

PERSPECTIVES IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT(2015)

Psychology

Definition, Meaning and Stages of Growth & Development in Children

What is Growth and Development

Growth and development in education has specific meanings and both are related to each other. The following comparison will clarify the differences between growth and development.

What is Growth

1. It is indicative i.e. increase in body, size, weight etc.
2. It is quantitative progress
3. It is physical change
4. It is external in nature
5. stops at certain stage
6. It is physical progress

What is Development

1. It is not indicative
2. It is qualitative progress
3. It is psychological change
4. It is internal in nature
5. It is continuous process
6. It is cognitive progress

Stages of Growth and Development in Children

Introduction

Growth and development goes side by side, and both have profound effects upon each other. When a child is born, passes through various stages and ultimately a whole picture of a person emerges. The following are the stages of growth and development through which every children passes:

1. Infancy: (From Birth to 2 Years)

Common features of infancy are

1. A child jumps, walk and learn to talk.
2. A child starts learning about simple, social concepts.
3. The body growth is accelerated.

2. Early Childhood (2-6 Years)

The common features of this stage are:

1. Infancy features are strengthened.
2. Physical growth occurs like, expansion of muscles, speed in body actions, changes occur in respiration, blood pressure develops etc.
3. Language skill is developed and learns new words.
4. New concepts about social relations develop.
5. Memory increases.
6. They ask questions about the environment.
7. Socially he/she develops new friends, and wants social approval of his/her actions.
8. Emotional development starts to develop.

3. Adolescence (12-19 Years)

This is the period of adulthood and to some extent of maturity, physically and socially. This is called the spring, romantic, and the period of "storm & stress". The development and growth vary from culture to culture and environment factors that influence a person at this stage. Some basic characteristics of this stage are as follows:

1. Physical Growth

Here children are active, and sharp. They are keen observers. They give more attention to body – beauty and strength. Boys love strength and play the games, where power is shown.

2. Mental or Intellectual Development

1. They think in abstraction.
2. They can anticipate the future needs and plan for that.
3. The children ability to solve complex problems increase. They try to understand complicated issues, and to solve the complex problems
4. They develop the communicative abilities and talk for hours.
5. Confidence is developed which make them to make decisions about future.
6. Moral concepts are developed and know that what is morally and socially good and wrong.

3. Emotional Development

Here the adolescent period is not rational but emotional. That's why it is called the period of stress and storm. They are entering a new stage, which therefore, want emotional adjustment. Emotional disturbance is produced when they don't adjust to new situation or role for which they are suppose to be.

Characteristics of Emotions in Adolescence

1. Complexity: They experience complexity in various issues and start adjustment. When that adjustment doesn't develop, storm and stress develop.
2. Development of Abstract Emotions: They develop emotions with those things which do not exist in real situation. Wants and desires are generated by abstract emotions.
3. Widening of Emotional Feelings: Here they select a hero/heroine. Idealization and imagination start. And get emotional attachment with that idealization.
4. Bearing Tension: They start to learn that how to bear a difficult emotional situations.
5. Sharing of Emotions: They share emotions, especially with peer groups. That develops loyalty and emotional confidence among peer groups.
6. Hopes & aspirations develop about the future.
7. This stage gives increase to compassion in them.

Common Emotional Patterns

The following are some emotional patterns which can be seen in students:

1. Worries/Anxieties: These can be imaginative or real. These can be the products of school work, exam, school problems or home problems.
2. Phobias: Phobias or fears can be from material objects, meeting with people, talking to strangers etc.
3. Anger, Love and Hate: These are some emotional patterns, which have its own causes, and effects.

As for emotions are concerned, the fear of failure make you to work hard. Emotions can be realized through good and positive activities. Now it is the responsibility of home, school, teachers & parents to understand the emotional state of the children and to avoid the bad effects of emotional disturbance. "Become emotions can make or mar one's life".

Growth and development

1. 1. GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT Aruna A P
2. 2. DEFINITION • GROWTH The term growth denotes a net increase in the size, or mass of the tissue. It is largely attributed to multiplication of cells and increase in the intracellular substance.
3. 3. ACCORDING TO HURLOCK • GROWTH is change in size, in proportion, disappearance of old features and acquisition of new ones
4. 4. According to Crow and Crow (1962) • Growth refers to structural and physiological changes
5. 5. DEVELOPMENT • Development specify maturation of functions. It is related to the maturation and myelination of the nervous system and indicates acquisition of a variety of skills for optimal functioning of the individual
6. 6. According to Hurlock(1959) • Development means a progressive series of changes that occur in an orderly predictable pattern as a result of maturation and experience.

7. 7. According to J.E. Anderson(1950) • Development is concerned with growth as well as those changes in behavior which results from environmental situations.
8. 8. According to Liebert, Poulos and Marmor (1979) • Development refers to a process of change in growth and capability over time, as function of both maturation and interaction with the environment
9. 9. Changes in the quality or character rather than the quantitative aspects comes in this domain.⌘Development implies overall change in shape, form or structure resulting in improved working or functioning. ⌘Changes in the quantitative aspects come into the domain of Growth. ⌘The term is used in purely physical sense. It generally refers to increase in size, length. ⌘DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT GROWTH DEVELOPMENT
10. 10. Development is a wider and comprehensive term and refers to overall changes in the individual. It continues throughout life and is progressive.⌘It is a comprehensive and wider term and refers to overall changes in the individual. ⌘Growth does not continue throughout life. It stops when maturity has been attained. ⌘It is a part of developmental process. Development in its quantitative aspect is termed as growth. ⌘GROWTH DEVELOPMENT
11. 11. Development involves changes of an orderly, coherent type tending towards the g⌘The changes produced by growth are the subject of measurement. They may be quantified. ⌘Growth involves body changes. ⌘GROWTH DEVELOPMENT Development implies improvement in functioning and behavior and hence bring qualitative changes which are difficult to be⌘oal of maturity.
12. 12. Development is also possible without growth.⌘Development is organizational. It is organization of all the parts which growth and differentiation have produced. ⌘Growth may or may not bring development. ⌘Growth is cellular . It takes place due to the multiplication of cells. ⌘GROWTH DEVELOPMENT
13. 13. PRINCIPLES OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT • Development is a continuous process from conception to maturity
14. 14. • Development depends on the maturation and myelination of nervous system. • The sequence of the development is the same for all children, but the rate of development varies from child to child
15. 15. • Certain primitive reflexes anticipate corresponding voluntary movement and have to be lost before the voluntary movement develops
16. 16. • Development follows a direction and uniform pattern
17. 17. • Generalized mass activity given way to specific individual response • Principle of hierarchical integration • Development lacks uniformity of rate
18. 18. • Development proceeds from general to specific responses
19. 19. • Principle of independence of systems • Most traits of development are correlated • Development is cumulative • Development is a result of interaction of Maturation and Learning • Development is a product of contribution of Heredity and Environment
20. 20. Maternal factors⌘Placental factors ⌘Fetal growth factors ⌘Fetal hormones ⌘Sex ⌘Genetic potential ⌘FACTORS AFFECTING GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT • FETAL GROWTH
21. 21. POST NATAL PERIOD • Sex • IUGR • Genetic factors • Hormonal influences • Nutrition • Infections • Chemical agents • Trauma
22. 22. SOCIAL FACTORS: • Socioeconomic level • Poverty • Natural resources • Climate • Emotional factors • Cultural factors • Parental education
23. 23. LAWS OF GROWTH • Growth and development in children is a continuous and orderly process • Growth pattern of every individual is unique • Different patterns in the body grow at different rates
24. 24. DEVELOPMENTAL AGE PERIODS • Infancy – Neonate • Birth to 1 month – Infancy • 1 month to 1 year • Early Childhood – Toddler • 1-3 years – Preschool • 3-6 years
25. 25. • Middle Childhood – School age – 6 to 12 years • Late Childhood • Adolescent – 13 years to approximately 18 years

26. 26. SOMATIC GROWTH • SKELETAL GROWTH • BONE AGE ESTIMATION • ERUPTION OF TEETHS
27. 27. ERRUPTION OF TEETH
28. 28. ERRUPTION OF PRIMARY TEETH UPPER ARCH LOWER ARCH CENTRAL INCISORS 10 MONTHS 8 MONTHS LATERAL INCISORS 11 MONTHS 13 MONTHS CANINE 19 MONTHS 20 MONTHS FIRST MOLAR 16YEARS 16 YEARS SECOND MOLAR 29 YEARS 27 YEARS
29. 29. PERMANENT TEETH Molar 6 to 7 years Central and lateral incisors 6 to 8 years Canines and premolars 9 to 12 years Second molars 12 years Third molars 18 years or later
30. 30. CLASSIC STAGE THEORIES
31. 31. FREUD'S PSYCHO SEXUAL THEORY INFANCY ORAL TODDLERHOOD ANAL PRE SCHOOL PHALLIC SCHOOL AGE LATENCY ADOLESCENCE GENITAL
32. 32. PSYCHO SOCIAL THEORY INFANCY BASIC TRUST VS MISTRUST TODDLERHOOD AUTONOMY VS SHAME AND DOUBT PRE SCHOOL INITIATIVE VS GUILT SCHOOL AGE INDUSTRY VS INFERIORITY ADOLESCENCE IDENTITY VS ROLE DIFFUSION
33. 33. TRUST VS MISTRUST • INFANCY • VIRTUE: HOPE
34. 34. AUTONOMY VS SHAME AND DOUBT • TODDLERS • VIRTUE: WILL • MAIN QUESTION : CAN I DO THINGS MYSELF OR MUST I ALWAYS RELY ON OTHERS?
35. 35. INITIATIVE VS GUILT • PRE SCHOOLERS • VIRTUE : PURPOSE • MAIN QUESTION : AM I GOOD OR BAD?
36. 36. INDUSTRY VS INFERIORITY • CHILDHOOD • VIRTUE: COMPETANCE • QUESTION: AM I SUCCESSFUL OR WORTHLESS?
37. 37. IDENTITY VS ROLE CONFUSION • ADOLESCENTS • QUESTION: WHO AM I AND WHERE AM I GOING? • EGO QUALITY: FIDELITY
38. 38. INTIMACY VS ISOLATION • YOUNG ADULTS • 20- 34YEARS • QUESTION: AM I LOVED AND WANTED? • VIRTUE : LOVE
39. 39. GENERATIVITY VS STAGNATION • MIDDLE ADULTHOOD • VIRTUE: CARE • QUESTION : WILL I PRODUCE SOMETHING OF REAL VALUE?
40. 40. PIAGET: 4 STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT • Sensorimotor (0-2 years) • Preoperations (2-7 years) • Concrete Operations (7-12 years) • Formal Operations (12 and up)
41. 41. SENSORY MOTOR • Understand the world through senses and motor actions • Develop object permanence at stage end • At 9 months, can imitate
42. 42. SENSORY MOTOR PHASE • 3 EVENTS – SEPARATION – OBJECT PERMANANCE – SYMBOL OR MENTAL REPRESENTATION
43. 43. SYMBOL OR MENTAL REPRESENTATION • HAS 6 STAGES – USE OF REFLEX (BIRTH – 1 MONTH) – PRIMARY CIRCULAR REACTION (1-4 MONTH) – SECONDARY CIRCULAR REACTION (4-8 MONTH) – COORDINATION OF SECONDARY SCHEMES – TERTIARY CIRCULAR REACTION(13- 18 MONTHS) – MENTAL COMBINATION (19-24 MONTHS)
44. 44. PRE OPERATIVE • Think about things not present • Fantasy play • Thinking egocentric, dominated by perception
45. 45. CONCRETE OPERATIONS • Can manipulate ideas • Understand reversibility • Can do conservation and classification
46. 46. FORMAL OPERATIONS • Can do abstract & hypothetical reasoning • Can reason contrary to experience • MAY be found only in people's areas of expertise!
47. 47. KOHLBERG' THEORY • 3 LEVELS OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT – PRE CONVENTIONAL MORALITY – CONVENTIONAL MORALITY – POST CONVENTIONAL MORALITY
48. 48. PRE CONVENTIONAL MORALITY • STAGE I • CHILD IS OBEDIENCE PUNISHMENT ORIENTED • STAGE II • CHILD CONFIRM THE SOCIAL EXPECTATION TO GAIN REWARD
49. 49. CONVENTIONAL MORALITY • MORALITY OF CONVENTIONAL RULES AND CONFIRMITY • 2 STAGES – GOOD BOY MORALITY – AVOID SOCIAL DISAPPROVAL
50. 50. POST CONVENTIONAL MORALITY • MORALITY OF SELF ACCEPTED PRINCIPLES • 2 STAGES – MORALITY SHOULD BE MODIFIABLE – SOCIAL STANDARDS AND INTERNALISED IDEAS TO AVOID SELF CENSURE

51. **51. KOHLBERG'S THEORY TODDLER PRE CONVENTIONAL PRE SCHOOL CONVENTIONAL SCHOOL AGE CONVENTIONAL ADOLESCENCE POST CONVENTIONAL**
52. **52. BEHAVIOURAL THEORY**
53. **53. THEORY OF INTERPERSONAL DEVELOPMENT • PROPOSED BY SULLIVAN • FIRST INTERACTION WITH MOTHERS • EXTENDS TO OTHER FAMILY MEMBERS BY THE AGE OF 2 YRS • EXTENDS TO NEIGHBOURS, PEERS AT SCHOOL AND HORIZONTAL WIDENS**
54. **54. NORMAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT DURING INFANCY**
55. **55. GROSS MOTOR DEVELOPMENT**
56. **56. • 6 WEEKS – DEVELOP HEAD CONTROL • 20 WEEKS – COMPLETE NECK CONTROL**
57. **57. • 6 MONTHS – CHILD CAN BEAR ALMOST ALL HIS WEIGHT • 9 MONTHS- _ begins to stand holding on the furniture • 10 – 11 months – start cruising around the furniture**
58. **58. • 12- 13 months _ stands independently. • 13- 15 months _ start walking independently • 18 months _ runs**
59. **59. FINE MOTOR DEVELOPMENT • Hand eye coordination • 12-20 weeks – child observes his own hands (hand regard) • 4 months – hand of the children come together at midline as he plays**
60. **60. Offer a red cube to the child • 5-6 months : infant reaches and holds the cube in a crude manner using the ulnar aspect of his hand • 6-7 months : transfer objects from one hand to other • 8-9 months : child is able to grasp from the radial side of the hand • 1 year : mature grasp (index finger and thumb) is evident**
61. **61. By offering pellets, finer hand skills are assessed • 9-10 months : child approaches the pellet by an index finger and lifts it using – thumb opposition**
62. **62. HAND TO MOUTH COORDINATION • 6 months : child can take a biscuit to his mouth and chew • 1 year : tries to feed self from a cup but spills some of the content**
63. **63. DRESSING • 1 year : child starts to pull off mittens, caps and socks**
64. **64. PERSONAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND GENERAL UNDERSTANDING • 1 month _ child intently watches his mother when she talks to him**
65. **65. •6-8 weeks : social smile**
66. **66. • 3 months : enjoys looking around and recognizes the mother • 6 months : vocalizes and smiles at his mirror image and imitates acts such as cough or tongue protrusion**
67. **67. • 6-7 months : stranger anxiety • 9 months : waves 'bye- bye'. Repeats any performance that evokes an appreciative response from the observers**
68. **68. 1 year : he can understand simple questions like ' where is your papa?'**
69. **69. LANGUAGE • 1 month – alerts to sound • 3 month – coos (musical vowel sounds) • 4 months – laugh aloud • 6 months – monosyllables (ba- pa -da), ah- goo sounds • 9 months – bisyllables (mama, baba, dada) • 12 months – 1-2 words words with meaning**
70. **70. VISION • 1 month – baby can fixate on his mother as she talks to him • 3-4 months : child can fixate intently on an object shown to him (grasping with eye) • 6 weeks : binocular vision begins and is well established by 4 months • 6 months : child adjusts his position to follow object of interest • 1 year : follow rapidly moving objects**
71. **71. HEARING • 3-4 months : child turns his head towards the source of sound • 5-6 months : child turns the head to one side and then downward if a sound is made sound below the level of ears. • 10 months : child directly looks at the source of diagonally**
72. **72. PSYCHO SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT TRUST VS MISTRUST**
73. **73. RADIUS OF SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP • Proposed by Sullivan • Maternal person (unipolar – bipolar)**
74. **74. COGNITIVE STAGE • Proposed by Piaget • Sensory motor**
75. **75. THANK YOU...**

Stages of Growth n development

Stages of growth and development

1. 1. Stages of growth and development
2. 2. • Growth is a lifelong process that starts with a single cell. It's created by joining together of one special cell with another cell which comes from each parent. • The period of life from the first year through the teen years is a time of great growth.
3. 3. Different stages of growth. • There are stages of growth that a person goes through. • Infancy • Early childhood • Childhood • Late childhood • Adolescence • adulthood
4. 4. Infancy • Infancy- from birth to 18th months • Physical changes • Bones are still soft and flexible • Learns to sit, to crawl, to stand and to sit. • Mental changes • Gets what it need by crying • Can recognize parents and siblings
5. 5. Early childhood • 18th month to 3 years • Physical changes • Learns to walk and to talk • Arms and legs get longer • Mental changes • Learns to use the toilet • Social changes • Not ready to share or to play interactively with others
6. 6. Childhood • 3 to 6 years • Physical changes • Begins to lose milk teeth • Mental changes • Learns to behave while in a group • Social changes • Learns to play interactively and to make friends • Emotional changes • Physical contact becomes less frequent
7. 7. Late childhood • Physical changes • Appetite increases • Process of sexual maturity begins • Mental changes • Acquires high-level thinking skills • Emotional changes • Self-centeredness lessens • Choose friends of the same sex
8. 8. Adolescence • The period of gradual change from childhood to adulthood the time of life between childhood and adulthood. • Physical changes • Rapid physical growth • Body starts to look more like an adult • Mental changes • Begins to question oneself • Starts to enjoy participating in adult conversation
9. 9. • Emotional changes • Feeling very quickly from being happy to being lonely. • Sees people as having needs like his. • Social changes • Friends views become more important
10. 10. Adulthood • Period from the twenties onward • Physical changes • A slow weakening of the five senses • a slow loss of calcium in the bones • Bones become brittle • Stiffening of the joints and weakening of the muscles

MATURATION

The term *maturation* comes from *maturatio*, a Latin word for ripening; thus, many dictionaries describe maturation as the process of “becoming ripe” or “mature,” and being mature as “being ripe.” In the social sciences, when we describe developmental changes as maturational, we are describing the change as having three characteristics: First, maturational change is an intrinsically teleological or endgoal oriented process. Second, maturational change is a systematic process. Finally, the end-goal of maturational change is an adaptive state. *Maturity* represents this goal like apex of adaptive functioning, and *maturation* describes the systematic and time-consuming processes that achieve maturity. Consequently, maturity does not just “happen”; it is a time-consuming and organized growth process.

This definition of maturation is broader than it has been defined historically. For example, the Child Study Movement of the first half of the twentieth century sought to describe child development as a maturational process that is independent of experience and learning. The goal of much of early developmental psychology was to chart the course of average and atypical child maturation. This approach, while providing information on the “what and when” of child development, does not explain “why” children develop as they do. Subsequent research has shown that human development is never a purely biological process. For example, there is a documented decrease of about

four years in the age of menarche (the onset of menstruation in girls) in [Europe](#) and [North America](#) over the last century. This is called a secular trend (a trend over a long period of time) and appears to have leveled off in developed nations. However, in the [United States](#) there is some evidence that breast development is occurring earlier, although average age at menarche (twelve and one-half years) is not declining. Age at menarche is typically half a year later in most parts of Europe (thirteen years). Age at menarche in nations currently struggling with high rates of disease and malnutrition can be as high as seventeen—where Europe was in the early 1800s. Environmental improvements in nutrition and disease control have the capacity to act on the genetically based timing of female reproductive maturation. Similarly, experiences such as paternal sexual abuse, chemical exposure, obesity, and ongoing stress can speed up pubertal development. On the other hand, severe caloric deprivation (e.g., an eating disorder or famine) can delay the onset of menarche, or even return an adolescent to prepubescent levels of hormonal functioning.

Q.NO 1. What is the importance of knowledge regarding the stages of growth and development to a teacher ? Explain..

ANS:-

(OR)

Describe the factors effecting physical,Cognitive ,Social and emotional developments during Childhood .

ANS:-

Meaning of development:-

Development is progressive acquisition of various skills (abilities) such as head support, speaking, learning, expressing the feelings and relating with other people.

development is a lifelong process of physical, behavioral, cognitive, and emotional growth and change. In the early stages of life—from babyhood to childhood, childhood to adolescence, and adolescence to adulthood—enormous changes take place.

Definition of development:-

According to WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY :- "Development is the series of changes which an organism undergoes in passing from an embryonic(womb) state to maturity".

According to LIBERT :- "Development refers to a process of change in growth and capability over time,function of both maturation and interaction with the environment".

Nature of Development:-N

1.Developement has a definite pattern.

2. Development occurs from general to specific.
3. Development does not stop, it is continuous.
4. Development represents all types of changes.
5. Development is the symbol of qualitative changes.

Factors affecting physical development :-

A person's physical development is deeply related with his mental development. Some of the important factors which influence the physical development of the child are as follows:-

1. Environment:-

Environment is an important factor which affects the physical development of the child. Physical development of the children living in neat and proper environment is very fast. Contrary to this, children living in slums and closed houses have very poor health. They face the pure air and sun. Their pace of physical development is slow.

2. Love and Affection:-

For the total physical development of the child, love and affection work as foundation. In case of non-availability of love and affection in the family, he remains disturbed which results in the imbalance of development.

3. Play and exercise:-

For the development of children, attention should be paid towards their sports and exercise. Because this also affects the physical development.

4. Sleep and rest :-

Sleep and rest are also important factors which influence the physical development of a child. In the absence of sleep and rest, a child can't have good and sound health.

5. Heredity:

Development depends upon the potentials that a child gets from his parents. These potentials decide the limit of development of a child, e.g., height, weight, body structure, etc.

6. Nutrition:

The nutrition that child gets before birth or after birth affects his development. If the child gets good nutrition he develops well and completes his developmental tasks. His bones, muscles and internal organs also develop well.

7. Immunization at proper time saves the child from various diseases:

This helps the child to grow properly. Children who suffer from infectious diseases become weak and their body development lags behind.

8. Proper ventilation:

Sunlight and pure air helps in good body development. Sun rays are good source of Vitamin D which makes bones of the child strong.

11. Family:

Family where the development of the baby takes place directly affects the development of the child. It provides proper atmosphere, opportunities, encouragement to the child to explore his environment so that he develops himself through this exploration.

Factors affecting in mental development:-

By mental development we mean the development of language, interest, power of memory, imagination, understanding, reasoning, thinking, intelligence etc...following are the factors affecting the mental development.

1. Parental Interactions

Parental interactions with children can have a largely positive or negative effect on child development, according to EffectivePhilanthropy.com. Parents who spend time playing and teaching their kids through reading and by performing various types of hands-on games and activities can have a positive impact on their child's development.

2. Learning Environment

Children who are surrounded, both at home and at school/daycare facilities, by a strong learning environment that is both informative and supportive may improve their development. EffectivePhilanthropy.com reports that research has shown children exposed to poor and underprivileged educational environments tend to be at a higher risk of being negatively affected in terms of their development.

3. Health

Proper nutrition can have a direct impact on a child's development both physically and psychologically, according to the Royal Children's Hospital. They point out that proper nutrition is related to functional outcomes for children as they get older. In other words,

unhealthy eating can lead to weight gain and other negative effects if the child does not learn how to eat healthy early in life.

4.Social Interaction

Research has shown that social isolation or lack of socialization can lead to early childhood development issues, such as speech problems or an inability to socialize with others in a civilized way. EffectivePhilanthropy.com mentions these very points in a report titled "Factors Affecting Early Childhood Development." They mention that the socioeconomic environment in which a child is raised can have a drastic effect on their development. An example of how this could affect a child negatively is if she is not socialized with other children, such as neighbors, classmates or family members.

5.Psychological factors

Parenting style is another factor that affects a child's cognitive development. A parent's values and beliefs influence how a child understands what goes on around him. Although some parenting styles may be unresponsive to a child's needs and demand conformity, others encourage academic achievement, self-confidence, independence and maturity.

By Kendra Cherry
Updated July 21, 2016

According to psychologist Jean Piaget, children progress through a series of four critical stages of cognitive development. Each stage is marked by shifts in how kids understand the world. Piaget believed that children are like "little scientists" and that they actively try to explore and make sense of the world around them.

Through his observations of his children, Piaget developed a stage theory of intellectual development that included four distinct stages:

- The sensorimotor stage, from birth to age 2
- The preoperational stage, from age 2 to about age 7
- The concrete operational stage, from age 7 to 11
- The formal operational stage, which begins in adolescence and spans into adulthood.

