K

Childhood and Growing Up

1st SEMESTER • COURSE-I (1.1.1)

Shinjini Nag

MSc, BEd, MEd, MA (Edu.)
Asst. Prof. Pailan College of Education
Ex-Guest Lecturer, Asutosh College and South Calcutta Girls' College
PhD Scholar, Dept. of Education, CU
Ex-Asst. Teacher, Laban Hrod Vidyapith

Dr. Subir Nag

MSc, BEd, MA (Edu.), Gold Medalist, PhD
Diploma in Psychological Counselling
Principal, Satyapriya Roy College of Education
Ex-WBES, Govt. of West Bengal
Ex-Reader, St. Xavier's College
Ex-Visiting Faculty, CU & Presidency College and University
Academic Counsellor—IGNOU, NSOU, IASE

iv. **Development** of Question Box activities (can be carried out by student trainees during practice teaching).

(a) To provide authentic information on physical, physiological and psychological changes and development during adolescence and interpersonal relationship issues pertaining to adolescents.

(b) To list down the instances of peer pressure which may have harmful consequences for the students and the ways adopted by them to face or cope with these unfavourable situations. (Smoking, injecting drug etc.)

v. Find out the plug-in points from your school subjects and link it with the components of Adolescence Education. Also plan out supplementary co-curricular activities for the same.

vi. Observe some successful individuals and list down the behavioural characteristics which impress you.

vii. Take interview of five low achievers and five high achievers and find out their ways of learning.

viii. List down few (classroom) learning situations involving insightful learning.

Content

1st Half

Developments and its Characteristics

1

Growth and Development Pattern of Learners

Most of us use the two terms growth and development interchangeably and accept them as synonyms. Both these terms relate to the measurement of changes occurred in the individual after conception in the womb of the mother. Change is accepted as the law of nature. An individual starting from a fertilized egg turns into a full fledged human adult.

In this turn over process he undergoes a cycle of changes brought about by the process of growth and development. In various dimensions physical, mental, social etc. Therefore in the wider sense both the terms growth and development can be used for any change brought about by maturation and learning (Formal as well as informal education) and essentially is the product of both heredity and environment.

Concept and Meaning of Growth

Growth is a sign of life. All living animals irrespective of their status in the biological hierarchy have to grow.

The growth of the individual from birth to maturity constitutes almost one-third of the normal life span. Growth refers to quantitative changes in size which include physical changes in height, weight, size, internal organs, etc. As an individual develops, old features like baby fat, hair and teeth, etc., disappear and new features like facial hair etc. are acquired. When maturity comes, the second set of teeth, primary and secondary sex characteristics, etc., appear. Similar changes occur in all aspects of the personality.

During infancy and childhood, the body steadily becomes larger, taller and heavier. To designate this change the term growth is used. Growth involves changes in body proportions as

3

well as in overall stature and weight. The term growth thus indicates an increase in bodily dimensions. But the rate of growth differs from one part of the body to the other. The child's physical growth and motor development at different levels can be measured objectively. Prior to the advent of puberty, a significant increase in the rate of growth appears. Following the advent of puberty, there is a gradual and continuous deceleration of the rate of growth.

Concept and Meaning of Development

Development, by contrast refers to qualitative and quantitative changes. It may be defined as a progressive series of orderly coherent changes. Webster's dictionary defines development as the series of changes which an organism undergoes in passing from an embryonic stage to maturity. This change refers to physical, emotional, intellectual changes.

Development refers to qualitative changes taking place simultaneously with quantitative changes of growth. It may be defined as a progressive series of orderly, coherent changes. The term progressive signifies that changes are directional, that they lead forward rather than backward. Ordely and Coherent suggest that there is a definite relationship between the changes taking place and those that precede or will follow them. Development represents changes in an organism from its origin to its death, but more particularly the progressive changes which take place from origin to maturity.

According to **Dr. TR M'cLaunell,** "Development is the product of the interaction of the organism and its environment".

Development is a many sided process. Intellect, social, emotional and all other aspects are vital for development of an individual's Personality Development is a continuous process. However, development does not proceed by leaps from one stage to another but by a process of continuous change, one phase merging into another by almost imperceptible degrees. Development is an attribute of the dynamic integrated experience of a living organism.

Development has been defined as a process resultant from a constant flux or interchange of energies within an organism and energies within its environment.

Thus, development may be explained as the series of overall changes in an individual due to the emergence of modified structures and functions that are the outcome of the interactions and exchanges between the organism and its environment.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Characteristics of Growth

The following points can clarify the characteristics of growth from psychological point of view:

(i) The term growth is used in purely physical scene. It generally refers to an increase in size, length, height and weight. Changes in the quantitative respect come into the domain of growth.

(ii) Growth is one of the part of the developmental process. In the strict scene development in its quantitative aspects is termed as growth.

(iii) Growth may be referred to describe the changes which take place in particular aspects of the body and behavior of an organism.

(iv) Growth does not continue throughout the life. It stops when maturity has been attained.

(v) The changes produced by growth are subjects of measurements. They may be quantified and observable in nature.

(vi) Growth may or may not bring development. A child may grow (in terms of weight) by becoming fat but this growth may not bring any functional improvement (Qualitative change or Development).

Characteristics of Development

The characteristics of Development are discussed under the following points:

(i) Development implies overall changes in shape, form or structure resulting in improved working or functioning. It indicates the changes in the quality or character rather than quantitative aspect.

(ii) Development is a wider and comprehensive term. It refers to over all changes in the individual growth which is one of it's part.

(iii) Development describes the changes in the organism as whole and does not list the changes in parts.)

(iv) Development is a continuous process.) It goes on from the womb to the tomb; It does not end with the attainment of maturity. The changes however small they may continue throughout the life span of the individual.

(v) Development simply implies improvement in functioning and behavior and hence brings qualitative changes that are difficult to be measured directly. They are assessed through keen observation of behavior in different situations.

(vi) Development is also possible without growth as we see in the cases of some children that they do not gain in terms of their height, weight or size but they do experience functional improvement or development in physical social or intellectual aspects.

Principles of Development

The principles of development are as follows:

(i) **Development is a product of interaction:** The development of an individual is influenced by his hereditary factors as well as environmental factors, industrial needs to interact with his inner forces and with his environmental forces. Thus the development takes place through the process of interaction.

(ii) **Development follows an orderly sequence:** Development occurs in an orderly manner. Some directional trends as reported by the psychologists are as follows:

    (a) *Cepha to Caudal:* Development starts from head and progresses later to the other parts of the body. For example-a child at first learns to lift his head before he learns to walk or stand.

    (b) *Proximodigital:* A child learns to use the centre line of the body and proceeds towards the outer parts. He learns to use his arm and shoulders before his uses his fingers to reach an object.

    (c) *Locomotion:* The development of locomotion follows a sequence. The sequence is creefering, crawling and walking.

(iii) **Development proceeds from general to the specific:** If we observe the behaviour of the child, we find it moves from general or indifferentiated to specific or differentiated behaviour. He learns to respond through the whole body at first before he learns to react with a particular part of the body. Thus he proceeds from mass response to differentiation.

(iv) **Development is a continuous process:** Development takes place gradually rather than by leaps and bounds. Development starts from the mother's womb and continues until reach their maximum growth. A child at first cries, makes sound and then learns to speak.

(v) **Different aspects of development are interrelated:** Different types of development are interrelated. Child's Different types of development are interrelated with social and emotional development is interrelated with physical development. His intellectual development is also dependent upon motor development. His mental development is related to his physical development.

(vi) **Development is a individualized process:** Individual differs from one another in respect of development. They vary in the rate of physical, mental, social and emotional development. The rate of development is also different at different ages. In infancy the development of child is very rapid in comparison to later stages. Differences of individual in the rate of development may be due to the hereditary and environmental influences.

(vii) **Male and female child differs in the rate of development:** Differences in development may be observed between male and female child. The rate of development of a girl child is rapid in comparison to a boy. She becomes mature earlier physically and mentally. But at the end boys surpass them.

Differences between Growth and Development

The terms growth and development are often used interchangeably. Actually they are conceptually different. Neither growth nor development takes place all by itself. Growth and development is one of the important studies for the teachers and parents. Growth is different from development. But both are correlated and one is dependant on other. We can say that

growth is a part of development, which is limited in physical changes. Growth is physical changes whereas development is overall development of the organism. Yet it has some differences. The differences between growth and development are as follows:

Growth	Development
1. Growth is change of physical aspects of the organism.	1. Development is overall changes and progressive changes of the organism.
2. Growth is the change in shape, form, structure, size of the body.	2. Development is structural change and functional progress of the body.
3. Growth stops at maturation.	3. Development continues till death of the organism.
4. Growth is a part of development.	4. Development also includes growth.
5. Growth is quantitative.	5. Development is qualitative in nature.
6. Growth can be measured accurately.	6. Development is subjective inter-pretation of one's change.
7. Growth is related to structural changes.	7. Development is related to structural and functional changes, carries a comprehensive meaning.
8. Growth in terms of quantitative changes is very specific.	8. Development is a complex process in comparison to growth.

Both growth and development are interrelated aspects of psychology. There are some basic differences as per their structure but it is difficult to separate them. They have some basic similarities also. In study of educational psychology study of their differences and similarities have equal importance for a teacher.

STAGES AND SEQUENCE OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The growth of the individual from birth to maturity constitutes almost one-third of the normal life span. The child's physical growth and motor development at different levels can be measured objectively. Prior to the advent of puberty, a significant increase in the rate of growth appears. Following the advent of

puberty, there is a gradual and continuous declaration of the rate of growth. A normal child grows and develops continuously. A process of learning and maturation carries on simultaneously along with growth and development at every stage in an individual's life.

Development is a many sided process. Intellect, social, emotional and all other aspects are vital for development of an individual's Personality Development is a continuous process. However development does not proceed by leaps from one stage to another but by a process of continuous change, one phase merging into another by almost imperceptible degrees. Development is an attribute of the dynamic integreted experience of a living organism.

According to **Dr. T R McLaunell,** development is the product of the interaction of the organism and its environment. Development has been defined as a process resultant from a constant flux or interchange of energies within an organism and energies within its environment.

Growth and Development cannot take place unless there is some stimulation and an environment encouraging development, the development of behaviour, language, social behaviour etc. all are influenced by the environment and the demands and sanctions of social groups.

Development and growth are continuous and gradual processes. Development and growth take place in degrees and is influenced by the age factor, environmental factor and physical and personal factor. However, inspite of the fluctuations in development, manifestations of behaviour are the product of extensive underlying preparation and maturing. Inconsistencies in development are illustrated in persons who are fairly mature in many ways, but who still exhibit certain emotional reactions distinctly childish in level. Development brings with it competence at problem solving.

Development and growth bring with it and develop a process of learning and maturation. This learning and maturation process begins at the time the child enters the world and continues to take place throughout the life of the individual.

A child develops through maturation and learning. Maturation is the innate capacity of the child to develop, whereas learning involves experience and training.

Development proceeds growth. Hence each child has to complete his on developmental tasks for each stage in order to enter the next stage. Human organism passes through a number of stages from birth to death. The growth is move rapid or delayed according to the individual. the child inborn with certain physical and mental potentialities. These potentialities develop gradually. With the passage of time, the child grows into an adult. The natural development of the child has been divided into several parts. It must however be borne in mind that these parts are not water tight compartments. Each part is insepratly connected with others and there cannot be proper development of one part without the proper development of other. The development of the child never comes to a dead stop and one stage of development merges unnoticeably into the next.

Some psychologists have variously divided the development of life into the following stages:

A Group of Psychologists

Age Groups	Stage of Development
Birth to 2 years	Infancy
2 years to 6 years	Early childhood
6 years to 12 years	Later childhood
12 years to 18 years	Adolescence
18 years to 40 years	Young adulthood
40 years to 65 years	Mature adulthood
over 65 years	Aged adulthood

Another Group of Psychologists

Another group of psychologists divided the development of life into the following stages:

Age Groups	Stage of Development
Ranges from 9 months (before birth to forming stages-*i.e.*, 4 weeks after birth)	Neo-Natal Period
Ranges from formix stage and continues upto 2 years	Infancy
2 to 5 years	Babyhood
Upto 12 years	Childhood or Babyhood
Upto 18 years	Youth
After 18 years or Adolescence.	Adulthood

Mnemoner has enunciated three principles in the development of life—

(i) The inborn potentialities have the greatest importance in the development of life.

(ii) Physical development precedes mental development.

(iii) Physical and mental development does not take place equally in all the stages coming to a stop at times.

Kafka has divided the development of life in a different manner. Like—

(i) First stage: The period of reflexes.

(ii) Second stage: The period of gaining motor abilities.

(iii) Third stage: The period of the development of reason.

(iv) Fourth stage: Youth, preponderance of emotions.

It must, however, be kept in mind that there are two types of development in each stage—

(i) Natural development and

(ii) Development due to environment.

The all round development of the child depends on four things-food, hormones secreted by the endocrine glands, leredily and opportunity for the proper use of body and the mind.

Key Stages of Development

Seeing a child in the growing stage is such a wonderful experience but you can even make it more wonderful by adding some special help only if you know the correct times where your child needs you the most. This will be possible by knowing the key stages of child development. The growing age of children is divided into fragments only to get better understanding of their growth and development.

Here, we will learn about all the key stages of child development.

(i) **Infant Stage:** Infant stage is when a child is born. This stage is considered to be one of the key stages of child development because he enters a new world. At that time, he is so small that he cannot do anything. A mother has to feed him in every 2 hours and has to take care of everything which the child may require. This is the initial stage where a child is not been able to understand anything. He cannot recognize anyone and cannot do anything apart from crying. There are very less

movements in his body because most of the time, children like to sleep. This is the stage in which a child sleeps the most hours in a day in his entire life.

(ii) **4 to 6 months:** The age of 4 to 6 months is one of the key stages of child development because the child will learn to walk on his feet and hands. He is not physically strong and can't do anything on his own. The parents have to be very careful as children may do mischievous things and will put everything in their mouth. This is that period in which a child is been able to recognize his mother and other family members because they remain with the child almost all the time. In this stage, a child does some strange acts which are very pleasant to watch. They start crawling in this stage.

(iii) **Around 8 months:** During this stage, a child starts recognizing his own people and start walking on his feet with some support. This is an awesome stage to watch for. Child start speaking in this stage, he tries to utter words but not clearly. They understand only few words and can respond to them. This is a very crucial time for a child. Parents have to give special attention to their children because a child can go anywhere to nurture his curiosity of knowing different and new things.

(iv) **Around 1 year:** The child at the age of 1 year learns to speak and utter words like mamma and papa. This stage also comes under the list of key stages of child development because they utter the first word of their life. They are so curious and try constantly to utter difficult words but cannot and get irritated. You can help them in learning slowly and by giving your warm love and affection; you can make them learn easily and fast. In this stage, children start differentiating their parents from other people. They like to be with those who are near to them and whom they recognize well.

(v) **Around 2 years:** The development is very fast at physical and mental level. He will start recognizing things and will remember all the names of people and objects. In this stage, the physical growth is very prominent and child grow at a very fast pace. Growth in terms of mental and physical strength is clearly visible in this stage.

Around 2 years, children start speaking almost all the simple words and they know a language also. But, still there are many things which are unexplored by them.

(vi) **3 to 6 years:** This is the stage where your child will take the first step to school. He will be going in a completely new environment. At this stage, a child may face many difficulties in terms of adjustments but you can help them by guiding. This is a very crucial stage. It is one of the key stages of child development. In this stage, a child develops his own interest and likings and develops analytical power.

(vii) **6 to 12 years:** This is the stage when kids go to school and start making new friends. This is the time when they dream and plan their future. Parents' role is very significant in this stage. They can help their child in choosing the best career by showing them the available option and by making them aware of their own capabilities.

These are the key stages of child development. A parent should take special care in these times so that they can give a bright and healthy future to their children. Any mistake in these crucial stages can be dangerous to the child. Try to support them in every matter and induce some good values in them by taking special care.

Stages and Sequences of Development

We think about growth and development in five stages:
- Infancy from birth to one year
- Early years from one to three years
- Childhood from four to seven years
- Puberty from 8-12 years
- Adolescence from 13-16 years.

Birth to one year

New-born babies can:
- see faces as fuzzy shapes
- grasp an object that has touched the palm of their hand
- turn their head to look for a nipple or teat if their cheek is touched
- suck and swallow

- try to make stepping movements if they are held upright with their feet on a firm surface
- startle in response to a sudden sound or bright light
- stretch their arms suddenly and then bring them in if they feel they are falling
- recognise their mother·fs voice and smell
- cry when they are hungry, in pain, need feeding, changing or just cuddling.

One to three years

By their first birthday, babies can:

- move around, either by crawling or shuffling or some may be standing with support and a small number walking alone
- sit up alone and feed themselves, at least with their fingers
- use their hands skilfully to move and arrange objects including dropping things on the floor and looking to see where they are
- wave 'bye bye' and point at things with their fingers
- communicate by babbling and saying two syllable words like 'dada'
- understand the world around them
- know who their main carers are and cry if they are left with someone they do not know.

Third birthday

By their third birthday, children can:

- run, climb and pedal a tricycle
- walk upstairs on alternate feet and walk on tiptoe
- use the toilet alone
- talk clearly so anyone can understand them
- tell the difference between boys and girls
- sometimes play co-operatively with other children
- build a tower of nine bricks and build a bridge with bricks
- undo buttons and thread beads
- enjoy playing with role play toys and dressing up
- enjoy books
- enjoy painting and may do 'pretend' writing
- have fewer temper tantrums (that started when she was about months)
- enjoy copying and helping adults.

Seventh birthday

By their seventh birthday, children can:

- throw, kick and control a ball, hop and ride a bicycle
- use their hands to thread, use scissors well, build models and write clearly
- draw with meaning and detail
- take turns and play co-operatively with friends
- tell jokes and enjoy conversations
- start to understand rules
- be frightened of fictitious things like ghosts
- read and enjoy books
- dress themselves easily
- have a best friend
- worry about not being liked.

Twelfth birthday

By their twelfth birthday, children can:

- solve problems
- enjoy responsibility
- have a keen interest in hobbies
- use good co-ordination skills
- tell you what they are good at
- start to see physical changes in their body
- start to argue with their parents
- seem very grown up but also very childish at times.

Sixteenth birthday

By their sixteenth birthday a young adult can:

- have an adult body
- have high level of skills in some areas, for example drawing or computing
- enjoy their friends·company more than that of their family
- develop their own identity, tastes in music, clothes
- have mood swings
- feel very anxious at times
- be very confident with friends
- leave school and get married.

Age	Physical Development (gross and fine motor)
Birth to 4 weeks	Lies on back with head to one side Head lags when pulled up to sit Primitive reflexes, i.e. rooting, sucking, stepping, grasping
1 month	Head control still unsteady Hands in tight fists Grasps objects when they touch the palm of the hand Head and eyes move together
3 months	Kicks legs and waves arms Can lift head and turn when on front Watches movements of own hands, plays with own hands Holds rattle for a few seconds if placed in hand
4 months	Uses arms for support when lying on stomach Turns from back to side Holds on to and shakes small items
6 months	Sits with support Rolls over Pushes head, neck and chest off floor with arms when on front Uses whole hand in palmar grasp, passes toy from one hand to another
9 months	Sits alone without support Reaches out for toys when sitting May crawl or shuffle Pokes at small item with index finger Uses index and middle fingers with thumb in pincer grip to pick up small items Will take and hold a small brick in each hand Lifts block but can only release by dropping
1 year	Stands alone and starts to walk holding on ('cruising') Mobile through crawling or shuffling Enjoys self-feeding and holds cup with help Picks up anything tiny from the floor using neat pincer grip Starting to show hand preference Clicks two cubes together Puts cubes in box when shown

Age	Physical Development (gross and fine motor)
18 months	Can walk alone Pushes and pulls toys when walking Can walk downstairs with hand held Tries to kick a ball, rolls and throws ball Squats to pick up objects from the floor Assists with dressing and undressing Can use a spoon Uses a delicate pincer grasp for tiny objects Holds a crayon in primitive tripod grasp and scribbles Turns handles Pulls off shoes
2 years	Walks up and down stairs with both feet on one step. Climbs on furniture Builds a tower of six bricks Uses a spoon for self-feeding Puts shoes on Draws circles and dots Starts to use preferred hand
3 years	Stands and walks on tiptoe Can kick a ball confidently Jumps from low steps Pedals a tricycle Turns single pages in a book Can draw a face Builds bridges with blocks when shown Undoes buttons Threads large beads
4 years	Can aim and throw and catch a large ball Walks backwards and on a line Runs and hops Builds a large tower Can brush own teeth Cuts round an object with scissors and copies a square Buttons and unbuttons clothes Can do a 12-piece jigsaw
5 years	Skips Runs quickly Easily dresses and undresses Hits a ball with a bat

Age	Physical Development (gross and fine motor)
	Draws a person with a head, body and legs, and a house Can do a 20-piece jigsaw Forms letters and writes own name Accurately uses scissors
6-7 years	Enjoys hopping, bike riding, roller blading and skating Balances on a wall or beam Has finer manipulation of building bricks, jigsaws, etc Can sew simple stitches Ties and unties laces Builds intricate models Controls pencil in a small area and does detailed drawing
8-12 years	Improves physical skills that have already developed Puberty starts around 10 for girls with a growth spurt and increase in body strength
13-16 years	Brains developing with increase in reaction times and co-ordination For girls puberty is complete at about 14 and periods start For boys puberty is 13-16 and they will be stronger than girls

Age	Social and Emotional Development
Birth to 4 weeks	Responds positively to main carer Imitates facial expressions Stares at bright shiny objects
1 month	Gazes intently at carers Social smile at carers (by 6 weeks)
4 months	Smiles, engages and vocalises with carers
6 months	Starts to show interest in other babies, smiles Becomes more interested in social interaction, depending on amount of time spent with other children and his or her personality Shows fear of strangers and distress at separation from carer Interacts differently with various family members Uses comfort object, for example a blanket Seeks attention

Age	Social and Emotional Development
9 months	Very interested in all around Recognises familiar and unfamiliar faces Shows stranger anxiety
1 year	More demanding and assertive, emotionally volatile Temper tantrums may start Unhappy at changes in routine Expresses rage at being told 'no' Distinguishes between self and others, but still egocentric—only concerned with his or her own view of the world Shows definite emotions and is aware of the emotions of others Will play alone Starting to develop object permanence
18 months	Shows stranger shyness Dislikes changes in routine Starts toilet training Starts to have tantrums when upset Has separate sense of self-egocentric Little idea of sharing and strong sense of 'mine'
2 years	Enjoys other children·fs company but reluctant to share toys May show concern when another child is upset Engages in parallel play (alongside others) Remains egocentric Becoming emotionally stable, but still prone to mood swings Learning to separate from carer for short periods, for example while at nursery Knows own identity
3 years	Greater social awareness Will play in twos or threes, sharing ideas May have close friends A lot of mixed play of the sexes Stable and emotionally secure Friendly to other children Increasing in independence, but still needs support from adults Fears loss of carers Strong sense of gender identity Less anxious about separation Plays alongside others

Age	Social and Emotional Development
4 years	Enjoys co-operative and dramatic play Understands co-operation and competition Responds to reasoning Can take turns Enjoys independence but still needs comfort and reassurance
5 years	Becomes engrossed in activities Develops fears of ghosts, things under the bed Concerned about being disliked Good sense of self awareness developed
6-7 years	Able to form firm friendships Very supportive of each other, playing complex games Plays in separate sex groups Fairly independent and confident Increasing sense of morality (right and wrong)
8-12 years	Friendships become very important . mostly same sex Concern at thoughts of others about them Often unsure about changes in settings
13-16 years	Body changes can upset self esteem Need to resolve changes into adulthood Some are more assured about changes in settings Wants to spend more time with friends than family Peer pressure a significant influence

Age	Language and Communication Skills
Pre-linguistic stage Birth to 12 months	
Birth to 4 weeks	Cries when basic needs require attention, for example hunger, tiredness, distress
1 month	'Freezes' when a bell is rung gently close to the ear, moves head towards the sound Stops crying at sound of human voice (unless very upset) Coos in response to carer's talk
3 months	Becomes quiet and turns head towards sound of rattle near head Vocalises when spoken to and when alone
6 months	Makes singsong vowel sounds, for example 'aah-aah', 'goo'

Age	Language and communication skills
	Laughs and chuckles and squeals aloud in play Responds differently to different tones of voice Starts to respond to noises out of sight with correct visual response
9 months	Vocalises for communication, shouts for attention Babbles loudly and tunefully using dual syllables in long strings, for example 'daddad', 'baba', 'mam-mam' Imitates adult vocal sounds, for example coughs, smacking lips Understands 'no' and 'bye-bye' Has instant response to a hearing test conducted 1 metre behind child, out of sight
1 year	Knows own name Jargons loudly in 'conversations', includes most vowels sounds Understands about 20 words in context, for example cup, dog, dinner, and understands simple messages, for example 'clap hands', 'where are your shoes?'

Age	Language and Communication Skills
Linguistic stage 12 months onwards	
12-18 months	First words appear uses 6-20 recognisable words, understands many more Echoes prominent or last word in sentences Tries to join in with nursery rhymes Responds to simple instructions, for example 'fetch your shoes', 'shut the door'
18-24 months	Uses two words linked together Uses more than 200 words by two years Makes simple two-word sentences Refers to own name, talks to self during play Has telegraphic speech, that is, is using key essential words and missing out connecting words
2-3 years	Rapidly expanding vocabulary, including plurals Holds simple conversations Enjoys repetition of favourite stories Counts to ten
3-4 years	Imitates adult speech Can be understood by strangers Forms short, grammatically correct sentences

Age	Language and communication skills
	Asks many questions of the type: what ? why ? and how ? Knows parts of body, animals Still makes errors of tenses
4-8 years	Speech is fluent and correct, using descriptive language Gives full name, age, birthday and address Enjoys jokes, singing, rhymes, etc. Rapidly expanding vocabulary . 5,000 words by five years Recognises new words and asks the meaning of them Will accurately copy accents heard Produces most sounds, with some residual difficulty with some letter groups
8 years onwards	Most children are fluent speakers, readers and writers of their language Increasing use of peer influenced, coded language

Age	Intellectual Development
Birth	Blinks in reaction to bright light Turns to soft light Stares at carer Cries when basic needs require attention
1 month	Stares at soft light Gaze caught by and follows dangling ball
3 months	Follows movements of large and smaller objects
6 months	Very curious, easily distracted by movements Immediately fixes sight on small objects close by and reaches out to grasp them Puts everything in mouth Watches toys fall from hand within range of vision
9 months	Looks in correct direction for falling toys
12 months	Drops toys deliberately and watches them fall—this is called 'casting' Looks in correct place for toys that have rolled out of sight Recognises familiar people at 6 metres
18 months	Builds tower of three cubes when shown Turns pages of books, several at a time, enjoys picture books and can point to a named object Points to interesting objects outside Points to parts of the body

Age	Intellectual Development
3 years	Copies circle and cross, draws man with head Matches two or three primary colours Paints with large brush, cuts with scissors
By 5 years	Copies square, and range of letters—some spontaneously Draws man with head, body, arms, legs and features, and will draw house Colours pictures neatly Names primary colours and matches ten or more colours Knows time of day for basic activities, for example breakfast, bedtime Matches symbols, letters and numbers Can decide on lighter and heavier objects Understands, in front of, behind, next to Counts to 20 by rote
By 6 years	Ability to write developing, is able to write some words and copy others Reads simple books Increasing sophistication in drawing and painting Knows birthday Sight reads ten or more words Can predict next events Can count up to 100 Knows half and whole 20 BTEC First Children's Care, Learning and Development Age Intellectual development
6-8 years	Able to understand concept of conservation , for example the amount of play dough remains the same if you make a ball of dough into a long, thin snake Developing the ability to think about several things at once Enjoys games and rules Understands the use of symbols in maths, writing, etc. Great curiosity in relation to workings of his or her environment
8-12 years	Can reason and apply logic to problems Can transfer information from one situation and use in another Becoming more creative in play Reading and writing confidently Increasing preferences for subjects

Age	Intellectual Development
13-16 years	Developing ability to think abstractly Will question sources of information Becoming more globally aware Clear preferences for arts or sciences Choices relating to future education and careers being thought about

SOCIAL FACTORS THAT AFFECT GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Growth and developmental attributes are genetic but we can not rule off the influence of environmental or social factors in the grooming process of any individual.

These are:
- Poverty
- Lack of Opportunities/Unemployment
- Deprivation
- Disrupted Family
- Poor Neighborhood
- Poor Housing

POVERTY

India won freedom in 1947. Considerable achievements have been gained in different fields of work. Despite all the progress, India still faces the severe problem where more than 300 millions of its people continue to remain below the poverty level. In India there is no balance between population growth and poverty. There was a high rate of population growth in China and Indonsesia but they could make dramatic reduction in poverty. India failed miserably in this effort.

One reason for the continuing poverty is the government's poor record in providing basic services such as education and health care. "The inability—some would say unwillingness—to educate all or even most of its citizens counted as independent India's greatest failure" (Ramchandra Guha).

Definition of Poverty

Now the question is what do you mean by poverty. Poverty is a social phenomenon in which a section of society is not able to fulfil even its basic needs of life. We may call them poor people

who live below the poverty line. This poverty line is defined in terms per capita household expenditure.

Types of Poverty

There are two types of poverty—
(a) Absolute Poverty and
(b) Relative Poverty.

Absolute Poverty means the income of some people of a country is so low that they cannot meet even their basic minimum needs. India is such a country on the basis of this definition there 26.1% of the total population under the poverty line."

The income of different people are different. When we compare the incomes of different people we find that some people are poorer than the others. It is called Relative Poverty.

Causes of Poverty

There are different causes of poverty. Here we mention some of the causes of Poverty.
(1) Low level of economic development.
(2) Rapid growth of population.
(3) Low productivity in agriculture and industry.
(4) Imbalance in the distribution of income and assets among people.
(5) Problems of unemployment and underemployment.
(6) Political factors and state policy.

Measures for liquidation of Poverty (Solution)

The Central and state government have adopted many important policies to remove poverty. The policies are:
(1) Five year plans.
(2) Nationalization of Bank, Coal mines etc.
(3) 20-Point programme.
(4) State poverty alleviation programme like IRDP (Integrated Rural Development Programme) Jawahar Yojane, TRYSEM (The Scheme of Training Rural Youth for Self Employment) etc.
(5) The National Rural Employment Programme (NREP).
(6) The Rural Landless Employment Guaranteed Programme (RLEGP).
(7) Antyodaya Programme.
(8) Garibi Hatao and Bhikhari Hatao Programme.

Poverty is a global problem. There are many causes for it. Different remedial measures have been undertaken but it is useless without proper expansion of education. We have to depend on community people and the Panchayat Raj to find out the ways and means to educate people and to reduce poverty because economic inequality is the basis of social stratification. Expansion of education to the masses is essential. They will understand their problems and try to find out the solution when they get educated.

UNEMPLOYMENT & LACK OF OPPORTUNITIES

The youth of to-day are in fury and frustration. They have lost faith in the existing social order. Education has expanded enormoulsy in recent times but employment opportunities do not keep pace with this expansion. This leads to fear, insecurity and frustration. So we have to arrange for a proper type of education. Unemployment is another vital problem not only in India but also in other parts of the world. People are willing to work but fail to get a job. They do not have a regular source of income. The extent of unemployment in India is measured on the basis of three different concepts by NSSO (National Sample Survey Organisation.). These are usual status unemployment, weekly status unemployment and daily status unemployment. Usual status unemployment indicates the number of persons who remain unemployed for a major part of the year. Weekly status unemployment refers to number of persons who remain unemployed for a major part of a week. Daily status unemployment means the number of persons who remain unemployed during a day or some days.

Causes of Unemployment

The first cause we may mention is the defective educational system. It does not cater to the economic needs of the people. The second cause is the imbalance between demand and supply of educated workers. The third is the low rate of growth of the economy which is directly related with the low productivity in the agriculture and the industrial sectors.

Types of Unemployment

There are six types of unemployment. These are
(1) Functional unemployment.
(2) Structural unemployment.

(3) Seasonal unemployment.
(4) Cyclical unemployment.
(5) Technological unemployment.
(6) There is another unemployment which is known as (Disguised unemployment.

According to **N R Varghese**, "Disguised unemployment is very common in less developed economics. Disguised unemployment exists when withdrawal of a part of the labour force from the traditional field of production would leave the total output unchanged. In technical terms it means marginal productivity of labour is zero.

Remedies

In 1994 XXXI Indian Labour Conference (ILC) suggested the following measures:
(a) Encouraging self-employment.
(b) Drastic reorganization of vocational courses.
(c) Identification of skills needed in the present day context required by industrial unit.

Innumerable self-employment opportunities can be found out both in Urban and Rural areas. In rural areas farming on modern scientific methods, small-scale industries, agro-industries, dairy farming, poultry farming, etc. are very necessary for self-employment. Government, Banks, etc. will give them loan on easy installment for easy self-employment.

Self-employment depends on education and national wealth. Education helps to avail self opportunity. To overcome these difficulties we have to prepare Macro plan and Micro plan and grassroot plan for education and employment. Without these plans it is very diffcult to solve the problems of life. Our first duty is to arrange education for all.

DEPRIVATION

The "Psychological Abstracts" index lists over two dozen types of deprivation, such as stimulus, cultural, egoistical, economic, social, political, linguistic, educational, material and environmental. To this one can add various types of need deprivation as, food, water, sexual activity and the like.

Another source of confusion in the concept of deprivation is with respect to preferences for certain criteria for classifying the

deprivation states. Deprivation is classified in terms of the following criteria.

Organismic v. Environmental

Deprivation is said to be the property of the organism of the environment. If the deprivation is organismic, one refers to the conditions which are responsible for lack of fulfilment of needs. Deprivation in this case is that of the organic inputs and it leads to tissue deficits. Under this category would fall food nutrition, water, sex, and sleep deprivation. Tissue deficit is assumed to be a noxious state and drives the organism to take appropriate steps to reduce it. Secondly, the locus of deprivation may be environmental. Here the dimension of categorization employed is generally the richness versus poorness of environment e.g., the case of rural-urban or slums and non-slum areas. One generally operationalizes environmental deficit in terms of level of living (housing, employment, education, etc.) or in terms of the absence of objects and persons (e.g., parents) which should be present in the normal course. More often than not, the two types of deprivations are treated as belonging to mutually exclusive sets and not effort is made to relate appropriate variables in these realms or even to see how they influence psychological processes in interaction with each other.

Objective v. Subjective

Deprivation is also sought to be distinguished in terms of objective and subjective criteria. The distinction is actually based on how far the measurement of deprivation is independent of the individual's subjective states. The emphasis on objective deprivation is intimately linked with the concept of minimum basic requirement for psychological funcitioning. One looks for a line which could serve as a "Cut off" line to demarcate deprived from the non-deprived. The assumption is that one knows what is required and in what amount. In case of subjective deprivation it is presumed that only an individual knows what he wants and in what anount. If the "besired" falls below his subjective standard, he feels deprived. He may have arrived at the reference standard, he feels deprived. He may have arrived at the reference after comparison with relevant others or even independently. The concept sometimes implies that comparison with others is a necessary condition for subjective deprivation. However, one can also conceive of standards which are arrived at by individuals themselves. This may happen when one takes into consideration

the subjective states resulting from the acceptance of organic inputs. Consider, for example, prescribing the amount of food a beggar must eat to feel satisfied. The distinction between objective and subjective is tenuous for example, it is generally assumed that objective deprivation leads to a drive state of an organism. However, there are many studies to support that deprivation per se does not lead to a drive state but perception of it does. Nevertheless, even perception requires objective from the real world.

Absolute v. Relative

This distinction comes closer to the objective versus subjective distinction with the only possible exception that absolute distinction with the only possible exception that absolute deprivation seems more possible in case of primary needs and less in case of secondary needs, in which case "relative" deprivation appears to be more appropriate.

While there is nothing wrong with a classification and assigning of labels, what seems to have happened in case of the above classifications is that they have been reified as descriptors of deprivation as it is obtained in the real world.

DISRUPTED FAMILY

While some children cope well with divorce, children of divorced parents are at increased risk for suicide, low self-esteem, affective disorders and general distress.

The results of the study by Wallerstein and Kelly in California of 131 children are troubling. They show that, 5 years after their parents' separation, one third of the children were still very distressed and described as intensely unhappy. It should, however, be equally emphasized that two thirds of the children were coping well and described as emotionally healthy. Thus, some children cope; some do not.

What differentiates these two groups? What events after the divorce influence the restoration of competent functioning? The developmental stage of the child at the time of the parental separation appears to influence both the quality and quantity of the child's reaction. This is understandable in terms of cognitive development. Younger children obviously perceive the events differently and respond according to the rudimentary skills that they have acquired.

