the students to explore and search new knowledge through discovery method.

(c) Ego Involvement

In the word of Sheriff and Catrill “ego involvement is a condition of total participation of the self as knower, organizer, observer, status seeker and socialized being. Ego is involved where the individual is challenged.”

Ego plays an important role in learning. The teacher can involve ego of the students in certain learning activities challenge for first position may push the student to burn midnight oil.

(d) Knowledge of Result

If the students are made aware of their progress from time to time, they will certainly be motivated to learn more, compete and break their previous records. Success and outstanding marks in tests inspire the student internally to improve and maintain performance.

(e) Aspiration Level

Aspiration level often determines the rate of involvement in studies. Students having aspiration level work hard. The students who want to become doctor, engineer, technologist or bank officers study till late at night whereas pupils having no ambition in life show poor performance in the class. The teacher can effectively utilize the student’s capacities by setting high aspiration levels.

(f) Rivalry

Rivalry can be used for motivating purposes. Rivalry among individual students between groups and between male and female pupils gives birth to healthy competition. They may be motivated to take active part in certain school activities and show their performance.

1.3.2 External Motivation

External motivation refers to forces in environment that arouse the individual to act towards desired goal. These are some measures by which external motivation can be ensured.

(a) Praise and Blame

There are powerful, incentives; praise is power incentive which induces the students to work hard. It even creates interest in average and below satisfactory level children for study. The teacher remarks like well done, 'good conduct' and very good go a long way in motivating the pupils. Similarly blame has positive effect on excellent children.

(b) Reward and Punishment

Rewards like money, medals, badges, prizes exemptions, shields and cups give pleasure when come with success and achievement. Reward may be symbolic or material. Care should be taken that rewards do not become an end themselves, otherwise unfair means would be used to get rewards. Punishment is a negative incentive but by using it skillfully a teacher may get positive result. Fear of punishment and humiliation among class fellows urges the students to work till late at night and complete their homework. But some time the result of punishment is dangerous.

(c) Attractive School Environment

Attractive and educative environment of the school motivates the students to stay and take part in school activities with zeal and vigour.

(d) Nice Friends

If the student has a company of nice friends, he/she will certainly take interest in study and other school activities in their association.

(e) Curriculum

If the curricular activates, teaching method, teacher's behaviour and other facilities provided in the school, suit the students, they will naturally be motivated for learning. That is why curriculum is said to be in accordance with learners age, experience, mental capacities and maturity level.

(f) Instructional Technology

Instructional technology used in the class for teaching a certain lesson may urge the students to comprehend and learn effectively. Movies T.V. maps, projectors, pictures etc attract the students to acquire knowledge.

(g) Recognition and Ignorance

These incentives are verbal or non-material type. When the students are recognized by means of marks, grades promotions for their performance in studies, they are motivated to learn more. Similarly ignoring the students due to their unsatisfactory performance may warn them to avoid malpractices and mend their learning habits.

These both types of motivations are fruitful in arousing the students, but it should be noted that internal motivation is superior to external motivation. Proper motivation maximizes the student's involvement and achievement in learning.

1.4 Function of Motivation

1.4.1 Motivation Energizes

Motivation energizes an individual and forces him for action. If the vocational goal of a student is to be a doctor. This goal energizes him so much that he goes on studying till late at night and does not care for bed time in order to secure highest marks in examination and to qualify MBBS entry test. So motivation not only pushes a person for a particular task but also sustains interest and behaviour for longer period in the activity. According to Hebb, efficiency and adequacy are increased in motivated state of behaviour.

1.4.2 Motivation Direct and Regulate the Human Behaviour

Motivation state is often described as guided, directed and goal oriented. behaviour of the individual is purposeful and persistent. The student in order to fulfill his need comes to action. He will remain in action till need is met. Motivational behaviour activates in the specific direction and the individual performs different activities to achieve the preset goal.

1.4.3 Behaviour is Selective

Motivation behaviour of the organism does not more in a haphazard way. It is directed towards a selective goal, which an individual sets for himself. A student motivated to secure high marks in examination concentrates his studies by selecting means to reach his selected goal. The motive is terminated by the achievement of the goal.

1.5 Main Points

1. Motivation is the arousal of emotions that energies and activities an individual to behave in a particular manner, at a particular time for some specific purpose.
2. Motivation is the product of some needs. In order to satisfy those needs each person desires to do something this desire may be called motivation.
3. Intrinsic motivation refers to interest for certain behaviour or action development from within the individual automatically such aim of life, curiosity, ego-maximization knowledge of result, aspiration level and rivalry.
4. Extrinsic motivation refers to the forces and external elements that arouse and individual to act in a certain direction as praise, blame, reward, and punishment school environment, friends, curriculum, instructional technology and recognition.
5. Functions of motivation are (i) Motivation energizes and inspires a person to act (ii) Motivation regulates, directs and develops goal oriented behaviour in an individual (iii) Motivation dress to a reflective actor for a selective goal.

1.6 Summary

Motivation is an aroused state of an individual to act and behave in a specific manner. Motivation is a goal oriented interest that activates a person to do something. Teachers and parents provide motives and make the children aware of their need. They inspire them in such a way that children willingly and eagerly involve themselves in certain

activities to meet those needs and goods. Motivation has been classified into internal and external motivation. Internal motivation takes birth from within the person. Personal aims and goals, ego, satisfaction of personal needs, aspirations and ambitions that arouse interest for certain activities may be called internal or intrinsic motivation.

Various factors in the environment that motivate a person for action may be called external or extrinsic motivation that includes reward, punishment, praise and balance environment and recognition. Motivation energizes the individual. It creates, develops and regulates the specific behaviour and its purpose is to achieve desired goal.

1.7 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Write different definitions of motivation, Read them and frame a definition of motivation in your own words.
2. Prepare a list of fundamental needs that inspire a student for more learning in order to meet them.
3. Prepare a list of incentives, motives & needs, classify them into internal and external factors of motivation.

2. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

We have discussed the concept of motivation in the previous section. Now we will examine some theories in this respect.

2.1 McDougall's Theory of Instinct

It is also called biological theory of motivation. First William James introduced the concept of instinct to explain behavior. William McDougall developed this theory that our instincts are the fountainhead of our behaviour. Instincts are considered specific and stereotyped patterns of behavior.

McDougall enlisted 14 instincts and argued that each instinct is accompanied by a particular emotion. For example, the instinct of escape is accompanied by the emotion of fear the instinct of combat by fear and instinct of repulsion by disgust and soon.

McDougall stresses that all human actions are essentially instinctive and that instinctive behaviour has three aspects (a) cognition (knowing) (b) affection (feeling and emotion) and (c) conation (doing). For example, the students in the class are making a noise. They see their teacher approaching the class. On having knowledge they practice an instinctive behaviour that is emotion of fear and they keep silent.

This theory has been criticized by other psychologists, but still is an important theory to explain the how and why of human behaviour. It is the admitted fact that fear of teacher's

anger fear of failure in the examination, pleasure of teacher's "good" and hope of bright future motivates the students to take part in learning activities with devotion and willfully.

2.2 Hull's Drive Reduction Theory

Prof. Clark Leonard Hull Stresses the biological drives like hunger, thirst, sex love escape from pain etc are mainly responsible for motivating an individual, to action. These drives produce internal tension and all human energy is activated by need are drive of reducing the tension. This tension energy is activated by need are drive of reducing the tension. This tension comes to an end on meeting the need and human action is suspended.

This drive reduction theory was supported by other psychologists but this theory fails to explain human behaviour especially at the higher cognitive level.

2.3 Maslow's Theory of Self-Actualization

Maslow's approach to understand human personality and motivation is purely different from behaviourists and psycho analysis. He examined traditional approach of pain avoidance, pleasure seeking and tension reducing as a main source of motivation. He holds opinion that needs occur in a hierarchy. As one need is met, other higher level need comes into being and activates the individual. He divided all the needs into two groups (a) deficit needs and (b) growth needs. Deficits needs are consist of physiological urges like thirst and hunger. On fulfillment of these needs, man wants to satisfy safety needs like love belongingness and esteem needs under second category, there is only one need called self-actualization. Maslow believes and supports the idea of each individual's different nature.

Maslow developed from lower to higher hierarchical order of needs as under:

- a. Physiological Needs
- b. Safety Needs
- c. Belongingness Needs
- d. Esteem Needs
- e. Self-Actualization Need

(a) Physiological Needs

These are basic needs of an individual when individual is for a long time, all other needs fail to appear or recede in the background. In poor countries in the days of starvation all the needs except of food disappear. Maslow suggests an interesting notion of the motivational pores of need deprivation and needs gratification. When a person is deprived of basic need, he is motivated to do some-thing. In order to motivate our children to complete their school homework. We sometimes deprive them of the freedom to play. Deprivation of need is applied to the lower level needs whereas need-gratification is applied to the higher order needs. Need gratification is a better mean to motivate children to work.

(b) Safety Needs

When physiological needs are fulfilled satisfactorily, safety needs come forward. Safety needs are concerned with maintaining security and order in life. In the daily life, the people hoard money, purchase goods, land and invest in saving schemes in order to make their future safe. Similarly students complete their assignments in time to save themselves from punishment or anger of the teacher.

(c) Belonging and Love Needs

These needs are of psychological nature. Due to these needs, he performs actions liked by other people, establishes relationship with others or becomes a member of organized groups. In order to have love and affection, the child takes part in the school and learning activities sponsored by the teacher.

(d) Esteem Needs

Esteem needs are divided into two categories (1) Self-esteem, self respect, self regard and self-evaluation (2) Relating to respect from others, reputation, social status and fame. No one need occur in the person, who is already satisfied in meeting lower needs. They are motivated to those activities that are challenging and they accept those assignments that fulfill their needs for self-respect or needs to feel good for themselves.

Other type of esteem needs is the need to feel superior to others. This need is gratified by purchasing of items as good and costly clothes. There are many ways to prove the superiority in the society. In school co-operating with the head of institution some teacher's complete some tasks in order to prove themselves inevitable and superior to other staff members. According to Cooper Smith failure to gratify need for self respect or reputation feeling of inferiority develops in an individual. Maslow believes that sufficient gratification of the esteem needs lessens their dominating force in a person's life. Thus enabling him to move in the direction of self-actualization.

(e) Self-actualization

It is the highest need in the hierarchical order presented by Maslow. It means to accomplish man nature in all respect. A talented student who is strongly motivated to have higher education experiences tension if his parents are not agreed. Similarly a teacher fully equipped with knowledge feels tension if he is not provided overhead projector by the school authority. The student interested in study wants to spend much of his time in library. People can be motivated to self-actualization if their lower order needs are met satisfactorily.

The most important aspect of self-actualization is freedom-freedom from society and self-imposed obstacles. Self actualizing person wants freedom to do according to his own desires and needs. He does not like restriction of culture and society. Self-actualization is only possible, if all other basic needs, self-actualizing person enjoys his job duties, has no problem of livelihood and is satisfied in his social relations. Maslow argues that

motivation is connected with the fulfillment of various categories of needs which range from physiological to self-actualization.

Characteristics of a self-actualizing person are as these:

1. Adequate perception and acceptance of reality.
2. Accepting on self and accepting others
3. Higher degree of spontaneity
4. Problem centered not self-centered approach to life.
5. Have a need for privacy and detachment
6. Autonomy from environment
7. Appreciating basic goodness of life with freshness and pleasure
8. Working take a mystic
9. Identifying oneself with mankind
10. Developing interpersonal relations with others
11. Keeping means and ends clear
12. Well defined and unhostile sense of humour
13. Creativity
14. Tends to be nonconformist
15. Being democratic.
16. Having respect for human beings
17. Dynamic self

2.4 Murray's Theory of Motivation

Murray's theory of motivation states that man is striving, seeking. Desiring, wishing and willing, need determines human behaviour, Murray says, a need is a construct which organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation and action in such a way as to transfer in a certain direction on existing unsatisfying situation.

According to him unsatisfied need provokes the person to work by developing a tension. This tension sustains till the satisfaction of need. Each need is accompanied by a feeling or emotion and tends to use certain modes to further its trends. It may be weak or strong, momentary or long existing but usually persists and gives rise to certain behaviour. This behaviour comes to an end situation on satisfying the organism. Murray believes that man engagement in different activities not only to reduce tension but also to develop tension so that it can later be reduced. According to him, it is not a tension less status but the process of reducing tension that is satisfying.

i. Vicerogenic Needs

They may be called primary needs that are essential for survival such as food water, breathing air, sex secretion, urination, warmth defecation, etc.

ii Psychogenic Needs

There are secondary needs that take birth out of primary needs. Murray enlists 19 secondary needs.

S. #	Needs	Description
1	Acquisition	To have possession and property.
2	Achievement	To accomplish a difficult task
3	Abasement	To submit passively to external forces
4	Affiliation	To form friendship and association, to greet and join others
5	Aggression	To assault or injure others
6	Autonomy	To be free from restrictions
7	Construction	To organize and build
8	Superiority	To desire for prestige and honour
9	Retention	To retain possession of things etc
10	Order	To arrange and organize
11	Dominance	To defend against blame or belittlement
12	Similance	To empathize, to initiate etc
13	Rejection	To snub, to ignore or exclude others etc
14	Explosion	To point and demonstrate
15	Play	To relax or act fun etc
16	Nurturance	To nourish, aid or protect a helpless
17	Succorance	To seek aid, protection or sympathy
18	Balance Avoidance	To avoid blame and to be well behaved
19	Cognizance	To explore, look, listen, satisfy curiosity

2.5 Theory of Achievement Motivation

This theory was developed by David C Mellelland and his associates in 1951 at Harvard University. He described motives as reintegration of a change in a fact by cue and anticipation of a future change in affect contingent upon certain actions. We find two terms in this definition that needs explanation. Reintegration means reinstatement of psychological process in the conspicuous a result of stimulation of environmental event. Cue is the cause of affect in arousal in the individual. If a boy gets greater pleasure in topping than passing the course, he has a stronger achievement motive. Praise, reward or victory is powerful achievement motive for a student motivation than shame or punishment is for failure. Thus for motivation two factors are important, one environmental cue and affective arousal in individual.

Home, society and school affect in the development of achievement motive. Home trains the children in developing motives and attitudes. Parents expectations and guidance for child to develop a higher sense for achievement motivation. Similarly society, religion, social philosophy, friends, teachers and well wishes play an important role in the orientation of achievement motives.

The teacher can arouse achievement motive by using the following methods.

1. Telling the stories of great man and their achievement from all walk of life.
2. Providing proper environment in and outside the class.
3. Convincing and creating new motives
4. By creating a sense of future responsibilities
5. Awarding self-image
6. Emphasizing on improving cultural values
7. Helping the students in setting future goals
8. Keeping a record of progress in school
9. Developing of a sense of belonging

Formers, doctors, engineers and merchants show great need to achievement the academic scholars because targets are clearer to them.

2.6 Psychoanalytic Theory of Motivation

Freud presented this theory. It centers around his concept of instincts and unconscious. According to him, instincts are main sources of all human activities. These two instincts are erase or erotic instinct. The death instinct is the desire to destroy oneself. The life instinct works to preserve life. It leads to productive activities and dominates all earlier scenes of life. When this instinct stops working, the death instinct takes over. Death instinct involves destructive activities in which aggression becomes a part of this energy. There is, however, close relation between these two courses of energy and mind is a contestant process of adjustment. However what arouses the activities of life instinct is the need for sexual gratification a mean to provide pleasure, satisfaction and meaning to one's life. Freud believes that human beings since birth experience sex gratification and that his important sex motive energies human behaviour.

One of the basic of this motivation theory is unconscious that is a great determinant and activating force for human behaviour. Freud assumed that 9/10th of the total mental process is in the unconscious portion.

All the behaviour is determined by unconscious process. It consists of one's unfulfilled desires, wishes, ideas and feelings. It is like great underworlds with powerful unseen forces responsible for all our feelings, thinking and action. Freud believes that man is a puppet in the hand of unconscious that dictates the man. Therefore, the key to why and how of behaviour lies in the choices made by unconscious, which are usually the gratification of sex or seeking of pleasure.

2.7 Theory of Intrinsic Motivation

Harlow and his associates developed the theory of intrinsic motivation. They conducted experiments on monkeys to prove their theory that monkey solved problems without being offered intrinsic reward. They reported most drives don't involve any kind of effective or psychological needs. They are autonomous and they motivate in their own right. There are psychological bases (of Morgan) or no effect (of Melelland) Hallow proved in experiments that introducing an intrinsic motivation made learning less effective. Harlow experimented on manipulatory behaviour in monkeys. Manipulation of gadgets persisted in monkeys without being reduced need of food, water or sexual gratification. He is of opinions that manipulative behaviour is elicited by environmental situation and provides its own reward, when we put a rat in a new apparatus we find that the rate explores the whole apparatus. According to Montgomery the exploratory drive is aroused by the external condition which motivates for action.

Berlyne conducted experiments on rats and reported that when novel stimuli affect the receptors of an organism, a curiosity drive is aroused and that rats show more curiosity to explore novel objects.

Psychologists have conducted several experiments on manipulatory, exploratory and curiosity drives as independent motivation but reached no conclusion that these are primary and true drives for motivation.

2.8 Learning Based Theories of Motivation

Motivation is the explanation of human behaviour that depends upon our concept of the nature of man. According to S-R (Stimulus-response) theories, man is a machine that works on fixed rules and that motivation of behaviour takes birth from psychological drives. Motivation is an urge to act which results from a stimulus, the stimulus may be external or internal.

The theories may be specified into two broad categories: S-R theories without reinforcement and S-R theories with reinforcement. Under first category of theories come Pavlov, Watson and Guthrie who give importance to contiguity between S-R for learning to occur. However Guthrie talked about maintaining stimuli which means that for each physiological condition like hunger thirst and escape from pain there are characteristic internal stimuli which help to maintain the behaviour of an individual throughout the learning task, S-R theories with reinforcement include the theory of Thorndike and Skinner.

(a) Thorndike

Thorndike conducted experiments on cats developed Laws of learning including law of effect. The early version of law of effects was of general responses made to the same situation, those, which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction to the animal, will, other things being equal, be more firmly connect with the situation so that when it recur they will be more likely to recur. Those which are accompanied or closely

followed by discomfort to the animal will other things being equal have their connection with that situation weakened so that when it reoccurs they will be less likely to reoccur. We can describe the law of effect as greater satisfaction or dissatisfaction, greater strengthening or weakening of the bond. Thorndike introduced the law of effect as a motivational variable in learning.

In his late writings, he presented readiness and belongingness as variables for motivation. The law of readiness is a motivational principle which means that learning occurs satisfactorily only, when the subject is ready for it. Food is satisfier only, when animal is hungry and ready to have food. Human motivation depends upon characteristics of the individual and immediate circumstances but in any event we must know the person's state of readiness.

(b) Skinner

The role of reinforcement as prime factor for motivation of behaviour is necessary for learning to take place. Skinner stresses that an individual behaves in the way and manner in which his behaviour is shaped through a particular reinforcement schedule. He described positive, negative, primary and secondary reinforcers that are used to shape an individual's behavior.

1. Primary reinforcers: water food etc.
2. Secondary reinforcers: social approval, money, grade, etc.
3. Primary negative reinforcer: Physical punishment pain etc.
4. Secondary negative reinforcer: Social disapproval, teachers anger, humiliation among fellows the reinforcers can be used in shaping the behaviour for motivation.

2.9 Cognitive-Field Theory of Motivation

Cognitive-Field theory of learning lays emphasis on cognitive structure and on perception of the total field by the individual. Pattern of human behaviour are directed by cognitive structure which the individual develops in his experiences.

Kurt Lewin suggested the Motivational Constructs in his theory as under:

(a) Tension

Each individual has some needs when they are not fulfilled, equilibrium in life is disturbed. Due to this, tension comes into being within the individual. He wants to release it through activities. The activities that help in releasing tension are called to have positive valence and having negative effect on tension are called positive valence and having negative effect on tension are said to have negative valence, tension induces valence and valence directs the behaviour of an individual. Tension lasts till achievement of the goal.

(b) Need

Needs, according to this theory, are of two types, genuine needs and quasi needs and quasi needs psychological conditions of the individual gives birth to genuine needs like

hunger thirst, pain etc, tension being created by intention, acts of will and arbitrary commitments of the person are called quasi needs. Needs create tension and in order to reduce tension the person comes to action. Till the fulfillment of needs, he/she remains in action.

(c) Force and Valence

Force and valence are two their constructs that should be known to understand behaviour of an individual; the desirability of an activity is valence and tendency to engage in activity is called force. When a need takes birth, there will arise a force signifying a valences activity, when the examination is over, the student feels no need so there no force and no valence. The theory gives importance to the present experience. This does not mean that it totally ignores past experiences of the man. The past experiences are valuable but his theory focuses on present experiences.

Tolman

According to Tolman that an animal is motivated for action when it has a demand for a particular goal. Demand is assumed to be governed by deprivation and incentive. The expectancy of fulfillment through some action determines the behaviour of an organism Tolman stresses that two factors contribute motivation. One is the demand or deprivation and other is the incentive value of the goal object.

2.10 Social Theory of Motivation

Some psychologists have explained the motivational theory in social perspectives that the people are not motivated to action, only by biological play, important role in motivation for some actions and in directing a man to behave in a particulars manner. Social motives may be treated as source of human activity. In this context, values and incentives many are formed in term of reward and praise. Knowledge of the results and overall performance may also create motivational state in a person. Various motives may influence the behaviour of a person to meet a particular need but the quality of home social culture, vocational needs, cultural aspirations and religious creeds determine the motive and course of action Beliefs also determine the attitudes and motivation state of a person. Since they type and quality of motives are large in number and they vary from country to country and society to society in which a person lives. In a capitalist society a person strives to accumulate more and more wealth and property by hook or crook, but in a religious society a man gives alms and financial help to the poor to enable them to live a healthy life.

Another social motive is patriotism this sentiment is associated with national security dedication and love for country. The people identify patriotism may arouse aggression if this motive is thwarted or locked goals and ideology are the great determinants of motivational behaviour and activates.

2.11 Main Points

1. MC Dougall's theory argues that biological instincts are determinants of motivation.
2. Hull's theory of motivation gives importance to biological drives that activate an organism to action to reduce tension created by the drives.
3. Maslow is of opinion that motivation is connected with fulfillment of various categories of needs that occur in a hierarchy. One need gives birth to other higher level need till the man nature completes in all respect.
4. According to Murray, each unsatisfied needs provoke tension that urges a person to act till the satisfaction of need.
5. The theory of achievement motivation development by McClelland argues that environmental events develop certain motives and attitudes for achievement motivation.
6. Psycho analytical theory of Freud believes unconscious is the determinant of human behaviour that arouses an individual to action to seek pleasure.
7. The theory of intrinsic motivation gives importance to environmental situation activates by providing its own reward.
8. According to learning based theories indicate that motivational behaviour take birth from psychological drives. Motivation is an urge to act basing on stimulus that may be external or internal.
9. Cognitive field theory gives importance to cognitive structure that an individual develops in his experiences and that directs human behavior.
10. Social theory of motivation beholds that social elements and motives i.e. quality of home, social culture conational needs, cultural aspiration, values, religion, beliefs, social traits and patriotism inspire and motivates for certain deeds and activates.

2.12 Summary

In this part of the unit different theories of motivation presented by the psychologists have been descried briefly. They throw light on motivation from different angles, with different viewpoints. In Short human behaviour is dynamic and it is aroused compelled intensified, directed and reinforced by four basic kinds of forces and motives (i) innate psychological drives (ii) inherent needs for perceptual, manipulatory and intellectual activity (iii) culture determined social motives and (iv) individually learned interests and identifications. Through learning by problem solving and conditioning these motives get associated with various incentives which learners and teaches manipulate in a variety of culminations to motivate and promote learning.

2.13 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Enlist various needs of a learner. Guess the activities he may perform to meet them.
2. Prepare a list of methods, techniques and activities you as a teacher, have to imitate for your students motivation to learning and also discuss how you will perform them effectively.
3. Being a Pakistani teacher, which incentives and motives you will present to your student for their effective learning in the context of patriotism. Islamic teachings and universal brotherhood.

3. TECHNIQUES OF MOTIVATION

The students like to take the courses generally fascinating, useful and interesting to them. For them they need little encouragement and motivation. Many of the learning activities to be learnt at school are apparently not interesting to many students. So intrinsic interest alone is not enough, the school has to apply various extrinsic incentives for not enough, the school has to apply various extrinsic incentives for learning, knowledge and skills that may range from praise to grades, prize or other rewards.

In-fact motivation is a complex process. One motive creates interest in a student and not in others. Another factor motivates some students but it may not be useful in respect of a particular students. However motivating factors and incentives are many which a teacher can use to arouse motivational state in students. Some of them are discussed in following line to know way and how they are helpful tools in the hands of teachers.

3.1 Extrinsic Reward and Punishment

“Lapper” in an experiment explored that extrinsic rewards diminish motivation in an activity. But we have found and experienced many a time that external reward, if utilizes skillfully, increase student’s motivation. A student having scholarship on the base of his marks in matriculation examination, engages in learning activities with high achievement interest at intermediate level so that he may also have scholarship in the next classes.

Scholarship has positive effect in motivating the children to learning, but it must not be an end itself, it should create desire and interest for more learning. Recent studies have proved that reward encourages conformity and inhabits creativity in the learner. Use of reward should be contingent on the quality of performance, rather than on the mere participation in an activity. Rewards are useful for motivation when the content is not interesting. The teacher should avoid material rewards when they are unnecessary and should not refrain from using extrinsic rewards when they are needed. As reward seeks to influence conduct favorably by associating a pleasant feeling with the desired act, punishment seeks to deter or prevent an undesirable act by associating unpleasant feeling with it. It motivates a student who is even lazy and shirker. The fear of punishment

activates for more learning and completing school takes. If it were not for the anticipated deterrent effect of punishment and the hope of increasing motivation, it would have no reason for existing. Except an instrument of revenge and sadism.

In term of motivating learning the advantages of rewards over punishment are:

1. They create associations that are strong inducements to repeat the desired act.
2. They have the advantage of being idea-motive through the force of suggestion.
3. They generate interest and enthusiasm.
4. They appeal to ego-maximization and develop high morale.

Some Disadvantages of Reward are:

1. They motivate a student for winning a prize instead of cultivating a taste for the thing itself.
2. They afford temptation of cheat
3. They encourage wrong attitude of greed
4. Only a few students are motivated to win.

Advantages of Punishments are:

1. They are often used as a deterrent
2. They serve as a form of discipline
3. They are useful if they appear as natural consequences of undesirable act and not himself that is being punished.

The Disadvantages may be listed as:

1. They are based on fear, not a healthy emotion.
2. They lose effectiveness if the child is no longer afraid of the consequences.
3. They are the cause of undesirable conduct by over emphasis.
4. They create unpleasant and negative feelings associated with failure and dropout
5. The results are not always permanent
6. They may create ill will towards teacher and revolt against society

3.2 Praise and Blame

Everyone in this world wants praise for his achievements. ‘Herlock’ experiments show that praise is more effective than blame for activating children praise can be used in many ways, like a nod of teacher, smile, good look or verbal praise. The teacher must be cautions while praising a pupil in the class. He should not be praised for each activity.

3.3 Novelty

Each novel thing attracts the child’s attention and creates interest. The teacher should create novelty into his teaching method, arrangement and presentation of lesson content and using educational technology. According to ‘Travers’ one of the essential ingredients involved in organizing pupils in the classroom is the provision of materials that permit them to move in new field of exploration. By presenting the subject matter in novel ways,

the teacher can create curiosity and interest in this pupils for further achievement and their participation and full involvement in lesson can be ensured.

3.4 Arousing Interest

It is important to convince students about the importance and interest level of the material to be presented. The lesson related to their interests is attracting and fascinating to them. For this purpose the teacher should relate the lesson with the students previous acquired knowledge and daily experiences. The teacher can describes how the knowledge to be gained will be useful to them in their life. He can increase their interest by telling desirability, effectiveness and practicability of the information given in the lesson in purchasing goods. Before teaching a lesson, the teacher should tell the students about the importance of the lesson in daily individual and public life. He should describe the difficult words and phrases in simple words with examples. He can use audio-visual aids to catch the attention of students. He can arrange an educational trip of a project, field or a place related to the lesson. He can also invite experts, fieldworkers or scholars to clarify a concept. In short, the teacher can increase and create motivation by arousing interest in students.

3.5 Curiosity

A skillful teacher uses various means and methods to arouse curiosity in the lesson. Science teacher often use demonstrations that surprise students and induce them to want to understand why and how. Discussing epistemic curiosity ‘Berlyne’ is of opinion that epistemic curiosity takes birth form conceptual conflict as when new information appears to contradict earlier understandings. ‘Berlyne’ suggests deliberate use of surprise, doubt, perplexity, bafflement and contradiction as means of arousing epistemic curiosity. Curiosity is aroused and maintained by activities. The teacher can create curiosity is aroused and maintained by causes discussion or debate, forces them to rush for discovery and provided contradicting points of view.

3.6 Modes of Presentation

Internal motivation for some learning can be increased and enhanced by the use of various mode of presentation. Student interests can be aroused by intelligent use of films, demonstration, trips and guests speakers. All these demand a careful planning on the part of teacher in order to ensure course objectives and complements of other learning activities. Use of computer games and simulation also increases motivation to learn. A simulation or role-play is an exercise in which student takes roles and engages in activities appropriate to those roles. The teacher can design simulations concerning his lesson or course content. Through students active participation in them he can create interest for the lesson under study.

3.7 Goals

Goals effect and increase motivation, Goals may vary from person to person and the intensity to reach the goal may vary from time to time in the same person or from man to man. Goals may be aroused about in accordance to one’s needs, drive, and aspirations that an individual acts for him of motivation may become integrative in character.

Similarly motivational behaviour can restrict goals only for some time and later the behaviour may work independently of the goal. Goals vary and they have no end. Goal activates to work hard to achieve them. The students having goals are, since behaviour is moral in nature; the process of motivation may become integrative in character. Similarly motivational behaviour can restrict goals only for some time and later the behaviour may work independently of the goal. Goals vary and they have no end. Goals activate to work hard to achieve them. The students having goals are internally motivated to learn. The students who set goals for themselves show better performance than the students without goals. Student without goals is like a passenger walking aimlessly with no destination. So the teacher, from a motivational point of view should help the students in setting goals, aims and objectives of their education. The goals should be clear and meaningful with better perception and insight.

3.8 Expectations

Students want to know what they are supposed to, how they will be evaluated and what result of their success will be. Very often the students fail to complete a task due to unawareness of what has been asked to do. It is necessary to state expectations clearly while giving assignments and projects to students i.e.; how much material is expected; how the work will be completed; how the work will be evaluated and what will be the importance of the work in students grades. This clarification directs and motivates the students in writing good, comprehensive and to the point assignment. Most of the teachers only hand over the topic for assignments and do not express their expectations. In this way the students may write wrong, too short or too lengthy and irrelevant assignments. The teacher clear expectations and instructions will enhance student's efforts for better performance. Similarly the teacher's expectations regarding student's future plans and careers pay a great deal. They get motivated and take part in school tasks with keen interest.

3.9 Clear Feedback

The word feedback means information on the results of student's efforts. It also refers to information student's receive on their performance. Feedback serves as an incentive. Provision of information on the results of their learning activities can be an adequate reward in some circumstances test results must be feedback to the students with sufficient frequency. Unconfirmed outcomes leave the students ignorant of their possible success.

Continuous with holding of feedback can have grave effects on student's motivation and learning. The teacher takes test after some time. He invites them to write assignments or to complete some task of learning importance. He evaluates their performance, makes and awards grades, sometime he gives written or verbal comments. The teacher should tell about their performance as soon as possible. This feedback must be clear and specific. This information is an effective motivator. The students try to overcome their information is an effective motivator. The students try to overcome their short comings and try to improve in the next task or test. It tells the students what they did right, so that they will know what to do in future. In contrast, if students are only praised or receive good grades without any explanation. They are unlikely to learn from the feedback. Therefore, for

learning and motivation purposes, testing should be more systematic and more frequent. Soon after the teacher should mark the paper. He should inform them their achievements improvement, short comings and drawback in detail. He should write such comments:

1. Good Work! But you have omitted these — points. Try to improve next time.
2. “This is an excellent essay. You have produced good ideas. I think you will care for correct spelling in your composition.

This type of feedback creates interest and increases motivation in students for more learning. This feedback should be immediate and frequent to maintain their best efforts. Similarly the teacher asks questions in class to test student’s knowledge comprehension. The feedback given by teacher on their answers, they gain information about their level of understanding and also receive reinforcement and motivation.

3.10 Respects for Personality

Children as well as adults have their pride and self-respect. Any attempt to embarrass or humiliate a student especially in the presence of his class-fellows hurts the self-respect and ego. Shame and embarrassment are not healthy emotions. They disorganize the personality of the child. They also produce uncertainty, hesitation, frustration and loss of confidence, continuous punishments, giving of bad nicknames, hostile attitude, may force him to leave school forever and set up a mental attitude against all learning. In extreme case he refuses to co-operate to all, to answer any question or talk to anyone in school in most cases the opposite takes place, the child become aggressive with hostile attitude towards the school and society.