Jean Piaget's Background

Jean Piaget was born in Switzerland in 1896. He published his first scientific paper at the tender age of 10 – a 100-word description of an albino sparrow in a naturalist magazine. Between the ages of 15 and 19, he published numerous papers on mollusks and was even offered a job as a curator at a museum, although he had to decline the offer since he still had two years of high school to complete.

While he developed an interest early on in how people come to know the world around them, he didn't receive any formal training in psychology until after he had completed his doctoral degree at the University of Neuchatel. After receiving his Ph.D. degree at age 22 in natural history, Piaget formally began a career that would have a profound impact on both psychology and education.

After studying briefly with Carl Jung, he happened to meet Theodore Simon, one of Alfred Binet's collaborators. Simon offered Piaget a position supervising the standardization of the intelligence tests developed by Binet and Simon.

Piaget developed an interest in the intellectual development of children.

Based on his observations, he concluded that children were not less intelligent than adults, they simply think differently. Albert Einstein called Piaget's discovery "so simple only a genius could have thought of it."

Piaget's stage theory describes the cognitive development of children. Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities. In Piaget's view, early cognitive development involves processes based upon actions and later progresses to changes in mental operations.

Piaget's interest in child cognitive development was influenced by watching his 13-month-old nephew, Gerard, at play. By chance, Piaget observed the toddler playing with a ball. When the ball rolled under a table where the boy could still see it, Gerard simply retrieved the ball and continued playing. When the ball rolled under a sofa out of his sight, however, the child began looking for it where he had last seen it. This reaction struck Piaget as irrational.

Piaget came to believe that children lack what he referred to as the object concept - the knowledge that objects are separate and distinct from both the individual and the individual's perception of that object.

Jean Piaget set out to study his daughter Jacqueline as she developed through infancy, toddlerhood, and childhood. He quickly noted that during the early months of his daughter's life, she seemed to believe that objects ceased to exist once they were out of her sight. At nearly a year, she started to search actively for objects that were hidden from her view although she made mistakes similar to the one Gerard made. By 21 months, Jacqueline had become skilled at finding hidden objects and understood that objects had an existence separate from her perception of them.

Piaget's observations of his nephew and daughter reinforced his budding hypothesis that children's minds were not merely smaller versions of adult minds. Instead, he proposed, intelligence is something that grows and develops through a series of stages. Older children don't just think faster than younger children, he suggested. Instead, there are both qualitative and quantitative differences between the thinking of young children versus older children.

A Look at Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

- The Sensorimotor Stage: During this stage, infants and toddlers acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects. It was his observations of his daughter and nephew that heavily influenced his conception of this stage. At this point in development, a child's intelligence consists of their basic motor and sensory explorations of the world. Piaget believed that developing object permanence or object constancy, the understanding that objects continue to exist even when they cannot be seen, was an important element at this point of development. By learning that objects are separate and distinct entities and that they have an existence of their own outside of individual perception, children are then able to begin to attach names and words to objects.
- The Preoperational Stage: At this stage, kids learn through pretend play but still struggle with logic and taking the point of view of other people. They also often struggle with understanding the ideal of constancy. For example, a researcher might take a lump of clay, divide it into two equal pieces, and then give a child the choice between two pieces of clay to play with. One piece of clay is rolled into a compact ball while the other is smashed into a flat pancake shape. Since the flat shape *looks* larger, the preoperational child will likely choose that piece even though the two pieces are exactly the same size.
- The Concrete Operational Stage: Kids at this point of development begin to think more logically, but their thinking can also be very rigid. They tend to struggle with abstract and hypothetical concepts. At this point, children also become less egocentric and begin to think about how other people might think and feel. Kids in the concrete operational stage also begin to understand that their thoughts are unique to them and that not everyone else necessarily shares their thoughts, feelings, and opinions.
- The Formal Operational Stage: The final stage of Piaget's theory involves an increase in logic, the ability to use deductive reasoning, and an understanding of abstract ideas. At this point, people become capable of seeing multiple potential solutions to problems and think more scientifically about the world around them.

It is important to note that Piaget did not view children's intellectual development as a quantitative process; that is, kids do not just add more information and knowledge to their existing knowledge as they get older. Instead, Piaget suggested that there is a *qualitative* change in how children think as they gradually process through these four stages. A child at age 7 doesn't just have more information about the world than he did at age 2; there is a fundamental change in *how* he thinks about the world.

To better understand some of the things that happen during cognitive development, it is important first to examine a few of the important ideas and concepts introduced by Piaget. The following are some of the factors that influence how children learn and grow:

Fundamental Concepts

Schemas - A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to interpret and understand the world.

In Piaget's view, a schema includes both a category of knowledge and the process of obtaining that knowledge. As experiences happen, this new information is used to modify, add to, or change previously existing schemas.

For example, a child may have a schema about a type of animal, such as a dog. If the child's sole experience has been with small dogs, a child might believe that all dogs are small, furry, and have four legs. Suppose then that the child encounters an enormous dog. The child will take in this new information, modifying the previously existing schema to include these new observations.

Assimilation - The process of taking in new information into our already existing schemas is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective because we tend to modify experiences and information slightly to fit in with our preexisting beliefs. In the example above, seeing a dog and labeling it "dog" is a case of assimilating the animal into the child's dog schema.

Accommodation - Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves modifying existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

Equilibration - Piaget believed that all children try to strike a balance between assimilation and accommodation, which is achieved through a mechanism Piaget called equilibration. As children progress through the stages of cognitive development, it is important to maintain a balance between applying previous knowledge (assimilation) and changing behavior to account for new knowledge (accommodation). Equilibration helps explain how children can move from one stage of thought into the next.

Final Thoughts

One of the most important elements to remember of Piaget's theory is that it takes the view that creating knowledge and intelligence is an inherently *active* process. "I find myself opposed to the view of knowledge as a passive copy of reality," Piaget explained. "I believe that knowing an object means acting upon it, constructing systems of transformations that can be carried out on or with this object. Knowing reality means constructing systems of transformations that correspond, more or less adequately, to reality."

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Updated February 01, 2016

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development suggests that children move through four different stages of mental development. His theory focuses not only on understanding how children acquire knowledge, but also on understanding the nature of intelligence. Piaget believed that children took an active role in the

learning process, acting much like little scientists as they perform experiments, make observations and learn about the world.

Learn more about the basics of his pioneering theory by exploring this handy chart that quickly summarizes each of the four stages of cognitive development.

Sensorimotor Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: Birth to 2 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- The infant knows the world through their movements and sensations.
- Children learn about the world through basic actions such as sucking, grasping, looking and listening.
- Infants learn that things continue to exist even though they cannot be seen (object permanence).
- They are separate beings from the people and objects around them.
- They realize that their actions can cause things to happen in the world around them.
- Learning occurs through assimilation and accommodation.

Preoperational Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: 2 to 7 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- Children begin to think symbolically and learn to use words and pictures to represent objects.
- They also tend to be very egocentric, and see things only from their point of view.
- Children at this stage tend to be egocentric and struggle to see things from the perspective of others.
- While they are getting better with language and thinking, they still tend to think about things in very concrete terms.

Concrete Operational Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: 7 to 11 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- During this stage, children begin to thinking logically about concrete events.
- They begin to understand the concept of conservation; the the amount of liquid in a short, wide cup is equal to that in a tall, skinny glass.
- Thinking becomes more logical and organized, but still very concrete.
- Begin using inductive logic, or reasoning from specific information to a general principle.

Formal Operational Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: 12 and Up

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- At this stage, the adolescent or young adult begins to think abstractly and reason about hypothetical problems.
- Abstract thought emerges.
- Teens begin to think more about moral, philosophical, ethical, social, and political issues that require theoretical and abstract reasoning.

- Begin to use deductive logic, or reasoning from a general principle to specific information.

Final Thoughts

While Piaget's theory is less prominent than it once was, it had a tremendous influence on our understanding of child development. Piaget was one of the first theorists to suggest that the way children think is fundamentally different from the way that adults think. Many of Piaget's ideas came from his observations of his own children, but his theory has also fueled an abundance of further research on the intellectual development of children.

Learn more about Jean Piaget's life as well, some of the critical components of his cognitive theory as well as a few of the criticisms of his work

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Erik Erikson was an ego psychologist who developed one of the most popular and influential theories of development. While his theory was influenced by psychoanalyst Sigmund Freud's work, Erikson's theory centered on **psychosocial development** rather than psychosexual development.

Let's take a closer look at the background and different stages that make up Erikson's psychosocial theory.

What is Psychosocial Development?

So what exactly did Erikson's theory of psychosocial development entail?

Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud's theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson's theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan. Erikson was interested in how social interaction and relationships played a role in the development and growth of human beings.

One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of **ego identity**. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experiences and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. As we face each new stage of development, we face a new challenge that can help further develop or hinder the development of identity.

When psychologists talk about identity, they are referring to all of the beliefs, ideals, and values that help shape and guide a person's behavior.

Forming the identity is something that begins in childhood and becomes particularly important during adolescence, but Erikson believed that it is a process that continues throughout life. Our

personal identity gives each of us an integrated and cohesive sense of self that endures and continues to grow as we age.

Our sense of personal identity is shaped by our experiences and interactions with others, and it is this identity that helps guide our actions, beliefs, and behaviors and we grow and develop throughout life.

In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which is sometimes referred to as **ego strength** or **ego quality**. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

In each stage, Erikson believed people experience a **conflict** that serves as a turning point in development. In Erikson's view, these conflicts are centered on either developing a psychological quality or failing to develop that quality. During these times, the potential for personal growth is high, but so is the potential for failure.

If people successfully deal with the conflict, they emerge from the stage with psychological strengths that will serve them well for the rest of their life.

If they fail to deal effectively with these conflict, they may not develop the essential skills needed for a strong sense of identity and self.

Psychosocial Stage 1 - Trust vs. Mistrust

The first stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development occurs between birth and one year of age and is the most fundamental stage in life.

- Because an infant is utterly dependent, developing trust is based on the dependability and quality of the child's caregivers. At this point in development, the child is utterly dependent upon adult caregivers for everything that they need to survive including food, love, warmth, safety, and nurturing. Everything. If a caregiver fails to provide adequate care and love, the child will come to feel that he or she cannot trust or depend upon the adults in his or her life.
- If a child successfully develops trust, he or she will feel safe and secure in the world. Caregivers who are inconsistent, emotionally unavailable, or rejecting contribute to feelings of mistrust in the children they care for. Failure to develop trust will result in fear and a belief that the world is inconsistent and unpredictable.
- Of course, no child is going to develop a sense of 100 percent trust or 100 percent doubt. Erikson believed that successful development was all about striking a balance between the two opposing sides. When this happens, children acquire **hope**, which Erikson described as an openness to experience tempered by some wariness that danger may be present.

Psychosocial Stage 2 - Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

The second stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development takes place during early childhood and is focused on children developing a greater sense of personal control.

- At this point in development, children are just starting to gain a little independence. They are starting to perform basic actions on their own and making simple decisions about what they prefer. By allowing kids to make choices and gain control, parents and caregivers can help children develop a sense of autonomy.
- Like Freud, Erikson believed that toilet training was a vital part of this process. However, Erikson's reasoning was quite different than that of Freud's. Erikson believed that learning to control one's bodily functions leads to a feeling of control and a sense of independence.
- Other important events include gaining more control over food choices, toy preferences, and clothing selection.
- Children who successfully complete this stage feel secure and confident, while those who do not are left with a sense of inadequacy and self-doubt.
- Erikson believed that achieving a balance between autonomy and shame and doubt would lead to will, which is the belief that children can act with intention, within reason and limits.

Psychosocial Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt

The third stage of psychosocial development takes place during the preschool years.

- At this point in psychosocial development, children begin to assert their power and control over the world through directing play and other social interactions.
- Children who are successful at this stage feel capable and able to lead others. Those who fail to acquire these skills are left with a sense of guilt, self-doubt, and lack of initiative.
- When an ideal balance of individual initiative and a willingness to work with others is achieved, the ego quality known as **purpose** emerges.

Psychosocial Stage 4 - Industry vs. Inferiority

The fourth psychosocial stage takes place during the early school years from approximately age 5 to 11.

- Through social interactions, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments and abilities.
- Children who are encouraged and commended by parents and teachers develop a feeling of competence and belief in their skills. Those who receive little or no encouragement from parents, teachers, or peers will doubt their abilities to be successful.
- Successfully finding a balance at this stage of psychosocial development leads to the strength known as **competence** or a belief in our own abilities to handle the tasks set before us.

Psychosocial Stage 5 - Identity vs. Confusion

The fifth psychosocial stage takes place during the sometimes turbulent teenage years. This stage plays an essential role in developing a sense of personal identity which will continue to influence behavior and development for the rest of a person's life.

- During adolescence, children explore their independence and develop a sense of self.
- Those who receive proper encouragement and reinforcement through personal exploration will emerge from this stage with a strong sense of self and a feeling of independence and control. Those who remain unsure of their beliefs and desires will feel insecure and confused about themselves and the future.
- Completing this stage successfully leads to **fidelity**, which Erikson described as an ability to live by society's standards and expectations.

Psychosocial Stage 6 - Intimacy vs. Isolation

This stage covers the period of early adulthood when people are exploring personal relationships.

- Erikson believed it was vital that people develop close, committed relationships with other people. Those who are successful at this step will form relationships that are enduring and secure.
- Remember that each step builds on skills learned in previous steps. Erikson believed that a strong sense of personal identity was important for developing intimate relationships. Studies have demonstrated that those with a poor sense of self do tend to have less committed relationships and are more likely to suffer emotional isolation, loneliness, and depression.
- Successful resolution of this stage results in the virtue known as **love**. It is marked by the ability to form lasting, meaningful relationships with other people.

Psychosocial Stage 7 - Generativity vs. Stagnation

During adulthood, we continue to build our lives, focusing on our career and family.

- Those who are successful during this phase will feel that they are contributing to the world by being active in their home and community. Those who fail to attain this skill will feel unproductive and uninvolved in the world.
- **Care** is the virtue achieved when this stage is handled successfully. Being proud of your accomplishments, watching your children grow into adults, and developing a sense of unity with your life partner are important accomplishments of this stage.

Psychosocial Stage 8 - Integrity vs. Despair

The final psychosocial stage occurs during old age and is focused on reflecting back on life.

- At this point in development, people look back on the events of their lives and determine if they are happy with the life that they lived or if they regret the things they did or didn't do.
- Those who are unsuccessful during this stage will feel that their life has been wasted and will experience many regrets. The individual will be left with feelings of bitterness and despair.
- Those who feel proud of their accomplishments will feel a sense of integrity. Successfully completing this phase means looking back with few regrets and a general feeling of satisfaction. These individuals will attain **wisdom**, even when confronting death.

More About Erikson and Psychosocial Stages

- [Erik Erikson Biography](#)
- [Psychosocial Stages Summary Chart](#)
- [A Closer Look at the Psychosocial Stages](#)

The Strengths of Erikson's Theory

One of the strengths of psychosocial theory is that it provides a broad framework from which to view development throughout the entire lifespan. It also allows us to emphasize the social nature of human beings and the important influence that social relationships have on development.

Researchers have found evidence supporting Erikson's ideas about identity and have further identified different sub-stages of identity formation. Some research also suggests that people who form strong personal identities during adolescence are better capable of forming intimate relationships during early adulthood.

Limitations of Psychosocial Theory

What kinds of experiences are necessary to successfully complete each stage? How does a person move from one stage to the next? One major weakness of psychosocial theory is that the exact mechanisms for resolving conflicts and moving from one stage to the next are not well described or developed. The theory fails to detail exactly what type of experiences are necessary at each stage in order to successfully resolve the conflicts and move to the next stage.

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Erikson's Psychosocial Stages Summary Chart

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What's the First Stage of Psychosocial Development?

LIST

Freud vs.Erikson: How Do Their Theories Compare?

ARTICLE

Stage 2 of Psychosocial Development: Autonomy vs Shame

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How Erik Erikson's Own Identity Crisis Shaped His Theories

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Erikson's Psychosocial Stages Summary Chart

Stages of Psychosocial Development

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Updated June 15, 2016

Erik Erikson described development that occurs throughout the lifespan. Learn more in this chart summarizing Erikson's stages of psychosocial development.

Stage: Infancy (birth to 18 months)

Basic Conflict: Trust vs. Mistrust

Important Events: Feeding

Outcome: Children develop a sense of trust when caregivers provide reliability, care, and affection. A lack of this will lead to mistrust.

Stage: Early Childhood (2 to 3 years)

Basic Conflict: Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

Important Events: Toilet Training

Outcome: Children need to develop a sense of personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence. Success leads to feelings of autonomy, failure results in feelings of shame and doubt.

Stage: Preschool (3 to 5 years)

Basic Conflict: Initiative vs. Guilt

Important Events: Exploration

Outcome: Children need to begin asserting control and power over the environment. Success in this stage leads to a sense of purpose. Children who try to exert too much power experience disapproval, resulting in a sense of guilt.

Stage: School Age (6 to 11 years)

Basic Conflict: Industry vs. Inferiority

Important Events: School

Outcome: Children need to cope with new social and academic demands. Success leads to a sense of competence, while failure results in feelings of inferiority.

Stage: Adolescence (12 to 18 years)

Basic Conflict: Identity vs. Role Confusion

Important Events: Social Relationships

Outcome: Teens need to develop a sense of self and personal identity. Success leads to an ability to stay true to yourself, while failure leads to role confusion and a weak sense of self.

Stage: Young Adulthood (19 to 40 years)

Basic Conflict: Intimacy vs. Isolation

Important Events: Relationships

Outcome: Young adults need to form intimate, loving relationships with other people. Success leads to strong relationships, while failure results in loneliness and isolation.

Stage: Middle Adulthood (40 to 65 years)

Basic Conflict: Generativity vs. Stagnation

Important Events: Work and Parenthood

Outcome: Adults need to create or nurture things that will outlast them, often by having children or creating a positive change that benefits other people. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in shallow involvement in the world.

Stage: Maturity(65 to death)

Basic Conflict: Ego Integrity vs. Despair

Important Events: Reflection on life

Outcome: Older adults need to look back on life and feel a sense of fulfillment. Success at this stage leads to feelings of wisdom, while failure results in regret, bitterness, and despair.

More Resources:

Learn more about psychosocial theories and Erik Erikson in the following articles:

- [Biography of Erik Erikson](#)
Erik Erikson's stage theory of psychosocial development contributed to our understanding of personality development throughout the lifespan. Learn more about his life, career, and how early experiences led to his interest in identity

Learn more about other theories of personality in the following articles:

- [Psychosexual Development](#)
Freud's stages of psychosexual development are the best-known personality theories, but also one of the most controversial. Learn more about the psychosexual stages of development.
- [Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs](#)
Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs emphasizes important self-actualization and is often pictured as a pyramid. Learn more about the five levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs.
- [Personality Psychology Study Guide](#)
Personality psychology seeks to understand and describe developing personality. This study guide offers an overview, timeline, theories, important figures, and study questions about personality.

ARTICLE

How Erik Erikson's Own Identity Crisis Shaped His Theories

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Loved or Lonely? The 6th Stage of Psychosocial Development

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Identity vs. Confusion: Fifth Stage of Psychosocial Development

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What's the First Stage of Psychosocial Development?

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What Happens During Stage 4 of Psychosocial Development?

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Erik Erikson Biography (1902-1994)

A Brief Biography of His Remarkable Life

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Erik Erikson.



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By [Kendra Cherry](#)

Updated September 06, 2016

Erik Erikson was best-known for his famous theory of psychosocial development and the concept of the identity crisis. His theories marked an important shift in thinking on personality; instead of focusing simply on early childhood events, his psychosocial theory looked at how social influences contribute to personality throughout the entire lifespan.

Best Known For:

- [Stages of Psychosocial Development](#)
- [Identity Crisis](#)

Erik Erikson's stage theory of psychosocial development generated interest and research on human development through the lifespan. An ego psychologist who studied with Anna Freud, Erikson expanded psychoanalytic theory by exploring development throughout the life, including events of childhood, adulthood, and old age.

Learn more in this guide to Erik Erikson's life and theories.

Birth and Death:

- Erik Erikson was born June 15, 1902.
- He died May 12, 1994.

Childhood: Early Questions About Identity

Erik Erikson was born June 15, 1902 in Frankfurt, Germany.

"The common story was that his mother and father had separated before his birth, but the closely guarded fact was that he was his mother's child from an extramarital union. He never saw his birth father or his mother's first husband," reported Erikson's obituary that appeared in *The New York Times* following his death 1994.

His young Jewish mother, Karla Abrahamsen, raised Erik by herself for a time before marrying a physician, Dr. Theodor Homberger.

The fact that Homberger was not in fact his biological father was concealed from him for many years. When he finally did learn the truth, Erikson was left with a feeling of confusion about who he really was.

This early experience helped spark his interest in the formation of identity. While this may seem like merely an interesting anecdote about his heritage, the mystery over Erikson's biological parentage served as one of the key forces behind his later interest in identity formation.

He would later explain that as a child he often felt confused about who he was and how he fit into to his community.

His interest in identity was further developed based upon his own experiences in school. At his Jewish temple school he was teased for being a tall, blue-eyed, and blonde Nordic-looking boy who stood out among the rest of the kids. At grammar school, he was rejected because of his Jewish background. These early experiences helped fuel his interest in identity formation and continued to influence his work throughout his life.

Career:

It is interesting to note that Erikson never received a formal degree in medicine or psychology. While studying at the Das Humanistische Gymnasium, he was primarily interested in subjects such as history, Latin, and art. His stepfather, a doctor, wanted him to go to medical school, but Erikson instead did a brief stint in art school. He soon dropped out and spent time wandering Europe with friends and contemplating his identity.

It was an invitation from a friend that sent him to take a teaching position at a progressive school created by Dorothy Burlingham, a friend of Anna Freud's.

Anna soon noticed Erikson rapport with children and encouraged him to formally study psychoanalysis.

Erikson ultimately received two certificates from the Montessori teachers association and from the Vienna Psychoanalytic Institute.

He continued to work with Burlingham and Freud at the school for several years, met Sigmund Freud at a party, and even became Anna Freud's patient.

"Psychoanalysis was not so formal then," he recalled. "I paid Miss Freud \$7 a month, and we met almost every day. My analysis, which gave me self-awareness, led me not to fear being myself. We didn't use all those pseudoscientific terms then -- defense mechanism and the like -- so the process of self-awareness, painful at times, emerged in a liberating atmosphere."

He met a Canadian dance instructor named Joan Serson who was also teaching at the school where he worked. The couple married in 1930 and went on to have three children. His son, Kai T. Erikson, is a noted American sociologist.

Erikson moved to the United States in 1933 and, despite having no formal degree, was offered a teaching position at Harvard Medical School. He also changed his name from Erik Homberger to Erik H. Erikson, perhaps as a way to forge his own identity. In addition to his position at Harvard, he also had a private practice in child psychoanalysis.

Later, he held teaching positions at the University of California at Berkeley, Yale, the San Francisco Psychoanalytic Institute, Austen Riggs Center, and the Center for Advanced Studies of the Behavioral Sciences.

He published a number of books on his theories and research, including *Childhood and Society* and *The Life Cycle Completed*. His book *Gandhi's Truth* was awarded a Pulitzer Prize and a national Book Award.

Erikson's Eight Psychosocial Stages

Erikson was a neo-Freudian psychologist who accepted many of the central tenants of Freudian theory, but added his own ideas and beliefs. His theory of psychosocial development is centered on what is known as the epigenetic principle, which proposes that all people go through a series of eight stages. At each stage, people face a crisis that needs to be successfully resolved in order to develop the psychological quality central to each stage.

The eight stages of Erikson's psychosocial theory are something that every psychology student learns about as they explore the history of personality psychology. Much like psychoanalyst Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Erikson's theory marked a shift from Freud's psychosexual theory in that it describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan instead of simply focusing on childhood events.

While Freud's theory of psychosexual development essentially ends at early adulthood, Erikson's theory described development through the entire lifespan from birth until death.

The eight key stages he described were:

1. Trust versus Mistrust: This stage occurs between the ages of birth and age two and is centered on developing a sense of trust in caregivers and world. Children who receive responsive care are able to develop the psychological quality of hope.
2. Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt: This stage takes place between the ages of 2 and 3 and involves gaining a sense of independence and personal control. Success in this stage allows people to develop will and determination.
3. Initiative versus Guilt: Between the ages of 3 and 6, children begin to explore their environment and exert more control over their choices. By successfully completing this stage, children are able to develop a sense of purpose.
4. Industry versus Inferiority: The stage that takes place between the ages of about 5 and 11 is focused on developing a sense of personal pride and accomplishment. Success at this point in development leads to a sense of competence.
5. Identity versus Confusion: The teen years are a time of personal exploration. Those who are able to successfully forge a healthy identity develop a sense of fidelity. Those who do not complete this stage well may be left feeling confused about their role and place in life.
6. Intimacy versus Isolation: The stage that takes place in early adulthood is all about forging health relationships with others. Success leads to the ability to form committed, lasting, and nurturing relationships with others.
7. Generativity versus Stagnation: At the stage occurring during middle adulthood, people become concerned with contributing something to society and leaving their mark on the world. Raising a family and having a career are two key activities that contribute to success at this stage.
8. Integrity versus Despair: The final stage of psychosocial development takes place in late adulthood and involves reflecting back on life. Those who look back and feel a sense of satisfaction develop a sense of integrity and wisdom, while those who are left with regrets may experience bitterness and despair.