Infants and Preschool Children

Many authors feel that younger children (0 to 5 Years) react most strongly to separation. Early responses of anger, fear, depression, and guilt are common. In follow-up studies very young children of divorced parents were found to demonstrate more behaviour problems than children in nondivorced families. They showed less affection and compliance, made more dependency demands, and exhibited more whining. Preschool and kindergarten children show, among other symptoms, intense separation anxiety. Having lost or partially lost, one parent, and fearing that they will be abandoned by their other parent, young children regress to more childish behaviour, because they recall that as babies they were cared for and were close to both their parents.

Early School-age Children

Open denial of the separation or of any difficulties with the separation are a frequent finding in early school-age children (6 to 8 years). Initially, parents may report that the child is adjusting well, but underlying feelings may not be readily apparent.

Thus, despite the denial, young children view the separation as a profound loss. If denial is not present, young school-age children (5 to 8 years old) are notable for their sadness and open grieving. They yearn for the departed parent (usually the father). Approximately half have a disruption in their learning at school. They may be extremely hard to control, often with temper tantrums.

Older School-age children

Older school-age children (9 to 12 years) perceive family disruptions with greater soberness, clarity and distance, but are more likely to view one parent as responsible for the break-up and the other parent as the victim. They may attempt to resolve a loyalty conflict by becoming excessively dependent on one parent while completely rejecting the other. These children frequently become enmeshed of their own volition in the custody struggle, and some hang on for years to the inage of one parent as all good and the other parent as all bad. Some children engaged in the custody battle are permitted to read court transcripts and even testify on behalf of one parent. Direct

involvement in the custody proceedings is strongly correlated with later maladjustment, because children are forced into a position of rejecting not only the other parent's behaviour but also all aspects of that parent with which they had previously identified.

Adolescence

For adolescents (13 to 18 years), the divorce brings major changes in the parent-child relationship and increases the adolescent's worry about sex and marriage. These adolescents experience a profound sense of loss and anger and conflicts of loyalty. Adolescents from divorced families in Montreal were found to be disadvantaged compared with their peers from families with widowed parents and with married parents on a wide range of psychosocial variables. These included mental health, subjective reporting of their school performance, and perceptions of their life in the future, their parents, and their environment.

Parents' divorce can spur on an adolescent's growth toward maturity, with many adolescents taking on more responsibility than their peers. If this spurt comes too early, it can intensify normal adolescent developmental conflicts and result in a premature attempt at mastery or a pseudo-adolescence." Adolescents whose parents have recently divorced tend to worry about sex and marriage more than their peers.

Because adolescents go outside the home for comfort, advice and nurturing, they are more likely to perpetuate early marriage and subsequent divorce. On the other hand seeking comfort outside the home may protect adolescents by distancing them from the parents' arguments and preventing overinvolvement with the position of one parent or the other. Adolescents who are aligned with one parent or who are expressing guilt for the break-up of the marriage are at risk for later maladaptive responses.

POOR NEIGHBOURHOOD AND POOR HOUSING

Dwelling house plays an important role during the formative years of any child.

All these factors together are responsible for development of proper good mental health. Few factors which may disturb development of proper mental health are discussed here—

Main causes for Poor Mental Health in Children—

  (a) Hereditary Factors
  (b) Constitutional Factors
  (c) Environmental Factors

(a) **Hereditary factors:** In some cases of poor mental health and diseases, the causes are inherited from parents through defective genes. Certain inherited potentialities like the deficient intellectual ability also can cause poor mental health and nervous (system) diseases. Inappropriate physical structure and appearance cause some children to have inferiority complex and mental health problems. The hereditary factors are not under anyone's control. So the parents need to be prepared to accept these factors and make proper adjustments for the well being of their children.

(b) **Constitutional or Physiological factors:** As said above, certain physiological constitution and appearance can affect the mental health of the children. Poor physical health, physical defects, ailments and diseases are other factors which can affect the mental health of children. The factors can deteriorate one's strength and stamina for performing one's responsibilities. These can cause inferiority complexes and thus result serious adjustment problems and poor mental health.

(c) **Environmental factors:** Man is the product of his environment. The famous environmentalist **Watson** once said, "Give me any child and I will make him what you desire." This refers to the role of environment in the proper development of a child. If there is a rich and congenial environment, no child can become mentally maladjusted. The uncongenial environment at home, school, neighbourhood and society are responsible for social and emotional maladjustments in children. These maladjustments are the causes for mental illness in children.

Love and affection, acceptance, approval, appreciation and recognition are the cornerstones for good mental health in children. Lack of these make them feel rejected and emotionally insecure. The conflicts within the family, broken home lack of emotional and economic security cause anxieties and other mental disorders in children. The behaviour and mental health of the parents and older member of the family, family atmosphere, the peer group and teachers relationships and the school environment have a direct bearing on the mental health of children.

Some Problems and Behavioural Disorders of Adolescents

Most of the problems of adolescents are concerned with the sudden functioning of their glands and secretion of hormones. In some cases, certain unfavorable factors in the environment are responsible.

* Too self-conscious
* Loss of self-confidence
* Too curious about sex/Pre-marital sex/ Experimenting with sex.
* Boredom
* Isolation or withdrawal syndrome
* Social Antagonism, Rebellion
* Moodiness—fluctuating moods
* Temper tantrums
* Irritability
* Too touchy
* Stuttering/stammering
* Nail-biting
* Nose-pricking
* Finger-drumming
* Feet-tapping, throat clearing, squinting
* Sniffling, twitching or grimacing
* Excessive day-dreaming
* Regression
* Excessive use of defense mechanisms such as rationalization, projection, fantasising, compensation, identification and displacement.
* Anti-social activities
* Reckless driving
* Excessive drinking
* Use of drugs
* Smoking
* Depression

Teenagers' expectations from their Parents and Elders

* They need unconditional love.
* They expect respect and they want to be taken seriously.

❖ They need to be treated as adults and equals, "Don't treat me like a child".

❖ They need affection, acceptance, approval, achievement and affirmation.

❖ They expect privacy and freedom.

❖ They need space.

❖ They need a listening heart rather than just the ears.

❖ They expect equality and justice in everything.

❖ They expect short and straight forward answers rather than lengthy instructions.

❖ They want consistency.

❖ They want their parents to be direct instead of beating around the bush.

❖ They expect trust, openness and honesty in word and action.

❖ Each adolescent expects his parents to accept him as a unique individual.

❖ They want their plans to be honoured and respected.

❖ They want to take some responsibility in the family.

❖ They appreciate democratic style of parenting.

❖ They want to be a part of the family discussions.

❖ They like to organize family outings and fun.

❖ They want to keep the budget.

❖ They want their friends to join family meals at times.

❖ They expect their parents "to admit their mistakes".

❖ They prefer reconciliation and forgiveness.

❖ They want the past faults to be forgotten and Let Go of the Past!

❖ They expect their parents to have disagreement and arguments.

Preservation of Mental Health

Preventive and preservative Measures: The first and the best aim of mental hygiene would be to prevent oneself from the clutches of the negative environment and other factors which cause mental stress, maladjustment and mental disorder. Both preventive and preservative measures aim to make one aware of the following factors:

(a) To make aware of the factors which are responsible for poor mental health are the hereditary factors, the constitutional factors or physiological factors and environmental factors.

(b) To make aware of the various causes of maladjustment—personal as well as social.

(c) To make aware of the personal drives, needs, motives, conflicts, frustrations, tensions etc.

(d) To make aware of the ways and means of achieving emotional and social adjustment.

(e) To make the individuals aware of their potentialities and inner resources.

(f) To make them aware that every individual is responsible for his own life and he has the right to make his own choice in life.

(g) To make individuals aware to accept and take responsibility for their circumstances and be courageous enough to take whatever initiative is necessary to creatively work their way through or around the challenges.

(h) To make individuals aware to develop a clear sense of their highest priorities and to live a focussed life with integrity.

(i) To make the individual aware that he is the creative force of his life.

(j) To make the individual aware that 'Creative Cooperation' and the master art of 'We' work better in life.

(k) To make the individuals identify and apply PRINCIPLES or NATURAL LAWS which govern a positive life have their source in God.

(l) To make the individuals aware that the greatest hygiene and fulfilment in life is serving others through self-actualisation and self-transcendence.

(m) To make the individual aware to make use of all the opportunities to the fullest and achieve self-fulfilment.

(n) To help the individual to develop healthy human relationship and group interactions.

(o) To help the individual to develop good leadership which is plural—is a team effort.

The above points will go a long way to PREVENT and to PRESERVE (maintain) a GOOD MENTAL HEALTH.

Exercise

Very Short-type Questions   **Marks-2**
1. What is the meaning of Growth ?
2. What is the meaning of Development ?
3. Write two characteristics of Growth ?
4. Write two characteristics of Development ?
5. Write some principles of Development According to Mnemoner.
6. What are the principles of Development ?
7. According to Kafka, what are the stages of Development ?
8. Mention the stages and sequences of Development ?
9. What is Poverty ?
10. What are the types of Poverty ?
11. Mention the types of Poverty ?
12. What is unemployment ?
13. Mention the causes of unemployment ?
14. What are the types of unemployment ?
15. What do you mean by deprivation ?
16. What is disrupted family ?
17. What are the causes of poor mental health in children ?

Short-type Questions   **Marks-5**
1. Discuss the concept of Growth and Development.
2. Write the general characteristics of Growth.
3. Write the general characteristics of Development.
4. Discuss the principles of Development.
5. Mention the difference between Growth and Development Process.
6. Briefly discuss the stages of Child's Development.
7. Mention the causes and measures for liquidation of poverty.
8. Mention the types of unemployment and remedial process for its.
9. Discuss the causes of poor mental health in children.
10. Mention some problems and behavioural disorders of Adolescents.
11. What are the expectations of teenagess from their parents and elders ?

Essay-type Questions   **Marks-10**
1. What do you mean by Growth and Development? Discuss the general characteristics of Growth and Development.
2. Differentiate the process of Growth and Development.
3. Discuss shortly the stages and sequence of Growth and Development.
4. Write short description about social factors that affects on Growth and Development.

2

Stages of Development

DIFFERENT STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT

The study of development according to the Life-Span Perspective (LSP) includes the following assumptions :

1. Development is lifelong, *i.e.* it takes place across all age groups starting from conception to old age. It includes both gains and losses, which interact in dynamic (change in one aspect goes with changes in others) ways throughout the life-span.

2. The various processes of human development, i.e. biological, cognitive, and socio-emotional are interwoven in the development of a person throughout the life-span.

3. Development is multi-directional. Some dimensions or components of a given dimension of development may increase, while others show decrement. For example, the experiences of adults may make them wiser and guide their decisions. However, with an increase in age, one's performance is likely to decrease on tasks requiring speed, such as running.

4. Development is highly plastic, *i.e.* within person, modifiability is found in psychological development, though plasticity varies among individuals. This means skills and abilities can be improved or developed throughout the life-span.

5. Development is influenced by historical conditions. For example, the experiences of 20-year olds who lived through the freedom struggle in India would be very different from the experiences of 20 year olds of today. The career orientation of school students today is very different from those students who were in schools 50 years ago.

6. Development is the concern of a number of disciplines. Different disciplines like psychology, anthropology, sociology, and neuro-sciences study human development, each trying to provide answers to development throughout the life-span.

7. An individual responds and acts on contexts, which include what was inherited, the physical environment, social, historical, and cultural contexts. For example, the life events in everyone's life are not the same, such as, death of a parent, accident, earthquake, etc., affect the course of one's life as also the positive influences such as winning an award or getting a good job. People keep on changing with changing contexts.

Overview of Developmental Stages

Development is commonly described in terms of periods or stages. You must have observed that your younger brother or sister, or parents, and even yourself, all behave in different ways. If you observe people living in your neighbourhood, you would find that they too do not behave in a similar manner. This variation is partly because everyone is in a different stage of life. Human life proceeds through different stages. For example, you are at present in the stage of adolescence and after a few years you will enter the stage of adulthood. Developmental stages are assumed to be temporary and are often characterised by a dominant feature or a leading characteristic, which gives each period its uniqueness. During a particular stage, individual progresses towards an assumed goal—a state or ability that s/he must achieve in the same order as other persons before progressing to the next stage in the sequence. Of course, individuals do vary with respect to the time or rate of development from one stage to another. It may be noted that certain patterns of behaviour and certain skills are learned more easily and successfully during certain stages. These accomplishments of a person become the social expectations of that stage of development. They are known as **developmental tasks.** You will now read about the different stages of development and their main features.

Prenatal Stage

The period from conception to birth is known as the prenatal period. Typically, it lasts for about 40 weeks. You know by now that the genetic blueprint guides our development during the prenatal period and after birth. Both genetic and environmental factors affect our development during different periods of prenatal stage.

Prenatal development is also affected by maternal characteristics, which include mother's age, nutrition, and emotional state. Disease or infection carried by the mother can adversely affect prenatal development. For example, rubella (German measles), genital herpes, and Human Immuno-deficiency Virus (HIV) are believed to cause genetic problems in the newborn. Another source of threat to prenatal development is teratogens—environmental agents that cause deviations in normal development that can lead to serious abnormalities or death. Common teratogens include drugs, infections, radiations, and pollution. Intake of drugs (marijuana, heroin, cocaine, etc.), alcohol, tobacco, etc. by women during pregnancy may have harmful effects on the foetus and increase the frequency of congenital abnormalities. Radiations (such as X-rays), and certain chemicals near industrial areas can cause permanent change in the genes. Environmental pollutants and toxic wastes like carbon monoxide, mercury and lead are also sources of danger to the unborn child.

Infancy

The brain develops at an amazing rate before and after birth. Different parts of the brain and the important role played by cerebrum in human functions, such as language, perception, and intelligence. Just before birth the newborns have most but not all brain cells. The neural connections among these cells develop at a rapid rate.

The newborn is not as helpless as you might think. The activities needed to sustain life functions are present in the newborn—it breathes, sucks, swallows, and discharges the bodily wastes. The newborns in their first week of life are able to indicate what direction a sound is coming from, can distinguish their mother's voice from the voices of other women, and can imitate simple gestures like tongue protrusion and mouth opening.

Motor Development: The newborn's movements are governed by reflexes—which are automatic, built-in responses to stimuli. They are genetically-carried survival mechanisms and are the building blocks for subsequent motor development. Before the newborns have had the opportunity to learn, reflexes act as adaptive mechanisms. Some reflexes present in the newborn—coughing, blinking, and yawning persist throughout their lives. Others disappear as the brain functions mature and voluntary control over behaviour starts developing (see Table 2.1).

As the brain is developing, physical development also progresses. As the infant grows, the muscles and nervous system mature which lead to the development of finer skills. Basic physical (motor) skills include grasping and reaching for objects, sitting, crawling, walking and running. The sequence of physical (motor) development is universal, with minor exceptions.

Table 2.1 Some Major Reflexes in the Newborns

Reflex	Description	Developmental Course
Rooting	Turning the head and opening the mouth when touched on the cheek	Disappears between 3 and 6 months
Moro	If there is a loud noise, the baby will throw her/his arms outward while arching her/his back, and then bring the arms together as if grasping something.	Disappears in 6 to 7 months (although reaction to loud noises is permanent)
Grasp	When a finger or some other object is pressed against the baby's palm, the baby's fingers close around it	Disappears in 3 to 4 months; replaced by voluntary grasping
Babinski	When the bottom of the baby's foot is stroked, the toes fan out and then curl	Disappears in 8 to 12 months

Sensory Abilities: You know by now that newborns are not as incompetent as they look. They can recognise their mother's voice just a few hours after birth and have other sensory capabilities. How well can infants see ? Newborns prefer to look at some stimuli rather than others such as faces, although these preferences change over the first few months of life. The newborn's vision is estimated to be lower than the adult vision.

By 6 months it improves and by about the first year, vision is almost the same as that of an adult (20/20). Can a newborn see colour ? The current consensus is that they might be able to distinguish between red and white colours but in general they are colour deficient and full colour vision develops by 3 months of age.

What is the nature of hearing in newborns ? Infants can hear immediately after birth. As the infant develops, proficiency at localising sound improves. Newborns respond to touch and they can even feel pain. Both smell and taste capacities are also present in the newborn.

Cognitive Development: Does a 3 year old child understand things the same way as would an 8 year old ? Jean Piaget stressed that children actively construct their understanding of the world. Information does not simply enter their minds from the environment. As children grow, additional information is acquired and they adapt their thinking to include new ideas, as this improves their understanding of the world. Piaget believed that a child's mind passes through a series of stages of thought from infancy to adolescence (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

Stage	Approx. Age	Characteristics
Sensorimotor	0-2 years	Infant explores the world by coordinating sensory experiences with physical actions.
Preoperational	2-7 years	Symbolic thought develops; object permanence is established; the child cannot coordinate different physical attributes of an object.
Concrete operational	7-11 years	The child can reason logically about concrete events and classify objects into different sets. Is able to perform reversible mental operations on representations of objects.
Formal operational	11-15 years	The adolescent can apply logic more abstractly; hypothetical thinking develops.

Each stage is characterised by a distinct way of thinking and is age related. It is important to remember that it is the different way of thinking which makes one stage more advanced

than the other and not the amount of information. This also shows why you at your age think differently from an 8 year old. The child during infancy, *i.e.* the first two years of life, experiences the world through senses and interactions with objects—through looking, hearing, touching, mouthing, and grasping. The newborn lives in the present. What is out of sight is out of mind. For example, if you hide the toy in front of the child with which the child has been playing, the young infant would react as if nothing has happened, *i.e.* s/he will not search for the toy. The child assumes the toy does not exist. According to *Piaget,* children at this stage do not go beyond their immediate sensory experience, *i.e.* lack object permanence—the awareness that the objects continue to exist when not perceived. Gradually by 8 months of age the child starts pursuing the object partially covered in her/his presence.

The basis of verbal communication seems to be present in infants. Vocalisation begins with the infant's babbling, sometime between 3 to 6 months of age.

Socio-emotional Development: Babies from birth are social creatures. An infant starts preferring familiar faces and responds to parent's presence by cooing and gurgling. They become more mobile by 6 to 8 months of age and start showing a preference for their mother's company. When frightened by a new face or when separated from their mother, they cry or show distress. On being reunited with the parent or caregiver they reciprocate with smiles or hugs. The close emotional bond of affection that develop between infants and their parents (caregivers) is called **attachment.** In a classic study by *Harlow and Harlow* (1962), baby monkeys were separated from their mothers approximately 8 hours after birth. The baby monkeys were placed in experimental chambers and reared for 6 months by surrogate (substitute) "mothers", one made of wire and the other of cloth. Half the baby monkeys were fed by the wire mother, half by the cloth mother. Regardless of whether they were fed by the wire or the cloth mother the baby monkeys showed a preference for the cloth mother and spent a lot more time with her. This study clearly demonstrates that providing nourishment or feeding was not crucial for attachment and contact-comfort is important. You too may have seen young children having a strong attachment to a favourite toy or blanket. There is nothing unusual in this, as the children know that the blanket or toy is

not their mother. Yet it provides them comfort. As children grow and become more sure of themselves, they abandon these objects.

Human babies also form an attachment with their parents or caregivers who consistently and appropriately reciprocate to their signals of love and affection. According to **Erik Erikson** (1968), the first year of life is the key time for the development of attachment. It represents the stage of developing trust or mistrust. A sense of trust is built on a feeling of physical comfort which builds an expectation of the world as a secure and good place. An infant's sense of trust is developed by responsive and sensitive parenting. If the parents are sensitive, affectionate, and accepting, it provides the infant a strong base to explore the environment. Such infants are likely to develop a secure attachment. On the other hand, if parents are insensitive and show dissatisfaction and find fault with the child, it can lead to creating feelings of self-doubt in the child. Securely attached infants respond positively when picked up, move freely, and play whereas insecurely attached infants feel anxious when separated and cry due to fear and get upset. A close interactive relationship with warm and affectionate adults is a child's first step towards healthy development.

Childhood

The child's growth slows down during early childhood as compared to infancy. The child develops physically, gains height and weight, learns to walk, runs, jumps, and plays with a ball. Socially, the child's world expands from the parents to the family and adults near home and at school. The child also begins to acquire the concepts of good and bad, i.e. develops a sense of morality. During childhood, children have increased physical capacities, can perform tasks independently, can set goals, and meet adult expectations. The increasing maturation of the brain along with opportunities to experience the world, contribute to development of children's cognitive abilities.

Physical Development: Early development follows two principles: (i) development proceeds cephalocaudally, *i.e.* from the cephalic or head region to the caudal or tail region. Children gain control over the upper part of the body before the lower part. This is why you would notice that the infant's head is proportionately larger than her/his body during early infancy or if you see an infant crawling, s/he will use the arms first and

then shift to using the legs, (ii) growth proceeds from the centre of body and moves towards the extremities or more distal regions—the **proximodistal** trend, *i.e.* children gain control over their torso before their extremities. Initially infants reach for objects by turning their entire body, gradually they extend their arms to reach for things. These changes are the result of a maturing nervous system and not because of any limitation since even visually impaired children show the same sequence.

As children grow older, they look slimmer as the trunk part of their bodies lengthens and body fat decreases. The brain and the head grow more rapidly than any other part of the body. The growth and development of the brain are important as they help in the maturation of children's abilities, such as eyehand coordination, holding a pencil, and attempts made at writing. During middle and late childhood years, children increase significantly in size and strength; increase in weight is mainly due to increase in the size of the skeletal and muscular systems, as well as size of some body organs.

Motor Development: Gross motor skills during the early childhood years involve the use of arms and legs, and moving around with confidence and more purposefully in the environment. Fine motor skills—finger dexterity and eye-hand coordination—improve substantially during early childhood. During these years the child's preference for left or right hand also develops. The major accomplishments in gross and fine motor skills during early childhood years are given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Major Accomplishments in Gross and Fine Motor Skills

Age in Years	Gross Motor Skills	Fine Motor Skills
3 years	Hopping, jumping, running	Build blocks, pick objects with forefinger and thumb
4 years	Climb up and downstairs with one foot on each step	Fit jigsaw puzzle precisely
5 years	Run hard, enjoy races	Hand, arm, and body all coordinate with eye movement

Cognitive Development: The child's ability to acquire the concept of object permanence enables her/him to use mental symbols to represent objects. However, the child at this stage lacks the ability that allows her/him to do mentally what was done physically before. Cognitive development in early childhood

focuses on Piaget's stage of **preoperational thought** (see Table 2.2). The child gains the ability to mentally represent an object that is not physically present. You may have observed children draw designs/ figures to represent people, trees, dog, house, etc. This ability of the child to engage in symbolic thought helps to expand her/his mental world. The progress in symbolic thought continues. A salient feature of preoperational thought is egocentrism (selffocus), *i.e.* children see the world only in terms of their own selves and are not able to appreciate others' point of view. Children because of egocentrism, engage in **animism**-thinking that all things are living, like oneself. They attribute life-like qualities to inanimate objects. For example, if a child while running slips on the road, s/he might show animism by saying "road hurt me". As children grow and are approximately between 4 and 7 years of age they want answers to all their questions like: Why is the sky blue? How do trees grow? and so on. Such questions help the child to know why things are as they are. Piaget called this the stage of intuitive thought. Another feature of thought during preoperational stage is characterised by children having a tendency for centration, *i.e.* focusing on a single characteristic or feature for understanding an event. For example, a child may insist on drinking a "big glass" of juice, preferring a tall narrow glass to a short broad one, even though both might be holding the same amount of juice.

As the child grows and is approximately between 7 and 11 years of age (the period of middle and late childhood) intuitive thought is replaced by logical thought. This is the stage of **concrete operational thought**, which is made up of operations—mental actions that allow the child to do mentally what was done physically before. Concrete operations are also mental actions that are reversible. In a wellknown test, the child is presented with two identical balls of clay. One ball is rolled by the experimenter into a long thin strip and the other ball remains in its original shape. On being asked which has more clay, the child of 7 or 8 years, would answer that, both have the same amount of clay. This is because the child imagines the ball rolled into thin strip and then into a ball, that means s/he is able to imagine reversible mental action on concrete/real objects. What do you think a preoperational child would have done? S/he is likely to focus on only one aspect-length or height. Concrete operations allow the child to focus on different

characteristics and not focus on one aspect of the object. This helps the child to appreciate that there are different ways of looking at things, which also results in the decline of her/his egocentrism. Thinking becomes more flexible, and children can think about alternatives when solving problems, or mentally retrace their steps if required. Even though the preoperational child develops the ability to see relationships between different properties of an object, s/he cannot do abstract thinking, i.e. s/he still cannot manipulate ideas in the absence of objects. For example, steps required to complete algebraic equations, or imagining line of longitude or latitude of the earth.

The growing cognitive abilities of children facilitate the acquisition of language.

Socio-emotional Development: The important dimensions of children's socioemotional development are the **self, gender** and **moral** development. During the early years of childhood, some important developments in the self take place. The child due to socialisation has developed a sense of who s/he is and whom s/he wants to be identified with. The developing sense of independence makes children do things in their own way. According to Erikson, the way parents respond to their self-initiated activities leads to developing a sense of initiative or sense of guilt. For example, giving freedom and opportunities for play like cycling, running, skating, etc. and answering children's questions will create a sense of support for the initiative taken. In contrast, if they are made to feel that their questions are useless, and games played by them are stupid, the children are likely to develop feelings of guilt over self-initiated activities, which may persist through the children's later life also. Selfunderstanding in early childhood is limited to defining oneself through physical characteristics; I am tall, she has black hair, I am a girl, etc. During middle and late childhood, the child is likely to define oneself through internal characteristics such as, "I am smart and I am popular" or "I feel proud when teachers assign me responsibility in school". In addition to defining oneself through psychological characteristics, children's selfdescriptions also include social aspects of self, such as references to social groups like being a member of school's music club, environment club, or any religious group. Children's selfunderstanding also includes social comparison. Children are likely to think about what they can do or cannot do in comparison with others. For

example, "I got more marks than Atul" or "I can run faster than others in the class". This developmental shift leads to establishing one's differences from others as an individual.

Once the children enter school their social world expands beyond their families. They also spend greater amount of time with their age mates or peers. Thus the increased time that children spend with their peers shapes their development.

Moral Development: Another important aspect of the child's development is learning to differentiate between the rightness or wrongness of human acts. The way children come to distinguish right from wrong, to feel guilty, to put themselves in other people's position, and to help others when they are in trouble, are all components of moral development. Just as children pass through the various stages of cognitive development, according to **Lawrence Kohlberg,** they pass through the various stages of moral development, which are age related. Kohlberg interviewed children in which they were presented with stories in which the characters face moral dilemmas. Children were asked what the characters in the dilemma should do, and why. According to him, children approach thinking about right and wrong differently at different ages. The young child, i.e. before 9 years of age, thinks in terms of external authority. According to her/him, actions are wrong because s/he is punished, and right because s/he is rewarded. As the child grows, i.e. by early adolescence, s/he develops moral reasoning through set of rules of others, such as parents or laws of the society. These rules are accepted by the children as their own. These are "internalised" in order to be virtuous and to win approval from others (not to avoid punishment). Children view rules as absolute guidelines, which should be followed. Moral thinking at this stage is relatively inflexible. As they grow, they gradually develop a personal moral code. You have seen that by the end of childhood a more gradual growth rate enables the child to develop skills of coordination and balance. Language develops and the child can reason logically. Socially the child has become more involved in social systems, such as family and peer group. The next section traces changes in human development during adolescence and adulthood.

Adolescence

The term adolescence derives from the Latin word adolescere, meaning "to grow into maturity". It is the transitional period in a person's life between childhood and adulthood. Adolescence is commonly defined as the stage of life that begins at the onset of puberty, when sexual maturity, or the ability to reproduce is attained. It has been regarded as a period of rapid change, both biologically and psychologically. Though the physical changes that take place during this stage are universal, the social and psychological dimensions of the adolescent's experiences depend on the cultural context. For example, in cultures where the adolescent years are viewed as problematic or confusing, the adolescent will have very different experiences from someone who is in a culture, where adolescent years are viewed as beginning of adult behaviour and, therefore, undertaking responsible tasks. Although most societies have at least a brief period of adolescence, it is not universal across cultures.

Physical Development: Puberty or sexual maturity marks the end of childhood and signifies the beginning of adolescence, which is characterised by dramatic physical changes in both, growth rate, and sexual characteristics. However, puberty is not a sudden event, but is part of a gradual process. The hormones released during puberty result in the development of **primary** and **secondary sexual characteristics.** The primary sex characteristics include those directly related to reproduction and the secondary sex characteristics include features or signs of achieving sexual maturity. Pubertal changes in boys are marked by acceleration in growth, facial hair, and changes in voice. In girls, rapid growth in height usually begins about two years before **menarche,** the onset of menstruation. The growth spurt generally begins at the age of 12 or 13 for boys and at the age of 10 or 11 for girls. It is normal to have variations in the pubertal sequence. For example, among two boys (or two girls) of same chronological age, one may complete pubertal sequence before the other has begun it. Both genetics and environment play a part in this. For example, identical twins reach menarche closer in time than do fraternal twins; on an average, girls from affluent families go through menarche earlier than girls from poor families; and historical trends show that the age of menarche is declining in industrialised nations reflecting better nutrition and advances in medical care.

Physical development during adolescence is also accompanied by a number of psychological changes. Around puberty adolescents show an increase in interest in members of the opposite sex and in sexual matters and a new awareness of sexual feelings develops. This increased attention to sexuality is caused by factors such as individual's awareness of the biological changes taking place and the emphasis placed on sexuality by peers, parents, and society. Even then, many adolescents lack adequate knowledge or have misconceptions about sex and sexuality. Sex is a topic parents find difficult to discuss with children, so adolescents tend to become secretive about sexual concerns which make exchange of information and communication difficult. The concern over adolescent sexuality has become intense in recent times because of the risk of AIDS, and other sexually transmitted diseases.

The development of a sexual identity defines the sexual orientation and guides sexual behaviour. As such it becomes an important developmental task for adolescents. How did you think of yourself at the beginning of puberty ? Adolescents are preoccupied with what they are like and develop individual images of what they look like. Another important developmental task during adolescence is accepting one's physical self/maturity. Adolescents need to develop a realistic image of their physical appearance, which is acceptable to them. It is important to keep in mind that puberty also involves cognitive and social changes along with physical changes.

Cognitive Developmental Changes: Adolescents' thought becomes more abstract, logical, and idealistic; they become more capable of examining their own thoughts, others' thoughts, and what others are thinking about them. Adolescents' developing ability to reason gives them a new level of cognitive and social awareness. Piaget believed that formal operational thought appears between the age of 11 and 15. During this stage adolescent thinking expands beyond actual concrete experiences and they begin to think more in abstract terms and reason about them. In addition to being abstract, adolescent thought is also idealistic. Adolescents begin to think about ideal characteristics for themselves and others and compare themselves and others with these ideal standards. For example, they may think what an ideal parent is like and compare their parents with these ideal standards. This may at times make adolescents

Childhood (Nag)—4

wonder which of the new-found ideal standards they should adopt. In contrast to trial and error approach used by children in earlier stages of development, adolescent thinking becomes more systematic in solving problems—they think of possible courses of action, why something is happening the way it is and systematically seek solutions. Piaget called this type of logical thinking—**hypothetical deductive reasoning.**

Logical thought also influences the development of moral reasoning. Social rules are not considered as absolute standards and moral thinking shows some flexibility. The adolescent recognises alternative moral courses, explores options, and then decides on a personal moral code. For example, should I smoke as everyone I know does ? Is it ethical to copy answers in the examinations ? This also lends the possibility of adolescents not following society's norms if they conflict with personal code of ethics. For example, individuals at this age might participate in a protest march for a cause rather than adhere/conform to college norm.

Adolescents also develop a special kind of egocentrism. According to *David Elkind,* imaginary audience and **personal fable** are two components of adolescents' egocentrism. Imaginary audience is adolescent's belief that others are as preoccupied with them as they are about themselves. They imagine that people are always noticing them and are observing each and every behaviour of theirs. Imagine a boy who thinks that all will notice the ink spot on his shirt, or a girl with a pimple feels, all people would think how bad her skin is. It is this imaginary audience, which makes them extremely self-conscious. The personal fable is part of the adolescents' egocentrism that involves their sense of uniqueness. Adolescents' sense of uniqueness makes them think that no one understands them or their feelings. For example, an adolescent girl thinks that none can sense the hurt that she feels because of being betrayed by a friend. It is quite common to hear the adolescent say to the parents; 'you don't understand me'. To retain their sense of personal uniqueness they may weave stories filled with fantasy around them to create a world that is away from reality. Personal fables are often part of adolescent diaries.

Forming an Identity: You must have sought answers to questions such as: Who am I ? Which subjects should I study ? Do I believe in God ? The answers to all these questions involve

the quest to define one's sense of self or the search for **identity.** Identity is who you are and what your values, commitments and beliefs are. The primary task of adolescence is to establish an identity separate from the parents. During adolescence a detachment process enables the individual to develop a personalised set of beliefs that are uniquely her or his own. In the process of achieving an identity the adolescent could experience conflict with parents and within herself or himself. Those adolescents who can cope with the conflicting identities develop a new sense of self. Adolescents who are not able to cope with this identity crisis are confused. This "identity confusion", according to Erikson, can lead to individuals isolating themselves from peers and family; or they may lose their identity in the crowd. Adolescents on one hand, may desire independence but may also be afraid of it and show a great deal of dependence on their parents. Rapid fluctuations between self-confidence and insecurity are typical of this stage. Adolescents may at one time complain of being "treated like a baby" whereas on other occasions they may seek comfort by depending on their parents. Seeking an identity involves searching for continuity and sameness in oneself, greater responsibility and trying to get a clear sense of who one is, *i.e.* an identity.

The formation of identity during adolescence is influenced by several factors. The cultural background, family and societal values, ethnic background, and socioeconomic status all prevail upon the adolescents' search for a place in society. Family relationships become less important as the adolescent spends more time outside the home and develops a strong need for peer support and acceptance. Increased interactions with peers provide them with opportunities for refining their social skills and trying out different social behaviours. Peers and parents are dual forces having major influences on adolescents. At times conflicting situations with parents lead to increased identification with peers. But generally parents and peers serve complementary functions and fulfil different needs of the adolescents. Vocational commitment is another factor influencing adolescent identity formation. The question "What are you going to be when you grow up?", requires the ability to think about the future and to be able to set realistic and achievable goals. In some cultures freedom is given to the young people to choose an occupation, whereas in certain other cultures the option of making this

choice is not given to the children. Here parents' decision is likely to be accepted by the children. What has been your experience while making a choice in the selection of subjects? Career counselling in schools offers information regarding appraisal of the students for various courses and jobs and provides guidance in making a decision about career choices.

Some Major Concerns: As adults when we reflect on our adolescent years and recall the conflicts, uncertainties, occasional loneliness, group pressures, we feel it was definitely a vulnerable period. During adolescence peer influence, new gained freedom, unresolved problems may create difficulties for many of you. Conforming to peer pressure can be both positive and negative. Adolescents are often confronted with decisions regarding smoking, drugs, alcohol, and breaking parental rules, etc. These decisions are taken without much regard to the effect they can have. Adolescents may face periods of uncertainty, loneliness, self-doubt, anxiety, and concern about themselves and their future, they are also likely to experience excitement, joy, and feelings of competence as they overcome the developmental challenges. You will now read about some of the major challenges faced by adolescents like delinquency, substance abuse, and eating disorders.

Delinquency: Delinquency refers to a variety of behaviours, ranging from socially unacceptable behaviour, legal offences, to criminal acts. Examples include truancy, running away from home, stealing or burglary or acts of vandalism. Adolescents with delinquency and behavioural problems tend to have a negative self-identity, decreased trust, and low level of achievement. Delinquency is often associated with low parental support, inappropriate discipline, and family discord. Often adolescents from communities characterised by poverty, unemployment, and having feelings of alienation from the middle class perform antisocial acts to gain attention and to be popular with their peers. However, most delinquent children do not remain delinquent forever. Change in their peer group, becoming more aware of their social responsibilities and developing feelings of selfworth, imitating positive behaviour of the role models, breaking negative attitudes, and overcoming poor self-concept help in reduction of delinquent behaviour.

Substance Abuse: Adolescent years are especially vulnerable to smoking, alcohol and drug abuse. Some adolescents take recourse to smoking and drugs as a way of coping with stress. This can interfere with the development of coping skills and responsible decisionmaking. The reasons for smoking and drug use could be peer pressure and the adolescents' need to be accepted by the group, or desire to act more like adults, or feel a need to escape the pressure of school work or social activities. The addictive powers of nicotine make it difficult to stop smoking. It has been found that adolescents who are more vulnerable to drugs, alcohol, and nicotine use, are impulsive, aggressive, anxious, depressive, and unpredictable, have low self-esteem, and low expectation for achievement. Peer pressure and the need to be with their peer group make the adolescent either go along with their demands to experiment with drugs, alcohol, and smoking or be ridiculed. Drug use if continued long enough can lead to physiological dependency, *i.e.* addiction to drugs, alcohol or nicotine may seriously jeopardise the rest of the adolescents' lives. Positive relationships with parents, peers, siblings, and adults play an important role in preventing drug abuse. In India, a successful anti-drug programme is the Society for Theatre in Education Programme in New Delhi. It uses street performances to entertain people between 13 to 25 years of age while teaching them how to say no to drugs. The United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) has chosen the programme as an example to be adopted by other nongovernmental organisations in the region.