Disregard or the personal integrity of the child is unwise because it threatens about all of his basic needs and wants – self-respect, freedom from fear, the feeling of failure and guilt, the need for love and affection, for security, for achievement and success and most important of all, the need of belonging and being accepted.

The teacher should consider his students as his own sons as said by our holy Prophet. He should be gentle to them with his pleasant behaviour and caring the self-respect of the child not only maintains a student in school but also motivates him for more learning. He should remove his difficulties help him in solving his problems create love for knowledge, hard work and taking interest in learning activities. He should adopt such measures that his students feel proud of him. The teachers’ friendly attitude and patronizing behaviour helps in increasing motivation for school activities and learning.

3.11 Securing Attention and Creating Enthusiasm

The inattentive child is preoccupied and does not hear what is said. He might be mentally absent. Securing attention is therefore, the primary prerequisite for motivating school learning. It is to remember that the attention span is very short especially in young children. In seconds the attention is diverted from one thing to another. It has to be taken back to the particular thing of importance. The only thing that helps is interest and enthusiasm. The teacher can capture student’s attention for learning by using various devices and techniques. He creates love and enthusiasm for the acquisition of new skills

knowledge information's. He takes advantage of the slightest show of interest. The best time to explain a subject is when it is presented to an inquiring mind — when the child asks questions. This is the true pedagogical monument; it is better than the “logical” monument according to the lesson plan.

Teacher's own enthusiasm plays a great role towards inspiring and maintaining interest of the pupils. Teacher's interest in the subject being taught by him, his readiness, preparation of lesson plan and devoted presentation not only inspires the child but also helps in creating motivation for effective learning. The enthusiasm can be accelerated by offering multiple choice situations and numerous incentives suitable to the child's abilities and comprehension.

3.12 Attitudes in Motivation

Closely related to motivation and attention is attitude. Attitude is one's set to react in a given way in a particular situation. It is relatively wider and permanent than interest. Attitude limits and channels motives. It is a habitual response to identical or near identical total situations. Attitude is not only a readiness for new experiences but also creates the contours of new experiences.

Attitude is acquired and not inherited. The teacher can do a great deal in the development of positive attitudes for love of learning. With pleasant behavior, friendly nature and sophisticated dealing, the teacher can give birth to motivate attitude in his students for school learning and teacher himself.

3.13 Success versus Failure

Success furnishes its own drive. Many activities are performed for the sheer satisfaction of succeeding in that activity. Success is a type of reward and failure is considered as punishment success-failure motive runs all through the life and is constantly operative in everything we do. It is the chief determiner of oral. Every effort in adjusting to new situation is conditioned by trial and or trial and success.

Learning takes place in both instances. We learn by our failures as well as by our successes. We tend to repeat our successful attempts. In learning process both success and failure play an important role within limitations, failure is a bitter experience. No one wants to fail. In order to avoid, failure students work hard, pay attention to the lesson, complete school takes prepare for examination. Thus the fear of failure activates them. Sometime they experience failure that also motivates them to learn and succeed next time. But if the failure is too severe or too often repeated, it is discouraging. It reduces aspiration and learning motivation.

As mercury in the thermometer fluctuates with temperature, the level of aspiration varies with success and failure as determined in the mind of the learner, understood failure challenges efforts and understood success stimulates further success. From what the pupil knows and understands comes the motive for further learning. Success and failure should be so balanced that the child does not lose his perspective. In the classroom the teacher

can create such situation that every child will get a taste of success to temper the ill effects of failure. The teacher can increase interest for learning by persuading the failing child that failure is temporary, with success as the ultimate goal. Children should be taught not to lose heart on failure, and to strive for success. Similarly the teacher should more motivate the successful students to learn more for further successes and not to be contented that this one.

3.14 Positive Verses Negative

Most investigators favour reward motivation over punishment, because it is positive, where as punishment is negative. Experimental studies show that learning with positive guidance is superior to the negative guidance. The positive is more definitely associated with success; the negative is associated with failure. The positive is more predictable. It setup a pattern and tends toward habit formation. The nervous system is so constituted that once a stimulus is received, its force is on-going even after the original incentive is dropped. The child is ambitious to work. He cannot sit ideal. He wants to remain in work or plays. But when this natural urge is hindered by a barrier, the child's personality is darkened. The negative approach of telling children what not to do is unfortunate.

The teacher by encouraging and not discouraging can easily motivate than to do something valuable on the path of learning. He should engage such activities that facilitate learning. He should guide them positively. Ignoring the child is also a negative attitude. Ignoring the child in the class, lose interest and enthusiasm. Ignoring is a part of revenge on the part of teacher. The teacher should invite his student to take active part in all the school activities. The teacher positive approach in all respect motivates the children and increases interest in school, teacher and learning.

3.15 Self-Motivation and will to Learn

Knowledge of results, high aspiration and clear goals are the best incentive to self motivation. The child is told the benefits of learning, the examples of learned and illiterate persons, their difference in life status, earning and respect in society are given to the children, they are imagined their bright future, in case of learning, the desire for effective learning awakes in them.

When the child is aware of the value learning in the content of his future plans, career choices and respect in society, he is internally motivated. In this respect, the teacher can do much by defining and redefining goals and helping the pupil to do this for themselves by presenting the possible choices and letting them choose. Choice and desire to catch the choice helps and urge the students for self-motivation. This self motivation implies a will to learn.

'Book' and 'Norvell' suggest the teacher following to improve the will of student to learn:

1. Demonstrate to the learner by figures and facts that desire for improvement is a condition of advancement.

2. Make the learner feel that it is worthwhile to exert an effort and that if he does, he will be rewarded by success.
3. Have a reliable method of measuring progress.
4. Keep the learner succeeding so that he may be assured that he has not yet reached the limit of performance.
5. Show that others have improved and developed beyond the learner, or when needed, that others have failed for a time.

In order to strengthen the will to learn, the teacher should help the pupil make his unconscious and conscious needs and wants conscious and increase need based learning motivations.

3.16 The Quality of Environment

Environment in which a person lives and works serves as an important source of motivation. If environment is stimulating, the student will not like to go home from school rather will prefer to stay at school longer time than others and this state is psychologically a motivating state for better learning and performance. A good stimulating environment may appear to the ego of the person and the ego may push the person forward. The good environment attracts and secures the attention of the person and develops interest and enthusing. It also develops attitudes and attitudes have significant relationship to motivation that is why educations lay stress on improving school environment and on making it educative. A school with playground and facilities of playing, garden full of flowers, classrooms decorated with fine furniture and charts hanging on the walls, news board, cemented plates with saying of great men written on them and cleanliness in the environment appeal to the students. Thus the quality of environment of school may become a strong factor in determining and sustaining motivation in students.

The teacher in order to make the school environment educative and molivative for learning should leave no stone unturned. He, by improving school environment, can create interest in student to stay and study. It has been noticed that all the standard schools of high learning reputation hold a fascinating, charming and attracting environment.

3.17 The Drive for Self-Actualization

The drive for self-actualization may also set a condition in the person. Allport, 'Maslow' and 'Rogers' have demonstrated the relationship between state of motivation in a person and drive for self-actualization. An individual has his own uniqueness and he has his own experiences which determine his conduct. Each one wants to discover one's real self. A teacher assists him in this pursuit and helps in enhancing curiosity to work till his selfhood is fully unloaded. The teacher brings to light the student's inner needs, capabilities, potentialities and abilities. He helps to understand the pupil himself. He then tries to activate him to use his capabilities fully. By visualizing inner-self, he provides chances and environment to explore and complete his self.

Thus the quest for self-actualization is motivation in character in student. The quest arouses interest and motivates the students take part in learning activities up to the maximum.

The motive of religion:

Islam is religion rather 'Deen' of teaching and learning. Almighty Allah and his Prophet Harzart Muhammad (P.B.U.H) have laid great stress on learning and equiring knowledge. Several Quranic verses and Hadiths throw light on the importance and various aspects of learning. Holy Prophet (P.B.U.H) and his companion spent their lives in teaching and preaching. Religious scholars and 'Imams of Fiqah' have presented explanation of Quran and Hadiths with several chapters of knowledge, education, learning and training. A Muslim teacher creates love of knowledge in his students and activates them for more and more learning, considering it a sacred and religious duty. The teacher himself can recite such verses and Hadiths before his class everyday in the beginning or within the lesson whenever suitable. He can motivate and assist his pupils to recite a verse of Holy Quran or Hadith of the Prophet (P.B.U.H) with translation and explanation concerning learning in the morning assembly. In this way, he teaches them to be true followers of Islam by gaining maximum knowledge and taking interest in learning as our Holy Prophet (P.B.U.H) said, "It is the compulsory duty of each Muslim man and woman to acquire knowledge."

There can be a number of other factors and incentives which teacher can use to motivate and create interest in his learners for learning. In this respect he teaches guides and supervises his pupils. He utilizes these motives at different and suitable times whenever required skillfully. The higher motivates, the more successfully teacher is he.

3.18 Main Points

1. Internally motivated children need little motivation. The teacher presents several extrinsic incentives to less internally motivated students and activates them for learning.
2. Reward is a positive motivator and punishment is unpleasant, however, its fear urges the pupils to learn.
3. Teacher's praise on showing even minor progress has positive effect on learning. Similarly the teacher uses blame for motivation purposes.
4. The teacher creates novelty in teaching with the help of teaching aids & designing the lesson plan in new way.
5. Relating lesson with student's experiences, arranging trips, inviting resource persons from the relevant field, and maintaining relationship between class activities and social life are the agents of arousing interest for more and effective learning.
6. Curiosity in the teaching process leads the students for further knowledge.
7. Uses of computer, games and simulation have positive effects on learning.
8. Setting of goals and desire to achieve those goals are the chief motivators for student's activation.
9. Teacher's expectations if clearly conveyed, create interest in students for learning.
10. Consistent and constant feedback arouses interest and improves motivation.

11. Respect, honor and ego stimulation encourage whereas shame and embarrassment, humiliation have adverse effect on students personality as well as learning.
12. Teacher develops positive attitudes and enthusiasm for more and more learning timely.
13. Experiences of success and failure, teacher's positive remarks and habit formation help in creating interest
14. The teacher's services in creating self-motivation, self-actualization and will to learn enhance motivation.
15. Educative environment, learning activities, and facilities available in the school facilitate learning.
16. The teacher's advice, his narration about the learning events of great men and his description regarding the importance of education in the light of holy Quran and Sunnah has great motivational effect on the learning.

3.19 Summary

The teacher has a unique importance in teaching and learning process. He not only teaches and guides the students but persuades and motivates them for more and more learning. His verbal and extrinsic rewards, punishment, his praise and blame his expectations; feedback and his pleasant behaviour all have motivational value for his students. He provides several faculties to them, he teaches honestly with full preparation, teaching aides and techniques. He related his lesson with actual social life.

He presents his teaching material in novel ways and tries to create curiosity in his teaching. He uses games and simulations. The purpose of all this is not only mere teaching but also motivate for more learning. He helps the students in setting goals and arouses them to take interest in learning for the achievement of those goals. He inspires the feelings and emotions of self-respect, self-esteem honour and ego-maximization in the class, school and society on the basis of their increased learning. He tries to awaken the potentialities of the students in order to establish and maintain a place of honour. Above all, he creates interest by telling them that acquiring knowledge is a sacred duty imposed upon them by the religion.

3.20 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Prepare a comprehensive list of extrinsic awards the teacher can manage to give to this students and also suggest the occasions when to give them from motivational point of view.
2. Prepare a list of incentives and intrinsic awards for enhancing students motivation for learning and suggest occasion of their use.
3. What measures a teacher can take to increase interest and secure student's attention for effective learning?
4. What steps as a teacher would you take for creating interest and curiosity provoking teaching?

5. Collect as many as Quranic verses and Hadiths concerning education and learning you can. Write them on cards 2x1½ with translation colorfully and hang them on walls at different places in school.
6. Inspire your class to recite a verse from Holy Quran and a Hadith morning assembly everyday and arrange the prize for the best speaker with the help of school administration at the end of the month.
7. Suggest suitable and practicable measures to make the school environment inspiring and educative.

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Unit-6

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

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INTRODUCTION

As you look within yourself and or the people around you, you realize that you are a very special and unique being. Nobody else in the world is quite like you. Nobody else in the world has the same physiological equipment, the same genetic code (unless of course you are an identical twin) or has experienced the same sequence of life situations. Nobody else use the identical blend defense mechanisms that you use when encountering stress and nobody else is guided by the exact mixture of motives, attitudes, and feelings. Thus one of the basic themes of physiological is that of individual differences. No one is exactly like anyone else. Except n terms of the needs of the human species, that you eat, drink, breathe, sleep, exercise and require same physiological needs. The difference that occurs amongst children of the same age is in then maturational and learning processes. The task of the school is to provide for the common needs of the students with taking into account the unique characteristics of each individual. No easy situation to the task has yet been found, however, knowledge about the kind of difference is becoming more complete.

In this unit we shall examine the following aspects of individual differences.

- (a) Meaning and Nature of Individual Differences.
- (b) Cause of Individual Differences.
- (c) Educational Provisions.
- (d) Measurement of Individual Difference.

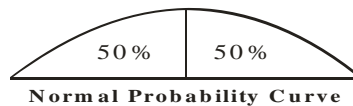
OBJECTIVES

When you have gone through this unit, you should be able to:-

1. Elaborate the meaning and nature of individual differences.
2. Bifurcate the areas of individual differences.
3. Identify the causes of individual differences.
4. Provide remedial measures for individual differences through general educational provisions and special educational provisions.
5. Take care of slow learners and finally be able to measure individual difference through various evaluation tests and techniques.

1. MEANING AND NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Experimental psychology has thrown adequate light on the nature and extent of individual difference; the findings of modern psychological tests and measurements have amply demonstrated that individual cannot fall into distinct categories in respect of any physical or mental trait. On the other hands all measures of individual, whether they be physical, mental, emotional or some other show that they tend to distribute themselves according to the law of the normal probability curve.



The normal curve is bell shaped and bilaterally symmetrical on each side of its central tendency the mean. Just as many persons are above the average as are below it, starting with the lowest score there is a gradually increasing number of persons making each next higher score gradually decreases until the highest score is reached. For example, the following table indicates the distribution of intelligence according to the normal probability curve.

Table-1: Percentage Distribution of IQs in Term An-Merrill Standardization Group

S. #	Intelligence Quotient (IQ)	Percentage of Cases Occurring
1.	150+	0.2
2.	140-149	1.1
3.	130-139	3.1
4.	120-129	8.2
5.	110-119	18.1
6.	100-109	23.5
7.	90-99	23.0
8.	80-99	14.5
9.	70-79	5.6
10.	60-69	2.0
11.	50-59	0.4
12.	Below 50	0.2

Source: Adapted from Maud. A. Merril, "significance of IQ on the revised standard binet scales" Journal of education psychology 29, 1938, 641-51.

Individuals not only differ among themselves with respect to a specific trait but differences may also be noticed within the same individual when he is studied in respect of various traits. Difference may also be noticed in the same individual with respect to this performance of a particular task at different time. Runners differ in running the same distance say 2km. The same runner may cover the same distance taking different times on different occasions. Thus there are inter-individual differences and the intra-individual differences, and both must be considered in studying individual differences.

1.1 Areas of Individual Differences

Individuals differ almost in every respect. They differ in physical as well as psychological characteristics. Some of the major areas in which they differ and which affect their personality growth to a large extent are age, height weight, sensory and motor powers, intelligence aptitudes or specific abilities, interest attitudes, appreciations and educational attainments. They also differ in their hereditary, family background and environmental influences.

(1) Chronological Age

One of the general factor of difference that influences school grading is chronological age. A child enters school at a certain age, 6 years, and is supposed to progress regularly in his schooling in terms of age factor. It is assumed moreover, that all children should be able to profit similarly from instructions that is the same or nearly the same in content and method of presentation for all learners on the respective grade levels. Apparent in ability on the part of a learner to master study material is explained in terms of factors such as laziness or stubbornness, that fail to take into consideration the factor that learners differ in their ability to perform in any one or more areas of learning material and at any one stage of development.

Chronological age as it represents the learners level of maturity and hence his possible education, is and should be a factor of difference. No matter how superior mentally or physically a child of three may be, he cannot be expected, because of difference in degree of maturity to engage in learning activities that are suitable for the nine year old. Further, readiness to engage in a particular learning situation may differ from individual to individual on any age level.

(2) Intellectual Abilities

Views about the nature of intellectual abilities continue to change. For many decades the idea of a general intellectual ability was very popular. Then, the idea of a few primary mental abilities was added. Next, a structure of some specific abilities was proposed. At present, a major attempt is being made to identify the basic mental processes and learning strategies that underlie intellectual performances. The testing of intelligence began on a widespread basis in 1916 in the United States when Terman (1916) adopted the earlier version of an intelligence test by ‘Binet’ and ‘Siman’. Terman thought of **intelligence** as the ability to carry on abstract thinking Thorndike (1926) defined **intelligence** as the ability to make good responses from the point of view of truth or fact.

Wechsler (1958) developed an intelligence test to measure the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment. The Wechsler Scale included performance test as well as typical verbal and mathematical test. Jone Miller and Moodie (1934) conceived of **Intelligence** as in born whereas Hunt (1961) viewed it as almost totally determined by environmental condition. ‘Terman’ regarded **Intelligence** is determined almost solely by heredity. Accordingly, he believed that the rate of intellectual development was fixed by heredity

and therefore did not change from birth onwards. Cattell (1971) proposed two kinds of general intelligence, fluid and crystallized. **Fluid Intelligence** is genetically determined and sets the upper limit of the individual's ability. How well the inherited ability is used and what forms it takes depend on cultural factors including learning.

Crystallized Intelligence is based on environmental factors, and its observable expression is based on learning. Accordingly, Fluid ability is necessary, but it is not sufficient for the development of Crystallized intelligence. Moreover, Fluid intelligence peaks at about age 25, but Crystallized intelligence continues to rise as long as a person continues to learn.

(3) Primary Mental Abilities

Thurstone (1938) identified seven primary mental abilities, and devised tests to measure them. The seven primary mental abilities are shown in table 2.

Thurstone's identification of primary mental abilities refutes the idea underlying general intellectual ability that persons are equally able in all academic areas. Instead, most individuals vary markedly in verbal, numerical, spatial and other abilities. For example it is possible for a student to be in the top one-fourth of the students of the same grade in one ability, such as spatial, or mathematical, and to be in the bottom one-fourth of the same students in another ability such as word fluency or perceptual speed. The primary abilities emerge and reach full functional maturity at different rates. For example, perceptual speed approaches full functional maturity corresponding to that of adult status by age 20, whereas word fluency and verbal comprehension only reach such a level, respectively, of about 60% and 80% of adult status and by 20% our verbal growth continues after we have peaked in perception; speed.

Table-2: Primary Mental Abilities

S. #	Ability	Description
1	Verbal Comprehension	The ability to understand the meaning of words vocabulary test represent this factor.
2	Word Fluency	The ability to think of words rapidly, as in solving anagrams or thinking of words that rhyme.
3	Number	The ability to work with numbers and perform computations
4	Spatial	The ability to visualize space-from relationships, as in recognizing the same figure presented in different orientations.
5	Memory	The ability to recall verbal stimuli, such as word pairs or sentences.
6	Perceptual Speed	The ability to grasp visual details quickly and to see similarities and differences between pictured objects.
7	Reasoning	The ability to find a general rule on the basis of presented instance, as in determining how a number series is constructed after being presented with only a portion of that series.

Guildford proposes three types of intelligence, each associated with different contents. **Concrete intelligence** involves figured content of mechanics, operators of machines, architects, artists etc.

- (i) **Abstract Intelligence:** Requires the processing of symbolic and semantic content. Learning to recognize words, to spell, to operate with numbers, and to understand verbal and mathematical concepts involves abstract intelligence, the present day tests measure abstract intelligence.
- (ii) **Social Intelligence:** Pertains to behaviour content, that is awareness and feelings regarding the behaviour of other and oneself teachers, social workers and political leaders require higher social intelligence than many other professional groups.
- (iii) **Special Abilities:** Since learning on the elementary levels is concerned with the mastery of learning tools, the discovery of the extent to which a child may possess a special ability or aptitude is not so important during the early years of his schooling as it will be later. On the junior and senior high school and college levels provision needs to be made for the development of whatever aptitudes the individual learners may possess of music, art, physical education etc.

(4) **Differences in Readiness for Learning**

Children of the same age are not necessarily at the same stage of readiness to learn. Differences are caused not only by variation in state of maturing but also by differences in previous learning background. Six years olds who enter the first grade may differ by one, two, or even three years in degree of readiness to profit from formal education. For example it has been found that the mental ages of the members of an entering first grade class may range between that of a three-years old and that of an eight years old. This means that although the chronological ages of the children may centre around six years, their stage of mental maturity (mental age) varies by five years. Also, pre-school home experiences may be such as to encourage the development of some children more than that of others.

Perhaps in no other field of learning, readiness to a learning is more important than it is in reading. The ability to adequate thought from the printed page is essential to success on all school levels as well as to proficiency in the higher forms of specialized learning. One of the most significant aims of fundamental education is to prepare the child to master the tools of reading during his elementary school training so that he may be prepared to extend his knowledge in the various areas of higher learning on the result of his acquired ability to understand and apply content of written material.

(5) **Differences in Motor Ability**

Persons of any age differ in their ability to perform in activities that are preeminently motor. In general, motor coordination and ability to perform successfully in the more complex motor skills increase with age as maturity brings with it the more complex motor skills increase with age as maturity brings with it the power of sustained attention,

muscular coordination, speed of performance, steadiness of control, and resistance to fatigue.

(6) Psychological (Sex Differences)

Maccoby (1966) reviewed approximately 1600 studies that provided some information about psychological differences between males – females. Subsequently, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) arrived at three kinds of conclusions regarding sex differences.

- a. Widely confirmed differences
- b. Questionable differences
- c. And unfounded differences

Differences Confirmed by MacCoby and Jacklin/Block

Girls are higher than boys in verbal abilities, such as reading, vocabulary comprehension and spelling. Boys are higher than girls in spatial abilities, quantitative abilities and aggressiveness. Girls are higher than boys in tactile sensitivity in expressing fear, in seeking help and assurance, in maintaining closer proximity to friends are more anxious, have lower task confidence and are more compliant with adults of younger age.

Boys are higher than girls in solving problems, are more dominant, have a stinger self-concept, are more active and are more impulsive.

All these conclusions are based on the average of test scores / other performances of different groups of boys and girls used in the various studies. The conclusions give no indication of the amount of the difference between the boys and girls or of the percentage of one sex that was higher than the average of the other sex.

(7) Social Class Differences

Social class is indicated by the status given to group of persons in a society by other persons of the same society. Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb (1944) found that person of a large community could be classified in to the following six socio class group: upper, upper-middle, middle-lower, upper-lower, and lower-lower. Social-economic status of the family, as measured by income, occupation of parents, and amount of education of parents, was found to be an important determinants of social class. These criteria are generally used in determining an individual's social class today.

Within any group of learners, differences in social background can be found that facilitate or retard achievement regardless of individual potentiality to master material. The learning experiences in which the child engages or has engaged in his home affect his willingness to participate in a present learning situation. Individual interests, attitude toward school and towards particular school subjects (sometimes developed as a result of attitudes at home or in the neighborhood environment), habits of cooperation or non-cooperation, ability or willingness to concentrate on learning material, and acquired study habits-all constitute factors of difference among learners.

The amount and kind of previous experiences and knowledge that the individual brings to a specific learning situation have much to do with his capacity for further study or his attitude towards it. If the learner feels that he already know much of the study contents of a specific course, he may lose interest in it, and fail to gain from further instruction. Hence, poor study habits are developed in learners, which may result in his failure to master the new material of the course.

Home condition, contribute significantly to educational achievement factors in the family (homes which are found to rear cognitive development are less favourable parental attitudes towards school and education lower parental expectations for their children and a less favourable in electoral climate of the home.

(8) Racial and Ethnic Differences

Differences in abilities amongst racial and ethnic groups have not yet been studied sufficiently for the formulation of a general conclusion that will cover all cases. Factors other than individual ability to master learning material may very easily affect the results of studies and measurements, moreover, cross-marriages that have occurred for many generation between persons of different racial and ethnic groups may hamper clear delineation.

1.2 Causes of Individual Differences

There are some psychologists who hold the view that the cause of individual differences or psychological differences is inherited. These psychologists are called the HEREDITARIANS or TRADITIONALISTS. On other hand there are some environmentalists or progressivists who are of the opinion that environment is the sole factor in the development of intelligence. As a teacher, one should not accept any one of these two viewpoints without examining their relative importance. If a teacher believes that environment is the complete force and that heredity is little or nothing, then, his efforts will be directed almost equally for all children. In that way he will misdirect much of his energy. There are teachers who believe that “every child is a diamond in raw who needs only polishing in order to reflect the light of intelligence. If a teacher believes that children differ in respect of their potentialities he will feel that his efforts will bring different results with different pupils and he will have different expectations for different pupils. Such teachers believe that a child will develop in the direction determined by his heredity and that the guidance and learning by parents and teachers matter very little. A teacher with such beliefs will miss many opportunities to develop the extent capacities of his pupils. It is therefore, necessary to examine various causes of individual differences, so as to arrive at a proper understanding of the problem. To prove that intelligence is due to heredity or an environment is not possible and can only be estimated indirectly since the two factors are interactive from the moment of conception. The main indirect lines of evidence have come from the study of family trees. Twin studies and others reared together and apart.

(1) Galton’s Study

Sir Francis Galton was the first to study the possible relationship between intelligence and heredity. Galton first demonstrated that there is a great deal of individual variation in intelligence. That all people are not equally bright or capable. They also tried to show that these differences in mental ability were largely inherited, mostly by arguing that eminent men tended to be related to one another. As evidence, he presented the family trees of prominent men in the fields of law, science, art and the military, indicating that greatness ran in certain families.

(2) Goddard’s Study

H.H. Goddard studied the Kallikak family. A Certain Martin Kallikak (false name) had children by two women; one was feeble-minded, the other was of normal intelligence. The feeble minded mother gave rise to a high proportion of feeble-minded descendants, while the mother with normal intelligence had no feeble-minded children at all.

Since late 1960’s, a large number of studies have been conducted on development of intelligence. Investigators have tried to find out the correlation of IQ’s of identical twins reared together, identical twins reared apart, children and their true parents, foster children and their foster parents, sibling, and unrelated children.

Table-3: IQ Correlation for Different Blood Relationships

S. #	Relationship	Correlation
1.	Unrelated Children Reared Apart	0.01
2.	Unrelated Children Reared Together	0.23
3.	Foster Parent Child	0.20
4.	Parent – Child	0.50
5.	Siblings	0.49
6.	Fraternal Twins	0.53
7.	Identical Twins Reared Apart	0.75
8.	Identical Twins Reared Together	0.87

Kimling and Jarvik’s Study

Erlenmeyer Kimling and Jarvik (1963) studied the IQ correlations for different blood relationships. The findings of their study are presented in table 4.

Interpretations of the Findings

- (i) If heredity is an important influence on intelligence, then arbitrarily picked pairs of people who are not related biologically and who do not interact socially will not be similar in IQ at all. The correlation of IQ scores of many such pairs will average about 0. This has been proved by Kimling-Jarvik.
- (ii) If environment is an important influence on intelligence then unrelated children reared in the same environment should be similar in IQ to some extent. The findings of Erlenmeyer, etc; indicate that the correlation of IQs of unrelated children reared in the same home is 0.20.

- (iii) If heredity is important for the development of intelligence, then children's IQ will correlate with those of their true parents. This fact comes true when we examine the findings of Erlenmeyer.
- (iv) If heredity is important, then the correlation of IQs of children and their true parents should be higher than the correlation of IQs of children and their foster parents. This is also true. (Parent-child = 0.50' foster – Parent and child = 0.20)
- (v) Since foster father and foster children have different heredity, a positive correlation of their IQs indicates the role of environment. A positive correlation of IQs of biological parents and their children (0.50) also indicates the influence of environment on intelligence. For example both parents of a particular child will have very high IQs and that their child's IQ will also be quite high. On the other hand, another set of parents may both have low IQs and so may have children. In these two cases, the transmission, though biological, may be also social at the same time. The child who has bright parents may have been exposed to a large vocabulary and a highly stimulating environment; he may also have been turned by his parents in basic intellectual skills. These experiences could readily help him achieve a high IQ while the children of dull parents could have been reared in an intellectually impoverished environment, thus leading to a low IQ.
- (vi) If heredity is more important, then the IQs of identical twins should be more similar than those of fraternal twins. Identical twins have identical heredity, whereas fraternal twins may be as dissimilar as two siblings born to the same parents at different times. For this purpose the correlations of IQs of identical twins are higher than the correlations of IQs of fraternal twins. This can be seen from the findings of Erlenmeyer.
- (vii) If environment is an important influence on intelligence, then identical twins reared together should be more similar in intelligence than identical twins reared apart. Identical twins who are reared together have identical heredity and similar environments. By contrast, identical twins reared apart have identical heredity but different environments. For this purpose, identical twins reared together have very high correlation of their IQs (0.87 Erlenmeyer) than identical twins reared apart 0.75.
- (viii) In Conclusion, we can say that both heredity and environment are potent factors which cause individual differences in intelligence. The same is also true for other affective and cognitive characteristics. Intelligence is not the result of inheritance only, nor is it due to environmental influence and experiences. However, heredity does determine the mental ability/abilities of individual to an unspecifiable extent. Arthur Jensen (1969) says that intelligence is 80 percent inherited. Based on studies conducted over the past 50 years, Jensen concludes that genetic elements are for more important than environmental influences in explaining individual differences in IQ. But Jensen's conclusions were debated and a search is being made about the role of early experiences in the intellectual development of children. We can also not forego environmental conditions that influence intellectual development. Nutrition, health, stimulation, emotional and intellectual climate and early education are important determinants of intelligence. Given two infants with the same genes, the one receiving better nutrition, health care, intellectual stimulation

enriched home environments / pre-school education will score higher on an IQ test when entering the first grade. Therefore a person's intelligence / differences are dependent upon the continual interaction of heredity and environment.

1.3 Educational Provisions

Whatever may be the causes, children differ in their learning abilities. It is the duty and responsibility of any school system to provide for these differences so that every child is helped to rise to a height quite commensurating with his own abilities. The following are a few of the important steps that a school might take up in this direction.

1.3.1 General Provisions

(1) **Every Individual's ability should be assessed as accurately as possible.** Since individual possess cognitive and psychomotor abilities ranging from a very low to a very high degree and since they do not fall into distinct types, it becomes difficult to locate the exact standing of a child. Hence it is imperative that the abilities of children should be accurately assessed. The more reliable is the assessment; the better will be the provision. We must remember that ability is the capability to perform tasks, and a style refers to the Learner's preferred mode / desired conditions of learning, such as preferring to acquire information visually rather than orally and requiring quietness when studying, rather than tolerating sound, such as background music or other persons talking. Cognitive styles refer to how one perceives, or cognizes situations. Dunn and Dunn (1978) identified student's needs / preferences, or learning styles when studying. They also identified ways to adapt the physical environment of the classroom and instructional approaches to student's need. There are four major areas of learning needs/preferences or styles. The four areas involve (i) the student's environment for learning. (ii) the student's motivation (iii) the sociological aspects of the learning environment (iv) and the student's physical needs.

A Checklist of learning needs based on Dunn and Dunn is reproduced below. Teacher can mentally check the ones they correspond to the way the student's prefer.

Table-4: Checklist of Learning Preferences

Environmental Conditions of Learner	
1.	Needs Quietness or Tolerates Sound
2.	Requires Bright Light or Requires Low Light
3.	Needs Cool Environment or Needs Warm Environment
4.	Requires formal design of furniture such as a Desk/Chair or Requires Informal Design that Permits.
Motivational States of The Individual/Learner	
5.	Self-Motivated or Unmotivated
6.	Persistent or Not Persistent
7.	Responsible or Not Very Responsible
8.	Needs Structured Learning Conditions as Specific Assignments and Rules or Need little Structure.

Sociological Preference of Learners	
9.	Prefers Learning Alone or Prefers Learning With One Peer. Prefers Learning With Two Peers or Several Peers. Prefers Learning With Adults or Prefers Learning Through Several Ways.
Physical Needs	
10.	Has Auditory Preference Has Visual Preference Has Tactile Preference Has Kinesthetic Preference
11.	Require Food Intake Such as Nibbling Food or Sipping Soft Drinks or Does Not Require Food Intake
12.	Functions Best in Morning or Late Morning or After Noon, or Evening
13.	Needs Mobility e.g. To Move About or Does Not Need Mobility

Next we come to a very important learning preference / mode called as **Cognitive Style**. Teachers current with it will be able to assess the academic and social behaviour of an individual. A cognitive style is a identified learning styles, based upon the review of the literature, into two cognitive styles.