Psychosocial Stages Summary Chart

This summary chart provides an outline of the stages in Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. Each stage is centered on a conflict that must be resolved. Learn more about the important events in each stage and the potential outcomes of succeeding or failing to resolve these conflicts.

Erik Erikson and Identity Crisis

Have you ever felt confused about your place in life or not quite sure if you really know the 'real you?' If so, you may be experiencing an identity crisis. Erikson coined the term "identity crisis" and believed that it was one of the most important conflicts people face during the developmental process. According to

Erikson, an identity crisis is a time of intensive analysis and exploration of different ways of looking at oneself. Learn more about [identity crisis](#), [Erik Erikson](#), and [identity research](#).

Contributions to Psychology

Erik Erikson spent time studying the cultural life of the Sioux of South Dakota and the Yurok of northern California. He utilized the knowledge he gained of cultural, environmental, and social influences to further develop his psychoanalytic theory.

While Freud's theory had focused on the psychosexual aspects of development, Erikson's addition of other influences helped to broaden and expand psychoanalytic theory. He also contributed to our understanding of personality as it is developed and shaped over the course of the lifespan.

His observations of children also helped set the stage for further research. "You see a child play," he was quoted in his *New York Times* obituary, "and it is so close to seeing an artist paint, for in play a child says things without uttering a word. You can see how he solves his problems. You can also see what's wrong. Young children, especially, have enormous creativity, and whatever's in them rises to the surface in free play."

"Hope is both the earliest and the most indispensable virtue inherent in the state of being alive. If life is to be sustained hope must remain, even where confidence is wounded, trust impaired."

- Erik Erikson

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A SUMMARY OF LAWRENCE KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

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Lawrence Kohlberg was, for many years, a professor at Harvard University. He became famous for his work there beginning in the early 1970s. He started as a developmental psychologist and then moved to the field of moral education. He was particularly well-known for his theory of moral development which he popularized through research studies conducted at Harvard's Center for Moral Education.

His theory of moral development was dependent on the thinking of the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget and the American philosopher John Dewey. He was also inspired by James Mark Baldwin. These men had emphasized that human beings develop philosophically and psychologically in a progressive fashion.

Kohlberg believed...and was able to demonstrate through studies...that people progressed in their moral reasoning (i.e., in their bases for ethical behavior) through a series of

stages. He believed that there were six identifiable stages which could be more generally classified into three levels.

Kohlberg's classification can be outlined in the following manner:

| LEVEL | STAGE | SOCIAL ORIENTATION |
|-------------------|-------|---|
| Pre-conventional | 1 | Obedience and Punishment |
| | 2 | Individualism, Instrumentalism, and Exchange |
| Conventional | 3 | "Good boy/girl" |
| | 4 | Law and Order |
| Post-conventional | 5 | Social Contract |
| | 6 | Principled Conscience |

The first level of moral thinking is that generally found at the elementary school level. In the first stage of this level, people behave according to socially acceptable norms because they are told to do so by some authority figure (e.g., parent or teacher). This obedience is compelled by the threat or application of punishment. The second stage of this level is characterized by a view that right behavior means acting in one's own best interests.

The second level of moral thinking is that generally found in society, hence the name "conventional." The first stage of this level (stage 3) is characterized by an attitude which seeks to do what will gain the approval of others. The second stage is one oriented to abiding by the law and responding to the obligations of duty.

The third level of moral thinking is one that Kohlberg felt is not reached by the majority of adults. Its first stage (stage 5) is an understanding of social mutuality and a genuine interest in the welfare of others. The last stage (stage 6) is based on respect for universal principle and the demands of individual conscience. While Kohlberg always believed in the existence of Stage 6 and had some nominees for it, he could never get enough subjects to define it, much less observe their longitudinal movement to it.

Kohlberg believed that individuals could only progress through these stages one stage at a time. That is, they could not "jump" stages. They could not, for example, move from an orientation of selfishness to the law and order stage without passing through the good boy/girl stage. They could only come to a comprehension of a moral rationale one stage above their own. Thus, according to Kohlberg, it was important to present them with moral dilemmas for discussion which would help them to see the reasonableness of a "higher stage" morality and encourage their development in that direction. The last comment refers to Kohlberg's moral discussion approach. He saw this as one of the ways in which moral development can be promoted through formal education. Note that Kohlberg believed, as did Piaget, that most moral development occurs through social

interaction. The discussion approach is based on the insight that individuals develop as a result of cognitive conflicts at their current stage.

I am grateful to Professor F. Clark Power of the University of Notre Dame (a former student of Kohlberg's) and to Professor Steve Chilton of the University of Minnesota for suggestions concerning this summary.

Kohlberg's theory of moral development states that we progress through three levels of moral thinking that build on our cognitive development.

LEARNING OBJECTIVE[[EDIT](#)]

- Summarize Kohlberg's stages of psychosocial development

KEY POINTS[[EDIT](#)]

- Lawrence Kohlberg expanded on the earlier work of cognitive theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children, which he believed follows a series of stages.
- Kohlberg defined three levels of moral development: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. Each level has two distinct stages.
- During the preconventional level, a child's sense of morality is externally controlled. Children accept and believe the rules of authority figures, such as parents and teachers, and they judge an action based on its consequences.
- During the conventional level, an individual's sense of morality is tied to personal and societal relationships. Children continue to accept the rules of authority figures, but this is now because they believe that this is necessary to ensure positive relationships and societal order.
- During the postconventional level, a person's sense of morality is defined in terms of more abstract principles and values. People now believe that some laws are unjust and should be changed or eliminated.
- Kohlberg's theory has been criticized for its cultural and gendered bias toward white, upper-class men and boys. It also fails to account for inconsistencies within moral judgments.

TERM[[EDIT](#)]

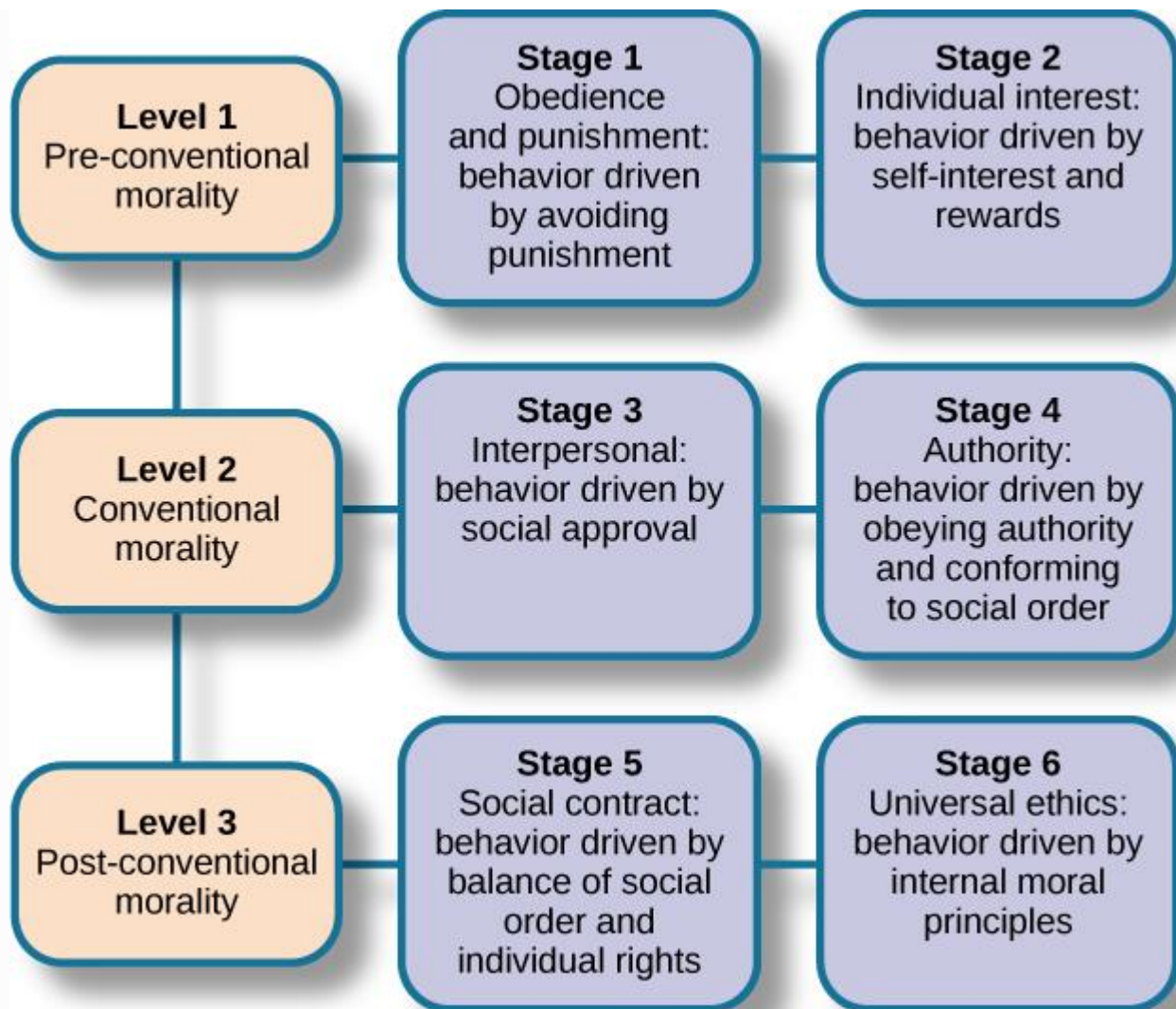
- morality
Recognition of the distinction between good and evil or between right and wrong; respect for and obedience to the rules of right conduct; the mental disposition or characteristic of behaving in a manner intended to produce good results.

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Lawrence Kohlberg expanded on the earlier work of cognitive theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children. Kohlberg believed that moral development, like cognitive development, follows a series of stages. He used the idea of moral dilemmas—stories that present conflicting ideas about two moral values—to teach 10 to 16 year-old boys about morality and values. The best known moral dilemma created by Kohlberg is the "Heinz" dilemma, which discusses the idea of obeying the law versus saving a life. Kohlberg emphasized that it is the way an individual *reasons* about a dilemma that determines positive moral development.

After presenting people with various moral dilemmas, Kohlberg reviewed people's responses and placed them in different stages of moral reasoning. According to Kohlberg, an individual progresses from the capacity for pre-conventional morality (before age 9) to the capacity for conventional morality (early adolescence), and toward attaining post-conventional morality (once Piaget's idea of formal operational thought is attained), which only a few fully achieve. Each level of morality contains two stages, which provide the basis for moral development in various contexts.



Kohlberg's stages of moral development

Kohlberg identified three levels of moral reasoning: pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional. Each level is associated with increasingly complex stages of moral development.

Level 1: Preconventional

Throughout the preconventional level, a child's sense of morality is externally controlled. Children accept and believe the rules of authority figures, such as parents and teachers. A child with pre-conventional morality has not yet adopted or internalized society's conventions regarding what is right or wrong, but instead focuses largely on external consequences that certain actions may bring.

Stage 1: Obedience-and-Punishment Orientation

Stage 1 focuses on the child's desire to obey rules and avoid being punished. For example, an action is perceived as morally wrong because the perpetrator is punished; the worse the punishment for the act is, the more "bad" the act is perceived to be.

Stage 2: Instrumental Orientation

Stage 2 expresses the "what's in it for me?" position, in which right behavior is defined by whatever the individual believes to be in their best interest. Stage two reasoning shows a limited interest in the needs of others, only to the point where it might further the individual's own interests. As a result, concern for others is not based on loyalty or intrinsic respect, but rather a "you scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours" mentality. An example would be when a child is asked by his parents to do a chore. The child asks "what's in it for me?" and the parents offer the child an incentive by giving him an allowance.

Level 2: Conventional

Throughout the conventional level, a child's sense of morality is tied to personal and societal relationships. Children continue to accept the rules of authority figures, but this is now due to their belief that this is necessary to ensure positive relationships and societal order. Adherence to rules and conventions is somewhat rigid during these stages, and a rule's appropriateness or fairness is seldom questioned.

Stage 3: Good Boy, Nice Girl Orientation

In stage 3, children want the approval of others and act in ways to avoid disapproval. Emphasis is placed on good behavior and people being "nice" to others.

Stage 4: Law-and-Order Orientation

In stage 4, the child blindly accepts rules and convention because of their importance in maintaining a functioning society. Rules are seen as being the same for everyone, and obeying rules by doing what one is "supposed" to do is seen as valuable and important. Moral reasoning in stage four is beyond the need for individual approval exhibited in stage three. If one person violates a law, perhaps everyone would—thus there is an obligation and a duty to uphold laws and rules. Most active members of society remain at stage four, where morality is still predominantly dictated by an outside force.

Level 3: Postconventional

Throughout the postconventional level, a person's sense of morality is defined in terms of more abstract principles and values. People now believe that some laws are unjust and should be changed or eliminated. This level is marked by a growing realization that individuals are separate entities from society and that individuals may disobey rules inconsistent with their own principles. Post-conventional moralists live by their own ethical principles—principles that typically include such basic human rights as life, liberty, and justice—and view rules as useful but changeable mechanisms, rather than absolute dictates that must be obeyed without question. Because post-conventional individuals elevate their own moral evaluation of a situation over social conventions, their behavior, especially at stage six, can sometimes be confused with that of those at the pre-conventional level. Some theorists have speculated that many people may never reach this level of abstract moral reasoning.

Stage 5: Social-Contract Orientation

In stage 5, the world is viewed as holding different opinions, rights, and values. Such perspectives should be mutually respected as unique to each person or community. Laws are regarded as social contracts rather than rigid edicts. Those that do not promote the general welfare should be changed when necessary to meet the greatest good for the greatest number of people. This is achieved through majority decision and inevitable compromise. Democratic government is theoretically based on stage five reasoning.

Stage 6: Universal-Ethical-Principal Orientation

In stage 6, moral reasoning is based on abstract reasoning using universal ethical principles. Generally, the chosen principles are abstract rather than concrete and focus on ideas such as equality, dignity, or respect. Laws are valid only insofar as they are grounded in justice, and a commitment to justice carries with it an obligation to disobey unjust laws. People choose the ethical principles they want to follow, and if they violate those principles, they feel guilty. In this way, the individual acts because it is morally right to do so (and not because he or she wants to avoid punishment), it is in their best interest, it is expected, it is legal, or it is previously agreed upon. Although Kohlberg insisted that stage six exists, he found it difficult to identify individuals who consistently operated at that level.

Critiques of Kohlberg's Theory

Kohlberg has been criticized for his assertion that women seem to be deficient in their moral reasoning abilities when compared to men. Carol Gilligan (1982), a research assistant of Kohlberg, criticized her former mentor's theory because it was based so narrowly on research using white, upper-class men and boys. She argued that women

are not deficient in their moral reasoning and instead proposed that males and females reason differently: girls and women focus more on staying connected and maintaining interpersonal relationships.

Kohlberg's theory has been criticized for emphasizing justice to the exclusion of other values, with the result that it may not adequately address the arguments of those who value other moral aspects of actions. Similarly, critics argue that Kohlberg's stages are culturally biased—that the highest stages in particular reflect a westernized ideal of justice based on individualistic thought. This is biased against those that live in non-Western societies that place less emphasis on individualism.

Another criticism of Kohlberg's theory is that people frequently demonstrate significant inconsistency in their moral judgements. This often occurs in moral dilemmas involving drinking and driving or business situations where participants have been shown to reason at a lower developmental stage, typically using more self-interest driven reasoning (i.e., stage two) than authority and social order obedience driven reasoning (i.e., stage four). Critics argue that Kohlberg's theory cannot account for such inconsistencies.

Factors responsible for social change

1] Demographic factors

Due to natural disaster, war, diseases and environmental changes, we can find imbalance ratio of males and females in population which directly affect social changes because if the ratio of males and females is changed then many males and females will remain unmarried. so this change changes social structure therefore we can find the expansion in crimes and change in people's life .eg large numbers of young male soldiers died in Europe during World war 2 so the number of girls and women increased over the existing numbers of males and this lead to moral deterioration and sexual permissiveness throught the Europe. Another example is the current ratio of males and females in India which affect our society. And this unbalanced ratio also affects the economic factor of the nation. Because of climatic changes we can also find imbalance in the ratio of males and females which definitely affect social changes occur in the present society.

2] Political factors

Society is based on rules and regulations ,customs which are built or prepared by govt. so politics affects the society.Govt.is made of different kinds of people who are educated or uneducated but the ultimate aim o f them as upliftment of society. So these political leaders are products of society. As any political party or person change something in state or contributes in changing in something in society which definitely brings a social change.eg The impact of World War-2, Rule of Nazi dictator Hitler in germany , partitions of India in 1947 have brought about several social changes in the respective societies. So, we can also say that man himself brings social change because he is a social being or a part of society. And in a way education plays an important role behind an individual and politics and it also brings social changes.

3] Economic Factors

As the condition of an individual affects the society the same as everybody's economy affect challenges. The stratification of people in different class moulds the nature of society and as per their educational qualification they live together behave and they make them socially aware and earn money which help society the same as their economy influences social changes including changes in their way of living ,way of interaction ,culture ,routine life, languages etcThe best example is the emergence of English in middle class society. People's invention, discoveries and their migration lead changes in economy likewise they bring social change in society. Like poverty, the green revolution and large amount of money earned by Indians from abroad certainly bring a lot of social change in their behavior, relations, spending patterns, intuitions and outlook of the world.

4] Industrial factors

Like establishment of industrial township ,urbanization and trade unionism are responsible for several kinds of social changes the lives of people concerned we can find the impact of liberalization ,privatization and globalization after the establishment of industrialization in most of the countries in the world and such factors influences the economy of the country which lead change in per capita income and all these affect social changes.

5] Scientific Technological Inventions and Discoveries

As we know the impact of scientific technological inventions and discoveries in the societies. Today in the world of technology none of us live without using mobiles, phones, computers, electricity, radio, t.v, etc...

And these inventions and discoveries have completely changed our style of living , modes of thinking social relations and even morals. Behind these inventions and discoveries, human beings intellect, creativity and their aspiration play very significant role so we can say men' desire of striving for excellence, creativity, education bring social changes. such scientific development leads social changes.

6] Social and cultural factors

Every individuals culture, social beliefs, value system, social rules and regulations etc. lead social changes.like fashions ,womens'sliberation movement and satyagrahas definetly cause lot immense of social change in diverse directions.

According to prof. premnath following are the factors responsible for social changes

1] Geographical factors – natural disaster – migration of people

2] Environmental factor

3] Population demographic factor

4] War

5] Psychological sociological factors - man , Education, , striving for excellence ,creativity

6] Technological factors – inventions, Discoveries

7] Ideological factors culture, man

8] Economic factors

9] Biological factors – man

Technological factors

The technological factors have immense influence in social change.

The form of society is undergoing change as a result of the development and invention of electric, steam and petrol driven mechanism for production, the means of transport and communication and various mechanism appliances in everyday life. This advancement in terms of technology affects even institutions like family and a marriage

Biological factor

Biological factor too have some indirect influence upon social change. Among the sociological factors in the qualitative aspect of the population related to heredity. The qualitative aspect of the population is based upon powerful and great men and mutation. Hence, biological factor plays a part in social change to extent. In addition to this, the biological principles of natural selection and struggle for survival are constantly producing alterations in society.

Environmental Factor

Due to floods, earthquake, excessive rain, drought, change of season etc....We can find imbalance in population which directly affects the social relationship and these are modified by such natural occurrences. If we think about a person or an individual who is growing under the roof of a particular society and he lives among different kinds of people. So, the environment of society affects himself and as we know that an individual is a part of society who brings social change. Thus environment factor brings social change.

Psychological Factor

The cause of social change is the psychology of man himself. Man is by nature a lover of change. He is always trying to discover new things in every sphere of his life and is always anxious for novel experiences. As a result of this tendency traditions, customs, etc..of every human society are perpetually undergoing change. A human being is able to apply new customs and methods to replace the old traditional customs are being formed. Change is the law of life. When change does not occur at the appropriate time, revolutions take place, wars are fought, epidemics {situations in which a large number of people have caught the same infectious diseases} spread and changes are violently introduced.

1. We seem to throw money into food and housing, yet a lot of folks are still in need, so something isn't working right. This includes military families and veterans. We need to do it better.
2. We need to improve the reentry experience of war veterans into the American economy and society. Less than 1% of Americans currently serve in the military, so this is a really important conversation to have. The conversation has already been started, we just need to keep collaborating and working toward our goals.
3. Journalism Ethics. We need to ensure that journalism fulfills its role as the heart of democracy and its mission of seeking truth and building trust. The press should be the

immune system of democracy. Turns out that what we have now are a lot of ethics codes and policies, but very little accountability. This is something I often discuss when I talk about [trustworthy journalism in a fact-checking-free world](#). And this is also why I joined the [board of Poynter](#), and work with the [Columbia Journalism Review](#), [Center for Public Integrity](#), and [Sunlight Foundation](#).

4. There are some real bad actors out there trying to implement laws to stop eligible people, including women, the elderly, and disenfranchised communities, from voting. What I learned in high school civics class is that an attack on voting rights is virtually the same as an attack on the country. We need to step up and remind folks that the Founders of the US tell us that [everyone is equal in the eyes of the law](#), meaning that citizens have the right to vote. And we need to protect that right.
5. Today, women represent 12% of all computer science graduates. In 1984, they represented 37%. This number should be increasing, and we can change that. It's important that we encourage girls and women to get involved in tech.

Kohlberg Stages of Moral Development

Level 1 - Pre-conventional morality

At the pre-conventional level (most nine-year-olds and younger, some over nine), we don't have a personal code of morality. Instead, our moral code is shaped by the standards of adults and the consequences of following or breaking their rules.

Authority is outside the individual and reasoning is based on the physical consequences of actions.

- **Stage 1. Obedience and Punishment Orientation.** The child/individual is good in order to avoid being punished. If a person is punished, they must have done wrong.

- **Stage 2. Individualism and Exchange.** At this stage children recognize that there is not just one right view that is handed down by the authorities. Different individuals have different viewpoints.

Level 2 - Conventional morality

At the conventional level (most adolescents and adults), we begin to internalize the moral standards of valued adult role models.

Authority is internalized but not questioned and reasoning is based on the norms of the group to which the person belongs.

- **Stage 3. Good Interpersonal Relationships.** The child/individual is good in order to be seen as being a good person by others. Therefore, answers relate to the approval of others.

- **Stage 4. Maintaining the Social Order.** The child/individual becomes aware of the wider rules of society so judgments concern obeying the rules in order to uphold the law and to avoid guilt.

Level 3 - Post-conventional morality

Individual judgment is based on self-chosen principles, and moral reasoning is based on individual rights and justice. According to Kohlberg this level of moral reasoning is as far as most people get. Only 10-15% are capable of the

kind of abstract thinking necessary for stage 5 or 6 (post-conventional morality). That is to say most people take their moral views from those around them and only a minority think through ethical principles for themselves.

- **Stage 5. Social Contract and Individual Rights.** The child/individual becomes aware that while rules/laws might exist for the good of the greatest number, there are times when they will work against the interest of particular individuals. The issues are not always clear cut. For example, in Heinz's dilemma the protection of life is more important than breaking the law against stealing.

- **Stage 6. Universal Principles.** People at this stage have developed their own set of moral guidelines which may or may not fit the law. The principles apply to everyone. E.g. human rights, justice and equality. The person will be prepared to act to defend these principles even if it means going against the rest of society in the process and having to pay the consequences of disapproval and or imprisonment. Kohlberg doubted few people reached this stage.

Moral development is the process through which children **develop** proper attitudes and behaviors toward other people in society, based on social and cultural norms, rules, and laws. Moral development can be both positive and negative, depending on the type of influences are given to the child.

Moral development focuses on the appearance, change, and understanding of [morality](#) from infancy through adulthood. In the field of moral development, morality is defined as principles for how individuals are able to function properly in society, with respect to [justice](#), others' welfare, and [rights](#). In order to investigate how individuals understand morality, it is essential to measure their beliefs, emotions, attitudes, and behaviors that contribute to moral understanding. To develop the morality, the role of peers and parents in facilitating moral development, the role of sense of right and wrong , it's values, socialization and cultural influences, sympathy and humanity, and positive development are too much important.

Kohlberg's Assumptions of moral development.