Eating Disorders: Adolescents' obsession with self, living in fantasy world and peer comparisons lead to certain conditions where they become obsessed with their own bodies. Anorexia nervosa is an eating disorder that involves relentless pursuit of thinness through starvation. It is quite common to see adolescents eliminate certain foods from their diets or to eat slimming foods only. The media also projects thinness, as the most desirable image and copying such fashionable image of thinness leads to anorexia nervosa. Bulimia is another form of an eating disorder in which the individual follows a binge-and-purge eating pattern. The bulimic goes on an eating binge, then purges by self-induced vomiting or using a laxative at times alternating it with fasting. Anorexia nervosa and bulimia are primarily female disorders more common in urban families.

Adulthood And Old Age

Adulthood

An adult is generally defined as someone who is responsible, mature, self-supporting, and well integrated into society. There is a variation in developing these attributes, which suggests that there is a shift in timing when an individual becomes an adult or assumes adult roles. Some people take up jobs along with their college studies or may get married and not pursue their studies. Others may continue to live with their parents even after getting married and being financially independent. The assumption of adult roles is directed by an individual's social context. The best time for some of the most important life events (*i.e.* marriage, job, having children) might be quite different in different cultures but within a culture there is similarity in the course of adult development.

In early adulthood, two major tasks are, exploring the possibilities for adult living and developing a stable life structure. The twenties represent the novice phase of adult development. Gradually, a transition from dependence to independence should occur. This could be marked by an image of the kind of life the young person wants, especially in terms of marriage and a career.

Career and Work: Earning a living, choosing an occupation, and developing a career are important themes for people in their twenties and thirties. Entering work life is a challenging event in anyone's life. There are apprehensions regarding different adjustments, proving one's competence, performance, dealing with competition, and coping with expectations both of the employers and oneself. It is also the beginning of new roles and responsibilities. Developing and evaluating a career becomes an important task of adulthood.

Marriage, Parenthood, and Family: The adjustments that young adults have to make when entering a marriage relate to knowing the other person if not known earlier, coping with each other's likes, dislikes, tastes, and choices. If both the partners are working, adjustments are required regarding sharing and performing roles and responsibilities at home.

In addition to getting married, becoming a parent can be a difficult and stressful transition in young adults, even though it is usually accompanied by the feeling of love for the baby. How adults experience parenting is affected by different situations such as the number of children in the family, the availability of social support, and the happiness or unhappiness of the married couple.

Death of a spouse or divorce creates a family structure in which a single parent either the mother or the father has to take up the responsibility of the children. In recent times, women are increasingly seeking employment outside the home thus creating another type of family in which both parents work. The stressors when both parents are working are quite the same as of a single working parent, namely, taking care of children, their schoolwork, illness, and coping with workload at home and in the office, etc. Despite the stresses associated with parenting, it provides a unique opportunity for growth and satisfaction and is perceived as a way of establishing concern and guiding the next generation.

Physical changes during middle ages are caused by maturational changes in the body. Though individuals may vary in the rate at which these changes occur, almost all middleaged people notice gradual deterioration in some aspects of their physical functioning such as decline in vision, sensitivity to glare, hearing loss and changes in physical appearance (*e.g.*, wrinkles, grey hair or thinning of hair, weight gain). Do cognitive abilities change during adulthood ? It is believed that some cognitive abilities decline with age while others do not. Decline in memory is more in tasks involving long-term memory than short-term memory. For example, a middle-aged person can remember the telephone number immediately after s/he has heard it but may not remember it so efficiently after a few days. Memory tends to show greater decline, while wisdom may improve with age. Remember that individual differences exist in intelligence at every age and as not all children are exceptional, neither do all adults show wisdom.

Old Age

Just when "old age" begins, is not easy to determine. Traditionally, the age of retirement was linked to old age. Now that people are living longer, age of retiring from work is changing, and the cut-off point for the definition of "old age" is moving upward. Some of the challenges, which the aged have to cope with include retirement, widowhood, illness, or death in the family. The image of old age is changing in certain ways.

Now there are people who have crossed seventy years of age or so and are quite active, energetic, and creative. They are competent and are therefore, valued by society in many walks of life. In particular, we have aged people in politics, literature, business, art and science. The myth of old age as an incapacitating and therefore, frightening phase of life is changing.

Of course, the experience of old age also depends on the socio-economic conditions, availability of health care, attitude of people, expectations of society and the available support system. Work is most important during early adult years, then family becomes most important and beyond that health becomes the most important issue in the person's life. Clearly, successful ageing for much of our adult life focuses on how effective we are at work, how loving our relationships are in our family, how good our friendships are, how healthy we are, and how cognitively fit we are.

Retirement from active vocational life is quite significant. Some people perceive retirement as a negative change. They consider it as a separation from an important source of satisfaction and self-esteem. Others view it as a shift in life with more time to pursue their own interests. It is seen that older adults who show openness to new experiences, more striving and achievementoriented behaviour prefer to keep busy and are better adjusted.

Older adults also need to adjust to changes in the family structure and new roles (grand parenting) that have to be learnt. Children usually are busy in their careers and families and may set up independent homes. Older adults may depend on their children for financial support and to overcome their loneliness (after children have moved out). This might trigger-off feelings of hopelessness and depression in some people.

In old age feeling of loss of energy, and dwindling of health and financial assets, lead to insecurity and dependency. The elderly tend to look towards others to lean on and to care for them. Indian culture favours dependency of elderly on their children, for old age needs caring. In fact, parents in most oriental cultures rear their children with the fond hope that they will care for them during old age. It is important to give the elderly a sense of security and belonging, a feeling that people care for

them (especially in the time of crisis), and to remember that we all have to grow old one day.

Although death is more likely to occur in late adulthood, death can come at any point in development. The deaths, especially of children and younger adults, are often perceived to be more tragic than those of others. In children and younger adults, death is more likely to occur because of accidents but in older adults it is more likely to occur because of chronic disease. The death of a spouse is usually seen as the most difficult loss. Those left behind after the death of their partner suffer deep grief, cope with loneliness, depression, financial loss and are also at risk of many health related problems. Widows by far out number widowers, because studies show that women live longer than men and tend to marry men older than themselves. During such times, support from children, grandchildren, and friends can help the individual cope with the loss of spouse.

People in different cultures view death differently. In the Gond culture in our country, it is believed that death is caused by magic and demon. In the Tanala culture of Madagascar, natural forces are thought to cause death. Human development as you have read in this chapter thus, helps you to understand the influence of various factors in an individual's lifetime.

Summary: Different Stages of Development

- Prenatal development may be affected by maternal malnutrition, maternal drug use and some maternal illnesses.
- Motor development follows cephalocaudal and proximodistal trends. Early motor development depends on both maturation and learning.
- Cultural variations in child rearing can affect the patterns of attachment between the child and the caregiver.
- According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, the main characteristics of sensorimotor stage is the child's gradual recognition of the permanence of objects. The preoperational stage is marked by certain deficiencies in thinking such as centration, irreversibility, and egocentrism.
- During the concrete operations stage, children develop the ability to perform operations on mental representations, making them capable of conservation. The stage of formal

operations is more abstract, systematic, and develops logical thought.

- According to Kohlberg, moral reasoning progresses through three levels that are related to age and determined by cognitive development.
- The growth spurt at puberty is a prominent event involving the development of reproductive maturity and secondary sex characteristics. According to Erikson, the key challenge of adolescence is to make some progress towards a sense of identity.
- During adulthood personality is marked by both stability and change. Many landmarks in adult development involve transitions in family relationships, including adjustment to marriage, parenthood, and children leaving home.
- Age-related physical transitions during adulthood include changes in appearance, memory, and in the cognitive domain.

ADOLESCENCES—PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT, EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

The period of transition from childhood to adulthood is called adolescence. Adolescence is very crucial stage of development. All types of changes i.e. biological, physical, social, cognitive, etc., take place during the adolescence stage. About the physical and cognitive development of Adolescence stage are discussed earlier. Now we discuss here about the emotional development.

Emotional Development

In the process of growth and development, every individual undergoes distinct emotional experiences, specific to that particular stage of development. In every activity that we perform, we have an emotional experience which is reflected in our mood. Emotions which are said to be the springs of life time actions occupy a special field of study for a student of education and psychology and bear special significance for a teacher.

Definition of Emotion

Derivative Meaning of Emotion: In its derivative meaning, emotion may be defined as the stirred up or the excited or the disturbed state of mind. The word **'emotion'** is itself derived

from the Latin word **'emovere'** which means to **'stir up'**, to **'excite'** or to **'agitate'**.

So many psychologists are given their view regarding emotion in the following manner :

View of Gates : *Gates* defines emotions as 'episodes in which the individual is moved or excited'.

View of Woodworth : According to **Woodworth**, Emotion "is a moved or stirred up state of an organism. It is disturbed muscular and glandular activity".

McDougall's View: According to McDougall, emotion is then made up experience that accompanies the working of instinctive impulses. In this theory, every instinct is accompanied by a specific emotion. The fourteen emotions which accompany the fourteen instincts are known as prime emotions.

Hoffding's View : *Hoffding* speaks of emotion as a sudden boiling up of feeling which, for a time, overwhelms the mind.

Nature of Emotion

In order to understand the nature of emotion, we shall do well to examine some aspects of emotions and see what is common to them. We may conclude on the basis of our daily experience that emotion is a complex mental process coloured by a well-marked feeling tone. In this sense emotions are a complex feeling. However, it will not be out of place to enlist a few expert definitions of emotion.

Expression of Emotion

1. *Anger:* In comparison to other emotions the emotion of anger emerges around 3 month and is found frequently in children. When the child is hungry and he doesn't get milk, somebody snatches his toy or when some interference is created in his activities etc. lead to the emergence of anger. The child shows aggressive behaviour. He breaks throws, hits or even bites sometimes. Young babies cry, they close their fists, their face becomes red. When they learn to speak they express their anger through language, e.g., "I am angry with you", "I will not talk to you", "I will complain to ma-pa", etc.

2. *Happiness:* The first emotion that baby experiences is happiness when he is well fed. He smiles, expresses happiness and feels comfortable after bath and change of

clothes. Six months-old baby claps and laughs when he is happy. One year-old jumps and rolls on the ground when he is happy. Two year-old expresses his happiness through language "Achha alga" "Maze a gay", etc.

3. **Distress:** Along with the feeling of happiness the baby experiences a state of distress or sadness whenever he is uncomfortable. The baby shows his distress by crying when wet or hungry. He shows temper tantrums also.

4. **Fear:** From 6 month the emotion of fear starts developing in the baby. The baby experiences of feeling of fear on hearing loud sound or on seeing a strange person, children are scared of new place, darkness, loneliness and certain previous bad experiences.

   The baby learns some emotions by imitation also. If the mother is scared of something, e.g., mouse or an insect the baby also starts fearing the same. The baby if accidentally experiences fire or electric current get permanently scared of them. Different children have different expressions of fear.

   Some starts crying; some run away from fearful situation and some hide behind their mother and start trembling. When they grow up they also express their fear through language.

5. **Jealousy:** Eighteen months-old baby experiences the emotion of jealousy. With the arrival of younger sibling, he starts feeling jealous of him as he feels that instead of him the younger sibling has became centre of attraction and he is being ignored.

   He hits the baby, bites and tries to do harm to him. He pushes the baby from his mother's lap. He demands that he should be fed with the bottle as mother is feeding the younger one. When scolded he starts wetting the bed or sucking the thumb? If the parents praise any other child he becomes jealous of that child.

   They express their jealousy through language "Amit is a dirty boy", "Mama doesn't hold him, I don't want it." This tendency is at peak around 3 to 4 years. Children of nuclear families are more jealous.

6. **Shyness:** Child starts feeling conscious of unfamiliar faces and things around the age of 6 to 8 months. If the mother makes a different hair do or someone wear a spectacle, the child tries to avoid him or her.

He hides his own face or pushes the other person away from him. When above one year, he runs and hides himself behind his mother or a piece of furniture. It sometimes hides his face.

Factors Affect in Emotional Development

Factors that Affect Emotional Development in Children

1. **Hereditary Factors:** It has been seen that some similarities are found between the emotional development of parents as well as children.

2. **Maturation:** As the child develops mentally, he also gets emotionally matured. It has been proved through experiments by psychologists that development of emotions of the child depends upon the level of maturation the child.

3. **Training:** Watson has proved that children learn through conditioning. He did an experiment on a nine months-old baby. The baby was shown a rat and in the background a loud sound was made. After some time it has seen that the baby started crying at the sight of the rat.

   Thus it was proved that young children's emotions are influenced by conditioning. Through experiments, it was seen that children start getting scared of the things with which their mothers feels frightened when the parents expresses affection he also starts responding in the same manner. If there is expression of physical love in the family, he also kisses hugs and expresses love by touching.

4. **Health:** Children with sound health are able to control their emotions in a better way. Children who are weak remain irritable, easily excitable and emotionally unstable.

5. **Intelligence:** Children who are intelligent are emotionally stable. Children with low intelligence quotient are emotionally unstable.

6. **Family Relation:** Relation of family members with each other and how they express their emotions affects the emotional behaviour of the child. If the behaviour of the parents is stable and they express their emotions in a subdued and balanced manner, the child will also learn to express his emotion in a balanced manner.

   If the parents shout in anger, show violent behaviour, the baby also adopts the same behaviour and shows temper

tantrums. He will throw his toys and other things in a f of anger. Over pampering makes the child obstinate an indiscipline. Parents who are not able to give time to the children or somehow don't show any affection, their childre become submissive or introvert.

7. **Social Environment:** Just like family, neighbourhoo school, society members exert influence on the emotion development of the child. If the environment of the societ is tense and emotionally charged the child will also becom emotionally unstable. If people around are emotionall stable, they express their emotions in a socially approve way. If people have control over their emotions the chi also imitates and follows the same pattern regarding h emotions. He will learn better control over his emotion an will always try to confirm the socially approved way expressing his emotions.

8. **Control Over Emotions:** To maintain physical an mental health, it is very necessary to have control ove emotions. At the time of emotional state, body undergo many changes like change in blood circulation, pulse rat breathing, effect on digestive system, stretching of eye closing of fists, etc. When these emotional states ar created in the body frequently and intensely, it affect the body badly.

That is why it is very necessary to exercise control ove emotions and they should be expressed in a social approved manner so that the person and the people arour him can live in peace and harmony.

Educational Implications of Emotional Development

Usually children express many emotions link anger, fea jealousy, affection, joy, pleasure, etc. Positive emotions help th child to develop a positive outlook about life.

The allowing methods are offered to help children maintaining emotional balance:

1. **Fatigue:** Tired children are difficult to handle. Therefor efforts may be made not to cause undue fatigue to then

2. **Poor Health:** Children in poor health are irritable. Hen the health of children should be properly looked after.

3. **Association with Emotional People:** Children imitat the behaviour of year elders parents, teachers and oth

adults and peer groups. Suitable examples should be presented by the elders.

4. **Thwarted Desires:** The more restrictions are imposed on the child, the lore revolting he becomes. This means that a suitable disciplinary mechanism bold be evolved.

5. **Unpreparedness:** A child shows emotional outbursts when he is faced it a strange situation or for which he is not prepared. Proper training to ice such situations needs to be given gradually.

6. **Expression of Feelings:** Children should be helped to express their emotions in natural way. They should be helped to develop a realistic understanding of tuitions that arouse unpleasantness.

7. **Itself-control:** Children should be helped to learn how to control their feelings which may offend others. They should be gradually directed to exe more of self-control.

8. **Counseling:** Counseling may be useful in cases of a highly disturb emotional state of the mind.

Teachers' Role Regarding Emotional Development

The teacher can play an important role in the emotional development of the child, especially upto adolescence stage. This early training will set the pace for future emotional stability of the individual. The teacher can play his role in a number of ways as given below:

1. **Teacher's Personal Emotional Stability is Very Important:** Example is better than precept. A teacher who does not fall back to fits of anger nor loses temperament, is sure to leave a healthy impression on his pupils. The teacher is likely to be caught in a number of tense situations inside the class-room or in the play-ground. He must give a proof of emotional balance without getting irritated on small accounts.

The teacher should be careful that his home-life does not interfere with his professional life. He must ignore small acts of mischief of his pupils. He should treat his pupils kindly and sympathetically. He should emotionally disturbed pupil and should give him his confidence.

2. **Unnecessary Frequent Punishments Should Be Avoided:** He should avoid such remarks as would hurt the

child's ego. He should own the student and respect hi[s] personality.

3. **Congenial Atmosphere:** Congenial atmosphere i[s] necessary for the emotional health of students. Teacher[s] should behave themselves in their interpersonal relationship[s.] The school atmosphere should give the pupils a sense [of] belongingness and a feeling of security.

4. **Opportunities for Self-expression:** Opportunities fo[r] self-expression are helpful in creating emotional stabilit[y.] Proper literary facilities, provision for games and sport[s,] organisation of debates, declamations, dramatics, etc. are [a] number of activities which the teacher can arrange in th[e] school for giving an outlet to children's pent-up emotion[s] and repressed feelings.

5. **Self-government:** Self-government in school is anothe[r] important means of teaching self-restraint, self-disciplin[e] and a code of conduct to the children which no extern[al] agent can teach. This satisfies their ego, gives them a feelin[g] of responsibility and helps them in sound mental health[.]

6. **Positive Suggestions:** Positive suggestions can help i[n] the formation of positive sentiments. Negative suggestion[s] disturb emotional as well as mental balance. The teach[er] should avoid negative suggestions.

7. **Educational Guidance and Counseling:** Education[al] guidance and counseling is highly desirable in schools. If [a] whole-time counselor is not available, the teacher shou[ld] perform this job also. The teacher should win over t[he] confidence of his students to the extent that they do n[ot] think in bringing even their personal problems to him. T[he] teacher should do his best in helping them overcome the[ir] problems.

8. **Occasional Visits:** Occasional visits to children's hom[e] help the teacher in knowing them better. This would al[so] help him in detecting certain problems which have the[ir] origin in the child's home and are likely to upset him. T[he] teacher can take positive steps in this regard.

Many more similar steps can be taken by the teacher, [as] and when the occasion demands it, to see his childr[en] emotionally healthy.

Way to Teacher Guide Adolescents for Proper Emotional Development

T Morgan, emphasizing the importance of emotions in life, writes that emotions are basic, primeval forces of great power and influence designed by nature to enable the organism to cope with circumstances which demand the utmost effort for survival or success or to add colour and spice to our living. Our emotions control our behaviour.

Adolescence is marked by heightened emotionality. Emotions like love, anger, hate, jealousy, fear, worry and joy etc, all reach its peak. At no stage the child is so restless and emotionally perturbed as in adolescence. He is too sensitive and moody. In the words to Ross, "The adolescent lives on intensely emotional life, in which we can see once more the rhythm of positive and negative phases of behaviour in his constant alternation between intense excitement and deep depression".

This is why the period is often stated as a period of stress and strain. Sometimes he is hilarious but on other occasion he is depressed. He may develop morbid fears and inferiority complex.

If the teacher is aware about all these upheavals adolescents, he can guide accordingly. Developing proper emotions and controlling them is very essential objective of education during adolescence. Meeting social demands as well as to eliminate the damaging effects of emotions on attitudes, habits, behaviour and physical well being, control of emotions is essential.

Control does not mean repression but it means learning to approach a social situation with rational attitude and repression of those emotions which are socially unacceptable. The class-room teacher can play an important role to reduce pressures that interfere with adolescents' emotional development.

1. **Proper Training:** A teacher can use devices and methods to control fears of inadequacy in various situations by developing competencies and skills, thus developing self-confidence.

2. **Development of Resistance:** A teacher should help the adolescents to examine themselves in finding the causes of failure and frustrations thus developing in them the resistance to frustrations.

3. **Proper Understanding:** As the adolescent is beset by problems of divided loyalties, accentuated by the lack of adult privileges and responsibilities, he is very sensitive and does not welcome any criticism. It becomes the utmost duty of the teacher to understand the adolescents and change the attitude towards him, try to provide him the proper environment for the expression of pent up feelings and can suggest the same for parents at home.

Fair treatment, sympathy, co-operation, and freedom of action within a reasonable limit should be given to adolescents and no unnecessary restrictions should be imposed. A variety of interests should be developed to avoid frustration.

Teach the adolescents to relax by providing opportunities for hobbies, cultural activities, catharsis through play, free discussion, drama etc.

Suggesting the parents not to over protect the child can be an effective way of handling the emotions of youth.

4. **Verbalization of Feelings:** Adolescents should be trained to express their feelings. As the verbalization of pent up emotional feelings release mental tension and as emotions are put into words, they become diffused, less intense and manageable. The teacher must develop a clear recognition of the desirability of achieving free and constructive expression of emotions which will result in progress towards the desired goal.

5. **Health:** Poor health of the children may cause irritable behaviour like worry, anxiety, fear etc. Hence the health of children should be properly looked after. Moreover, teachers can guide them that they should study when they are not tired lest it should result in negative learning and feeling of inadequacy.

6. **Picnic and Tours:** The teacher can organise picnics, excursions; and tours to provide them opportunities to understand each other and to come closer. This may resolve many problems.

NEEDS AND PROBLEMS OF ADOLESCENCES THEIR GUIDANCE AND COUNCIL

Introduction

Adolescence is the most crucial period of human life connecting childhood and adulthood. It is during the period that aims and ambitions of life take their roots in the mind. It is also during this period that many take wrong curse to life. Various problems arise during the period, in any case which require satisfactory action. Following social progress due to the impact of science and technology the nature of adolesence problem, changes from time to time in any culture with the change of social values.

Definitions

Etymologically, adolescence is the word which is derived from Greek word "adolescere" which means "to grow to maturity".

Chronologically the period is between 12 to 21 years.

According to **AT Jessild** adolescence is that span of years during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood mentally, emotionally, socially and definitely physically.

Poets describe this period as the spring of life.

Psychologists describe this as the period of storm and stress.

Sociologists describe this as the period of transition from dependence to independence.

Educationists describe this as the most significant phase of one's academic life.

Characteristics

During adolescence, the following changes control the characteristic pattern of the individual.

1. Physical changes which leads to sexual maturity.
2. Mental changes or intelectual development.
3. Emotional changes which is related to the attitude to revolt.
4. Social changes.
5. Sexual curiosity and fulfilment of sexual knowledge.
6. Daydreaming.
7. Urge for activity.

According to **Havighurst,** who has specified adolescence period as a span between 12 to 18 years identified few developmental tasks for this period, like—

1. Achieving new and more mature relation with age-mates of both sexes.
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role.
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
4. Activing emotional independence of parents and other adults.
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
6. Selecting and preparing for one occupation.
7. Preparing for family life, i.e. marriage.
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
9. Discreing and achieving socially responsible behaviour.
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behaviour.

Erik Erikson also mentioned different stages of adolescence reactions to various social of needs which are more or less discussed in the earlier paragraphs.

Needs

Needs of the adolescents were identified by various psychologists like **Stanley Hall** and **Ellingworth**—

1. Need for free activity & freedom.
2. Need for social life.
3. Need for mate or peer group.
4. Need for new knowledge.
5. Need for self expression.
6. Need for ethical development.
7. Need for sex education.
8. Need for security.
9. Need for self reliance.
10. Need for philosophy of life.

Problems

Due to depreciation of various needs, adolescents show different problems for *e.g.*—maladjustment of varying degrees like lying, stealing, bad manners, disobedience, restlessness, temper tantirums, perverted sex practices and sexual offence, gambling, addiction to drug & alcohol. By this adolescents may lose their moral and social values.

During the period, they become aware of their family problems and family tension and sometimes start worrying

about their future. They also feel frustrated due to a very dull curriculum and too much of bookish study.

Porter has reported the following general educational problems faced by the adolescent students.

1. Lack of self confidence in one's ability to learn.
2. Unrealistic expectation of progress—(a) Teachers' expectation, (b) Parental aspiration.
3. Conflicting values and attitudes.
4. Theoretical on errelevent learning tasks.
5. Seeking help too late or from the wrong sources.
6. Lack of efficient reading and study habits.
7. Pressure of time.
8. Significance of long range goals.
9. Implications of family life, employment and job circumstances.
10. Mechanics of attending classes—Motivated to learn—Drive to listen—observation—taking notes—correlating—general-isation—drawing conclusion.
11. Memories as obstacles.
12. Lack of continuity with faculty and counsellors.

Learning is culturally relative and it depends on learners abilities, anxiety levels, objective situation, organisation of motives and values self esteem, self confidence, level of aspiation, self awareness, group atmosphere and peer influence. These factors must be remembered and taken into consideration in tackleing educational problems of the adolescents.

Causes

There are different causes of development of problems. Accordingly the expectancy theory as suggested by **Lewin, Peak, Tolman, Buroom** and **Lawler** and the Isolation of Behavioural Determinants Theory as suggested by *Fishbein and Azen* draw our special attention.

Some of the teachers expectations listed by them are—

1. The teacher expects specific behaviour and achievement from particular students.
2. Because of the different expectation, the teacher behaves differently towards different students.
3. This treatment tells the students what behaviour and achievement the teacher expects from them and affects their self concept, achievement and level of aspiration.

4. If it is consistent overtime it will shape the achievement of student.

5. With time, student achievement and behaviour, will confirm, more and more closely to that originally expected of them.

Teacher's expectations, parents expectation and the expectations of his or her peer group do influence adolescents behaviours.

A generalised list of various causes which directly related to the development of problems are—

1. Improper adjustment in home, school and society.
2. Unfavourable relations in home.
3. Social expectations.
4. Adjustment to the member of opposite sex.
5. Religious conflicts.
6. School failures.
7. Conflicts with friends and family members.
8. Vocational problems.

Role of Teachers to solve Educational Problems of Adolescents

Teachers among all the elders of the society can easily change or mould the behaviour pattern of adolescent students because adolescent spend maximum time with them. There are few specific ways to solve these problems as identified by various psychologists.

1. Love sympathy and cooperations of all superior in the society.
2. Sympathy and understanding and a friendly attitude towards them.
3. Helping them to form there philosophy of life.
4. Provision for physical activity which provide for a better catharsis.
5. Helping them to learn adjustment among other members of the society.
6. Development of activity based curriculum.
7. Development of aesthetic activities which provide enough opportunities for free self expression.
8. Giving them full scope to work independently and giving them responsibility.

9. Provision for sex education which is known as adolescence education now-a-days. Now-a-days sex education or adolescence education is renamed as life style or life skill education. Let us share few insights regarding sex education here.

Common adjustment problems in adoloscence, parental, social and Educational Support for the adolescent:

Adolescence is the most important period of human life. Poets have described it as the spring of life of human being and an important era in the total life-space. Some psychologists have defined it as the transitional period of time.

Jean Piaget defined adolescence as, "The age of great ideals and the beginning of theories as well as the time of simple adaptation to reality." Chronologically, adolescence from culture to comes roughly in between the years 12 to the early 20s. The onset of adolescence varies from culture to culture depending on the socio-economic conditions of the country.

It is a period of rapid changes in all dimensions of development. Changes in behaviour are accompanied by problems and protential difficulties. Increasing complexity of our social and economic developments due to the use of modern technology have created many adjustment problems that did not exist in the past.

Classification

According to *Laycock*, adolescent problems can be grouped as—

1. Adjustment problems due to changing physical growth & physiological development.
2. Getting emuncipated from family and free from emotional dependence on parents.
3. Accepting their respective characteristics according to them sex and also adjusting to the opposite sex.
4. Choosing a suitable vocation.
5. Aequiring a meaningful philosophy and purpose of life.

According to *Charlotte Pope*, adolescent problems were grouped as follows—

1. Studying-learning relationship.
2. Occupational adjustment.
3. Personal adjustment.

4. Home life relationship.

5. Social adjustment.

6. Health problems.

She made this list after studying the problems of adolescent by means of essays written by about 2000 adolescents.

On the basis of an opinion poll on 15000 teenagers, Purdue University classified adolescent problems as :

1. Health & Physical development.
2. Finances, living conditions and employment.
3. Social and recreational activities.
4. Sex and marriage.
5. Social, psychological relations.
6. Personal psychological relations.
7. Morals and religion.
8. Home and family.
9. Future educational & vocational problems.
10. Adjustment to school work.
11. Curriculum and teaching procedures.

Problems Frequently Reported

1. Educational Adjustment: It has been reported that more than 50% of adaloscent problems pertain to education.

These include—

1. Dislike for study.
2. Fear of failure.
3. Restlessness in class.
4. Low grade in the examination.
5. Fear of speaking in the class.
6. Too much work.
7. Dislike for school.
8. Partial behaviour by teachers.
9. Groupism on the base of caste, creed & religion.

2. Adjustment at home: Development in socio-economic conditions due to the introduction of technology have created a number of problems for the new generations of youth in time and society. **For types of problems are frequently required here:**

1. Restriction on their freedom.
2. Lack of understanding between parents and adolescents.
3. Money issues.
4. Atmosphere at home.

Some of the most acute problems are :

—being treated as small by parents
—no for with parents
—keeping secrets from adolescents
—parents working too hard for livelihood and poverty.

Case Study: Arkya, a 14 year old boy from a middle class family sees his parents go to work every morning and struggling to save every penny they can. The teenager is on his own most of the time and at this transitional age he starts facing the monetary pressures weighing down on the relationship of his parents as well as his own bonds with his parents he is at a loss about how to help his perents, and this leaves him frustrated and angry. He wants his parents to share their problems with him but his parents too do not want to pressurise him with their problems. This miscommunication creates arift in the family which affects each one of them with equal pain.

3. Financial problems include:

1. Wanting to earn money
2. Learning to spend money
3. Asking for money
4. Learning to save money
5. Having no regular allowance
6. Less money than needed (poor parents)
7. No nice clothes.

For e.g. Young teenaged girls choosing to join escort services /prostitution out of this own will just to earn enough pocket money so that they can spend and live a lavish life.

4. Health Adjustment: Young boys are more curious about practising good health than girls. Girls manifest more concern over sex guidance. **The frequently checked problems are:**

(a) weak eyes
(b) lack of physical strength
(c) frequent headache
(d) underweight
(e) poor teeth
(f) lack of height
(g) poor complexion
(h) frequent colds
(i) fatigue.

Examples: Using fairness creams of all brands to impro complexion, exercising too much, too much weight training boys, cosmetic surgeries to correct any small physical trait et are all instances of how adolescents suffer from health complexe

5. Vocational Adjustment: Adolescents are very mu concerned about their future vocation. These problems are :

Selection of vocational preference,

Preparation for a vocation.

6. Personal social problems: Like worry, day dreamin nervousness, feeling of guilt, behaviour by others also cann be ignored.

7. Hetrosexuality: The most serious problematic behaviou of the adolescents are sex related. When sex related curiocit of the adolescents are not satisfied through natural ways, the try to satisfy the same through abnormal and unconvention ways. The most common sex offences of the adolescents in th school are indulging in indecent behaviour towards th classmates writing obscure words or drawing vulgar pictures different places, reading pornographic literature etc.

8. Philosophy of life: The children in adolescence want have a philosophy of life, a clean concept of morality and wa to know all the things which are unknown to them. They wa to evaluate all the activites of themselves and people aroun them in accordance with the concept of right and wrong. The is always a tendency among them to do whatever is normall right. And if they do something morally wrong they go throug terrible mental agony.

Role of Parents, Society and Education to help th adolescents: Parental Role

A child is born in a home where he remains in constant compan of his mother in the formative years of his infancy. Thus parent since they control children during infancy are in the mos strategic position to inculcate positive habits in their childre which go all the way to their adolescent period and adulthoo too. Since adolescence is such a sensitive time in the life of person, the parents have a huge responsibility upon them t create a conducive atmosphere at home so that their childre are protected from the unwarrented problems of adolescence

1. Provide proper affection and love to the child.
2. Provide a conducive environment at home.

3. Avoid criticising their child.
4. Avoid corporing their children with other children.
5. Avoid rejecting / overprotecting the child.
6. Avoid quarreling in the presence of the child.
7. Avoid being over anxious about the future of the child.
8. Being democratic in dealings.
9. Meeting the legitimate needs of the child.
10. Providing guidance where necessary.
11. Building self confidence in the child.

Societal Role

1. **Religious Beliefs:** In the present scientific era adolescents are very critical of the traditional religious beliefs. When they do not find rational principles in religious beliefs, they are frustrated. Thus if the society is more tolerant and decides not to impose irrational religious beliefs on adolescents, such problems can be avoided.

2. **Provision of clubs, playgrounds and libraries:** Children need physical and mental recreational activities to fulfil their physical and mental needs, the lack of which leads to maladjusted behaviour.

3. **Controlling Mobility:** Children whose family move from one place to another have to face a number of problems. Hence, controlling frequent change of living place will help control maladjustment.

4. **Removing class differences:** On the basis of privileged and underprivileged classes differential treatment is given to children of different communities and socio-economic groups controlling against such discriminations and encouraging children to be tolerant of everybody irrespective of their caste and social status is the prime responsibility of the society.

5. **Protection against employment insecurity:** Adolescents are very ambitious for their future career and they look ahead to eventual economic independence in the form of a job but the lack of the same makes them restless, anxious and sometimes rebellious against the society out of frustration. Thus, if our society can be built up in a manner so as to give proper vocational and occupational gaidance to the fresh and young nids and if proper opportunities can be created by the society—such frustrations can be avoided.

Exercise

Very Short-type Questions   Marks

1. What is developmental tasks ? 38
2. What is prenatal stage ? 39
3. What is teratogens ? 39
4. What is attachment ? 42
5. What is meant by ecocentrism ? 45
6. What is the stage of concrete operational throught ? 45
7. What are the dimensions of children's socioemotional development
8. What is hypthetical deductive reasoning ?   50   46
9. What is delinquency ? 52
10. Define the adulthood. 54
11. Define the adolescence. 58
12. Write two characteristics of adolescence. 67
13. Mention few needs of adolescence. 68
14. What is heterosexuality ? 74

Short-type Questions   Marks

1. Mention the different stages of human development, time limit of stages and different aspects of development.
2. Mention the different motor development in Infancy.
3. Discuss about motor development in early childhood.
4. Write the characteristics of child's Emotional and Mental development at early childhood.
5. Mention the characteristics of Physical and Motor development Adolescence.
6. Write the characteristics of Social development at Adolescence.
7. Write the characteristics of Mental and Emotional development Adolescence.
8. What are the characteristics of Physical, Mental and Emotional development at Adulthood?
9. Mention the characteristics of Cognitive development at Adolescence

Essay-type Questions   Marks-1
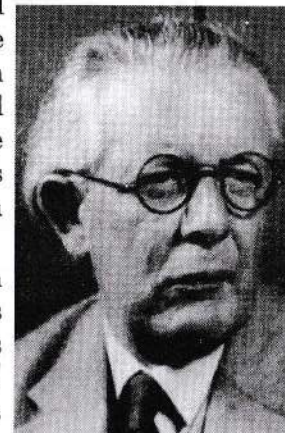
1. Discuss the characteristics of different types of development childhood.
2. Discuss the characteristics of different types of development Adolescence.
3. Discuss the needs and problems of Adolescence.
4. What type of Guidance and Counselling could you arrange to solve the problems of Adolescence?

3

Different Types of Development

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Jean Piaget, a Swiss biologist, developed the theory of cognitive development and designed a proper framework to understand the structure, functioning and development of cognitive network of human mind. According to him, there are two aspects of human mind :

(i) **Cognitive Structure:** A child is born with some instincts and reflexes, such as sucking, grasping, looking. Therefore, the initial cognitive structure of child is supposed to incorporate only those cognitive abilities which help him to suck, grasp, look. Piaget called these abilities as schemas. Therefore a 'schema' represents a unit of one's cognitive structure to perform a particular class of behaviours.

(ii) **Cognitive Functioning:** An individual has to adapt to his environment for survival as well as proper growth and development. The task of such adaptation is carried out through the processes of assimilation & accommodation.

Jean Piaget

Assimilation is the process in which we assimilate new information into existing mental framework to understand the new ideas in terms of existing concepts, schemas & modes of thought.

Accommodation is the process of altering existing mental frame works in response to new information. According to Piaget, the process of assimilation or accommodation helps the organism to

Exercise

Very Short-type Questions   **Marks-**

1. What is developmental tasks ? 38
2. What is prenatal stage ? 39
3. What is teratogens ? 39
4. What is attachment ? 42
5. What is meant by ecocentrism ? 45
6. What is the stage of concrete operational throught ? 45
7. What are the dimensions of children's socioemotional development
8. What is hypthetical deductive reasoning ? 50   46
9. What is delinquency ? 52
10. Define the adulthood. 54
11. Define the adolescence. 58
12. Write two characteristics of adolescence. 67
13. Mention few needs of adolescence. 68
14. What is heterosexuality ? 74

Short-type Questions   **Marks-**

1. Mention the different stages of human development, time limit o
   stages and different aspects of development.
2. Mention the different motor development in Infancy.
3. Discuss about motor development in early childhood.
4. Write the characteristics of child's Emotional and Mental developments
   at early childhood.
5. Mention the characteristics of Physical and Motor development at
   Adolescence.
6. Write the characteristics of Social development at Adolescence.
7. Write the characteristics of Mental and Emotional development at
   Adolescence.
8. What are the characteristics of Physical, Mental and Emotional
   development at Aduithood?
9. Mention the characteristics of Cognitive development at Adolescence.