- (a) Reflective Versus Impulsive
- (b) Field-Dependence Versus Field-Independence

Persons with an **impulsive style** react quickly to situations. They give answer quickly without thinking through the situation first and tend to make errors by responding quickly. Persons with a reflective style react in opposite patterns.

Field-independent and field-dependent styles were identified by Witkin (1949). The basic difference between the field-independent and field style is in perceiving and ordering the stimulus world. The field independent person tends to restructure environmental situations. The field dependent person tends not to restructure situations but to accept them as experienced. The effects of these basic differences are reflected in many ways that are of interest to education.

S. #	Field Dependent Persons	Field Independent Persons
1.	They are attentive to social cues, accept other people readily, and like to be with people.	They are less attentive to social cues and prefer to work with ideas and abstract principle.
2.	They get along with other.	They have fewer warm, interpersonal relations.
3.	They tend to be interested in social studies.	They are more interested in mathematics and science they learn well.
4.	They learn abstract concepts with difficulty	They learn abstracted concept well.
5.	They require more externally defined goals and extrinsic rewards.	They set their own goals, find desired consequences of achieving their goals and do not require extend reinforcement?
6.	Art students with informal art style.	Art students with formal art style.

A Good environment and proper education are necessary

Though heredity is important in determining eventual adult, performance and environment also plays a vital role as demonstrated by experiments. Hence a good environment and proper education are necessary for all. Younger children must have rich opportunities to express themselves and they must have proper guidance for their emerging abilities.

(2) Identification of special talents

We need to spend considerably more efforts than being done at present in identifying abilities starting early in school years with the help of standardized tests. Such identification will be more authentic. The identified talents should be properly nurtured.

(3) Educational provisions must be continuous

In order to provide well for children of the entire range of abilities, educational provisions must be continuous. The continuity must be ensured, especially when children pass from one stage of education to another or from one school system to another.

(4) Adequate facilities and materials are needed

Bright children need some instructional materials more advanced than those for the other children. The slow learners also require reading materials different from the rest of the group. The sensory handicapped and emotionally disturbed children also require special material, equipment and space. In order to provide well for individual differences every school should be properly equipped with such facilities and materials as will be needed for all kinds of children.

(5) Competent school staff is needed

Even the best facilities of education of children cannot be better than the school personnel doing the work. Hence society should recognize the importance of well educated and competent school staff and give necessary financial support to schools. Every school should have competent teacher's school psychologist, curriculum supervisors and administrators.

(6) Individualization is necessary

The principal means of providing for individual differences is individualization of instruction where every individual is allowed to work independently, Dalton Plan, Winneka Plan, assignments, directed or supervised study, proper use of the library period conduction individuals experiments in the science laboratory and club activities are some of the methods of encouraging individual work.

(a) The Dalton's Plan

Initiated by Helen Parkhurst, the Dalton plan stressed the principles of freedom and group interaction.

According to the Dalton Plan, the school is to be regarded as a “house”, traditional classrooms become laboratories in which the function of the teacher is that of preserving “an atmosphere of study.” The teacher suggests activities, answers questions, and holds conferences with the learners as these are desired by them. The learner’s assignments may spread over an entire month. The learner is free to prepare his assignments in his own way with the help of the teachers, who guides him in the budgeting of his time and who, as well as the pupils, keep “graphs of his daily progress”. Opportunity is also provided for group discussion on literary, historical and similar other socializing influences.

(b) The Winnetka Plan

Credit for this plan of individualization type of instruction goes to Carleton Washburne, of Winnetka, Illinois. The educational philosophy underlying this plan is that a learner should be allowed to follow his own rate of learning in each of the subject fields comprise his full curriculum. Basic to carrying out of the plan is the need of discovering the individual’s stage of learning for each subject and of building upon that rather than having him lack step with a group of learners who differ from him in stage of learning readiness. This plan necessitates the administration of examinations before a specific learning unit is undertaken in order to discover what that individual already knows.

The Dalton Plan, which keeps the learner at the same level on all subjects, the Winnetka plan allows the child to proceed at different rates in different areas. He might be a year ahead in arithmetic and six months ahead in reading. Learning units are arranged in the form of tasks/goals. Progress is checked by the learner himself by means of self administered tests. According to this plan there would be no failure since the child is measured against his own progress rather than in terms of the achievement of other learner. There is no skipping for the bright learner, but he does all the work in less time. The slower learner also completes his work but in longer time.

(c) Homogeneous Grouping

In order to effectively deal with children of varying abilities, one of the best methods is to divide them into groups of homogeneous ability and treat them separately by means of differentiated curricula and method of instruction. There are various forms of grouping practiced in American schools. Such as friendship grouping, interest grouping, achievement level grouping etc. but the most common and effective method is differential ability grouping. Recently mixed ability grouping has been introduced in school of UK.

(7) Need of Adult Education

The concept of individual difference has also an implication for adult education. Parents must receive training in sound preparation in regard to psychological needs and nature of children.

1.3.2 Special Provisions

(a) Provisions For the Gifted / Talented Children

Marlance (1971) defined gifted and talented children as those with high demonstrated achievement and / or high potential ability in any one of the following areas.

- a. General intellectual ability
- b. Specified academic aptitude
- c. Creative, productive thinking
- d. Leadership
- e. Visual and performing arts
- f. Psychomotor skills

This definition has been widely used, but required some elaboration. A gifted student is one who is high in general intellectual ability and in achievement in several areas such as mathematics, science, and English. Generally, a child who possesses IQ of 140 or above and is superior in most areas of the school life or promises to be so is called a gifted child, strangely enough the gifted are forgotten students in the class. Because they are able to take care of themselves academically, they get less attention from the teacher. Many gifted children display signs of apathy, boredom, unhappiness and even maladjustment.

The first task that teachers face is identifying the area or areas of giftedness of the students. Identification may be by an individual intelligence test, achievement tests and parental or teacher observation. Aptitude test designed to predict specialized talents in art and music, architecture, mechanics may also be used to identify talented students.

When the identification is done annually, new students not identified in prior years are found to be gifted or talented. Accordingly, it is not uncommon for as many as 25% of the school population to be identified as having a gift or a talent. It is also unwise to identify and label the gifted students; least others feel that they are not gifted. The entire exercise should be done very discreetly. Moreover, nearly every normally developing student has at least one area of high or potentially high performance that should be identified and developed as that of exceptional children.

(b) Educating the Gifted Children

Much can be accomplished with existing resources. A gifted student should have time to pursue topics more deeply than their classmates. Cluster of schools should combine their gifted children regularly for special enrichment programmes. School, should employ community expertise in such fields as art, photography, journalisms, drama, and creative writing for their talented youngsters.

The key to educating the gifted children is to formulate individual programmes for them so that they encounter daily challenges. Such education requires teachers who have received special training that enables them to work with gifted students.

Special technique for educating the gifted fall along three lines.

- (a) Enrichment
- (b) Acceleration
- (c) Ability Grouping

(i) Enrichment

Enrichment is defined as experiences that are above and beyond the regular curriculum. Kirk (1972) states that enrichment techniques usually follow one or more of these procedures.

- (a) Teachers attempt to challenge gifted pupils by assigning extra reading and assignments and permit them to participate in related extracurricular activities, for example, if parents can arrange time, they could take a scientifically advanced student to special classes at an institution.
- (b) Grouping the gifted students of different schools so that they are together occasionally enabling interested teachers to challenge their abilities by group discussion and independent research.
- (c) Providing special offerings, such as extra language or advanced science course.
- (d) Employing for each school system a special teacher who could move from school to school, identify the gifted, aid regular teacher and actually work with the gifted in seminars or group discussions busy schedule of work. It means providing challenging and meaningful work for the gifted.

The “Renzulli” model focuses on individual and small group investigations of aerial problems as the key enrichment activities for gifted students. Included in it are projects directly related to the school’s curriculum? For example, students may engage in creative writing, drama, dance, and similar expressive areas. In general, any enrichment activity is appropriate that enables students develop an area of their giftedness.

(ii) Acceleration

Acceleration means some modification in the regular school programme that permits the gifted student to complete the programme in less time or at an earlier age than usual (Getzels and Dillon, 1973). Double promotion is also an acceleration type. Acceleration can be of various types: school admission based on mental age rather than chronological age, skipping classes, combining two years work into one eliminating more basic course, early admission to high school/College.

Acceleration is important because curriculum is graded by age and every student is required to spend one school year to complete each class. Not permitting student to learn the subject matter assigned to a higher grade unnecessarily retards the educational development of many students. Stanley (1977) presents strong arguments supporting two or more years of acceleration prior to high school graduation by highly talented students.

The concludes that enrichment, without any acceleration, will be injurious to the educational development of the brilliant student.

(iii) Ability Grouping

Ability Grouping has definite possibilities for dealing with the gifted. Although there are certain objections against grouping children according to mental abilities and segregating the gifted from the rest. It has definite advantages over teaching a class of heterogeneous group. Gifted children must be identified and grouped together in a special class so that the curriculum, instructional materials and teaching techniques can be designed to meet their requirements. But segregation should be done discreetly and without labeling the children.

(iv) Paul Torrance's Guidelines to encouraging Giftedness

- (a) Encourage manipulation and sensitivity to objects and ideas.
- (b) Try to be tolerant of new ideas, no matter how far-fetched they may be.
- (c) Be flexible in setting up lessons; permit some brainstorming.
- (d) Maintain a relaxed classroom, tutoring or therapeutic atmosphere.
- (e) Help the child who is creative learn to get along with other children.
- (f) Present controversial problems and challenge accepted origins.
- (g) Teach the basics of problem solving / creative processes.
- (h) Teach them not to underrate their own creativity, dispel the sense of awe of masterpieces.

(c) Provisions for the Slow Learners

The term slow learner' is commonly used with reference to children with IQs between about 80-90. Those with IQ of 90 or above are considered to be within the normal or above average range. Ordinarily they have the ability to get along fairly well in a regular class-room without much special help. Those with IQ below 75-80 on the other hand are usually classified as retarded or mentally retarded. The child we call slow learner is one who is not necessarily retarded or in need of special education but is likely to need some extra help in a regular class-room. He is capable of learning just about anything that the average child is capable of it just takes him longer. Students who are slow in learning one subject are frequently slow in learning others. But this is not always the case. A child may be slow in reading, but is average or above in learning, say mathematics. Different abilities are required for learning different subjects.

(1) Identifying the Slow-Learner

In identifying the slow-learner the teacher can make use of intelligence test scores. But IQ scores are not always true indicators of slowness in learning. Because two students having the same IQ score may have two different types of problems. Competency-based tests, an improvement of traditional achievement tests in different school subject may also be used to identify specific backwardness of children. Observation of students behaviour, adjustment language difficulties, emotional problems etc by parent and teachers can provide useful information in identifying slow learner.

(2) Periodic Medical Examination

Deficiency in ability required for a particular task may cause slow or poor learning in relation to that task. If the physical defect is recognized and corrected, the slow learner becomes a normal learner. Our school systems, must, therefore, provide for periodic medical examination of students, for taking remedial measures.

(d) Learning Handicaps in exceptional Children

Exceptional children are those who are considerably above or below the average of their age-group in characteristic or behaviour. Those above the average of their age-group are termed as gifted or creative, and have been discussed earlier. Here we shall talk about these exceptional children who are below the average of their age-group.

An exceptional child with a learning handicap/disability is one who differs from other children so much in one or more characters, for example, in vision or in behaviour that the child cannot profit maximally from the typical pattern of instructions provided to normally developing children. Change must be made in what is taught or how it is taught in order to provide for handicapped exceptional children. A child is classified exceptional on the basis of careful assessment/identification of various types of learning handicaps, so that they may participate in programmes for handicapped children as defined by the state.

There are children who have a good vocabulary, who know what words mean, and who can use words in conversation, but who are unable to learn to read. Such children are said to have “**dyslexia**” which in itself merely means inability to read”. There are also children who have what is called “**hyperlexia**” which means who can read at an early age, but who cannot understand what is spoken to them. The word dyslexia has come to be associated with learning disabilities generally, since so many of them related to the problem of reading. Actually, dyslexia is but one type of learning disability, and there are two basic kinds: visual and auditory.

A child who is “**visual dyslexic**” has difficulty in translating written letter into sound such a child may also have difficulty in discriminating between two letters which are similar as “b” and “d” or “n” and “u” when written in text form. This often extends to difficulty in recognizing the difference between such words as “cat” and “cap” or “top” and “tip” when they are in print. Such children may have other nonbearing difficulties as well, as in the case of a child who insists to play with a ball but who does not enjoy watching others play a ball game because he or she cannot understand what is going on even though can she “see” it.

A child who is an “**auditory dyslexic**” has difficulty in translating sound into meaning. Sometimes this shows up as difficulty in discriminating between sounds that are somewhat similar: a child with such a difficulty will not discriminate between “bat” and “cat” when they are given orally. He may also fail to recognize the similarity between “milk” and “silk”. A child with auditory dyslexia may also have difficulty remembering things told to him orally.

Another type of difficulty that learner may have is “**sequencing**”, for example, they are unable to put blocks in the same order as a model or to get the steps right in a long division problem, or to get the letters in the right order in spelling (writing “mlik” for milk”.

A complete programme of diagnosis will include medical reports and other information. A fairly complete list of things that can be done to identify various types of difficulties is given below:

- a. Evaluation of intelligence.
- b. Visual-motor Perceptual Tests.
- c. Personality Tests
- d. Linguistic Evaluation
- e. Reading Tests
- f. Pinpointing of Behavioural Difficulties
- g. Medical History Evaluation
- h. Evaluation of Physical Development, Family Situation and Emotional Stresses in the Home.
- i. Physical Examination, both General and Neurological Including Visions and Hearing Tests.
- j. Assessment of Cognitive Development.

(e) Placement with a Teacher

Emotional crises, difficulty in interaction with the teachers and lack of proper environmental setting may also cause slow learning. In order to find measures to prevent failures in learning, each learner should be placed with the teacher with whom he can interact most effectively. The positive effects of such interaction can bring about remarkable changes in a student. In helping the slow learner the teacher should (i) look at the total child (development, maturation, motivation etc) and (ii) examine the educational setting (curriculum content, mode of instruction and the learning environment).

(f) Avoid Competition

Competition is especially harmful for slow-learners. This does not do so much good for their self-concept. Competition causes the slow Learner stop trying and to feel even less adequate than he did originally. It is supposed to contribute to frustration, discouragement and feeling of worthlessness in them.

(g) Remedial Teaching

Teachers must provide remedial teaching/instructions for the slow learner. They have to repeat their instruction/directions several times and in simple words, they should give practice drill and review exercise lessons. They should introduce new material in small easy steps, relating it to what he already knows. Short range incentives are more productive than intrinsic motivation towards long range goals.

(h) Non-Promotion

Some teachers argue in favour of detention or non-promotion of slow learners. But when a youngster is not promoted he perceives himself and is perceived by other as a failure. He thinks that he has been punished. As dissatisfaction increases, he becomes a truant and drop-out. The slow learner is not to be branded as a failure/non-learner, not to be compared with others who are not really his peers. He is to be helped and listened to, and should be encouraged and understood rather than beaten down, at home as well in school. If possible **Special Classes**, especially by trained teachers may be started for slow learners who have a strong need for accomplishments, which might be difficult for them in a regular class. Each small success or accomplishment must be rewarded.

(i) A Disadvantaged Child

Is one who is (a) handicapped or disabled because of certain conditions, (b) denied the opportunity to grow normally at his own natural rate (c) has been denied the basic / universal rights of children i.e. a stable home, loving mother, a supportive father, (d) who suffers from a continuing inadequacy of basic necessities of life. Thus the term continuing inadequacy of basic necessities of life. Thus the term disadvantaged refers to an inner condition of a child resulting from an outer deprivation; there are several categories of disadvantaged children, such as:

Economically disadvantages, socially, culturally, intellectually, educationally or linguistically disadvantaged.

(j) Causes of Disadvantaged Conditions

- (a) Economic-poverty, poor occupational status, unemployment, poor housing/diet/health clothing etc. or inadequate medical care, cleanliness, pre-natal and post natal complications.
- (b) Home and neighborhood-school inadequacy, crowded home, lack of play space, slum type, homes.
- (c) Defective child-rearing and parenting behaviour, lack of cultural stimulation, parental rejection or over-indulgence.
- (d) Intellectual, educational, retarded cognitive growth, delayed speech, over stimulation, failure, stagnation, dropout.
- (e) Psychiatric problems, behaviour problems and disorders.

(k) Programme for the Disadvantaged

- (a) Preventing programme for health, nutrition and care.
- (b) Preparatory and pre-school education programmes
- (c) Educational reform for adapting curricular, school, teachers teaching methods and textbooks.
- (d) Parent education and functional literacy programmes.
- (e) Social and welfare programmes for adolescents / Youth / Families and communities.

2. MEASUREMENT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Measurement is the assignment of a number to an object or event according to rule. This may represent something physical, as when you step on the scales and note, with dismay or pleasure the number that indicates your weight. Or it may be more subtle, as when you take a vocational aptitude test and receive your score in medical or engineering aptitude test. In order to draw meaningful comparison, measurement, must be meaningful. In order to have meaning, all measurements must satisfy two basic criteria: they must be reliable and they must be valid.

(a) **Reliability** is the indication of the consistency of measurement, e.g: If your weight reads 140lbs, one days, 240 pound the next day, and 40 pound the days after, your faith in the precision of the scale would be secretly shaken. The same is true of psychological test. Our measurements must be consistent over repeated tests of measurement. A good test should yields roughly the same scores over repeated measurements, as long as that which is being measured does not change dramatically.

(b) **Validity** Measurements must also be valid, validity is an indication of the extent to which a test measure what it is supposed to measure.

(c) **Correlation** In order to give precise statements about reliability and validity, a statistical technique called correlation may be utilized. It allows scientists to make predictions; correlation is a statement about the strength of the association between two (or possibly more) variables. If the correlation between two variables is high, the variables will tend to be very together, that is, wherever one of the traits is found, chances are good that the other trait will also be found. If we observe that people with bland hair usually have blue eye then we would say that there is correlation between the variables hair colour and eye colour. This is not to say that having bland hair causes one to have blue eyes, but it does allow us to predict, whenever we know that certain individuals have bland hair, that they are also likely to have blue eyes. As discussed earlier, individuals differ in sensitive, affective and psychomotor abilities. They differ almost in every respect-personality, attitude, interest, intelligence and achievement. Individual differences can be identified and measured through finer measurement instruments know as psychological test. A psychological is a pattern of stimuli, selected and organized to elicit responses which reveal certain psychological characteristics in the person who makes them. The following psychological tests can be used by the teacher or psychologists to measure difference among individuals.

2.1 Test of General Intelligence

(1) Sometimes these tests are also referred to as tests of mental ability, tests of general ability or test of scholastic aptitude, these tests measure the psychological traits termed to “intelligence” which provide the best possible single clue to the understanding of children’s academic performances. There are various tests of intelligence like standard-

binet intelligence test (revised), Wechsler intelligence scale for children and various culture free and culture fair tests.

2.2 Tests of Aptitude

These tests measure the possibilities of success in future performance. One of the most famous batteries, which measure children's different aptitudes, is "differential aptitude test battery" which measures the following abilities.

- (i) Verbal Reasoning
- (ii) Numerical Ability
- (iii) Abstract Reasoning
- (iv) Space Relations
- (v) Mechanical Reasoning
- (vi) Clerical Speed and Accuracy
- (vii) Language Usage

2.3 Interest Inventories

Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and Kuder's Preference Record (Vocational) are some of the interest inventories that can be used to measure differences among individuals in their interest.

2.4 Test of Personality

The MMPI, Bells Adjustment Inventory, Projective tests like "Rorschach Ink Blot test." Thematic Apperception test, and other questionnaires can be used to measure personality structure and adjustment, and difficulties of individuals.

2.5 Competence-Based Tests

Tests of achievement, mostly teacher-made type, can be used to measure individual differences in academic achievement. Practically, these tests as are prepared by teachers do not measure the competence in learning various subjects. The competence-based tests are an improvement over the traditional tests, and are not difficult to prepare such tests. Once the teacher knows the learning competencies in various school subjects it becomes easy for the teacher to prepare such tests.

It must be noted that scores obtained by a student in any one of the tests may not be a sure measure of his standing in the group. Scores on tests are influenced by a number of factors, internal and external operating at the time of taking the test. For this purpose scores obtained by one test can be supplemented by scores obtained from other similar tests.

2.6 Multiple-Choice Tests or Essays

What about multiple-choice tests or, as many poorly prepared students like to call them, "multiple-guess tests?" One of the criticisms of the multiple-choice tests is that it rewards rote memorization rather than true understanding. This can certainly happen if the test is poorly designed, but when thoroughly researched and carefully prepared, the multiple

choice test can assess a person's ability to apply concepts to problem solving situations. Rather than break up the units of knowledge and isolating the pieces, as the critics typically charge, a well-designed multiple choice test, such as SAT, demands that the students be able to understand concepts and bring facts together. Research evidence clearly shows that the SAT verbal score shares much in common with IQ, the correlation between them being an extremely high + 0.80.

What about essay questions? There is the fear that standardized tests based only on essay questions and writing samples may have an adverse effect on learning. Verbally adept but uninformed students may bluff their way through an essay exam. Similarly, the tactics used by some students or memorizing or rotting the topics of subjects also affects learning process. Essay type exams however, illuminates the student's thought process in more detail, as compared to multiple choice tests. But for a teacher, with a large class of widely varying abilities, interests and needs may have to rely on the multiple choice tests. It not only ensures reliability of testing but also more importantly it permits free time to work with individual students.

2.7 Computer Assisted Testing (CAT)

The computer age has led to a high tech form of testing called CAT. (Computer Assisted Testing) Here, the individual sits at a computer keyboard, and the questions are presented on the screen. The testing becomes personalized since the testing is interactive with the computer, in effect custom designing the test to each student's skill level. For example, the question may get progressively more difficult until a level is reached. When a student begins to get the questions wrong, an easier set of questions suddenly appears. This branching of easier and harder questions called going "up the ladder" or "down the chute" continues until the students true level of competence to reach. The educational testing services of USA are currently putting both the SAT and GRE (Graduate Record Exam) on a computer format. Many people believe that CAT is viable, cost-effective and a big improvement over paper and pencil testing.

2.8 The Portfolio Approach

Another testing technique, currently gaining in popularity is called the portfolio approach. Just as an aspiring artist or model carries a portfolio of past work to a prospective employer, so too does the student who selects examples of his or her best work over a term or even an entire year of study. It is said that the portfolio approach places more emphasis on a student's overall accomplishment than on the ability merely to score well on a single battery of tests. Typical portfolios include original poetry, plan, short stories, essay and art projects. Even in math, a student might produce a series of fractions, showing their relationships to decimals, or an arrangement of dice to illustrate probabilities, or even present an essay on the life of the Prophet "Muhammad" (P.B.U.H). At the end of the year, the student hands over the portfolios to the teacher for evaluation. Teachers of the new Millennium should be made aware of this approach and should be given workshop preparation in learning this technique.

The portfolio method can also be used to evaluate teachers, students and the curriculum itself. A portfolio that includes, for example, “samples of student’s teacher developed plans and materials, videotaped teaching episodes, and other teacher’s reflections on his or her own teaching can provide direct evidence of what a teacher knows and can do.

Whether, the portfolio approach proves to be as valuable as it promises is still in question, but there is no doubt that new testing methods will be employed as educational psychology operates in the 21st century. New testing procedures are on the horizon, procedures intended to bridge the gap between cognitive psychology and psychometric methods.

2.9 Grade Equivalent Scores

Grade equivalent scores are based on relating a given student’s score on a test to the average scores found for other students in a particular grade, at the same time of years, and of roughly the same age. For example, assume that in September, a large, representative sample of their graders (III class, students) of the morning group, producer an average score of 30 on a certain arithmetic test. If a given student is then tested, and receives a score of 30, that child would be assigned a grade-equivalent score of 3.0 of the child did somewhat better than that and had a score of say 3.4, it would indicate a performance equal to a third grade student in the fourth month (December) of the school year. Grade equivalent scores are typically reported in tenths of a year, so that a score of 5.9 refers to the ninth month (June) of the fifth grade, and a score of 0.0 to the first day of Kindergarten. Thus, the scores range from 0.0 (or sometimes ko) through 12.9, representing the thirteen years of school from Kindergarten through grade 12. the first of September is given on the score as 0, whereas the end of September as 0.1, the end of October as 0.2 and on until the end of June as 0.9. a note of caution in this system is.

- (a) Children do not all grow and develop at the same yearly rate, never mind the same monthly rate, so don’t be overly concerned when a seemingly bright child suddenly under performs the norms of a few months, that same child may quickly catch up and even outperform the norms several months later.
- (b) Don’t be too quick to use a precocious child’s high score in same area as a reason to have that child skip a grade or two. A third class (grader) might even get a grade equivalent of 7.0 on a given test. This doesn’t mean that the child is now ready for a fast promotion to class-7th. What it does mean is that the third grader has certainly enquired third-grade material and infect has done as well as a seventh grader when measured on a third-grade test. However, there are many things the 7th grader has learned and is expected to know which are simply not even part of a third-grader’s consciousness and which don’t appear on a third grade test.

2.10 Curriculum Testing

Virtually any curriculum that is more than five years old requires a thorough evaluation, this is most obvious in field such as science, but should be done in all areas. This type of testing shown answers the following:

- (a) To what degree have the curriculum’s goals been reached?
- (b) Is the curriculum content appropriate in view of the mission’s objectives.

- (c) Has the instruction been truly based on the curriculum.
- (d) Has the assessment measured the taught curriculum or planned.

2.11 Summary

Human beings have many common needs and characteristics, but they are also different in many ways. Students of the same chronological age vary widely in general intellectual abilities, primary mental abilities, motor abilities, and specific intellectual abilities. Differences among students in their learning abilities, interests and motives result in very great differences in their educational achievements. Some normally developing, rapid-learning class 3 children achieve as high as normally developing slow-learning class 12 students. Moreover a student typically does not achieve at the same level in different subjects such as mathematics, science, reading, foreign language and typing. It is also not un-common to find students who are in the upper one-fourth of their grade in one primary mental ability, such as mathematical reasoning, and in the lower one-fourth in another ability, such as word fluency or perceptual speed.

The relative effects of heredity and environment on each individual's development and on differences between groups have not been established with precision and accuracy. Some scholars indicate a greater impact of heredity, while others indicate a greater impact of environment. A generally accepted scientific view is that heredity and environment are in continual interaction, and the precise contribution of each cannot be determined.

Children who are considerably above or below the average of their age-group in a characteristic or behaviour are designated exceptional children. However, most special education programmes today are for those who are below average, there is a recent shift from labeling exceptional children as handicapped, disabled, mentally retarded, hyperactive, gifted or in other terms. Instead, the behaviours are being classified, for example, deficits in specified abilities or skills, excessive behaviours in particular areas and acceleration in learning or creativity.

Many teachers of children and youth with high learning and creative capabilities follow provisions for gifted talented students including enrichment, acceleration or a combination of enrichment and acceleration. Sometimes ability grouping is also followed. Brining handicapped/children with learning handicaps into the mainstream should be the preferred way rather than placing them in special classes and special schools.

Certain forms of learning are fundamental to the adjustment of the individual to the society. The tool skills, common knowledge and attitudes of understanding and cooperation constitute what may be termed the basis of a general education. All individual, whose intelligence level is normal/sub-normal, should be helped to achieve these educational goals.

Measurement is the assigning of a number to an observation according to certain rules. To give meaning to these numbers, all measurements must satisfy two basic criteria. They must be reliable and valid. Reliability indicates the consistency of a measurement, while validity is the extent to which a test measures what is intended to measure.

For measurement of individual differences certain tests of general intelligence, aptitude, interests, personality, etc have been formulated. Nowadays, computer Assisted Tests (CAT) are also being employed. Multiple choice tests are also being followed, while a new method of portfolio approach is also proving very innovative and useful.

In conclusion, teachers must indicate as per the principles of child psychology, developmental psychology and educational psychology. Besides the theoretical instruction in the class, extracurricular activities for development of social/Islamic values must be emphasized to attain the goals of education.

2.12 Self-Assessment Questions

- Q. 1 What do you understand by individual differences? How can their knowledge help the teacher in his work?
- Q. 2 Explain the concept of individual differences and the importance in education.
- Q. 3 Select one of the classes in which you were a teacher on the elementary school level. Recall two members of the group who were discipline problems. How can you now explain their behaviour?
- Q. 4 List persons of your acquaintance who seem to show marked differences in their motor skills and capacity for abstract learning.
- Q. 5 Compare the Dalton and Winnetka plans, which one do you prefer and why.
- Q. 6 Explain with examples what is meant by readiness for learning.
- Q. 7 What provisions can be made in the schools to meet the situation of individual differences.
- Q. 8 Explain the relative importance of heredity and environment on the development of intelligence in children. What are their implications for the teacher?
- Q. 9 State the role of competence based tests to measure individual differences?
- Q. 10 Explain the importance of Computerized Assisted Tests.
- Q. 11 How can you identify gifted children in the class?
- Q. 12 Explain the role of heredity and environment as causes of individual differences.

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Unit-7

MENTAL HEALTH

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INTRODUCTION

Good health depends on the state of both mind and body. Each exerts a direct influence on the other, but owing to the power of mind over matter, good mental health is of supreme importance. It is a complex subject to which justice cannot easily be done in a unit of limited scope. However, in view of the increasing frequency of mental ill health and the supreme importance of mental health for children's successful adjustment and achievement in school, it is necessary, on the part of the teacher to understand the concept of good mental health, adjustment, frustration, conflict and real-adjustment of children.

In this unit, we will describe concept of mental health, adjustment mechanisms and mental health in school and home.

OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you should be able to meet the following objectives:

1. Define the concept of mental health.
2. What factors in the school affect the mental health of children?
3. What are defense mechanisms called adjustment mechanisms? Explain,
4. What are the causes of maladjustment?
5. What can the teacher do to help the maladjusted child?

1. CONCEPT OF MENTAL HEALTH

The expression 'mental health' consists of two words: 'mental' and health. Health generally means sound condition, or well being or freedom from disease. Mental health, therefore, may refer to a sound mental condition or a state of psychological well being or freedom from mental diseases. But one's body and mind function harmoniously: it is said that a sound body presupposes a sound mind and a sound mind exists in a sound body in so much so that any understanding of personality requires proper analysis of body and mind. According to Hatfield, mental health is the full and harmonious functioning of the whole personality.

Mental health is an integral and essential component of health. The term mental health or mental hygiene is of recent origin. The concept and the objectives of mental health have been explained differently by different authorities. Authorities have not yet found a definition of mental health which is unanimously accepted. It is therefore, advisable to describe the characteristics of mental health than to define the term.

Mental health is a state of well-being in which an individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and is able to make a contribution to his or her community. In this positive sense, mental health is the foundation for individual well-being and the effective functioning of a community.

All of us are born with certain possibilities for growth and development, and mental health implies that we have found opportunities for their expression and development and realized all that is best in us. Human beings have a tendency to look beyond the horizon and cherish what they are not. We all have dreams of what we would like to be and are not. We all have ideals, which we seek to realize. Our values and ideals show the direction in which we strongly, desire to grow and develop. Our mental health is realization of our ideals and values in varying degrees.

Mental health is most easily understood when we compare it with physical health. We all recognize that we are physically healthy when all parts and organs of the body are functioning well and in complete harmony with one another and we are free from aches, pains or other signs of physical disturbance. Similarly we are mentally healthy when our personality is functioning well, when all our powers and abilities, needs and urges with which we are born, and all the functions and urges which we acquire in the course of our experience find expression and fulfillment in harmony with one another, and when we are free from persistent emotional disturbances. We are born with certain needs, for example, the need for food, shelter and sex, for fighting an enemy, fearing a danger and protecting our children. As we grow up we acquire more needs like those of security, affection, superiority, mastery and self-expression. Personality becomes richer and fuller, and living is healthier and happier if all these needs and functions are expressed and fulfilled in a very harmonious and co-ordinated manner. This harmony and co-ordination of needs and functions is made easier to achieve, if they are directed toward a common aim or end of the personality as a whole. Thus ideals aims and purposes are very essential for mental health.

Obviously some goals and purposes are more capable of directing and developing our power and talent, of fulfilling our needs and wishes. Renunciation of life and its accessories is one goal which does not use all our capacities and wishes, and is, therefore, not conducive to mental health. Rather such goals one-sided and uncommon may produce neurotic troubles. When we seek the nature of right goals we must keep in view not only the individual good and happiness but also the social good and social welfare.

Such a view of mental health is dynamic. It does not emphasize any mental state of health but mental functioning towards the realization of goals in harmony with individual good and happiness and social welfare. Such a definition of mental health may lead to differences in actual practice consistent with the needs and interests of the individual and the demands of the community in which he lives. The principles of mental health are the same for all but differ in their working with each person.