1. moral development progresses step by step.
2. it cant skip, it depend previous development.

One must progress through the stages in order, and one cannot get to a higher stage w/o passing through the stage immediately preceding it.

- Moral development is growth, and like all growth, takes place according to a pre-determined sequence.

- Can't walk before you crawl

2. In stage development, subjects cannot realize moral reasoning at a stage more than one stage outside their own.

- E.g. If Johnny is orientated to see the 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.

3. In stage development individuals are cognitively(mentally) attracted to reasoning one level above their own present 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 sense and resolves more difficulties, it is more attractive.

4. In stage development, movement through the stages is effected when cognitive disequilibrium is created, 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 adequate ways of solving problems. If he has no problems or dilemmas, he is not likely to look for solutions. He will not grow morally

5. It is quite possible for a human being to physically mature but not morally mature.

- If a child is spoiled, never having to accommodate for others needs, he may never generate enough questions to force him to a higher level of moral reasoning.

6. Kohlberg believed that only about 25% of persons ever grow to level six, the majority remaining at level four.

- The Scriptures speak of principles of modesty, humbleness, and wise stewardship of money. Application of these principles might preclude the purchase of expensive jewelry, furs, flashy cars, or other items primarily for show.
- If Kohlberg's observations are true, then level 6 thinkers would be in the minority. In fact, they might even be misunderstood and persecuted by a level 4 majority - Christ being the primary example.

Levels and Stages of Moral Development

Level 1: Preconventional Morality

The first level of morality, preconventional morality, can be further divided into two stages: obedience and punishment, and individualism and exchange.

Stage 1: Punishment- Obedience Orientation

Related to Skinner's Operational Conditioning, this stage includes the use of punishment so that the person refrains from doing the action and continues to obey the rules. For example, we follow the law because we do not want to go to jail.

Stage 2: Instrumental Relativist Orientation

In this stage, the person is said to judge the morality of an action based on how it satisfies the individual needs of the doer. For instance, a person steals money from another person because he needs that money to buy food for his hungry children. In Kohlberg's theory, the children tend to say that this action is morally right because of the serious need of the doer.

Level 2: Conventional Morality

The second level of morality involves the stages 3 and 4 of moral development. Conventional morality includes the society and common roles in judging the morality of an action.

Stage 3: Good Boy-Nice Girl Orientation

In this stage, a person judges an action based on the common roles and social expectations before him. This is also known as the "interpersonal relationships" phase. For example, a child gives away her lunch to a street peasant because she thinks doing so means being nice.

Stage 4: Law and Order Orientation

This stage includes respecting the authorities and following the rules, as well as doing a person's duty. The society is the main consideration of a person at this stage. For instance, a policeman refuses the money offered to him under the table and arrests the offender because he believes this is his duty as an officer of peace and order.

Level 3: Postconventional Morality

The post-conventional morality includes stage 5 and stage 6. This is mainly concerned with the universal principles that relation to the action done.

Stage 5 : Social Contract Orientation

In this stage, the person is look at various opinions and values of different people before coming up with the decision on the morality of the action.

Stage 6 : Universal Ethical Principles Orientation

The final stage of moral reasoning, this orientation is when a person considers universally accepted ethical principles. The judgment may become innate and may even violate the laws and rules as the person becomes attached to his own principles of justice.

Socialisation: The Meaning, Features, Types, Stages and Importance

Every society is faced with the necessity of making a responsible member out of each child born into it. The child must learn the expectations of the society so that his behaviour can be relied upon. He must acquire the group rule. The society must socialise each member so that his behaviour will be meaningful in terms of the group rule. In the process of socialisation the individual learns the reciprocal responses of the society.

Socialisation is a processes with the help of which a living organism is changed into a social being. It is a process through which the younger generation learns the adult role which it has to play subsequently. It is a continuous process in the life of an individual and it continues from generation to generation.

Meaning of Socialisation:

The newborn is merely an organism. Socialisation makes him responsive to the society. He is socially active. He becomes a 'Purusha' and the culture that his group inculcates in him, humanises him, and makes him 'Manushya'. The process indeed, is endless. The cultural pattern of his group, in the process gets incorporated in the personality of a child. It prepares him to fit in the group and to perform the social roles. It sets the infant on the line of social order and enables an adult to fit into the new group. It enables the man to adjust himself to the new social order.

Socialisation stands for the development of the human brain, body, attitude, behaviour and so forth. Socialisation is known as the process of inducting the individual into the social world. The term socialisation refers to the process of interaction through which the growing individual learns the habits, attitudes, values and beliefs of the social group into which he has been born.

From the point of view of society, socialisation is the way through which society transmits its culture from generation to generation and maintains itself. From the point of view of the individual, socialisation is the process by which the individual learns social behaviour, develops his 'self'.

Socialisation is a comprehensive process. According to Horton and Hunt, Socialisation is the process whereby one internalises the norms of his groups, so that a distinct 'self emerges, unique to this individual.

Through the process of socialisation, the individual becomes a social person and attains his personality. Green defined socialisation "as the process by which the child acquires a cultural content, along with selfhood and personality".

According to Lundberg, socialisation consists of the "complex processes of interaction through which the individual learns the habits, skills, beliefs and standard of judgement that are necessary for his effective participation in social groups and communities".

Peter Worsley explains socialisation "as the process of "transmission of culture, the process whereby men learn the rules and practices of social groups".

H.M. Johnson defines socialisation as "learning that enables the learner to perform social roles". He further says that it is a "process by which individuals acquire the already existing culture of groups they come into".

Socialisation takes place at different stages such as primary, secondary and adult. The primary stage involves the socialisation of the young child in the family. The secondary stage involves the school and the third stage is adult socialisation.

Socialisation is, thus, a process of cultural learning whereby a new person acquires necessary skills and education to play a regular part in a social system. The process is essentially the same in all societies, though institutional arrangements vary. The process continues throughout life as each new situation arises. Socialisation is the process of fitting individuals into particular forms of group life, transforming human organism into social being and transmitting

characteristics socialization.

1. The socialization process starts from birth and continues till death. It never stops however, the speed and nature of socialization is different at different stages of life.
2. The socialization process converts "human being" into a "social being" so that he might be able to play his role more effectively as a member of an organized group.
3. Healthy growth of personality is possible only due to proper socialization.
4. The socialization of an individual belonging to one and the same society may be different from one another.
5. The process of socialization is different in different societies and groups and that's why the ways of life of the people belonging to different group are different from one another.
6. With the help of socialization, the culture is transmitted to the next generation.
7. With the passage of time, the individual sheds the old roles, responsibilities and interests and adopts the new ones. This process is called re-socialization.
8. When the child is made involved in the process of his own socialization, he is given the freedom and is encouraged to bring to the front his hidden qualities, this is called participant socialization.

When a child (or an adult) is given a limited freedom, he is made obedient and is forced and compelled to know the social values and norms is called repressive socialization

The examples of repressive socialization are commonly found in socialistic societies.

Socialization process is a two-way process i.e. not only adults socialize the children, but sometimes adults can also be socialized by children. e.g. his educated child may socialize an uneducated father.

Features of Socialisation:

Socialisation not only helps in the maintenance and preservation of social values and norms but it is the process through which values and norms are transmitted from one generation to another generation.

Features of socialisation may be discussed as under:

1. Inculcates basic discipline:

Socialisation inculcates basic discipline. A person learns to control his impulses. He may show a disciplined behaviour to gain social approval.

2. Helps to control human behaviour:

It helps to control human behaviour. An individual from birth to death undergoes training and his, behaviour is controlled by numerous ways. In order to maintain the social order, there are definite procedures or mechanism in society. These procedures become part of the man's life and man gets adjusted to the society. Through socialisation, society intends to control the behaviour of its-members unconsciously.

3. Socialisation is rapid if there is more humanity among the- agencies of socialisation:

Socialisation takes place rapidly if the agencies' of socialisation are more unanimous in their ideas and skills. When there is conflict between the ideas, examples and skills transmitted in home and those transmitted by school or peer, socialisation of the individual tends to be slower and ineffective.

4. Socialisation takes place formally and informally:

Formal socialisation takes through direct instruction and education in schools and colleges. Family is, however, the primary and the most influential source of education. Children learn their language, customs, norms and values in the family.

5. Socialisation is continuous process:

Socialisation is a life-long process. It does not cease when a child becomes an adult. As socialisation does not cease when a child becomes an adult, internalisation of culture continues from generation to generation. Society perpetuates itself through the internalisation of culture. Its members transmit culture to the next generation and society continues to exist.

Types of Socialisation:

Although socialisation occurs during childhood and adolescence, it also continues in middle and adult age. Orville F. Brim (Jr) described socialisation as a life-long process. He maintains that socialisation of adults differ from childhood socialisation. In this context it can be said that there are various types of socialisation.

1. Primary Socialisation:

Primary socialisation refers to socialisation of the infant in the primary or earliest years of his life. It is a process by which the infant learns language and cognitive skills, internalises norms and values. The infant learns the ways of a given grouping and is moulded into an effective social participant of that group.

The norms of society become part of the personality of the individual. The child does not have a sense of wrong and right. By direct and indirect observation and experience, he gradually learns the norms relating to wrong and right things. The primary socialisation takes place in the family.

2. Secondary Socialisation:

The process can be seen at work outside the immediate family, in the 'peer group'. The growing child learns very important lessons in social conduct from his peers. He also learns lessons in the school. Hence, socialisation continues beyond and outside the family environment. Secondary socialisation generally refers to the social training received by the child in institutional or formal settings and continues throughout the rest of his life.

3. Adult Socialisation:

In the adult socialisation, actors enter roles (for example, becoming an employee, a husband or wife) for which primary and secondary socialisation may not have prepared them fully. Adult socialisation teaches people to take on new duties. The aim of adult socialisation is to bring change in the views of the individual. Adult socialisation is more likely to change overt behaviour, whereas child socialisation moulds basic values.

4. Anticipatory Socialisation:

Anticipatory socialisation refers to a process by which men learn the culture of a group with the anticipation of joining that group. As a person learns the proper beliefs, values and norms of a status or group to which he aspires, he is learning how to act in his new role.

5. Re-socialisation:

Re-Socialisation refers to the process of discarding former behaviour patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. Such re-socialisation takes place mostly when a social role is radically changed. It involves abandonment of one way of life for another which is not only different from the former but incompatible with it. For example, when a criminal is rehabilitated, he has to change his role radically.

Theories of Socialisation:

Development of Self and Personality:

Personality takes shape with the emergence and development of the 'self'. The emergence of self takes place in the process of socialisation whenever the individual takes group values.

The self, the core of personality, develops out of the child's interaction with others. A person's 'self' is what he consciously and unconsciously conceives himself to be. It is the sum total of his perceptions of himself and especially, his attitudes towards himself. The self may be defined as one's awareness of and ideas and attitudes about his own personal and social identity. But the child has no self. The self arises in

the interplay of social experience, as a result of social influences to which the child, as he grows, becomes subject.

In the beginning of the life of the child there is no self. He is not conscious of himself or others. Soon the infant feels out the limits of the body, learning where its body ends and other things begin. The child begins to recognise people and tell them apart. At about the age of two it begins to use 'I' which is a clear sign of definite self-consciousness that he or she is becoming aware of itself as a distinct human being.

Primary groups play crucial role in the formation of the self of the newborn and in the formation of the personality of the newborn as well. It can be stated here that the development of self is rooted in social behaviour and not in biological or hereditary factors.

In the past century sociologists and psychologists proposed a number of theories to explain the concept of self.

There are two main approaches to explain the concept of self – Sociological approach and: Psychological approach.

Charles Horton Cooley:

Charles Horton Cooley believed, personality arises out of people's interactions with the world. Cooley used the phrase "Looking Glass Self" to emphasise that the self is the product of our social interactions with other people.

To quote Cooley, "As we see our face, figure and dress in the glass and are interested in them because they are ours and pleased or otherwise with according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be; so in imagination we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance, manners, aims, deeds, character, friends and so on and variously affected by it".

The looking glass self is composed of three elements:

1. How we think others see in us (I believe people are reacting to my new hairstyle)
2. What we think they react to what they see.
3. How we respond to the perceived reaction of others.

For Cooley, the primary groups to which we belong are the most significant. These groups are the first one with whom a child comes into contact such as the family. A child is born and brought up initially in a family. The relationships are also the most intimate and enduring.

According to Cooley, primary groups play crucial role in the formation of self and personality of an individual. Contacts with the members of secondary groups such as the work group also contribute to the development of self. For Cooley, however, their influence is of lesser significance than that of the primary groups.

The individual develops the idea of self through contact with the members of the family. He does this by becoming conscious of their attitudes towards him. In other words, the child gets his conception of his self and latter of the kind of person he is, by means of what he imagines others take him to be Cooley, therefore, called the child's idea of himself the looking glass self.

The child conceives of himself as better or worse in varying degrees, depending upon the attitudes of others towards him. Thus, the child's view of himself may be affected by the kind of name given by his family or friends. A child called 'angel' by his mother gets a notion of himself which differs from that of a child called 'rascal'.

The 'looking glass self' assures the child which aspects of the assumed role will praise or blame, which ones are acceptable to others and which ones unacceptable. People normally have their own attitudes towards social roles and adopt the same. The child first tries out these on others and in turn adopts towards his self.

The self thus arises when the person becomes an 'object' to himself. He is now capable of taking the same view of himself that he infers others do. The moral order which governs the human society, in large measure, depends upon the looking glass self.

This concept of self is developed through a gradual and complicated process which continues throughout life. The concept is an image that one builds only with the help of others. A very ordinary child whose efforts are appreciated and rewarded will develop a feeling of acceptance and self-confidence, while a truly brilliant child whose efforts are appreciated and rewarded will develop a feeling of acceptance and self-confidence, while a truly brilliant child whose efforts are frequently defined as failures will usually become obsessed with feelings of competence and its abilities can be paralyzed. Thus, a person's self image need bear no relation to the objective facts.

A critical but subtle aspect of Cooley's looking glass is that the self results from an individual's imagination of how others view him or her. As a result, we can develop self identities based on incorrect perceptions of how others see us. It is because people do not always judge the reactions of others accurately, of course and therein arise complications.

Stages of Socialisation:

G.H. Mead:

The American psychologist George Herbert Mead (1934) went further in analysing how the self develops. According to Mead, the self represents the sum total of people's conscious perception of their identity as distinct from others, just as it did for Cooley. However, Mead's theory of self was shaped by his overall view of socialisation as a lifelong process.

Like Cooley, he believed the self is a social product arising from relations with other people. At first, however, as babies and young children, we are unable to interpret the meaning of people's behaviour. When children learn to attach meanings to their behaviour, they have stepped outside themselves. Once children can think about themselves the same way they might think about someone else, they begin to gain a sense of self.

The process of forming the self, according to Mead, occurs in three distinct stages. The first is imitation. In this stage children copy the behaviour of adults without understanding it. A little boy might 'help' his parents vacuum the floor by pushing a toy vacuum cleaner or even a stick around the room.

During the play stage, children understand behaviours as actual roles- doctor, firefighter, and race-car driver and so on and begin to take on those roles in their play. In doll play little children frequently talk to the doll in both loving and scolding tones as if they were parents then answer for the doll the way a child answers his or her parents.

This shifting from one role to another builds children's ability to give the same meanings to their thoughts; and actions that other members of society give them-another important step in the building of a self.

According to Mead, the self is compassed of two parts, the 'I' and the 'me' The 'I' is the person's response to other people and to society at large; the 'me' is a self-concept that consists of how significant others – that is, relatives and friends-see the person. The 'I' thinks about and reacts to the 'me' as well as to other people.

For instance, 'I' react to criticism by considering it carefully, sometimes changing and sometimes not, depending on whether I think the criticism is valid. I know that people consider 'me' a fair person who's always willing to listen. As they I trade off role in their play, children gradually develop a 'me'. Each time they see themselves from someone else's viewpoint, they practise responding to that impression.

During Mead's third stage, the game stage, the child must learn what is expected not just by one other person but by a whole group. On a baseball team, for example, each player follows a set of rules and ideas that are common to the team and to baseball.

These attitudes of 'other' a faceless person "out there", children judge their behaviour by standards thought to be held by the "other out there". Following the rules of a game of baseball prepares children to follow the rules of the game of society as expressed in laws and norms. By this stage, children have gained a social identity.

Jean Piaget:

A view quite different from Freud's theory of personality has been proposed by Jean Piaget. Piaget's theory deals with cognitive development, or the process of learning how to think. According to Piaget, each stage of cognitive development involves new skills that define the limits of what can be learned. Children pass through these stages in a definite sequence, though not necessarily with the same stage or thoroughness.

The first stage, from birth to about age 2, is the "sensorimotor stage". During this period children develop the ability to hold an image in their minds permanently. Before they reach this stage. They might assume that an object ceases to exist when they don't see it. Any baby-sitter who has listened to small children screaming themselves to sleep after seeing their parents leave, and six months later seen them happily wave good-bye, can testify to this developmental stage.

The second stage, from about age 2 to age 7 is called the preoperational stage. During this period children learn to tell the difference between symbols and their meanings. At the beginning of this stage, children might be upset if someone stepped on a sand castle that represents their own home. By the end of the stage, children understand the difference between symbols and the object they represent.

From about age 7 to age 11, children learn to mentally perform certain tasks that they formerly did by hand. Piaget calls this the "concrete operations stage". For example, if children in this stage are shown a row of six sticks and are asked to get the same number from the nearby stack, they can choose six sticks without having to match each stick in the row to one in the pile. Younger children, who haven't learned the concrete operation of counting, actually line up sticks from the pile next to the ones in the row in order to choose the correct number.

The last stage, from about age 12 to age 15, is the “stage of formal operations. Adolescents in this stage can consider abstract mathematical, logical and moral problems and reason about the future. Subsequent mental development builds on and elaborates the abilities and skills gained during this stage.

Sigmund Freud:

Sigmund Freud's theory of personality development is somewhat opposed to Mead's, since it is based on the belief that the individual is always in conflict with society. According to Freud, biological drives (especially sexual ones) are opposed to cultural norms, and socialization is the process of taming these drives.

The Three-part self:

Freud's theory is based on a three-part self; the id, the ego, and the superego. The id is the source of pleasure-seeking energy. When energy is discharged, tension is reduced and feelings of pleasure are produced, the id motivates us to have sex, eat and excrete, among other bodily functions.

The ego is the overseer of the personality, a sort of traffic light between the personality and the outside world. The ego is guided mainly by the reality principle. It will wait for the right object before discharging the id's tension. When the id registers, for example, the ego will block attempts to eat spare types or poisonous berries, postponing gratification until food is available.

The superego is an idealized parent: It performs a moral, judgemental function. The superego demands perfect behaviour according to the parents' standards, and later according to the standards of society at large.

All three of these parts are active in children's personalities. Children must obey the reality principle, waiting for the right time and place to give into the id. They must also obey the moral demands of parents and of their own developing super egos. The ego is held accountable for actions, and it is rewarded or punished by the superego with feelings of pride or guilt.

Stages of Sexual Development:

According to Freud, personality is formed in four stages. Each of the stages is linked to a specific area of the body an erogenous zone. During each stage, the desire for gratification comes into conflict with the limits set by the parents and latter by the superego.

The first erogenous zone is the mouth. All the infant's activities are focussed on getting satisfaction through the mouth not merely food, but the pleasure of sucking itself. This is termed the oral phase.

In the second stage, the oral phase, the anus becomes the primary erogenous zone. This, phase is marked by children's struggles for independence as parents try to toilet-train them. During this period, themes of keeping or letting go of one's stools become sailent, as does the more important issue of who is in control of the world.

The third stage is known as the phallic phase. In this stage the child's main source of pleasure is the penis/ clitoris. At this point, Freud believed, boys and girls begin to develop in different directions.

After a period of latency, in which neither boys nor girls pay attention to sexual matters, adolescents enter the genital phase. In this stage some aspects of earlier stages are retained, but the primary source of pleasure is genital intercourse with a member of the opposite sex.

Agencies of Socialisation:

Socialisation is a process by which culture is transmitted to the younger generation and men learn the rules and practices of social groups to which they belong. Through it that a society maintains its social system. Personalities do not come ready-made. The process that transforms a child into a reasonably respectable human being is a long process.

Hence, every society builds an institutional framework within which socialisation of the child takes place. Culture is transmitted through the communication they have with one another and communication thus comes to be the essence of the process of culture transmission. In a society there exists a number of agencies to socialise the child.

To facilitate socialisation different agencies play important roles. These agencies are however interrelated.

1. Family:

The family plays an outstanding role in the socialisation process. In all societies other agencies besides the family contribute to socialisation such as educational institutions, the peer group etc. But family plays the most important role in the formation of personality. By the time other agencies contribute to this process family has already left an imprint on the personality of the child. The parents use both reward and punishment to imbibe what is socially required from a child.

The family has informal control over its members. Family being a mini society acts as a transmission belt between the individual and society. It trains the younger generation in such a way that it can take the adult roles in proper manner. As family is primary and intimate group, it uses informal methods of social control to check the undesirable behaviour on the part of its members. The process of socialisation remains a process because of the interplay between individual life cycle and family life cycle.

According to Robert. K. Merton, "it is the family which is a major transmission belt for the diffusion of cultural standards to the oncoming generation". The family serves as "the natural and convenient channel of social continuity.

2. Peer Group:

Peer Group means a group in which the members share some common characteristics such as age or sex etc. It is made up of the contemporaries of the child, his associates in school, in playground and in street. The growing child learns some very important lessons from his peer group. Since members of the peer group are at the same stage of socialisation, they freely and spontaneously interact with each other.

The members of peer groups have other sources of information about the culture and thus the acquisition of culture goes on. They view the world through the same eyes and share the same subjective attitudes. In order to be accepted by his peer group, the child must exhibit the characteristic attitudes, the likes and dislikes.

Conflict arises when standards of the peer group differ from the standards of the child's family. He may consequently attempt to withdraw from the family environment. The peer group surpasses the parental influence as time goes on. This seems to be an inevitable occurrence in rapidly changing societies.

3. Religion:

Religion play a very important role in socialisation. Religion instills the fear of hell in the individual so that he should refrain from bad and undesirable activities. Religion not only makes people religious but socialises them into the secular order.

4. Educational Institutions:

Parents and peer groups are not the only agencies of the socialisation in modern societies. Every civilised society therefore has developed a set of formalised agencies of education (schools, colleges and universities) which have a great bearing on the socialisation process. It is in the educational institutions that the culture is formally transmitted and acquired in which the science and the art of one generation is passed on to the next.

The educational institutions not only help the growing child in learning language and other subjects but also instill the concept of time, discipline, team work, cooperation and competition. Through the means of reward and punishment the desired behaviour pattern is reinforced whereas undesirable behaviour pattern meets with disapproval, ridicule and punishment.

In this way, the educational institutions come next to the family for the purpose of socialisation of the growing child. Educational institution is a very important socialiser and the means by which individual acquires social norms and values (values of achievement, civic ideals, solidarity and group loyalty etc) beyond those which are available for learning in the family and other groups.

5. Occupation:

In the occupational world the individual finds himself with new shared interests and goals. He makes adjustments with the position he holds and also learns to make adjustment with other workers who may occupy equal or higher or lower position.

While working, the individual enters into relations of cooperation, involving specialisation of tasks and at the same time learns the nature of class divisions. Work, for him, is a source of income but at the same time it gives identity and status within society as a whole.

Wilbert Moore has divided occupational socialisation into four phases:

- (a) Career choice,
- (b) anticipatory socialisation,
- (c) conditioning and commitment,
- (d) continues commitment.

(a) Career Choice:

The first phase is career choice, which involves selection of academic or vocational training appropriate for the desired job.

(b) Anticipatory Socialisation:

The next phase is anticipatory socialisation, which may last only a few months or extent for years. Some children inherit their occupations. These young people experience anticipatory socialisation throughout

childhood and adolescence as they observe their parents at work. Certain individuals decide on occupational goals at relatively early ages. The entire adolescent period for them may focus on training for that future.

(c) Conditioning and Commitment:

The third phase of occupational socialisation takes place while one actually performs the work-related Role. Conditioning consists of reluctantly adjusting to the more unpleasant aspects of one's job. Most people find that the novelty of new daily schedule quickly wears off and realise that the parts of the work experience are rather tedious. Moore uses the term commitment to refer to the enthusiastic acceptance of pleasurable duties that come as the recruit identifies the positive task of an occupation.

(d) Continues Commitment:

According to Moore, if a job proves to be satisfactory, the person will enter a fourth stage of socialisation. At this stage the job becomes an indispensable part of the person's self identity. Violation of proper conduct becomes unthinkable. A person may choose to join professional associations, unions or other groups which represent his or her occupation in the larger society.

6. Political Parties:

Political parties attempt to seize political power and maintain it. They try to win the support of the members of the society on the basis of a socio-economic policy and programme. In the process they disseminate political values and norms and socialise the citizen. The political parties socialise the citizen for stability and change of political system.