Essay-type Questions   **Marks-10**

1. Discuss the characteristics of different types of development at
   childhood.
2. Discuss the characteristics of different types of development at
   Adolescence.
3. Discuss the needs and problems of Adolescence.
4. What type of Guidance and Counselling could you arrange to solve the
   problems of Adolescence?

3

Different Types of Development

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Jean Piaget, a Swiss biologist, developed the theory of cognitive development and designed a proper framework to understand the structure, functioning and development of cognitive network of human mind. According to him, there are two aspects of human mind :

(i) **Cognitive Structure:** A child is born with some instincts and reflexes, such as sucking, grasping, looking. Therefore, the initial cognitive structure of child is supposed to incorporate only those cognitive abilities which help him to suck, grasp, look. Piaget called these abilities as schemas. Therefore a 'schema' represents a unit of one's cognitive structure to perform a particular class of behaviours.

(ii) **Cognitive Functioning:** An individual has to adapt to his environment for survival as well as proper growth and development. The task of such adaptation is carried out through the processes of assimilation & accommodation.

Jean Piaget

Assimilation is the process in which we assimilate new information into existing mental framework to understand the new ideas in terms of existing concepts, schemas & modes of thought.

Accommodation is the process of altering existing mental frame works in response to new information. According to Piaget, the process of assimilation or accommodation helps the organism to

maintain a harmonious relationship between himself and his environment and thus maintaining a balance between the cognitive structure and the changing demands of its environment. /

According to Piaget, a child's cognitive development proceeds through a series of stages. The stages occur in the same order. Children differ in the age at which they reach each stage.

The Stages of Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development

Jean Piaget was a developmental psychologist best known for his theory of *cognitive development.* His four stages of cognitive development deal with the nature of knowledge (epistemology) and how humans come to gradually acquire it. The developmental stagesare discussed in the following chart:

Developmental Stages (Approximate age)	Main Features
Sensorimotor Stage (Birth to 2 years)	During this first stage, children learn entirely through the movements they make and the sensations that result. They learn : ● That they exist separately from the objects and people around them. ● That they can cause things to happen. ● That things continue to exist even when they can't see them. ● Reflex actions. ● Reactions based on infant's own body. ● Goal directed to co-ordination of actions. ● Greater variety of actions; focus on results. ● Ability to think of an object in its absence.
Pre-operational Stage (2 years to 7 years)	Once children aquire language, they are able to use symbols (such as words or pictures) to represent objects. Their thinking is still very egocentric though—they assume that everyone else sees things from the same viewpoint as they do. They are able to understand concepts like counting, classifying according to similarity, and past-present-future but generally they are still focused primarily on the present and on the concrete, rather than the abstract. ● Can use symbolic representations.

Developmental Stages (Approximate age)	Main Features
	● Can perform deferreimitation. ● Cannot place objects in order of size. ● At first, cannot classify things by colour or shape, subsequently by only one feature. ● Cannot understand conservation of quantity. ● Cannot reverse operations. ● Ego centrism.
Concrete Operational Stage (7 years to 11 years)	At this stage, children are able to see things from different points of view and to imagine events that occur outside their own lives. Some organized, logical thought processes are now evident and they are able to : ● Order objects by size, color gradient, etc. ● Understand that if $3 + 4 = 7$ then $7 - 4 = 3$ ● Understand that a red square can belong to both the 'red' category and the 'square' category ● Understand that a short wide cup can hold the same amount of liquid as a tall thin cup ● Show logical reasoning. ● Can perform hierarchical classifications, and classify by more than one feature. ● Operations are reversible. However, thinking still tends to be tied to concrete reality
Formal Operational Stage (11 years and onwards)	Around the onset of puberty, children are able to reason in much more abstract ways and to test hypo-theses using systematic logic. There is a much greater focus on possibilities and on ideological issues. ● Can form & test hypothesis. ● Can reason about abstract ideas. ● Can think about thought (introspection)

1. Sensorimotor Stage (from birth to about two years): Piaget called the first stage of cognitive development the sensori-motor stage as throughout this period the children know the world only through motor activities and sensory impressions.

(i) At birth the child exhibits a limited number of uncoordinated reflexes, such as—sucking, grasping, reaching etc.

(ii) During the next four months, the uncoordinated reflexes are coordinated and infants gradually learn that there is a relationship between their actions & the external world. For example, they learn to open their mouths differently for a nipple and a spoon, stares at whatever he sees, grasp all that is put into his hands.

(iii) By the age of 8 months, a child begins to realise that objects around him are separate from himself and they have their permanent existence. For example, if an object is hidden from view, four months old will not attempt to search for it. For him "out of sight out of mind" seems to be true. But by eight or nine months of age, however, situation changes. Infants of this age search for the hidden object. In other words, they have obtained a basic idea of object permanence, and he begins to realize that object continue to exist even though they are hidden from view.

2. Pre-operational Stage (about 2 to 7 years): At this stage, infants acquire the ability to form mental images of objects and events. At the same time, with the development of language, the child begins to think in terms of verbal symbols. This stage can be further divided into—(i) The pre-conceptual stage (approximately two to four years) and (ii) The intuitive phase (approximately four to seven years).

(i) Pre-conceptual stage is characterized by the following features—

(A) The child in the early part of this stage is capable of identifying objects by their names and put them into certain classes. But they make mistakes in this process of identification and concept formation. For example-they think all women are 'mummy'.

(B) Their thinking is sometimes imaginative and they are unable to distinguish between living and non-living objects. For them, dreams they have are real and concrete events.

(C) Children at this stage of cognitive development are still quite immature in some important respects. They are limited by ego centrism. They have difficulty in understanding that others may perceive the world differently than they do. He thinks that what exists in the external environment is specifically meant for him.

(ii) Intuitive phase *(approximately four to seven years)—*

At this stage, the thought processes of children are more advanced and they proceed towards the formation of concepts at a more advanced level. But what he thinks or does at this stage, is carried out intuitively rather than in accordance with the logical rule.

The child is unable to attend to more than one feature of an object at a time. They are unable to appreciate that the quantity of something remains the same when its shape is changed. Thus the thinking of pre-operational children at this stage is marked by an inability to conserve. For example, a child is shown two glasses of the same shape with the same amount of liquid in each. The child then watches while the liquid from one glass is poured into a taller, thinner glass. The child will say that the taller glass contains more liquid. According to Piaget, preschool children also cannot place objects in increasing order of size (seriation), they cannot make transitive inferences. As for example, told that A is bigger than B, and that B is bigger than C, but cannot see that as a consequence, A is bigger than C. They cannot reverse operations.

Children in this stage also seem to lack understanding of relational terms, such as darker, larger or harder. Further they lack seriation, the ability to arrange objects in order along same dimension.

3. Concrete Operational Stage (about 7 to 11 years): According to Piaget, during middle childhood children pass from the preoperational stage through stages in which they are able to use two types of operations. In the stage of concrete operations from about 7 to 11 years of age, children show an increased ability to reason logically. However, their thinking is still primarily concerned with real events and objects, they cannot handle abstract objects. Children at this stage perform different types of cognitive task that are seemingly impossible for pre-operational children. The child now develops the ability to conserve both in terms of quantity and number of objects. He can now think that the change in appearance of an object does not alter either its quantity or its number.

During the stage of concrete operations, many important skills emerge. Children gain understanding of relational terms and

seriation. They come to understand reversibility. The thinking of the child is no longer 'rigid' and 'irreversible'. A girl child who has sister now realizes that her sister also has a sister.

The child is no longer-ego centred in his thinking. His thinking becomes more logical and systematic. He can make use of inductive and deductive reasoning to arrive at conclusion. He can operate symbolically by combinning, reversing and forming associations among different objects. But he is unable to think in abstract terms. In this way the stage of concrete operations can be a preparation for the stage of formal operations.

4. Formal Operational Stage (about 11 years and onwards): At the end of middle childhood, between 11 to 15 years of age, a child passes into the stage of formal operations. Now the child is able to understand and use abstract relationships to deal with hypothetical situations.

During the stage of concrete operations, a child can think logically and they can do so only about concrete events and objects. But those who have obtained the stage of formal operations can think abstractly.

Generalization framing of rules by operating in abstract terms becomes quite possible at this stage. The child now begins to look at the problems in many ways and solve it differently in a systematic and logical way. During this final stage of cognitive development children become capable of what Piaget called hypothetical deductive reasoning. His thinking does not remain only concrete but becomes hypothetical, with considerations given to the usual ideas. Thus creative aspects of the child are observed during this age not only in terms of concrete operations but also in terms of abstraction.

According to Piaget, intellectual functioning of a child at the formal operational stage reflects the beginning of the advanced stage cognitive functioning. In this way, after the end of formal operational stage the child may reach full intellectual potential.

Educational Implications of Different Stages of Cognitive Development

According to Piaget, children of a particular stage tend to reach a particular stage of cognitive development, therefore planning of curriculum and teaching method must be in tune with the cognitive development of that particular stage. This theory guides

parents and teachers to provide learning experiences according to the developmental level and cognitive functioning of their children. Therefore the educational implications of different stages of cognitive development are as follows:

(i) Sensorimotor Stage

(a) An experience of sensorimotor stage provides the foundation of cognitive development for later stages. During this stage, children actively use their body and senses. Parents may furnish some soft/hard toys and objects of different shapes. Through the bodily use and manipulation of these objects they may acquire some ideas about their environment.

(b) As the children try to suck the objects, push, pull, reach and drop them, through sensory and motor activity, they develop cognitively.

(ii) The pre-operational period

(a) As the children at the preoperational stage can imitate the activity which they have observed previously, the teacher may give instructions through actions.

(b) They may be encouraged to draw and to describe their drawings, as children's level of thinking is represented through their drawings.

(c) Parents and teachers should provide them a wide range of opportunities to talk with others to encourage their language development.

(d) Children may be asked to describe what they are seeing, hearing, tasting to foster their language ability.

(e) They may be given some cut out letters to build words or some simple tasks on arithmetic, to reveal their level of cognitive development.

(iii) The Concrete Operational Stage

(a) As children at the concrete operational stage are able to deal with concrete objects, teachers should use three-dimensional objects and diagrams while teaching them the subjects like science, history, geography etc.

(b) Teach complex ideas through familiar examples.

(c) Ask them to classify and group objects on the basis of single attribute.

(d) Present problems that stimulate analytical thinking.

(iv) The Formal Operational Period

(a) Teachers should continue to provide concrete examples in a more sophisticated form.

(b) Encourage them to find out general principles.

(c) The activities should be challenging one but not so difficult.

(d) Ask them to explain how they arrive at solutions to problems.

(e) Guide them to reason scientifically and solve problems.

(f) Provide them some activities those encourage them prepositional thinking.

(g) Give them the opportunities to gather as much information as possible, combine them and to form new propositions.

It should be remembered that all children may not be able to use formal operational thought, therefore teachers should not expect all students of higher class to think hypothetically.

Stages of Moral Development as Proposed by Piaget

In 1932, Piaget published "The Moral Judgment of the Child," one of the first works concerned with the morality of children rather than adults. Based upon his stages of cognitive development, Piaget theorized that a child's moral behavior could only be understood in the context of the child's current stage of cognitive development, and that children's first exposure to social rules are commands handed down by parents or other authority figures. Children view these handed-down rules as fixed laws when they are in the early stages of cognitive development, because they have not yet sufficiently developed intellectually to understand cognitively that rules are products of social contracts encouraging mutual cooperation among human beings.

He explored how children developed moral reasoning. He rejected the idea that children learn and internalize the rules and morals of society by being given the rules and forced to adhere to them. Through his research on how children formed their judgments about moral behavior, he recognized that children learn morality best by having to deal with others in groups. He reasoned that there was a process by which children conform to society's norms of what is right and wrong, and that the process was active rather than passive.

Piaget found two main differences in how children thought about moral behavior. Very young children's thinking is based on how actions affected them or what the results of an action were. For example, young children will say that when trying to reach a forbidden cookie jar, breaking 10 cups is worse than breaking one. They also recognize the sanctity of rules. For example, they understand that they cannot make up new rules to a game; they have to play by what the rule book says or what is commonly known to be the rules. Piaget called this "moral realism with objective responsibility." It explains why young children are concerned with outcomes rather than intentions.

Older children look at motives behind actions rather than consequences of actions. They are also able to examine rules, determining whether they are fair or not, and apply these rules and their modifications to situations requiring negotiation, assuring that everyone affected by the rules is treated fairly. Piaget felt that the best moral learning came from these cooperative decision-making and problem-solving events. He also believed that children developed moral reasoning quickly and at an early age.

Piaget has shown that moral development is dependent upon intellectual development. Children move to a higher level of moral development as their abilities to perceive and understand develop. Both Piaget attempted to show how the stages of moral development are closely related to the stages of intellectual development.

According to **Piaget**, moral development occurs in two stages. These are—

(i) **Stage of 'Moral Realism' or 'Morality by Constraint':** In the first stage, children consider acts as "right" or "wrong" in terms of their consequences, that is whether the act results in punishment either from other human beings or natural and supernatural forces. Their behaviour is characterized by automatic obedience to rules, without considering the reasoning behind it.

(ii) **'Stage of autonomous morality' or 'morality by cooperation or reciprocity':** In the second stage, children's concepts of justice begin to change and they judge behaviour in terms of its underlying intent. This stage ranges from 7 or 8 years to 12 years and older. This

stage of moral development is related to Piaget's formal operations stage, when a child is able to look at the problem from different points of view are capable of formulating hypothesis on the basis of reasoning.

PSYCHO-SEXUAL DEVELOPMENT

Psychoanalysis
Psychoanalysis means both—
1. The technical method devised by freud for investigating and treating neurosis or mental disorder as well as
2. His theory of the structure of the mind. It is a school of psychology that arose out of medical practice and may as well be regarded as a school of psychiatry. It is 'the depth psychology' or the psychology of the unconscious.

Origin
A doctor of Vienna, Austria **Sigmund Freud** initiated the method of psychoanalysis in his own way with the background and experinece he gathered while working with **chariot** in Paris involving hyponosis, hysteria and the sexual basis of mental disorders and with **Joseph Brever** treating a women with symptoms of fainting, coughing and paralysis.

Psychoanalysis—as a theory
In the begining of his career Freud and his friend **Brever** used hypnotism as a curative method along with the method of "talking out". They termed this method as *catharsis*. But ultimately they had to give up this method as dangerous, as one of the women patients when nearly cured declared that she had fallen violently in love with him. Her affections were obviously *transferred* from the original object to the physician.
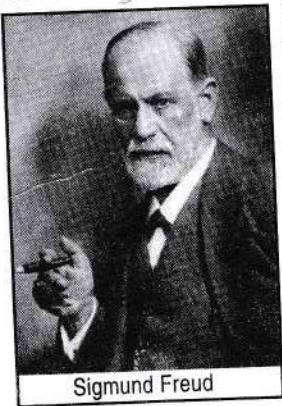
Sigmund Freud

Then Freud gave up hypnotism and adopted instead the method of *free association*.

Here the subject is asked to abandon all conscious control of thought and to say whatever comes to his head, however senseless, incoherent, painful or indecent. But the force flow of thought is often interrupted by inner *conflict* and *resistance*

from within. The cause of the trouble as always said by Freud is connected with the sex instinct.

His main theme is that sexuality appears in early childhood and is repressed through social pressure and often leads to neurosis. (*Repression* means driving a desire deep into the unconscious region of mind.)

The method of *free association* or *talking out* awakens lost memories, releases the pent up energy and this restores the balance of mind. Thus all the troubles or symptoms caused by the unconscious struggle vanish. Mental efficiency returns.

Mental Activities—according to Freud
Freud distinguished three levels of mental activities— 1. Conscious, 2. Preconscious and 3. Unconscious.

(The preconscious is *easily accessible to memory*. What is now conscious may lapse into the preconscious and conversely what is now in the preconscious may next moment rise into consciousness.

But what is in the unconscious is not *normally accessible to memory*, because it is *repressed*.)

The following reasons were given by Freud to show the existence of unconscious.
1. Dreams
2. Slips of tongue or pen.
3. Forgetfulness.
4. Somnambulism
5. Solution of problems during sleep.
6. Post hypnotic suggestions.
7. Neuroses & pshychoses.

Psychic structure—given by Freud
Freud divided the pshyche or the mind into ID, EGO and SUPER EGO.

Id: Id, ever unconscious and disorganised contains all the instinctive driving forces of the individual's life. It has no direct contact with the realities of life. It contains no social or moral values. It is dominated by pleasure principle. It is the reservoir of Libido—i.e. the instincts of life.

Ego: Ego is partly conscious, largely preconscious and also partly unconscious as it is often found to offer unconscious

resistance to the instincts of Id. Ego is logical in nature and deals with the reality.

Relationship between mental activities & Psychic Structure
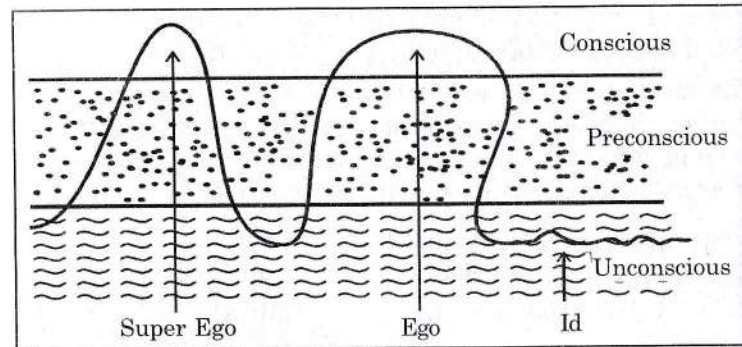
Super Ego: Super Ego represents the influence aquired from other persons, parents and society.

It exercises *control over the ego.* It is the outcome of child's co-existence desired to love and to be loved. It blocks the impulses which violet the social norm.

Defects in Freud's theory and modifications by Adler, Jung and neo Freudians

Though Freud's psychoanalytical theory is almost revolutionary and his discovery of an effective therapeutic method is a boon to humanity, he gave excessive emphasis on sexuality and his speculations are wild and extravagant. The great majority of healthy adults utterly fail to trace the existence of oedipus complex in their childhood.

Though most other psychologists accepted the basic concept of Freud's theory some of them gave some modifications.

Adler in his theory of Individual Psychology emphasises the will for power, the urge toward dominance and superiority.

Jung in his Analytical Psychology gave importance to the "exciting cause" viz *failure to attack the present problem* of life as against repressed infantile sexuality of the adult as predisposing cause of adults neurosis as described by Freud.

Neo Freudian group includes **C W Valentine, W H R Rivers, Dr. Bernard Hart, Daniel B Leasy** other than *Adler* and *Jung* who accepted the basic concept of Freud but

rejected the extravagance of statement, loose logics and baseless assumptions and more or less accepted the explanations given by *Adler* and *Jung.*

Contribution of Psychoanalytic Theory to Education

Psychoanalysis has revolutionized the theory and practice of education.

Stages of childs Psycho-sexual Development

According to *Freud,* Child's Psycho-sexual Development takes place in five major stages. These are—

1. **The oral stage**—The focus of pleasure in this stage is mouth. Sucking of mother's breasts gives him the pleasure. (up to $1\frac{1}{2}$ years)
2. **The anal stage**—Here focus of pleasure shifts from mouth to anus. The child takes interest in the activities like urinating and defecating (up to 3 yrs).
3. **Phallic Stage**—(Age 3 to 6) The focus of pleasure shifts from anus to sexual organs. Masturbation and development of various complexes take place during this time.
4. **Latency Stage**—Sexuality becomes less important. The child engages himself in learning skills & in the development of values.
5. **Genital Stage**—The focus of pleasure shifts to the member of the opposite sex (after puberty).

Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality

Freud proposed two instincts—

    (a) **Eros:** the love and the self preservation.
    (b) **Thanatos:** the death instinct.

According to *Freud* psychic energy comes from libido, which is the sexual energy. But Neo freudians differ in this view and termed libido as force of life. Freud explains the mental activities which forms the dynamics of personality on the basis of the division of mind —**Id, Ego of Super Ego.** He gave the relationship between the ego and the id as between a horse (id) and its rider (ego).

Psychology of Adjustment

Freud's theory and Neo Freudaian's concept of psychoanalysis also provide the basis of psychology of Adjustment.

Other contributions of Education

1. Freud discovered unconscious motivation which plays an important role in the process of learning.
2. Psychoanalysis has laid stress on the importance of the child and his early experiences in the process of education.
3. Psychoanalysis has laid down great importance to the process of catharsis.
4. It has thrown light on the courses of mal-adjustment in children.
5. Importance of emotions has been emphasized in education.
6. It has also laid emphasis on freedom in education.
7. Co-curricular activities are given importance schools so that pent up feelings may be released.

> *Personality is the dynamic organization of psychophysical systems within the individual that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.*   —*Allport.*

The Libido

According to **Freud** the libido is defined as "the energy of those instincts which have to do with all that may be comprised under the word love". Libido is much wider than sex urge. Freud, however, maintains that sexual love cannot be separated from "on the one hand, self-love, and on the other, love for parents and children, friendship, and love for humanity in general and also devotion to concrete objects and abstract ideas". "Our justification" he continues, "lies in the fact that psychoanalytic research has taught us that all these tendencies are an expression of the same instinctive activities." **Jung's** definition of libido is slightly different. He uses this term is a much wider sense. For him libido means the total striving of the individual. So Jung's libido is equivalent to Bergson's 'elan vital' or Mc Dougall's horme'. According to Freud libido is present in all human beings, but the intensity of the libidinal energy varies from individual to individual and in the same individual at different times and during different physiological and psychological conditions. This libidinal energy can be stimulated through various zones called "erotogenic". These zones are the ones meant for nutrition, excretion and procreation. Freud believes that the child is born with the capacity for 'sexual excitability'. In the early stages it is egocentric and a social. But soon the child begins to overcome those tendencies. The tendency

of ego-centricism is very prominent between the ages of three and five. In the early stages of the child's life his behaviour is mostly dictated by libidinal gratification. He is full of self-love and self-importance. He directs his aggressions and destructive tendencies against all those whom he loves. When the child fails to face a situation, he withdraws and enters his inner world of phantasy. Gradually, his association with his parents develops his Super-ego and because of his erotic and aggressive impulses he begins to have unconscious guilt. If the child fails to manage his aggresive impulses, the ego tries to repress the ideas to which these impulses are attached but the Id maintains the impulses. This results in a conflict and neurosis develops.

According to **Freud,** the Psycho-sexual development of the child takes place in the following manner. At brith there is a diffuse dsitribution of libido. Then the first erotogenic zone is established—namely the lips. After that "erotization" passes to excretory passage, and latter to the genital area. At this age, the child reaches the stage of "phallic primacy". This stage is followed by a period of "Latency" in which no new erotic zones are established. At puberty the stage of "genital primacy" is achieved. During the period of adolescence the said order of the development of erogenous zones is repeated and during the two periods there is a very close resemblance. If a certain phase is very well marked in infancy, it will be equally well marked during adolescence. Why are these phases repeated during adolescence is not known but this much is clear that the development of oral and genital zones in infancy makes the process pleasurable for the child. This helps in the growth of his self since the child takes interest in his nutrition. During adolescence the genital zone developes and that very energy now helps in the preservation of the race. So the main purpose of the libidinal energy is preservation—first of the self and then of the race.

People have been classified on the basis of the said three types of infantile and adolescent eroticism. The normal character has been defined as an organized series of behaviour reactions which secure equilibrium between Id tendencies and surrender to reality. These reactions begin in the period of infantile sexuality and form a continuous series of adaptations. According to another writer "the normal man has no sense of guilt". The oral and anal types of character cannot do so. There are two

types of oral character—(a) those who have experienced pleasure in sucking to their maximum and (b) those whose urgue for sucking was thwarted. The first group become optimistics, carefree, and find pelasure in taking. The second type is impatient, demanding, dependant and pessimistic. The anal character is also classified into two types. The first feels pleasure in the act of the defaecation and the second feels pleasure in the foecal material itself. According to Freud the following are the main features of the Anal Character: He shows orderliness in bodily cleanliness, reliability, conscientiousness in performance of petty duties to the extent that it amounts to pedantry. He is avaricious, obstinate and may become defiant, irritable and vindictive. The anal character is generally sadistic. That is why we speak of such characters as anal-sadistic. The obstinacy of an anal-sadistic character is expressed in the following ways: He may think that he is superior to others and that no one else can do things as well as he can. He is generally an individualistic and becomes a good organiser of functions and things.

Whereas the oral character is hasty, quick, restless and impatient, the anal character is preserving and persistent and shows doggedness in his pursuits. Oral character accepts new ideas readily, whereas the anal character is conservative and reserve. The following table of the character qualities of the anal character is reproduced from **Professor Flugel's** Introduction To Psycho-Analysis, page 110:

Displacements and Sublimations

Retention	1. Postponement.
	2. Defiance.
	3. Obstinacy.
	4. Miserliness.
	5. Love of possessions.
	6. Desire to collect.
	7. Dislike of waste.
	8. Concentration (especially after postponement)
	9. Generosity.
	10. Extravagance.
	11. Contamination.
	12. Untidiness.
	13. Noise, (music)

	14. Leaving mark. ⎫ —Sadistic
	15. Destruction. ⎭
Production	16. Speech.
	17. Writing.
	18. Painting.
	19. Moulding.
	20. Cooking.
	21. Chemistry.
Manipulation	22. Photography.
	23. Buidling.
	24. Engineering.
Products	25. Child.
	26. Money.
	27. Papers.

Reaction Formations

	28. Tidiness.
	29. Organisation.
Orderliness	30. Pedantry.
	31. Clear thinking.
	32. Thoroughness.
	33. Punctuality.
	34. Washing.
	35. Cleaning.
	36. Preventing accumulation.
Cleanliness	37. Fear of contamination. (e.g. of self, of Nature)
	38. "Purity".
	39. Reality.
Control	40. Strong will (resisting temptation)
	41. Asceticism

The "genital character" shows maturing and is a higher form of psycho-sexual development. It is said that the early form that in oral stage brings with it optimism and energy the anal stage inculcates the power of endurance and the 'genital state' provides "drive" for effectiveness. The three stages are localized as oral, anal and genital. Corresponding to these three zones, there are three stages in the direction of the libido:

The first is auto-erotic, the second narcissism and the third allo-erotic. In the first stage the child is both the lover and the loved and the behaviour is controlled by purely 'Id' impulses. This is as we call it pruely a narcissistic stage. A portion of the 'libido' gets, then, detached and gets attached to the outside objects. With the passage of time more and more of the libido is detached from the 'Ego' and is directed outwards. Narcissism may express itself in auto-erotic practices but it is not necessary. According to Freud, Narcissism is "the libidinous complements" of 'egoism'. For Narcissism the individual gradually seeks and external object of love-starting from his family members to relatives and friends. The individual beings to have conscious and unconscious sexual phantasies about them. This results in complications like Oedipus Complex in which there is a sexual attitude on the part of the child towards the parent of the opposite sex, together with a rivalry towards the one of its own. According to Freud, the future development of the child depends upon the fact as to how he resolves this complex. His future character and temperament are very much dependant upon the way this complex is resolved. The future neuroses, if any, that occur, are also traced down to this complex by Freudian Psychoanalysis. In fact it is the most important finding of the psychoanalysts. According to Freud, "Distinct traces are probably to be found in most people of an early partiality on the part of daughter for her father or on the part of a son for his mother, but it must be assumed to be more intense from the very first in the case of those children whose constitution marks them down for a neurosis, who develop prematurely and have a craving for love." Again **Freud** writes; "We recognize a tendency for those of the same sex to become alienated, daughter from mother and father from son. The daughter sees in her mother the authority which impsoes limits to her will, whose task it is to bring her to that renunciation of sexual freedom which society demands, in certain cases, too, the mother is still a rival who obejcts to being set aside. To the son the father is the embodiment of the social compulsion to which he so unwillingly submits, the person who stands in the way of his following his own will, of his early sexual pleasures and, when there is family property, of his enjoyment of it—The relation between father and daughter or mother and son would seem less liable to disaster, the later

relation furnishes the purest examples of unchanging tendencies, undisturbed by any egoistic considerations—There is nothing to wonder at, therefore, if the dreams of a great number of people bring to light the wish for the removal of their parents, especially of the parent whose sex is the same as the dreamers'—It is rarely that hostility regins alone for more often it yields to more tender feelings which finally suppress it, when it has to wait in abeyance till a dream shows it, as it were, in isolation—We also find this death-wish where there is no basis for it in real life, and where the adult would never have to confess to entertaining it in his waking life. The reason for this is that the deepest and most common motive for estrangement, especially between parent and child of the same sex, came into play in the earliest years of childhood.

I refer to that rivalry of affections in which sexual elements are plainly emphasized. The son, when quite a little child, already begins to develop a peculiar tenderness towards his mother in the light of a rival who disputes this sole possession of his, similarly the little daughter sees in her mother some one who disturbs her tender relations to her father and occupies place which she feels she herself could very well fill".

According to **Freud**, in the case of the boy, along with the oedipus compex, develops the castration fear. The boy develops a fear that his genitals will be mutilated. This happens as a result of his hostility for his father.

Freud says, "It is not at all uncommon for a little boy, who is beginning to play with his penis and has not yet learnt that he must conceal such activities, to be threatened by parents or nurses that his member or his offending hand will be cut off. We are content to understand that the child concocts a threat of this kind out of its knowledge that auto-erotic satisfactions are forbidden, on the basis of hints and allusions—whence comes the necessity for these phantasies, and the material for them ? I believe that these primal phantasies—are phylogenetic possessions—It seems to me quite possible that-castration itself was in pre-historic periods of the human family a reality".

Corresponding to the said complex in the boy, the girl develops, what Freud calls as 'the deprivation complex'. She develops a feeling that because of the absence of the penis in

her, she is deprived of something anatomically. This feeling is associated with feelings of shame and resentment which are generally repressed and lead to the formation of 'deprivation complex'.

Infantile sexuality is repeated in adolescence in more or less the same proportion as in childhood. The oral phase of childhood may manifest itself in the form of nail-biting, the anal-sadistic stage by a noisy behaviour and an interest in the excretory function. The oedipus situation becomes more prominent. The resolution of this complex may lead to homo-sexual direction of the libido. This according to Freud, is so, because of narcissim, which impels the individual to favour the choice of a love object of his own sex rather than of the opposite sex. For the boy, such a situation, is also favourable because this helps him to maintain his attachment with his mother. The narcissistic influence may persist even after the homosexual stage but commonly it ends up with the—hetero sexual phase. This narcissistic element has to do a good deal with the popular approval of the marriage. Where this narcissistic element is fully resolved, the prospects of stability of marriage are good. Another factor that counts in marriage is called anaclitic, which means dependance. This leads the boy to select a girl who tends or a girl to select a boy who like father protects her. For example a boy may select a girl who will protect either by size, status, wealth or ability. Similarly girls may choose a husband who like her mother sees that she lacks nothing or a powerful husband who will always protect her. Many girls select husbands who correspond to the demand of their own mascularity or their unresolved mating fear. This will make them select effeminate weaklings as their husband. The flow of the libido may end in one of the following ways—

(i) Outward—to an object of love
(ii) Inward—to self-love (naricissism)
(iii) Arrest—fixation on an object of immature choice.
(iv) Backward—fixation on an object of earlier choice (regression).
(v) Dammed up—unexpressed (repression)
(vi) Deflected—into channels of social value (sublimated).

Let us discuss these one by one—

(i) **Outward—to an object of love:** In such cases the individual develops a love for a member of the opposite sex, which is the normal development of the libido.

(ii) **Inward to self love (narcissism):** Here the libido is turned inward and is attached to the Ego. This is called narcissim. Freud mentions of secondary form of narcissism, when the libido fails to find a love-object. In such cases the individual sets up the object as a phantasy within himself and proceeds to indentify himself with that phantasy. To this mechanism he applies the term "introversions". Narcissism develops as a normal phase of development and how far the individual succeeds in detaching his libido from his ego, determines his creative achievement.

(iii) **Arrest of libido fixation:** When the Libido is detached from the Ego, it seeks a love-object to which it becomes attached. This attachment is called cathexis and the object is said to be "cathected". In the normal development the first love object is mother and the final one the mate. In this course of development the libido may remain attached to "mother". When this love-object on which fixation occurs is the parent of the opposite sex, we have the **Oedipus** situation in the case of a boy and Electra sitation in the case of a girl.

(iv) **Regression:** Regression means the attachment of the libido to a love object belonging to an earlier stage in development. For example an young man may fall in love with a girl but when he is frustrated by the girl, he may fall back upon his earlier object of love i.e. mother.

(v) **Repression:** When the person does not select an external love-object, either the libido is attached to the Ego or is repressed. In case of repression, it may go down into the unconscious.

(vi) **Sublimation:** In case of sublimation, the libido expresses itself in some activity which is socially approved. **Freud** writes : "We believe that civilization has been built up under the pressure of the struggle for exsistence, by sacrifices in gratification of the primitive impulses, and that it is to a great extent for ever being recreated, as each individual successfuly joining the community repeats the sacrifice of his instinctive pleasure for the common good". The most important instinctive drive that is sublimated is the sex urge. In this case the sex energy is turned aside from its sexual goal and diverted towards
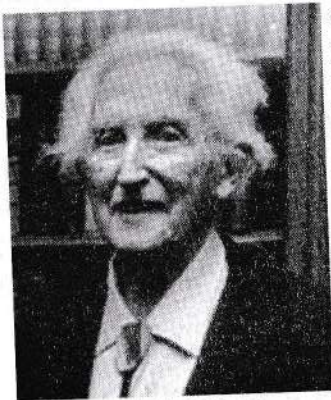
other ends, that are not sexual but socially more valuab
The process is difficult and there is a danger that rebelli
of the sexual impulses may occur.

Criticism of Psychoan-alysis

1. It is a very long from of treatment and may require man days before it is completed.
2. Many of the findings of psycho-analysis have be challenged by psychiatrists.
3. Freud traces most of the psychological troubles of t individuals to early sexuality, especially during infanc This sexuality during infancy, has itself been challeng by some psychologists.
4. The creative factor has been ignored in Freud's system psychologists.
5. The creative factor has been ingnored in Freud's system psychoanalysis.
6. Freud admits that we can do nothing to change the fact of heredity.
7. Freud, in his methods of psycho-analysis, has merely de with Ego, Id and Superego but has totally ignored t higher, moral and spiritual side of human nature.

PSYCHO-SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Erik H. Erickson, the famous psychoanalyst, is credited wi developing the theory of psycho-social development which dea with development across the entire life span.

Erickson postulated that th development of an individual take place through his interaction with h social environment. Erickson believe that each stage of life of an individua is marked by specific crisis or confli The individual tries to resolve the cris in his own way. The way in which child solve the 'crisis' of each stage, h a bearing on the development of h personality. Erickson outlined eigh stages of psycho-social development an suggested that success in each stag depends on a person's adjustments i previous stages.

Erik H. Erickson

Age Span for the Stages of Psycho-social Development

Stage of Psycho-social Development	Specific Age or Period
Trust vs. Mistrust	Birth to $1^1/2$ years
Autonomy vs. Shame and doubt	$1^1/2$ years to 3 years
Initiative vs. Guilt	3 years to 6 years
6 years to 12 years	Industry vs. Inferiority
Adolescence (12 years to 20 years)	Identify vs. role confusion
Early childhood (20 years to 45 years)	Intimacy vs. Isolation
Middle adulthood (45 years to 65 years)	Generativity vs. Stagnation
Later childhood (65 years onwards)	Ego integrity vs. Despair

The most widely accepted theory of how human beings develop from infancy to old age is Erik Erikson's eight stages of **psychosocial development**. At each stage, there is a crisis to be resolved and a virtue to be gained. According to the theory, failure to properly master each step leads to problems in the fture.