1.1 Nature of Mental Health

In recent years, incidences of mental ill-health have tremendously increased and have posed a serious problem before the nation. Industrial development, social and economic changes have given rise to a number of new problems. The problem of mental health has acquired importance in the programmes of national development.

It is very difficult to define mental health in definite terms. Definitions of mental health differ but fundamental aspects seem to be in close agreement, in spite of variations in the wording.

“Mental health is the ability to adjust satisfactorily to the various strains of the environment, we meet in life and mental hygiene as the measures we take to assure this adjustment” by Norma E. Cutts and Nicholas Moseley.

(a) Mental Health and Education

Mental health and education are closely related with each other. For any type of education, sound mental health is the first condition. If children are not in sound mental health, they cannot concentrate in learning and retain the knowledge received in the classroom. Learning is dependent on sound mental health. Healthy children have a desire to acquire more and more information and skills that will give them better control over their environment. Recent research studies have proved that learning is not the activity of single function but is bound up with total personality of the learner. Mental health is as essential to the learning process as intelligence. Mental health is an inseparable part of education.

(b) Criteria of Mentally Healthy Person

- (1) **Adaptability and resilient Mind.** The individual, who is adaptable to the changing conditions of his environment, receptive and not rigid in his behaviour, can be said mentally healthy.

- (2) **Socially adaptable.** A mentally healthy person is socially awakened. He participates in social activities and his personality functions properly under strain and stress of emotional disturbances.
- (3) **Emotionally Satisfied.** The emotions of mentally healthy persons are well trained and controlled. He is free from persistent emotional tensions in his life.
- (4) **Desires are in Harmony with Socially approved goal.** The mentally, healthy person does not indulge in antisocial activities. His goal of life is in accordance with social norms. He fulfils his objectives in harmony with other people.
- (5) **Insight into his own conduct.** The mentally healthy person has insight into his conduct. He self-evaluates his behaviour. He improves his behaviour on the basis of his-examination.
- (6) **Enthusiastic and reasonable.** He has enthusiasm in life. He works with curiosity and is devoted to his profession. He is reasonable in his actions. He accepts criticism sportingly.
- (7) **Good habits.** The healthy person has good habits. He is balanced and is not easily, annoyed.
- (8) **Philosophy of life.** The healthy person has his own philosophy of life. He develops definite attitudes towards values of life.

Now let me summarize the common characteristics of psychologically, healthy personality as proposed by Allport, Rogers, Fromm and Maslow etc. All agree that healthy person is in conscious control of his life. He is capable of directing his behaviour and being in charge of his own destiny. A healthy person knows who and what he is. Such person is aware of his strengths and weaknesses, virtues and vices and in general is tolerant and does not pretend to be something he is not. Psychologically healthy person does not live in the past. His orientation is toward future goals but he is aware of and alive to his ongoing existence. He does not long for quiet and stability but for challenge and excitement in life, for new goals and new experiences.

1.2 Symptoms of Maladjustment

There is a difference of degrees between maladjustment and adjustment. It is difficult to differentiate adjusted and maladjusted children. On the basis of observation in the classroom or in the school, there are certain symptoms, which give some indication of maladjustment if excessively used by children. These symptoms can be divided into the following three categories:

- (a) **Physical Symptoms.** Stuttering, stammering, scratching head, facial twitching, biting nails, rocking feet, restlessness, drumming with fingers and vomiting.
- (b) **Behaviour deviations.** Aggression, lying, bullying, poor school achievement, hyperactivity, negativism and sex disturbances.
- (c) **Emotional Symptoms.** Excessive worry, fear, inferiority, hatred, extreme timidity, temper tantrum, persistent anxiety, conflicts and tension.

(a) Detection of Maladjustment

Though detection of maladjustment requires professional skills of a psychiatrist, which we cannot expect from a teacher but the teacher at the preliminary stage, can help in detecting maladjustment in the following ways:

- (1) **Observation and Interview.** The teacher can observe the behaviour of children in the classroom, outside the classroom, on the playground, library and dramatics etc. He can hold interview with those whom he suspects maladjusted and can reach definite conclusions regarding individual cases of maladjustment.
- (2) **Use of Tests.** There are a number of psychological tests, inventories and rating scales, which have been developed by psychologists to screen maladjusted children. The teacher may use any of the following tests to detect maladjustment.
 - (i) **Huggerty-Olson Wickman behaviour rating schedules.** It may be used to rate various traits of the behaviour.
 - (ii) **The Bell Adjustment Inventory.** The teacher can use the Bell's Adjustment Inventory adapted to Pakistani conditions. The inventory measures the adjustment of an individual in major life situations such as home, physical, emotional, school and social situations.
 - (iii) **The Moony checklist.** The teacher on the basis of observation may find out maladjusted children in his class. He can use the checklist.
 - (iv) **The Roger's test of Personality adjustment.** The teacher can also use the Roger's test to screen adjusted and maladjusted children.
 - (v) **Taylor's anxiety scale.** The scale may be used to screen children who have excessive anxiety. There is a great need for developing inventories or other measures that can screen adjusted and maladjusted children and adults in Pakistani conditions. The tests used at present were developed mostly in foreign countries where the socio-economic conditions are quite different from ours.

(b) Frustration and Conflict

The process of blocking or thwarting of needs causes frustration in human beings. Frustration has important implications for personality development. Frustrating conditions are an integral part of our development from birth to death and are inevitable in our daily life. We have a number of desires which are not fulfilled due to certain obstacles.

We may define frustration as the unpleasant feelings that result when motive satisfaction is blocked or delayed. The following may be cited as examples of frustrations.

- Someone fails to return your book in time.
- You get up in the morning without having enough sleep.
- Your conversations are interrupted.
- You are late for your first period.

(c) Operations of Frustration

The operation of frustration involves preventing the organism from making some response to attain the goal; Prevention of response can be accomplished in several ways.

Most important of them are three, which are given below:

i. Withholding reinforcement

The first operation of frustration refers to withholding of the reinforcement that ordinarily occurs from an organism that has already been conditioned in a particular way. When a response is regularly reinforced and then extinguished, this operation is called as frustration by delay. The delay in reinforcement may vary from a slight delay to an indefinite period of time. On occasions of only a slight delay, an SD is presented that has customarily been the occasion for response to be reinforced. The chain of responding is broken at some point by withholding of a reinforce, either primary, or conditioned. The break can occur anywhere in the chain or just before the final reinforcement. Although not inevitable, the consequences of this kind of operation are frequently emotional anger or aggression. A child is impatient while waiting for his candy or one becomes annoyed when people are late for their appointment. Delay in achieving sexual reinforcement is one of the commonest sources of frustration for the adolescent. Frustration by delay, is common in our life.

This operation of frustration has been experimentally studied in psychology laboratory. The following experiment is given as evidence in support of frustration caused by withholding the reinforcement.

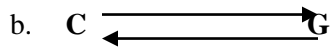
Seers, Holland and Miller (1940) conducted an experiment to know the reactions to frustration by withholding reinforcement. A group of college students was kept awake throughout the night (withholding sleep as reinforcement). During this period the students were subjected to series of further frustrations, such as forbidding smoking, to converse and withholding food. The students showed aggression towards the experimenter.

ii. Thwarting

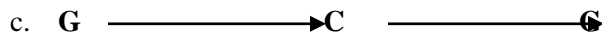
Second operation involves mechanically preventing a response from occurring. This operation is called frustration by thwarting. It means that at some point of an organism's barrier is introduced and behaviour is prevented. The chain of behaviour is broken, but instead of reinforcement merely being withheld, an obstacle is introduced that prevents the response to occur. J.B. Watson observed that emotion of "rage" was characteristic consequence when an infant's movement was restrained to reach his goal (toys). The obstacles may be of many kinds. Following is the list of common obstacles, which prevent an organism to reach his goal and ultimately lead to frustration of needs.

(i) **Physical Obstacles** Physical obstacles may be of many kinds as a door is locked to block entry in the room. Guard inhibits accession to an entertainment show or seeing a friend. A student is prevented from visiting his girl friend. A student is prevented from visiting his girl friend because of the geographical distance between them.

when he thinks the loss of his study, he is put into a conflict situation. Very often a single goal may have both positive and negative attributes. For example smoking may be enjoyable but it is a threat to health.



- (iii) **Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict.** When two unattractive alternatives operate simultaneously, the individual attempts to avoid the situation. For example, a boy who is weak in his studies and reluctant to attend school but if he stays at home he will be chided by parents. The boy tries to avoid both the negative situations. He stays in between home and school.



1.3 Causes of Maladjustment

Maladjustment is a complex problem of human behaviour; no single factor can be pinpointedly named as its cause. It is the outcome of multifactor interacting with the developing personality of the child. There are numerous factors at, home, society and school, which lead to maladjustment. We will discuss in this section, the various conditions which lead to frustration of needs which is the basic cause of maladjustment and will discuss the approaches of Freud, Adler, Jung and other psychoanalysts to understand maladjustment.

- (i) **Physique.** The physique and appearance play an important role in the social development of the child. If the child is physically weak, ugly, and has some sensory handicaps, he may be shunned by others. Even the parents, make comparison in their children. Comments by parents, sibling and strangers affect the behaviour of ugly, weak, handicapped children. They develop a number of problems resulting in maladjustment.
- (ii) **Long Sickness and Injury.** Long sickness of a child affects his social development and academic achievement in school.
- (iii) **Poverty.** There is a positive correlation between poverty and maladjustment in children. Highest percentage of maladjusted children comes from low socio-economic conditions. But it is not necessarily true that all children who come from underprivileged class are maladjusted. The crucial factor in poor home is that parents cannot even fulfill the legitimate needs of their children. Frustration of needs leads to maladjusted behaviour.
- (iv) **Broken Home.** All research studies have established beyond doubt that children who come from homes that have been broken by death of parents, divorce, separation, physical or mental handicap parents are often more maladjusted than children from more stable homes. Children in broken homes do not get the affection, love, sympathy and security. There are emotionally disturbed homes which are not broken but in which there is constant conflict between parents or other members of the family also provide conditions which affect the security, affection, mental stability and fulfillment of needs of children.
- (v) **Personal Inadequacies.** In addition to physical appearance, there are certain other inadequacies in children, which frustrate their needs and create constant anxiety.

The parents who are ambitious and set high goals for their children irrespective of their physical and mental abilities, create frustration in their children.

- (vi) **Parental Attitudes.** The important factor, which affects the adjustment, is the attitude of parents towards their children. The parents may reject the child. The rejected child develops feelings of insecurity, helpless and loneliness. Rejection and lack of affection may lead to maladjusted behaviour. Over protection of the child may lead to lack of responsibility, lack of socialization, aggressiveness, selfishness and general infantile behaviour which may put the child into trouble in social environment.
- (vii) **Value Placed on sex of a child.** It is very unfortunate that in Pakistani parents differentiate between their sons and daughters. Sons are preferred to daughters in our society. Their partial treatment to girls may lead to maladjustment.
- (viii) **Adoption.** Generally, adopted children are maladjusted when they come to know the fact. If a child is adopted in early infancy and problem of adoption is psychological dealt with then adopted children resemble to their foster parents in many qualities. In addition to the above factors, there are many other factors, which contribute to the problem of maladjustment such as relationship among brothers-sisters, position of the child in the family.
- (ix) **Emotional Shok.** Children who experience emotional shocks such as death, accident, riots, flood etc; may manifest maladjustment in their behaviour.
- (x) **Social Conditions**
 - (i) **Religious Beliefs.** Pakistan is a country where several religions classes, and creeds: exist who follow different faiths. Adolescents critically examine traditional religious beliefs in present scientific era, when they do not find rational principles in religious beliefs, they are frustrated.
 - (ii) **Lack of Clubs, Playgrounds and Libraries.** Children need physical and mental recreational activities to fulfill their physical and mental needs. If these needs are not catered, they lead to emotional tensions, which are manifested in maladjusted behaviour.
 - (iii) **Mobility.** Children whose family moves from one place to another, have to face a number of problems. Mobility may be one of the factors, which causes maladjustment.
 - (iv) **Class Differences.** In Pakistan there are many classes and class differences are very wide, there are some privileged classes and some under privileged classes. On the basis of these class differences, differential treatment is given to the children of different communities and socio-economic groups. All this leads to conflicts in the minds of adolescents and consequent, results in maladjusted behaviour of many young men and women.
 - (v) **Employment Insecurity.** Adolescents are very ambitious for their future career. They look ahead to eventual economic independence in the form of job but when they find no opportunity to get a job, they become restless, anxious and sometimes rebellious against the society out of frustration.
 - (vi) **Maladjustment and Conditions in School**

No doubt, adjustment is a lifelong process starting from the birth of the child and home can develop good habits, which may help in future adjustment of

the child, but there are many condition in school also which may lead to maladjustment of children. The important conditions are listed down.

- a. **Inadequate Training of Teachers.** Teachers who are not properly trained in educational psychology and mental hygiene commit such blunders in handling children and their problems, out of ignorance of child behaviour, which may lead to maladjustment. Teachers partiality, autocratic attitude are also important factors, which create tension and anxiety in children.
- b. **Inadequate Curriculum.** Children have several physiological, social and psychological needs at different developmental stages. Needs of children are not met in our present day curriculum.
- c. **Lack of Recreational Facilities.** Children, who do not get facilities after classroom in the forms of plays, libraries, debates, discussions etc, may manifest maladjustment.
- d. **Class-Room Climate.** If the social climate of the classroom is charged with emotions because of the relationship between the teacher and the students and students-students, it may lead to a number of problems. The author once came across a class where the students belonged to two communities, one privileged and the other underprivileged. There was always constant quarrelling between the two groups, resulting in leaving the school by six students. There are numerous examples when students from groups on the basis of caste and creed and try to insult each other in school and outside the school.
- e. **Restrained Relationship Between Administrator-Teachers, Teacher and Student** The pattern of relationship among the inmates of school plays an important role in creating conducive environment on the campus. If there is cooperation, mutual understanding and brotherhood then definitely it will improve the mental health of the inmates. Hardly, there are schools where such climate exists. There is favour, partial treatment on the basis of caste, creed, region and religion, open criticism, leg pulling and authoritarian administration, the mental health of the child is affected in negative direction.
- f. **Examination System.** Examination is a necessary evil in our education, but it has persisted since long. The present system of examination does harm to our students. It creates strain and stress in the mind of the students, a constant anxiety is produced by it. Student's work under excessive strain and stress during examination. The system of examining scripts does not do justice to the examinees. Many students commit suicide because of failure in the examination.

1.4 Contribution of Freud, Adler Jung And Neo-Freudians To Understand Maladjustment

We will discuss the contribution of psychoanalysis to understand the causes of psychoneurosis and maladjustment.

Freud's Contribution:

According to Freud, fundamental motive of human behaviour is to seek pleasure and avoid pain. The world is not organized on such basis where we can always seek pleasure and can have it. The individual has to act in accordance with the social norms, taboos and mores. The individual cannot fulfill his desires the way he likes. Frustration and stress come from two basic instincts of sex and aggression. There is a constant conflict between the instinctive urges and environmental conventional restrictions and social pressure in the mind of the individual.

If the person is strong and his consciousness sides with his instinctive desires, he satisfies them irrespective of violation of social norms. Such a person defies the norms of the society for his pleasure. But most of the persons do not violate the social norms because of their training and education in childhood. They accept the social taboos and inhibitions imposed by the community. They fight, with their own wishes, repress and suppress all those that are socially reprehensible. It is this conflict between inner impulses and taboos of the society that gives rise to maladjustment manifested in a wide range of behavioural actions.

According to Freud, neurosis is caused by the constant interaction of three forces (a) The powerful unconscious instinctive pulses, (b) The ego and (c) The superego. The powerful instinctive desire when emerges from unconsciousness is blocked by ego and superego and this blocking causes the conflict. This conflict leads to subterfuges by which the urge seeks satisfaction. The neurosis is the out-ward manifestation of this conflict and can be understood by interpreting these forces correctly.

According to Freud, nothing happens without an antecedent cause. Every action of individual is determined by a number of causal factors. The emphasized sex to be the prolific source of maladjustment. Most of the conflicts are sexual in nature and these conflicts produce anxiety. Anxiety gives birth to ego defense mechanisms in various forms at different psychosexual stages. Freud conceived four distinct stages of sex development. He was of the view that sex interest does not emerge suddenly at the adolescence stage but is present since the birth of the child. The child passes through oral, Anal, phallic and genital stages. The early experiences play an important role in the process of future development of the child. A number of cases of maladjustment have been reported by psychoanalysis in which controlled infantile sex life has been found the cause of maladjustment. Early childhood experiences are very important to understand maladjustment.

Adler's Contribution:

Adler differs from Freud chiefly in the emphasis that he attaches to the principle of hedonism and the sex impulses. He advocated a quite different approach to understand human behaviour. He found that people could sacrifice their sex gratification in order to attain the goal they set for themselves. He criticized Freud for his undue emphasis on the satisfaction of sex impulses and interpreting human behaviour as the desire for seeking pleasure.

The child is born helpless; he finds himself inferior and unable to meet his needs. Adler gives the feelings of inferiority as the primary cause of stress. The child struggles hard to overcome the feeling of inferiority. He attempts to master his environment. The neurotic solution to this feeling of inferiority and helplessness is to strive for personal power or superiority. All persons are striving for attaining superiority in different fields using a variety of approaches. The desire to dominate is the central core of human behaviour in the choice of profession, vocation and friends etc.

Adler concluded that the desire for superiority is the universally acceptable goal of human behaviour and neurosis is a device to dominate in various walks of life.

Jung's Contribution

Jung accepts some contribution of Freud and Adler. He advocated against sex or mastery as the only factors for human motivation. He conceptualized personality in terms of intrapsychic conflicts. He accepts two instincts, race preservation and self-preservation constituting the human drives.

According to him, neurosis is caused by the conflicts between instinctive wishes and conscious opposition their expression. The conflicts are largely unconscious, which cause neurotic behaviour. He accepts the concept of repression and unconscious. He views two types of unconscious: personal and coactive. To Jung, man is more than a creature desiring sex gratification and desiring superiority over others. He is a member of a complex society. The conflicts within the individual are the counterpart of larger more basic conflicts unsuccessful to the solution of universal problems. The specific pattern of the child's emotion is influenced by, his social environment and biological needs. The manifestations of maladjustment vary in different social groups.

Rank attributed the cause of stress in human beings to the conflict between life-fear and death-fear. This conflict is manifested in a constant struggle between the will to get more autonomy and the will to return to dependency and security of the womb.

From, another psychoanalyst though accepted the basic principles of Freud but emphasized the importance of cultural forces resulting in isolation, loneliness and insecurity, which are accentuated by man's freedom and autonomy in modern society. He attributes the cause of stress to the struggle for self-expression and the anxiety produced by cultural isolation.

Karen Horney's concept of neurotic behaviour is similar to Adler's. She believed that anxiety is produced by a sense of isolation and helplessness in the individual. She also emphasized the importance of cultural conflicts in the society.

1.5 Main Points

1. Mental Health is the ability to adjust satisfactorily to the various strains of the environment; we meet in life and mental hygiene as the measures we take to assure this adjustment.

2. Students not in good mental health cannot concentrate in learning and retain the knowledge received in the classroom.
3. Some indications of Maladjustment can be divided in the following categories:
 - (i) Physical Symptoms
 - (ii) Behaviour Deviations
 - (iii) Emotional Symptoms
4. We may define frustration as the unpleasant feelings that result when motive satisfaction is blocked or delayed.
5. Maladjustment is a complex problem of human behaviour; no single factor can be pin-pointedly named as its cause. It is the outcome of multifactor interacting the developing personality of the child there are numerous factors in home, society and school.

2. ADJUSTMENT MECHANISMS

In the previous section, we have described various factors, which cause frustration of motives. The frustrated person may react against the source of frustration in different ways. He may physically attack the source in order to reduce his mental tension and hostility or he may destruct the object of frustration. He may use withdrawal, fantasy or stereotype to maintain the balance of his personality.

There are some common ways, which the individuals use to defend or escape from conflicts and frustration, which are known as defense or adjustment mechanisms. An adjustment mechanism may be defined as any habitual method of overcoming blocks, reaching goals, satisfying motives, relieving frustration and maintaining equilibrium. Every individual uses his own mechanism to maintain the balance of his personality in the society, but psychologists have listed certain adjustment mechanisms which are used by majority of the people in the consistent struggle for survival in their environment. In the following pages we will describe the mechanisms, which are used by normal, psychoneurotic and psychotic people.

2.1 Characteristics of Adjustment Mechanisms

- (1) Adjustment mechanisms are almost used by all people. They are constructs, which are inferred from the behaviour of the individuals. They have protective orientation. All mechanisms are used to protect or enhance the person's self-esteem against dangers. They defend the person against anxiety and frustration. They increase satisfaction and help in the process of adjustment if used within limit.
- (2) The danger is always within the person. He fears his own motives. The fear and danger are manifested in adjustment mechanisms.

- (3) Invariably in all adjustment mechanisms, the individual distorts reality in one way or the other, because the method of protecting against dangerous inner impulses or escaping from anxiety involves some kind of distortion of the conscious representation of the person's impulses.
- (4) The overall effect of adjustment mechanisms is to cripple the individual's functioning and development through falsifying some 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. There is self-deception underlying all adjustment mechanisms. We deny and disguise the real cause of our behaviour in order to maintain the balance of our personality.

2.2 Some Common Mechanisms

Simple Denial

The easiest way to maintain the balance of personality is to deny the fact, which could create conflict in the mind. When children are busy in playing activities, if parents call them, the children will say they heard nothing. In fact what was said was not allowed to penetrate into their consciousness. In adults, the percentage of denial is higher than children. Adults are not always prepared to admit frankly failures in their daily life. Denial helps to postpone facing a problem or a failure.

Aggression

The meanings of the word aggression have been interpreted in several ways. We call vigorous person aggressive. A person who tries to gain something from other is also called aggressive. The person who tries to dominate is also called aggressive. Aggression is a typical adjustment mechanism used as an attempt to hurt or destroy the source of frustration. It may be classified into two broad categories: (i) Extrapunitive, (ii) Intropunitive.

- i) **Extrapunitive.** Extrapunitive responses are those in which the individual aggressively attributes the frustration to external person or things. It may be a physical attack upon the source of obstacle. It may take the form of retaliation or revenge from the person in the form of verbal expression. It may be in the form of criticism against the person. Sometimes the individual fails to take an aggressive step against the person in authority who is the source of frustration, in such cases aggression is shifted to inanimate objects or animals. The child beats his doll, the boy kicks the dog. Aggression tends to generalize from the original object to similar objects in environment.
- ii) **Intropunitive.** Intropunitive responses are those, in which the individual aggressively attributes frustration to himself. Sometimes the person feels that he himself is the source of frustration. He criticizes himself and may inflict physical punishment to himself. The release of pent-up feelings through aggression gives relief to the person. The teacher by his sympathy, fair treatment by organizing positive programme for catharsis, can reduce the aggression among children.

Compensation

It is the tendency of every person to make-up deficiency of one trait or area of development in another area. When a person feels weak and fails in one area, he compensates in another field, he works hard to become strong and successful. Needs which are frustrated and unmet are gratified in order to release tension and conflict. The person may compensate in the areas of biological, psychological and social weaknesses. The students, who do poorly in school work, compensate in nonacademic activities, the boy, who is weak in English, may compensate in Urdu. There are many interesting examples of compensation as Sandoz, who was physically weak, worked so hard that he became best in physique, Lord Byron compensated his physical weakness in verbal expression and became the best speaker of his time. Compensation is generally of the following types:

- (i) **Direct Compensation.** It is the process when an individual removes his specific weakness and frustration in the same field by unusual efforts. The boy who is weak in English is compensating directly when he tries to become strong by hard labour in the same field. Demosthenes, who had physical defect and was not able to speak effectively due to stuttering became great orator.
- (ii) **Over Compensation.** It is the process when an individual moulds his outstanding weakness into an outstanding strength. Theodore Roosevelt, asthmatic and often sick as child, became a rough rider and a lion hunter in his later life.
- (iii) **Substitute Compensation.** When an individual finds him weak in one and sees no scope for improvement in that area, he attempts to become outstanding in another area. A weak student may compensate by becoming an outstanding athlete.
- (iv) **Indirect Compensation.** Most of the compensation is indirect. A boy may steal things to compensate for being humiliated by his parents. A weak student who is poor in academic achievement may compensate in games. Parents through their children seek the most common form of indirect compensation. The father, who wanted to be an engineer but failed, enjoys his son's success as an engineer. This compensatory mechanism used by parents, sometimes, pushes children into unsuitable programmers.
- (v) **Neurotic Compensation.** An individual uses this process when normal compensatory mechanism fails. The mentally weak student attempts to get first division but his ability is not equal to it. He fails in his makes attempt again and again. He develops neurotic compensation, he falls ill and develops symptoms, stays at home and becomes the center of attention of the members of his family.

Sublimation

It is a substitute reaction, which may be classified as compensation. Among all the mental mechanisms of defense, sublimation is the most advanced, highly developed and a constructive mechanism. Through the use of its operation, the energy of personally or socially intolerable impulses and drives is successfully directed into consciously

acceptable channels. Their direction and aim thus become deflected and redirected toward substitute goals. It contributes to character and personality development and plays an important role in the prevention and resolving of emotional conflicts, anxiety and in the maintenance of emotional and mental health. Sublimation supplies an outlet for blocked and intolerable drives.

Sublimation has been defined as a major mental mechanism operating outside and beyond conscious awareness, through which instinctual drives which are consciously unacceptable or blocked and unobtainable, are diverted so as to secure their disguised external expression and utilization in channels of personal and social acceptability. In successful sublimation, the direction and aim of the repressed drives has been deflected into new pathways creative endeavour. In sublimation, intrapsychic energy is usefully implied extra psychically. The consequence is personal gain.

Allport defines sublimation as, “a device by which an individual’s anti-social impulses are made socially acceptable”.

Coleman defined sublimation as, “the gratification of sexual desires in non sexual activities that serve as a substitute”.

Sublimation plays a major role in molding personality, and in the development of specific character traits. Traits such as studiousness, research ability, curiosity and literary interest can be determined by sublimation.

Sublimation is healthful. It is the mechanism in which all divisions of the psyche; their ego and the superego work in concert with each other.

Sublimation can be done though dancing, music, arts and crafts etc.

Identification

Identification may be identified as a mental mechanism operating outside and beyond conscious awareness through which an individual, in varying degree, makes himself like someone else; he identifies himself with another person. It results in the unconscious taking over and transfer to oneself of various elements of other. Such elements may include thoughts, tasks, behaviour mechanism, or character traits and emotional feelings. Adolescents identify themselves with some political leaders, youth leaders or actors and actresses and attempt to acquire their characteristics.

Identification may be a conscious process; the person seems to be aware of his attempts to make himself similar to model who has the characteristics that are supposed to reduce his anxiety.

Projection

It is the most common adjustment mechanism, which is used by all people in daily life. Freud used projection as a process by which we ascribe to the external world the rejected

impulses of the Id-? We defend ourselves against our repressed guilt feelings by projecting them into other things and people. It is a mechanism, which relieves frustration of the individual.

The range of projection in the classroom is very wide. Children who are doing poorly, often, are very critical of the teacher or the pupils. They frequently act as if they were expecting a teacher or another child to display toward them the hatred, love or contempt which they themselves feel.

When projection is used too frequently, it indicates symptoms of mental ill health. The most extreme form of projection is a central quality of the psychosis known as paranoia in which the patient experiences delusion of persecution.

Projection provides unsatisfactory solution to frustration and can cause harm to the person because it involves distorting an important part of the world.

Rationalization

Rationalization has been defined as a mechanism by which the individual justifies his beliefs and actions by giving reasons other than those, which activated or motivated him. Rationalization is the most popular adjustment mechanism, which is used, almost, by all persons in daily life. It is a response to reality that falsifies circumstances. The aim of rationalization is to lessen frustration by giving sound and worthy reasons for an action, which is frustration. No one is ready to accept failure to reach his goal or accept that his behaviour falls short of what people expect from him. The child who fails in the examination blames the paper setter or lack of books etc. The stumbling child blames the chair. The boys, who is rejected by a girls, finds fault in the girl. In rationalization, we try to give socially acceptable reasons of our failures. It is a mild float of repression in which the facts are distorted rather than forgotten. There are two types of distortion.

- (i) **Sour Grapes.** When the individual fails to attain his cherished goal, he starts blaming the various factors in order to rationalize his failure, when the fox in Aesop's fable could not reach the grapes; she blamed that grapes were sour out of frustration. The boy who fails in his examination blames teachers, examiners or attributes his failure to illness.
- (ii) **Sweet Lemon.** It is a form of rationalization when the individual is not satisfied with his achievement or the situation is bitter but in order to maintain balance he accepts them as good. Most of the teachers in our country use this adjustment mechanism to maintain the balance of their personality.

Regression

Regression has been defined as, "an unconscious back tracking" either in memory or in behaviour watch might have been successful in the past. The adult who has been frustrated in fulfilling his needs may return to more primitive modes of behaviour. He may cry like a child, have temper tantrums. He may attack his problems like a child in the simple, emotional and primitive manner. Sometimes psychologists call regression the

process of fixation. The old man who always talks of his youth, shows the mechanism of regression. The old man, by this mechanism, is trying to live again in "the good old days". Teachers encounter problem of regression in their classes, particularly, when they reprimand a girl, who starts crying like a baby. Regression explains manifestations of infantile behaviour in adolescents and youth.

Some regression is normal for maintaining mental balance in the social environment. Ability to regress is an asset to teachers and leaders of youth groups to enjoy youthful jokes and similar times of juvenile gaiety. They can establish good rapport with youth by the mechanism of regression. Regression can pose a serious problem for those who use it habitually to all problems and in its extreme form may indicate severe form of mental ill health.

Repression

Repression is dynamism, which is fundamental in Freudian theory of Personality. It has been defined as motivated forgetting. White (1964) defined repression as the forgetting or ejection from consciousness of memories of threat and especially the ejection from awareness of impulses in oneself that might have objectionable consequences." It is an attempt by the individual to push into the unconscious those experiences and thoughts which are in conflict with his moral standard or which are painful to contemplate. Repression is caused due to forces active within ourselves. We try to forget what makes us feel inferior, ashamed, guilty and anxious.

Repression and suppression are differentiated by the mechanism used. In suppression we consciously decide to exclude an idea from our thoughts, our action and conversation whereas in repression painful and anxiety producing experiences are unconsciously and automatically excluded from the conscious through process.

Sears, commenting upon the mechanism of repression, says that repression is difficult either to measure or to experiment upon. Experiments conducted in clinics verify that it occurs.

Through the process of repression, the individual forgets sad and painful experiences in order to escape from his troubles and conflicts. There is a constant struggle between the impulses of Id and social taboos. The ego drags into those unconscious impulses, which conflict with social norms. In brief, we can say that repression is a mental mechanism by which we keep out of consciousness the dangerous and anxiety producing ideas.

Reaction Formation

Reaction Formation is also called reversal formation. It is to substitute opposite reaction formation, which causes anxiety. Repression is accompanied by behaviour and feelings exactly opposed to the repressed tendency. The boy frightened by graveyard, whistles happily, an extremely aggressive man, afraid of his own destructive impulses, acts humble. The man who is kind and idealistic can be diagnosed as either loving or hating mankind.

Negativism

Negativism is a mechanism by which an individual draws the attention of other persons. It is partly a defense and partly an escape mechanism. The person develops strong and irrational resistance in accepting the suggestions of others. The use of this mechanism is at peak at the age of two to three years. The foundations of this mechanism are laid down in early childhood and later on appear in adulthood. Most of the adults use negativism in milder forms in special situations. They do not oppose, but they do resist suggestions by others.

Students have some negative feelings toward their teachers. Negative feelings do not serve some useful purpose but they hinder the achievement of goal.

Fantasy

It is a fact that, mostly, we think to reduce our frustrations. Our thoughts can be a realistic effort to remove the obstacles that make us anxious. They can also provide an escape from frustration by giving us imaginary satisfaction, hungry men dream of food, unsuccessful men dream of success. Fantasy is a mechanism of wish fulfilling. Fantasy is at its peak in adolescence. The adolescents daydream of their future success in life.

Varendonck made a systematic study of his day dreams. He found that they started from either outer stimuli or from spontaneous memories that touched on matters of personal importance.

In fantasy, sometimes, the individual hits upon better ideas than the critical thinker. Fantasy is important for creative thinking, provided that it is followed by action. A world without fantasy would be one without music, painting, Literature, Drama or new ideas. Excessive fantasy without action may be harmful for the individual. Those who feel they dream too much can help themselves most by conducting a more successful attack on the obstacles, which are blocking them.

2.3 Neurotic Adjustment Mechanisms

The behaviour that deviates from conventional ways of responding is called neurotic behaviour. It implies that something is wrong either with the functioning of a person's nervous system or his psyche. The deviant behaviour is not so acute as to cut off the individual from the realities of his environment. The individual remains in touch with his environment and is able to establish rapport with those around him.