7. Mass Media:

The mass media of communication, particularly television, play an important role in the process of socialisation. The mass media of communication transmit informations and messages which influence the personality of an individual to a great extent.

In addition to this, communication media has an important effect in encouraging individuals to support the existing norms and values or oppose or change them. They are the instrument of social power. They influence us with their messages. The words are always written by someone and these people too – authors and editors and advertisers – join the teachers, the peers and the parents in the socialisation process.

To conclude, environment stimuli often determine the growth of human personality. A proper environment may greatly determine whether the social or the self-centered forces will become supreme. Individual's social environment facilitates socialisation. If his mental and physical capacities are not good, he may not be able to make proper use of environment. However, the family plays perhaps the important part in the process of socialisation.

The child learns much from the family. After family his playmates and school wield influence on his socialisation. After his education is over, he enters into a profession. Marriage initiates a person into social responsibility, which is one of aims of socialisation. In short the socialisation is a process which begins at birth and continues unceasingly until the death of individual.

Importance of Socialisation:

The process of socialisation is important from the point of view of society as well as from the point of view of individual. Every society is faced with the necessity of making a responsible member out of each child born into it. The child must learn the expectations of the society so that his behaviour can be relied upon.

He must acquire the group norms in order to take the behaviour of others into account. Socialisation means transmission of culture, the process by which men learn the rules and practices of social groups to which belongs. It is through it that a society maintain its social system, transmits its culture from generation to generation.

From the point of view of the individual, socialisation is the process by which the individual learns social behaviour, develops his self. Socialisation plays a unique role in personality development of the individual.

It is the process by which the new born individual, as he grows up, acquires the values of the group and is moulded into a social being. Without this no individual could become a person, for if the values, sentiments and ideas of culture are not joined to the capacities and needs of the human organism there could be no human mentality, no human personality.

The child has no self. The self emerges through the process of socialisation. The self, the core of personality, develops out of the child's interaction with others.

In the socialisation process the individual learns the culture as well as skills, ranging from language to manual dexterity which will enable him to become a participating member of human society.

Socialisation inculcates basic disciplines, ranging from toilet habits to method of science. In his early years, individual is also socialised with regard to sexual behaviour.

Society is also concerned with imparting the basic goals, aspirations and values to which the child is expected to direct his behaviour for the rest of his life. He learns-the levels to which he is expected to aspire.

Socialisation teaches skills. Only by acquiring needed skills individual fit into a society. In simple societies, traditional practices are handed down from generation to generation and are usually learned by imitation and practice in the course of everyday life. Socialisation is indeed an intricate process in a complex society characterised by increasing specialisation and division of work. In these societies, inculcating the abstract skills of literacy through formal education is a central task of socialisation.

Another element in socialisation is the acquisition of the appropriate social roles that the individual is expected to play. He knows role expectations, that is what behaviour and values are a part of the role he will perform. He must desire to practise such behaviour and pursue such ends.

Role performance is very important in the process of socialisation. As males, females, husbands, wives, sons, daughters, parents, children, student's teachers and so on, accepted social roles must be learned if the individual is to play a functional and predictable part in social interaction.

In this way man becomes a person through the social influences which he shares with others and through his own ability to respond and weave his responses into a unified body of habits, attitudes and traits. But man is not the product of socialisation alone. He is also, in part, a product of heredity. He generally possesses, the inherited potential that can make him a person under conditions of maturation and conditioning.

UNIT-1

Q1: what is educational psychology? Discuss its scope and aims.

MEANING AND DEFINITION OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Educational Psychology consists of two words Psychology and Education. While General Psychology is a pure science. Educational Psychology is its application in the field of education with the aim of socializing man and modifying his behavior. According to Crow and Crow Educational Psychology describes and explains the learning experiences of an individual from birth through old age.

Skinner defines Educational Psychology: as “that branch of Psychology which deals with teaching and learning”

Stephen – “Educational Psychology is the systematic study of the educational growth and development of a child.”

Judd – “Educational Psychology is the Science which explains the changes that take place in the individuals as they pass through the various stages of development.”

Peel- “Educational Psychology is the science of Education.”

Educational psychology is one of the branches of applied psychology concerned with the application of the principles, techniques and other resources of psychology to the solution of the problems confronting the teacher attempting to direct the growth of children toward defined objectives. More specifically, we can say educational psychology is concerned with an understanding of:

- The child, his development, his need and his potentialities.
- The learning situation including group dynamics as they affect learning.
- The learning processes, its nature and the ways to make it effective. Stated differently, the central theme of Educational Psychology is Psychology of learning.

SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

- ☐ a practical science.
- ☐ *any and every situation* in which psychology becomes applicable to education.
- ☐ The subject matter of educational Psychology revolves round three areas:
 - (i) The Learner
 - (ii) The learning process
 - (iii) The learning situation

A committee set up by the Department of Educational Psychology in the *American Scientific Council* has given the following areas covered by Educational Psychology:

1. Human Growth and Development:

2. Learning:

3. Personality and Adjustment:

4. Measurement and Evaluation:

5. Techniques and Methods of study:

1. Human Growth and Development:

- Heredity and environment.
- General growth and development.
- Social, mental and emotional development
- Motivation
- Individual differences on the basis of knowledge.
- Intelligence, aptitudes, interests
and

Frames programmes for guidance.

2. Learning:

- General nature of learning
- Factors influencing learning
- Motivation and devices in teaching
- Skills
- Reasoning and problem solving
- Attitude
- Learning of particular school steps
- Transfer of training.

3. Personality and Adjustment:

- Emotions
- Mental life of the pupils
- Mental health of the teacher.
- Exceptional children
- Social interaction
- Character.

4. Measurement and Evaluation:

- Measurement of intelligence and aptitudes.
- Measurement of learning
- Measurement of adjustment
- Applications on results of measurement

Measurement of changes resulting from evaluation.

5. Techniques and Methods of study:

- Scientific study of educational problems
- Statistical techniques
- Implementation of research for the class-room teacher.

AIM OF PSYCHOLOGY/EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY.

Since educational psychology concerns itself with human element in learning, its aims in the light of this definition will be.

1. To understand learning process.
2. To describe learning process.
3. To predict learning process
4. To control learning process.

Q2: what is meaning of psychology ? explain its scope.

Psychology

Psychology is an [academic](#) and [scientific](#) study of [mental processes](#) and [behavior](#). Psychologists study such concepts as [perception](#), [cognition](#), [emotion](#), [personality](#), [behavior](#), [interpersonal relationships](#), and the [individual](#) and [collective unconscious](#).

Psychology also refers to the application of such [knowledge](#) to various spheres of [human activity](#) including issues related to [daily life](#)—e.g. [family](#), [education](#), and [work](#)—and the [treatment](#) of [mental health](#) problems.

Psychology includes many sub-fields of study and application concerned with such areas as [human development](#), [sports](#), [health](#), [industry](#), [media](#), [law](#).

Psychology is the science of the intellects, characters and behavior of animals including man. Human education is concerned with certain changes in the intellects, characters and behavior of men, its problems being roughly included under these four topics: Aims, materials, means and methods.

Meaning of Psychology:

- ☐ Psyche = soul, mind.
- ☐ Logos = word, science, study, discourse.
- ☐ Psychology as the science of soul.
- ☐ Psychology as the science of mind.
- ☐ Psychology as the science of consciousness.
- ☐ Psychology as the science of behaviour.
- ☐ STUDY OF EXPERIENCE:

Psychologists study a variety of human experiences which are mainly personal or private in nature. They may range from experiences of dream, conscious experiences at different stages of life and experiences when the consciousness is altered through meditation or use of psychedelic

drugs. The study of such experiences helps the psychologist to understand the personal world of the individual.

❑ **STUDY OF MENTAL PROCESSES :**

Psychology as the study of mental processes tries to investigate the activities happening in the brain which are primarily non physiological in nature. These mental processes include perception, learning, remembering and thinking. These are internal mental activities which are not directly observed but inferred from the behavioural activities of the person. For example, we can say that somebody is thinking if he or she displays certain activities related to finding solution to a mathematical problem assigned to him or her.

❑ **STUDY OF BEHAVIOUR :**

Psychologists use human behaviour as a clue to the workings of the mind. Although we cannot observe the mind directly, everything we do, think, feel and say is determined by the functioning of the mind. So psychologists take human behaviour as the raw data for testing their theories about how the mind works.

SCOPE OF PSYCHOLOGY

- **CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY:**

Clinical psychology is the application of psychological science and research to the understanding, treatment, and assessment of health problems, particularly emotional, behavioral and mental health problems. It has traditionally been associated with psychological treatment and psychotherapy.

- **EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY:**

Educational psychology is the study of how humans learn in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, the psychology of teaching.

- **PSYCHOLOGY AND LAW:**

Together, **Forensic** psychology and Legal Psychology compose the area known as Psychology and Law.

- **HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY:**

Health psychology is the application of psychological theory and research to health, illness and health care. Health psychology is concerned with the psychology of a much wider range of health-related behavior including healthy eating, the doctor-patient relationship, a patient's understanding of health information, and beliefs about illness.

Q:3- Explain the introspection and observation methods of studying behavior ?

1. Introspection Method:

This method was introduced by EB Titchener. This is also known as self-observation method. Introspection means 'to look within'.

It is not possible to understand the inner feelings and experiences of other persons. But the individual himself can observe and report.

Example: A patient can report about his pains and other disturbances in a better way than by a nurse. He will look within himself and explain how he is feeling. This will help for a better treatment.

Merits of Introspection Method: The merits of the introspection method are given below:-

- ▶ Introspection is the easiest of all methods of educational psychology.
- ▶ It does not need any tool or laboratory as the subject and the investigator is the same.

- ▶ It is the most economical method and one which enables us to know about the mental state of an individual, i.e. his emotions and feelings.
- ▶ Introspection, as a method, has generated a lot of research and is used in almost all experimental students.

Drawbacks of Introspection Method: The drawbacks of the introspection method are given below:-

- ▶ Introspection means looking into-one's own emotions and feelings, so when one attempts to study one's mental state, it disappears and therefore it is different to introspect the changing psychological experiences.
- ▶ As the subject and investigator is same the introspection becomes subjective and biased and therefore the data may not be reliable and valid. The person may not consider certain facts.
- ▶ The introspection method cannot be done by abnormal individuals and children.
- ▶ A person should be highly trained and skilled to introspect properly.
- ▶ According to Kant, a famous scholar, it is not possible to accept conscious experience as the subject matter of psychology and then consider introspection as its proper method.

Observation Method:

This method is very useful in the areas where experiments cannot be conducted. In this method the observer will observe and collect the data. Example: In the hospital the nurse will make observation of patient's temperature, pulse, BP, facial expressions, etc.

This method is very useful to study the children, mentally ill, animals and unconscious patients. At times the observer will go to the natural settings, situations, etc. in order to get the objective data.

Because, in natural settings the person being observed will not be aware that he is being observed, his behaviour will be natural/ original. Hence, this method is also known as 'naturalistic observation' or 'objective observation' method.

Advantages of Observation:

1. Very direct method for collecting data or information – best for the study of human behavior.
2. Data collected is very accurate in nature and also very reliable.
3. Improves precision of the research results.
4. Problem of depending on respondents is decreased.
5. Helps in understanding the verbal response more efficiently.

Disadvantages of Observation:

1. Problems of the past cannot be studied by means of observation.
2. Having no other option one has to depend on the documents available.
3. Observations like the controlled observations require some especial instruments or tools for effective working, which are very much costly.
4. One cannot study opinions by this means.
5. Attitudes cannot be studied with the help of observations.

Q:4-Discuss the descriptive survey method, experimental method and clinical method of studying behaviour details?

Experimental Method:

This is the most objective way of studying the behaviour. In this method, experiments are conducted in the laboratories under controlled conditions. In experiments, usually the effect of variable is studied.

Hence, there will be three variables, viz., 1. Independent variable, 2. Dependent variable, 3. Relevant or control variable.

Examples: The effect of music on the level of blood pressure can be studied in laboratory settings. Here, the music is independent variable and the BP is dependent variable. All other sounds other than music are extraneous variables that are to be controlled, so that the effect of only music can be assessed. Similarly the effect of different drugs, food, etc. can also be studied.

Generally the following steps are followed in an experiment:

- a. Identification of the problem
- b. Formulation of hypothesis
- c. Designing the experiment
- d. Testing the hypothesis by experiment
- e. Analysis of results
- f. Interpretation of results.

Merits-

1. It is useful to its objective, precision, economy, accuracy, systematization, reliability and validity
2. it is free from bias, prejudice, and dislike of experimenter.
3. relevant variables are taken into consideration and irrelevant variables are excluded.
4. result of experimental method should be supported by other method.

Limitation of experimental method

- a-It may not be possible to control certain variables under all circumstances.
- b- during certain seasons tools and equipments are not available for all experiments.
- c- Conducting experiment is very expensive and time consuming;
- d-another feature is that the experiments cannot be conducted outside the laboratory.
- e- experimental conditions are artificial. The results are varied in natural settings.

4. Clinical Method/Case History Method:

This method is used very commonly in hospitals and also in educational settings. In hospitals, when a patient is admitted, the nurse can collect the detailed information pertaining to the disease of the patient. The information includes the past history of the disease, treatment taken already, changes if any like-improvement, present condition, probable causes, signs and symptoms, etc. This information may be

obtained from the patient, his close relatives like parents, siblings or others who accompany him or from his friends, neighbors, etc.

Merits-

1. Cause of maladjustment are detected.
2. This method is useful for clinical psychologists, psychiatrist and teacher.
3. This method helps to study the patient with mental disorder or anti-social activity.
4. It helps to study the children's problem in school like reading disability, delinquency, emotional problems, social problems etc.

5. Survey Method:

Survey method is based the reasoning that there are number of facts which are related to conditions and events and their relationship. It may also be used to know the information pertaining to medical profession—like awareness about diseases and remedial programs, malnutrition, opinions about health needs, health facilities available, etc. By help of this valid generalization is created from the collection of large sample of population, this method help to prepare premise which will solved by experimental method. This method has six sub-category.

1. Case study
2. Survey based on interviews, mail questionnaires, panel, telephone etc.
3. Development studies
4. Follow-up studies
5. Documentary analysis
6. Trend studies

Steps-

- 1- Preparation of plan to implement the survey
- 2- Tools for data collection such as interview, questionnaires, case study etc.
- 3- Defining the population and method of sample collection.
- 4- Generalization of data from survey research.

Merits-

1. Only this method helps to understand the dynamic behavior of human in mass.
2. Survey method is employed where problem solving is involved.
3. Varieties of facts collected by the use of sub category of survey research.

Q:5-Briefly comment on the limitation of educational psychology?

Limitation of educational psychology arises from the nature of teaching, science and psychology. It will help to understand to self and children

1. Limitation arising from the nature of teaching.
some times it happened that, well trained teacher are failed to provide good teaching where as untrained , those who are unknown about educational psychology are best resulted to provide teaching. Being the teaching is an art, then the aptitude of teacher is important .

2. Limitations arising from the nature of science.

Educational psychology is a part of psychology and psychology a part of science. Science is always dissimilar to popular impression, for instance, science doesn't make decision for us. It acknowledges the level of us. It doesn't support to make decision. To make a decision we have to do something behind science. This type of decision are not universal.

3. nature of psychology and limitation:

Educational psychology has all limitations of science. It has own limitation also. Psychology is not a highly integrated science. Like other science, it has no's of facts, but it can't create a definite pattern. Every science has a definite fact and no's of principle, which helps to describe and the cause is generalized and one can feel convenient. But psychology has too rich in facts but very poor in generalization.

Q:6-Describe the function of educational psychology ?How it is helpful for teachers.

Function Of Educational Psychology

- The first function is to afford a thorough knowledge of the nature of the child. By virtue of his human nature the child is composed of body and soul, capable with intellect and will destined for eternal life.
- The second function is to provide an understanding of the nature, aims, and purposes of education. For the Catholic, education is the complete formation of the whole child, the development of all his powers and capacities to enable him to fulfill life's purposes and to achieve the end for which he was created.
- The third function is to acquire familiarity with the technical vocabulary and to further an understanding and appreciation of the scientific procedures by which the data of educational psychology are obtained, leading to the development of a scientific attitude.
- The fourth function is to provide a significant knowledge of the developmental process with particular emphasis upon the promotion, guidance, and control of mental and moral aspects in order that the nature of man maybe understood and his original endowments maybe used to develop his latent possibilities.
- The fifth function is to provide an understanding of the principle governing learning, together with the knowledge of techniques for guiding improvement in learning and their application to the practical problems of the classroom. To accomplish these purposes, it is essential that the following phases be presented adequately and considered thoroughly:
 - Individual differences
 - The learning process
 - The motivation of learning
 - The factors and conditions which influence the efficiency of learning
 - Transfer of learning
 - Development of effective study habits and skills
- The sixth function is to present the theories underlying the measurement and evaluation of mental abilities, aptitudes, educational achievements, interests, and personality organization.

- To present the principles and conclusions regarding the prevention of all types of maladjustments together with the approved practices for achieving satisfactory adjustments.
- To inculcate in the prospective teacher the realization that the most essential purpose, the most important objective, and the primary consideration throughout the entire educational process from the kindergarten through the university is *character formation*.

Helping of Educational Psychology for Teachers

Teacher is like a philosopher who guides his student. He is responsible to be aware about growth and development of the students. It is educational psychology which enables the teacher to use various techniques. The importance of educational psychology and teachers has the following points:

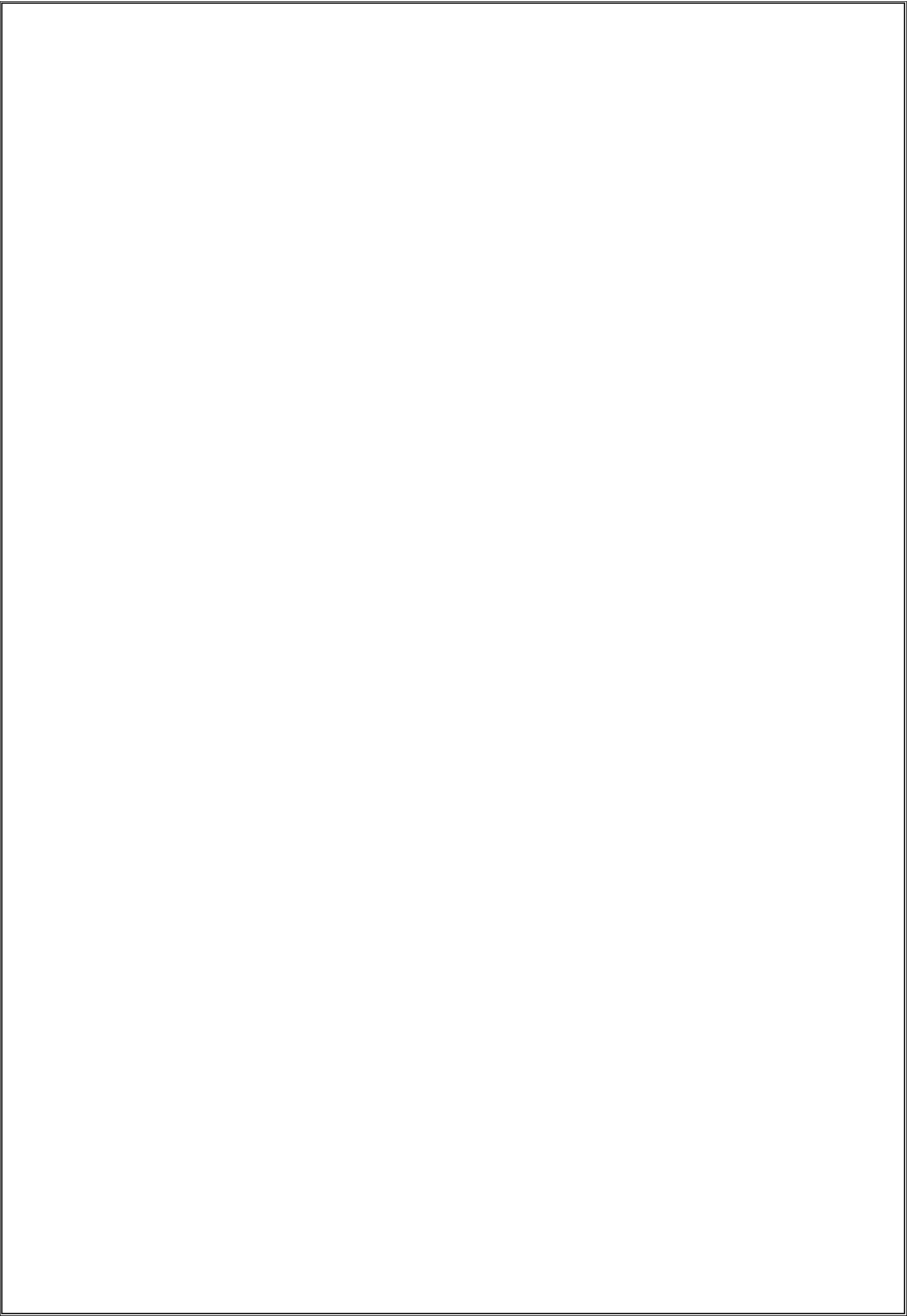
- Educational Psychology helps teacher to know that how learning takes place.
- It enables a teacher that how learning process should be initiated, how to motivate, how to memorize or learn.
- It helps teachers to guide the students in right direction in order to canalized student's abilities in right direction.
- It informs a teacher, about the nature of the learners and his potentialities.
- It helps a teacher to develop a student personality because the whole educational process is for student's personality development.
- It helps a teacher to adjust his methodologies of learning to the nature / demand of the learner.
- It enables a teacher to know the problems of individual differences and treat every student on his / her merit.
- It helps a teacher that how to solve the learning problems of a student.
- It helps a teacher that how to evaluate a students that whether the purpose of teaching & learning has been achieved.

#####EXTRA NOTE

Importance of Educational Psychology for Teachers

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- It helps a teacher that how to solve the learning problems of a student.
- It helps a teacher that how to evaluate a students that whether the purpose of teaching & learning has been achieved.



UNIT-2

Q1 :What do you mean by the term human development?Describe the physical,Social,Emotional and cognitive development patterns.

A measurement of achievements by humans through advancement of knowledge, biological changes, habit formation or other criteria that displays changes over time, is known as human development.

Development is systematic and orderly change, organisms experience as they live and either gain or lose abilities

Physical Development:

The biological change is Physical development refers to physical changes in the body and involves changes in bone thickness, size, weight, gross motor, fine motor, vision, hearing, and perceptual development. Growth is rapid during the first two years of life. The child's size, shape, senses, and organs undergo change. As each physical change occurs, the child gains new abilities. During the first year, physical development mainly involves the infant coordinating motor skills. The infant repeats motor actions which serve to build physical strength and motor coordination

Cognitive Development:

Cognitive development refers to the ways children reason (think), develop language, solve problems, and gain knowledge. Identifying colors, completing a maze, knowing the difference between one and many, and knowing how things are similar are all examples of cognitive tasks. Children learn through their senses and through their interactions with people and things in the world. They interact with the world through the senses (see, touch, hear, smell, taste), and construct meaning and understanding of the world. As children gain understanding and meaning of the world, their cognitive development can be observed in the ways they play, use language, interact with others, and construct objects and materials. As children grow and interact with their world, they go through various stages of development. Although the stages are not precisely tied to a particular age, there are characteristics that describe children at different ages. Again consider adolescence. Young people gradually acquire several substantial intellectual capacities. Compared with children, for instance, adolescents more ably think about abstract concepts such as democracy, social justice, morality, and environmental sustainability. Young people become capable of dealing with hypothetical situations and achieve the ability to monitor and control their own mental experiences and thought processes. With advancing age adults may or may not maximize resources to maintain, stabilize, or regain cognitive functioning

Emotional Development/Social-Emotional Development:

The change in individual's personality, emotions, and relationships with others (Egeland, 2007). All societies distinguish between individuals viewed as children and individuals regarded as adults, and our relationships with children are qualitatively different from the relationships we have with adults. Adolescence is a period of social redefinition in which young people undergo changes in their social roles and status. Contemporary society distinguishes between people who are "underage," or minors, and those who have reached the age of majority, or adults. Adults are permitted to drive cars, drink alcohol, serve in the military, and vote. How each of us becomes a unique adult can be seen as the result of interaction between the personal "self" and our social environment., some societies recognize adolescence or entry into adulthood through a special initiation ceremony—a rite of passage. Although we differentiate these domains of development, we do not want to lose sight of the unitary nature of the individual. Physical, cognitive, moral, and emotionalsocial factors are intertwined in every aspect of development.

Scientists are increasingly aware that what happens in any one domain depends largely on what happens in the others (Sroufe, 2007).