Stages	Age	Crisis	Virtue to be attained	Description	Freudian equivalent
Stage 1	0-1	Trust vs Mistrust	Hope	At this stage babies learn to trust that their parents will meet their basic needs. If a child's basic needs aren't properly met at this age, he or she might grow up with a general mistrust of the world.	Oral
Stage 2	2-3	Auto.nomy vs Shame & Doubt	Will	As toddlers, children begin to develop independence and start to learn that they can do some things on their own (such as going to the toilet). If a child is not encouraged properly at this age, he or she might develop shame and doubt about their abilities.	Anal

Stages	Age	Crisis	Virtue to be attained	Description	Freudian equivalent
Stage 3	4-6	Initiative vs Guilt	Purpose	As preschoolers, children continue to develop more independence and start to do things of their own initiative. If a child is not able to take initiative and succeed at appropriate tasks, he or she might develop guilt over their needs and desires.	Phallic
Stage 4	7-12	Industry vsInferiority	Competence	Throughout their school years, children continue to develop self- confidence through learning new things. If they are not encouraged and praised properly at this age, they may develop an inferiority complex.	Latent
Stage 5	13-19	Identity vs Role	Confusion	Fidelity When they reach the teenage years, children start to care about how they look to others. They start forming their own identity by experimenting with who they are. If a teenager is unable to properly develop an identity at this age, his or her role confusion will probably continue on into adulthood.	Genital
Stage 6	20-34	Intimacy vs Isolation	Love	During early adulthood most people fall in love, get married and start building their own family. If a person is unable to develop intimacy with others at this age (whether through marriage or close friendships), they will probably develop feelings of isolation.	P
Stage 7	35-65	Generativity vs Stagnation	Care	This is the longest period of a human's life. It is the stage in which people are usually working and contributing to society in some way and perhaps raising their children. If a person does not find proper ways to be productive during this period, they will probably develop feelings of stagnation.	
Stage 8	65+	Integrity vs Despair	Wisdom	As senior citizens, people tend to look back on their lives and think about what they have or have not accomplished. If a person has led a productive life, they will develop a feeling of integrity. If not, they might fall into despair.	

Stages of Psycho-social Development and their Educational Implications

The above table indicates the type of crisis that need to be resolved by an individual at each stage of development. Only if the individual meet up the crisis successfully can they continue to develop in a normal and healthy manner. Now let us discuss the above stages of development are as follows:

Stage-I: *Infancy: Birth to 18 Months: Ego Development Outcome: Trust vs. Mistrust: Basic strengths: Drive and Hope:* Erikson also referred to infancy as the Oral Sensory Stage (as anyone might who watches a baby put everything in her mouth) where the major emphasis is on the mother's positive and loving care for the child, with a big emphasis on visual contact and touch. If we pass successfully through this period of life, we will learn to trust that life is basically okay and have basic confidence in the future. If we fail to experience trust and are constantly frustrated because our needs are not met, we may end up with a deep-seated feeling of worthlessness and a mistrust of the world in general.

Incidentally, many studies of suicides and suicide attempts point to the importance of the early years in developing the basic belief that the world is trustworthy and that every individual has a right to be here.

Not surprisingly, the most significant relationship is with the maternal parent, or whoever is our most significant and constant caregiver.

Stage-II: *Early Childhood: 18 Months to 3 Years: Ego Development Outcome: Autonomy vs. Shame: Basic Strengths: Self-control, Courage and Will:* During this stage we learn to master skills for ourselves. Not only do we learn to walk, talk and feed ourselves, we are learning finer motor development as well as the much appreciated toilet training. Here we have the opportunity to build self-esteem and autonomy as we gain more control over our bodies and acquire new skills, learning right from wrong. And one of our skills during the "Terrible Two's" is our ability to use the powerful word "NO!" It may be pain for parents, but it develops important skills of the will.

It is also during this stage, however, that we can be very vulnerable. If we're shamed in the process of toilet training or

in learning other important skills, we may feel great shame and doubt of our capabilities and suffer low self-esteem as a result.

The most significant relationships are with parents.

Educational Implications

(a) Parents should help a child to assume some responsibilities of self-care.

(b) Help them to develop self confidence by learning some daily living activities & skills, like feeding, toileting, walking etc.

(c) Parents should not adopt over protective attitude towards child and interfere with their development of cognitive and motor skills.

(d) They should be provided opportunities to exercise the skills to acquire self mastery.

(e) Parents should guide them to follow some rules in order to develop a sense of discipline in them.

Stage-III: *Play Age: 3 to 5 Years: Ego Development Outcome: Initiative vs. Guilt: Basic Strength: Purpose:* During this period we experience a desire to copy the adults around us and take initiative in creating play situations. We make up stories with Barbie's and Ken's, toy phones and miniature cars, playing out roles in a trial universe, experimenting with the blueprint for what we believe it means to be an adult. We also begin to use that wonderful word for exploring the world-"WHY?"

While Erikson was influenced by Freud, he downplays biological sexuality in favor of the psychosocial features of conflict between child and parents. Nevertheless, he said that at this stage we usually become involved in the classic "Oedipal struggle" and resolve this struggle through "social role identification." If we're frustrated over natural desires and goals, we may easily experience guilt.

The most significant relationship is with the basic family.

Educational Implications

(a) During the pre-school years, parents and teachers should encourage children to act on choice that encourage a sense of initiative.

(b) Parents and teachers should not be too much restrictive which may discourage them to take initiative.

(c) Avoid interruption when children are trying to do something.

(d) Be tolerant of the mistakes when the children are trying to do something on their own. ·

(e) Provide them with proper learning environment with age appropriate toys and objects and thus encouraging cognitive and language development.

Stage-IV: *School Age: 6 to 12 Years: Ego Development Outcome: Industry vs. Inferiority:* **Basic Strengths Method and Competence:** During this stage, often called the Latency, we are capable of learning, creating and accomplishing numerous new skills and knowledge, thus developing a sense of **industry.** This is also a very social stage of development and if we experience unresolved feelings of inadequacy and **inferiority** among our peers, we can have serious problems in terms of competence and self-esteem.

As the world expands a bit, our most significant relationship is with the school and neighborhood. Parents are no longer the complete authorities they once were, although they are still important.

Educational Implications

(a) Teachers may play an important role to help a child to overcome the crisis of the industry vs inferiority. Providing a healthy environment in the classroom a teacher may help a child to develop a sense of competence.

(b) Engage them in some challenging tasks within their range of abilities.

(c) Students who come from diverse backgrounds should be motivated to participate in classroom activities.

(d) Provide them some opportunities to experience success.

(e) Some degree of success and acceptance, help them to develop a sense of adequacy.

Stage-V: *Adolescence: 12 to 18 Years: Ego Development Outcome: Identity vs. Role Confusion:* **Basic Strengths:** **Devotion and Fidelity:** Up to this stage, according to **Erikson,** development mostly depends upon **what is done to us.** From here on out, development depends primarily upon **what we do.** And while adolescence is a stage at which we are neither a child nor an adult, life is definitely getting more complex as we attempt

to find our own *identity,* struggle with social interactions, and grapple with moral issues.

Our task is to discover who we are as individuals separate from our family of origin and as members of a wider society. Unfortunately for those around us, in this process many of us go into a period of withdrawing from responsibilities, which Erikson called a "moratorium." And if we are unsuccessful in navigating this stage, we will experience **role confusion** and upheaval.

A significant task for us is to establish a philosophy of life and in this process we tend to think in terms of ideals, which are conflict free, rather than reality, which is not. The problem is that we don't have much experience and find it easy to substitute ideals for experience. However, we can also develop strong devotion to friends and causes.

It is no surprise that our most significant relationships are with peer groups.

Educational Implications

(a) Teachers and parents can play an important role in helping adolescents to resolve his identity versus confusion crisis. Adolescents craving for identity must be recognized as adults and should be treated as adults not as children.

(b) Responsibilities should be assigned to them so that they can perform their duties independently.

(c) They should be provided some opportunities to work towards realistic goals.

(d) Learning materials should be biologically and psychologically appropriate to their maturity level, which may be challenging but not too difficult.

(e) During the secondary school level, adolescents are unable to formulate, clear ideas about their sex roles and to decide occupational choice. Their indecisiveness about sex roles may be reduced through class discussion. They may help to make decisions about occupational choice by providing them information about their intelligence, interests, personality traits from classroom performance and standardized tests.

Stage-VI: *Young adulthood: 18 to 35: Ego Development Outcome: Intimacy and Solidarity vs. Isolation: Basic Strengths: Affiliation and Love:* In the initial stage of being an adult we seek one or more companions and love. As we try to find mutually satisfying relationships, primarily through marriage and friends, we generally also begin to start a family, though this age has been pushed back for many couples who today don't start their families until their late thirties. If negotiating this stage is successful, we can experience intimacy on a deep level.

If we're not successful, *isolation* and distance from others may occur. And when we don't find it easy to create satisfying relationships, our world can begin to shrink as, in defense, we can feel superior to others.

Our significant relationships are with marital partners and friends.

Stage-VII: *Middle Adulthood: 35 to 55 or 65: Ego Development Outcome: Generativity vs. Self absorption or Stagnation: Basic Strengths: Production and Care:* Now work is most crucial. Erikson observed that middle-age is when we tend to be occupied with creative and meaningful work and with issues surrounding our family. Also, middle adulthood is when we can expect to "be in charge," the role we've longer envied.

The significant task is to perpetuate culture and transmit values of the culture through the family (taming the kids) and working to establish a stable environment. Strength comes through care of others and production of something that contributes to the betterment of society, which Erikson calls *generativity,* so when we're in this stage we often fear inactivity and meaninglessness.

As our children leave home, or our relationships or goals change, we may be faced with major life changes-the mid-life crisis-and struggle with finding new meanings and purposes. If we don't get through this stage successfully, we can become *self-absorbed* and *stagnate.*

Significant relationships are within the workplace, the community and the family.

Stage-VIII: *Late Adulthood: 55 or 65 to Death: Ego Development Outcome: Integrity vs. Despair: Basic Strength: Wisdom:* Erikson felt that much of life is preparing for the middle adulthood stage and the last stage is recovering from it. Perhaps that is because as older adults we can often look back on our lives with happiness and are content, feeling fulfilled with a deep sense that life has meaning and we've made a contribution to life, a feeling Erikson calls integrity. Our strength comes from a wisdom that the world is very large and we now have a detached concern for the whole of life, accepting death as the completion of life.

On the other hand, some adults may reach this stage and despair at their experiences and perceived failures. They may fear death as they struggle to find a purpose to their lives, wondering "Was the trip worth it?" Alternatively, they may feel they have all the answers (not unlike going back to adolescence) and end with a strong dogmatism that only their view has been correct.

MORAL AND PRO-SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Lawrence Kohlberg defined moral development as the development of an individual's sense of justice. He has shown that moral development is dependent upon intellectual development. Children move to a higher level of moral development as their abilities to perceive and understand develop. Kohlberg attempted to show how the stages of moral development are closely related to the stages of intellectual development.

Stages of Moral Development according to Kohlberg

Lawrence Kohlberg has extended the research of Piaget and identified three levels of moral development, each containing two stages as shown in the following table :

Lawrence Kohlberg

Kohlberg's Six Stages of Moral Development

Stage of Moral Development	Specific Age or Period
Stage-1: The stage of obedience for avoiding punishment.	**Level-I:** Premoral (Age 4 to 10 years)
Stage-2: The stage of conforming to obtain rewards.	
Stage-3: The stage of maintaining mutual relations and approval of others.	**Level-II:** Conventional morality (Age 10 to 13 years)
Stage-4: The stage of obedience for avoiding censure by higher authority.	
Stage-5: Makes moral decisions on legality.	**Level-III:** Post conventional (13 yrs. and above)
Stage-6: Informal conscience, does not fear to do what is right.	

Lawrence Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

It is an adaptation of the developmental theory of Jean Piaget. According to the theory, moral reasoning develops in six stages, each more adequate at responding to moral dilemmas than the one before.

Premoral or Pre-Conventional Morality	
Stage-1 *Obedience or Punishment Orientation*	This is the stage that all young children start at (and a few adults remain in). Rules are seen as being fixed and absolute. Obeying the rules is important because it means avoiding punishment.
Stage-2 *Self-Interest Orientation*	As children grow older, they begin to see that other people have their own goals and preferences and that often there is room for negotiation. Decisions are made based on the principle of "What's in it for me?" For example, an older child might reason: "If I do what mom or dad wants me to do, they will reward me. Therefore I will do it."
Conventional Morality	
Stage-3 *Social Conformity Orientation*	By adolescence, most individuals have developed to this stage. There is a sense of what "good boys" and "nice girls" do and the emphasis is on living up to social expectations and norms because of how they impact day-to-day relationships.

Stage-4 *Law and Order Orientation*	By the time individuals reach adulthood, they usually consider society as a whole when making judgments. The focus is on maintaining law and order by following the rules, doing one's duty and respecting authority.
Post-Conventional Morality	
Stage-5 *Social Contract Orientation*	At this stage, people understand that there are differing opinions out there on what is right and wrong and that laws are really just a social contract based on majority decision and inevitable compromise. People at this stage sometimes disobey rules if they find them to be inconsistent with their personal values and will also argue for certain laws to be changed if they are no longer "working". Our modern democracies are based on the reasoning of Stage 5.
Stage-6 *Universal Ethics Orientation*	Few people operate at this stage all the time. It is based on abstract reasoning and the ability to put oneself in other people's shoes. At this stage, people have a principled conscience and will follow universal ethical principles regardless of what the official laws and rules are.

According to **Lawrence Kohlberg**, the movement from one stage to another depends on the development of cognitive abilities rather than the simple acquisitions of moral values. The cognitive processes like thinking, reasoning also play a vital role in one's moral development. Now let us discuss the above stages of development are as follows:

(i) Premoral level (4 to 10 yrs.): At **stage 1**, a child's judgement about what is right or wrong is controlled by the fear of punishments and to gain rewards, and the child tries to obey his parents to avoid punishment.

At **stage 2**, children's moral judgement is controlled by self interest and he conforms to social expectations and able by some rules and regulations because it has practical utility for them.

(ii) Conventional Morality Level (10 to 13 yrs.): At **stage 3**, the child's morality is based on the desire to win the approval of others and to maintain good relation with them.

At **stage 4**, of conventional morality level, the children follow the rules and regulations of the society and to avoid social disapproval and consure they conform to them.

(iii) Post Conventional Level (13 yrs. and above): This is the highest level of attainment of morality and this is the time of making moral judgement by the individual himself.

At **stage 5,** an individual makes moral decisions on legality, recognizes individual rights and considers that rules are relative.

At **stage 6,** an individual reaches a level at which morality is defined by internalized moral principles. A person believes that good and right are matters of individual conscience. People conform to both social standard and to internalized ideals to avoid self condemnation. Individuals judge the morality of actions in terms of self chosen ethical principles.

Moral development is important in the age of terrorism, racism, assassination, drug culture etc. Young people increasingly hurt themselves and others because they lack awareness of moral values. Parents must foster in child an understanding of the moral values. Teachers must teach students to respect the worth and dignity of others, as well as their freedom of conscience.

The Followings are Observations that were made by Kohlberg Further Explaining Human Development in Stages

1. **Stage of Development is Invariant and Sequential:** One must progress through the stages in order, and one cannot get to a higher stage without passing through the stage immediately preceding it. Higher stages incorporate the thinking and experience of all lower stages of reasoning into current levels of reasoning but transcends them for higher levels. (e.g, Stage Four reasoning will understand the reasoning of Stages 1-3 but will reason at a higher level) A belief that a leap into moral maturity is possible is in sharp contrast to the facts of developmental research. Moral development is growth, and like all growth, takes place according to a pre-determined sequence. To expect someone to grow into high moral maturity overnight would be like expecting someone to walk before he crawls.

2. **In Stage Development, Subjects cannot Comprehend Moral Reasoning at a Stage more than one Stage Beyond their own:** If Johnny is oriented to see good almost exclusively as that which brings him satisfaction, how will he understand a concept of good in which the

"good" may bring him no tangible pleasure at all. The moral maxim "It is better to give than to receive" reflects a high level of development. The child who honestly asks you why it is better to give than to receive, does so because he does not and cannot understand such thinking. To him, "better" means better for him. And how can it be better for him to give, than to get. Thus, higher stages can comprehend lower stages of reasoning though they find it less compelling. But lower stages cannot comprehend higher stages of reasoning.

3. **In Stage of Development, Individuals are Cognitively Attracted to Reasoning at one Level above their own Present predominant Level:** The person has questions and problems the solutions for which are less satisfying at his present level. Since reasoning at one stage higher is intelligible and since it makes more sense and resolves more difficulties, it is more attractive. For example, two brothers both want the last piece of pie. The bigger, stronger brother will probably get it. The little brother suggests they share it. He is thinking at level two, rather than at level one. The solution for him is more attractive: getting some rather than none. An adult who functions at level one consistently will end up in prison or dead.

4. **In Stage Development, Movement through the Stages is effected when Cognitive Disequilibrium is cheated, that is, when a Person's Cognitive Outlook is not Adequate to Cope with a given Moral Dilemma:** The person who is growing, will look for more and more adequate ways of solving problems. If he has no problems, no dilemmas, he is not likely to look for solutions. He will not grow morally. (The Hero, prior to his calling, lives in comfortable stagnation. Small towns are notorious for their low level "provincial" reasoning). In the apple pie example. The big brother, who can just take the pie and get away with it, is less likely to look for a better solution than the younger brother who will get none and probably a beating in the struggle. Life crises often present opportunities for moral development. These include loss of one's job, moving to another location, death of a significant other, unforeseen tragedies and disasters.

5. **It is Quite Possible for a Human Being to be Physically Mature But not Morally Mature:** Development of moral reasoning is not automatic. It does not simply occur in tandem with chronological aging. If a child is spoiled, never having to accommodate for others needs, if he is raised in an environment where level two thinking by others gets the job done, he may never generate enough questions to propel him to a higher level of moral reasoning. People who live in small towns or enclaves within larger cities and never encounter those outside their tribal boundaries are unlikely to have cause to develop morally. One key factor in development of moral reasoning is the regularity with which one encounters moral dilemmas, even if only hypothetically. Kohlberg found that the vast majority of adults never develop past conventional moral reasoning, the bulk of them coming to rest in either Stage 3 Tribal or Stage 4 Social Conventional stages. This is partly because the reinforcement mechanisms of the "common sense" of everyday life provided little reason or opportunity to confront moral dilemmas and thus one's own moral reasoning.

DEVELOPMENT OF SELF CONCEPT AND PERSONAL IDENTITY

Self-concept

Self-concept is the way people think about themselves. It is unique, dynamic, and always evolving. This mental image of oneself influences a person's identity, self-esteem, body image, and role in society. As a global understanding of oneself, selfconcept shapes and defines who we are, the decisions we make, and the relationships we form. Self-concept is perhaps the basis for all motivated behavior (Franken, 1994).

Components of Self-concept

Self-concept is an individual's perception of self, including self-esteem, body image, and ideal self. A person's self-concept is often defined by self-description such as "I am a mother, a nurse, and a volunteer." Client self-descriptive statements such as these help the nurse gain insight into the client's perception of self. The nurse should be observant for self-descriptive statements

when assessing the client's self-concept. A healthy self-concept is necessary for overall physical and mental wellness.

Three basic components of self-concept are the ideal self, the public self, and the real self. The ideal self is the person the client would like to be, such as a good, moral, and well-respected person. Sometimes, this ideal view of how a client would like to be conflicts with the real self (how the client really thinks about oneself, such as "I try to be good and do what's right, but I'm not well respected"). This conflict can motivate a client to make changes toward becoming the ideal self. However, the view of the ideal self needs to be realistic and obtainable, or the client may experience anxiety or be at risk for alterations in self-concept. Public self is what the client thinks others think of him and influences the ideal and real self. Positive self-concept and good mental health results when all three components are compatible.

A positive self-concept is an important part of a client's happiness and success. Individuals with a positive self-concept have self-confidence and set goals they can achieve. Achieving their goals reinforces their positive self-concept. A client with a positive self-concept is more likely to change unhealthy habits (such as sedentary lifestyle and smoking) to promote health than a client with a negative self-concept.

A person's self-concept is composed of evolving subjective conscious and unconscious self-assessments. Physical attributes, occupation, knowledge, and abilities of the person will change throughout the life span, contributing to changes in one's self-concept.

Characteristics of a Positive Self-Concept

Characteristics of a client with a positive selfconcept include:
- Self-confidence
- Ability to accept criticism and not become defensive
- Setting obtainable goals
- Willingness to take risks and try new experiences

Identity

Identity is an individual's conscious description of who he is. A client's identity is assessed by asking the person to describe oneself. This description of oneself provides the nurse with insight into whether the client is comfortable with one's identity.

A client who uses positive self-descriptions will exhibit a healthy self-identity.

An individual's identity is developed over time, constantly evolving, and influenced by self-awareness. Self-awareness involves consciously knowing how the self thinks, feels, believes, and behaves at any specific time (Figure 15-3). According to Burkhardt and Nathaniel (2008), we can enhance self-awareness by developing the ability to step back and look at any situation while being aware of ourselves and how we are reacting to the situation. A client needs to be able to identify one's personal and emotional feelings of a situation without judging oneself.

Body Image

An individual's perception of physical self, including appearance, function, and ability, is known as one's body image. Normal growth and developmental changes may influence and alter body image, such as the physical and hormonal changes that occur during puberty and adolescence. The onset of puberty involves the emergence of secondary sex characteristics in the female and male client. While these are normal expected physical changes that occur during the adolescent stage, these changes will impact an adolescent's body image, thus affecting self-concept.

In later adulthood, physical and hormonal changes present as thinning and graying of hair, wrinkling and loss of skin elasticity, weight gain, decrease in hearing and vision, and decrease in mobility. While some adults accept these changes as the normal process of aging, others may find themselves resisting or feeling negatively about them. These changes will naturally cause the adult to reevaluate the image they have of their body and how they feel about it. A person's body image will continue to change throughout the growth and developmental life span stages.

Health-related factors that may affect body image include stroke, spinal cord injury, amputation, mastectomy, burns, surgical and/or procedural scarring, and loss of a body part or function. Other common physical changes that affect body image involve the development of acne and weight gain and/or loss. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2007), approximately 66% of American adults are overweight or obese. These physical issues may add stress and

anxiety on the client, lowering their self-esteem and self-confidence.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is a personal opinion of oneself and is shaped by individuals' relationships with others, experiences, and accomplishments in life. A healthy self-esteem is necessary for mental well-being and a positive self-concept. This is achieved by setting attainable goals and successfully accomplishing the goals, resulting in an increase in self-confidence, assertiveness, and feeling valued. Since self-esteem impacts all aspects of life, it is important to establish a healthy, realistic view of oneself (Mayo Clinic, 2009).

Individuals with low self-esteem put little value on themselves and their accomplishments. They feel that they are not good enough and that they are worth less than others and often feel ashamed of themselves. They engage in negative self-talk, frequently apologize, and seek constant reassurance. Often this type of person is a perfectionist who struggles with failure.

One method of improving an individual's low self-esteem is for the nurse to empower the client. **Burkhardt and Nathaniel (2008)** define empowerment as "a helping process and partnership, enacted in the context of love and respect for self and others, through which individuals and groups are enabled to change situations, and are given skills, resources, opportunities, and authority to do so" (p. 542). Chamberlin (2008) recognized that empowerment has elements in common with concepts of self-esteem and self-efficacy. As a client becomes more empowered, one will feel more confident in one's ability to manage one's life, resulting in improved self-esteem and self-image. Box 15-1 lists the elements of empowerment that nurses may teach clients to use to increase their self-esteem.

Research and assessment has been conducted on self-esteem for several decades. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was originally developed to assess self-esteem among adolescents (Rosenberg, 1965). This self-report consists of statements related to feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance to measure global self-esteem. The scale has been validated to be used with male and female adolescents, adults, and elderly populations and remains in use today.

Role

We experience many roles in our lifetime. As we pass from birth to death, we will become a child, teenager, friend, worker, and perhaps spouse or parent. Many of our roles are defined by our success, education, relationships, and career. An individual's role is defined as an ascribed or assumed expected behavior in a social position or group. Specific behaviors that a person exhibits within each role make up role performance.

Illness, injury, and aging can lead to alterations in a person's role. Additional alterations may include pregnancy, loss of a job, retirement, or death of a significant other. How the individual views these changes or losses will determine the impact on one's self-concept. Individuals who view these alterations negatively are at risk for ineffective role performance and a decreased self-concept.

Development of Self-concept

Various psychosocial theories have been developed to explain the development of self-concept. A discussion of Erikson's theory of psycho-social development related to self-concept follows.

Activities That Increase Self-Esteem

The following are activities that the nurse can teach the client to engage in to increase one's self-esteem:
- Taking good care of self
- Taking time to do enjoyable activities
- Journaling
- Getting something done that has been put off
- Spending time with people that make you feel good about yourself
- Learning something new
- Forgiving yourself
- Doing something nice for someone else
- Positive self-talk
- Giving yourself rewards

Erikson's Theory

Erikson's (1963) psychosocial theory states that an individual's development proceeds throughout life. Each of his eight developmental stages includes psychosocial tasks that need to be mastered (see Chapter 10, "Life Span Development").

Newborn and Infant: At birth, the newborn does not differentiate itself from the parents. As the parents begin to care for the newborn, their feelings and attitudes toward the newborn will begin to develop the baby's self-concept. The parents will experience a change in their own self-concept. Parental roles are being established, body images are formed in the mother before and after giving birth, and emotional changes will affect the parents' self-concept.

The nurse will need to teach the family about the infant's emotional needs in developing a trusting relationship to promote the infant's feelings of security and trust in the parents. A sense of security and trust is especially important for the infant if it becomes ill and is hospitalized. Parents need to be encouraged to spend as much time as possible with the infant and provide routine care and developmental interventions for the infant to facilitate the continued healthy development of self-concept.

Toddler and Preschooler: The toddler needs a supportive environment for body image and self-esteem to develop positively. The parents should provide the toddler with an environment to practice his newly learned skills. The toddler needs to be encouraged to try his skills again (such as learning to walk or potty training) if not successful at first. Praising the toddler for mastery of learning his new skill is important in developing a positive self-concept.

Preschoolers begin to exhibit a sense of sexual curiosity. As they hear the names and functions of their body parts, they may ask a lot of questions. How the parents answer a preschooler's questions may have an impact on his selfconcept and body image. As preschoolers develop their selfconcept, they will often imitate parents and siblings.

School Age and Adolescence: The school experience has a major impact on a child's development of self-concept, identity, body image, self-esteem, and role. Parents, teachers, and peers have a direct influence on the child's developing feelings, views, and sense of self. Children compare their physical appearance, academic and athletic abilities, and social status to those of their peers and seek approval and acceptance from this group. Bullying by verbal, emotional, or technological methods (e-mail, chatting, blogging, texting, or twittering) is common in this age group and negatively affects a child's developing self-concept. The

school-age child places importance on receiving acceptance and approval by one's peer group to feel included and positive about oneself.

Adolescence marks numerous physical and hormonal changes including in the female the onset of menses, pubic and axillary hair growth, breast development, and an increase in height and in the male a slow, progressive deepening of the voice; pubic, axillary, and chest hair growth; enlargement of the testicles and penis; and thinning and reddening of the scrotum. The development of acne and body odor will also occur at this age. These changes influence the adolescent's view of one's body and oneself. Adolescents look to their peers, parents, role models and the media to view what is expected of them.

Many adolescents are experiencing issues with the image of their body weight, shape, size, hair, acne, or height. Negative comments and reactions from their peers can cause them to participate in substance abuse, inappropriate sexual behavior, and eating disorders as an attempt to fit in. Adolescents struggling with how to deal with anxiety and depression due to these expectations may use self-injury (self-mutilation) as a method of coping or even attempt suicide.

The development of a healthy self-concept for the adolescent often lies in parental involvement and support. As the adolescent becomes more independent, the parents may need to adapt and change their parenting style. While adolescents may begin to attain more independence, they still require the love, support, and involvement of their family and friends.

Adulthood

The natural process of aging will lead to significant changes in a person's self-concept. Over the course of a lifetime, an adult will experience changes in one's roles, body, and identity. Young adults strive to develop relationships, careers, and often a family. Older adults attempt to define themselves by their accomplishments. Major life events in adulthood will continuously shape a person's self-concept, such as obtaining a college degree, getting a job, marriage, divorce, losing a job, retirement, and the death of a significant other. How the individual views and copes with these changes will determine the influence and impact they have on the person's self-concept.

Factors Affecting Self-concept

Self-concept can be affected by an individual's life experiences, heredity and culture, stress and coping, health status, and developmental stage. The nurse needs to evaluate each of these factors and the influence each has on the client's achievement of a healthy self-concept.

Life Experiences: Life experiences, including success and failure, will develop and influence a person's self-concept. Experiences in which the individual has accomplished a goal and achieved success will positively reinforce the development of a healthy selfconcept. Difficult experiences and/or failures can negatively impact a person's self-concept unless they have established coping strategies to deal effectively with these challenges to their self-concept. Coping strategies are learned as a person encounters and deals with various situations in life.
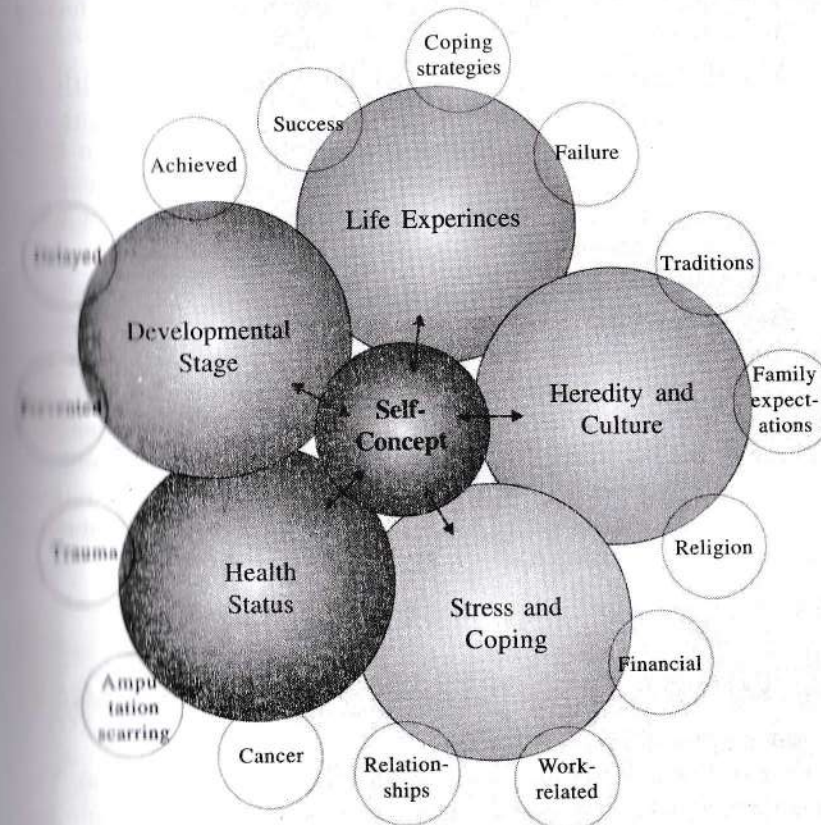
Heredity and Culture: Individuals typically grow up learning and integrating their family's heredity and culture into their life. Beginning at birth, heredity and culture shape and influence a person's selfconcept. Individuals who have integrated their heredity and culture into their life tend to have a healthier self-identity and self-concept.

Stress and Coping: Everyone experiences stress at some level each day. Common stressors include financial, work-related, relationship, and health issues. Individuals react and deal with stress in different ways depending on their past experiences and success and failure with dealing with stress. Individuals who learn and use effective coping strategies to deal with stress will most likely develop a positive self-concept. People who become overwhelmed with stress may feel hopeless and powerless, leading to a feeling of low self-confidence and self-esteem. The nurse may need to teach the client effective coping strategies and techniques for handling stress.

Health Status: People tend to take their good health for granted. When they become ill, their altered health status can change their selfidentity and self-concept. Alterations in body image can result from such health issues as amputation, cancer, mastectomy, trauma, or scarring. The nurse needs to monitor for changes in the client's self-concept due to alterations in their health status.

Developmental Stage: Growth and development begins at birth and continues into adulthood. Typically a person will achieve specific developmental tasks as one passes through each stage of life. The successful accomplishment of each task will influence and reinforce the development of a healthy self-concept. Individuals who experience developmental delays or situations in life that prevent or delay the accomplishment of developmental tasks can have an altered or negative self-concept.

COMMUNICATION AND SPEECH DEVELOPMENT LINGUISTIC AND PARALINGUISTIC STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

Language Development

Children learn language just as they learn anything else. The newborn makes few sounds other than cries. Many people use the terms "speech" and "language" interchangeably. However,

they are not synonymous. Language encompasses every means of communication in which thoughts and feelings are symbolized so as to convey meaning to others, it includes such widely differing forms of communication as writing, speaking, sign language, facial expression, gesture, pantomime and art.

Speech is a form of language in which articulate sounds or words are used to convey meaning. Because it is the most effective form of communication, it is he most important and most widely used.

Components of Language Development

There are four major components of language development. These are discuss below: Phonology (sound), Syntax (grammar), Semantics (meaning) and Pragmatics (usage).

(i) **Phonology (sound):** Every language possesses certain distinctive fundamental sounds, which are the phonemes of that language. These are the smallest units of language. The basic sound units of a language are known as phonemes and they differ from language to language. In English, r / and / w / are distinct phonemes not because they sound different, because there are pairs of words (such as wig and rig, or twice and thrice) which differ in meaning only because of the difference between the two sounds.

Words are constructed from smaller units known as *morphemes*; these are the smallest linguistic units that carry meaning. Free morphemes such as table, board are words themselves and so can stand alone. Bound morphemes cannot stand alone but are combined in systematic ways to modify the meaning of a word. For example, in English are: un–, –ing, –ly which change the meaning of words in predictable ways, as can be seen in the word un-surpris-ing-ly. The Commonest bound morphemes in English is the Suffix-s which is attached to the end of the noun to indicate the plural. Morphemes are composed of a series of phonemes.

(ii) **Syntax (grammar):** The order of words in phrases or sentences is called syntax. English syntax depends largely on word order. The task of any syntax is to arrange morphemes in meaningful sentences. For example: 'The dog bit the man' and 'The man bit the dog' mean different

things, the two sentences are composed of exactly the same words but the English syntax dictates that the subject is different in the two sentences.

(iii) Semantics (meaning): By the age of 4 or 5, children generally discover the rules exist for combining sounds into words, and there are rules for combining words into meaningful sentences. The rules help children to understand meaning of a word with which they are unfamiliar, this technique, called fast mapping help children to use context for word's meaning and thus enables them to continue rapid vocabulary development. The relationship between ideas & words is the source of meaning, or semantics.

(iv) Pragmatics (usage): Pragmatics involves the appropriate use of language to communicate. For example, young children must learn the rules of turn taking in conversation. They learn the rules for when & how to use language. In elementary school their conversation start to sound like conversation. By adolescence, students become interested in analysing the feelings and views of others. They want to understand the perspectives of the other speakers.

Stages of Language Development

The stages of language development are as follows:

(i) Language Development in Early Infancy: Learning to speak is a long and complicated process, until the child is matured enough to learn to speak, nature provides certain stopgap forms of communication, otherwise the period of helplessness would be greatly prolonged. They will continue to use the pre-speech forms of communication until they have mastered sufficient linguistic skill to use meaningful words.

Until they have learned enough words to use as a form of communication, babies use pre-speech forms of communication: crying; which soon develop into babbling.

In the early days of postnatal life, most vocalization consists of crying. Through cries, babies make known their need for someone to relieve their hunger, pain, fatigue and unpleasant bodily states.

The second pre-speech form of communication called "cooing" or "babbling". At about sixth to eighth week cooing appears, these are the sounds that resemble vowels & consonants.

Gradually, the number of sounds the baby can produce increases. At about 4 months, the children begin to babble, that is to, make sounds that approximate speech.

Later in the babbling period, children use consistent sound patterns to refer to objects & events. These sound patterns, that seem to indicate that children have discovered the meaning associated with sound, are called vocables. There speech like, sounds increase in frequency until about 1 year of age.

At about 1 year, the first word appears. Between the ages of about 12 and 18 months, they begin to use single words to convey multiple meaning. The single-word phase flows into the use of multiple words.

When the two words stage appears, at about 18 months, they try to use words indicating tense and numbers, they have some difficulty in grammatical correctness.

At about 2 years, as children's vocabularies expand, simple sentence or telegraphic speech appears.

(ii) Language Development in Early Childhood: Early childhood is the golden age for learning to talk, just as it is for learning other skills. Because this is the ideal age for learning, almost all cultures expect young children to learn to talk. It is also expected that they will learn to become a part of the social group. To do so, they must be able to communicate with others.

In order to communicate, children must be able to understand what others say to them. Without this understanding or comprehension, there can be no exchange of thoughts.

To encourage language development during the early childhood years, **Hendrich** (1992) recommended that teachers give students something real to talk about and then listen carefully to what they say. Since young children are beginning to use more socialized speech, try to encourage as much conversation as possible-among teachers and students, among students and other adult members.

There are four major tasks in learning to speak. They are pronouncing words, learning new words, connecting meaning with words, and putting words together into sentences. All four improve during the early years of childhood.

As Owens noted (1996), even 5 year olds use very adult like, language, although they are missing some syntactic structures. Children proceed from hesitate beginning to almost complete acquisition of their native languages by the time they are about 7 years old. All children speak better when early childhood ends

things, the two sentences are composed of exactly the same words but the English syntax dictates that the subject is different in the two sentences.