Psychologists regarding the causes of neurosis have advanced various theories. For example, Charcot believed that the source of trouble in hysteria was to be found in an inherited weakness, while Freud believed it to be a weakness of the ego over-pored by a stronger superego. Janet, on the other hand, believed hysteria to be a spitting of the psyche or mind.

A person who suffers from neurosis is tense and feels unhappy but is generally able to adjust fairly well to normal life.

There are many varieties of neuroses. All types of neuroses are ways of handling anxiety. The neurotic person tries to maintain balance of his personality, and attempts to make adjustment by neurotic defense mechanisms. A neurosis is an unsuccessful “solution” to a painful problem situation.

Clinical studies and some objective evidences point out that the cause of neurosis is the early relationship of the child with his parents. Parents, who are dominating, rejecting, or critical of the actions of their child, create problem, which the child cannot solve. Under such circumstances the child becomes seriously disturbed. As such child grows, he tends to generalize these feelings to other human beings. He learns to see the world harsh and hostile and himself as incapable of dealing with it. He becomes an anxious adult.

Neurotic Anxiety

An anxiety is a vague but enduring fear. Some anxiety is natural, rational and useful in learning a person to deal constructively with the causes of his fears. But when the amount of anxiety becomes disproportionate to the situation and persists for a longer period then we refer it as neurotic anxiety.

Displacement of Neurotic Anxiety

Emotional responses tend to generalize. A response made to one stimulus tends to be made to other stimuli that are similar to the original stimulus. The classical example of the experiments conducted by Watson on a child to condition him by white rabbit is evidence. The fear was generalized to all white objects similar to the original object of fear. Another example, a boy’s fear of tyrannical teacher may generalize to timidity to all persons in authority.

Anxiety in one situation becomes displaced to other situations. The process of displacement happens in two ways: (a) Displacement to physiological symptoms, (b) Chance stimulus.

(a) Displacement to physiological symptoms. The attack of anxiety may cause difficulty, in breathing, pending of heart. Person feels as if he is dying of cardiac or gastric disease and becomes even more anxious.

(b) Displacement to chance stimulus (phobias). A phobia is an irrational fear. The person knows that there is no real danger but even then he has fear. In a phobia, the anxiety is displaced to a chance stimulus. In the past it has been customary with psychologists to describe phobias in tales of the things feared by using Greek terminology as agoraphobia (fear of open places) and claustrophobia (fear of closed places) phi phobia (fear of snakes) but now this terminology is becoming obsolete because there may be thousands of situations and things which can develop a phobia.

Obsessive Compulsive Reactions

An obsession may be defined as a recurring thought or desire that a person regards useless or false but cannot help. A compulsion is an irresistible tendency to perform some

action. A person, who is obsessed of an idea, finds himself unable to get rid of the idea. The author knows a case of a lady who got uprooted her teeth because of incurable disease, was obsessed with the idea of teeth for more than five years. The obsession develops gradually but by repeated exercise of the idea, it becomes deep rooted in the mind or may result in high mental disorders. Sometimes obsession is manifested in physical compulsive reactions stamping of fear etc.

The compulsive person knows that his actions are unnecessary and absurd but he cannot resist the temptation of doing those acts. There are technical terms of various kinds of compulsions.

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|----|-------------|--|
| 1. | Kleptomania | Compulsion to Steal. |
| 2. | Pyromania | Compulsion to Set Fire. |
| 3. | Pyromania | Compulsion to Move From Place to Place |
| 4. | Dipsomania | Uncontrollable Desire to Drink. |
| 5. | Nymphomania | Excessive Sexual Desire in Females. |

Hypochondria

It is neurosis when a person, in anticipation of some failure, develops a tendency to be sick. Actually, the person is not sick but lie pretends to be sick to avoid painful situation to maintain the balance of his personally. For example, a boy who feels that he will not pass in the examination pretends to be sick on the eve of examination.

2.4 Psychotic Adjustment Mechanisms

A psychosis is any form of mental disturbance that is so ever as to make a person incapable of adjusting in his social environment. There are two types of psychotic disorders, which have been detected by clinicians. A brief description of the two types of psychotic disorders is given below:

(1) Organic Psychoses

There are different causes of organic psychoses but one common cause is damage to brain or interference with the functioning of the brain. The behaviour of psychotic is characterized such as aphasia, paralysis, deteriorate, of conduct etc.

The main types of psychoses are:

- Infectious diseases as general paresis, encephalitis and meningitis.
- Psychotic disorders caused by brain tumor and head injuries.
- Psychotic disorders caused by toxic and metabolic disturbances.
- Epilepsies.
- Senile psychosis.

(2) The functional Psychoses

The functional psychoses are broadly classified into three classes: the schizophrenia, the paranoia and the effective disorders.

(a) Schizophrenia Schizophrenia was formerly known as dementia praecox. It is most puzzling and serious disease. It is used for a wide variety of mental disorders characterized by disturbances of thought process, distortion of reality, delusion and hallucinations and the loss

of integrated and controlled behaviour. There are four main types of schizophrenia, which may be put in ascending order of mental disturbances as follows:

- (i) **Simple Schizophrenia.** It is the preliminary stage marked by loss of interest, social withdrawal and flatness of emotional expression. There is overall deterioration in the personal appearance and behaviour of the individual. The simple schizophrenics show laziness, irresponsibility, and antisocial activity. They belong to a general class of inadequate personalities.
- (ii) **The Catatonic.** The catatonic schizophrenia, is generally, marked by two patterns of behaviour stupor and excitement. In stupor, the patient develops a tendency to remain motionless in a certain posture for hours together. The catatonic may remain mute and there is minimal contact with other persons. In catatonic excitement, the patient shows hyperactivity. He may run here and there. He talks too loudly in incoherent manner. He can hurt himself and attack others.
- (iii) **The Hebephrenic.** The term hebephrenic means mind of a child: the individual suffering from hebephrenic of personality. The patient experiences delusion and hallucinations. He talks in air, there is not consistency in thought, action and feeling. The patient requires strict watch.
- (iv) **Paranoid** the patient sees delusions of being persecuted. He hallucinates as if he is being followed by someone, delusions of grandeur can also be found. The patient believes that he is one of the famous personalities like Imran Khan or Shahid Afridi. Delusions are illogical, bizarre and changing.

(b) **Paranoia** Paranoia is an intellectualized system of defenses, which is characterized predominantly by delusions. Persons suffering from paranoia are hypersensitive. They maintained, limited social functioning, have sufficient self-control and judgment to avoid hospitalization. The paranoid may call upon considerable educational and intellectual resources in constructing the delusional system, his delusional system works as ego defense mechanism.

(c) **Affective Psychoses** there are two major states of affective psychoses. Manic state when the patient feels elated. Extreme over activity tremendous energy, if the manic condition is more severe, the patient may become uncontrollable, the second form is depressive reaction, which shows loss of enthusiasm and slaving down of physical and mental activity. There is defection, hopelessness and discouragement. There is inactivity and feeling of sinfulness. In severe depression, the patient needs hospitalization.

2.5 Main Points

1. The Mechanism individuals use to defend from conflict and frustration are known as defense or adjustment mechanisms.
2. An Aggression is a typical adjustment mechanism used as an attempt hurt or destroy the source of frustration.
3. Sublimation has been defined as a major mental mechanism operating outside and beyond conscious awareness, through which instinctual drives.

4. Projection provides unsatisfactory solution to frustration and can cause harm to the person because it involves distorting an important part.
5. Regression has been defined as “unconscious back tracking” either in memory or in behaviour which might have been successful in the past.

3. MENTAL HEALTH IN SCHOOL AND HOME

Mental Health of the learner is very important for efficient learning and proper development of personality. A child is born in a home where he remains in the constant company of his mother in the formative years of his infancy. Traditionally, it is said that a mother is equal to hundred teachers. The impressions and experiences, which a child has in mind. From the point of view of psychoanalysis, the early childhood experiences are very important for the future development of personality. The parents, of course, since they control children during infancy, are in the most strategic position to inculcate positive habits in their children. The first important requisite condition is affection and love of parents and other members of the family. The infant should feel secure and loved in his home. Parents should meet the legitimate needs of their child. Proper and conducive environment should be provided in early childhood. Pleasant and satisfaction giving experiences should be provided for the harmonious development of the personality of the child. The parents should keep the following things into consideration:

1. Provide proper affection and love to the child.
2. Provide conducive environment at home.
3. Should not criticize the child.
4. Should not compare the child with other children.
5. Should not reject or overprotect the child.
6. Should not quarrel in presence of the child.
7. Should not be over anxious about the future of the child.
8. Should try to be democratic in their dealing.
9. Should try to meet the legitimate needs of their child.
10. Should provide guidance where necessary.
11. Should try to build self-confidence in the child.

3.1 Mental Health in School

Undoubtedly, the role of home cannot be undermined or shifted to any other agency. All psychologists, teachers and mental hygienists agree that primary family living and experiences play most crucial role in the development of harmonious personality in children, but in recent years, due to rapid industrialization, the family is disintegrating and is not in a position to play its role effectively. Moreover, in the present circumstances, in our country, most of the parents are illiterate and ill informed who cannot be charged with the responsibility of providing proper guidance for mental health. The other problem is that parents do not have access to the scientific “knowledge of human behaviour, which can be used effectively to prevent maladjustment and cure simple mental disturbances.

All look to the school as the second line of defense. The school assumes great responsibility in the process of harmonious development of personality. Children spend six to seven hours in school. Schools are in a position to help in the development of children's potentialities by catering to their needs. We will mention, in brief, the various measures, which can be taken in schools for the proper development of physical, mental and spiritual abilities of children.

- (1) **School Environment.** School environment plays an important role in the development of positive attitudes. The school environment should be free from caste, creed or religious feelings. It should provide feelings of security in each and every student irrespective of their religion or socio-economic conditions. It should provide conducive environment for learning free from fear, tension and frustration.
- (2) **Democratic Environment.** School as an institution should function on democratic lines. Student's representation should be made on various committees so that students identify themselves with the institution. School problems should be discussed with teachers and students and decision should be taken by taking students into confidence.
- (3) **Provision for Curricular Activities.** The school should organize a number of curricular activities suiting to the needs of individual students to release their pent up emotional feelings. The school may organize regular games, discussions, debates, scouting, guided reading, dramas, educational exhibitions and magazines etc.
- (4) **Teacher's Role.** Teacher must have the knowledge of fundamental principles of human behaviour to tackle the problems of his students. He must be emotionally stable and should have positive attitude towards teaching. He must take interest in students and their welfare. His behaviour with students should be of a friend, philosopher and guide. He should not show partiality or favour to any student. He should try to develop a philosophy of life in his students. He should create confidence in his students to face the realities of life. Students should not be criticized unnecessarily and no sarcastic remarks should be passed against any student. Teacher can play an important role in developing cooperation, team spirit and group participation in his students. Conducive social climate should be created in the class and the school.
- (5) **Freedom of Expression.** Children should be provided an opportunity in the class to express their views freely on problems.
- (6) **Variety of Interests.** Teacher should try to develop a variety of interests in his students such as games, reading and hobbies of different types, which may help in the development of sound attitudes. Teacher should appreciate and encourage worthwhile activities of his students.
- (7) **Reading for Mental Health.** Teacher should select books which are appropriate to specified age levels and students be advised to read those books.
- (8) **Classes in human relations.** The school should organize classes in human relations. Daily life problems should be discussed. The importance of "how to live" should be emphasized. Students should also be invited to discuss freely their problems.
- (9) **Provision for Sex and Moral Education.** Most of the problems of adolescents are concerned with sex and moral conflicts, which cause mental disturbances. It will be

of great use if sex and moral education are made an integral part of regular curriculum.

- (10) **Art and Craft.** Writing for understanding and release of emotional tensions can also be used in mental hygiene programme.
- (11) **Guidance.** School should organize guidance services for the benefit of students. guidance is of three types: personal, educational and vocational.

The following are the techniques, which have been successfully used in U.S.A. We can also experiment with these techniques and adopt if found useful:

- (i) **Discussion technique.** In this technique, time is set aside each week for the analysis of the adjustment problems of particular students. All the teachers, principals, social workers assemble, the data regarding the problems of the students is presented in the meeting and analyzed. After careful analysis of the data, recommendations for remedial measures are made. This technique facilitates students' adjustment to this social environment.
- (ii) **The Delaware human relations class.** H. E. Bullies originated this plan for classes VII VIII and IX. The plan operates as follows:
Once a week the teacher reads before the class a story, which features emotional problems. The students are encouraged to discuss freely the emotional problems of the story. They are also required to give an appraisal of the story and most important of all to indicate from their own personal experiences parallel situations to those presented in the story. The basic idea is to provide release to emotional tension and better understanding of their own problems. The students also get insight by listening to their classmates.
- (iii) **The personal relation course.** This course is designed for adolescent boys and girls. The common problems are discussed in a planned way in the class. The topics include understanding boy and girl friendship, you, your family and us.

The steps, the teacher follows, are listed below:

- (a) Students list their personal problems.
- (b) Discussing behaviour observed.
- (c) Showing and discussing films, and slides.

The work of the course incorporates the basic principles of mental hygiene and their application to everyday living.

- (iv) **Remedial classes:** Students who have reading arithmetic difficulties or frustrated and discouraged in regular classes, may be asked to attend remedial classes.

3.2 Mental Health of the Teacher

So far we have been talking about the mental health of students, causes and remedial measures to check maladjustment among students have been given in general. In this section of the unit, we will present the problems of maladjustment among teacher.

Teacher's mental health plays an important role in the teaching learning process. If the teacher is not in sound mental health, he can do incalculable harm to the nation in terms of poor guidance to the students. He cannot do justice to his job. His maladjustment will not only adversely affect his personality but will produce maladjustment in children put under his charge.

In modern times, with the rapid developments in all walks of life, problems have also multiplied in that proportion. In Pakistan when education was confined to privileged communities, teaching was entrusted to great scholars and involved no problem. With the passage of time, education broke the barriers of caste and community and reached to masses. This new movement of mass education is fraught with certain problems for teaches. Before we discuss the problems of teachers, which head to maladjustment, let us, in brief, see what the advantages of teaching as a profession are?

3.2.1 Advantages to Teaching Profession

- (1) Teaching is clean work, teaching as a profession is clean and free from corrupt practices in comparison to other professions.
- (2) Contact with the youth, Teacher remains in contact with the youth throughout his life. This interaction with the youth and their constant company keeps the teacher mentally alive and physically alert.
- (3) Variety of work. Teaching involves a wide range of activities: physical, mental, social and emotional. Variation in activities eliminates boredom and releases tension.
- (4) Income is steady and assured. Teaching provides steady and assured income after a month.
- (5) Opportunity to meet professional workers. Teaching provides opportunities to meet professional workers. Teachers can discuss their academic problems and devise means to solve them. They can also plan for their professional growth and professional achievement throughout their teaching career.
- (6) Personal satisfaction. Teaching gives personal satisfaction to the teacher. Teacher feels satisfied after teaching a class provided, he is a devoted teacher. He feels that he is doing something for the nation.
- (7) Keep the teacher abreast of the time. The greatest advantage of teaching is that it provides an opportunity to the teacher to move with the passage of time. The teacher remains in touch with recent researches in his field of specialization.

3.2.2 Causes of Teacher's Maladjustment

Teacher is a member of larger society; he also develops maladjustment as people in society develop in modern times. There are many factors and conditions, which cause maladjustment in teachers. Some of the important factors are described below:

- (1) **Lack of Professional Aptitude and Spirit.** In our country, teaching is accepted as a profession not because an individual is interested in teaching but because he could not get entry, in other profession. Young men and women have ambitions of entering in administrative and executive posts irrespective of their personal competencies but when they are rejected from these jobs they accept teaching as a last resort. In our country, most of the teachers lack professional aptitude and devotion to their profession.
- (2) **Occupational Hazards.** Every profession has frustrating conditions, which lead to maladjustment. Teaching, in our country, has the following frustrating conditions:
 - (i) **Frequent Criticisms.** It is the habit with the people right from peon to the highest rank that they criticize teaching and teachers. We read in newspapers, that teachers do not work, and education is useless.
 - (ii) **Restrictions.** Several types of restrictions are imposed on teachers. There are institutions, which impose restrictions as regards clothing, food, religious affiliations and participation in politics.
- (3) **Extra Work.** During general elections/census etc. the teachers are detailed for a work, which does not belong to their professional, duties.
- (4) **Lack of Social Prestige.** All leaders and educationalists give sympathy to the importance of teachers. All agree that they are the builders of future nation. The slogan sounds very sweet to the ears, but what is the importance of the teacher in the eyes of the society? The author conducted a survey to find out the importance of the teacher in the community with the help of questionnaire administered to parents. The questionnaire represented different social situations, as you have to invite 4 persons at the birth anniversary of your son, whom will you invite? You will be surprised to know that even policeman and patwari were preferred to teacher. It may be due to the ignorance of illiterate parents from villages, for whom policeman and patwari wield more power than the teacher. Even in educated and rich classes, the social prestige of the teacher is not so high as it would have been.
- (5) **Poor Salaries.** Inspire of the high cost of living, the salaries of teachers have not been increased in that proportion, as regards teachers engaged in higher education, their grades have been revised by the government w.e.f. 1st December. 2011. This revision of grades has given relief to the teachers to some extent and enhanced the social prestige of the profession. We can now hope that better people will join the teaching profession.
- (6) **High Moral Expectations.** The society expects that a teacher should be a saint (a Wali Ullah). No doubt, the teacher must present a model of his ideal behaviour before the students for imitation. But in actual practice how many students imitate or identify, with title model or ideal of the teacher. He is one of the member of society and it is natural that the evils of social environment may also affect his personality.

- (7) **Load of Work.** In our schools, load of work is too much, teacher has to teach 7 out of 9 periods in a day, this excessive work develops emotional tensions and mental fatigue, which is continued for a long period, leads to anxiety.
- (8) **Lack of Recreational Facilities.** There is a dearth of recreational facilities for teachers in our schools.
- (9) **Relationship among Teachers.** It is said that there are fewer conflicts among illiterates than educated persons. This idea is quite true in case of teachers. Hardly. There will be 20% schools in the country where perfect harmony, cooperation and good will exist otherwise teachers indulge in leg pulling of each others. This creates conflicts in the mind of the teachers.
- (10) **Relationship between the Administrator and Teachers.** Some administrators are autocrats. They behave in official manner and impose their orders on teachers.
- (11) **Feeling of Caste, Creed and Religion?** One paper discrimination and partial treatment on the basis of religion and caste, have been done always with, but the evil even exists in most of the institutions where preference is given on the basis of caste and religion and not on teaching competency of the individual. Teachers are unjustly accused, maltreated and sometimes dismissed because they do not flatter the authorities or they resent against the malpractices and injustice of the authorities.
- (12) **Insecurity of Service.** There are private institutions where the teachers feel insecure. This causes anxiety in the minds of the teachers which if persists for a long period, may cause mental disturbances.
- (13) **Lack of Facilities.** There are many institutions, which do not have facilities for library, audio-visual aids and science laboratory. Lack of facilities causes frustration in the minds of teacher.

3.2.3 Programmes to Improve Teacher's Mental Health

We have listed various factors in school and outside the school which affect the mental health of the teacher. We will see how we can eliminate those factors and help the teacher to improve and maintain his mental health.

- (1) Improving teacher-teacher relations. The success of the school depends upon the willingness, cooperation and the ability of its members to work together. The school should provide better environment for creating good will among the members of the teaching staff frequent meetings to discuss the problems should be held to crucify, and misunderstanding create between members of staff. Teacher's club should be established in every institution to bring the teachers close to each other. Educational tours and excursion should be arranged to develop necessary. Skills to work with other teachers successfully.

- (2) **Improving teacher-principal relations.** There is a tendency to blame each other in our school system. The administrator blames the teachers for any failure in school functioning and teachers blame the administrator for his authoritarian attitude and partial treatment, the principal works as a leader of the group and much of the success of school depends on his quality of leadership and his personality. The principal can do the following things to improve the relations in school personnel:
- (i) Keep routines to minimum. Unnecessary restriction should not be imposed on teachers because they create tension in the minds of the teachers.
 - (ii) Listening. The principal should listen to the problem of teacher in free and frank environment.
 - (iii) Use democratic administration. The principal should take major decision by holding discussion with the members of staff. He should not impose his decision on the staff in an authoritarian way. If there is misunderstanding between the principal and staff, it should be discussed and clarified by mutual discussion.
 - (iv) Impartiality. The Principle/Headmaster should remain impartial. He should not do favour to any member on the basis of caste and creed.
 - (v) Helping nature. The principal can discuss school problems with the staff in teachers club meeting, he should respect all teachers. The principal can support the teachers when they need his help. He should not form groups teachers, on the policy of “divide and rule.” He should not create pets because other teacher will resent this attitude.
 - (vi) Give criticism in private. The principal, if he has to correct any teacher regarding his method of teaching or behaviour, should call the teacher in private. No teacher should be criticized before the students and his colleagues.
 - (vii) Be flexible. The principal should not be rigid and traditional in his thinking and ways of dealing with teacher’s problems. He should change his strategies with the time. He should evaluate his own role as an administrator. He should set up an example.
 - (viii) Plan in advance. Everything should be planned in the beginning of the academic year and should be communicated to teachers in advance for execution. He should work as a true leader of the team. Team spirit should be encouraged.
- (3) **Professional Growth.** The school should arrange for in-service programmes for teachers to refresh their knowledge of matter and method of teaching. The principal should make arrangement of good library facility and teaching material. He should encourage his colleagues to experiment with innovative ideas in teaching methods. He should work as a friend and guide to his colleagues.
- (4) **Seminars, Workshops and Conferences.** Teachers from different schools should be invited to discuss problems of education in seminars and workshops. These activities provide opportunity of knowing the points of view of other workers in the

field through mutual discussion. They keep the teachers abreast with new trends and technology in the field of education.

- (5) **Service Security.** Some rules and regulations should be formed to check the exploitation of teacher community by private managements who terminate the services of teachers on account of their personal whims. The teacher should feel secure of his service. Payment of salaries should be made regular.
- (6) **Teacher-community Relation.** The unusual criticism of teachers has been there, is a wide gap between the teacher and the community. A close relationship should be established between teachers and the community. The following steps can be taken to strengthen teacher's community relationship.
 - (i) **Community Service.** The school should adopt local community for improving sanitary conditions, roads, and pure water. If the students under the guidance of teachers go to local, villages, then a close rapport will be established between school-community, which will enhance the prestige, and importance of the teacher.
 - (ii) **Use Criticism.** Teachers should use the criticism given by the society in a constructive way to improve upon their existing conditions.

3.3 Mental Hygiene at Home

The home is the cradle of the child and his future destiny has been described in song and story as the handiwork of his mother. The early formative years of childhood are spent at home in the company of brothers and sisters and under the affectionate care of parents. Their affection and kindness give home feelings of security as nothing else does. The baby clings to his mother when in pain and is soothed by her caresses. Children who are deprived of this care and affection in early life by the death of one or both parents have been reported to be feeling insecure in all their lives. Parental attitude to the child also makes a difference to the personality of the child. Let us study the effects of these two aspects of family, reaction on the child.

Parents' attitude to children may be of any of the four types' rejection, domination, anxiety and over-concern, and excessive display of love. Often these attitudes are mixed with one of them predominating over others. Rejection may be very subtle as when parents dislike all that the child says or does and criticize him. Domination may be all-pervasive as parents do not let the child do anything by him and he has to seek the routine. Anxiety and concern are usually shown in feelings of alarm as to what might have happened excessive affection and meeting every passing fancy they have, offering love as a reward for obedience and threatening to deny love as a punishment.

Parents may reject their children in two main ways, they may neglect a child by not speaking, listening and attending to him and they may show complete lack of any show of affection for him. The mother may not pick up the infant and let him cry, she may not feed him in time and she may not care to wash and clean him, such treatment is bound to give him the feel that he is not wanted and is not worth much. Such children grow

aggressive, lack of affection and withdrawal from society. They are ready to fight over trifles, feel jealous, and wish to gain extra attention and affection from others. Or they may lack emotional warmth. Such trends in personality are very difficult to correct.

Parents may be too dominant and impose a very strict discipline in the home regulating the life of young people very strictly. Some of them may be over ambitious for their children and wish them to achieve what they missed. Then they expect strict obedience and punish children for even very small departure from what parents expect. This compulsiveness may be done with moderate methods. Such home treatment breeds passive, timid and self-conscious personalities who are always too anxious to please everybody and may kill confidence, courage and initiative. A good many children brought up in this atmosphere may avoid parents to escape their domination.

Some parents are continually expressing their love and devotion to their children by embracing and kissing them, by using endearing words or by giving presents. Frequently, such children may grow self-centered; they attach too much importance to their own happiness and comfort, and begin to expect everybody to pander to their needs. Too much kissing and embracing may produce sensual stimulation. Or the child may resent this over-protection and excessive display and affection. Many parents who display excessive affection generally expect gratitude from children and make undue demands from them. They may also be expressing disappointment and disapproval too often. These attitudes may be mixed and some new pattern of behaviour may result, but the elementary traits are the same.

Some parents are continually expressing concern and anxiety for the welfare and happiness of their children. They express alarm over a slight coughing and crying on the part of infants, over their elimination and possibilities of their illness. Many mothers are very nervous about their children and try to protect them from all sorts of imaginary dangers. This over-protection may prolong infantile behaviour in children and make them self-centered and conceited. They had an exaggerated sense of self-esteem. Such children mature late and some of them continue to depend on their parents long after they reach maturity. They may become too submissive and dependent on others.

Sane and sound upbringing in the home will treat every child in an objective manner, giving him all help and sympathy love and affection, but respecting him as an individual who may have his own ways of doing things and allowing the to do things in his own manner so that he may develop his judgment and self-confidence, take initiative in doing his things by himself. No child, as human being, is perfect, and parents should not magnify the faults and weaknesses of children nor make fun of them. They should be encouraged and helped to overcome or reduce problems. They child is helpless and immature and needs the guiding and helping hand of his parents but it should not be forgotten that ultimately he has to stand on his own feet and the guidance and training he receives at home should always keep this objective in view. Children will have difficulties and problems and parents should give encouragement and help in solving

them. They should neither try to solve them for the child nor rebuke him for not solving them as well as they themselves, can.

Again parents, at least for the sake of their children, should maintain very cordial relations between themselves. Quarrelling, separation of parents or divorce makes the child feel threatened and unsecured. Parents are a very important part of children's environment and when he loses either of them, he blames the other and resents his or her presence and behaviour. If one parent is absent or dies, the child gets too much attached to the other. If the father dies, and there is nobody to support the family, the child by comparing his lot with other children may develop feelings of inferiority, and inadequacy.

Often the place of the child in the family makes a difference to his personality. The eldest child, the only child, the only son in a family of daughters and the only daughter in a family of sons, get too much attention and are generally pampered. Such a child is domineering, selfish and weak in character. He wishes to be the center of attention all the time and is deeply hurt even by very slight neglect or by imaginary neglects; such children will derive great benefit from the kindergarten, from free association with children of their age. Free group play is of great benefit to them.

If there are a number of brothers and sisters, favouritism, jealousies and rivalries may be strong, and young people may develop strong attraction and love with consequently feelings of guilt and revenge. Such children may lose self-confidence, may suffer in self-esteem and develop a feeling of rejection.

Therefore for good mental health it is very essential that the family relationship should be built on sound knowledge of child psychology, parental attention and interest should be evenly distributed among children, and the individuality of every child should be respected so that nobody is harshly treated and nobody is unduly, favoured. Healthy mutual relations based on cooperation and good will and consideration for others will prevent sharp comers in personality make up.

3.4 Main Points

1. All psychologists, teachers and mental hygienists agree that primarily family living and experiences play most crucial role in the development of harmonious personality in children.
2. Teacher must have the knowledge of fundamental principles of human behaviour to tackle the problem of his students. he must be emotionally stable and should have positive attitude towards teaching.
3. Teacher maladjustment will not only adversely affect his personality but will produce maladjustment in children put under his charge.

4. Parents' attitude to children may be of any of the four types.
 - (i) Rejection
 - (ii) Domination
 - (iii) Anxiety
 - (iv) Over-concern
 - (v) Excessive display of love

3.5 Self-Assessment Questions

- Q. 1 Explain the concept of mental health. What factors in the home affect the adjustment and mental health of children?
- Q. 2 How does the school environment affect the adjustment and mental health of children? How can the teacher promote the mental health of children?
- Q. 3 Why? Is the mental health of the teacher so important in the educative process? What factors affect the mental health of the teacher? What suggestions can you make to promote the mental health of children?
- Q. 4 What do you mean by adjustment mechanisms? Explain some adjustment mechanisms with examples.
- Q. 5 What do you mean by frustration? What are the sources of frustration? Discuss some reactions to frustration with examples.
- Q. 6 Define conflict. Discuss the various types of conflict.
- Q. 7 What is maladjustment? Discuss the cause and remedies of maladjustment.

Unit–8

GUIDANCE IN SCHOOL

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INTRODUCTION

There are very few individuals who are capable of managing the affairs of life independently without the co-operation and advice of others. Men and women, boys and girls, the young and the old, the poor and the rich, the black and the white, all need the guidance of others for one or the other reasons. Teachers have always been providing guidance to students; parents guide their children; national leaders guide the citizens. Such guidance is provided in an informal way. But guidance personnel can also provide as a specialized service and in a formal way in schools guidance. In this unit, we shall explain Nature of guidance, kinds of guidance, Mode of guidance and organization of guidance services in school.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you would be able to:

1. Prepare a programme of guidance in school.
2. Describe the Characteristics of the guidance process.
3. Explain the importance of guidance.
4. Organize; State the role of teacher in Educational guidance.
5. Explain the importance of guidance services.

1. THE NATURE OF GUIDANCE

Guidance covers the whole process of education which starts from of the childhood. As individuals need help throughout their lives, it is not wrong to say that guidance is needed from cradle to grave. The literal meaning of guidance is to point out, to show the way. It is more than to assist, guidance derives.

Guidance is the assistance given to individuals in making intelligent choices and adjustment in life. It is a helping profession rooted in our understanding of the characteristics and needs of all human clientele copied by our understanding of the environment that shape them. Thus process of guidance implies learning about human growth and development plus knowledge about their socio-cultural foundations. The word "Guidance" derives its roots from word 'Guide' which, means 'direct' 'manage' 'steer' assist, lead inform and 'interact'. Currently the profession involves all such services which are to help individuals. In other words 'Guidance' encompasses all components of services and activities in educational institutions and other organizations that offer professional help and career-related educational programs. The purpose is to help students or young adults understand themselves and their world and actualize their potential. It also refers to organizational procedures and processes to achieve certain objectives or accomplish specific task.

Guidance is defined as "the process of helping people make important choices that affect their lives" (Gladding 1996). One distinction between 'guidance' and 'counseling' is that guidance focuses more on helping individuals choose what they value most while counseling focuses on helping them change. According to Jones, Stefflre and Stewart (1970), the process of guidance is based on the democratic principles that the person has the right to choose his own way in life. Since education provides opportunities for the development of human potential, guidance is considered on integral part of education and is centered directly upon this faction.

The guidance movement can be traced during the period from 1850 to 1940. It includes events like the 'Industrial Revolution' Mental Health Movement, 'Study of Individual differences,' Frank Parsans is known as the 'father of guidance' though other pioneers include Jesse B, Davis, Anne Reed, Eli Weaver, David S, Hill, Alfred Binet, George A, Merrill and Roert Yerkes. Perhaps the earliest notion of professional guidance in response to social pressure was advanced by Lysander S. Richords who published a small volume rifled "Vocophy" in 1881. He called guidance person as 'vocophers' Later on Parsons expressed similar ideas and published books and articles on a wide variety of topics and presented a well thought out social program and founded the vocational Bureau of Boston in 1908. The primary objective of the bureau was to develop and guide the potential of Boston's growing immigrant population. He always emphasized that the purpose of guidance was to develop and guide the potential of Boston's growing immigrant

population. He always emphasized that the purpose of guidance was to help clients make wise and well-founded conclusions for themselves.

The purpose of guidance is that an individual should know greater awareness not only of who he is but of who he can become. Rogers maintains, “The purpose of helping professions, including guidance and counseling, is to enhance the personal development, the psychological growth toward a socialized maturity.

1.1 Functions of Guidance

Although the vocational aspect has always been stressed, the professorial of guidance has gone far beyond it. It is now concerned with the entire individual in all dimensions and all types of life situations — personal, social, religious, occupational etc. It also focuses on the interaction between the individual and society and helps youth to live life that is individually satisfying and socially productive as its major emphasis is on the development of the whole personal.

Guidance functions include helping individual make intelligent choices and adequate decisions. Even when there is no choice possible, guidance may help individual understand and accept the situation. Guidance may also operate when the individual is not conscious that a choice can be made by exploring new avenues (Jones, Steffire Stewart, 1970).