The expression of feelings about self, others, and things describe emotional development. Learning to relate to others is social development. Emotional and social development are often described and grouped together because they are closely interrelated growth patterns. Feelings of trust, fear, confidence, pride, friendship, and humor are all part of social-emotional development. Other emotional traits are self concept and self esteem. Learning to trust and show affection to others is a part of social-emotional development. The child's relationship to a trusting and caring adult is a foundation of emotional development and personality development. Furthermore, when a child has been neglected, rejected, and does not feel secure, he has difficulty developing skills to socialize with others.

Q:2-What are the principle of growth and development?

Q2-2 What are the Principles of Growth and development

- 1)Continuity- Growth and Development is a continues process from conception to death. development consists of changes that lead the child to maturity not only of body size and functioning, but also of behaviour.
- 2) Sequentiality - All children follow a development pattern with one stage leading to the next. Ex - Infants stand Before they walk;
- 3) Generality to Specificity -In all areas of development, general activities always precedes specific activity during the development. Development achieves a upland and this may occur at any level or between levels.
- 4)Differentiality- The pace of development is not even. Individuals differ in the rate of growth and development. Boys and girls have different development rates. Each part of the body has its own particular rate of growth. Development does not occur at an even pace. There are periods of great intensity and equilibrium and there are periods of imbalance.
- 5)Development proceeds from the head downward - Infants develop control of the head and face movements at first two months. In next few months they are able to lift themselves up by using their arms. Next gain control over leg and able to crawl, stand, walk, run, jump, climb, day by day. The child gains control of the head first, then the arms and then the legs. The head region starts growth at first, following by which other organs starts developing. This principle describes the direction of growth and development
- 6) Development proceeds from the centre of the body outward .- Fingers and toe muscles are the last to develop in physical development. The child's arms develops before the hands, the hands and feet develops before the fingers and toes. The spinal cord develops before outer parts of the body. The directional sequence of development during both prenatal and postnatal stages may either be (i) from head to foot, or (ii) from the central axis to the extremities of the body.
- 7)Development depends on maturation and learning- Children must mature to a, certain point before they can progress to new skills. Changes in the brain and nervous system account largely for maturation. And help children to improve in thinking and motor skills. The biological changes occur in sequential order and give children new abilities. Maturation refers to the sequential characteristic of biological growth and development.
- Development proceeds from the simple to more complex -Children when able to hold pencil, first starts draw circles then squares then only letters after that the words. Children at

first are able hold the big things by using both arms, In the next part able to hold things in a single hand, then only able to pick small objects like peas, cereals etc. Children use their cognitive and language skills to reason and solve problems.

- Growth is a personal matter-If we expects too much, he/she may does even less than he/she is able to do. Each child grows in his own personal manner. He/she should be permitted to grow at his/her own rate.
- Growth comes from within-Parent or teacher job is to clear the track, guide the child with loving acceptance and then relax and enjoy. One or surrounding environment can encourage or can hamper the energy of a child, but the drive force that pushes a child to grow is carried inside him

Growth has certain characteristics common at particular stages. Growth is gradual and orderly but uneven

Q:3-Explain the the major stages of development?

Physical Development :

It is a period of vital physical as well as physiological changes and evelopments. At this stage, all the external and internal body parts and organs achieve their full form and maturity.

Mental Development :

During the early adolescence period, rapid mental development occurs. These give rise to the need for later mental adjustments and the necessity for establishing new attitudes, values and interests. The adolescent is mentally alert at this stage. He not only develops not only his intellectual power but also his capacity to critical thinking.

Social Development :

It is a period of social development and adjustment. In this stage, the child enters a new field of social responsibilities. The adolescents become socially conscious, self-assertive, and loyal towards their group, they develop co-operation and friendship and become responsible.

Stage Of Emotional Development :

Traditionally adolescence has been thought of as a period of heightened emotionality resulting from glandular and other changes. The heightening is characterised by high degree of instability. The adolescents also develop dependency and sometime independency. They also develop some special feelings like - pride, humility, curiosity, guilt, hero-worshipping etc. All these emotions must be properly guided and they should be provided knowledge to control their emotions at this stage.

Sexual Development :

A number of internal and external changes take place in the sexual characteristics of the boys and the girls at the adolescence stage. At the later part of this stage they achieve sexual maturity .

Sex Problems:

We have read that all the aspects of adolescent development are basically conditioned by physical changes. The oneself of puberty gives the physical excitement never experienced before. The adolescent reacting to these experiences is excited, often without realizing what is happening to him. Some react with pleasure or excitement and some others experience shame, disgust, confusions, anxiety and guilt. They may lead to sexual maladjustment.

Emotional Problems:

Heightened emotionality is a major problem of adolescence. Adolescents experience excessive emotion and they do not have sufficient control. Violence, excitability and anger may find expression in its destructive form and may lead to law and order problems. Emotions of love, suspicion, jealousy, frustration and revengefulness are very common among adolescents. Thus emotional immaturity is a major problem of adolescence.

Social Problem:

Every society has its own customs and traditions, which it wants to maintain. Every individual has to follow these social values but often the adolescents think all these are out dated and they are not willing to obey. This leads to conflicts. Physical development has many social implications. Sexual development necessarily includes heterosexual orientation and they want to take part in social activities with the opposite sex. The denial of this desire often makes them discontented and restless. Thus, a number of social problems disturb the adolescent.

Educational Problem:

The environment of the school is also not conducive to meet the interests of the students. Defective method of teaching, curriculum, examination, repressive measures adopted by school, unattractive condition of the school campus are largely responsible for creating frustration among the students.

Problem Of Leisure:

Lack of proper recreational facilities or having nothing to do in their free time leads the adolescents to involvement in some unsocial and criminal activities. Their thoughts and attitudes may turn to be destructive and create serious problem for the society.

Q:4-What are the advantages of an organized guidance programme?

Advantages of an organized guidance programme:

According to Clowling, following are the advantages of an organized guidance programme at the school.

1. The needs of students can be accurately determined.
2. More students can be accommodated in less time with fewer staff.
3. Duplicate can be avoided.
4. Responsibility of the staff members are fixed.
5. Due to motivation and interest can be developed and facilities can be utilized more economically.
6. Students are better informed about the guidance services.
7. The activities can be organized in better way.
8. Services of a competent guidance personnel can be obtained if the system is effective and there is strength in the guidance programme.
9. The objectives are more readily attainable and the task of deciding upon and carrying out certain functions is simplified.

Basic principles of organization of a guidance programme:

Basic principle of organization should be taken into consideration for organizing of the guidance services. a few basic principles based upon:

1. Consider existing conditions and resources.
2. Flexibility principles should be followed to make appropriate changes according to the changes in the education time to time.
3. Child-centred principles should be followed.
4. Preventions should be the first concern of guidance programme.
5. Treatment service should be utilized efficiently.
6. Available resources should be utilized efficiently and intelligently.
7. All services should be organized in such a way that they may assist to develop independence in students.
8. The abilities of staff members, community agencies, parents and students should be capitalized in organizing various guidance activities and programmes.

Q:5-Describes the Guidance program organized by school for adolescents .

Guidance program organized by school for adolescents.

1. For Proper Physical Development -
 - a- Monthly health check-up by the school doctor must be done.
 - b- Scope for some manual work for every adolescent must be provided at home and at school.
 - c- Provision of various types of indoor as well as outdoor games and sports for all students in school.
 - d- Provision should be made for compulsory physical exercise at morning and evening
2. For Proper Mental Development -
 - a- Home and school atmosphere must be loving and secured.
 - b- The school must have a good library, a school debating society and in every class, a discussion group.
 - c- The guidance services available at school should provide both educational and vocational guidance to their students.
 - d- The teacher should keep an eye on every adolescent and try to fulfill his individual needs. The tutorial system must be adopted when necessary.
 - e- Different assignments should be given to the students on the basis of their intelligence and the abilities.
 - f- Yoga and meditation must be included in the school curriculum.
3. For Proper Social Development –
 - a- Excursions and field trips may be organized. These lead to informal conversations and close contact between the members of the group.
 - b- Group games, debates, seminars, conference may be organized. These will help the adolescents to participate in social activities.
 - c- The teacher should try to find out the socio - economic conditions, social interests of every adolescent and organize various activities accordingly.
 - d- The adolescents should be initiated into the standards of adult behaviour. Thus he will be trained for better future living.
 - e- They should be entrusted with jobs of responsibility at home and at school as they grow-up. Self-government may be introduced in school to develop a feeling of responsibility among the adolescents.

4. For Proper Emotional Development –

- a- Parents and teachers must be able to redirect the emotions of the adolescents in a proper manner. The adolescent must be able to control his emotions and also to repress those emotions which are not socially acceptable.
- b- Most of the adolescents accept problems of life in a negative way. They are afraid of facing difficult situations in life. Parents and teachers should encourage the adolescents and point out some of their plus points. This will restore the self-confidence of the adolescents.
- c- It should be brought into the notice of the adolescent that life is a mixture of failure and success and he must build a power of resistance to face failure in life.
- d- The adolescent has to face a large number of problems at this stage. As such, proper guidance and counseling should be provided by parents, teachers and school Guidance Counselor.
- e- The teacher should try to develop maturity of thinking within the child. The adolescent boys and girls must be allowed to discuss their emotional problems with their parents and teachers.
- f- The teacher should try to find out those students who are emotionally disturbed. They should try to solve their problems personally.

5. For Proper Sexual Development –

- a. Freedom with proper guidance must be provided to the young adolescents to make friends with the opposite sex.
- b. Proper sex education on a scientific basis should be provided by the teachers.
- c. Information about HIV and other sex related diseases should be provided on a scientific manner by the parents and teachers to the young adolescents. If necessary, teachers and parents must take help of counselors.

Q:6-Describe the principle of guidance?

PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE –

According to higher education commission

guidance services must be respect to personal difference of sufferer.

Individual pupil must be guided with highly accurate, comprehensive and continuous information about occupation and institution of higher study

Guidance for vocational study must be respect to economic status, attitude and interest of student.

Reconstruction of plans by student at different stage of education.

According to Crow and Crow:

Principles of individual differences

All-round development of individuals

Guidance is related to every aspect of life

Cooperating among persons

Guidance is a continuous & lifelong process

Guidance for all Principles of elaboration

Responsibility of teachers & parents

Flexibility Principles of evaluation

Guidance by a trained person

Principle of periodic appraisal

According to Hollies and Hollies:

The dignity of the individual is supreme.

Each individual is different from every other individual.

The primary concern of guidance is the individual, in his social setting.

The attitude & personal perceptions of the individual are the basis on which he acts.

The individual generally acts to enhance his perceived self.

The individual has the innate ability to learn.

The individual needs a continuous guidance process from early childhood through adulthood. Each individual may need the information & personalized assistance given by competent professional personnel at some time.

Q:7-What is the meaning ,nature,concept of guidance?

Or, Explain guidance for adolescent?

CHARACTERISTICS/NATURE OF GUIDANCE

It is a form of assistance given by a matured and experienced person to less matured and inexperienced person.

It is a continuous and life long process.

Choice & problem points are the distinctive concerns of guidance

It is the assistance to the individual in the process of development rather than a direction of that development

It is a organized program.

It consists of specialized services – testing, counseling, educational and vocational information, placement and follow up.

Guidance is a service meant for all

Guidance is both generalized & a specialized service

It involves the promotion of an individual's ability in self direction.

It helps an individual to recognize and use his inner resources, to set goals, to make plans to workout his own problems of development.

Guidance is an organized service & not an incidental activity of the school.

Guidance is not a branch of any discipline

Guidance has limits

Guidance is more an art than science

Guidance has its roots in the education system

Guidance is centered around the needs & aspirations of students.

SCOPE OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING –

Guidance & counselling for personal needs/problems

Guidance & counselling for physical, emotional, social, moral & marital problems

Guidance & counselling for career advancement

Guidance & counselling for educational needs/problems

Guidance & counselling for vocational, occupational & professional needs

Guidance & counselling for holistic individual development

Guidance & counselling for situational problems

PURPOSES OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

Providing the needed information & assistance

- Helping in individual to make wise choices
- Improve the understanding of self
- Facilitate the adjustment
- Helps in adapting to the changes or new environment
- Making self-sufficient & independent
- Efficient use of capabilities & talent
- Promote the optimal personal & professional development
- Balanced physical, psychological, emotional, social & spiritual growth
- Helps in overall development & to live productive life.

To provide optimum development.

Other functions of guidance and counselling...

To help individuals adjust to themselves well-being for individual.

To help individuals plan for a productive life in their social context by focusing on their assets, skills, strengths

To aid individuals in efficient decision making.

To help people understand themselves in relation to the world.

To bring about changes in the attitude.

Possibilities for further development & behavior of individuals.

NEED OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

Need s for personal development

Best use of available opportunities

Holistic personality development

Proper use of leisure time

Offering art of better living

To adapt in different stages of development

Helps in academic growth

Needs for educational/professional domain

Helps in vocational development

Facilitates an individual in the right education professional maturity

Offer help to handle educational profession

Prepares to adapt in changing professional situations

Helps in adapting to the changing concept of education

Helps to minimize indiscipline

Helps in making proper career choice & emerging challenges

To help in the development of appropriate coping straggles in order to deal with stress in a productive manner

To help students in developing positive learning habits, especially skill learning

To help in developing qualities required for a success

To help students adjusting with the new environment

To help them to develop a positive attitude towards life.

Q:8-What is the concept and nature of learning ?

Learning is derived from Word “learn” which means to discover or invent, to commit to memory and become efficient.

Literal meaning:-

The activity or process of gaining knowledge or skill by studying, practicing, being taught, or experiencing something : the activity of someone who learns.

The need arises, goal is set-up, adjustment begins, and behavioral charges take place and stabilize. This whole process is called as learning.

The process by which we come to make the responses, which will overcome the threatening stimuli, is called as learning.

Learning is concept of describing changes in the behavior which result from practice.

Definition-

Measurable and relatively permanent change in behavior through experience, instruction, or study. Whereas individual learning is selective, group learning is essentially political its outcomes depend largely on power playing in the group. Learning itself cannot be measured, but its results can be.

1. the act or experience of one that learns

2. knowledge or skill acquired by instruction or study
3. modification of a behavioral tendency by experience

concept of learning

Learning is lifelong process.

Learning is a change in behavior—better or worse.

Learning is changing of behavior.

Learning is a reconstruction, combined thinking, skill, information and appropriation in single unity process and it is characterized by flexibility.

It is a change that takes place through practice or experience, but changes due to growth or maturation are not learning.

This change in behavior must be relatively permanent, and it must last a fairly long time.

Learning as the acquisition of new response.

Learning is change in performance.

Learning as the change due to the various type of activity.

Learning as a relatively enduring change in response.

Learning involves problems solving.

Learning can never be observed directly. Changes in the performance of some bit of behavior are the indication of learning.

Learning is certainly a universal experience. Every one learns at every stage in his life.

Nature or Characteristics of learning. According to learning theory.

Thorndike's learning theory

Primary law of learning.

Law of readiness.- By readiness means the organism is ready to respond or act. This is more essential prerequisite for learning. This indicates that the animal or human being is motivated to learn.

Law of exercise-- Thorndike believed that repeated exercising of a response strengthens its connection with stimulus. This aspect refers to law of use and disuse, which explains that, anything not in use will perish. So also if the response is not repeated, its bond with stimulus gets weakened. This is also according to the statement that 'practice makes man perfect'

Law of effect- This law states that when a connection is accomplished by satisfying effect- its strength is increased. By this, Thorndike meant that the probability of its occurrence is greater.

Secondary law of learning

They are as follows:

a. Law of multiple response:

It means when a response fails to elicit a desired effect, the learner will try with new responses until the goal is reached.

b- Law of set or attitude:

Mental set or positive attitude is very important in any learning.

c. Law of associative shifting:

This is nothing but shifting of the response to a new situation which is similar to the earlier one. Because the fundamental notion is that, if a response can be kept intact through a series of changes in stimulating situation, it may finally be given to a new situation.

d. Law of prepotency of elements:

This law states that the learner is able to react in a selected way, only to the salient elements of the problem and not for other unimportant elements.

e. Law of response by analogy:

It means comparing a new situation to the previously learned one and thus giving a response by analogy.

UNIT -III

Q:1-Describe the S-R theory of learning as given by Thorndike along with its educational implication ?

E.L.Thorndike(1874-1949) was the chief exponent of the theory of connectionism or trial and error. He was an American Psychologist who conducted Stimulus - Response(S-R) theory experiment with the help of animals. Thorndike was the first to study the subject of learning systematically using standardized procedure and apparatus. All learning, according to Thorndike is the formation of bonds or connections between Stimulus- Response.

After completing no's of Experiment on chicks, cats, fish, dogs monkey and human about to know the psychology of learning. Thorndike noticed as the repetition increases the error also reduced. He marked the gradual and continuous improvement in performance over successive trials. He concluded that the direct connectionism between stimulus and response. Through the experiment, Thorndike explains that the learning is nothing but the stamping in of correct responses and stamping out of incorrect responses through trial and error

Features of Trial and Error Learning

1. Learning by trial and error is gradual process.
2. For learning to occur, the learner must be definitely motivated.
3. The learner makes random and variable response.
4. Some responses do lead to the goal (annoying response)
5. Some responses lead to the goal. (satisfying responses)
6. With the increase in number of trials the annoying responses will tend to be eliminated and the satisfying responses will be strengthened and repeated.
7. The time taken to perform the task decreases with successive trials.

Thorndike's Laws of Learning

i) Law of Readiness : - a series of responses can be chained together to satisfy some goal which will result in annoyance if blocked, The law states "When any conduction unit is ready to conduct, for it do so is satisfying. When a conduction unit is not ready to conduct. for it to conduct is annoying. When any conduction is ready to conduct, for it not to do so is annoying."

ii) Law of Effect: responses to a situation which are followed by a rewarding state of affairs will be strengthened and become habitual responses to that situation, The law states "When a modifiable connection between a stimulus and response is made and is accompanied or followed by a

satisfying state of affairs the strength of connection is increased. When a connection between stimulus and response is made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength decreases.

iii) Law of Exercise: The law states "Any response to a situation will, other things being equal, be more strongly connected with the situation in proportion to the number of times it has been connected with that situation and to the average energy and duration of the connection."

Secondary law

1. Multiple response- self created responses are enabled to guide the pupil for achieving success and learning possible.
2. Law of attitude- by the attitude one can know, what the person will do and what will satisfy or annoy. Learning is affected more in the individual if he is set to learn more or to excel.
3. Prepotency of elements.- only essential elements of problem are taken into consideration and unnecessary are not taken.
4. Response by analogy- Old experiences or acquisitions while learning a new situation, which helps to utilize common elements in the new situation as existed in a similar past situation.
5. Associative Shifting- According to this law we may get a response, of which a learner is capable, associated with any other situation to which he is sensitive

Educational Implication:

1. Thorndike's theory emphasizes the importance of motivation in learning. So learning should be made purposeful and goal directed.
2. It stresses the importance of mental readiness, meaningful practice and encouragement in the learning process.
3. The law of readiness implies that the teacher should prepare the minds of the students to be ready to accept the knowledge, skills and aptitudes before teaching the topic.
4. More and more opportunities should be given to the learners to use and repeat the knowledge they get in the classroom for effectiveness and longer custody.
5. To maintain learned connection for longer period, review of learned material is necessary.
6. The law of effect has called attention to the importance of motivation and support in learning.
7. In order to benefit from the mechanism of association in the learning process what is being taught at one situation should be linked with the past experience of the learner.

Q:2-Explain the Gestalt theory of learning as given by Kohler in details ?

GESTALT LAWS OF LEARNING:

Laws of similarity:

Grasp things which are similar. Similar ideas and experiences get associated together. An object revives another object which resembles it. Example: seeing a man & remembering an intimate friend by some resemblance in his personal appearance though never saw them together in past.

A photo reminds us of the person when it represents.

Laws of proximity:

Perceptual groups are favored according to the nearness of their respective parts. Items form groups if they are spaced together. Example Traingle & circlce

Laws of closure:

Satisfied & more stable close areas than the unclosed ones. Closed areas form in groups. Incomplete situation of perception problem is not solved. Perception possible when separate parts together in a closed perceptual figure, consisting of achieving goal.

Laws of continuity:

Experiences occurred together. Simultaneously & close succession which tends towards reviving one another. Example: Perception of ripe mango suggests idea of its sweet taste & flavor. Because this ideas are perceive together in the past.

Idea of inkpot suggest idea of pen

Idea of bat suggest idea of ball

Laws of contrasts:

Perception or an idea tends to suggest its contrary opposite. Example: Adversity reminds a person of his days of prosperity. Heat of summer suggests the cold of winter.

On the basis of above principles children should be taught tune or melody rather than separate notes. Whole dance pattern rather than steps. Simple meaningful sentences rather than discrete words.

Gestalt's Laws of learning

Cognitivist's Theory of Learning (Gestalt's Insightful Learning):

Wolfgang Kohler originated theory. Gestalt is a German word means configuration or forms or patterns. Organised whole in contrast to a collection of parts. Example: Flower is just not a total of petals, calyx, corolla, colour, fragrance but something more than that. According to gestalt the total of the parts is not equal to the whole. According to him "Learning is the organism or reorganization of behavior which arises from the interaction of a maturing organism & its environment. Insight is the perception of relationship between atleast 3 factors an agent, a goal and prevailing condition or obstacles. Its an Aha experience. Flash of understanding which comes to us all of sudden.

Idea of Theory:

Thing cannot be understood by the study of its constituent parts but only by the study of its as a totality or whole.

Gestalt theory focuses on idea of grouping. i.e. characteristics of stimuli that structure or interpret visual field or problem in a certain way.

Factors Determine Grouping (Law of organization):

Proximity: Elements grouped together according to their nearness.

Similarity: Similar items in some respect tend to be grouped together.

Closure: Elements grouped together if they complete some entity.

Simplicity: Elements tend to be organized into simple figures according to symmetry, regularity & smoothness.

This laws is explained in the context of perception & problem solving.

Q:3-Discous the operant conditioning theory of learning in details ?

SKINNERS OPERANT CONDITIONING:

Definition of Operant:

Skinner considers an operant as an act which constitutes an organisms doing something.

Definition of Operant Conditioning:

Operant conditioning refers to a kind of learning process where a response is made more probable or more frequent by reinforcement. It helps in the learning of operant behaviour, the behaviour that is not necessarily associated with a known stimulus.

Example: Raising the head, Walking about, pushing a lever etc.

Reinforcement:

The concept of reinforcement is identical to the presentation of a reward.

Definition of Reinforcer:

A reinforcer is the stimulus the presentation or removal of which increases the probability of a response being repeated.

KINDS OF REINFORCEMENT

1. Positive Reinforcers::

Positive rein forcer is any stimulus the introduction or presentation of which increases the likelihood of a particular behavior. General Examples are food, water.

2. Negative Reinforcers:

Negative reinforcer is any stimulus the removal or withdrawl of which increases the likelihood of a particular behaviour. Genreal Examples are Electric shock, A loud noise. Desired response reinforced through a suitable reinforcer in primary or secondary, positive or negative.

Process of operant conditioning response natural as well as random.

1. Shaping:

Shaping used as a successful technique for training individuals to learn difficult and complex behaviors. Introducing desirable modifications in their behaviour.

It Provides guidance and direction for behaviour change program & help in assessing effectiveness. It assist in setting goals for the behaviour of a certain student. Complex behaviour is

shaped and helps in learning difficult skills.

Example: Pigeon to dance in a particular manner,

Child learning foreign language

2. Chaining:

Chaining is the process in shaping of behaviour broken down into small steps for effective learning of a given task by providing subsequent reinforcement. A behaviour chain is a series of related behaviours each of which provide the use for the next and last that produces a reinforcers.

3. Discrimination & cueing:

It is a process of using cues and signals. Information to determine when behaviour is likely to be reinforced or punished. cues or signals may reinforce behaviour or may behaviour may punished.

4. Generalization:

Generalization is ability of an organism dealing with the perception. Response to similar stimuli. Example: child successfully subtracts four apples from nine apples after learning to subtract four oranges from nine oranges.

Nature of Operant or Instrumental Conditioning:

Operant conditioning is based on

1. Certain operations or actions.
2. Stimuli or cause for evoking a response is not always essential.
3. Subject performed acts or carried out operations were active.
4. Response is made more probable or more frequent by reinforcement.
5. Helps in learning of operant behaviour not necessarily associated with a known stimulus.

Types of learning,

1. Reward learning- It is dependent upon occurrence of a particular response.
2. Omission learning- Rewards are used to get learner to withhold a response that is not desired.
3. Escape learning—A negative reinforcement is used to increase frequency of desired response.
4. Punishment learning- the learner stops the performing an undesired response.
5. Discriminated operant theory-An operant or response is emitted in the presence of discriminative stimulus.
6. Discriminated omission learning- a response is omitted or withheld in presence of discriminative stimulus.
7. Active avoidance learning- the organism makes response in the presence of discriminative stimulus to avoid punishment.
8. Discriminated punishment of learning- the organism withhold or doesn't make an undesired response so as to avoid punishment in the presence of discriminative stimulus.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Skinner's operant conditioning theory is of great importance in teaching – learning situations. Here are a few situations:

- a) Shaping of behavior
- b) Knowledge of results
- c) Reinforcement
- d) Satisfaction

Q:4-Describes the various theories of motivation ?