(iii) **Semantics (meaning):** By the age of 4 or 5, children generally discover the rules exist for combining sounds into words, and there are rules for combining words into meaningful sentences. The rules help children to understand meaning of a word with which they are unfamiliar, this technique, called fast mapping help children to use context for word's meaning and thus enables them to continue rapid vocabulary development. The relationship between ideas & words is the source of meaning, or semantics.

(iv) **Pragmatics (usage):** Pragmatics involves the appropriate use of language to communicate. For example, young children must learn the rules of turn taking in conversation. They learn the rules for when & how to use language. In elementary school their conversation start to sound like conversation. By adolescence, students become interested in analysing the feelings and views of others. They want to understand the perspectives of the other speakers.

Stages of Language Development

The stages of language development are as follows:

(i) **Language Development in Early Infancy:** Learning to speak is a long and complicated process, until the child is matured enough to learn to speak, nature provides certain stopgap forms of communication, otherwise the period of helplessness would be greatly prolonged. They will continue to use the pre-speech forms of communication until they have mastered sufficient linguistic skill to use meaningful words.

Until they have learned enough words to use as a form of communication, babies use pre-speech forms of communication: crying; which soon develop into babbling.

In the early days of postnatal life, most vocalization consists of crying. Through cries, babies make known their need for someone to relieve their hunger, pain, fatigue and unpleasant bodily states.

The second pre-speech form of communication called "cooing" or "babbling". At about sixth to eighth week cooing appears, these are the sounds that resemble vowels & consonants.

Gradually, the number of sounds the baby can produce increases. At about 4 months, the children begin to babble, that is to, make sounds that approximate speech.

Later in the babbling period, children use consistent sound patterns to refer to objects & events. These sound patterns, that seem to indicate that children have discovered the meaning associated with sound, are called vocables. There speech like, sounds increase in frequency until about 1 year of age.

At about 1 year, the first word appears. Between the ages of about 12 and 18 months, they begin to use single words to convey multiple meaning. The single-word phase flows into the use of multiple words.

When the two words stage appears, at about 18 months, they try to use words indicating tense and numbers, they have some difficulty in grammatical correctness.

At about 2 years, as children's vocabularies expand, simple sentence or telegraphic speech appears.

(ii) **Language Development in Early Childhood:** Early childhood is the golden age for learning to talk, just as it is for learning other skills. Because this is the ideal age for learning, almost all cultures expect young children to learn to talk. It is also expected that they will learn to become a part of the social group. To do so, they must be able to communicate with others.

In order to communicate, children must be able to understand what others say to them. Without this understanding or comprehension, there can be no exchange of thoughts.

To encourage language development during the early childhood years, **Hendrich** (1992) recommended that teachers give students something real to talk about and then listen carefully to what they say. Since young children are beginning to use more socialized speech, try to encourage as much conversation as possible-among teachers and students, among students and other adult members.

There are four major tasks in learning to speak. They are pronouncing words, learning new words, connecting meaning with words, and putting words together into sentences. All four improve during the early years of childhood.

As Owens noted (1996), even 5 year olds use very adult like, language, although they are missing some syntactic structures. Children proceed from hesitate beginning to almost complete acquisition of their native languages by the time they are about 7 years old. All children speak better when early childhood ends

than they did at the start. Around the age of 5, students begin to develop metalinguistic awareness, which means their understanding about language.

(iii) Language Development in Middle Childhood:

During the middle childhood years, children improve their use of language and expand their structural knowledge. By the end of the period, they are similar to adults in their language usage. They immersed in a verbal world.

Three types of changes in language usage occur during these years—

(a) Students begin to use language for their own purpose, they move from talking aloud when doing something, to inner speech. From about age 7 on, they use language to help them recall things.

(b) Language during these years becomes less literal. They use language figuratively.

(c) Students are able to communicate with others more effectively. The effective communication is the product of many developmental forces, like physical growth & brain development, cognitive development which is the development of ability to use symbols and language-development in terms of vocabulary development & usage.

For children between 6 & 10, the relationship of language development to reading is crucial. At the age of 8, they can write, as well as understand that words may have more than one meaning. Between 9 & 10, they can describe situations by cause & effect, and develop good sense of grammar. Students become more skillful in their use of language in settings such as the classroom.

The Role of Teacher Regarding Language Development

The teachers need to know the process of language development as language development depends on desire to learn, changes to learn & guidance. Teachers need to act as a model, as with good model to imitate and with guidance in copying it, children will improve their pronunciation.

Students need support from other students and from the teacher to develop their speech. A teacher may encourage cooperative speech by asking children questions and answering their questions. Sometimes students may have speech problem, a teacher may guide by explanations, demonstrations and work with other students-provides opportunities for cooperative learning.

According to **Vygotsky,** at any given point in development there are certain problems that a child is on the verge of being able to solve. The zone of proximal development is the area where the child cannot solve a problem alone, but can be successful under adult guidance or in collaboration with more advanced peer. If the teacher is aware of this aspect, he may provide opportunity to work with someone who is just a bit better. He should encourage using language to organize their thinking and to talk about what they are trying to accomplish. Teacher can do much to help children improve their speech, as language plays a major role in learning, inside & outside the classroom.

Exercise

Very Short-type Questions   **Marks-2**

1. What is cognitive stracture ?
2. What is cognitive functioning ?
3. Write the features of sensorimotor stage.
4. Mention the features of pre-operational stage.
5. Write the main features of formal operational stage.
6. What is psychoanalysis ?
7. What are the levels of mental activities ?
8. What are the reasous of unconscious ?
9. What is Id ?
10. What is Ego ?
11. What is Super Ego ?
12. What is meant by libido ?
13. What is narcissism ?
14. What is regrassion ?
15. What is repression ?
16. What is sublimation ?
17. What is conventional morality level ?
18. Define post conventional level.
19. What do you mean by self concept ?
20. What is Self Images ?
21. What is Self Efficancy ?
22. What are the characteristics of a positive Self Concept ?
23. What is Phonology ?
24. What is Syntax?
25. What is Semantics ?
26. What do you mean by Pragamatics ?

Short-type Questions   **Marks-5**

1. Discuss shortly the basic assumptions of Piaget's Theory.
2. Write the important processes of Cognitive Development.

3. What is Sensory Motor stage? What are the characteristics of this stage?
4. What is Pre-operational stage? Discuss the characteristics of this stage.
5. Mention the educational significance of Pre-operational stage. Write some limitations of this stage.
6. What is Operational stage? Discuss the characteristics of this stage.
7. Explain the characteristics and educational significance of formal operation stage.
8. Discuss the stages of child's development according to Freud.
9. Discuss the role of play in early years' child development.
10. What are the educational significance of Freud's Theory? What are the causes for criticism of this theory?
11. What is Initiative vs. Inferiority stage? What is the educational significance of this stage?
12. What do you mean by the stage of Identity vs. Identity confusion? Write the characteristics of this stage.
13. What is meant by Erikson later years of psyco-social development? What are the characteristics of this stage?
14. What is Moral behaviour? Write the definitions of Moral behaviour.
15. Explain the Kohlberg's Moral development theory.
16. Write the Kohlberg's stages of Moral development.
17. Write the significance of Moral development in education. What are the limitations of this theory of Kohlbergs?
18. What is the meaning of Pro-social behaviour? Mention the situational and Individual Factors of its.
19. Discuss the development of self concept and Personal Identity—with example.
20. Discuss the role of school in child's development of self concept.
21. What is development of Personal Identity? Write the causes of Personal Identity.
22. Discuss the time of appearance and development of personal Identity.
23. What is Language accomplishment? Describe the components of Language.
24. Discuss the factors affecting in language development of child.

Essay-type Questions   **Marks-10**

1. Discuss the stages of Piaget's cognitive development.
2. Discuss the stages of Psycho-sexual development—Freud's Theory. Mention the educational significance of this theory.
3. What are the basic factors of Erikxon's Psycho-social development theory? According to this theory discuss the stages of child's life development.
4. What is the Theory of Moral development by Kohlberg? Discuss the stages of Moral development according to this theory.
5. Write the pattern of Language development in different ages of child. Discuss the factors affecting in language development of child.

4

Individual Difference

CONCEPT OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE

Introduction

Individual differences psychology focuses on this second level of study. It is also sometimes called Differential Psychology because researchers in this area study the ways in which individual people differ in their behavior. For example, in evaluating the effectiveness of a new therapy, the mean performance of the therapy in one group might be compared to the mean effectiveness of a placebo (or a well-known therapy) in a second, control group. In this context, differences between individuals in their reaction to the experimental and control manipulations are actually treated as errors rather than as interesting phenomena to study.

In education, even since the most ancient times, students have been differentiated on the basis of age as difference in age levels entitles the children to differing levels of education.

As the child's age gradually increases, the subjects of his education can be made more complex and difficult. In addition to differences in age, another factor that was partly taken into consideration is the difference in levels of intelligence.

Besides this, educational attainments were also considered to be important. In this manner, during the ancient and the medieval periods, individual difference was believed to be the capacity of attaining skills in a particular subject. In modern schools, other kinds of skills and abilities, and peculiarities of personality in individuals are also taken into consideration.

Meaning of Individual Differences

The science of psychology studies people at three levels of focus captured by the well-known quotation: "Every man is in certain respects (a) like all other men, (b) like some other men, (c) like no other man" *(Murray, H A & C Kluckhohn, 1953)*.

Individual differences stand for "those differences which in their totality, distinguish one individual from another."

Individual differences stand for the variations or deviations among individuals in regard to a single characteristic or a number of characteristics—*Carter B Good.*

According to *Borich & Tombari* (1997. p29), "Individual differences are the variations we observe among members of anyGroup in a particular characteristic, such as temperament, energy level, Friendship patterns and parent-child attachment."

For example: On first day of school, the individual differences in class are jump out. Gender and physical differences are only the tip of the iceberg. Beneath the surface are students from different socioeconomic strata; students who come from various family configurations; students with special needs, differing interests, and abilities; students with different cultural backgrounds, different languages, different learning styles, and different attitudes toward school.

According to *Skinner*, "Today we think of individual differences as including any measurable aspect of the total personality." From this definition of individual differences it is evident that it comprehends every aspect of the human personality, albeit all aspects that is in some manner measurable.

Aspects of this nature can be many such as variability, conformity, difference in the rate of learning and development of mutual relationship between the various characteristics of personality, etc. In this manner, various individual differences of physical and mental development, nature, rate of learning ability, specific abilities, interest and personality, etc.

Causes of Individual Differences or Factors Responsible for Individual Differences

No two pupils are alike. They differ from each other in hundred and one respects. They differ in age, sex, hereditary potential, intelligence, achievement, interests, and aptitudes, needs physical, social, emotional and developmental. If there are forty

pupils in a class there are forty problems to solve, if the teacher wants to be effective.

For example, one child may listen to the teacher's words of advice, the other may not be at all hearing them: one may foe a hard worker, the other may be lazy and lethargic one may do the home work quickly, the other may not submit it even after repeated warnings one may be intelligent, the other may be mentally retarded.

Each child is a unique individual and differs from every other and presents individual problems. Individual differences among children are related to their developmental state at any time. The developmental state refers on the one hand to the level of maturation and on the other to the resultant of the process of growth and effects of experiences.

So, the causes of individual differences are as follows:

1. **Difference in Growth Rate:** Some children grow rapidly and some grow slowly. Some grow mentally at a faster rate, some at a very slow rate. Some grow physically and mature early; some grow late. The different parts of the organism grow at different rates. Each child has his own growth rate.

The result is the variety of ages that a child possesses. The different ages that a child as at one time may be a chronological age, a mental age, an educational age, a social age, a dental age, a grip age, an organism age and so on.

2. **Difference in Socio-Economic Backgrounds:** Some of the differences are caused by differences in socio-economic backgrounds. These differences are seen in pupils' reaction patterns. Differences in socio-economic backgrounds may lead to differences in diet, cultural opportunities, ideals, attitudes and adjective actions or in family behaviour habits.

3. **Interaction of Heredity and Environment:** A large number of individual differences are caused by the interactive process of heredity and environment. To each child heredity provides a potential and the dynamic forces of environment act upon that a potential in a different way.

Let us illustrate how the interactive forces of heredity and environment produce differences in individuals. We may have for the sake of illustration one trait (intelligence) and at one end of the diagram we place the rod measuring the rate of mental maturity (I.Q.).

There are three children of the same parentage X or Y end The hereditary potential for these children A.B.C or for P.Q is the same being represented by the equality of height of cones. But as environmental factors influence members' differently, the hereditary potential is realised in deferr amounts or degrees.

With least stimulating environments only a part of potential is realised (A, P) and with very stimulati environments we have full realisation of the potential (C, R) differences between the six children are due to interaction hereditary potential and the environment.

4. Physiological Differences: The layman and the scient both realise and recognise that differences exist amo individuals in the innate ability to learn. Certain, a mongolo or a micro cephalic do not learn with the facility of a norm individual.

It is a fact though it may not be obvious that among pupils who appear to be normal, there are also enormo differences in degrees of ability. These differences are attribut to basic physiological differences.

The basic physiological differences may be, for example, d to visual difficulty or hearing difficulty or other sensory disabil or glandular dysfunction or dietary deficiency. A child w appears to be normal may be having any or some of th difficulties with the consequent impairment of learning.

For example, visual difficulty which is evidenced by rubb the eyes, learning forward to see the board, tilting the he hearing difficulty which is displayed by turning one side of head towards the source of sound, asking that questions repeated, and other sensory difficulties like speech defec inattention and listlessness cause individual differences learning.

Teachers must recognize that some of the individual differen arise because of basic physiological differences. They m recognize that these differences exist and demand that teach should not force all children to learn at uniform rate.

When children begin to show indifference, failure, bored inattention, tantrums, they indicate through these sympto that teachers are expecting too much or too little from the

Pupils with sensory difficulties should be given differential treatment.

Nature of Individual Differences

1. **Inter-personal differences:** Inter-personal differences means the difference of characteristics between two individuals.
2. **Intra-personal differences:** Intra-personal differences means the difference of characteristics within the individual.
3. **Inter-group differences:** Inter-group differences means the difference of characteristics among more than two individuals.
4. **Intra-group differences:** Intra-group differences means the difference of characteristics within the individual with his/her different organism, such as finger, hair.

Types of Individual Differences

1. **Physical Differences:** individual differ in height, weight, colour of skin, colour of eyes and hair, size of hands and heads, arms, feet, mouth and nose, length of waistline, structure and functioning of internal organs, facial expression, mannerisms of speech and walk, and other such native or acquired physical characteristics.
2. **Mental Differences:** People differ in intellectual abilities and capacities like reasoning and thinking, power of imagination, creative expression, concentration etc. On the basis of these differences they are usually classified as idiot, imbecile, moron, border line, normal, very superior and genius.
3. **Difference in Motor Ability:** There exist wide differences in motor abilities such as reacting time, speed of action, steadiness, rate of muscular moment, manual dexterity and resistance to fatigue etc.
4. **Difference in Achievement:** Differences exist in achievement and in knowledge even among individuals who have almost the same amount of intelligence and have been subjected to equal amount of schooling and experience.
5. **Emotional Differences:** In some individuals, positive emotions like love, affection and amusement and the like are prominent whereas, in some negative emotions are

more powerful. Individuals also differ in the manner the
express their emotions. Some are emotionally stable an
mature, while others are emotionally unstable an
immature.

6. **Differences in Interests and Aptitudes:** Variation
occur among the individuals in relation to thespecific taste
and interests. In a similar way, people are found to have
different aptitudes. Some have mechanical aptitude, while
the others have scholastic, musical or artistic aptitude.

7. **Differences in Self-concept:** Self-concept reflects the
images, considerations or judgement aboutone's abilities
and limitations usually held by an individual not only
projecting himself before others but also for estimating his
self in his own eyes. Students must be made to form proper
and real concept about their self so that they may be
helped in their progress and development by maximizing
their potentials after getting rid of evils and negative things
detrimental to progress.

8. **Learning Differences:** Some learn more easily and are
able to make use of their learning more comfortably than
others. For some, one method of learning or memorization
is more suitable, while for others, a different method suits

9. **Differences in Study Habits:** Study habits are differ
from individual to individual.

10. **Differences in Social and Moral Development:** Some
are found to be adjusted properly in the social situation
and lead a happy social life while others are socially
handicapped, unsocial or antisocial. Similarly, people are
found to differ in respect of ethical and moral sense.

Strategies for Handling Individual Differences among Students

Some instructional strategies for handling individual differences
are as under :

1. **Organization of Instruction for the Development
of Cog-nitive:** Instruction should aim at developing
student's cognitive process beyond attainment of
information alone. The focus should be on the development
such cognitive processes as memory, visualization
reasoning and problem solving.

2. **Using Existing Cognitive Level as Base:** Student's
existing cognitive levy is the base for further cognitive
development. We should observe the reason level of our
students and identify which operations or activities they
can perform and which they cannot. In this connection to
see part-whole or cause-effect relationship is an essential
indicator of their cognitive level.

3. **Strengthening Memory:** Learning or problem solving
often require retaining fairly large amounts of information
including vocabulary, concept principle, etc. in the memory
system. Mnemonics or aiding the memory helps retain new
information in the memory. For example mnemonic,
VIBGYOR i.e. Violet, Indigo, Blue, Green, Yellow, Orange
and Red is used to help recall the colours of the rainbow.
Rehearsal is another strategy for remembering. It means
actively repeating the ideas to be learned so that the ideas
are registered well in the memory.

4. **Formulate Level Specific Instructional Strategy:**
The instructional strategies which are deemed to be the
best for one group are not necessarily the best for another.
Gifted students require intellectually more demanding
(higher order thinking) learning situations. Enriched
learning experiences can be provided to them.

5. **Use Individual Meeting:** This strategy provides us with
insights into a student's learning and cognitive processes,
for example, a student has difficulty in comprehending
passages. We can give him a series of passages with
questions and observe the way the student answers in
each passage. In this way we will! go in insights into the
student's difficulties and will be able to help him to
overcome the difficulties.

6. **Provide Instructions to Overcome Learning
Disability:** We should design structured instructions to
meet the nature and level of learning disability.

Classroom Implication or Educational Implications of Individual Difference

The notion that individuals differ in various abilities, capacities
and personality characteristics necessitates the adoption of
individual tendencies in education. It compels the teachers to
realize following facts:

1. In any group there are individuals, who deviate from the norms of the group. Along with the average, the presence of very superior and extremely dull is equally possible in his class.

2. Every teacher should try to have the desired knowledge of the abilities, capacities, interests, attitudes, aptitudes and other personality traits of his pupils and in the light of this knowledge should render individual guidance to children for maximum utilization of their potentialities.

3. It is wrong to expect uniformity in gaining proficiency or success in a particular field from a group of students. On account of their subnormal intelligence, previous background, lack of proper interest, aptitude and attitude some students have to lag behind in some or other area of achievement.

4. All students can not be benefited by one particular method of instruction and a uniform and rigid curriculum.

Provisions for 'Individual Differences' in Schools

Realization of the above facts or some more of their nature makes us think that we must have some provision for the wide individual differences among our pupils in our schools. Emphasizing this need Crow and Crow (1973) write—

"Since we supposedly are teaching individuals, not groups of individuals, it is the function of the school within its budgetary personnel and curricular limitations to provide adequate schooling for every learner no matter how much he differs from every other learner."

How can we accomplish this task is a pertinent question to be asked at this stage. In fact, to provide adequate schooling or learning experience for every learner according to his individuality is not a simple task. However, the following suggestions can be helpful for any teacher—

1. **Proper Knowledge of Individual Personalities:** The first step in making provisions for individual differences is not how abilities, capacities, interests, aptitudes and other personality traits of individual pupils. For this purpose, frequent assessment in the form of intelligence tests, cumulative record card, interest inventories, attitude scales, aptitude tests and measures for assessing personality traits shall be carried out.

2. **Ability Grouping:** In the light of results derived from various tests of knowing individual differences in terms of individual potentialities in various dimensions, the students in a class or area of activity can be divided into homogeneous groups. Such divisions can prove beneficial in adjusting the method of instruction to varying individual differences.

3. **Adjusting the Curriculum:** To meet the requirement of varying individual differences among the pupils, the curriculum should be as flexible and differentiated as possible. It should have the provision for a number of diversified courses and curriculum experiences so that the pupils may get opportunity to study and work in the areas of their own interests and abilities. It should provide adjustment to suit the local requirements and potentialities of students of different groups.

4. **Adjusting the Methods of Teaching:** Considering the varying individual differences, adjustment with regard to the adoption of methods of teaching is very effective. Every teacher should be somewhat free to formulate his own plan and strategy and adopt different instructional procedures which he finds most suited to different pupils. He should follow different procedures or methods of instruction to suit the requirements of varying ability groups of his pupils.

5. **Adopting Social Programs or Methods for Individualizing Instruction:** Schools may also adopt some social programs or methods of teaching like the Dalton plan, the Winnekta plan, project method or use programmed learning material for enabling students to learn at their own individual pace.

6. **Other Causes of Individualizing Instruction:** For the purpose of individualizing instruction a few practical measures can also prove beneficial—

   - The student strength of the class or section should be made as small as possible.
   - The teacher should try to pay individual attention to the group under instruction.
   - The teacher should keep in view the individual difference of his students while engaging them in drill or practice work in the class-room or assigning home-task.

- In case where ability grouping is not possible and mor specifically under the prevalent system of class teaching special coaching and guidance program for both th dull and the gifted children are most helpful.

Thus, the problem of individual differences can be tackle with multi-dimensional tasks. The teacher, school authoritie the parents and the government as well as voluntary agencie - all should join hands to meet the individual requirements children who possess tremendous individual differences.

ROLE OF HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT INCLUDING PHYSICAL AND SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS

The Sociologists have, for sometimes past, been making controlle experiments to solve the nature-nurture problem, and to ascertai the influence of environment over heredity or vice-versa. The have held one of the factors as constant and the other varie on the principle that the differences so revealed can be attribute solely to the variant factor.

For instance, children of the same heredity i.e., twins hav been put under different environments and the differences i their behaviour have been consequently attributed t environment. Conversely, children of different heredities hav been placed together under the same environment and th differences in their behaviour have been attributed to thei heredity differences. Below are given some of such studies.

Environments on twins reared together and apart:

Galton had experimented with "identical" twins and ha found that they exhibited marked similarity in their behaviour. He had been convinced that heredity played a dominant part i the causation of both human resemblances and huma differences.

The subsequent researches have also established that twin exhibit closer resemblances, physical and mental, than sibling who are not twins; and that, particularly with respect to certai physical traits; identical twins are more alike than fraterna twins. But these conclusions have been found to be incorrect i the researches recently made.

No doubt some close similarities between identical twins have been found but there have been significant differences also. The most famous experiment of this kind is that of the Dionne identical quintuplet sisters of Canada. The five sisters were reared in the same environment from their tender years but they had shown marked differences in personality and temperament.

Again studies have been made of identical twins reared in different environments by **H H Newman**, a biologist, **F N Freeman** a psychologist and **K J Holzinger**, a statistician. They studied nineteen pairs of identical twins brought up in separate homes. They concluded on the basis of their observations that physical traits are least affected by the environment, that achievement and various skills are somewhat more sensitive to environmental influences, and that personality characteristics are most affected.

Experiments on children under same environment:

Miss. B S Burks studied the case of children of different heredities brought up from infancy in the same foster home. She came to the conclusion that heredity's contribution was about 80% and that of environment about 17 to 20%. But this conclusion has not been widely accepted. It is surprising as to how she could correctly measure the contribution of innate ability or achievement.

On the other hand, a study conducted about the same time by **F N Freeman** showed that the character of the foster home definitely affects the degree of intellectual ability attained by the children subjected to its influence. Similarly, the investigations over 150 children, mostly illegitimate, conducted at the University of IOWA by **H M Skills** indicated that intelligence is much more responsive to environmental changes.

The conclusions of the above studies take us nowhere. They fail to measure exactly or approximately the potency either of heredity or of environment in determining the difference of human behaviour. All efforts regarding the relative amounts of heredity and environmental influence seem to be wasteful.

One writer has rightly remarked: "The whole array of twins studied seem to suggest the futility and artificiality of the idea of disentangling nature and nurture influences in the sense of asserting the percentage contributions of each in any general sense." While it is true that the races of mankind certainly

differ-because of heredity-in such matters as hair form, stature and colour of the skin, it is difficult to say how significant these stature differences are for the social life of the various races.

Does the straight round hair of the Chinese make Chinese society different from that of the Negroes with flat wavy hair? People with the same hair form have societies as different as those between the Negroes and Chinese. Variations in human behaviour are not likely to be explained satisfactorily by variations either in heredity or environment.

Heredity and Environment are not Separable:

The problem of nature versus nurture defies satisfactory solution. As a matter of fact, it is futile to ask which of the two factors, heredity or environment, is more important. According to **MacIver**, "Every phenomenon of life is the product of both, each is as necessary to the result as the other, neither can ever be eliminated and neither can be isolated." No society is a product of environment alone for men inherit physical heritage.

The truth of the matter is that there is incessant interaction between the two. They are inseparable. One man is a law-abiding citizen, another is a criminal; one a militarist and another pacifist. It is difficult to indicate any genetic basis for these variations and in many cases it is almost impossible to assess properly the relative role of heredity and environment in producing these differences.

Both have been operative to produce every particular situation since time immemorial. In no case of personality development can we properly attribute any characteristic to heredity or to environment alone. A given result is always produced by the interaction of gene substance, and their environment. We should not, therefore, be interested, in asking about the absolute contribution of either factor as a whole.

In **Altenberg**'s words, "Each trait requires both heredity and environment for its development." **Lumley** said, "It is not heredity or environment, but heredity and environment." We have no more justification for denying the importance of heredity than some eugenists have for denying the importance of environment.

Heredity, no doubt has its influence on the physiological traits but environment is also the arbiter of our development. What heredity can do environment can also do. Neither can

ever be eliminated and neither can ever be isolated. Both have been operative in determining human behaviour. An immigrant group, no matter what its heredity antecedents, exhibits new characteristics when transplanted from its native land to the country of its adoption.

Heredity is of no avail if environment is not there to show it off. For instance, it is the industrial age which has made possible for men of talent to rise to eminence that otherwise would have remained in obscurity. A new social situation or a happy chance may thus give a genius the opportunity to reveal his power but no amount of favourable conjuncture will turn a person of mediocre mentality into a genius. David Abrahamson has written that heredity determines what a person can do, and environment what he will do.

The capabilities of man are hereditary, but their manifestation is the work of the environment. According to Landis and Landis, "Heredity gives us the capacities to be developed but opportunity for the development of these capacities must come from the environment."

Heredity gives us our working capital; environment gives us opportunity to invest it. "Heredity explains man the animal, environment man the human being." In the words of **Biesanz and Biesanz**, "Personality is the organisation of a person's attitudes, habits and traits and arises from the interplay of biological, social and cultural factors."

The conclusions that we can draw from the above discussion is that the question, "which is more important, heredity or environment ?" wrongly assumes that environment and heredity are opposed, so that if one is important the other cannot be. All the qualities of life are in the heredity, all the evocations of qualities depend on the environment. In other words, heredity has potentiality and environment offers it a chance of bringing them out.

It also follows from this principle that the higher the potentiality, the greater is the demand made on environment. Thus more subtle differences in environment may have little effect on those of low potentiality while the same differences may be vastly significant for those who have higher potentiality.

For instance, a seemingly minor change in a situation, say, a rebuff, may prove decisive to a sensitive nature while it may

not affect a thick skinned; man. Lastly, the more elastic the life the more is it at the mercy of environment. That is why environment affects us most in the earlier years of our life when we are most impressionable.

We should thus conclude this controversy of nature versus nurture by accepting the unchallengeable truth that heredity and environment—the two ultimate determinants of every living being are of coequal importance and that none is more potent than the other.

HEREDITARY MECHANISMS

When the sperm fertilizes the ovum, all the characteristics the new life will ever inherit from his/her parents and grand parents are set. After fertilization nothing can be changed except by accident. According to Thompson and Kahles, "Every individuals supply of genes, the bearers of hereditary factors, is given him/her once and for all in alternation at conception".

At conception, there are 23 pairs of chromosomes, one half from the father and the other half from the mother (46 chromosomes from both sides). These make up everything that determines the heredity of the child.

Specific Traits Determined By Heredity

1. **Sex Determination:** The sex of the child is determined at the time of fertilization. Chromosomes produced by mature sperms from males differ in character. These different chromosomes are the sex determinants.

   There are usually two types
   (i) the larger one called the X chromosome.
   (ii) the smaller one, which is about 1/3 the size of the X-chromosome called Ychromosome.

   One half of each sperm carries an X-chromosome and other a Y-chromosome i.e. XY. By contrast, all matured ova carry only X-chromosomes i.e. XX.

   Therefore, a fertilized ovum (zygote) contains at least an X-chromosome and either an X or a Y-chromosome from the sperm.

   If the sperm that unites with the ovum is the X type then we have an XX genotype and the result is a female child.

But if a Y-bearing sperm unites with the Ovum, the result is an XY genotype. These always produce a male child. The production of a male child solely lies with the man. That a family produces female children consistently is therefore not the fault of the wife.

2. **Twins Development:** A is usually brought about by the development of two babies in the womb during one pregnancy. There are usually two types of twins, the identical and Non-identical twins.

Non-Identical Twins

The woman normally has two ovaries with the possibility of releasing two eggs (Ova) every month though usually only one ovary releases one ovum monthly.

However, where the two ovaries release two separate eggs and each egg is fertilized by two different sperms; the two zygotes formed will develop separately. These two embryos will eventually lead to the birth of two Non-identical twins. These fraternal twins will look just a little alike as brothers and may be the same or different sexes. They are never exactly alike.

Often, dizygotic twins remain different in every way till adulthood. These differences may be magnified by the environment.

Identical Twins

When one egg (Ovum) is fertilized by one sperm, a zygote is formed. This zygote may now divide into two and each half will develop into a separate embryo. These two embryos originating from the same zygote will lead to the birth of identical twins or monozygotic twins. Usually, identical twins are the same sex. Identical twins always have the same hereditary potentialities which may persist throughout life. Any difference between them is accounted for by the environment in which they develop. That identical twins have different personalities is caused by the environmental factors.

We have already said that it is difficult to determine what traits heredity endows that are not influenced by environment. However, there are some that must be mentioned.

(i) **Physical features:** It is easy to see that children are very often like their parents and grand parents. We do not mean that they can be exactly like their parents because

as we have just learnt they inherit from both father and mother.

(ii) **Intelligence:** From studies of twins especially identical twins, it has been found that under normal circumstances both twins are alike intellectually. When they are reared together, the degree of alikeness also known as correlation is very high .88. Even when they are reared in different places the correlation is .79, also very high. So we conclude that intelligence tends to be inherited somehow.

(iii) **Disorders:** The commonest form of inheritable sickness in our environment is sickle cell anemia. People should know more about how this condition is inherited. Unfortunately we can not go into it now. Other forms of disorders and diseases are also inheritable.

(iv) **The rate of development:** Also seems to be inherited. Generally a child that is fast in crawling will tend to be fast in walking and in many other aspects of physical development.

(v) **Blood type:** People normally say blood is thicker than water. Perhaps we should say that a child always inherits the blood type of his parents. That is why a child or a close relation can donate blood for a person.

(vi) **Sex-related traits**

Environment And Development

Environment implies all factors influencing the development of an individual right from the time of conception. It includes such things as diet and health of the mother when the child is in the womb, home influences, school, church and neighborhood influences, effects of climates, geographical location and all things that stimulate the senses.

Identical twins often have similar genetical constitution as they come from the same zygote but in life they are often different in so many aspects. This difference is due to the effect of environment.

Evidence abounds of Nigerian athletes or students who perform poorly at home but traveled abroad to become stars. One can only explain this by saying that they had already possessed the potentialities but as the environment was not conducive the potentials could not be manifested at home.

Environmental Influences

Factors: You will recall that we define environment in terms of all the factors which affect the individual after the moment of conception. To understand these factors we will try and group them. We can only list some of them.

(a) **Pre-natal factors:** These are factors in the womb which can influence growth and development. The next unit discusses these factors. They can affect development positively or negatively.

(b) **The family members:** The child is born into a family and it is there that he first learns many things. The family has a very strong and long lasting influence on the developing child. Every aspect of the child's development is affected. Whether he is fat or thin depends on how much he is given to eat. His values depend on the family, his relationship with people outside his home etc.

The peers or mates: age mates and friends influence the behaviours and the development of children.

(c) **Institutions:**
   - *School:* The school has tremendous influence on the conduct, learning and other behaviours of the child, it is here that the child acquires a lot of skills, knowledge, etc.
   - *The religious Institutions:* church, mosque, influence some aspects of the child's development.
   - *The media:* radio, television, newspapers. Even in the rural areas, some of these do have an impact.

(d) **The physical environment**
   - The conditions of a place affects the health and subsequently all other aspects of a child's development. Is there enough and right type of food? Is there clean drinking water?
   - Facilities for learning exercise and interaction also affect development. Is there space for exercise and are there play materials?

Environment Influences on Development

Since environment makes it possible for hereditary gifts to grow and bloom we can say that all aspects of development are influenced by environment. Environment provides food for

growth as well as opportunities for learning. However, there are some which are virtually under the control of environment.

These are mostly the aspects of development which are learned and only a few examples will be given.

- (i) **Language:** The child's competences in language depends on the way he is taught language in the home, in school etc.
- (ii) **Social relationship:** How the child relates with people depends on his experiences and the skills which he has for interacting with people.
- (iii) **Motor skills:** Although the child does not need to be taught how to crawl, stand, walk, how he performs many skills depends on the environment. For example, we can all walk but you will agree that marching which is a kind of walking has to be learnt. If you have watched the march past during Children's Day or Independence Day celebrations you will understand what I mean. The same thing applies to many other motor skills—jumping, throwing etc.
- (iv) **Intellectual ability:** Even though we have said that heredity has a strong influence, the child has a strong influence, the child has to be stimulated for intellectual development to progress well.
- (v) **Physical development:** Environment can not change the physical structure except there is an incident and a limb or other part is completely destroyed. But how well a child grows depends on the nutrients and generally healthy conditions free from infections and other debilitating hazards.
- (vi) **Moral values and judgment** are learnt in the family and the home in which the children live. The way we are attached to our families and kin group here, the way we respect elders in our communities are not universal. They are important to us in our environment.

The Rural And Urban Environment

Environment plays a very important role in the development of the child. It provides food for growth as well as opportunities for learning. This important role of the environment can be enhanced or limited by the conditions that exist in the learner's immediate environment.

Below are some of the areas in which rural or urban location affects learning.

1. **Socio-economic conditions:** The income earning power tends to be higher in the urban areas than in rural areas. There seem to be better conditions and opportunities for income generation in the urban areas than in the rural areas. This is because of wide variety and lucrative jobs and business that exist in urban centres.

We also have better infrastructural facilities in urban areas than in rural areas. In urban centres, there are good network of roads, power and water supply, telecommunications, amenities such as schools, libraries, hospitals, play grounds, sporting and recreational facilities, etc.

These favourable conditions in urban settings create an enabling environment for teaching and learning. Urban schools benefit from availability of qualified and well trained teachers. Their schools are better built and more equipped than rural areas. The result is that schools in urban centres are more likely to produce higher achievers than rural schools.

2. **Government Presence:** In the urban centres, there is higher government presence than in rural centres. This nearness to the seat of government means that urban schools are likely to be better provided for and supervised. The implementation of educational policies are likely to begin in urban centres before getting to the rural areas. For example, supply of books, teachers, instructional materials, etc. are likely to be in favour of urban areas.

3. **Background of Parents:** The urban parents are likely to be more educated, more enlightened and know the value of education than their rural counterparts. Their perceptions may also differ. These differences will have impact on the learning achievement and ability of the pupils.

4. **Cultural Factor:** Closely related to the above is the fact that the cultural factors are likely to play a more important role in the up bringing of the rural child than the urban child. The rural child is likely to have a different perception, beliefs system, local knowledge and prejudices (e.g. Sex roles), than the urban child who is likely to be more cosmopolitan. This has implications for learning ability and achievement.

5. Presence of Mass Media and Information Technology: In the urban centres, there is high presence of mass media and telecommunication facilities. There is ready access to information and communication technology especially the radio, television, computer and the internet. The urban child is in a position to connect to the global village. He has access to a wide variety and plenty of educational resources. The rural child may lack this access and therefore the ability to benefit from such opportunities. There is no doubt that his ready access and availability of the mass media and computer technology places the urban child at learning advantage.

NUTRITION

Introduction

Nutrition for kids is based on the same principles as nutrition for adults. Everyone needs the same types of nutrients—such as vitamins, minerals, carbohydrates, protein and fat. Children however, need different amounts of specific nutrients at different ages.

So what's the best formula to fuel your child's growth and development? Check out these nutrition basics for girls and boys at various ages, based on the latest Dietary Guidelines for Americans.