According to Gibson and Mitchell, (1999), guidance works in all types of problem situations, past, present and future. It is a help given by one person to another in making choices, in solving problems and assisting the person to grow in his ability and become responsible for himself. It is a service that is universal since time immemorial — not confined to school or the family available in all phases of life — in the home, in business and industry, in government, in social life, in hospitals and prisons. According to Gladding (1996), no other profession has played more important part from a preventive and developmental perspective than the guidance personnel. American School Comselsars Association (ASCA) has listed five functions of school guidance programme.

- i. Provides in-service training for teachers helping them identify serious problems among children.
- ii. Provides consultation for teachers to help them build healthy classroom environment.
- iii. Work with parents to promote understanding of childhood growth and development.
- iv. Cooperate in identifying and referring children with mental and developmental deficiencies and disabilities; and
- v. Divert older children’s awareness to find out a relationship between school and work.

To educate a person involves a conscious effort. The process of guidance calls for wide experience, deep wisdom and unlimited patience on the part of the guidance personnel.

Guidance is considered as an integral part of education as both are closely related. Education may be used as a process of change that takes place within the individual and guide the individual to become a functioning member of the society. It deals with the entire scope of human development rather optimum development throughout the life-span. The element of guidance is present whenever the teacher assists the learner to choose. In sum all guidance is education but some aspects of education are not guidance.

Guidance is inherent in every part of school, which is concerned with assisting the student to make appropriate choices, adjustment and interpretations. It involves all types of choices and must include within its scope the curriculum, teaching, supervision and all other activities of the educational institutions. Guidance however, is received best and makes profound impact when the person who seeks it, comes voluntarily because he feels he needs professional help.

Hatch and Costar (in Gibson and Mitchell, 1999), contend guidance as a program of services which can be defined, recognized, administered and evaluated in terms of their need, quality and utility. Primarily these services are preventive and require coordination as they include student appraisal, individual counseling, informational services, group guidance, placement, follow-up, evaluation and research.

Later in 1980s, Shertzer and Stone (1981), too maintain that the components of guidance comprise individual assessment informational service, individual counseling, consultation planning, placement and follow-up. Blocher and Brigg (in Gibson and Mitchel 1999) assert that guidance program is centered around concerns involving educational and vocational planning, personal problem solving, decision making family concerns and other activities related to personal growth, prevention and consultation. Who guide Persons must understand processes of development as they apply to both individuals and social organizations. Additional insight comes from the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) that guidance personnel should study eight areas: (1) Human growth and development (2) Social cultural foundations, (3) helping relations, (4) group work, (5) career and life style development, (6) appraisal, (7) research and program evaluation and (8) professional orientation. In sum numerous authors over the years have listed certain traditional or basic activities for guidance personnel across all settings though the emphasis may vary, of course. The prominent areas identified are individual appraisal, environmental assessment, group counseling and follow-up currently the traditional activities include referral, consultation, research, evaluation, accountability and prevention. Preventive interventions, wellness and development throughout the life span are considered as the cornerstones of the profession and have received renewed attention. Like any other human enterprise, the guidance functions are centered on the following assumptions.

- What is to be accomplished
- How best to get this accomplished
- How to determine what has been accomplished

The primary objectives of guidance programs pertain to students' behavior, growth and development. These are the only fine measures of the effectiveness of the guidance program. As Wilson and Rotter (1980) stress that the guidance personnel is charged with

facilitating optimal stress that the guidance personnel is charged with facilitating optimal development of the whole person. The task involves many preventive and practice services to help students grow and develop.

Organized guidance programs which began to emerge with increasing frequency in secondary school in the 1920s, and still continue, embrace administrative responsibility, remedial services including modification of behavior, parental assistance and referrals. Such programs emphasize and believe that school, is the proper place for the delivery of such services — assisting individuals learning adequate life adjustments hence regardless of the functioning level of clients, wellness and growth orientation is the basis for the work of most guidance personnel.

1.2 Principles of Guidance

Principles of any discipline within profession tend to form a philosophical framework within which programs are organized and evaluated. Some basic principles suggesting how guidance programs can be planned more effectively are given below:

- Guidance services should be for all concerned at all levels and primarily preventive in nature.
- Authorities view ‘guidance’ as a continuous ongoing process throughout an individual’s formal education as development is an ongoing process.
- Trained personnel are essential for guidance services ensuring their effectiveness and quality.
- Guidance activities should be specifically designed and developed if they are to be effective.
- Guidance services should be embedded in the uniqueness of the individual, culture and the context of the person to whom they intend to serve.
- Since guidance is an integral part of education, educational activities and guidance services should support and complement each other and furnish evidence of accomplishment.
- Guidance programs must respect the worth and dignity of each individual and his or her right to be unique. Hence the program must recognize the right and capability of the individual to make decisions and plans.
- The school guidance worker should be a role model of positive human relationship, healthy personality, traits and self actualization.
- Regular and systematic assessment of the individual clientele, needs should be focused as the program promotes accountability.

Thus guidance is an all-inclusive program intended to help the individuals achieve their optimum potential. It is both a generalized and a specialized service that meets the needs of the whole person. It is needed not only in crises but should also be availed to help normal individuals not only in crises but should also be availed to help normal individuals even if they are not conscious that they are stuck and need assistance.

1.3 Summary

Guidance is the assistance given to individuals in making intelligent choices and adjustment in life. It means to 'direct,' inform, lead or interact. Guidance encompasses all services and activities that offer professional help and career-related educational programs. Guidance movement can be traced during the period from 1850 to 1940. Industrial Revolution, Mental Health Movement, psychometrics, World War-I and passage of some significant federal acts paved its way to become a distinct discipline. Frank Parsons is known as the 'father of guidance.

Guidance functions in clued helping individual make intelligent choices and adequate decisions. It is a professional help given by one person in solving problems, assisting individual to grow and become a functioning member of the society. It deals with the entire scope of human development. Primarily guidance services are preventive. They include individual appraisal, individual counseling, group guidance, placement, follow-up, research and evaluation. The primary objectives of guidance programs pertain to student's behavior, growth and development.

Guidance is continuous, an ongoing process that is specifically, designed according to the needs of the cliental culture and context of the person to whom they intend to serve.

2. KINDS OF GUIDANCE

Guidance is defined as the process of helping individuals make life adjustments at home, school, community and other phases of life. According the Hatch and Costar (in Gibson and Mitchell, 1999), guidance program comprises services that can be defined, recognized and evaluated. The purpose of these services is to improve the adjustment of the individual for whom these were initially designed. Hence these services are for all concerned, at all school levels and are primarily preventive in nature. As a helping profession, its members are specially trained and licensed to perform a unique and a needed service, including individual appraisal. Individual counseling, group counseling and guidance, placement and follow-up referral, consultation, research and accountability. Preventive measures are also on its agenda. These kinds of traditional activities are briefly described below.

2.1 Individual Assessment

Assessment programs are typically, designed to measure several attributes abilities and skills of a person. The goal is to evaluate an individual in terms of current and future functioning. It is an activity that seeks, systematically, to identify the characteristics and potential of each person. Thus it provides a database for a prompt understanding of the person reflecting his or her interests and needs, developmental stage, organization of systematic placement and follow-up programs. It also promotes the clients' self-understanding. Some authorities in guidance believe that assessment is more deceptive of

what counselors do. According to Shertzer and Linden (1982, in Gladding 1996), assessment refers “to those procedures and processes used in collecting measures of human behavior”. Anastasi (1992) contends that” the term assessment is being used increasingly to refer to the intensive study of an individual leading to recommendations for action in solving a particular problem. Thus assessment includes test scores as well as other information obtained in a variety of ways such as behavioral observations, interview data, reports and other data-gathering techniques. It is the process of collecting, synthesizing and interpreting relevant information of varied aspects of individual. Many guidance personnel do not identify themselves with assessment as they are not full time psychometrics, though they do employ tests for the comprehensive evaluation of the individual in the personal as well as to promote his self exploration and prediction of future outcomes. This activity is also referred as individual appraisal or individual inventory, which follows an assessment of what needs to be known about pupils, selection of instruments and procedures for collecting this information and development of system for obtaining the information and making it available.

2.2 Individual Counselling

Counselling is a profession with a history and set of standards geared for working with relatively normal functioning people who are experiencing developmental or adjustment problems. It is multidimensional activity dealing with unman feelings, thoughts and behaviors as well as the past present, and future. It is a one to one helping relationship that focuses on a person’s growth and adjustment on person centered process that concentrates on clients problem-solving and decision making needs. According to Rogers the process is initiated by establishing a state of psychological contact between the counselor and the client many practitioners believe that this psychological contact on there prentice alliance can only be established through a counselor genuineness, empathic understanding and their unconditional positive regard for clients.

Effective counselor uses their selves as instrument. They are open flexible self actualizing and generalists. They believe in their client’s potential and are initially sensitive according to Gibson and Mitchel, (1999), individual counseling has been “identified as the heart of any program of counseling services. All other professional activities of any program of counseling services. All other professional activities of the counselor lead to this most important function. Group is defined as two or more people interacting with each other to achieve a mutually agreed upon goal.

2.3 Group Counselling and Guidance

Group counseling usually focuses on a particular type of problem-educational vocational social or personal. The type of group differs from other groups as it deals with conscious problems and is not aimed at major personality changes. It is rather growth engendering and prevention and remediation-oriented. It is growth engendering insofar as it motivates its participants to take actions that maximize their potential. It is remedial for those who have adopted a spirit of self-defeating behavior but who have nevertheless capability to

change their maladaptive behavior. The group counselor may use a variety of techniques such as reflection, Clarification, role-playing etc. The dynamics of group offer support, caring, confrontation and other unique qualities not found in the framework to resolve the usual yet often difficult problems through mutual support and develop their existing interpersonal problem solving competencies. Group counseling is different forms of group's guidance as it stresses the effective involvement of its members. Tuckman and Gladding, (1996), one of the first theorists to design a stage process for group counseling believed that there, are four stages of group development forming and performing. Another stage adjoining was expanded later on. Certain tasks are performed in each stage. For example, the foundation is laid in the forming stage, group members are included, assumed of mutual trusts and confidentiality. Considerable conflict is usually experienced in the second stage while norms are established in the third stage. Sometimes third stage is combined with the 'storming' and leads to performing. This is the time when the group members are productive, resolve their conflicts, find some meaning in life and experience personal growth. In the adjoining stage, the group comes to an end and say go bye to each other. Members feel either fulfilled or bitter. According to Gladding (1999) there is often a celebration experience at this point of the group.

Several traditional and historical groups are classified as T. group, encounter group, group marathon self-help/support groups etc. T. groups tend to emphasize human-relations skills required for successful functioning in a business organization. Encounter group offers an intense group experience that breaks down defensive barriers that individuals may otherwise use (Cony & Corey, 1982).

Guidance groups are preventive and educational by nature; their members may lack information in some area or approaching a developmental transition or may be in the midst of coping with a life. The primary goal is to teach its participants how to prevent the future development of dysfunctional behaviors. One of the most important parts of guidance groups is group discussions which help members personalize the information presented in the group context. In school settings instructional materials such as unfinished stories, puppet shows, films, audio interviews and guest speakers are employed. In adult settings other appropriate techniques are used. Typical group size ranges from approximately 20 to 35 focusing on improved understanding of self and other class teacher or counselor because the leader of the group utilizes a variety of instructional media in motivating students and promoting group interaction. According to Gibson and Mitchell (1999) group guidance makes an indirect attempt to change attitudes and behaviors through accurate information or — upon intellectual functioning whereas group counseling makes a direct-attempt to modify attitudes and behaviors through accurate information or — upon intellectual functioning whereas group counseling makes a direct-attempt to modify attitudes and behaviors by emphasizing member's involvement to some other differences group guidance refers to the interaction of the counseling guidance person with a relatively large group of student through the media of lecture discussion and questions dissemination of information if is one of the basic purposes of guidance group. It helps students attain long-term educational and vocational

goals, provide factual some for the discussion of developmental issues pertaining to the groups. Other objectives include stimulating students through processes about their biological, psychological and sociological worlds and orienting them to avail guidance services, have also been highlighted in terms of the focus group counseling is remedial and is popular in agencies and institution while group guidance is recommended for students though it is very similar to group counseling as it is concerned with educational vocational, personal and social issues. Some elements such as structure and function interaction and communication, cohesion, movement and productivity and role and leadership are important, need to be understood and applied to group guidance, (Glanz and Hays, 1967).

2.4 Career Assistance

Career counseling is an intriguing and complex area of guidance that requires in depth knowledge of human nature world of work and active and collaborative relationship between the counselor and the client. According to National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA, 1973) career is defined as time-extended working out of purposeful life pattern through work undertaken by the individual. The term career development refers to the total consultation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic and chance factors that combine to shape the career of any given individual (NVGA, 1973). Since its earliest inception, guidance movement has had strong vocational spirit, traditional standardized tests and descriptive materials have been employed for career assessment at each stage of one's growth and development for the building of appropriate foundations for later career development and decision making. Gladding (1996) lists important aspects of career guidance which include the following:

1. Career guidance deals with the inner and outer world of individuals where as other forms of help, counseling or guidance deal only with interpersonal events.
2. Career guidance can therapeutic as authorities like super, Williams, Hills and Crites (1996) have all found a positive correlation between career and personal adjustment. Krumboltz (1994) assesses that career and personal counseling are inextricably intertwined and often must be treated together.
3. Career guidance is more difficult than psychotherapy. Crites (1981) Gladding, (1996) state that career guidance person must deal with both personal and work variables and must know how to two interact.

2.5 Consultations

Consultation is a process between two professional persons the consultant who is a specialist, and the consultee, who invokes the consultants help in regard to current work problems (Coplan, 1970). Since 1970s consultation is wowed as forefront of counseling due to its problems-solving focus and its emphasis on improvement of guilty. However in spite of all the attention it has received, consultation is not well conceptualized by many authorities. The reasons include the theoretical attitude of its professional that consultation is not seen as a primary activity of all professionals. So it takes organizational support and resources necessary for theory building and research. Still

another reason is a rapid change in consultation practices. Unlike most other forms of help, consultation reacts quickly to social political or technical changes.

There is still some disagreement about the exact definition of consultation. Kurpius (1995) has offered another definition that has been adapted in pre 1995 editions of the ACA code of ethics. The code defines consultation as a voluntary relationship between a professional helper and help-needing individual group or social unit in which the consultant is tent-based, goal-oriented or process-oriented. Kurpius (1996) also stresses the systems-oriented consultation aiming to help change aspects of the systems. At school the consultant's chief concern will be the student through he will be involved with faculty members and spends time on the more serious problems with the parents in their settings. The consultant also seeks the establishment of necessary community service & works in close cooperation with them.

2.6 Research

There are many definitions of research but Barkley (1982 in Gladding, 1996) gives one of the best. "Research is the systematic collection, organization and interpretation of observations in order to answer questions as unambiguously as possible". Research can be basic applied, and experimental or action is designed to develop or support theories, to solve problems, explaining events, which have occurred in the past, or what will occur in the future.

According to Gladding (1996) although there is no unanimous agreement on how to conduct and report counseling research, yet there are three main reasons to conduct research.

1. The research provides guidance persons with factual information on which to base decision-making process.
2. Research is also vital for answering to clients. Some clients may use behaviorally based research methods to monitor, understand and manage their situations more effectively. Clients need to learn these skills what behaviors to observe, monitor and modify. Hence they can improve the quality of their lives and extend the benefits of guidance and counseling beyond formal sessions.
3. Research is important for the continuation of the counseling profession itself. It can help determine effective versus ineffective approaches, usefulness of particular technique and adequacy of treatment of choice for various disorders,

Research is necessary to the advancement of the profession of counseling and guidance. It provides a potential source of empirically based knowledge for the implementation of effective guidance services, expanding human understanding, producing factual data, reinforcing counselors professional judgments and seeking answers to pertinent questions. Guidance and counseling programs cannot afford to ignore or lose the research activities.

2.7 Placement, Follow-Up and Referral

Traditionally placement and follow-up are more linked with school guidance program. Satisfactory placement should promote individual adjustment to the environment. The other obvious use of the placement service is the career planning. Many colleges and universities have installed automated placement programs where students can send their resumes to different employment networks, receive information on part-time.

2.8 Summary

The purpose of guidance services is to improve the adjustment of the individual. Guidance services include individual appraisal, individual counseling & group guidance, placement, follow-up referral, consultation, and research etc.

Individual assessment is an activity that seeks systematically to identify the characteristics and potential of each person. It includes test scores as well as the information obtained in a variety of ways.

Individual counseling is a multimode activity dealing with human feelings, thoughts and behaviors as well as the past, present and future.

Group counseling is different from guidance as it stresses the effective Group involvement of its members. Group is believed to pass through four stages. Forming, storming, norming and performing. Guidance groups are preventive and educational by nature. Group guidance makes an indirect attempt to change attitudes and behaviors through accurate information or stressing upon intellectual functioning.

Career assistance requires in-depth knowledge of human nature, world of work and active and collaborative relationship between the counselor and the client. Consultation is process that is content-based, goal oriented or person focused.

Research is necessary for the development of the profession of counseling and guidance. It is a systematic collection organization and interpretation of observations.

Placement and follow-up are more linked with school guidance program. They are means of evaluating the effectiveness of guidance services. Referral facilitates the client with a higher level of training and expertise Fulltime-vacancy listings, schedule interviews, summer job vacancies and internships.

Follow-up activities are a means of evaluating the effectiveness of a placement program. Employment personnel and rehabilitation counselors are very active in the referral, placement and follow-up of their clients. According to Gladding, (1996) all counselors should use follow-up in all settings for assessing guidance and counseling outcomes.

Referral is the practice of helping clients in finding needed expert assistance that the referring guidance person cannot provide. Referral is made to facilitate the client with a higher level of training or special expertise to the client's needs.

3. MODES OF GUIDANCE

Guidance is an integral part of any educational institution. As mentioned earlier, guidance program is a program of services specially designed to improve the adjustment of individuals for whom it is organized. School teachers are powerful socializing force in human development. In addition to guidance, counseling, and coordination functions, the guidance worker or teacher has responsibilities for students' orientation, assessment, career and other development needs as well significant attention to the prevention of undesirable habits and remediation of such behaviors (Gibson and Mitchell 1999). School guidance workers are a vanguard in the mental health movement. No other profession has ever been organized to work with individuals from a purely preventive and developmental perspective. A school guidance personnel is charged with facilitating optimal development of the whole child. The task involves preventive remedial and proactive – modalities as given below.

3.1 Prevention

Prevention is a goal in which the counsellor/guidance worker helps the client to avoid undesirable outcome.

- (1) Guidance personnel strive to create a positive school environment for students. Their emphasis is on the form Cs; Counselling services, coordination of activities, consultation with others and curriculum development. The last activity, which is both developmental and educational, focuses on formulating guidance classes, teaching students like skills and preventive measures.
- (2) Preschool guidance (between 3 to 5 year old children and their families) has been receiving on increased attention and concern. Elementary school counselors can offer special help by monitoring developmental aspects of children's lives and serving as advocates for them. Guidance personnel can make sure that children experience growth learn effective socialization skills and develop positive self-concept. It is especially important that school guidance personnel work with parents and communities when children develop negative self-image or antisocial attitudes. Some educational exercises and games can be used in building up children self-esteem and helping them learn healthy social attitudes.
- (3) At elementary school level guidance personnel are not viewed by young students as the first source of help. The elementary school guidance personnel must introduce themselves who they are what they do and how and when they can help their students. This information can best be provided in orientation program for all children know that guidance and counseling services are a vital part of the total school environment.
- (4) After introducing themselves school counselors became active in classroom guidance. Setting peer-counsellor program and helping students know each other create an atmosphere of sharing and acceptance and open ways to resolve personal difficulties. Promoting communication skills is crucial in this situation. Teaching effective parenting styles, behavior management training on an individualized level are most likely to be helpful.

In middle and secondary school, this program is geared toward helping students become comfortable with themselves, their teachers and their schools. A multimode approach is adopted and students are asked to participate actively in the learning process. Each guidance program is focused on a prosaically aspect of personal and institutional living. Individual or peer counseling and consultation activities are arranged to foster problem prevention. Through these activities students become more self reliant and less dominated by their Peer group. Ego- centralism is also reduced. On the other hand, students become more attuned to principles as guidelines, feel comfortable in relating themselves with teachers and develop effective self-control. According to Gladding (1996) three examples of problem areas where prevention can make a major difference are substance abuse, adolescent suicide and prevention of antisocial behavior. Programs for preventing substance abuse work best when they are started early in school life, involve students parents, teachers and community members. Suicide prevention program are to help students parents and school personnel become aware of suicidal signs or tendencies and do something to improve self-esteem of such adolescents. Depression is believed to a be a common factor among suicidal youth. Support and psycho educational groups can be tailored according to the needs and circumstances of youth at risk. Workshops for parents and administrators and peer education programs are also important mode of dissuading adolescents from engaging in destructive behaviors. Thus preventing child abuse substance abuse, premature school leaving and school vandalism are some of the objectives of school guidance. Development of positive self-image, promotion of personal safety and social skills development are the long-term benefits of counseling programs at elementary, middle and secondary schools.

3.2 Remediation

Remediation involves assisting a client to overcome and or treat an undesirable development. It is an act to improve a situation and make it right. The term implies that something is wrong and it needs correction. In elementary school guidance program, a number of activities are subsumed under this heading including individual counseling group counseling, environmental changes and modifications.

According to Gladding one way to determine what needs to be done, is to use structured surveys. Need Assessments that focus on the systematic appraisal of the types, depths and scope of problems in a particular population. The information gathered via need assessment surveys typically falls into four main areas. School, family relations, relationship with others and the self. The school can be viewed as a system of forces, which not only are technical, rational, interpersonal and task oriented but are conditioned by responsive interaction of persons and groups. Young children are best responsive to guidance services as they are active participants. Play therapy and bibliotherapy are two strategic interventions that facilitate the process of rapport building and self-understanding among students at any level.

Play therapy is a specialized way of working with children that needs skill and training. Play therapy has been modeled after Rogers's person centered therapy. It allows children

to express their inner issues and emotions by manipulating play media such as toys. The play therapist conveys can acceptance and empathic atmosphere in which children feel secure to explore their feelings. Therapist's non judgmental attitude enables the children to recognize and constructively deal with volatile emotions. A number of approaches can be employed in play therapy however, it is ideal to conduct play therapy in a well-equipped playroom but most schools do not have such arrangements. Play material may be classified into the one of three categories: real-life toys, acting out or aggressing toys and toys for creative expression or release. Play items typically include puppets, masks, drawing materials and clay. Some studies indicate that sand play is effective in working with children suffering from low self-esteem, poor academic progress, high anxiety and mild depression. In some cases play therapy can be conducted with parents at home while in other cases school environments maybe appropriate, it encourages children to express their feelings and concerns, provide opportunities to project their tendency for self-actualization and it is easy to understand and implement.

Bibliotherapy is another intervention to understand and help children at school, though it can be used to a limited extent. It is the use of books or media as aids to help gain insight into children's problems and find appropriate solutions. These guidance activities may be particularly fruitful if guidance workers summarize stories for children, openly discuss characters with children and explore consequences of character's actions and draw conclusions. Since the child is flexible at this age and has less time for problems to become deep-rooted and the parents are more actively associated with school, the guidance services can emphasize upon prevention of serious maladjustment and upon the establishment of learning climates which encourage maximum total personal development.

Children's self-esteem is another significant area to handle carefully. Self-esteem is the end product of the comparison with one's peer group. To promote children's self-esteem, guidance personal need to focus on helping at risk children in five areas, critical school academic competencies, self-concept, communication skills and coping ability. Counselor can enhance self-esteem by helping children look at themselves through the eyes of a special person. This seems to be one of the best treatment modalities in improving children's self-concept, self-confidence and social and academic possibilities.

The activities of middle school guidance personnel revolve around a Human Development Center (HDC) that deals with sensitive human-beings. Rapport building is believed to be vital with such students, teachers, parents and community as a whole. Remedial responsibility must be delegated to other school personnel, parents and community volunteers, as the counselor cannot form all the recommended functions alone. The counselors initiate remediation program to help students with specific problems such as depression, parental divorce, poor academic achievement etc.

Depression is related in adolescence to various life stressors. According to statistics, 15% of American adolescent students are depressed because of external stressors and

inadequate individual response abilities. Common indicators of depression are emotional, physical, intellectual and behavioral. School guidance personnel must use a variety of approaches including Lazarus therapy multimodal, teaching the students how to develop self-esteem, become more aware of depressions and learn ways to manage stress. They should also be taught the strategies of modifying negative self-message. Of course it all requires significant consideration, investment of time and energy.

3.3 Summary

Guidance is an integral part of any educational institution. According to Gibson and Mitchell (1999) guidance personnel are vanguard in the mental health movement. Guidance persons try to create a positive school environment for students. Each guidance program is focused on a prosocial aspect of personal and institutional living. Prevention and remediation are two major dimensions of guidance services. Appropriate guidance program can make a major difference in substance abuse, adolescent suicide and prevention of antisocial behavior, best results of such services can be obtained if they are started early in school life involving students parents, teachers and community members.

Prevention is a goal of guidance services that help clients avoid some undesirable outcomes while remediation involves assisting a client to overcome and/or treat an undesirable development. A treatment plan or a remedial service can only be rendered after need assessment. Play therapy and bibliotherapy are two strategic interventions that facilitate the process of rapport building and self-understanding. Children's self-esteem is another area to be handled carefully. Guidance workers can enhance self-esteem by helping children look at themselves through the eyes of a special person.

4. ORGANIZATION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES IN SCHOOL

There is an overlap among the various definitions of word Guidance which derives its meaning from the root word 'guide' meaning direct, pilot, manage, steer, lead, inform and interact. In school, guidance program seeks to individualize education — attempts to bring to the total facilities of the school to bear upon the optimum development of the individual child. In other words, it is a process of personalizing education. The term is most frequently used to describe a variety of services, which have the common objective of helping students to become increasingly self-guided in the maximum utilization of the talents and opportunities. Thus guidance is a process of helping an individual understand himself and his world. Guidance cultivates individuals and at the same time prepares them for participation in life activities, which will be socially useful and personally satisfying. True guidance is an organized effort of a school to help the individual child develop his maximum potential (Hill, 1965).

Once the needs of the school and its population (Students) have been assessed and their receptiveness has been identified, the guidance personnel can proceed to develop an appropriate program. Three basic elements of a guidance program are:

- (i) Recognition of the uniqueness of the individual
- (ii) Concern for the individual and
- (iii) Facilitating the growth of the individual

Counseling and guidance programs in school are an American educational development of the 20th century. Since the passage of the National Defense Education Act (1958-1960), both the number and size of school counselor training programs have grown markedly. The professional literature focuses on three distinct school age populations at school level, Elementary school children (grades K-5), middle school children (grade 6-9), and secondary school children (grades 10-12).

Elementary school counseling and guidance is a relatively recent development many people believed that elementary school teachers should serve as guidance worker for their students. Another reason for this slow development is that guidance was primarily concerned with vocational development, finally many people did not recognize a need for guidance on the elementary school level Psychologists and social workers were employed by the school to diagnose emotional and learning problems in older children and offer advice in difficult family situations. In the 1980s, however, the accrediting agencies and state departments began mandating that school provide counseling services and renewed interest in the specialty. Research findings furnish strong evidence that school counseling programs can positively influence the emotional, behavioral and interpersonal domains of students and affect their achievement positively. Following are some characteristics of a good plan.

1. Guidance program should be developmental: Since guidance programs are presumed to attend to the developmental needs of pupils, such programs should be also developmental indicating in immediate, intermediate and long-range goals. Initially attention should also be envisioned. The program should never reach the point where it functions simply to maintain the status quo, as the program should always be developmental.
2. It should have a logical, sequential pattern of development. The development of any program usually proceeds from a foundation, which fosters subsequent development. The appropriate foundation of school services program from which guidance flows are its needs and readiness assessment and their relationship to the school current resources. Thus the logical sequence of such program would be planning ---- collecting --- using.
3. It should be flexible Guidance program must be flexible in order to meet the changing needs of youth. It means that initial planning for program development must be limited and achievable. Overly ambitious programs generally do not allow flexibility to incorporate growing needs of students.
4. It should give high priority to communication, coordination and cooperation. Another characteristic of a good guidance program is that its development, services

and effectiveness is known to faculty members individually and in groups. Besides school administration, students, parents and others are aware of its development, effectiveness and utility in helping student's growth and actualization. It also enables to anticipate the need for reciprocal cooperation of various groups at large and shares its vision, mission and contributions with other community programs.

5. It should provide a basis for resource employment: An adequate guidance program provides a logical basis for personnel assignment, budget development and faculty allocation and utilization. It means that the program must be clear and concise in its goals, activities and availability of personnel and other resources needed to accomplish its task. The guidance director must be a resource coordinator who has realistic assessment of currently available resources, their allocation, accountability and evaluation.

4.1 Procedures

In developing guidance program at any school level certain procedural steps should be taken. The first step is the assessment of the school environment in general, its resources, readiness, understanding and general strengths, and limitations. Secondly it is important to establish lines of communication with those who will be vitally involved in planning and implementation of the program. Communication at every level must be a part of the program. Meetings should be scheduled between representatives of the school guidance staff and members of the teaching faculty on one to one basis with school administrator, students, parents and community groups. Communication must continue throughout the planning and in implementation stages. Simultaneous efforts should be made to assess students' needs.

The primary objectives of guidance programs relate to students behavior and development. Therefore, the only true measure of the utility and effectiveness of such program must be in terms of what happens to students. The fundamental premise of all guidance services is a basic faith in the improvement of human being — its optimistic orientation. It is a help to an individual in making choices and adjustments and in solving problems, because guidance aims at assisting the recipient to grow in his independence and ability to be responsible for himself. It is a service that needs to be rendered helping the students makes educational plans consistent with their abilities and aims in life and to select appropriate courses and co-curricular activities which will enable them to join careers of their choice. Guidance need to be imparted to enable the student to succeed their educational plans, develop good study habits, prepare for examination properly and face examination with confidence. Adequate guidance services will familiarize them the various fellowships, scholarships, and competition exam. They need to be prepared for accepting new challenges, meet the crises and make sure that they are in the right direction (Madhukar, 2000).

The guidance program in the secondary school may be thought of as consisting of standard services; Counseling services information, individual inventory, placement and research service. According to the American School Counselors Association, the

Secondary school guidance personnel assume to perform multifarious responsibilities. Currently much guidance is characterized as remedial while preventive guidance lessens the need for remediation. Similarly if guidance is to play a role in increasing the individual's happiness and productivity, it must do so during the secondary school period. Adolescence is the period of choice making and guidance is the systematic effort to improve the quality of choices, selecting and preparing for an occupation and learning effective social skills and problem solving. It will reduce the need for help and will enhance the ability to adjust wisely in later life (Stefflre, Jones and Stewaut, 1970).

To make guidance programs more viable and effective, the responsibility should be distributed among individuals in an orderly fashion. Administration is defined as the source of effective and flexible guidance program. Following are some essential features of any guidance program at school.

1. Planning — determining what is to be done.
2. Organizing — grouping activities into administrative units;
3. Assembling resources, obtaining personnel and equipment;
4. Directing — issuing instructions,
5. Supervising — helping staff do well the task assigned to them and
6. Controlling — evaluating the program to determine its effectiveness

Planning Phase: of any program requires identification of the population needs and analysis of the situation to review the alternatives and decide the course of action.

Organizing Phase. of such program requires the division of activities characterized by function to location, personnel available an population to be served. Responsibilities may be delegated for various functions, yet the administrator may not be able to retain direct control over all the aspects of the program. However, it is the counselor if not administrator who make decisions regarding the structure, line of action, staff relationship and mode of control.

While assembling resources, the administrator is concerned not only with selecting and placement of faculty members but with budget and physical facilities as well. Budget allocation is essential for any guidance program. The administrator should seek the opinion of his/her staff in determining the nature and amount of resources to be obtained in appointing new staff and setting out the task. The administrator will once again determine the specific needs of the school. It is a very crucial job as it promotes greater skill, better morale and increased coordination among the persons concerned.

In implementing and directing the services, the guidance administration will need to know not only the institutional but also the legal basis of authority. This phase is clearly dependent upon good communication which promotes awareness, enhance organizational procedures and boost morale.

In supervising the process of guidance, the administrator may need to practice attractive or dynamic supervision. Attractive supervision is designed to maintain modify, enforce and resist change while the objective of dynamic supervision is to change, upgrade, restructure and invent healthy life-style.

In controlling the guidance program, the administrator will need to know both what is happening and how well it is happening. The guidance personnel use daily or weekly logs for this purpose. Quality judgments, generally based on survey of opinion are difficult because of the absence of adequate psychological instrumentation.

4.2 Factors Influencing the Development of School Guidance Program

School guidance programs are subjected to a variety of influences including some that can be controlled. Educationalist and guidance personnel must be aware of their existence and their possible effects upon the program being designed. Some factors which influence guidance program development are community, educational, and students' characteristics, economic factors and availability to resources.