Definition of Motivation

Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior, with the help of the various motivation theories discussed below, will create the circumstances that influence students to do what you want them to do.

Behavioral Views of Motivation

Operant Conditioning and Social Learning Theory:

The Effect Of Reinforcement - Skinner developed the technique of programmed instruction to make it possible for students to be reinforced for every correct response. According to Skinner, supplying the correct answer--and being informed by the program that it is the correct answer--motivates the student to go on to the next frame; and as the student works through the program, the desired terminal behavior is progressively shaped.

The Power of Persuasive Models -Social learning theorists, such as Albert Bandura, call attention to the importance of observation, imitation, and vicarious reinforcement . A student who identifies with and admires a teacher of a particular subject may work hard partly to please the admired individual and partly to try becoming like that individual. A student who observes an older brother or sister acquiring benefits from earning high grades may strive to do the same with the expectation of experiencing the same or similar benefits. A student who notices that a classmate receives praise from the teacher after acting in a certain way may decide to imitate such behavior to win similar rewards. Vicarious reinforcement and direct reinforcement can raise an individual's sense of self-efficacy for a particular task, which, in turn, leads to higher levels of motivation.

Cognitive Views of Motivation:

Cognitive views stress that human behavior is influenced by the way people think about themselves and their environment

The impact of co-operative learning on motivation:-

Cooperative structures lead students to focus on effort and cooperation as the primary basis of motivation. In a cooperative atmosphere, students are motivated out of a sense of obligation. Only a small percentage of students in any group can achieve the highest rewards and because this accomplishment must come top. When ability is the basis for motivation, competing successfully in the classroom may be seen as relevant to self-esteem, difficult to accomplish (since only a few can

succeed), and uncertain (success depends on how everyone else does. What is beneficial for the other students in the group is beneficial for the individual and vice versa. Because students in cooperative groups can obtain a desired reward.

Q:5-Discuss the meaning and nature of motivation ?

Definition of Motivation

Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior.

How to Motivate learners

Suggestions for Teaching in Your Classroom: Motivating Students to Learn

1. Use behavioral techniques to help students exert themselves and work toward remote goals.
2. Make sure that students know what they are to do, how to proceed, and how to determine when they have achieved goals.
3. Do everything possible to satisfy deficiency needs -- physiological, safety, belongingness, and esteem.
 - a. Accommodate the instructional program to the physiological needs of your students.
 - b. Make your room physically and psychologically safe.
 - c. Show your students that you take an interest in them and that they belong in your classroom.
 - d. Arrange learning experiences so that all students can gain at least a degree of esteem.
4. Enhance the attractions and minimize the dangers of growth choices.
5. Direct learning experiences toward feelings of success in an effort to encourage an orientation toward achievement, a positive self-concept, and a strong sense of self-efficacy.
 - a. Make use of objectives that are challenging but attainable and, when appropriate, that involve student input.
 - b. Provide knowledge of results by emphasizing the positive.
6. Try to encourage the development of need achievement, self-confidence, and self-direction in students who need these qualities.
 - a. Use achievement-motivation training techniques.
 - b. Use cooperative-learning methods.
7. Try to make learning interesting by emphasizing activity, investigation, adventure, social interaction, and usefulness.
8. Praise Students in Ways Big and Small:

Tie service opportunities, cultural experiences, extracurricular activities into the curriculum for extra credit or as alternative options on assignments. Have students doing Habitat for Humanity calculate the angle of the freshly cut board, count the nails in each stair and multiply the number of stairs to find the total number of nails; write an essay about their experience volunteering or their how they felt during basketball tryouts; or any other creative option they can come up with.

9. Expect Excellence:

Set high, yet realistic expectations. Make sure to voice those expectations. Set short terms goals and celebrate when they are achieved.

10. Spread Excitement Like a Virus:

Before explain the concept to students, create interested in topic. use appropriate, concrete and understandable examples to help students grasp it. For example, I love alliteration.

12. How to Motivate Students: Mix It Up

Using a variety of teaching methods caters to all types of learners. By doing this in an orderly way, you can also maintain order in your classroom. In a generic example for daily instruction, journal for 10 minutes to open class; introduce the concept for 15 minutes; discuss/group work for 15 minutes; Q&A or guided work time to finish the class. This way, students know what to expect everyday and have less opportunity to act up.

13. Assign Classroom Jobs:

With students, create a list of jobs for the week. Using the criteria of your choosing, let students earn the opportunity to pick their classroom jobs for the next week. These jobs can cater to their interests and skills.

Classroom Job Examples

- Post to the Class blog
- Update Calendar
- Moderate review games
- Pick start of class music
- Watch class pet
- Public relations officer (address people who visit class)
- Standard class jobs like Attendance, Cleaning the boards, putting up chairs, etc.

14. Hand Over Some Control:

Take an audit of your class, asking what they enjoy doing, what helps them learn, what they're excited about after class. After reviewing the answers, integrate their ideas into your lessons or guide a brainstorm session on how these ideas could translate into class.

15. Relating Lessons to Students' Lives:

Whether it is budgeting for family Christmas gifts, choosing short stories about your town, etc. students will care more if they identify themselves or their everyday lives in what they're learning.

UNIT-IV

Q:1-Discouss the spareman's two-factor theory of intelligence in details ?

Charles Spearman advanced Two-Factor Theory of intelligence in 1904. Spearman identified three types of theories on the structure of intelligence.

1. The Monarchic Theory: According to this theory, intelligence is regarded as an adaptiveness which enables a creature to adjust itself to changing environment
2. Oligarchic Theory: According to this, intellectual abilities are regarded to belong to some groups. Though, there is much correlation between abilities belonging to the same group, there is little correlation between the abilities belonging to the other groups. It holds that cognitive abilities are manifestations not of a single Commanding faculty but of a few main intellectual powers of groups of abilities. A boy may be good in Mathematics but poor in a language or vice-versa. In related subjects he does fairly well but fails in unrelated subjects.
3. Anarchic Theory:

The theory maintains that from a man's ability to do one kind of work we can infer absolutely nothing as to his ability to do another kind of works.

Spearman used factor analysis to show that intelligence consists of two parts

G-factor—represents a person's general intelligence (the ability to reason and solve problems, affecting all tasks)

S-factor—represents a person's specific mental abilities (for example, some may be better at music or be more creative)

Spearman's model implies that the objectives of psychological testing should be to measure the amount of each individual's 'g'. The g-factor runs through all abilities, and forms the basis for prediction of the individual's performance. It would be futile to measure specific factor, as each operates in only a single activity.

The two factor theory.....:

The two factor theory..... Spearman's two-factor theory of intelligence states that any cognitive performance is a function of two 'factors'-the general ability common to most cognitive performances and an ability specific to a given test.

General factor is common- all intellectual activities are primarily depend upon the general factor is common to all mental activities.

Variation in the use of specific factor-

People have varied proportions of g and s factors. g is not itself an ability, but some property of the brain that causes all forms of mental abilities to be positively correlated. The great variety of mental tests, however diverse in information content, skills, and task demands, all measure something in common, but to varying degrees.

Variation in the amount of general factor

There is only one g factor but many s factors. Every one starts with general mental ability, later specializes into one chosen field. One has to be a master of all trades and jack of one.

Tests- Some of the well-known intelligence tests are designed to measure Spearman's "g." which is a non-verbal, the positive correlation among these different task was postulated as general factor.

Limitation:

1. Small sample pack were taken for drawing inference in theory.
2. The theory doesn't account sufficiently for the types of ability which are less general than general factor but broader than specific factor.
3. Spearman admitted to end that two- factor theory couldn't meet all the observed facts.

Q:2-Give the structure of intellect as per the views of Guilford ?

Structure of Intellect (Guilford)

Structure of Intellect. It is used as an assessment tool for students. • It can determined learning disabilities as well as enrichment for gifted students. • Basically, this learning theory focuses on one's ability to think and show it visually.

Structure of Intellect • Guilford identified three fundamental components of intelligence. These were: – Contents (5 kinds) – Products (6 kinds) – Operations (5 kinds)

ability stands for a particular operation in a particular content area and results in a specific product, such as Comprehension of Figural Units or Evaluation of Semantic Implications. Guilford meant that different people seemed to pay more attention to and think more effectively about different kinds of information, such as: Visual information directly from the senses or from imaging. Auditory information directly from the senses or from images. Symbolic items such as words and symbols which generally convey some meaning.

Key Principles

1. Reasoning and problem-solving skills
2. Memory and Oppositions
3. Decision-making skills
4. Language-related skills Based on a combination of the three components of intelligences measures a wide range of abilities needed for academic success.

Implications for Education-The Structure of Intellect's philosophy is that intelligence is not fixed. Intelligence can be learnt. IQ tests implements narrow abilities where the Structure of Intelligence measures a wide variety of abilities. Need to consider all students are different.

Q:3-What is IQ ?

What Is "IQ" ?

"IQ" stands for " [Intelligence Quotient](#)".

Calculating IQs:

As originally defined, someone's IQ is equal to 100 times their **Mental Age (MA)** divided by

their **Chronological Age (CA)**.

IQ = 100 X Mental Age/Age in Years

Definition: IQ is a measure of relative intelligence determined by a standardized test. The first intelligence test was created in 1905 by [Alfred Binet](#). Binet came up with the idea of mental age when he noticed that children are increasingly able to learn difficult concepts and perform difficult tasks as they get older. Most children reach the same level of complexity at about the same time, but some children are slower reaching those levels. A 6-year-old child who can do no more than a 3-year-old has a mental age of 3. Wilhelm Stern divided the mental age by the chronological age to get a “Mental Quotient.”

Mental Age/Chronological Age = Mental Quotient

A 6-year-old able to do only what a 3-year-old can do has a Mental Quotient of .5 or $\frac{1}{2}$ (3 divided by 6). Lewis Terman later multiplied the Mental Quotient by 100 to remove the fraction and the Intelligence Quotient (IQ) was born!

Mental Age/Chronological Age X 100 = Intelligence Quotient

The 6-year-old with the Mental Quotient of $\frac{1}{2}$ has an [IQ](#) of 50.

The majority of people have an IQ between 85 and 115.

Also Known As: Intelligence Quotient

Q:4-Describe the intelligence tests in details ?

Intelligence tests can be given individually or to groups of people. The best-known individual intelligence tests are the Binet-Simon scale, the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, and the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale.

The Binet-Simon Scale:

Alfred Binet and his colleague Theodore Simon devised this general test of mental ability in 1905, and it was revised in 1908 and 1911. The test yielded scores in terms of mental age. Mental age is the chronological age that typically corresponds to a particular level of performance.

Example: A ten-year-old child whose score indicates a mental age of twelve performed like a typical twelve-year-old.

The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale:

In 1916, Lewis Terman and his colleagues at Stanford University created the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale by expanding and revising the Binet-Simon scale. The Stanford-Binet yielded scores in terms of intelligence quotients. The intelligence quotient (IQ) is the mental age divided by the chronological age and multiplied by 100. IQ scores allowed children of different ages to be compared.

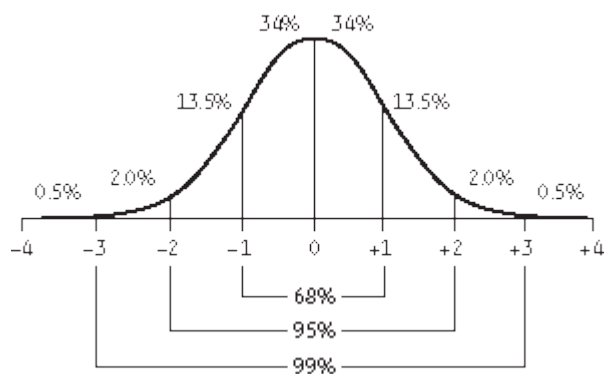
Example: A ten-year-old whose performance resembles that of a typical twelve-year-old has an IQ of 120 (12 divided by 10 times 100).

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale

David Wechsler published the first test for assessing intelligence in adults in 1939. The Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale contains many items that assess nonverbal reasoning ability and therefore depends less on verbal ability than does the Stanford-Binet. It also provides separate scores of verbal intelligence and nonverbal or performance intelligence, as well as a score that indicates overall intelligence.

The term *intelligence quotient*, or *IQ*, is also used to describe the score on the Wechsler test. However, the Wechsler test presented scores based on a normal distribution of data rather than the intelligence quotient. The normal distribution is a symmetrical bell-shaped curve that represents how characteristics like IQ are distributed in a large population. In this scoring system, the mean IQ score is set at 100, and the standard deviation is set at 15. The test is constructed so that about two-thirds of people tested (68 percent) will score within one standard deviation of the mean, or between 85 and 115.

On the Wechsler test, the IQ score reflects where a person falls in the normal distribution of IQ scores. Therefore, this score, like the original Stanford-Binet IQ score, is a relative score, indicating how the test taker's score compares to the scores of other people. Most current intelligence tests, including the revised versions of the Stanford-Binet, now have scoring systems based on the normal distribution. About 95 percent of the population will score between 70 and 130 (within two standard deviations from the mean), and about 99.7 percent of the population will score between 55 and 145 (within three standard deviations from the mean).



Group Intelligence Tests:

Individual intelligence tests can be given only by specially trained psychologists. Such tests are expensive and time-consuming to administer, and so educational institutions often use tests that can be given to a group of people at the same time. Commonly used group intelligence tests include the Otis-Lennon School Ability Test and the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test.

Biological Tests of Intelligence:

Some researchers have suggested that biological indices such as reaction time and perceptual speed relate to intelligence as measured by IQ tests:

- Reaction time: the amount of time a subject takes to respond to a stimulus, such as by pushing a button when a light is presented.
- Perceptual speed: the amount of time a person takes to accurately perceive and discriminate between stimuli. For example, a test of perceptual speed might require a person to determine which of two lines is shorter when pairs of lines flash very briefly on a screen.

UNIT-V

Q:1-Explain the meaning and nature of personality .

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

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

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

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

Lawrence A. Pewin has given a working definition of personality in these words, "Personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situations."

- (i) Personality is not related to bodily structure alone. It includes both structure and dynamics
- (ii) Personality is an indivisible unit.
- (iii) Personality is neither good nor bad.
- (iv) Personality is not a mysterious phenomenon.
- (v) Every personality is unique.
- (vi) Personality refers to persistent qualities of the individual. It expresses consistency and regularly.
- (vii) Personality is acquired.
- (viii) Personality is influenced by social interaction. It is defined in terms of behaviour.

Q:2-Describe the cattle's theory of personality along with its educational implication.(u-5)

Birth and Death:

- Raymond Cattell was born March 20, 1905.
- He died February 2, 1998.

Early Life:

Raymond Cattell was born in a small town in England and he developed an interest in science early on in life.

According to trait theory, human personality is composed of a number of broad traits or dispositions.

Raymond B. Cattell is an ardent propounded of theory of personality. According to him the basic structural element is the trait. He defined that a trait is structure of the personality inferred from behavior in different situations. He classified traits into four categories.

1. Common Traits: Certain traits which are found widely distributed in general population or among all groups are called common traits. Honesty, aggression and cooperation can be called common traits.
2. Unique Traits: These traits are possessed by particular persons, e.g., temperamental traits, emotional reactions, and energy etc.
3. Surface Traits: Traits which can be easily recognized by overt manifestation of behavior are called surface traits. These are as curiosity, integrity, honesty, tactfulness and dependability.
4. Source Traits: Source traits are the underlying structures or sources that determine the behavior of the individual. They are inferred from behavior.

The 16PF (personality factor) questionnaire is designed to assess 16 different source traits associated with "normal" behavior.

1. Abstractedness: Imaginative / practical
2. Apprehension: Worried / confident

3. Dominance: Forceful / submissive
4. Emotional Stability: Calm / high strung
5. Liveliness: Spontaneous / restrained
6. Openness to Change: Flexible / attached to the familiar
7. Perfectionism: Controlled / undisciplined
8. Privateness: Discreet / open
9. Reasoning: Abstract / concrete
10. Rule Consciousness: Conforming / non-conforming
11. Self-Reliance: Self-sufficient / dependent
12. Sensitivity: Tender-hearted / tough-minded.
13. Social Boldness: Uninhibited / shy
14. Tension: Impatient / relaxed
15. Vigilance: Suspicious / trusting
16. Warmth: Outgoing / reserved

Some other traits are

Temperament Traits : concerned with HOW a person behaves.

Motivation Traits : concerned with WHY a person behaves in a particular way. Motivations are complex and many may underlie a single behavior.

Ability Traits : how fast can a person perform some particular behavior.

Cattell's other fundamentals of human behavior.

Humans are innately driven by *ergs*.

Ergs : goals created because of sex, hunger, curiosity, anger, fear or other basic motivations which are found in both humans and higher primates.

Cattell developed his list of ergs through test data, and factor analysis.

10 ERG goals supported through research :

Food-Seeking, Mating, Gregariousness, Parental Protectiveness, Exploration, Safety, Self-Assertion, Pugnacity, Narcissistic Sex, and Acquisitiveness.

Q:3-Discuss the all Allport's Trait theory of personality alongwith it's educational Implications ?

Personality consists of a set of characteristics that reflect the behavior or habits of a person called traits.

Traits are any term used to distinguish the behavior of one human being from another.

Gordon Allport was one of the first modern trait theorists. He was interested in studying and classifying traits to understand personality. Cardinal Traits dominate a person's life, which sometimes lead to world changing personalities and effects.

Gordon W. Allport

- In the early part of the 20th century, Gordon Allport (1897-1967) developed his trait theory of personality. Allport was a psychologist and professor and is considered one of the founder's of this theory.

Trait Theory

Trait Theory states that everyone has personality traits that are consistent with the person's individuality and behavior. Allport concluded that every human being possesses hundreds of traits which can be organized into three categories:

1. Cardinal Trait
2. Central Traits
3. Secondary Traits

Cardinal Trait

Allport states that this trait is rare because most people lack a single theme that shapes their whole lives. All actions or behaviors of an individual that exhibits the cardinal trait are defined by this personality characteristic. This becomes Equal with the person and is identified by this trait. Most of the person's behaviors can be traced to it. If a cardinal trait did develop, it tended to be later in a person's life. Many historical figures can be defined this way.

- Shapes a person's sense of self, emotional make-up, attitudes, and behavior.
- Dominates an individual's complete personality.
- Thought to be quite uncommon.

Central Traits

Central traits are ones that make up our personalities. Usually five to ten traits are listed for the individual. Traits such as sensitivity, friendliness, generosity, honesty, and are all examples of central traits. These are general characteristics usually found in every person, to some degree. These would be obvious traits that would be commonly know about a person and used to describe him or her. These would be easily detected to measure and compare.

- Basic building blocks that shape most of our behavior.
- Define our personality.
- Not as overwhelming as a cardinal trait.
- Are core traits.
- These inherent in most people.
- They lay the foundation for our personalities and actions.

Secondary Traits

These traits may only be present under certain circumstances or conditions. These would be characteristics or behaviors only known by close friends. They are less important and more difficult to detect. Other people may not notice these traits unless they are close acquaintances.

- These are characteristics seen only in certain circumstances.
- They are particular likes or dislikes that only a very close friend may know.
- Preferences, attitudes, situational traits are all secondary traits.
- These traits are privately held, and often only revealed in confidence or under certain conditions.
- Examples could be food preferences, musical tastes, color choices, or reading selections,

Educational implication.

1. Emphasis on individualized education, goal of life, purpose of life, religion, prejudice etc..
2. Development of value based education.
3. Teacher and parents should be careful that not to develop the prejudices of learner.
4. Development of childhood and self concept.
5. Curriculum should be developed according to the stage of learner.
6. Individual instructional methods should be more emphasized .
7. Evaluation of learner personality is emphasized.
8. Motivation concept and goal setting by the learner should be used.
9. School environment should be healthy to develop the learner personality.

Q:4- Discouss the freud's psycho-analytical theory of personality along with its educational implication ?

Psychoanalysis means – A system of school or school of psychology, a theory of personality and a method of therapy and a technique of research.

Brief history of Freud:-

Sigmund Freud was born in Austria in 1856 of Jewish parents. He qualified himself as a doctor from Vienna in 1881.

Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality argued that human behavior was the result of the interaction of three component parts of the mind: the id, ego, and superego. His structural theory placed great importance on the role of unconscious psychological conflicts in shaping behavior and personality. Dynamic interactions among these basic parts of the mind were thought to carry human beings through five psychosexual stages of development: oral, anal, phallic, latency, and genital. Each stage required mastery for a human to develop properly and move on to the next stage successfully. Freud's ideas have since been met with criticism, mostly because of his singular focus on sexuality as the main driver of human personality development.

Freud's Structure of the Human Mind

According to Freud, the human personality was structured into three separate parts: the id, ego, and superego .

The Id

- The id was the most primitive structure, functioned unconsciously, operated on the pleasure principle, and sought instant gratification. The id is the only component of personality that is present from birth. the id is the source of all psychic energy, making it the primary component of personality.

The Ego

The ego was less primitive, functioned in partial [consciousness](#), operated with reason on the reality principle, and regulated the id by satisfying urges only when appropriate.

The Superego

The superego was the most modern structure, functioned consciously, operated on the moral principle, and regulated the id based on social learning and issues of morality.

1. The superego is the aspect of personality that holds all of our internalized moral standards and ideals that we acquire from both parents and society - our sense of right and wrong.
2. The superego provides guidelines for making judgments.
3. According to Freud, the superego begins to emerge at around age five.

The results of these internal struggles throughout childhood were thought to influence the development of adult personality and behavior.

Psychosexual Stages of Development

Freud defined five basic stages of development that he believed to be crucial in the formation of adult personality. He called his idea the psychosexual theory of development, with each stage directly related to a different physical center of pleasure. At each stage, the child is presented with a conflict between biological [drives](#) and social expectations. His/her ability to resolve these internal conflicts determined future coping and functioning ability as a fully-mature adult.

Criticism

1. It includes internal consistency
2. Male chauvinism
3. Over emphasis on sexual and unconscious motivation.
4. Freud's theory is based on concept of instinct which has been discarded now.

Educational implication

4. Freud's theory of personality guides the determination of aims and education.
5. Sexual impulses can be removed by painting, writings, handworks, indoor game, etc.
6. Reduction in the repression and regression.
7. By using psychoanalytical method fixation can be removed.
8. Unfolding the unconscious mind.
9. Methods of teaching are prepared according to basic points of personality.

Charles Spearman advanced Two-Factor Theory of intelligence in 1904. Spearman identified three types of theories on the structure of intelligence.

2. The Monarchic Theory: According to this theory, intelligence is regarded as an adaptiveness which enables a creature to adjust itself to changing environment
2. Oligarchic Theory: According to this, intellectual abilities are regarded to belong to some groups. Though, there is much correlation between abilities belonging to the same group, there is little correlation between the abilities belonging to the other groups. It holds that cognitive abilities are

manifestations not of a single Commanding faculty but of a few main intellectual powers of groups of abilities. A boy may be good in Mathematics but poor in a language or vice-versa. In related subjects he does fairly well but fails in unrelated subjects.

3. Anarchic Theory:

The theory maintains that from a man's ability to do one kind of work we can infer absolutely nothing as to his ability to do another kind of works.

Spearman used factor analysis to show that intelligence consists of two parts

G-factor—represents a person's general intelligence (the ability to reason and solve problems, affecting all tasks)

S-factor—represents a person's specific mental abilities (for example, some may be better at music or be more creative)

Spearman's model implies that the objectives of psychological testing should be to measure the amount of each individual's 'g'. The g-factor runs through all abilities, and forms the basis for prediction of the individual's performance. It would be futile to measure specific factor, as each operates in only a single activity.

The two factor theory.....:

The two factor theory..... Spearman's two-factor theory of intelligence states that any cognitive performance is a function of two 'factors'-the general ability common to most cognitive performances and an ability specific to a given test.

General factor is common- all intellectual activities are primarily depend upon the general factor is common to all mental activities.

Variation in the use of specific factor-

People have varied proportions of g and s factors. g is not itself an ability, but some property of the brain that causes all forms of mental abilities to be positively correlated. The great variety of mental tests, however diverse in information content, skills, and task demands, all measure something in common, but to varying degrees.

Variation in the amount of general factor

There is only one g factor but many s factors. Every one starts with general mental ability, later specializes into one chosen field. One has to be a master of all trades and jack of one.

Tests- Some of the well-known intelligence tests are designed to measure Spearman's "g." which is a non-verbal, the positive correlation among these different task was postulated as general factor.