Consider these nutrient-dense foods:

- **Protein:** Choose seafood, lean meat and poultry, eggs, beans, peas, soy products, and unsalted nuts and seeds.
- **Fruits:** Encourage your child to eat a variety of fresh, canned, frozen or dried fruits—rather than fruit juice. If your child drinks juice, make sure it's 100 percent juice without added sugars and limit his or her servings. Look for canned fruit that says it's light or packed in its own juice, meaning it's low in added sugar. Keep in mind that one-half cup of dried fruit counts as one cup-equivalent of fruit. When consumed in excess, dried fruits can contribute extra calories.
- **Vegetables:** Serve a variety of fresh, canned, frozen or dried vegetables. Aim to provide a variety of vegetables, including dark green, red and orange, beans and peas, starchy and others, each week. When selecting canned or frozen vegetables, look for options lower in sodium.

- **Grains:** Choose whole grains, such as whole-wheat bread, oatmeal, popcorn, quinoa, or brown or wild rice. Limit refined grains.
- **Dairy:** Encourage your child to eat and drink fat-free or low-fat dairy products, such as milk, yogurt, cheese or fortified soy beverages.

Aim to limit your child's calories from:

- **Added sugar:** Limit added sugars. Naturally occurring sugars, such as those in fruit and milk, are not added sugars. Examples of added sugars include brown sugar, corn sweetener, corn syrup, honey and others.
- **Saturated and trans fats:** Limit saturated fats— fats that mainly come from animal sources of food, such as red meat, poultry and full-fat dairy products. Look for ways to replace saturated fats with vegetable and nut oils, which provide essential fatty acids and vitamin E. Healthier fats are also naturally present in olives, nuts, avocados and seafood. Limit trans fats by avoiding foods that contain partially hydrogenated oil.

If you have questions about nutrition for kids or specific concerns about your child's diet, talk to your child's doctor or a registered dietitian.

Ages 2 to 3: Daily guidelines for girls and boys

Calories	1,000-1,400, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	2-4 ounces
Fruits	1-1.5 cups
Vegetables	1-1.5 cups
Grains	3-5 ounces
Dairy	2 cups

Ages 4 to 8: Daily guidelines for girls

Calories	1,200-1,800, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	3-5 ounces
Fruits	1-1.5 cups
Vegetables	1.5-2.5 cups
Grains	4-6 ounces
Dairy	2.5 cups

Ages 4 to 8: Daily guidelines for boys

Calories	1,200-2,000, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	3-5.5 ounces
Fruits	1-2 cups
Vegetables	1.5-2.5 cups
Grains	4-6 ounces
Dairy	2.5 cups

Ages 9 to 13: Daily guidelines for girls

Calories	1,400-2,200, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	4-6 ounces
Fruits	1.5-2 cups
Vegetables	1.5-3 cups
Grains	5-7 ounces
Dairy	3 cups

Ages 9 to 13: Daily guidelines for boys

Calories	1,600-2,600, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	5-6.5 ounces
Fruits	1.5-2 cups
Vegetables	2-3.5 cups
Grains	5-9 ounces
Dairy	3 cups

Ages 14 to 18: Daily guidelines for girls

Calories	1,800-2,400, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	5-6.5 ounces
Fruits	1.5-2 cups
Vegetables	2.5-3 cups
Grains	6-8 ounces
Dairy	3 cups

Ages 14 to 18: Daily guidelines for boys

Calories	2,000-3,200, depending on growth and activity level
Protein	5.5-7 ounces
Fruits	2-2.5 cups
Vegetables	2.5-4 cups
Grains	6-10 ounces
Dairy	3 cups

The Role of Nutrition

Just as the damaging effects of malnutrition can pass from one generation to the next, so can the benefits of good nutrition.

Giving a child a solid nutritional start has an impact for life on her or his physical, mental and social development.

Malnutrition weakens the immune system, making a child susceptible to disease, increasing severity of illness and impeding recovery. A sick child, in turn, can quickly become malnourished. Age-appropriate breastfeeding and nourishing complementary foods, along with adequate health care, can break this vicious cycle.

Maternal Nutrition

A child's nutritional future begins before conception with the mother's nutritional status prior to pregnancy. A chronically-undernourished mother is likely to give birth to an underweight baby, who may be stunted as a child and in turn give birth to malnourished baby. A well-nourished woman over the age of 18 has a much greater chance of surviving pregnancy and her child of growing up healthy.

Eliminating malnutrition in mothers can reduce disabilities in their infants by almost one third. It is also important that expectant mothers eat a variety of foods, receive essential micronutrients and have adequate rest. During fetal growth is when most of the child's organs and tissues, blood, brain and bones are formed, and his or her potential is shaped. Lack of maternal nutrition and nutritional stores can create irreversible harm.

First three years: Infant and young child feeding

The period from birth to the age of three is a time of rapid growth and represents a singular opportunity to provide a child with a strong nutritional and immunological foundation. Intellectual and physical growth is the most rapid, with doubling of brain size and quadrupling of body weight. If a child is malnourished during these early years, much of the damage is irreversible—the answer lies in prevention.

If every baby immediately put skin-to-skin at the breast, hypothermia would be prevented, saving about 20,000 lives annually, If every baby were exclusively breastfed for six months, an estimated 1.3 million additional lives would be saved every year, and millions more would benefit in terms of health, intelligence and productivity. Breastmilk is the perfect food, it contains all the nutrients and micronutrients an infant needs for normal growth during the first six months of life.

Breastfeeding stimulates an infant's immune system and response to vaccinations, and is continually changing to meet the babies needs. Breastmilk contains hundreds of health-enhancing cells, proteins, fats, hormones, enzymes and other factors found nowhere else but in mother's milk.

Breastfed babies have at least six times greater chance of survival in the first months because breastmilk has factors that protect the mucous membranes of gastrointestinal and respiratory tracts, and cells and immune factors that actively fight infections, shielding babies from diarrhoeal diseases and upper respiratory infections. (SOWC, 1998) Exclusive breastfeeding increases the chance of survival many times more, and may also lower the chances of an HIV-positive mother passing on the virus via breastfeeding.

After six months, the infant should continue her frequency of breastfeeding while begining responsive complementary feeding with nutrient- and iron-dense foods that provide additional vitamins, minerals, proteins and carbohydrates to meet her or his growing needs. Complementary feeding should start gradually, but the 6-8 month old child should receive.

Essential Micronutrients

Tiny doses of minerals, vitamins and trace elements can mean a difference between life and death for mothers and children. Micronutrients—particularly iron, vitamin A, iodine and folate—play a vital role in the mother's survival in pregnancy and childbirth, and in the child's development.

Vitamin A is essential for the functioning of the immune system. Vitamin A deficiency (VAD) causes blindness and renders children susceptible to common childhood killers: measles, diarrhoea, malaria and pneumonia. Increasing the vitamin A intake of populations with VAD can decrease childhood deaths from such illnesses by 25 per cent. Vitamin A also helps prevent maternal mortality and may reduce mother-to-child transmission of HIV.

Iodine is a critical nutrient for the proper functioning of the thyroid gland which regulates growth and metabolism. Iodine deficiency is the primary cause of preventable learning disabilities and brain damage, having the most devastating impact on the brain of the developing foetus. One teaspoon of iodine—consumed

in tiny amounts on a regular basis over a lifetime—is sufficient to prevent the conditions known collectively as iodine deficiency disorders (IDD).

The body needs iron to manufacture haemoglobin—the protein in red blood cells that carries oxygen around the body and several enzymes necessary for muscle, brain and the immune system. The body's iron requirements increase during menstruation, pregnancy, breastfeeding and high-growth periods. Iron-folate supplements during pregnancy help prevent anaemia, which increases the risk of haemorrhage and sepsis (overwhelming bacterial infection) during childbirth and is implicated in 20 per cent of maternal deaths. Folate, a B vitamin, is needed for the formation of red blood cells and also the development of nerve cells in the embryo and feotus stages of development.

CHILD REARING PRACTICES AND FAMILY

Child-rearing customs and beliefs are not the same for all Indians.

India is composed of a diverse population with assorted religious, political and cultural views on child-rearing practices. With so many differences among Indians, it is impossible to ascribe a unified set of customs and beliefs about child-rearing in the entire country. Influential factors on child-rearing practices such as socioeconomic status, education and individual experience vary from family to family.

Social Differences

According to Infochange, India has 375 million children. Around the turn of the millennium, approximately 75 million children did not have adequate nutrition. This is one example of how social differences can relate to discrepancies in lifestyle, including health, access to education and attitudes toward child-rearing practices.

Another example of differing attitudes emerges from data gathered by the Berlin-Institut. In some regions, such as Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, each woman has an average of more than four children. In others, the average is less than two. These numbers reveal that differences exist within smaller segments of the Indian nation.

Physical Closeness

Babyzone reports that Indian mothers spend a lot of time in close physical contact with their young children. As babies, Indian children might receive a daily massage and sharing a parent's bed is quite common. For the first six months, around 90 percent of mothers in India breastfeed, according to Childinfo.org. Some continue to do so for up to two years, but the numbers drop off sharply after the first half year of life. A 2008 University of Mysore study, "Childrearing Practices Among Kurubas and Soliga Tribes from South India," reveals that showing affection can greatly benefit a child's personality development.

Disciplinary Techniques

The Mysore study on tribes from South India found that mothers often take on the main role of both disciplinarian and nurturer. That is not to say that fathers do not participate in their children's lives; they generally do, but as more of a background player.

Discipline can take many forms, including physical punishment. In "Child Abuse and Neglect: Cross-cultural Perspectives," professor Thomas Poffenberger examines disciplinary techniques in India. "Although a peasant society such as rural India may dictate child treatment that would be considered abusive in the United States," he writes, "there is probably less of the extreme, irrational abuse that is common in the West." Poffenberger suggests that regular proximity of extended family members serves as a dampening influence on anger. Not all parents choose direct punishment; according to his research, some prefer methods such as deprivation as a form of discipline.

Gender Preferences

Many Indian parents prefer male children over females. The CIA's World Factbook indicates that there are more males than females in every age group in India except those older than 65. An NDTV article from 2010 acknowledges the ongoing fact that "female fetuses are often aborted after a couple sees an ultrasound." Similarly, Poffenberger posits that neglecting female children, even to the point of death, may meet with "at least passive support" in some regions of India. It is clear that male and female children are often treated differently, with girls regarded as less valuable in some families.

Salient Features of Traditional Indian Parenting

The traditional Indian parenting is shaped by the cultural and religious values of the land, generational wisdom, and life experiences. The goal of parenting is comprehensive development of children and it integrates the cognitive, emotional, and spiritual components of an individual's growth. It includes both the personal and social dimensions of human growth and development.

Another characteristic of Indian parenting is that children are brought up in an atmosphere of emphatic richness. The supportive environment of the extended family system provides support and encouragement to parents. The parent-child bond is established by such child rearing practices as breast-feeding that provides not only nourishment to the baby, but also allows increasing physical contact between the mother and the child. Cuddling adds physical contact between the mother and the child and also provides a sense of security for the child. The strong emotional bond established between Indian parent and child during early childhood is said to be lifelong.

The traditional Indian parenting is value-based parenting. Deference for authority in social relationships is an expected behavioral norm. The family extends horizontally and laterally. People are bound up by their duty to family, to parents, to children, and to society. Parents are to be honored and cared for. The community is seen as the extended family. Values of interdependence and community are promoted. It is expected that one will live up to one's family name, and also fulfill one's dharma (duties) to the family and to the community. Norms of personal chastity and modesty in private and social behavior is reinforced. The practice of self-control is central to character formation.

The traditional Indian parenting is not without its share of disparagement. It is pointed out that the authoritarian type of Indian parenting limits individual autonomy. The stress on community and interdependence is detrimental to developing individual self-identity. Overprotective Indian parenting inhibits personal agency and assertiveness. Corporeal punishment, tolerated in traditional Indian parenting, is said to have long lasting emotional scars on children.

In spite of these criticisms, traditional Indian parenting has a great deal to offer to the Indian immigrant parent. Such features as the focus on comprehensive development of the child, the significance of character formation, the impact of empathic richness in Indian parenting, the thrust on personal chastity and modesty in private and social behavior, and the importance of community and interdependence, are all culturally appropriate parenting practices for the Indian immigrant parent to adopt.

Important things about Children's Happiness

According to **Dr. Christine Carter**, PhD (Amazon.com), a child happiness expert, "more than two-thirds of adults say they are 'extremely concerned' about the well-being of children." Luckily, there are many proactive methods we can use to ensure our little lovelies are well-rounded and perfectly happy children. Have a look at this list of 10 important things that science has demonstrated we can do to give the children true happiness.

1. Start with yourself: be happy! Extensive research has shown that parents who are depressed transmit these downbeat feelings to their children. The same is true for all adults that are important in a child's life. If you are a happy grandparent, your grandchildren will be happy to be near you. Why? Because neuroscientists think that if we hear another person laugh, it triggers mirror neurons in a part of our brain, and this makes us feel like we are the ones laughing—and so we laugh in turn. So, be merry yourself! Put yourself next to people who make you laugh, and bring that joy to your grandchildren or children too.

2. Show them how to build friendships: Research in multiple sclerosis patients show that if we are encouraged to provide compassion, support and positivity to others, we will improve our own self-confidence and self-esteem. The same is true for children, so you should often try to encourage youngsters to "perform small acts of kindness" in order to help them create edifying bonds with others.

3. Encourage effort, but don't expect perfection: In the present day, many parents can be overly pushy and demanding of their children's performances, and this is something grandparents may be able to help with. If you happen to be a grandparent, try and set a good example rather than criticize your children's parental approach (doing so is likely to cause

resentment). It has been found that children who are praised for their cleverness will choose the easier of two puzzles, not willing to make a mistake their parents might criticize.

However, 90% of "growth mind-set-encouraged kids" choose the harder puzzle, because they know that both their effort and achievement will be rewarded. Always be sure to encourage effort, regardless of outcome, and kids will actually be more adventurous in the long run.

4. Be positive and optimistic: According to **Dr. Carter**, optimists do better at school, work and sports. They are healthier and live longer. They also have more satisfying marriages when they grow up, and are less likely to face depression and anxiety. Therefore, to be a good role model, always be wary of sounding pessimistic when your grandchildren are around. Put a positive spin on everything, and show them the brighter side of life.

5. Show them how to "Empathize, Label and Validate": The best way to teach emotional intelligence, which **Dr. Carter** says is not innate, is to demonstrate it yourself. So if the little kid is having a small tantrum about something, ask them how they feel, and why they feel that way. Comfort them and show understanding emotions. These things will demonstrate to the child how they can empathize with others. Though of course, you should still rebuke any bad behavior they are showing.

6. Make good happiness habits: Because there are quite a few different tips here to remember, it is important not to do too much at once. The key is to form good habits. **Dr. Carter** recommends removing stimuli that could distract children from your goal. You should make your behavior goal public, having an open discussion with the kids about expectations and pressure. Only set one goal at a time so a good foundation for a positive habit can be formed. After this has been achieved, move on to the next goal. Always keep at it with the expectation that this education will take time, yet it will be worth the effort in the long run.

7. Teach to be self-disciplined: Far from intelligence being the most important gauge of future success, the virtue that offers the clearest signal of well-being is good self-discipline. Kids who, in one experiment, resisted temptation - the temptation of a first marshmallow for the promise of a second- went on to

perform better in their adolescent and adult lives. So, one way we can teach self-discipline is to obscure a future reward, for example covering up the marshmallow so the child knows it is there, but has a physical barrier to help them build resistance. Make the offer of the sweet treat after an extended period of time. This will teach them deferred gratification.

8. Encourage more and more playtime: One of the reasons why modern kids are thought to be less happy than we were is that they have less time for "free, unstructured playtime". Such playtime is said to help children to self-regulate, promoting "intellectual, physical, social and emotional well-being". If kids are given more budgeted time to play freely, they will better learn "how to work in groups, share, negotiate, resolve conflicts, and speak up for themselves." So, when they are in your hands, let them know there is plenty of time for them to play freely - and you can follow their imaginative lead.

9. Create a perfect environment for their happiness: Research has shown a correlation (not causation) between children who don't watch much television and people who have grown up to lead happy lives. So, when you have the kids in your hands, it would be good to show that you don't need to watch TV or YouTube to have fun. Create a nice, happy and healthy environment for them if you can—one that they can form strong associations with.

10. Eat meals together: If you show children that the proper way to eat (without the TV on) is together as a family, chances are that they will become more emotionally stable, and collectively-oriented. Many children fall prey to destructive private habits in their early adulthood, such as drugs and alcohol. Yet studies show, according to *Dr. Carter*, that kids who enjoy regular family meals will largely avoid these pitfalls. She says that "family dinners even trump reading to your kids in terms of preparing them for school."

This is something that grandparents can actively encourage, even if you are not as used to it as you used to be. It's a healthy habit worth resurrecting - for the kids, and your, sake! So why not get cooking, you may even be able to teach the kids how to.

Exercise

Marks-2

Very Short-type Questions

1. What is Physical and Mental difference ? 131
2. What is Heredity ? 1?
3. Heredity depends on whats ?
4. What is the way of Child's sex determination ? 140
5. What is the role of Heredity in body building ?
6. What is Identical Twins ? 141
7. What is Fraternal Twins ?
8. What do you mean by internal environment in Child's individual difference ?
9. What is external environment ?
10. What do you mean by Physical environment ?
11. What is Socio-cultural environment ?

Marks-5

Short-type Questions

1. Mention the mening and nature of Individual difference.
2. Discuss the classification of Individual difference.
3. Write the mechanism of Heredity. Discuss the role of Heredity in individual diference.
4. Mention the role of environment in individual difference. 43
5. What is nutrition? Explain the types of food quality as per nutrition value.
6. Discuss the role of Nutritions food in Child's proper development.
7. Discuss the role of family in Child Rearing Practices.

5

Development of Personality

PERSONALITY

According to **Allport** 'personality is a dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to the environment.'

Warren defines personality as the entire mental organisation of a human being at any stage of his development.

Mortan Prince tried to give personality a broad base by accepting the role of both environmental and hereditary factors in constituting what is named as personality.

Characteristics of Personality

1. The personality is something unique and specific. No two individuals not even identical twins, behave in the same way over any period of time.
2. Personality exhibits self consciousness as one of its main characteristics.
3. Personality includes everything about a person. It includes all the behaviour patterns i.e. conative, cognitive and affective.
4. It is not just a collection of so many traits or characteristics which is known as personality. It is organisation of some psychophysical systems and functions as a unified whole.
5. Personality is not static, it is dynamic and ever in process of change and modification. Personality is all that a person has about him. It gives him all that is needed for his unique adjustment in his environment.
6. Personality is the product of heredity and environment.
7. Every personality is the end product of learning and acquisition.

8. It should not be equated with one's character. Character is an ethical concept, while personality is a psychological concept.
9. Personality stands for more than what the ego carries.
10. It is much beyond that of one's temperament.
11. Every persons personality has one more distinguished feature that is arising to an end—towards some specific goals.

Personality Traits

Trait is a structure of the personality inferred from behaviour in different situations. Psychologists define a trait as a mode of behaviour Traits given by **Allport** are—

- Intelligence.
- Motivity.
- Temperament.
- Self expression.
- Sociality.

According to the psychologist **Guilford,** the traits are of the following—

- Social introversion.
- Thinking introversion.
- Depression.
- Cycloid tendency.
- General Activity.
- Ascendance—submission.
- Masculinity—Feminity.
- Inferiority.
- Nervousness.
- Objectivity.
- Co-operativeness.
- Aggreableness.

Traits given by **Cattel** are—

- Cyclothymia—schizothymia.
- General Intelligence—Mental Defect.
- Emotional Stability—General Neuroticism.
- Dominance—Submission.
- Surgency—Desurgency.
- Positive character—Immature dependent character.
- Adventurousness—Introversion.
- Emotional Sensitivity—Tough maturity.

- Paranoid schizothymia—Trustful accessibility.
- Bohemianism—Practical concernedness.
- Sophistication—Simplicity.
- Suspiciousness—Trustfulness.
- Radicalism—Conservation.
- Self sufficiency—Lack of resolution.
- Will control and character stability.
- Nervous tension.

Traits are tendencies to behave in relatively consistent and distinctive ways across situations. Allport judged peoples' cardinal, central and secondary traits by examining their personal documents such as letters and diaries. Others have focussed on a single trait, such as locus of control.

Personality and Character

Character refers to the conformity to the ethical values and the observance of the laws set up by the society. A person is considered of good character when he conforms to the ethical standards set in his society and obeys the laws of the land.

Thus character development and personality integration are almost similar processes in the life of a normal human being. The ethical conduct of an individual is as much part of his personality as it is a consequence of his character. A person achieves personality integration when he develops self control, has recognised personal responsibility, social responsibility and democratic social interest besides inculcating an ideal value system. The person with above qualities will also be classified as a person of good character.

A well adjusted personality does not merely signify the satisfaction of one's needs, desires, wished etc. In fact in personality development we cannot ignore the ethical values. When we can talk of ethical values, we also talk of character development. According to Cronbach, 'character is not really a cumulation of separate habits and ideas. Character is embedded in the total structure of personality. To understand character, the structure of personality must be thoroughly examined. Character is personality devaluated and personality is character evaluated.

Personality, Character and Temperament

Personality is different from character. The term 'character' has a moral or ethical significance, i.e. it includes those traits of behaviour that have acquired a moral evaluation e.g., traits like cowardice, honesty, cruelty etc., *"Character is the moral estimate of the individual, an evaluation".* **(Sir John Adams.)**

The term temperament is also different from personality. Temperament is often used to include all the emotional traits of an individual, but it does not include the behaviour described under abilities.

Type Theories of Personality

The classification of personality into types dates back to the fifth century B.C. when Hippocrates (400 B.C.) classified mankind on the basis of our temperaments.

1. **The sanguine:** Active and quick but lacking in strength and permanence.

2. **The choleric:** A type of bodily fluids or humors which is easily aroused, strong but irritable.

3. **The melancholic:** Slow and pessimistic.

4. **The phelgmatic:** Slow, weak and solid. The four temperaments were attributed to an excess of bile, black bile and phlegm respectively. In modern times we have Kretschmer's attempt to classify personality types on the basis of physiological characteristics. He classified human beings into two types—the cyclorids (or circulars) and the schizoids (casual, timid, shy, reserved, nervous, ego-centric, sensitive and kindly). These two types were further subdivided into the pyknic, the athletic, the leptosome and the dysplastic.

(i) The pyknic type of body build is short, fat and good natured.

(ii) The athletic has a more proportionate development of trunk and limbs, well-developed bones and muscles, wide shoulders and large hand and feet.

(iii) The leptosome is generally characterised by small body volume in relation to height. He is tall and slender with relatively narrow chest, long legs, elongated face, and long and narrow hands and feet.

(iv) The dysplastic is a relatively small category in which are placed all individuals manifesting some marked abnormality of development, disproportion, glandular imbalance, or other defect.

The basic contention of Kretschmer's theory is that there exists a relationship between body-types and two fundamentally opposed "temperaments", the cycloids and the schezoid. The theory has later been extended to normal individuals, who exhibit no personality disorder. The terms 'cyclothyme' and 'schizothyme' have been employed to denote these two normal types. The former is described as social, friendly, lively, practical and realistic; the latter is quiet, and reserved, more solitary, timid and shut-in.

Sheldon divided human beings into groups basing on the relation between physique and temperament. According to him there are three components of physique, corresponding to which there are three main dimensions of temperament. These are as follows:

(i) **Physique:** Endomorphy—(Visceral form): fatness of the trunk, prominence of viscera and of the abdominal region.

It is connected with temperament called Viscerotonia characterised by relaxation, love of comfort and sociability.

(ii) **Physique:** (Mesomorphy)—muscle form: degree of prominence of muscle and bone structures ; appearance of strength, vigour and erect posture.

Corresponding to this physique is temperament, called somatotonia, characterised by being energetic, active and aggressive.

(iii) **Physique:** (Ectomorphy)—skin form: degree of fragility or delicacy, of long, slender, poorly muscled extremities.

It corresponds to temperament called cerebrotonia, which is characterised by restraint, inhibition, intensity and preference for solitude.

This method of describing personality through physique is called somatotype, but it has no scientific basis.

Jung's classification of people into extrovert, introvert and ambivert is more well-known.

Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory of Personality

Freud's theory of personality is built on the premise that the mind is topographical and dynamic : There are provinces or divisions which are always moving and interrelated. The human mind has three main divisions in the form of conscious, semi conscious and unconscious.

These three levels of the human mind continuously clash and compromise to give birth to one or other types of behavioural characteristics leading to a paricular type of personality. Beside this as Freud believes the anatomy of our personality is built around the three unified and interrelating systems : Id, ego and super ego.

The Id is the raw, savage and immoral basic stuff or a man's personality that is hidden in the deep layers of one's unconscious mind. It is guided by pleasure seeking principle. It has no values, knows no laws, follows no rules.

Id cannot be allowed to discharge its energy mildly and irresponsibly and thereby a second system, the ego functions as a police man to check the unlawful activities of the id. It is guided by the principle of reality.

The third system of personality is super–ego. It is the ethical moral arm of the personality. It is idealistic and does not care for realities. It is decision making body which decides what is bad or good, virtue or vice according to the standard of society which it accepts.

The above mentioned constituents of personality play a significant role in deciding the personality of an individual. The individuals who have a strong or powerful ego are said to have a strong or balanced personality because in their cases ego is capable of maintaining proper balance between super ego and id.

In case an individual posseses a weak ego, he is bound to have a maladjusted personality. Here two situations may arise. In one situation the superego may be move powerful than ego, it does not provide a derivable outlet for the repressed wishes and impulses. Consequently it may lead towards the formation of a neurotic personality. In another situation id may prove more powerful than ego. The person thus may engage himself in unlawful or immoral activities leading towards the formation of a delinquent personality.

In addition to the above structure of the personality built around the concepts of id, ego and superego, Freud tried to provide an explanation of the development of human personality through his idea about sex. He emphasized that sex is a life energy. The sexual needs of an individual are the basic needs which have to be satisfied for a balanced growth of the personality. A person will have an adjusted or maladjusted personality depending on the extent to which his sex needs have been satisfied or not.

Adler opposed the Freudian's structure of personality. He said that sex is not the life energy or the centre of human activities. Actually power motive is the centre urge. Human beings are motivated by the urge to be important or powerful. All of us strives towards superiority but each strives in a different way. He learned it as 'style of life'. Each individual is an unique pattern in himself because everybody has definite goals and his own life style.

Carl Roger's self theory gave importance to individual's self for determining the process of his growth and development, and unique adjustment to his environment.

According to the theory of **Dolland and Miller,** social environment is a major source of reinforcement. It plays a key role in creating new drives and motives, learning new responses and consequently developing our personality.

Bandura and Walter gave a new approach to personality in the shape of social earning theory. Such type of social learning takes place in the shape of observational learning when one gets opportunity to observe the behaviour of others considered as models. These behaviours are initiated, learned and produced by the individual at some later stage.

Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

Erikson's theory deals with development across the entire life span. It suggests that all human beings pass through specific stages on phases of development. Each stage centers around a specific crisis on conflict between competing tendencies:

Crisis/phase	Description
Trust Vs Mistrust	Infants learn either to trust the environment or to mistrust it.
Antonomy Vs Shame and Doubt	Toddlers acquire self confidence if they learn to regulate their bodies and act independently. If they fail or are labeled as inadequate, they experience shame and doubt.
Initiative Vs Guilt	Pre schoolers (aged 3-5) acquire new physical and mental skills but must also learn to control their impulser. Unless a good balance is stuck, they become either unruly or too inhibited.
Industry Vs Inferiority	Children (aged 6-11) acquire many skills and competencies. If they take pride in these, they acquire high self esteem. If they compare themselves unfavorably with others, they may develop low selfesteem.
Identity Vs Role Confusion	Adolescents must integrate various roles into a consistent self identity. If they fail to do so, they may experience confusion over who they are.
Intimcy Vs Isolation	Young adults must develop the ability to for an deep, intimate relationships with others. If they do not, they may become socially or emotionally isolated.
Generativity Vs Self Absorption	Adults must take an active interest in helping and guiding younger persons. If they do not, they may become preoccupied with purely selfish needs.
Integrity Vs Despair	In the closing decades of life, individuals ask themselves whether their lives had any meaning. If they can answer yes, they attain a sense of integrity. If they answer no, they experience despair.

Some Important Techniques for the Assessment of Personality

- Observation.
- Situation tests.
- Questionnaire.
- Personality inventory.
- Rating scale.
- Interview.
- Projective techniques—
  - (a) The Rorschach int–blot Test.
  - (b) TAT or Thematic Apperception Test.
  - (c) Word Association Test.

Development of Personality

Psychologists have tried to study the development of personality in relation to biological, social factors, stages of child development and different cultural groups. Many psychologists emphasise the improtance of early childhood in the shaping of personality. Freud believed that the foundations of personality takes its root by the age of 5 years. Lewin stresses the gradual differentiation of personality pattern from childhood to adulthood.

Development of personality takes place from two general influences—biological and situational. Personality emerges from the interaction of biological organism with a cultural and social world. Biological factors set the limits within which the personality will develop. However, the actual shaping of personality takes place under the influence of parents, the way they treat and bring up children, follow social practices and observe religion, provide the type of education etc. Biological influence on personality relates to secretion from endocrine glands, physique and neural constitution. The influence of environment is indicated by the effect of social customs and practices, child rearing practices and relationship with parents, role of education in life etc. Our attitudes and values of self concept, mode of adjustment, reaction to frustrating situations are very important in determining dyanamic aspects of our personality.

Characteristics of Jung's Personality Types

Such classification being rigid, Jung was later led to introduce the concept of ambivert, that is, people in between the above two types.

Extrovert	Introvert
1. Directly oriented by objective data.	1. Subjective determinations are the more decisive ones.
2. Conduct governed by necessity and expediency.	2. Conduct governed by absolute standards and principles.
3. Accommodates readily to new situations.	3. Lacks flexibility and adaptability.
4. Is negligent of ailments, not taking care of self.	4. Is over-attentive to ailments and careful of self.
5. Adjustments are compensatory.	5. Adjustments are made by phantasy and escape.
6. Typical psycho-neurosis ; hysteria.	6. Typical psycho-neurosis is anxiety or obsession—compulsive type.

Dissociation and Integration of Personality

Ideally we should develop a co-ordinated and integrated pattern of life which bind together the different lines of day-to-day adjustment. Yet people vary in the degree to which they are able to co-ordinate their activities around a central theme.

As for example, a child, rewarded for some activities and punished for others, develop a sense of frustration in some reactions and satisfaction in others. These produce internal conflict—conflicting 'roles' tend to split the child's reaction to parents. The child is appreciated as good, proper, nice, and scolded as bad, improper, naughty. The latter may be repressed or displaced upon other persons or situations.

Another source of dissociation in role-taking is the competition and conflict of siblings for parental affection. As a consequence of this division of reactions, one socially approved and rewarded, the other repressed and punished, there is division in the child's environment. Conflict and competition find outlet in dream, phantasy, projective activities like music, art and literature.

Such splitting of the patterns of life-organisation need not altogether disorganise the apersonality. Outlets are important Especially significant is one's positive identification with the aims symbols, values, and activities of an in-group in opposition to those members of an out-group.

Thus a balance or intergration takes between inner organisation and outer conduct. Such dual but co-ordinated

responses are fond at every level of group organisation. Thu
we love our parents, and in phantasy harbour murderou
thoughts about them, or displace those thoughts into ou
enjoyment of tragedy.

Dissociation of personality of split personality is an extreme
case. Such cases are regarded as examples of 'Double
Personality'. The fiction of "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" by R.L
Stevenson is an example of the same. These are extreme case
when some system of ideas or thought are split off from the rest
of consciousness, and which lead an independent existence.

However, certain amount of dissociation is quite normal. 'It
is a common, and perhaps inevitable occurrence in the
psychology of every human being'. (Hart, The Psychology of
Insanity).

Elements of Personality

The problem of measurement of personality is closely associated
with the concept of constituent elements of personality. The
19th century faculty psychology tries to find the elements in
independent mental faculties, now obsolete. The behaviourists
tried to find the elements into conditioned reflexes, while
structuralists looked upon sensations as the basic elements.
When the dynamic elements were recognised, the elements of
personality were sought in urges or desires, personality as
individual pattern of instincts and wished, forces of Id and
Super-ego, or of desires and needs. Murry has developed a
theory of needs to explain the elements of personality. He says,
"No theraputist, or indeed, anyone who has to deal in a practical
way with human beings, can get along without some notion of
motivational force (instinct, need, drive, impulse, motivational
urge, inclination, wish, desire, or what not)."

Of these alternatives he selects for emphasis the need which
he regards as a directional force within the organism. When a
need becomes active, a characteristic trend of behaviour will
usually ensure, even in the absence of the customary stimuli.
Conversely, unless a need is present, responses to specific stimuli
do not occur. Needs are recurrent, and whenever active, produce
a stress towards equilibrium. If suppressed, they initiate the
phenomena of displacement and phantasy.

Murray enumerates basic needs (not necessarily inherited)
in respect to which he believes all people may be profitably
compared. The list is as follows :

Abasement	Dominance
Achievement	Exhibition
Acquisition	Recognition
Affiliation	Retention
Aggression	Seclusion
Autonomy	Sentience
Construction	Sex
Deference	Succorance

This theory is free from the rigidity of instinct doctrines.
The approach is dynamic and places suitable emphasis upon
goal-directedness of behaviour. It gives a good description of
the structure of personality.

But the difficulty in universalising needs is that it is not
possible to depict with exactness the special foci of organisation
existing in each individual. Desire is always related with object,
and its resulting forms are far more varied than such a limited
list of needs would allow. In short, needs are disembodied and
depersonalised to a greater degree than is justified in elements
that are to serve as essence of personality. To counter this
criticism Murray introduces the concept of 'need-integrate'. He
says, "Every need is associated with traces (or images)
representing movements, pathways, agencies, goal objects, which,
taken together constitute a 'need-intergrate'. This conception of
a need-integrate is a great improvement over the skeleton need.
A need-integrate in the sense of a mental structure that endures
and a constant characteristic of the person fulfils our demand
for a unit of analysis that is concrete, life-like and personal.
According to Murray need-integrates commonly become
objectified and exhibit themselves in overt actions. But "Some
need-integrates, however, do not become objectified in real
action, when evoked". These are latent needs. He further
distinguishes between conscious and unconscious needs. "By
consciousness we mean introspective, or more accurately,
immediately retrospective awareness". Unconscious needs express
themselves in dreams, visions, in emotional outbursts and
unpremeditated acts like slip of tongue and pen, in absent
minded gestures etc.

He introduced the term 'press' to designate directional tendency in an object situation. Like need each press has a qualitative aspect, as well as a quantitative aspect. In common language press means a stimulus. He distinguished between environment as good or harmful. The organism seeks the beneficial and avoids the harmful, press may be classified as positive or negative, mobile or immobile. Positive presses are enjoyable (e.g. food or friend), negative presses as distasteful (e.g. poison, insult). Mobile presses are moving forces. These may be autonomous when activity is initiated in the O, docile when regulated by the S (e.g. a compliant subordinate). He gives the following list of presses.

P—Affiliation—a friendly, sociable companion.

P—Nurturance—a protective sympathetically.

P—Aggression—a comparative O, or one who censures, believes or fleers.

P—Rival (Recognition)—a competitor for honours.

P—(Lack) (Economic)—The condition of poverty.

P—Dominance—Restraint, an imprisoning or prohibiting object.

He has also introduced the concept of thema. A thema is a dynamical structure of an event. A simple thema is the combination of a particular press or the pre-action or outcome (O) and a particular need. For example, p rejection → n rejection. The S is rejected (snubbed) by the O and responds in kind. O failure → an achievement : the S makes renewed counteractive attempts to succeed after failure.

In short, a need, Murray describes, is a 'construct' (a convenient fiction or hypothetical concept) which stands for a force (the physico-chemical nature of which is unknown) in the brain region, a force which organises perception, apperception, intellection, conation of action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation. "A need is sometimes provoked directly by internal processes of a certain kind (visceral, endocrinogenic, thalamicogenia) arising in the course of vital sequences, but more frequently (when in a state of readiness) by the occurrence of one of a few commonly effective press (or by anticipatory images of such press). Thus it manifests itself by leading the organism to search for or to avoid

encountering or, when encountered, to attend and respond to certain kinds of press.

He unlists 44 variables, out of which 20 are manifest needs, are latent needs, 4 referred to as inner status, and 12 are general traits. The 12 traits are selected for measurement. These are—

1. anxiety, 2. creativity, 3. conjunctive/disjunctivity ratio i.e. coordination of action and thought, 4. emotionality, 5. endurance, 6. exocathection/endocathection rate, 7. introception/extraception ratio, 8. impulsion/deliberation ratio, 9. intensity, 10. projectivity/objectivity ratio, 11. radical sentiments, 12. sameness/change ratio.