Various community studies have revealed that community characteristics do influence the initiation, development, implementation and outcome of any guidance program. The size and nature of the population, the mores of the various subcultures within the community, language, traditions, value systems coping styles, concepts of education language, traditions, and social settings have implications for the strategies which guidance programs must engage in if they are to retain support from the various groups in the community. The school guidance program must assume responsibility for the identification of significant subcultures and economic characteristics of community.

The teacher is uniquely responsible for the climate of learning in which the class as a group and each student as an individual in the group finds opportunity for learning and personal development. The teacher helps them understand and accept themselves and to help them in setting reasonable life-goals. The teacher at an elemental school is in a strategic position to conduct child-study. His or her role is not a therapeutic one but he or she does aim at offering the student assistance in making more effective personal and environmental adjustments. The teacher discovers the dynamics which are operative there in to improve communication to utilize desirable assets of student's personality and to relieve pressures. The teacher also works with parents in helping to promote cooperative relationships which will enhance both school and home efforts to contribute effectively to each child development.

In some schools guidance person model seems to be that of a social worker, school psychologist and remedial teacher. He may pattern his day with consultation of the school counselor. The absence of a clearly structured job description may result in considerable anxiety. To some authorities absence of structure may, seem to be an opportunity for the teacher to design his job and meet the needs of the school and community more appropriately. The teacher may assume the responsibilities for students' orientation,

assessment and career and other developmental needs as well as agent of prevention, and mental health hygiene.

4.3 Evaluation of Guidance Program

Evaluation and research are essential components of guidance program. It is, not enough for guidance personnel to be effective, warm and empathic in their attitude, they must also possess the analytical and research skills required to monitor and evaluate their own work and that of others in the professional literature. Therefore, counselors / guidance persons must be applied researchers. Formally analyzing the result of guidance program helps counselors learn about themselves and their services.

Evaluation and research are two different activities although they have much in common. Evaluation is mission-oriented and has a quality of immediate utility. It involves gathering meaningful information on various aspects of guidance/counseling program to facilitate decisions about the allocation of funds and resources to assure maximum effectiveness of plan. Its direct feedback inculcates insight and enables counselors / guidance personnel to have a systematic positive input.

4.4 Steps in Evaluation

It is recommended by the authorities that general evaluation program be systematic and follow a sequential step-by step process usually involves a series of activities. Accordingly the first step in formulating an evaluation program is the identification of goals to be assessed. Evaluation should focus on the total guidance program or its particular objectives. These objectives must be stated in clear, concise, specific and quantifiable terms.

Once the objectives for evaluation are determined, the validation criteria appropriate for measuring the progress of the program toward these objectives should be employed. The overall evaluation plan should also specify the kinds of data to be collected and how the data will be organized and reported to whom. Future directions and provisions for using the findings should also be concluded.

After an acceptable evaluation criteria and plans have been specified, its validity is dependent on the fashion in which it is implemented. Gibson and Mitchell (1999) stress the significance of adequate planning and a positive approach employing genuine evaluators. Timing is also important because some aspects of a guidance program can only be appropriately evaluated in a longitudinal, sense whereas others need an “immediately after” assessment.

Evaluation as an activity is not in itself a very significant act. It is the application of the findings that carry the real worth. Through the process of evaluation strengths and weaknesses of a program can be ascertained and the findings can be utilized Worthen, White and Borg in Gibson and Mitchell (1999) state that school guidance programs would improve if more people realize the importance of deciding:

- Deciding how to report the evaluation study,
- Dealing effectively with the political, ethical and interpersonal issues in evaluation.

4.5 Summary

Guidance is an integral component of education. It is a process of personalized education. The common objective of guidance program is helping students to become increasingly self-guided in the maximum utilization of their potential and opportunities. Guidance program can be planned more appropriately once; the needs of the school population are assessed. Three basic elements of guidance program are:

1. Recognition of the individual.
2. Concern for the individual and
3. Felicitation of the growth of the individual.

Some characteristics of a good guidance program are that it is development, has a logical sequence, is flexible, gives high priority to communication and should provide a basis for resource employment. An effective guidance program passes through certain phases. (1) Planning (2) organizing (3) assembling resources, (4) directing, supervising and (5) evaluating its outcomes.

Factors that influence the development of such programs include community characteristics, various substructure within the community, traditions, value systems coping styles, concepts of education and social settings. Evaluation is conducted to gather meaningful information on various aspects of a guidance program to facilitate decisions, assure maximum effectiveness and determine future directions.

4.6 Self-Assessment Questions

- Q. 1 Describe the nature and functions of guidance as a helping profession.
- Q. 2 Discuss the scope of guidance. Describe some principles that constitute a philosophical framework of the profession.
- Q. 3 Define guidance. Discuss any three kinds of guidance.
- Q. 4 Illustrate any two modes of guidance. Give examples.
- Q. 5 How would you organize a guidance program in a school? What are some basic considerations that you will keep in mind while developing such program?
- Q. 6 What is the role of evaluation in the effectiveness of a school guidance program; specify its steps that make it viable.
- Q. 7 Write notes on any two of the following:
 - (a) Play Therapy
 - (b) Role of Need Assessment
 - (c) Characteristics of good plan

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Unit-9

COUNSELING

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INTRODUCTION

Counseling is aimed at helping people make adequate choices and act on them. The word “counsel” denotes a special kind of relationship between counselor and client in an accepting and non-possessive atmosphere that is likely to lead to happiness and meaningful living wellness, the ultimate target of counseling refers to a state or process of maximum human functioning involving mind, body and spirit. The process of counseling cannot occur unless a developmental approach is adopted. Development of this attitude requires acceptance of a “Holistic Model” of wellness and prevention that covers the entire life span. There are a number of approaches to health and wellness that are described, researched and practiced by modern counselors or mental health professionals, Three commonly discussed models, identified as major forces of counseling or psychotherapy are presented below together with their view of human nature, role of the counselor, goals and process of psychotherapy and evaluation.

OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you would be able to:

1. Explain the goal and need of counseling.
2. Differentiate between counseling and guidance.
3. Describe the essential characteristics of psychoanalytic approach.
4. Describe the view of person-centered therapy and behaviour therapy.

1. THE NATURE OF COUNSELING

1.1 Counseling a Comprehensive Profession

Counseling is a dynamic and ever-growing profession with a distinct history and therapeutic modality. Grounded in many disciplines, counseling evolved and developed as an American product of 20th century. It is an applied social science that assists individuals to learn about themselves, about their environment and ways to handle their roles and relationships effectively. A unique aspect of the counseling profession is that its approach is interdisciplinary, imbedded in philosophy, education, psychology, sociology, social work; anthropology and family studies. Although it is a form of psychotherapy but it is not necessarily remedial or exclusively for the “sick” It is rather conducted with persons who are considered to function within the “normal range” They can be considered as “Stuck” as they experience adjustment, developmental or situational concerns which need short-term intervention (Corey, 1996: Gladding, 1996).

Both the American Counseling Association (ACA) and Division 17 (Counseling Psychology) have defined counseling on numerous occasions. Krumboltz's (1965) definition represents their common points. Accordingly counseling consists of “whatever ethical activities a counselor undertakes in an effort to help the client engage in those types of behaviours which will lead to a resolution of the client's problems”. Thus counseling is distinguished from other mental health professions by both its historical development and emphasis. This definition also clearly indicates the significance what a counselor is about to accomplish—the attainment of client's goals rather than the technique involved to attain these goals (George & Cristiani, 1995). Hence counseling is founded on the goal of facilitating the development of clients by helping them become aware of the factors and forces in their lives that may hamper their growth and yet learn to exert some degree of control over these forces. The role of the counselor is not to instruct but to stimulate natural growth and potential inherent in human beings (Ivey, 1991). The counseling profession is unique in that its practitioners work more toward prevention rather than rumination of sickness or correction of maladaptive behavior. Moreover, it cements sickness or correction of maladaptive behavior. Moreover, it follows developmental rather than psychopathological model of assessment and treatment. (Blocher, 2000).

1.2 Distinction between Counseling and Psychotherapy

Counseling and psychotherapy are viewed as areas of overlapping activity—both relying on verbal interaction within the framework of a trusting and non-possessive atmosphere. Many clinicians contend that there are no essential differences between them and the distinction is artificial (Hansen & Warner, 1982; Pietrusek, Hoffman & Splette, 1984, Corey, 1995, Kottler & Brown: 1996). George and Cristiani (1995) take the view that both counseling and psychotherapy utilize a common base of knowledge and common set of techniques in the therapeutic process but may differ in approach according to the severity of a client's situation. Counseling has traditionally been viewed as less intensive, short-term, education oriented in order to help normal people function

more effectively. It is basically concerned with the people who are not “sick” but “stuck” On the other hand, psychotherapy has been described as a long-term, in-depth, analytical process that focuses more on the dysfunctional persons with severe mental problems. The goals of counseling have been oriented towards development and prevention of mental health problems while the goals of psychotherapy have generally been remedial-helping people to empower themselves. Many regard the difference between counseling and psychotherapy as being primarily, quantitative rather than qualitative since the fundamental processes do not change, only the situation or the client’s concern may be different the terms of counseling and psychotherapy are used interchangeably (Brammer, Abridge & Shostrom, 1993).

1.3 Goals of Counseling

Basic to the counseling relationship are the goals of counseling. Different theories of counseling tend to state these in global fashion and their stated goals involve reorganizing the total personality of the individual. Adherents to these theories believe that the presenting problem of the client is actually a symptom of an underlying cause and the cause itself must be the focus of counseling. The goal of psychoanalytical approach is to make the unconscious conscious and work through unresolved developmental conflicts. The humanistic counselors maintain self-expiration and self-actualization as the basic of counseling while behaviorists stress that the goals of counseling must be stated in specific terms and they focus directly on behaviour modification. Despite these general differences the common goals of all approaches is to – among clients, facilitate growth. Goals should be taken as one at a time. They should be measurable, attainable and significant for the client. Furthermore, the goals selected in the initial stage must be translated into target behaviours. Certainly individuals have different perceptions of counseling experience. They seek counseling for certain reasons or expectations to the counseling process. “However, the ultimate decision about what the goals of counseling should be rests the counselor and the client as a team. George and Cnstami (1995) view the following as major goals of the counseling process.

(i) Facilitating Behaviour Change

Almost all theorists contend that the goal of counseling is to bring about a positive change in clients’ behaviour which will minimize their distress, or alleviate their anxiety and enable them live more productive and satisfying life within social limitations. Mental health professionals suggest that the counselor must establish specific and quantifiable goals. Specific and concrete goals help client and counselor understand precisely the specific change that needs to be introduced. It is also possible to keep a track of the rate and amount of change brought in by the counseling within a specific time period.

(ii) Enhancing Coping Skills

A major goal of almost all counseling theories is to build up clients capacities, tap their internal resources and enhance their coping skills, to deals stress. The counseling process focuses on helping clients make good adjustment, modify maladaptive behaviour and learn productive ways to handle socially demanding

situations. It teaches client to live more rationally, correct faulty assumptions and to become psychologically strong to cope with calamities. This is mainly done by helping them gain a better understanding of the nature of the stress and reconceptualizing its significance. They are taught to be aware of their own role in creating their stress, coping skills to deal with stress, coping skills such as cognitive restructuring problem—solving relaxation training behavioral rehearsal and self-monitoring are taught to help them make effective problem solvers.

(iii) Promoting Decision Making

One of the definitions of counseling is that it is aimed at helping people make choices and act on them. Thus a major goal of counseling is to enable the individual to make critical decisions in collaboration with the counselor. It is not the counselors' job to decide on client's part rather he or she is supposed to help client learn why and how a realistic decision is made and how its probable consequences can be estimated realistically, in terms of personal sacrifice, efforts, money, time, energy and risk involved. This approach facilitates client's independence and broadens his or her vision. They learn to identify the problem, determine values, set goals and explore alternatives. They make tentative decisions and plan actions accordingly. Evaluation of the outcomes is also a continued part of the process.

(iv) Improving Relationships

Much of individual life is spent in social interaction with other human beings yet many clients experience strong hesitation in relating to other people. This hesitation or resistance to interact with other fellow-beings can be attributed to low self-esteem or poor self-image. It could also be the consequence of inadequate social skills that push clients to act defensively. Whatever the cause, counselors help such clients by teaching them effective communication patterns and adequate social skills. As counseling helps clients gain better self image and adequate self-confidence, their defenses break and they feel encouraged to take initiative in building effective interpersonal relationships. Difficulties with relationships can range from the family, parent-child and marital problems of adults to the peer group and work set up. In all such cases, the counselors strive to help clients improve the quality of their lives by becoming more effective in their interpersonal relationships.

(v) Facilitating The Clients Potential

Developing the clients potential is another major goal of counseling though it is ambiguous and a bit nonspecific. Certainly counseling seeks to facilitate clients' development by giving them the opportunity to learn ways to sharpen their abilities and use their skills to the maximum. The purpose is to improve clients' effectiveness, empower them to do something possible which they have been promising themselves to do but did not really believe they are capable to do it. This capacity building emphasis in counseling helps people learn how to overcome their

inhibitions, anxieties, fears or limitations. It also promotes the whole wellness of the individuals including physical, social, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects of their personality. Thus counseling is oriented to challenge clients to make changes that will lead them living fully and authentically, rather than just adjusting to norms. They are continually involved in the process of self-actualization by releasing of an already existing capacity, within themselves (Rogers, 1959).

1.4 Counseling Relationship

The counseling relationship can be defined as a systematic and intentional attempt to assist another person make self-determined improvements in behaviour, feelings and/or thoughts. The process of counseling develops in definable stages with recognizable transitions (Gladding 1996) Regardless of the setting which one may practice, the relationships with one's client are crucial to any progress one might make. Very little can be accomplished unless a high degree of intimacy and trust between the counselor and the client are established (Kottler & Brown, 1997) Rogers (1964), asserts that a very, special kind of relationship is required for counselor to be effective and influential.

From the outset of the first encounter, the client is in need of some assistance and the counselor is identified as an expert with specialized knowledge, talents and skills to provide the desired help. The relationship, therefore, is professional involving a sort of contract in which both parties—client and counselor agree to abide by certain rules. The client to show up on time to pay fee promptly, and to make an effort to be as open as possible, and the counselor to be trustworthy, to safeguard the rights of the clients, and to do everything possible to help the client reach identified goals in the most efficient period of time.

Many practitioners such as Rogers (1957), Boy and Pine (1990) and Egan (1994) try to minimize the power dimensions of the relationship. To them equality is crucial to change while others contend that counselor's powerful position is strategically, more influential in facilitating change. Thus in addition to any of the characteristics found in other successful human relationships, the therapeutic relationship has several identifying features such as trust, acceptance and a pattern of successive development. Counseling relationships are the forum for change to take place in which the counselors seek to promote changes in the clients through skills power and the force of interacting personalities. For the relationships to work well both client and counselor must come to an agreement as to the causes of the representing complaints and what must be done to make things better. The most effective relationships are characterized by non-possessive warmth, agreement on goals, open communication and collaborative partnership. "Core conditions" prescribed by Rogers (1967) such as genuineness, empathic understanding and unconditional positive regard must be in evidence within the relationship. The basic hypothesis, he held, was that "if I can provide a certain type of relationship, the other person will discover within himself or herself the capacity to use that relationship for growth and change and personal development will occur. According to Rogers, six conditions are necessary, and sufficient for personality changes to occur. These include:

psychological contact between counselor and client, congruence, unconditional positive regard, empathic understanding, communication of the therapist's empathic understanding to the client and at least minimum state of anxiety on the part of the client. From Rogers perspective, the client/counselor relationship is characterized by equality. He further believes that three personal characteristics or attitudes of the therapist form a central part of this therapeutic alliance: i) congruence or genuineness, ii) unconditional positive regard and iii) accurate empathic understanding.

Most approaches share the same ground in accepting the importance of the therapeutic relationship and view the personal relationship as the crucial determinant of treatment outcomes. For Lazarus (1992), client/therapist relationship is the soil that enables the therapist's techniques to take root. Faculty cognitions and maladaptive behaviours can only be corrected within a context of a warm, caring and non-threatening atmosphere. Thus process of change in the client depends to a large extent on the quality of equal relationship. Three personal characteristics or attitudes of the therapist that research has confirmed are briefly explained as below:

(i) Congruence or Genuineness

The first and foremost characteristic of quality relationship as identified by counseling authorities is “the therapist's congruence — a correspondence between feelings experienced internally and feelings displayed externally” (Kottler and Brown, 1997, p.77). This frame of mind implies that the therapist is real, genuine, integrated and authentic in his approach. It is the condition of being transparent in the therapeutic relationships by giving up roles and facades. It means “taking off of the mask” or “tearing down the wall” (Meador and Rogers, 1984) Through authenticity or congruence, therapists serve as model — struggling toward greater realness. However, it does not mean that the counselor should impulsively share all feelings, however, self-disclosure must be appropriate. Nor it implies that the client is the cause of the therapist's boredom or frustration. It only means being real and sincere in one's relationship with others. Its effective use reduces emotional distance between the counselor and client.

(ii) Empathic Understanding

Rogers (1961) describes empathy as the therapist's ability to enter the client's phenomenal world — to experience the client's world as if it were his/her own without ever losing the as if' quality'. The concepts of genuineness and empathic understanding are closely related. The therapist tries to 'immerse' himself in the inner world of the client and experiences the world from client's perspective. This experience will take the therapist beyond the world of the client without losing his or her professional identity. By moving freely in the phenomenal world of the clients, the therapists not only communicate to them an understanding of what is already, known to them but can also pinpoint their incongruities and meanings of which the clients are only dimly aware (Corey, 1996).

Empathy involves two specific skills: perception and communication. An authentic counselor not only perceives the inner and cultural frame of a client but also communicates his or her understanding of dynamics pertaining to client's personality. The ability to communicate clearly plays a vital role in any counseling relationship. Patterson and Eisenberg (1983) view empathy as two fold; primary and secondary. Primary empathy is the therapist's ability to respond in such a way, that it is manifested to both the client and the counselor it means that the counselor has understood the client's major concern. Primary empathy is conveyed through verbal and nonverbal responses. Advanced empathy is the process, helping client explore themselves, concerns and emotions that are beyond his or her awareness. Thus primary empathy forms the foundation of the helping relationship as it communicates to clients that the counselor understands their experiences and through this understanding is able to facilitate increased self-awareness. The skill of advanced empathy challenges the clients to take deeper look at self.

(iii) Positive Regard

Positive regard or the unqualified acceptance of the client by the counselor is another characteristic of therapeutic relationship. This attitude is closely related to warmth and exists independent of clients' behavior. This attitude of respect for client's individuality and worth as a person allows clients to be open and to be themselves because they know that they are not being judged. By demonstrating this nonjudgmental attitude, the counselors express a belief in client's abilities to deal with their own problems and thus help them actualize the power, ability and skills already possessed by them. Rogers (1967) has described this type of respect as the ability of the counselor to communicate to his client a deep and genuine care for him as a person with potentialities. His caring attitude is uncontaminated by evaluations of his thoughts, feelings or behaviours. It means that the therapist will avoid any behaviour overtly or covertly that is judgmental. He does not probe unnecessarily neither expresses approval nor disapproval. Counselor's unconditional positive regard and accurate understanding act together and provide an atmosphere in which the clients feel accepted, trusted and understood. They are strongly urged to feel a commitment to the relationships, which inspires hope and help the client believe in the process and in the expertise of the counselor as an influencer.

1.5 Personal Characteristics of Effective Counselors

The role of the counselor has changed in many ways over the past few years. The major settings in which counselors practice, have shifted from almost exclusively from school and career counseling to areas such as private practice, community mental health centers and medical institutions. The effectiveness of counseling depends more on what the counselor is than on what the counselor knows or can do. Cankhuff and his associates (Cankhuff & Berenson 1977; Truax & Cankhuff, 1967) have identified through extensive research investigations the "core conditions" of effective counseling. The summary indicates that fully functioning counselors are characterized with genuineness, empathic understanding positive regard, professional commitment and alertness to the world.

Combs and his coworkers, (1969) and George & Cristioni (1995) concluded from a series of studies that the major “technique” that effective counselors employed, was the ‘self-as-instrument’. He further concluded that effective counselors perceived other people as ‘able’ rather than unable to solve their own problem ‘dependable’ friendly’ and ‘worthy’. They also identified with people rather than things. Combs and Super discovered that effective counselors perceived themselves as altruistic and not dominating. Rogers (1961) maintained that the counselor’s theory, training and techniques were for less important than the client’s perception of the counselor’s attitude. Allen (1967) described that effective counselors are persons who are on relatively good terms with their own emotional experiences and that the ineffective counselors are those who are relatively uneasy with their inner world.

A composite list of qualities of effective counselors has been prepared by many authorities such as Corey (1996) George and Cristini (1995), Gladding (1996) and Kottler and Brown (1997). One must bear on mind that these characteristics are generally found in effective counselors and that the list is incomplete and still evolving. Cavanaugh (1982, in Gladding, 1996) stresses that while knowledge and skills are important education cannot change a person’s basic characteristics. Effective counselors grow as persons and others do the same. They are culturally sensitive, can monitor their own biases, listen actively, ask for clarification and use their ‘self’ as instrument. Qualities of effective counselors include the following:

1. Intellectual Competence

Counselors must have thorough knowledge of various personality theories and helping orientations. They understand their own culture and the cultural conditioning of their clients including values, biases and attitudes that may hinder or prompt their growth. They should be knowledgeable of their client’s worldview, sociopolitical factors and their influence on their lives. They acquire certain skills in working with culturally diverse populations. Set goals methods consistent with life experiences and cultural values of their clients.

2. High energy level

Counseling is an emotionally draining and physically demanding activity. The counselors must have the ability to stay alert and relaxed in their sessions, listen to their clients accurately and respond to them promptly. They need to be healthy, vibrant and inspiring in their style so that they can communicate strength to their clients, plant hope and inspire self—confidence among their clients. They usually do not instruct but do stimulate natural growth and inherent potential. According to Kottler & Brown (1997) to be a counselor means making a commitment to a profession and subjugation to one’s own needs.

3. Flexibility

Effective counselors are flexible and open to change. They are not tied to a specific set of responses rather they extend and reinvent themselves and show willingness and courage to meet new challenges. They are ready to expand their awareness and become more therapeutic as person. They are open-minded and are able to tolerate ambiguity.

They do not mechanically imitate others rather develop their own personal theory, and style of counseling as an outgrowth of their life experiences. They are models of inner strength that helps them adjust to circumstances beyond their control.

4. Support

Authentic counselors support their clients in making realistic and attainable decisions. They encourage their clients in changing their maladaptive behaviour patterns, instill hope, promote their self-esteem and avoid typing to be their rescuers. They are generally perceived by their clients as warm, caring, nutrient and supportive. They are compassionate, patient, sensitive and practical by style.

5. Goodwill

Counselor must work on behalf of clients in a constructive way that ethically enhances their self-reliance and independence. They share strong interest in social service personal warmth and genuine interest in clients' well-fare. They stimulate clients trust-lower, their defenses and suspend critical judgment. They try to accomplish these goals by helping clients become fully functioning individuals, more trusting of self-perceptions together with a greater acceptance of self and others. This type of attitude inculcates independence among clients.

6. Self-Awareness

Self-awareness consists of knowledge of self, personal values, interests and abilities. Self-knowledge allows counselors to know the purpose of their behaviors, intentions, biases and nature of problems, they are dealing with. Healthy and authentic counselors know themselves well. Of all the goals of counseling and psychotherapy, self-knowledge is probably the most central and universal. Theoreticians from major orientations clearly agree about the importance of self-exploration and self-knowledge. Self-awareness keeps counselors from allowing themselves to intervene with the therapeutic process. Counseling is more therapeutic when counselors are more aware of their personal concerns, issues and conflicts. (Parrot. 1997).

7. Awareness of Cultural Experiences

Another distinguishing characteristic of effective and successful counselors is their ability to be comfortable with and relate to people who differ culturally from them. One of the most significant trend in relation to clientele being served by professional counselors is that their services are being utilized by the diverse population seen in terms of age, race, ethnicity, gender and sexual orientation, many leaders in the field confider 'multiculturalism' to be the fourth force in the profession (Ivey, 1997). This force calls for the reexamination of assumptions inherent in the delivery of mental health services. Thus the counselors need to be trained to address these problems as well as explore the effectiveness how these services should be delivered. They need to develop awareness and understanding of multicultural factors and learn to translate the skills, strategies and techniques of

counseling appropriately to match culturally, different populations (Pederson, 1991, and Capuzzi & Gross, 1997).

1.6 Need of Counseling

Counseling is not exclusively for the ‘sick’ neither is it aimed at curbing the psychological ailments. Corey (1996), maintains that such a focus on counseling or psychotherapy severely restricts therapeutic practice because it emphasizes one’s limitations rather than searches for one’s assets. It promotes self-awareness, helps individuals to anticipate, plan and react constructively to development issues and transition. With professional help individuals become capable to integrate thinking, feeling and behaviour into a congruent expression of self, develop effective interpersonal skills so that relationship with peers, family and colleagues can have constructive potential, it also helps them become independent, mature and self-actualizing in the shortest time possible.

1.7 Summary

Counseling aims at helping people develop adaptive life skills and work toward psychological growth and enhance personal mastery. Almost all counselors contend that the goal of counseling is to: (i) bring about a positive change in client’s behaviour, (ii) enhance their coping skills, (iii) build up their potential, (iv) promote decision – making and (v) improve the quality of their lives by becoming more effective in their interpersonal relationships.

Building a relationship, the first stage in counseling, is a continuous process. An effective counselor wins the battle for structure by creating an atmosphere where the client is comfortable about sharing thoughts and feelings. Counseling may occur in any setting but counselors need to be aware of the physical setting in which the counseling takes place. Clients may adjust to any room but certain qualities about the environment such as seating arrangement, make counseling more effective. The internal interaction in the counseling relationship is marked by fear and anxiety. Effective counselors are able, often within the first few minutes, to relieve a client’s apprehensions, Counselors’ genuineness, empathic attitude, and acceptance of clients as able, self-revealing, and capable of growth and their non-possessive warmth and concrete intervention promote a therapeutic alliance between them and their clients. Regardless of the external circumstances, theoretical knowledge and formal techniques, their use as an instrument proves to be the best technique of bringing a positive change in the clients. The relationship may be further enhanced by the counselors conveying of empathy, verbal and nonverbal expression of positive regard, equality and trust in the clients’ potential for personal growth.

The qualities necessary to become an effective counselor will probably increase as counseling evolves as a profession. Yet there will always be some basic qualities — that must be achieved by all counselors to become effective.

The core personality of counselors is crucial. Effective counselors are generally characterized as warm, friendly, open, sensitive, patient and creative. They are consistently working on their own mental health and strive to avoid becoming burn out and ineffective. Educationally, they go through credited counseling program obtain licensure, certification or both. They keep their knowledge up to date, have theoretical orientation and are systematic in their approach. They interpret and use a variety of theories and techniques in accordance with their practice. Over all becoming and staying effective is a constant challenge for most counselors.

2. COUNSELING: PERSON-CENTERED THEORY

Rooted in the principles of humanistic psychology, person-centered therapy has an enormous amount of research though it was not developed from laboratory. It is a continually developing approach, which is unique in its orientation. Its central hypothesis is that humans are rational beings, ruled by perception of self, equipped with an innate overriding motivation to actualize and develop all their abilities and potential, becoming the self that one truly is:

Carl Rogers (1902-187) emerged as a significant force in the field. He believed personality can be understood from the person's own viewpoint. In tracing the major turning points in his approach, four periods of development can be identified. The first period was during 1940s, when he introduced his theories as 'nondirective counseling' as reaction against directive and traditional psychoanalysis. He challenged the basic assumption that the counselor knows best and the validity of commonly accepted therapeutic procedures. The central emphasis of his approach was on the counselor's genuineness and his or her acceptance of client. Clarification of feelings was his central technique for promoting clients' personal insight.

The second period was during 1950s when he renamed his approach 'client-centered therapy'. During this phase the central importance was given to the phenomenological world of the client. He focused more exclusively on the actualizing tendency of humans as the basic motivational force that leads to change. Rogers also emphasized the necessary and sufficient conditions to bring about this change.

During the third phase in the 1960s, he continued testing his hypotheses by conducting extensive research. He studied the quality of the clients/counselor relationship as catalyst learning to personality. Research refined his approach and influenced the process of education.

During the 1970s and 1980s, his approach was marked by considerable expansion and was known as 'person-centered' approach. Rogers considered his theory to be "constantly evolving, going beyond the boundaries of individual counseling and becoming relevant to groups, marriages, families and international relations (Gladding 1996).

2.1 View of Human Nature

Rogers rejected the Freudian concept of human beings as basically bad, irrational, doomed to anxiety and self-destructive. Instead he asserted that people are essentially good, positive, forward moving, constructive and trust-worthy. He contended that each person is aware, inner-directed, and Self-perfecting. Childhood experiences have some impact on personality development but experiences later in life are more vital. For him, the ultimate goal in life is to become a fully functioning person. Hence self-actualization is the most prevalent and motivating drive. "The individual has the capacity to guide regulate and control himself, providing only that certain definable conditions exist" (Rogers, 1959).

Rogers view of human personality can be summarized into four basic areas. 1) Humans are trustworthy; 2) they innately move themselves toward self-actualization, 3) respond to their uniquely perceived world and 4) have inner resources to make choices and act upon them.

Rogers is strongly committed to the belief in the dignity and worth of each individual. He even emphasized that each individual lives essentially in his own subjective world. His self-concept becomes an important aspect of his perception. One's perceptions and interactions with the environment change as the Image of self-changes. Roger's belief in the basic goodness of man and an innate tendency to grow and actualize was continuously reinforced.

2.2 The Structure of Personality

Rogers's theory of personality, involves three essential components: the organism, the phenomenal field and the self. (Hansen, stevic and arner Jr. 1982).

(a) The Organism

The organism refers to the total person. It is the total organized system that includes thoughts, behaviors, emotions as well as one's physical being. It functions as an organized whole and is equipped with the urge to expand, extend, develop and mature (Rogers, 1961 p. 351). It simply means that human beings are motivated by a tendency to actualize, maintain and enhance the self. They allow some experiences to become part of their consciousness while deny others that hamper their growth or the self-actualization process.

(b) The Phenomenal Field

The phenomenal Field refers to one's inner world of experience. It is the individual's ever-changing subjective world or internal frame of reference...available at the conscious level at a given moment. Only the person himself knows about it. Other can only understand it through empathy. Rogers asserts that what a person perceives in his phenomenal world, is more important than the reality of one's environment though his perceptions may not coincide with the objective reality. Hence, each person's view of reality is private and serves the basis for his judgments and behaviours. An individual's

perceptions change with time and situation. As the individual grows and gets exposed to more sources of stimulation, his experiential world broadens. Higher levels of development sharpen his phenomenal world and leads to the formation of the self.

(c) The Self

The concept of self is perhaps the most important component of Roger's theory of personality. In his view the self is a differentiated portion of the phenomenal field of the person, referred as 'I' and 'me'. It is the center around which the personality evolves. Rogers perceived 'self' as an organized whole which develops out of organism's interaction with the environment. Thus the self is an outgrowth of an individual's experiences. As it develops, it tends to incorporate as well as distort some values of its environment. Experiences consistent with the self-concept of an individual are integrated and those not consistent with self are denied or are perceived as threats. Rogers placed great emphasis on self-insight or self-understanding and described it as the most important predictor of later behavior. The self as the core of personality is always in process. Continuing interaction with the phenomenal field influences its growth. Rogers believed that human tendency to actualize, maintain and enhance the self is innate and encompasses all sorts of needs. Actualization as the basic human tendency, programmed our genetic make-up is responsible for maturation. However, the process involves in struggle and pain, as it is neither automatic nor effortless.

2.3 Personality Development

(a) Organisms Valuing Process

Organismic valuing process refers to an ongoing individual mode of evaluating life experiences in terms of the satisfaction experienced by the organism. Experiences that promote the process of self—actualization are considered desirable while experiences that hinder this process, are perceived as undesirable and carry, negative value. These perceptions influence human behavior. Humans avoid undesirable experiences and wish to repeat valuable or desirable experiences. The actualizing tendency is the criterion of these experiences.

(b) Positive Regard from Others

As the self develops, its need for positive regard emerges. This need is probably learned though it is universal and persistent. Positive regard means acceptance, love and approval from others, especially from parents. Rogers believed that positive regard is crucial to human development. The child begins to rate his behaviour as good or bad in terms of how others respond him. This need can only be served by others especially by significant ones. Unconditional positive regard inculcates feelings of personal worth. It implies mother's love for the child given freely and fully. An important characteristic of the need for positive regard is that it is reciprocal by nature. Satisfying other's need for positive regard is rewarding. It stimulates child to respond to others with behaviours that elicit satisfying responses. Similarly unconditional positive regard from significant others leads positive self-regard and development of a healthy personality.

(c) Conditions of Worth

As indicated earlier, unconditioned positive regard from others fosters positive self-image and promotes healthy growth of human personality. However, many of the experiences that are valued by the organismic valuing process do not receive positive regard from others. As a result, the individual tends to avoid or deny such experiences, gradually children learn that parental love and approval depends on certain behaviours. Eventually they internalize external standards of judgment and develop self-regard only in those situations that elicit parental approval, Rogers perceives one's self-concept as a parental surrogate. Children view themselves worthy or unworthy according to the standards prescribed by the parents, thus they learn to avoid certain behaviours irrespective of how rewarding or satisfying they may otherwise be. They inhibit their own development by living within the conditions of worth.

Rogers believed that psychological adjustment and health is a function of congruence or compatibility between an individual's self-concept and his experiences. Healthy or fully, functioning people are able to perceive themselves and the world around them objectively. None of their experiences need to be denied or distorted. All of their experiences will facilitate their growth, promote all facets of their personality and fulfill the actualizing tendency. But the experiences that are perceived as incompatible or incongruent with one's self-concept will generate anxiety. The individual feels threatened and tries hard to defend himself. Self-interjected conditions of worth cause estrangement and the need for self-deception arises. Thus the individual develops inflexible and maladaptive pattern of behavior. A high degree of inconsistency between the self-concept and the experience generally creates a constant state of anxiety.

2.4 The Therapeutic Process

(a) Therapeutic Goals

One of the most important characteristics of Person-centered therapy is that it allows the clients to set goals. Goal-setting by the counselor is perceived as interference with the student's basic motivating force, the need for self-actualization. The global goal of the person-centered therapy is to help the individual re-institute the process toward self-actualization by removing the obstacles to this process. Each individual is expected to set individualized goal consistent with his resources and potential. In Roger's view counseling is aimed for the "releasing of an already, existing capacity in a potentially, competent individual". Counselor's belief in the self-directing capacity of the individual conveys his reliance on the client's resources and diminishes the therapist's role as an expert.

(b) Role of the Counselor

Rogers views the counselor's role as holistic one, who with his authenticity and non-possessive warmth creates an atmosphere that encourages the client to explore all aspects of the self. The therapists' role is rooted in their ways of being and attitude, and not in techniques, theories or knowledge. They use themselves as instrument of change with a

special “-thou” personal quality. Their role is to be without roles’ (Corey, 1996). The person-centered therapist builds a helping relationship that assures clients their freedom, worth, acceptance and trust in their potential. They become less defensive by experiencing unconditional positive regard and explore areas of their life that had ever been denied or misunderstood. Therapists’ genuineness, empathic understanding and trust in clients create essential conditions for growth. Their non evaluative attitude enables clients to develop and regulate their own behavior. They become more mature and reinstitute the process of actualization by removing the obstacles. Rogers views these conditions as necessary and sufficient for effective counseling. With these parameters therapists do not interpret meaning for the client nor they question clients’ integrity. Clients are accepted as they are and for what they are. Hence, the counselors use themselves in spontaneous, creative, empathic and altruistic ways (Gladding, 1996).

(c) Techniques and Procedures

The person-centered therapy shifted the focus from **what** the therapist does to **who** the therapist is. The primary emphasis is on relationship itself. The person-centered therapy can be described as ‘if, then’ theory. If certain conditions exist in the attitude of the therapist, namely congruence, unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding, then growthful change will take place in the client. Rogers has postulated six necessary and sufficient conditions but three of them are essential. They are the therapists’ genuineness’, accurate empathy and non-evaluative attitude. For him accurate empathy cannot be developed without a considerable degree of unconditional positive regard. He believes that neither empathy nor unconditional positive regard can be gained unless the therapist is real of genuine as a person. These three conditions are interdependent and logically related. If the counselor, successfully communicate genuineness, unconditional positive regard and empathy, then change will occur. Rogers continued to believe these three conditions as the ‘core’ of counseling process. Thus therapist is simply viewed as a facilitator who allows the client to move toward on inherent tendency of growth. Rogers (1961) writes, “Studies with a variety of clients show that when these three conditions occur in the therapist and when they are to some degree perceived by the client, therapeutic movement ensues, the client finds himself painfully but definitely learning and growing and both he and his counselor regard the outcome as successful”. He further states that “It is therapists’ technical knowledge and skill which are primarily responsible for therapeutic change.” (1961, p. 63).

The persons-centered approach emphasizes on here and now or current existence of the individual. The counselor’s do not focus on the past experiences of the clients. Neither diagnosis is given any importance. It is rather dangerous for counselors to diagnose clients as it implies denial of the human worth and dignity. Instead the counselors take the client as a unique and self-determining being with a potential for self-diagnosis and remediation (George & Cristinai, 1995).

Another major feature of the person-centered approach is on the emotional rather than the intellectual aspects in the therapeutic relationship. The client may be aware of his

thoughts and ideas, but responds emotionally. Counselor's emphasis on clients' feelings about themselves may enable them to view their situation more objectively.

Since the emphasis of this approach is not techniques but on the ability of the counselors to establish therapeutic alliance, they must be patient, persistent and active listening to understand the client's internal frame of reference. This deep recognition of the clients' internal frame of reference must be effectively communicated to the clients to improve their self-understanding and implement their actualizing tendency. Therapists' attention, trust and belief in clients' potential help them explore themselves. This self-recognition and self-acceptance initiate the growth process and build new level of self-confidence,

Counseling sessions that focus on feelings or relationship dynamics differ markedly from information-oriented interviews. They concentrate more on clients' emotions and attitudes. Common counselor's intervention strategies of the person centered approach are focused around providing the conditions of genuineness, unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding in the relationship. To be genuine, therapists need to look closely at them-selves and be more congruent than their clients. It helps clients establish trust in the genuineness of the therapist and plays important role in facilitating clients' movement toward growth (Egan, 1990).

The first technique emphasized in person-centered therapy is active listening and reflection of content and feelings. After putting them-selves in the best possible position, counselors must then hear and attend to what verbal and nonverbal messages are given by the clients. Reflection of content and feelings of the clients, promote clients, self-understanding and facilitate the process of self-exploration. A truly therapeutic relationship lets the clients see relevant parts of the therapists' phenomenal field through his appropriate self-disclosure. However, it should be brief and focused. Therapist's appropriate and brief sharing gives clients the chance to review and revise their life style and develop new perspective 'Immediacy' is another therapeutic intervention that provides a here and now focus to the relationship. It verifies reactions between client and counselor. Egan (1990) believes that immediacy needs more courage or assertiveness than any other interpersonal communication skill. It is important to note that there is little need for extensive questioning in the person centered approach. The therapists' function is to follow the client rather than to continually suggest what concerns or issues need to be explored. Of prime importance in implementing the process of counseling is the counselors' attitude toward the client. They must perceive the internal frame of reference of the individual as accurately and completely as possible and then feed these perceptions back to the client. Because of their accurate empathetic attitude, the counselors become alter ego for the client a self out of self (Hansen, Stevic and Warner Jr, 1982).

2.5 Evaluation

It is clear that the person-centered therapy does no place much emphasis on counseling techniques. The emphasis is almost exclusively on the quality of the relationship. It focuses on the ability of the counselor to establish relationships in which the six

necessary conditions are established. He revolutionized the field and made a radical innovation by using audiotape recording of counseling sessions. He also linked counseling with psychotherapy and basically “turned the field upside down” (Rogers, 1974, p.115). He also made the person-centered approach more applicable to a wide range of human problems. This approach has generated a great deal of research and set the standards for doing research on counseling variables. According to Goodyear (1987) in Gladding, (1996) no model of therapy is more researched than the person-centered therapy.

The approach is effective. It helps improve psychological adjustment, learning, stress tolerance and tenders effective treatment to mild and moderate anxiety, adjustment disorders and interpersonal relations. Specific dimensions of the relationship have been examined which offer positive view of human nature and put strong belief in human basic goodness, innate tendency for self-actualization. It maintains that the best source of knowledge about individuals is not assessment devices but the person himself. People without advanced psychological education on training are able to benefit from it by establishing the core conditions and using their self as instrument. Rogers’s stress on ‘self-concept and how it works as the primary predictor of later behaviour is another significant contribution. Its emphasis on reflective listening, internal frame of reference of the client, counselors’ avoidance of taking responsibility for making decisions for the clients, help them recognize their own power and facilitate their growth. Several studies provide support for Rogers’s certain concepts yet this therapy has some limitations. The concepts are relatively few but have virtually and unlimited complexity because counselors must be fully aware of both their ‘clients’ and their own phenomenal worlds. This is a difficult job and requires an excellent self-understanding and continuing awareness of the clients. (Capuzzi & Gross, 1999). The approach initially provides few instructions for counselors on how to establish relationships with clients and bring about change. It also gives few specific guidelines as when, where and how confrontation should be employed to point out incongruities noted in clients’ verbal and nonverbal behaviours. However it is effective with bright, cognitive and consistent clients and has limited applicability for severely handicapped or very young children. It places no importance to diagnosis, the unconscious and aggressive drives. Many authorities think it is overly optimistic and can deal with surface issues only. Since person-centered approach is short-term, it cannot make a permanent impact on the clients, through it is especially applicable warmth, motivate people to do something to work through crisis, resolve conflicts and bring about healing.

2.6 Summary

The person-centered approach continues to be the most popular among affective approaches. It sounds are of the easiest theories to learn and administer yet it needs lot of conscious effort on the part of the therapist to be genuine and empathic in his approach. The theory holds humans to be conscious and rational beings who are not controlled by unconscious forces or past experiences. Their personality can be understood from an individual viewpoint, based on his or her personal experiences. The goal is self-

actualization an innate tendency that fosters growth and development. The organismic valuing process evaluates life experiences. Positive regard—a need for acceptance, love and approval from others and conditions of worth involve seeing ourselves as worthy under those conditions acceptable to our parents. Incongruence will develop between the self-concept and threatening behaviours and perceptions and we begin defending ourselves by denying or distorting certain aspects of our phonological field. But when the environmental conditions are growth conducive, the process of self actualization takes place and the person becomes fully functioning. The person lives fully in each moment, trusts himself, and enjoys sense of freedom and personal power.

Rogers's optimistic image of human nature encompassed a belief in free will. The task of the therapist is to facilitate the client's awareness of and trust in his own actualizing processes. The primary characteristic of person-centered therapy is that of the attitude of the therapist that creates the optimal climate in which the client will be allowed to unfold his own growth. The process of therapy is truly centered in the client whose inner experiences dictate the pace and direction of the counseling session. The role of the therapist is rooted not in doing but in being. His major task is to provide climate of safety and trust that accomplishes this task through accurate empathic understanding, congruence and unconditional positive regard. Rogers was first to expose the practice of counseling to audio recording.

Person centered therapy relies heavily on the client but the approach leads many to challenge the accuracy of the clients' self-appraisals. Despite Rogers's significant influence, however, most psychotherapists do not claim person-centered therapy as their primary, orientation. The major reason can be attributed to its paucity of ideas and lack of evolution.

3. COUNSELING: BEHAVIOUR THERAPY

Behavior therapy is a relatively new perspective evolved in late 1950s. The term behaviour encompasses a wide range of ideas, theories and practices. At one end it is known as the works of J.B. Watson and B.F. Skinner who predominantly emphasized on learning principles and made no reference to internal states to account for behavior. Their work is considered as the antithesis of the psychoanalytic, trait theory, life span, cognitive and humanistic approaches. On the other end of the continuum are cognitive behavioral therapists who emphasize the significance of cognitive processes. The current emphasis on behavioral perspective recognizes that behaviour and cognitions play a reciprocal role in the process of change (Barelay, 1980, in Gladding 1996).

In the beginning, behaviorism was almost entirely concerned with outward behaviour and promoted scientific approach. In the 1940s and 50s, it gained more prominence. B.F. Skinner's work in operant conditioning and Joseph Woples (1985) study, of respondent conditioning introduced behaviour therapy to resolving client problems. John Krumboltz

(1966) is credited for revolutionizing the counseling profession by gaining widespread acceptance of behaviour therapy in the 1970s by the 1980s. Behavioral approaches were generally split into three main theories Respondent learning, operant conditioning and social modeling.

J.B. Watson is usually recognized as the most influential person in the development of behaviorism. It was a reaction against Freudian emphasis on unconscious forces and introspection as the method of investigation adopted by young psychology. Using Pavlov's principles of conditioning several other well-known conditioning behaviorists such as Eysenck, Rachman and Wople developed treatments (e.g. systematic desensitization, flooding etc., based on classical conditioning and counter-conditioning. Behavioral methodology continues to have a strong influence on cognitive behavioural research (Capuzzi and Gross, 1999).

B.F. Skinner further developed the school of behaviorism based on the principles of reinforcement and operant conditioning. Skinner maintained that the inner inside of the organism is irrelevant either as the site of physiological processes or as the locus of mentalist activities (Quoted in Schultz and Schultz, 1994). To skinner human beings are empty organisms and the difference between animals and human is in degree not in kind. He believed that the fundamental processes are alike. His work is based on operant conditioning in which reinforces, punishment, extinction and stimulus control is used as key interventions. Skinner asserts that behaviour can be controlled by its consequences. He views that the extent and nature of the reinforcement has the power to control human behavior.

Skinner distinguishes between respondent and operant behavior. Respondent behaviour is a form of conditioning but this behaviour is involuntary and has no effect on the environment, on the other hand behaviours that are emitted, not elicited are operated on the environment and as a result change it. Powerful reinforcement determines and controls such behavior. It shapes behaviour by being contingent upon the response. Skinner identifies several types of reinforces. A primary reinforce has innate reinforcing properties through its association with primary reinforces. For example food is a primary reinforce, while money is a secondary reinforce, Reinforcement, primary or secondary can be scheduled on the basis of number of responses emitted or on time basis Examples of positive reinforcement include food, praise or money etc. Negative reinforcement involves the removal of aversive or unpleasant stimulus such as electric shock, pain etc. reinforcement may be positive or negative, in either case, it strengthens a response and thus increases the likelihood that the response will be repeated. Shaping of behaviour or successive approximation is one of the key concepts in operant conditioning. Skinner developed this procedure to increase the rate at which an operant behaviour is learned, during shaping a baseline rate of responding that is higher than the desired behaviour is chosen and reinforced. When this behaviour closer to the desired final behaviour is reinforced. The contingency is slowly changed until the final desired reinforced. The

contingency is slowly changed until the final desired behaviour is learned and the subject gets reinforcement on its completion only.

3.1 View of Human Nature

B.F. Skinner did not offer a personality theory at all. His work is an attempt to account for all behavior. According to his work, humans are primarily, the products of learning. What has been learned in the childhood, can be unlearned or modified and new behaviour patterns can be acquired at any stage of life. From behavioral perspective, people are neither good nor bad. They are essentially neutral and have the potential for all kinds of behavior. They can learn new behaviors, control their behaviors, are able to influence others since maladaptive behaviour is learned, it can also be unlearned. Behaviorists generally view the stimulus-response paradigm as the basis of all human learning and look at human beings as reactive beings. This learning sequence called conditioning is no different from animals except that animal behaviour is simple. He asserts that all aspects of behaviour are controlled from without by whoever controls the reinforces. Hence humans are the environment, though Skinner rules out the possibility of self determination. The current trend, however, is towards developing procedures that actually promoted clients self-control and increase their freedom. Behaviour modification is one of these procedures.

The mechanistic and deterministic model of human behaviour presented by Skinner has been criticized by many authorities such as Bandura. Others are using behaviorist methods to attain humanistic ends (Corey, 1996). In behaviour therapy as an action oriented approach, clients are asked to act rather than to reflect passively at length on their problems. Given the techniques and specific skills of self-control and self-management, people have the capacity to improve their life by modifying some factors influencing their behavior. Since the current problems are influenced by individual, social learning history, past problems are not neglected though behaviour therapy is historical by nature.

3.2 The Therapeutic Process

(a) Therapeutic Goals

Goals are given primary importance in behaviour therapy. The general goal is to create new conditions for learning. It is the client who sets specifically defined goals at the outset of the therapy. The goals must be clear, concrete and agreed on by the client and the counselor. Continual assessment through-out treatment determines the degree of goal accomplishment. In behaviour therapy, assessment and treatment occur together. The general goals of behaviour therapy are to increase personal choice and effective living (Corey, 1996). Blakham, Silverman Hanser, Stevic and Warner, (1982) suggested four specific steps in establishing the goals of counseling and methods to be employed to achieve these goals: 1) problem definition, 2) developmental and social history, 3) establishing specific goals and 4) determining methods to be used to bring about desired change.

Defining a problem entails both the starting point and the end point. Operations that solve the problems must be identified as well the restrictions that limit what can be done to solve a problem should also be marked. Developmental history of the clients may be helpful for identifying their resources and limitations. Goals must be stated in specific terms and the methods by which the client will operate, should also be outlined. Continuous assessment of these methods is critical.

According to George and Cristiani (1996), behaviour therapy has five general goals: 1) altering the maladaptive behaviour in the client, 2) helping the client learn more effective decision-making process, 3) preventing future problem 4) solving the specific behavioral problem presented by the client and 5) achieving behavioral changes.

(b) Role of the Counselor

Behavior counselors may adopt one of several roles depending on their personal orientation and clients problems (s). Generally they are more active and function as consultant, teacher, and adviser, reinforce and facilitator: they may even instruct or supervise clients in their natural environment and operate from a broad perspective. They employ techniques such as summarizing, reflection, clarification and open-ended questioning but do focus on specifics and are more interested about situational antecedents and consequences. They are more active, directive and prescriptive in their approach. Counselors who are oriented toward social learning serve as models. Since the treatment goals are concrete and measurable in terms, the clients are as aware as the counselor when the goals are accomplished.

Research evidence suggests that a therapeutic relationship even in the context of a behavioral perspective, increases the probability. That the client will be receptive to therapy authorities like Wolpe and Krunboltz (cited in Hanson, Stevic and Warner, 1982) have emphasized the need for therapists to be warm, nonjudgmental, accepting and supportive to their clients. Even classic behaviorists stressed the need that without being warmth, permissive and empathic, client's cooperation and willingness, change cannot be initiated. Clients' positive expectations about the effectiveness of therapy often contribute to successful outcomes. Lazarus (1989) and Corey, (1996) maintains that counselors array of clinical skills and techniques are much effective, once a therapeutic alliance is developed between client and the counselor.

(c) Techniques and Procedures

Behavior therapy is known for some of the best researched and most effective counseling techniques. Corrective learning procedures are continually being modified and refined. They are carefully structured, monitored and improved.

Behavior therapy is characterized by a focus on specific observable behavior. This is an action-oriented approach that employs an objective assessment and pursues concrete and measurable goals. It is generally carried out in the natural environment. The counseling process is a special type of learning. Any change in behaviour is considered a direct result

of the laws of learning that are equally applicable outside the counseling session. However, they do acknowledge the importance of procedures. There is no approved list of techniques as most of them advocate behavioral eclecticism. Lazarus outlines a wide range of techniques, as behavioral therapists do not restrict themselves strictly to methods derived from learning theories. The procedures designed to develop new behaviours or strengthen the some behaviors, include shaping, modeling, contracting and assertive training while those designed to eliminate or weaken behaviours include desensitization, extinction and reinforcement of incompatible behaviours. The selection of therapeutic procedure depends on the clients, nature of the problem, and situational variables. In the following section, some specific behavioral techniques are described briefly.

(d) Systematic Desensitization

Systematic Desensitization, based on the principle of classical conditioning is the first and the most widely employed technique to modify phobic behavior. The procedure is empirically researched and has been used to successfully eliminate fear in phobic individuals for over 30 years. Another application invokes extinction of a person's craving for drug or any other substance.

Systematic desensitization is a therapy developed by Josph Wolpe in 1958 to suppress phobic behavior. The fundamental assumption underlying this technique is that any phobic behaviour or anxiety response is learned or conditioned and can be inhibited by substituting any activity that is antagonistic to it.

Systematic desensitization is primarily used to break down certain anxiety responses and avoidance reactions. During desensitization the anxiety is unlearned or inhibited by an incompatible behaviour, usually deep relaxation. The procedure involves first a behavioral analysis of stimuli that evoke anxiety and then constructing of a hierarchy. Hierarchy is specifically constructed for each person and it consists of a graded series of fear inducing scenes related to that phobia. Generally it consists of 10–15 items of low, moderate and high fear scenes. The client writes description of each scene and then ranks them from lowest to the highest level of fear. There are two major types of hierarchies: thematic and spatial temporal. In the first type of hierarchy, the scenes are related to basic theme while in the second types of hierarchy intensity of fear is determined by distance from the phobic object.

Once the hierarchy is developed, the person learns to relax. The therapist uses soft and pleasant voice to teach progressive relaxation. The training sessions are roughly thirty to forty, minutes long. Master, Burish, Hollon and Rimm, 1987, in Klein. 1996) have indicated that relaxation is most effective when the tension phase lasts approximately to seconds and is followed by 10 to 15 seconds relaxation for each muscle group. The person is instructed to relax, then to imagine as clearly as possible the lowest scene on the hierarchy. Since each scene elicits fear, the first exposure is usually very brief (05 seconds). The duration of exposure to the imagined scene can be slowly increased as counter-conditioning progresses. The person is directed to signal when he or, she is

experiencing fear. The session (visualization) is terminated immediately and the person is instructed to relax. The scene can again be visualized. Once the individual can imagine the first scene without any discomfort, the next scene is imagined. The process continues until the person can imagine the most unpleasant scene without becoming fearful.

The third phase of systematic desensitization is the actual counter conditioning. It means establishing new responses that compete with previously learned response. The last phase of the procedure consists of evaluation. The success of the therapy is evaluated. The effectiveness of the technique is determined by asking the individual to encounter the feared object. Wople (1958) asserts that desensitization has produced a much more rapid extinction of phobic behaviour and the range of phobias is quite large. Clinical research as also proved its effectiveness in treating any behaviour disorder imitated by fear (Klein. 1996). Treatment of nightmares, anorexic nervosa, obsessions, compulsions, stuttering and depression are some examples of its effectiveness.

(e) Assertiveness Training

Assertion training is another technique that has gained wide support. It is particularly worthwhile for individuals who have difficulty” in interpersonal communication or dealings with interpersonal situations. Although assertive training is particularly useful for those who usually are not assertive, however, it can be appropriate for most people who face difficulty asserting themselves in socially demanding situations. They experience anxiety and anxiety inhibits their expression of assertive statement and behavior. The feelings generated are internalized which in turn cause symptoms such as ulcers high blood pressure etc.

Assertive training is ordinarily, practiced in a group setting. It emphasizes teaching clients to assert stand up for their rights without infirming upon the rights of others. It simply involves helping clients to express then true feelings in direct, honest, and appropriate ways. The clients are encouraged to speak up their mind, defending their needs without assuming that others will help them meet these needs. They are told that is no harm in expressing their feelings and that anxiety over expressing them is groundless. Wolpe and Lazarus (1996) and Hasen, Stevic and Warner (1982) contended that assertive behaviour inhibits anxiety generated by the social situation and in itself becomes rewarding. The clients are taught this skill in one to one relationship. The principles of operant conditioning such as reinforcement, shaping and extinction are employed to develop the desired behavior. Once the skill is developed, the clients are instructed to attempt the assertiveness outside of counseling. Counselors support personal warmth, assurance and genuine modeling facilitate this learning the expression of assertive response is paired with a relaxed and no threatening situation. At times counselor’s pressure more than their encouragement is required to perform the assertive behaviour outside the counselors session. General positive feedback from others is expected to act as positive reinforcement for the behavior. It generates healthy feelings about oneself. Once the behaviour is learned, self-reinforcement or absence of criticism will strengthen the desired behavior.

(f) Modeling Methods

Modeling, observational or vicarious learning—all interchangeable terms refer to the process by which the behaviour of an individual or a group acts as stimulus to another individual or group for similar behaviours or attitudes. Like, skinner, Bandura focuses on behaviour rather on any internal motivating variables. Unlike Skinner, however, he acknowledges the significance of cognitive variables. His fundamental assumption is that learning can take place through observation rather than solely by direct reinforcement. Bandura asserts that most human behaviour is learned through example either voluntarily or accidentally. He believes that thought processes can influence observational learning. Humans make a deliberate, conscious effort to behave in a particular way. To learn through observation one must be capable of anticipating and appreciating the consequences of the behaviour they observe in others. Individuals regulate and guide their behaviour by visualizing or imagining the consequences. According to Bandura, learning of new behaviour depends on four processes: 1) attention. 2) Retention, 3) motor reproduction, and 4) motivation or incentive. To learn from observation, attention must be focused on the target behaviour of the model. Second, if the modeled behaviour is to be reproduced, the individual must have the capacity to retain the behaviour in his mind. Third, the individuals must be physically capable to reproduce the behavior. Finally the individuals must receive some incentive for adapting this particular type of behavior. The model presented to the individual may demonstrate some control over personal rather than over the environment. He/She feels competent and autonomous to chose that behaviour and gets acceptance, affection and respect from others. The effectiveness of the model depends upon how” closely the individual can identify with the behaviour of the model. The closer the identification, the greater will be incentive to acquire that behaviour.

There are four basic types of models used in counseling: filmed, live, taped and self as a model. In the first three types the model is presented as an example of the desired behavior. After presenting a filmed or taped model, the counselor uses verbal reinforcements to shape the clients behaviour in the desired direction. Live peer models are usually in-group counseling. The real models are presented to share their experiences and means that actually brought the change. In general, live peer modeling appears to be most effective with personal and social problems (Hansen, Stevic & Warner, 1982). The characteristics of the models do affect human tendency to imitate them. Similarity age, gender, social class and cultural background affect the extent of imitation. Status, prestige and the reward consequences also effect the clients motivation to imitate the model.

Bandura’s observational learning approach has been extensively employed for the of internal processes such phobias. The goal of this modeling is to alter client’s phobic behaviour by vicariously modifying their expectations. Graduated modeling and participant modeling are two examples of live modeling. In graduated modeling therapy clients see the models move closer and closer until the feared object is approached. The effectiveness of this modeling in treating phobic behaviour is research-supported. In this study children who feared dogs, watched peer model interacting with a dog. Eight to ten

minutes sessions during a 3-days period were arranged for these children. At first the models pat the dog in a pen. Then the children saw him walking with dog around the room. In the final session, they saw the model climbing into the pen and playing with the dog. The results indicated that modeling reduced their avoidance behaviour and increased their interaction with dogs. (Klein, 1996).

In Participant modeling, according to Bandura and colleagues, the model (or therapist) encourage the orient to interact with the feared object. The model slowly moves nearer a feared object and asks the orient to follow the model behavior. During the imitation, the model either stands close and gesticulates in direct physical contact with the client or participant modeling continues until the client interacts with the feared object. Bandura asserts that this type of modeling is effective when other treatment modes prove ineffective. The reason is that models presence provides clients with a sense of security and the presence of other people also reduces the emotionality. The model places social pressure on the client to encounter a feared object (Klein, 1996).

During the self-as-a-model procedure, clients are taught self-monitoring and self-observation skills. A list consisting of behaviours to be changed is prepared. A model behaviour is audio or videotaped. The clients are instructed to develop positive self-imagery to call forth their memory to view themselves engaging in the behaviour that was once videotaped.

Bandura presents a less extreme form of behaviour than Skinner. He emphasizes the role of one's observation of others as means of learning. His theory is based on rigorous laboratory research with normal individuals in social situations (Schultz & Schultz 1994).

(g) Self-Management Programs

The program of self-management or self-directed behaviour is concerned with understanding mechanisms which are involved in the process of therapeutic change. A tremendous amount of research literature is available on the effectiveness of these programs. Though behaviour therapy radically differs from other approaches, there is a growing trend toward integrating cognitive and behavioral methods to help client's manage their problems effectively. Self-management is relatively a recent phenomenon in counseling and therapy. Its strategies include (though not limited to) self-monitoring, self-reward, self-contracting and stimulus control. Besides anxiety depression and pains. They are applied to many other problems and to diverse populations (Corey, 1996).

The fundamental assumption of self-management programs is that change can be brought about by teaching people to use coping skills in problematic situations. The clients are encouraged to accept the responsibility for carrying out these strategies in everyday life and to a large variety of situations. Control of smoking, drinking and drugs, skill to manage time, discipline eating habits and other issues such as obesity are taught. Self-observation makes people aware that they lack certain skills. This awareness leads to their eagerness to learn effective skill that can facilitate their goal-directed behavior. Self-

management programs provide the guidelines for change. Cormier and Cormier (1991) and Corey, (1996) have identified five characteristics of an effective self-management program:

- (1) A Combination of self-management strategies is usually, more beneficial than a single strategy:
- (2) Consistent use of self-management strategies is essential to produce any significant change:
- (3) The goals must be realistic, attainable, and measurable. Periodic assessment will help clients evaluate their performance:
- (4) Self-reinforcement is an important component of such programming:
- (5) Environmental support is necessary to maintain changes that result from such programs.

Watson and Tharp and Corey, (1996) and some other authorities have designed a model for self-directed change. The essential components of this model are 1) Setting realistic goals, 2) translating goals into target behaviours and 3) self-monitoring. Specific, measurable and attainable goals should be established in the initial stage. The goals selected in the initial stage should be translated into target behaviours. Systematic and deliberate self-control will add to his or her accomplishment. A plan for change will help clients gradually replace an unwanted action with a desirable one. The use of reinforcement is the cornerstone of such programs. Counselors, who encourage their clients to employ self-management programs, need to ensure that the plan designed and strategies selected, meet the criterion mentioned above. The usefulness of such programs depends on the client's attitude—learning responsibility, for one's actions. (Klein. 1996).

3.3 Evaluation

The behavioral approach makes several contributions to counseling effectiveness. Skinner (1967) argued that psychologists must “get down to the facts. They should restrict their work to what they can see, manipulate and measure in-the laboratory. By focusing on the specific behaviours that clients wish to change, the counselors can help clients to better understand what is to be accomplished and how this accomplishment is possible. It also tells clients about their level of accomplishment.

Focusing on specific behaviours also provides a standard of success for counseling outcomes. There is a variety of techniques that can be employed for any sort of change. Skinner's contributions are of monumental importance in America. Behaviour modification as a technique for changing behaviour, has gained increasing popularity in laboratory, works and clinical and organizational settings. Skinners believed that with operant conditioning that he has presented and refined, human personality and societies can be designed and improved. However, there are major limitations that societies can be designed and improved. The major limitations of this approach include a lack of opportunity for the client to become creatively involved with the whole process of self-fulfillment. The client may feel depersonalized in his interaction with the therapist. Clients suffering from difficulties that may not be observed through their behaviour, or

clients who are functioning at relatively high levels or searching for meaning and purpose in their lives, may not benefit from this approach. Behavioral approach is also criticized most often because of its narrow focus on over behaviour and paying no attention to human feelings and thoughts—the significant part of human personality. The approach is also cited for its mechanistic and manipulative style that totally neglects the value of self-understanding in the change process. Its orientation toward empiricism has sacrificed the values of intuition and artistry in change endeavors (Corey, 1996).

3.4 Summary

Behavior therapy came into its own after the advent of systematic desensitization in the 1950s. It grew quickly, during the 1960s as an alternative to psychodynamic approaches.

B.F. Skinner (1904–1990) has been described as the influential psychologist of the century who certainly set the stage for the development of behaviour therapy. Behaviour therapists view humans as products of their past learning. For them, people are neither good nor bad: they rather respond to requests to decrease personal suffering or promote greater pleasure. Accordingly all behaviour can be controlled by its consequences—by the reinforcement that follows the behavior.

Operant behaviour is emitted and is determined and modified by the reinforce that follows it. For Skinner, personality is nothing more than a collection of operant behaviours. Desirable behaviours are positively reinforced while undesirable behaviours are ignored. Negative reinforcements involve the removal of an aversive stimulus. Skinner assessed behaviour using functional analysis to determine the frequency of behavior: the situation in which the behaviour accrued, and the reinforces associated with the behavior. The goal of therapy is to extinguish the clients' identified maladaptive behaviour and strengthens adaptive behavior. The key to reaching this goal is learning new behaviours. This relies on three paradigms: Respondent learning, operant conditioning and social modeling. The behaviour therapist is very active. He facilitates a process involving four major steps: accurately defining the problems, gathering a developmental history, establishing specific measurable goals and determining the best methods for change. Some of the most common methods include behavioral assessment, positive reinforcement, token economy, assertiveness training, modeling and systematic desensitization. Research has shown different forms of behaviour therapy to be effective in treating anger, obsessive-compulsive disorder, phobias, and depression. Alcoholism, sexual dysfunctions. Marital distress and childhood disorders, it has been used successfully in a wide variety of settings.

Behavior therapy provides a relatively coherent conceptual framework of psychotherapy. However, it is criticized for not dealing with the total person. It lacks relevance for the ethnic minority clients who are searching for a better sense of identity within a particular culture. Today it is much more diversified than its founders have imagined and because of its newer broadening and diversity, behavioral perspective continues to grow.

3.5 Self-Assessment Questions

- Q. 1 Describe the nature and goals of counseling.
- Q. 2 Discuss the characteristic of effective counselors.
- Q. 3 Person-centered therapy is based on a philosophy of human nature that postulates an innate stirring for self actualization. Discuss.
- Q. 4 Define behaviour therapy.

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