The Traits and Determining Tendencies

All traits are directive tendencies but conversely all directive tendencies are not traits. There are two types of directive tendencies : habit and attitude, Ordinarily, habit refers to invariable and inflexible type of response, following the recurrence of a definite stimulus situation with which it is, by experience and practice, tied. *Dewey and W James* replaced specific habits by the doctrine of generalised habits as elements. "The essence of habit is acquired predisposition to ways or modes of response, not to particular acts." In so far as it goes, Dewey's formulation of the generalised habit is equivalent to that of traits. A trait arises, in part at least, through the integration of numerous specific habits having in common not identical elements, but the same adaptive significance to the person. A trait is always a fusion of habits and endowment rather than a colligation or chain of habits alone. Trait once formed will force the formation of new habits, congenial and serviceable to the trait. Traits are similar to attitudes as well in many respects. An attitude is a form of readiness to response, it is individual and guides the course of behaviour, it is bio-physical in nature, combining heredity and learning. Introversion and extroversion are regarded as traits of personality, as well as attitudes towards reality.

But there are differences as well. An attitude has a well-defined object of reference, e.g., attitude towards fascism, divorce etc. A trait has no such object, e.g., one's conservative, radical, ascetic, manner of behaving is a trait. The more specific and

stimulus-bound a response is, the less it resembles a trait. Secondly, attitudes can be both specific and general. When general e.g., attitude to the world at large, there is no distinction between attitude and trait. Traits can only be general. Thirdly, attitude involves the acceptance or rejection of the object or concept of value to which it is related, that is, it is either favourable or unfavourable. But traits have no such clear cut direction, though a well-integrated trait of patriotism may be a highly generalised favourable attitude towards all objects related to the individual's conception of nationhood.

According to Allport traits are strictly speaking, individual, but he refers to common traits as well. "Common traits are not wholly arbitrary variables. They rest on an evolutionary and cultural logic. Common traits are those aspects of personality in respect to which most mature people within a given culture can be compared. For example, ascendance and submission, to take two typical common traits, represent forms of adjustment which all individuals by virtue of biological necessity and cultural pressure must in varying degree adopt." Every person is also social. The frame of reference in the former case is the person himself ; in the latter case, external social norms.

Allport gives a list of trait names under four columns.

Column I	Natural terms designating personal traits, e.g., abrupt, absent-minded, aggressive etc.
Column II	Temporary moods or activities, like abashed, angry.
Column III	Social and characterial judgements of personal conduct—absurd, admirable etc.
Column IV	Miscellaneous—descriptions of physique—capacities and developmental conditions like amorphous, angular, asthnic.

Woodworth refers to dimensions of personality for trait names, many of which come in pairs of opposites, as cheerful-gloomy, masterful-submissive, kind-cruel. But he warns us against falling into common error of classifying people as either cheerful or gloomy, as if these were two sharply separated classes. People do not fall into contrasting types. They scatter all the way from one extreme to the other with the greatest number falling in

the middle of the range. "The best way to utilise the everyday vocabulary of trait names is to place a pair of opposites at the end of a line and regard this line as a dimension of personality, with individuals located at different parts of the line."

Measurement of Personality

Etymologically, the term personality comes from the Latin word 'persona' meaning mask used in theatres, first used in Greek drama, and adopted by Roman players, a hundred years ago before Christ. It is said that one Roman used a mask to hide his unfortunate squint.

'Personality' is one of the most abstract words in the literature of psychology, and there is no agreement as to the meaning of the term 'personality.' G.W. Allport gives a list of fifty definitions of the term from various points of view. Definitions of personality may be grouped according as to whether they stress observable, objective appearances, or whether they stress underlying inner subjective essentials. Watson's definition of personality as "the end-product of our habit systems" may stand as an example of the first type. Allport's definition of personality as "the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment" as an example of the latter type. Allport himself refers to the definition of personality by Morton Prince as the best known omnibus definition. "Personality is the sum-total of all the biological innate dispositions, impulses, tendencies, appetites and instincts of the individual, and the acquired dispositions and tendencies acquired by experience." (Morton Prince. The Unconscious). Warren's definition attempts to include both the views of Allport and Watson when he defines personality as "the integrated organisation of all the cognitive, affective, conative and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinctness to others (Warren and Charmichael). Personality as 'dynamic' refers to the constantly evolving and changing, as motivational and as self-regulating. it is nor a mere juxtaposition of some qualities, but it is an organisation. "Psychological" refers to the fact that the individual is neither solely mental nor exclusively nueral but the organisation involves the operation of mind and body, inextricably fused into a personal entity. 'Determines' refers to the fact that personality is not synonymous with behaviour

only. "It is what lies behind specific acts and within the individual. The systems that constitute personality are in every sense determining tendencies, and when aroused by suitable stimuli provoke those adjustive and expressive acts by which the personality comes to be known." The term 'unique' means that "every adjustment of every person is unique, in time and place, and in quality." Adjustment to his environment : this phrase has functional and evolutionary significance. Personality is a mode of survival. "Adjustments", however, must be interpreted broadly enough to include maladjustments, and "environment" to include the behavioural environment (meaningful to the individual) as well as the surrounding geographical environment". (Allport).

Thus Allport gives a psychological interpretation. He gives stress on the importance of traits and functional autonomy of motives. He refers to the acceptance of this view by Woodworth when he says "mechanisms may become drives." A mechanism, Woodworth defines, as any course of behaving that belongs about an adjustment. A drive is any neural process that releases mechanisms especially concerned with consummatory reactions.

Murray defines personality in terms of basic needs. According to the field theory or topological psychology as developed by Kurt Lewin, personality is the qualitative pattern or arrangement or configuration of the individual traits. By traits of personality they mean the quantitative variations in physique, mentality and attitudes etc. between individuals with a characteristic tendency to behave in defined manner. In short, personality is the pattern of the individual traits which are largely determined by the structure of the field. Underlying the individual's membership character, and personality is not a constant thing but changes radically with changes in field character.

The psycho-analytic theory mentions the struggle for satisfaction as the determining factor of personality. It is the libido, its strength and the channels through which it flows determine the personality. Shaffer gives a biological theory of personality. It is a mode of adjustment or survival which results from the interaction of his original cravings with an environment, friendly or hostile.

According to the individual Psychology of Adler a style of life develops early from the attempts by every individual to compensate for his real or imaginery inferiorities.

Sociological theories emphasise, besides the bio-psychological make-up, involving heredity and maturation, personal, social or non-cultural conditioning and cultural conditioning. The adult person is not a mere reflection of his culture, culture is a broad concept for more or less standard patterns of behaviour and thought, and that personality always represents a particular configuration of such pattern plus its unique autonomous characteristics. The sociological theories refer to social development as almost synonymous with the process of personality development through role-taking and role-playing. It is a process of goal seeking. There are sex-goals, status, love of aggressive power, love goals, achievement and pleasure.

Morton Prince mentions interaction between instinctual drives and social forces.

So far we have accepted personality as an integrated pattern of traits, and a trait is any common, relatively enduring way in which one person can differ from another. This is for the purpose of measurement, though a common trait is an abstraction.

The various techniques adopted for studying personality may be summarised as follows:

1. (a) The analysis of social norms, e.g., study of language, which reflects the nature of personality.
   (b) Ethology—e.g., systematic study of proverbs, aphorisms and literature.
   (c) Syntactical Analogy—resemblance between grammatical moods and the traditional temperaments.

2. **Physical records:**
   (a) Analysis of heredity. (b) Bio-chemical correlates.
   (c) Endocrinology. (d) Constitutional type.
   (e) Physiognomy.

3. **Social records:**
   (a) Work analysis. (b) Sociometrics.

4. **Personal records:**
   (a) Diaries. (b) Personal correspondence.

5. **Expressive movement:**
   (a) First impressions. (b) Style analysis—creative activity.

6. **Rating:**
   (a) The Rank order Scale. (b) Scoring Scale.
   (c) Psychograph.

7. **Standardised tests:**
   (a) Questionnaires—pencil paper tests—attitude tests—interest tests.
   (b) Psychometric scales.
   (c) Behavioural scales.

8. **Statistical analysis:**
   (a) Factor analysis.

9. **Miniature life situations**

10. **Laboratory experiments:**
    (a) Records of simple functions—imagery.
    (b) Records of complex functions.

11. **Prediction**

12. **Depth analysis:**
    (a) Psychiatric interview.
    (b) Free association—dream analysis—hypnotism—automatic writing—analysis of fantasies.

13. **Ideal types**

14. **Synthetic methods—identification—guess who—matching**

15. **Case studies**

Personality tests, in conventional psychometric tests, are described as "instruments for the measurement of emotional, motivational, interpersonal and attitudinal characteristics as distinguished from abilities." Each person is unique, and differs from another person. The difference is described in terms of a trait or dimension. Each dimension implies a direction, e.g., towards laziness or away from laziness. So people may be arranged along a line or scale that extends from, say, extreme laziness to extreme activity. Such a scale is called a dimension of personality, though it is an abstract idea. It is simply 'a symbolic form' to understand a scientific grasp of personality.

There are numerous tests of personality. A few tests are described below.

Inventories or Questionnaires

One of the best example of self-report personality inventory, as developed by Woodworth during the World War I, is given below. It was a psychoneurotic inventory constructed with the objective to classify men according to their stability of personal adjustment, similar to Army—Alpha mental tests of intelligence. Woodworth made a list of 200 symptoms of maladjustment drawn from case studies. The symptoms were cast in the form of yes-no questions. Some examples are given below:

Somatic complaints—Do you ever feel an awful pressure in or about the head?

Social adjustment—Do you make friends easily?

Fears and worries—Does it make you uneasy to cross a wide street or open square?

Obsessive ideas—Do you feel like jumping off when you are on high places?

Fatigue and sleep disturbances—Do you feel tired most of the time?

Personal history—Did you have a happy childhood?

An example of diagnostic questionnaire is Allport ascendance-submission reaction study. It measures the tendency to dominate one's fellows in face to face relationships or to be dominated by them. The questions are put in multiple choice form e.g., Have you haggled over prices with tradesmen or junk men—Frequently—Occasionally—Never.

Allport's A.S. reaction study is an example of criterion keying. It enjoyed wide popularity and influenced the development of many other inventories.

The Bernreuter Personality Inventory also has come into wide use. This inventory (consisting of 125 yes-no items) was based on questions chosen from four previously existing inventories—Thurstone Personality Schedule (modelled after the earlier Woodworth P.D. sheet, Laird's introversion-extroversion test, Allport A.S. reaction study, and Bernreuter's self-sufficiency scale. It introduces simultaneous measuring of four traits. However a factor analysis of the four Bernreuter's scores, conducted by Flanagon and others demonstrated that two independent measures only could be derived from the inventory. These were self-confidence and sociability. Other traits like introversion and neuroticism, and neuroticism and dominance were found to be highly correlated.

A serious limitation of questionnaries is that they depend in a considerable degree on the good will of the persons examined, and to some extent on their insight into their own behaviour.

One method of validating a questionnaire is to validate it against an independent criterion, i.e. to compare the responses of persons suffering from one type of maladjustment with those who are either normal or have some other type of disorder.

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

The MMPI is of this type. It is a proved aid to differentiate personality or diagnose disturbances of personality. In its regular administration, the MMPI provides scores on ten "clinical scales" listed below:

1. Hs: Hypochondriasis.   2. D: Depression.
3. Hy: Hysteria.   4. Pd: Psychopathic deviate.
5. Mf: Masculinity-feminity.   6. Pa: Paranoia.
7. Pt: Psychosthania.   8. Sc: Schizophrenia.
9. Ma: Mpomania.   10. Si: Social introversion.

Questionnaires Based on Factor Analysis

R B Cattell applied the method of factor analysis to the study of personality. He started with a list of 4000 trait names which was first reduced to 171, and later to 35 cluster of traits". His formulation of primary traits of personality (table 4) is given below. Each trait is defined by a pair of opposite qualities, with descriptive words to clarify the meanings.

TABLE 4

Cattell's Formulation of Primary Traits of Personality (Each trait is defined by a pair of opposed qualities, with descriptive words to clarify the meaning).

I. **Cyclothymia**   vs   **Schizothymia**
   outgoing   withdrawn
   good natured   embittered
   adaptive   inflexible

II. **Intelligence**   vs   **Mental Defect**
    Intelligent   stupid
    painstaking   slipshod
    deliberate   impulsive

III. **Emotionally Mature** vs   **Demoralised**
     realistic   evasive
     stable   changeable
     calm   excitable

IV. **Dominance**   vs   **Submissiveness**
    Assertive   modest
    headstrong   gentle
    tough   submissive

V. **Surgency**   vs   **Melancholy**
   Cheerful   unhappy
   placid   worrying
   sociable   aloof

VI. **Sensitive**   vs   **Tough Poise**
    idealistic   cynical
    imaginative   habit bound
    grateful   thankless

VII. **Trained, Socialised** vs **Boorish**
     thoughtful   unreflective
     sophisticated   simplex
     conscientious   indolent

VIII. **Positive Integration** vs **Immature, Dependent**
      mature   irresponsible
      preserving   quitting
      loyal   fickle

IX. **Charitable, Adventurous** vs **Obstructive, Withdrawn**
    cooperative   obstructive
    genial   cole hearted
    frank   secretive

X. **Neurasthania**   vs   **Vigorous character**
   incoherent   strong willed
   meek   assertive
   unrealistic   practical

XI. **Hypersensitive**   vs   **Frustration Tolerance**
    demanding   adjusting
    restless   calm
    loyself pitying   self effacing

XII. **Surgent Cyclothymia** vs **Paranoia**
     enthusiastic   frustrated
     friendly   hostile
     trustful   suspicious

The Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey

It measures ten traits selected and well identified by factorial analysis. Many of the ten factors are comparable to those found by Cattell. The traits are : general ability, restraint, ascendance, sociability, emotional stability, objectivity, friendliness, thoughtfulness, personal relations and masculinity.

Rating techniques: Rating scales are devices for expressing one's observations or opinions about a person in a uniform manner. Though a rating scale is actually no measurement, but only a method of communicating and recording opinions.

Sociometric methods: As social factors are highly important in personality adjustment, techniques have been used to study the social structure of groups and the place of an individual in his group. A sociogram is a graphic representation of the relations that exist between the members of a group. It tells much about the individual adjustments and social relations, and it helps to find out a social isolate easily.

Projective Techniques

Ink Blot, The Rorschach: In 1921 Hermann Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist introduced a projective method, most widely used, and led to unprecedented amount of controversy.

It consists of 10 ink blots, on cards, of which 5 are black & grays, two are black, gray and red, and three are entirely in colours. The ink blots are unstructured and the subject has great freedom to give responses which are taken down verbatim. Each distinct response is scored according to 3 main characteristics : location, determinant, content.

Rorschach is an aid to diagnose most cases of psychoneurosis, and more serious mental disorders.

Picture Story Tests: Next to Rorschach, the most commonly used projective technique is picture story test i.e. the subject is asked to make up a story on a picture, the pictures are more structured than Rorschach ink blots.

Murray's Thematic Appreciation Test of TAT is the best known of the picture story projective techniques. It was developed by Murray and his staff at Harvard Psychological Clinic (1938). It consists of 19 cards, containing vague pictures in black & white and one white blank card. The subject is asked

to make up a story to fit each story to explain the events and characters in pictures. The first step in interpretting a TAT test story is to distinguish the 'hero' the character in the story with which the examinee is believed to identify himself. Then, an attempt is made to find out the **"hero's" needs**—his motive, strivings and aversions—and of his 'press' the forces of the environment which act on him significantly. Some typical needs scored by Murray are those of **achievement, for aggression, for dominance, for self-blame** and for **aid** or **consolation.** Representative "press" are agression (against the hero), dominance (over him), inducement, protection and physical danger. The interpretation of TAT demands a broad understanding of human personality.

The TAT tests are used not for measurement or survey purposes, but as aids to a full clinical study of a person, the findings are to be investigated further by a study of the person's life-history, by interviews, and in connection with psychotherapy.

Another method, recognised as a projective technique is the word association test: A list of words is presented, one at a time, the subject is to respond by saying the first word that comes to his mind as quickly as possible. An example from Jang & Eder test is given below—

1. Head.	2. Green.	3. Water.	4. Sing.	5. Dead.
6. Long.	7. Ship.	8. Make.	9. Woman.	10. Friendly.
11. Bake.	12. Ask.	13. Cold.	14. Stalk.	15. Dance.
16. Village.	17. Pond.	18. Sick.	19. Pride.	20. Bring.

Another projective test is sentence completion:

example		
1	—	I like ...
4	—	Back home
8	—	The best
13	—	My greatest fear
21	—	I failed
28	—	Sometimes
34	—	I wish
35	—	My father

Objective methods are—1. Direct observation, 2. Intellectual test. All individual's performance on a psychological test is effected by his total personality and not by his intellectual qualities along.

Self expressive projective test like the drawing of a human figure is often used. There is a pictorial technique like Rosenzweig Picture Frustration study.

The Interview

The interview method is an age-long time honoured procedure. It helps the experimenter to observe directly the individual's speech, language, usage, poise and manner of meeting a stranger. This method has largely been employed in clinical psychology, counselling and personnel psychology.

Secondly, it helps to find out the life history of the individual, and aids the case history method.

Situational Tests

A situational test is one that places the subject in a situation closely resembling or simulating a "real-life" criterion situation. Here the inte-rest is upon emotional, social, attitudinal, and other personality variables. An example of such test in the "Character Education Inquiry", which tries to measure qualities like honesty, persistence, inhibition and service. Similarly, there are 'Situation Stress Tests', where situations are created to produce anxiety and stress.

Limitations of Personality Tests

Though there are different types of personality tests, the difficulty in measuring personality is that the potentialities of personality are unique for each person. It is an organism in a situation. "Each organism accents, selects from, and makes use of, the environment in its own way, so that the same external environment may be functionally ten different environments for ten different organisms. At the same time, the environment acts selectively on each organism accents, organises, and selects from each organism in a way which no other situation could do. The two are mutually interdependent, each one selecting from a vast range of potentialities and making just one working reality."—Murphy.

The constancy of behaviour depends upon the constancy of in situations. The true "stability of traits" can be measured only when there is a change from one station in life to another.

EYSENCKS THEORY OF PERSONALITY —TYPE-CUM-TRAIT APPROACH

H J Eysench identified second order factors and grouped traits into definite personality types.

According to **Eysenck,** there are 4 levels of behaviour organisation :

1. At the lowest level, there are specific responses. They grow out of particular respoenses to any single act. Eg : Blushing.
2. At the lower second level, habitual responses are there. They comprise similar responses of an individual to similar situations. eg., (a) The inability to make friendship easily and (b) hesitancy in talking to strangers are habitual responses.
3. The next level comprises habitual acts which get organised into traits. Behaviour acts which have similarities are said to belong to one group and are called traits. eg., The habitual responses, (a) and (b) give birth to a group of traits called 'shyness'.
4. The fourth level is the organisation of these traits into a general type. A type is defined as a group of correlated traits. Traits which are similar in nature give birth to a definite type. Traits like persistence, rigidity, shyness etc. have been grouped into a type termed as Introversion.

A person can be classified as an introvert if he has traits as described at the third level, habits & habit systems as described at the second level and responds specifically as described at the first level.

Eysenck's theory has demonstrated that human behaviour and personality can be well organised into a hierarchy with specific responses at the bottom and the definite personality type at the top.
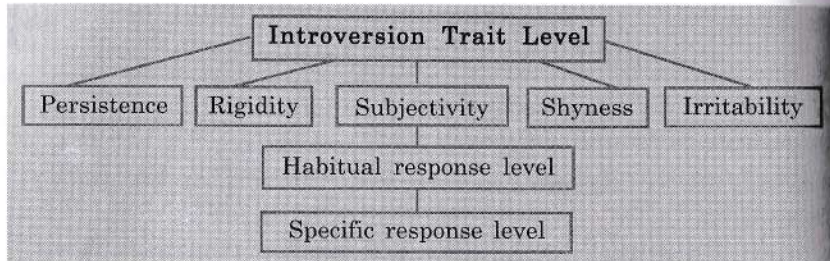
Fig: Organisation of individual behaviour

3 basic dimensions of identified by Eysenck are:

1. Introversion-Extroversion
2. Neuroticism (Emotional instability-emotional stability)
3. Psychoticism: There are definite personality types—introvert, extrovert, neurotic and psychotic.

Eysenck developed a scale with a low end and a high end for putting people at various points between the 2 extremes.

Dimension	Interpretation of the Scale
1. Introversion Extroversion	The high end includes the highly extrovert, recognized as sociable, outgoing, impulsive, optimistic and jolly people. The lower end typifies the highly introvert, recognized as quiet, introspective, reserved, reflective, disciplined and well ordered people. According to Eysenck, there are no purely extrovert and introvert people, so he used a new dimension i.e. a continuum ranging from introversion to extroversion.
2. Neuroticism	Emotional instability at the lower end and emotional stability at the upper end describe people as neurotic and not neurotic. So, at the lower end persons are moody, touchy, anxious or restless. At the upper end are persons who are stable, calm, carefree, even-tempered and dependable.
3. Psychoticism	The people high on this dimelion tend to be soitary, insensitive, egocentric impersonal, impulsive and oppose to accepted social norms. Those scoring low are found to be more empathic and less adventurous & bold.

Significance

1. Eysenck's theory describes, explains and predicts one's behaviour and personality.
2. This theory presents a viable synthesis of the trait and type approaches.
3. It gives personality a biological-cum-hereditary base. It accepts the role of environmental influences in shaping and developing personality.
4. It identifies individual differences and principle of behaviour changes.
5. This theory helps to study criminology, education, aesthetics, genetics, psychopathology and political ideology.

CATTELL'S 16 FACTOR THEORY

Symboles	Trait Dimensions or Factors
A	Reserved (detached, critical, aloof, stiff) vs Outgoing (warmhearted, easy-going, participating).
B	Less intelligent (Concrete thinking) vs More intelligent (abstract thinking, bright)
C	Affected by feelings (emotionally less stable, easily get upset, changeable) vs Emotionally stable (nature, faces reality, calm)
E	Submissive (mild, easily led, docile, accommodating) vs Dominant (aggressive, stubborn, competitive)
F	Serious (Sober) vs Happy-go-Lucky (Enthusiastic)
G	Expedient (disregards rules) vs Conscientious (persistent, moralistic)
H	Timid (Shy, fears threat, sensitive) vs Venturesome (uninhibited, socially bold)
I	Tough-minded (Self-reliant, realistic) vs Tender-hearted (sensitive, clinging, over protected)
L	Trusting (accepting conditions) vs Suspicious (heard to fool)
M	Practical (down to earth concerns) vs Imaginative (bohemians, absent minded)
N	Forthright (unpretentious, genuine but socially clumsy) vs Shrewd (socially aware, astute)

Symboles	Trait Dimensions or Factors
O	Self-assured (secure, placid, complacent) V/s Apprehensive (Troubled, self-critical, insecure, worrying)
Q_1	Conservative (respecting traditional ideas) vs Experimenting (liberal, free-thingking)
Q_2	Group-dependent (a "joiner" and sound follower) vs self-sufficient (resourceful, prefers own decisions)
Q_3	Uncontrolled (careless of social rules, follows own urges) vs Controlled (socially precise, exercising will power, compulsive)
Q_4	Relaxed (tranquit unfrustrated, composed) vs Tense (frustrated, drive, over wrought)

Source: Cattell (1973)

The most accepted and recent theory of personality based on trait approach has been developed by Cattell.

He has defined trait as a structure of the personality inferred from behaviour in different situations and described four types of traits.

- *Common traits*—The traits found widely distributed in general population like honesty, aggression and cooperation.
- *Unique traits*—Traits unique to a person such as emotional reactions, temperamental traits.
- *Surface traits*—These can be recognised by manifestations of behaviour like curiosity, tactfulness.
- *Source traits*—These are the underlying structures or sources that determine behaviour such as dominance etc.

Cattell's theory identifies some specific dimensions of personality so that human behaviour related to a particular situation can be predicted.

The 16 basic or source trait dimensions were named as factors. These can describe and measure one's personality.

Significance

1. Cattell made use of his 16 factors of basic dimensions in the measurement of personality by devising a personality inventory known as Cattell's sixteen personality factors inventory (16PF) consisting of suitable, multiple choice questions.

2. The trait theory of cattell describes and predicts the behaviour of individuals on the basis of their personality traits.
3. The theory identifies and measures the basis dimensions of personality.
4. Cattell's theory has given equal importance to the role of both heredity and environment in the growth and development of personality and demonstrates strong interaction betweeen biological-genetic factors and the environmental influence for prediction of human behaviour.

FIVE FACTOR THEORY—COSTA & MC CARE

- In psychology, the Big Five personality traits are 5 broad domains or dimensions of personality—(1) Openness to experience, (2) Conscientiousness, (3) Extraversion, (4) Agreeableness, (5) Neuroticism.
- Acronyms commonly used to refer to the 5 traits collectively are OCEAN, NEOAE or CANOE.
- Beneath each global factor, a cluster of correlated and more specific primary factors are found.
- These dimensions of personality do not overlap.
- Empirical research has shown that the 5 personality traits are permanent and show consistency in interviews, self descriptions and observations.
- On the basis of Cattell's 16 PF, this theory emerges.

The 5 Factors

1. Openness to experience: (Inventive/curious vs Consistent/cautious).
   - Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, curiousity and varity of experience.
   - Openness reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity and a preference for novelty.
     It is the extent to which a person is imaginative or independent and has a personal preference for a variety of activities over a strict routine.
   - Some disagreement remains about how to interpret the openness factor, which is sometimes called intellect rather than openness to experience.

2. Conscientiousness (efficient/organized vs easy-going/careless) A tendency to be organized and dependable, show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement and prefer planned rather than spontaneous behaviour.

3. Extraversion (Outgoing/energetic vs solitary/reserved) Energy, positive emotions, assertiveness, sociability and the tendencey to seek stimulation in the company of others and talkativeness.

4. Agreeableness (Friendly/Compassionate vs analytical/detached) A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others.

   It is a measure of one's trusting and helpful nature and whether a person is generally well behaved or not.

5. Neuroticism: (Sensitive/Nervous vs Secure/Confident) The tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily such as anger, anxiety, depression and vulnerability.

Neuroticism is the degree of emotional stability and impulse control and is sometimes referred to as "emotional stability".

Each of the 5 personality traits contains 2 separate but correlated aspects reflecting a level of personality.

Characteristics of the theory

1. Factors are dimensions, not the types.
2. Factors can be put into a scale. Factors have definite locations on the scale.
3. Factors are universal.
4. Factors are genetic and can be inherited.
5. Factors are permanent and can be seen right from the adolescent period to the age of 45 years.
6. Factors help to determine the condition of the person.
7. Factors give us a complete picture about the person and help us to treat the person medically.
8. Some psychologists consider this theory as the taxonomy of personality traits.

What do we want to measure	Measurement Technique
(A) An individuals behaviour in actual life situations.	(1) Observation. (2) Situational tests.
(B) When the individual is required to speak about himself.	(1) Autobiography. (2) Questionnaire. (3) Personality inventory. (4) Interview.

What do we want to measure	Measurement Technique
(C) When other people's opinions about the individual whose personality is under assessment are ascertained.	(1) Biographies. (2) Case history. (3) Rating scales (4) Sociometric techniques
(D) Individual's reaction to imaginary situations.	Projective Technique.
(E) Personality variables are measured in terms of psychological responses.	(1) Indirect technique. (2) Use of machines of technical devices.

Criticism

1. It is argued that 5 factor theory does not explain all of human personality.

2. The methodology used to identify the dimensional structure of personality traits, factor analysis is often challenged for not having a universally recognized basis for choosing among solutions with different numbers of factors.

3. It is not theory driven, it is data-driven investigation of certain descriptions that tend to cluster together under factor analysis.

MEASUREMENT OF PERSONALITY

According to **Eysenck** (1971), Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique which determine his unique adjustment to the environment)

The methods used for the assessment of personality may be termed as subjective, objective or projective.

Observation

- Observation is a very common method to study the behaviour pattern of an individual in an actual life situations.
- The observer firstly outlines the personality traits he wants to know and then he observes the relevant activities of the subject in real life situations.

Types of Observation

1. **Systematic observation**—It is one which is done according to some explicit procedures and in accordance with the logic of scientific inference.

   eg., A psychologist studying the aggressive behaviour of children in their play group with some objective.

2. **Unsystematic observation**—It is a type of casual observation made by investigator without specifying any explicit and objective inference.

   eg., A psychologist observing the behaviour of people in a fish market.

3. **Participant observation**—Investigator actively participates in the activities of the group to be observed.

4. **Non participant observation**—Investigator observes the behaviour of other persons in a natural setting but does not remain a participant in the activities being observed.

Process of Observation

- Observer may use a tape-recorder, photographic cameras, a telescope etc.
- To ensure reliability of the observed results, the observer may repeat the observations in the same situation several times.
- The subject may also be observed by a number of observers and the results may be pooled together.

Situational Tests

- Here situations are artificially created in which an individual is expected to perform acts related to the personality traits under testing.
- eg., To test the honesty of an individual, some situations can be created and his reaction can be evaluated in terms of honesty or dishonesty. A hundred rupee note is dropped and a person is observed whether he picks it up or not. His behaviour would lead to an assessment of how honest he is.

Questionnaire

- Questionnaire refers to a device for securing answers to questions by using a form which the respondent fills in himself.

- It is a form consisting of a series of printed or written questions is used. The subject responds to these questions in the spaces provided in columns of yes, no or cannot say etc. These answers are then evaluated and used for personality assessment.
- This is useful and popular method in collecting qualitative and quantitative data.
- Types—(1) Fixed-response questionnaire, (2) Open-end questionnaire.

  1. **Fixed-response questionnaire**—It consists of statements of questions with a fixed number of options or choices. The respondent is asked to check the option or response that best suits him.

     eg., Do you feel shy in talking to the members of the opposite sex? Yes/No.

     This is also known as closed-form questionnaire or precoded type of questionnaire.

  2. **Open-end questionnaire**—It is the questionnaire which consists of questions that require short or lengthy answers by the respondents.

     eg., What methods do you recommend for improving discipline on the college campus.

  3. **Mail Questionnaire**—It is a questionnaire which is mailed to the designated subject with a request to answer the questions and return it through mail.

  4. **Face to face administered questionnaire**—It is a questionnaire where the selected subjects are given questionnaires with the instruction to complete them in the presence of investigator. It is more common than the mailed questionnaire and more preferred also.

Personality Inventory

- Personality inventory is specifically designed to seek answers about the person and his personality. In the personality inventory the questions may be worded in the first person.

  eg., Minnesota multiphasic personality inventory (MMPI), the Eysenck personality inventory and the sixteen personality factor inventory (16 PF) developed by Cattell.

- In the personality inventory, each item is printed on a separate card. The subject reads the questions and then according to his response puts it down as yes, no or doubtful in the space provided for the purpose. Evaluation of the important personality traits can then be done in terms of these responses.

Advantages of Questionnaire & Personality Inventory

1. Items are easily scored and coded.
2. Less time consuming.
3. Less costly and less laborious.

Drawbacks of Questionnaire & Personality Inventory

1. It is difficult to get the responses to all questions.
2. The subject may give selective responses rather than the genuine ones (hide his weaknesses).
3. He may be ignorant of his own traits or qualities which he may possess.

Rating Scale

- A rating scale is defined as a technique through which the observer of rater categorizes the persons on a continuum represented by a series of continuous numerals.
- The purpose of a rating scale is to know what kind of impressions the persons have made upon the raters.
- It is used to assess where an individual stands in terms of other people's opinion of some of his personality traits

Factors of Rating Scale

There are 3 basic factors involved in this technique—
1. The specific trait or traits to be rated.
2. The scale on which the degree of possession or absence of the trait has to be shown.
3. The appropriate persons or judges for rating should be selected.

Process of Rating Scale

(i) First of all, the traits or characteristics which have to be evaluated by the judges are to be stated and defined clearly.
(ii) Then a scale for rating has to be constructed.

Usually the divisions of the scale are indicated by numbers, 1 to 3, 1 to 5 or 1 to 7, comprising a three-point, five-point or seven-point scale.

7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Excellent	Very Good	Good	Average	Below Average	Poor	Very Poor

Drawbacks of Rating Scale

Error of Central tendency, subjective bias and halo effect—

1. **Central Tendency**—Sometimes the raters hesitate to give very high or very low ratings and tend to keep their ratings in the middle.
2. **Subjective bias**—It leads to their own likes and dislikes, colouring their assessment of the individuals under rating.
3. **Halo effect**—Raters may rate an individual on the basis of general impression.

To overcome these drawbacks more than one judge can be appointed and the rating may be done by pooling the individual assessments.

Interview

Interview is a technique of eliciting information directly from the subject about his personality in face-to-face contacts.

It provides an opportunity for mutual exchange of ideas and information between the subject and the psychologists. For this purpose, the psychologist tries to arrange a meeting with the person or persons under assessment.

Types—The face-to-face interaction in the interview is of 2 types—structural and unstructured.

1. **Structured Interview:** It adopts a systematic & predetermined approach. Here, interviewer is delinite about the personality traits or behaviour he has to assess and then plans accordingly.

   A list of questions is prepared before.
2. **Unstructured Interview:** It is an open interrogation. Here the interviewer asks the interviewee any question on any subject relevant to the situation. Here the interviewer is not restricted to a particular set of predetermined questions but is free to say anything.

Advantage of Interview
- It is a relatively flexible tool.
- It permits explanation, adjustment and variation according to the situation.
- It is an essential, powerful tool for personality assessment.

Disadvantage of Interview
- Well-trained, competent interviewer is needed.
- It is a costly tool in terms of labour, time & money.
- It suffers from the subjective bias of the interviewer.
- The interviewee may give selective responses rather than the genuine ones.

Projective Techniques
- The techniques which use projection phenomena are called Projective Techniques.
- The material used in these techniques or tests represent 'a sort of screen' on which the subject 'projects' his characteristics through processes, needs, anxieties and conflicts.
- These can assess the total personality of an individual rather than in fragments.
- The covert or unconscious behaviour is assessed by this mehtod, a person's inner of deeper, repressed feelings, wishes, desires, fears, hopes and ambitions are measured by this technique.

Process of Projective Techniques
1. Indefinite and unstructured stimuli like vague pictures, inkblots, incomplete sentences, drawings are presented to the subject.
2. The subject is asked to structure them in any way he/she likes.
3. In doing so he/she unconsciously projects his own desires, hopes, fears, repressed wishes etc.
4. In this way inner feelings are expressed. It gives indications on the basis of which his/her total personality can be assessed.

Example of Projective Techniques
The Rorschach Inkblot test, TAT or, Thematic Apperception Test, Children & Apperception Test or CAT, Word Association Test,

Sentence Completion Test, Rotter Incomplete sentence Test, Murry and Morgan Argument Completion Test.

Advantages of Projective Techniques
1. It gives the complete picture.
2. It digs out the repressed feelings, wishes, hopes etc. and reveals the inner world of the subject.
3. Reliable technique.
4. It can be applied in case of child, illiterates, handicapped persons etc.
5. It helps to diagnose the problems of a person who does not express his feelings and problems.
6. It helps in the treatment of some problems.
7. It identifies problems.
8. It gives information about the adaptation and socialisation of the adolescents.

Disadvantage of Projective Techniques
1. Subjective bias.
2. Standardised techniques are very few in number.
3. More experienced experts are needed to conduct this.
4. Validity is less.

Types of Projective Techniques
1. Associative Type.
2. Constructive Type.
3. Completion Type.
4. Choice Type.
5. Expressive Type.

Exercise

Very Short-type Questions   **Marks-2**

1. What is Personality ? 158
2. What are the main characteristics of personality ? 158
3. Give a psychological definition of personality.
4. What are the characteristics of personality ? 158
5. What is personality trait ? 159
6. What are the different aspects of personality growth ?
7. What are the kinds of traits according to Allport ?
8. Give some methods for measurement of personality.
9. What are the characteristics of personality traits ?
10. Classify Personality traits according to Lewin.
11. What are the classifications of personality traits according to Alport ?
12. How many types of personality traits according to Guilford ?
13. Write down the classification of personality traits according to Yung.
14. How Frued classified the personality traits ?
15. Write some name of Personality Theory.
16. What are the dimensions of Personality as per Eysenck ?
17. What are the characteristics of Five factors Model ?
18. What are the bases of Self Report Inventory ?
19. Give some example of self report Inventory.

Short-type Questions   **Marks-5**

1. Write the different types of Personality according to Psychological Approach.
2. Discuss the characteristics of Personality.
3. Mention the characteristics of Traits.
4. Discuss the Trait Theory of Eysenck.
5. Write the Trait theory of Cattell. Mention the Cattell's 16 Factor Theory.
6. Mention the Five Factors Theory of Personality.
7. Write the advantages and disadvantages of Self Report Technique.
8. What is Projective Technique or test? Mention the types and characteristics of its.
9. Mention the advantages and disadvantages of Projective Test.

Essay-type Questions   **Marks-10**

1. Explain shortly the Constructive and Completion Type Test.
2. Discuss the Trait Theory of Eysenck.
3. Explain an Associative Type Projective Test. What human's characteristics are come to know from Rorschach Ink Blot Test?

2nd Half

Aspects of Development