Limitation:

4. Small sample pack were taken for drawing inference in theory.
5. The theory doesn't account sufficiently for the types of ability which are less general than general factor but broader than specific factor.

6. Spearman admitted to end that two- factor theory couldn't meet all the observed facts.

2.1 Jean Piaget's cognitive development

Jean Piaget's Background

Jean Piaget was born in Switzerland in 1896 and died on 19980. He was biologist, educationalist and psychologist. He published his first scientific paper “albino sparrow” on a bird, at the tender age of 10. Between the ages of 15 and 19, he published numerous papers on “SNAIL”. He got PH.D in Zoology. He observed that there is close relation between live and environment.

Piaget developed an interest in the intellectual development of children.

Intellectual process of development

Schemas - A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to **explain** and understand the world. A schema includes both a category of knowledge and the process of obtaining that knowledge.

Assimilation - The process of taking in new information into our already existing schemas is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective because we tend to modify experiences and information slightly to fit in with our preexisting beliefs. As experiences happen, this new information is used to modify, add to, or change previously existing schemas

Accommodation - Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves modifying existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

Equilibrium– **it is a process to** balance between assimilation and accommodation, which is achieved through a mechanism Piaget called equilibration. As children progress through the stages of cognitive development, it is important to maintain a balance between applying previous knowledge (assimilation) and changing behavior to account for new knowledge (accommodation). Equilibration helps explain how children can move from one stage of thought into the next.

Cognitive development (intellectual development)

Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities. In Piaget's view, early cognitive development involves processes based upon actions and later progresses to changes in mental operations.

According to psychologist Jean Piaget, children progress through a series of four critical stages of cognitive development.

- The **sensor motor** stage, from birth to age 2
- The preoperational stage, from age 2 to about age 7
- The concrete operational stage, from age 7 to 11
- The formal operational stage, which begins in adolescence and spans into adulthood.

A Look at Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

Sensorimotor Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: Birth to 2 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- The infant knows the world through their movements and sensations.
- Children learn about the world through basic actions such as sucking, grasping, looking and listening.
- Infants learn that things continue to exist even though they cannot be seen (object permanence).
- They are separate beings from the people and objects around them.
- They realize that their actions can cause things to happen in the world around them.
- Learning occurs through assimilation and accommodation.

Preoperational Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: 2 to 7 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- Children begin to think symbolically and learn to use words and pictures to represent objects.
- They also tend to be very egocentric, and see things only from their point of view.
- Children at this stage tend to be egocentric and struggle to see things from the perspective of others.
- While they are getting better with language and thinking, they still tend to think about things in very concrete terms.

Concrete Operational Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: 7 to 11 Years

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- During this stage, children begin to thinking logically about concrete events.
- They begin to understand the concept of conservation; the the amount of liquid in a short, wide cup is equal to that in a tall, skinny glass.
- Thinking becomes more logical and organized, but still very concrete.
- Begin using inductive logic, or reasoning from specific information to a general principle.

Formal Operational Stage of Cognitive Development

Ages: 12 and Up

Major Characteristics and Developmental Changes:

- At this stage, the adolescent or young adult begins to think abstractly and reason about hypothetical problems.
- Abstract thought emerges.
- Teens begin to think more about moral, philosophical, ethical, social, and political issues that require theoretical and abstract reasoning.
- Begin to use deductive logic, or reasoning from a general principle to specific information.

Freud's Structural Model

Freud believed that the human personality consisted of three interworking parts: the *id*, the *ego*, and the *superego*. According to his theory, these parts become combined as a child works through the five stages of psychosexual development. The *id*, the largest part of the mind, is related to desires and impulses and is the main source of basic biological needs. The *ego* is related to reasoning and is the conscious, rational part of the personality; it monitors behavior in order to satisfy basic desires without suffering negative consequences. The *superego*, or conscience, develops through interactions with others (mainly parents) who want the child to conform to the norms of society. The superego restricts the desires of the *id* by applying morals and values from society. Freud believed that a struggle existed between these levels of consciousness, influencing personality development and psychopathology.

The *id*, *ego*, and *superego*

Freud believed that we are only aware of a small amount of our mind's activities and that most of it remains hidden from us in our unconscious. The information in our unconscious affects our behavior, although we are unaware of it.

- Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexual development is based on the idea that parents play a crucial role in managing their children's sexual and aggressive drives during the first few years of life to foster their proper development.
- Freud's structural model posits that personality consists of three interworking parts: the *id*, the *ego*, and the *superego*.
- The five stages of Freud's psychosexual theory of development include the oral, anal, phallic, latency, and genital stages.
- According to his theory, each stage of psychosexual development must be met successfully for proper development; if we lack proper nurturing and parenting during a stage, we may become stuck in, or fixated on, that stage.
- Freud's psychosexual theory has been seriously criticized for the past few decades and is now considered largely outdated.

Psychosexual Stages of Development

For Freud, childhood experiences shape our personalities and behavior as adults. Freud viewed development as discontinuous; he believed that each of us must pass through a series of stages during childhood, and that if we lack proper nurturing and parenting during a stage, we may become stuck in, or *fixated* on, that stage. According to Freud, children's pleasure-seeking urges (governed by the *id*) are focused on a different area of the body, called an erogenous zone, at each of the five stages of development: *oral*, *anal*, *phallic*, *latency*, and *genital*.

- *Oral (0-1 years of age)*: During this stage, the mouth is the pleasure center for development. Freud believed this is why infants are born with a sucking reflex and desire their mother's breast. If a child's oral needs are not met during infancy, he or she may develop negative habits such as nail biting or thumb sucking to meet this basic need.

- *Anal (1-3 years of age)*: During this stage, toddlers and preschool-aged children begin to experiment with urine and feces. The control they learn to exert over their bodily functions is manifested in toilet-training. Improper resolution of this stage, such as parents toilet training their children too early, can result in a child who is uptight and overly obsessed with order.
- *Phallic (3-6 years of age)*: During this stage, preschoolers take pleasure in their genitals and, according to Freud, begin to struggle with sexual desires toward the opposite sex parent (boys to mothers and girls to fathers). For boys, this is called the *Oedipus complex*, involving a boy's desire for his mother and his urge to replace his father who is seen as a rival for the mother's attention. At the same time, the boy is afraid his father will punish him for his feelings, so he experiences castration anxiety. The *Electra complex*, later proposed by Freud's protégé Carl Jung, involves a girl's desire for her father's attention and wish to take her mother's place.
- *Latency (6-12 years of age)*: During this stage, sexual instincts subside, and children begin to further develop the superego, or conscience. Children begin to behave in morally acceptable ways and adopt the values of their parents and other important adults.
- *Genital (12+ years of age)*: During this stage, sexual impulses reemerge. If other stages have been successfully met, adolescents engage in appropriate sexual behavior, which may lead to marriage and childbirth.

Concept of value

Overview

Personal values can be influenced by culture, tradition, and a combination of internal and external factors. Values determine what individuals find important in their daily life and help to shape their behavior in each situation they encounter. Since values often strongly influence both attitude and behavior, they serve as a kind of personal compass for employee conduct in the workplace. Values help determine whether an employee is passionate about work and the workplace, which in turn can lead to above-average returns, high employee satisfaction, strong team dynamics, and synergy.

How Are Values Formed?

Values are usually shaped by many different internal and external influences, including family, traditions, culture, and, more recently, media and the Internet. A person will filter all of these influences and meld them into a unique value set that may differ from the value sets of others in the same culture.

Values are thought to develop in various stages during a person's upbringing, and they remain relatively consistent as children mature into adults. Sociologist Morris Massey outlines three critical development periods for an individual's value system:

- **Imprint period (birth to age seven)**: Individuals begin establishing the template for what will become their own values.
- **Modeling period (ages eight to thirteen)**: The individual's value template is sculpted and shaped by parents, teachers, and other people and experiences in the person's life.

- Socialization period (ages thirteen to twenty-one): An individual fine-tunes values through personal exploration and comparing and contrasting with other people's behavior.

Values in the Workplace

Values can strongly influence employee conduct in the workplace. If an employee values honesty, hard work, and discipline, for example, he will likely make an effort to exhibit those traits in the workplace. This person may therefore be a more efficient employee and a more positive role model to others than an employee with opposite values.

Conflict may arise, however, if an employee realizes that her co-workers do not share her values. For example, an employee who values hard work may resent co-workers who are lazy or unproductive without being reprimanded. Even so, additional conflicts can result if the employee attempts to force her own values on her co-workers.

Hiring for Values

If the managers of a business create a mission statement, they have likely decided what values they want their company to project to the public. The mission statement can help them seek out candidates whose personalities match these values, which can help reduce friction in the workplace and foster a positive work environment.

Skills-based hiring is important for efficiency and is relatively intuitive. However, hiring for values is at least as important. Because individual values have such strong attitudinal and behavioral effects, a company must hire teams of individuals whose values do not conflict with either each other's or those of the organization.

Definition of value

1. Important and lasting beliefs or ideals shared by the members of a culture about what is good or bad and desirable or undesirable. Values have major influence on a person's behavior and attitude and serve as broad guidelines in all situations. Some common business values are fairness, innovation and community involvement.
2. The monetary worth of something in areas such as accounting, economics, marketing or mathematics. See also value.
2. the amount of money that something is worth : the price or cost of something
3. : something that can be bought for a low or fair price
4. : usefulness or importance

Full Definition of VALUE

- 1: a fair return or equivalent in goods, services, or money for something exchanged
- 2: the monetary worth of something : market price

3: relative worth, utility, or importance <a good value at the price> <the value of base stealing in baseball> <had nothing of value to say>

4: a numerical quantity that is assigned or is determined by calculation or measurement <let's take on positive values> <a value for the age of the earth>

5: the relative duration of a musical note

6a : relative lightness or darkness of a color : luminosity

b : the relation of one part in a picture to another with respect to lightness and darkness

7: something (as a principle or quality) intrinsically valuable or desirable <sought material values instead of human values — W. H. Jones>

Meaning of values

Values are a person's or society's beliefs about good behavior and what things are important. Values are guiding principles that determine individual morality and conduct

A collection of guiding principles; what an individual considers to be morally right and desirable in life, especially regarding personal conduct.

Objectives of Value Education:

- a. To improve the integral growth of human beings.
- b. To create attitudes and improvement towards sustainable lifestyle.
- c. To increase awareness about our national history our cultural heritage, constitutional rights, national integration, community development and environment.
- d. To create and develop awareness about the values and their significance and role.
- e. To know about various living and non-living organisms and their interaction with environment.

Value Based Environmental Education:

Let us see how environmental education be made value-oriented:

1. Human Values:

Preparation of text-books and resource materials about environmental education can play an important role in building positive attitudes about environment. The basic human value 'man in nature' rather than 'nature for man' needs to be infused through the same.

2. Social Values:

Love, compassion, tolerance and justice which are the basic teachings of most of our religions need to be woven into environmental education. These are the values to be nurtured so that all forms of life and the biodiversity on this earth are protected.

3. Cultural and Religious Values:

These are the values enshrined in Vedas like 'Dehi me dadami te' i.e. "you give me and I give you" (Yajurveda) emphasize that man should not exploit nature without nurturing her. Our cultural customs and rituals in many ways teach us to perform such functions as would protect and nurture nature and respect every aspect of nature, treating them as sacred, are it rivers, earth, mountains or forests.

4. Ethical Values:

Environmental education should encompass the ethical values of earth-centric rather than human-centric world-view. The educational system should promote the earth-citizenship thinking. Instead of considering human being as supreme we have to think of the welfare of the earth.

5. Global Values:

The concept that the human civilization is a part of the planet as a whole and similarly nature and various natural phenomena over the earth are interconnected and inter-linked with special bonds of harmony. If we disturb this harmony anywhere there will be an ecological imbalance leading to catastrophic results.

6. Spiritual Values:

Principles of self-restraint, self-discipline, contentment, reduction of wants, freedom from greed and austerity are some of the finest elements intricately woven into the traditional and religious fabric of our country. All these values promote conservationism and transform our consumeristic approach.

Types of values

We can speak of universal values, because ever since human beings have lived in community, they have had to establish principles to guide their behavior towards others.

In this sense, honesty, responsibility, truth, solidarity, cooperation, tolerance, respect and peace, among others, are considered universal values.

However, in order to understand them better, it is useful to classify values according to the following criteria:

- **Personal values:**

These are considered essential principles on which we build our life and guide us to relate with other people. They are usually a blend of family values and social-cultural values, together with our own individual ones, according to our experiences.

- **Family values:**

These are valued in a family and are considered either good or bad. These derive from the fundamental beliefs of the parents, who use them to educate their children. They are the basic principles and guidelines of our initial behavior in society, and are conveyed through our behaviors in the family, from the simplest to the most complex.

- **Social-cultural values:**

These are the prevailing values of our society, which change with time, and either coincide or not with our family or personal values. They constitute a complex mix of different values, and at times they contradict one another, or pose a dilemma.

For example, if work isn't valued socially as a means of personal fulfillment, then the society is indirectly fostering "anti-values" like dishonesty, irresponsibility, or crime.

Another example of the dilemmas that social-cultural values may pose is when they promote the idea that "the end justifies the means". With this as a pretext, terrorists and arbitrary rulers justify violence, intolerance, and lies while claiming that their true goal is peace.

- **Material values:**

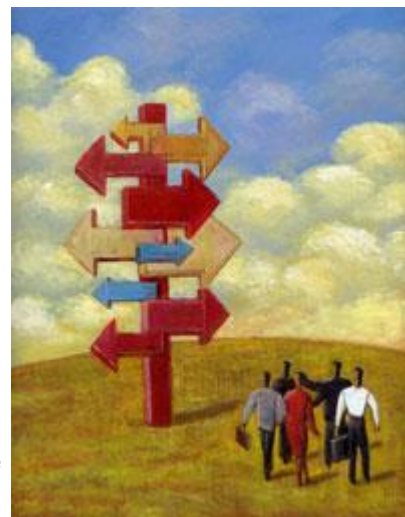
These values allow us to survive, and are related to our basic needs as human beings, such as food and clothing and protection from the environment. They are fundamental needs, part of the complex web that is created between personal, family and social-cultural values. If exaggerated, material values can be in contradiction with spiritual values.

- **Spiritual values:**

They refer to the importance we give to non-material aspects in our lives. They are part of our human needs and allow us to feel fulfilled. They add meaning and foundation to our life, as do religious beliefs.

- **Moral values:**

The attitudes and behaviors that a society considers essential for coexistence, order, and general well being.



Gender roles, gender relations, gender discrimination, gender equality, gender equity, gender analysis, gender balance, gender mainstreaming – over the past

decade, all of those terms have been accepted into declarations, plans of action, policies, programmes and projects for agriculture and rural development.

Accepted, but not always fully understood. For some, the stumbling block is the word "gender", a relatively recent concept in social science. "Gender" refers not to *male* and *female*, but to *masculine* and *feminine* - that is, to qualities or characteristics that society ascribes to each sex. People are born female or male, but learn to be women and men. Perceptions of gender are deeply rooted, vary widely both within and between cultures, and change over time. But in all cultures, gender determines power and resources for females and males.

Rural women have less access than men to productive resources, services and opportunities, such as land, livestock, financial services and education. Numerous studies underscore the social costs of rural women's lack of education and assets, linking it directly to high rates of undernutrition, infant mortality and - in some countries - HIV/AIDS infection. There are also high economic costs: wasted human capital and low labour productivity that stifle rural development and progress in agriculture, and ultimately threaten food security - both for women and men.

That is why gender has become central to FAO's new strategy for agriculture and rural development, and why understanding the terminology is so important.

Gender roles *are those behaviours, tasks and responsibilities that a society considers appropriate for men, women, boys and girls*

In some rural societies, commercial agricultural production is mainly a male responsibility. Men usually prepare land, irrigate crops, and harvest and transport produce to market. They own and trade large animals such as cattle, and are responsible for cutting, hauling and selling timber from forests.

Women and girls play an important, largely unpaid, role in generating family income, by providing labour for planting, weeding, harvesting and threshing crops, and processing produce for sale. Usually they are responsible for taking care of smaller animals.

In most societies rural women have also the primary responsibility for maintaining the household. They raise children, grow and prepare food, manage poultry, and collect fuel wood and water.

These gender roles can vary considerably depending on the geographical area, culture and other factors.

Gender relations *are the ways in which a society defines rights, responsibilities and the identities of men and women in relation to one another*

Although women make substantial contributions to agricultural production and household well-being, men largely control the sale of crops and animals and use of the income. The failure to value their work limits women's bargaining power in economic transactions, the allocation of household resources, and wider community decision-making.

Gender discrimination *is any exclusion or restriction made on the basis of gender roles and relations that prevents a person from enjoying full human rights*

Rural women suffer systematic discrimination in the access to resources needed for agricultural production and socio-economic development. Credit, extension, input and seed supply services usually address the needs of male household heads. Rural women are rarely consulted in development projects that may increase men's production and income, but add to their own workloads. When work burdens increase, girls are removed from school more often than boys, to help with farming and household tasks.

In some countries, a husband's family may take land and livestock from a woman on her husband's death, leaving her destitute. Female farm labourers' wages are lower than men's, while low-paid tasks in agro-

processing are routinely "feminized". Discrimination can descend into gender-based violence, especially during emergencies when women are isolated and vulnerable. Another form of violence is women's lack of rights to "safe sex", a major factor in the spread of HIV/AIDS in some countries.

Gender equality *is when women and men enjoy equal rights, opportunities and entitlements in civil and political life*

For FAO, gender equality is equal participation of women and men in decision-making, equal ability to exercise their human rights, equal access to and control of resources and the benefits of development, and equal opportunities in employment and in all other aspects of their livelihoods.

Gender equality makes good economic and social sense. The [FAO State of Food and Agriculture 2010-11 report](#), shows that if female farmers had the same access as male farmers to agricultural inputs and services, they could substantially increase the yields on their farms. A World Bank report concluded that reducing gender inequality leads to falling infant and child mortality, improved nutrition, higher economic productivity and faster growth. For the global community, gender equality is also a commitment, embedded in international human rights agreements and in the United Nations Millennium Development Goals.

Gender equity *means fairness and impartiality in the treatment of women and men in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities*

FAO has placed gender equity in access to resources, goods, services and decision-making among its key strategic objectives in agriculture and rural development for the next 10 years. By creating social relations in which neither of the sexes suffers discrimination, gender equity aims at improving gender relations and gender roles, and achieving gender equality.

The essence of equity is not identical treatment - treatment may be equal or different, but should always be considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. Since male predominance in the family, public policy and institutions - not only in rural areas, but worldwide - has long obscured women's interests and concerns, a key strategy for gender equity lies in women's empowerment. Development must encompass rural women's long-term needs and aspirations, their decision-making power, and their access to and control of critical resources such as land and their own labour.

Gender analysis *is the study of the different roles of women and men in order to understand what they do, what resources they have, and what their needs and priorities are*

FAO uses gender analysis to address differentiated access to and control over resources and decision-making within rural communities and households. By understanding how different members participate in and are affected by development interventions - who stands to gain and who stands to lose - gender analysis helps planners to avoid costly errors of the past and design programmes and projects that are effective, efficient and equitable.

For example, gender analysis can reveal that if weeding and harvesting crops are considered "women's tasks", a programme to increase cash crop production may add to women's burdens and provide few benefits. A better investment may be piping water to rural households, thus giving women more time for small livestock production and horticulture. In emergency projects, gender analysis differentiates between potential impacts on girls and women - such as increased risk of malnutrition - and on men and boys, who may risk recruitment into conflicts.

Gender balance *is the equal and active participation of women and men in all areas of decision-making, and in access to and control over resources and services*

The United Nations considers gender balance fundamental to the achievement of equality, development and peace. To accomplish it in agriculture and rural development, action is needed by rural communities, governments and international development agencies.

At the local level, for example, gender balance means men and women are actively involved in decision-making bodies, including those managing community facilities and infrastructure. Ministries responsible for rural development need to improve gender balance among technical and managerial staff, especially in extension work. FAO strives for gender balance by employing women among front-line staff in its development projects. FAO has trained female facilitators to pass on biological pest control measures to women farmers, built up cadres of female livestock assistants to advise women's poultry enterprises, and used female promoters to form women's groups for income-generation. Within FAO, the proportion of female professional staff has increased from less than 22% in 1994 to 38% in 2011.

Gender mainstreaming *is the globally recognized strategy for achieving gender equality*

Gender mainstreaming is defined by the United Nations as the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action in all areas and at all levels. That means making both the concerns and experiences of women and men an integral dimension of all agriculture and rural development efforts.

As part of its new strategic framework, FAO has made gender mainstreaming central to its development policies and programmes. The Organization's work now extends beyond "women's issues", into areas once considered "gender-neutral", such as agricultural science and economic policy making. Within the Organization, gender mainstreaming entails sensitizing staff to gender issues in technical and administrative work, creating accountability mechanisms, and ensuring the allocation of resources equal to the challenge.

To help steer its gender mainstreaming efforts, FAO's Director General endorsed the '[FAO Policy on Gender Equality: Attaining Food Security Goals in Agriculture and Rural Development](#)' in 2012. The policy recognizes that gender equality is central to the Organization's mandate to achieve food security for all by raising the levels of nutrition, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management and improving the lives of rural people. The policy will guide the Organization's efforts in ensuring that the issues related to gender equality and women's empowerment are fully integrated in all areas of work – food and nutrition security, agriculture and consumer protection, economic and social development, fisheries and aquaculture, forestry, natural resource management and environment and technical cooperation, knowledge exchange, research and extension.

Why Gender Equality Matters

Although gender inequality is a global issue, it is made worse by poverty and is a key factor in the persistence of poverty. When women and men do not have equal access to resources or equal opportunities to take part in decision-making, there are direct economic and social costs. These largely affect women but also have consequences for their children, communities and countries.



Limited access to resources

Inequality can impact on every aspect of life. For example, despite being responsible for between 60% and 80% of food production, women have limited access to key agricultural resources such as land, credit and new technologies. Increasing women's ownership of land or access to credit or fertiliser can result in significant gains in food production and reduce levels of hunger.

The importance of education

We know that education and poverty reduction go hand in hand. While significant progress has been made on increasing the overall number of girls and boys attending primary school, girls are still not starting or finishing primary school at the same rate as boys. In sub-Saharan Africa in particular, far fewer girls than boys go on to secondary school. Poverty and living in a rural area remain significant obstacles to girls getting an education, with lasting consequences for them, their families and society.

Access to basic healthcare

Similarly, a lack of access to basic healthcare and reproductive health services impacts severely on women and girls. Maternal mortality rates in the developing world, which give an insight into the overall level of healthcare available to women, remain unacceptably high. More than 350,000 women die each year in childbirth or from complications relating to childbirth and 99% of these deaths happen in the developing world. The vast majority of these deaths are avoidable and show why it is important to consider the different needs of men and women when working on issues such as health care.

In the workplace

Progress has been made but men still outnumber women in paid employment, business and political life. Women work two-thirds of the world's working hours and earn only 10% of the world's income. On a global level, only 20% of parliamentarians and 16% of ministers are female, although these figures are slowly rising.

Gender-based violence

Gender-based violence (GBV) is one of the most socially tolerated abuses of human rights worldwide. It is the act or threat of harm inflicted on a person because of their gender. GBV contributes hugely to poverty and ill-health worldwide and prevents many people, the vast majority of whom are women, from reaching their potential.

2.2 What is Psychosocial Development BY ERIKSON?

Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages.

Psychosocial Stage 1 - Trust vs. Mistrust

The first stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development occurs between birth and one year of age and is the most fundamental stage in life.

- This stage occurs between the ages of birth and age 18 months and is centered on developing a sense of trust in caregivers. Because an infant is Completely dependent on the service and quality of mother or caregiver, For everything that they need to survive including food, love, warmth, safety, and nurturing. Everything. If a caregiver fails to provide adequate care and love, the child will come to feel that he or she cannot trust or depend upon the adults in his or her life.
- If a child successfully develops trust, he or she will feel safe and secure in the world. Caregivers who are inconsistent, emotionally unavailable, failure to develop trust will result in fear and a belief that the world is inconsistent and unpredictable.

Psychosocial Stage 2 - Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

The second stage of Erikson's theory of psychosocial development takes place during early childhood and is focused on children developing a greater sense of personal control.

- At this point in development, children are just starting to gain a little independence. They are starting to perform basic actions on their own and making simple decisions about what they prefer. By allowing kids to make choices and gain control, parents and caregivers can help children develop a sense of independence.
- Other important events include gaining more control over food choices, toy preferences, and clothing selection.
- Success leads to feelings of autonomy, failure results in feelings of shame and doubt.

Psychosocial Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt

The third stage of psychosocial development takes place during the preschool years.

- At this point in psychosocial development, children begin to assert their environment and exert more control over their choices .
- Children who are successful at this stage feel capable and able to lead others. Those who fail to acquire these skills are left with a sense of guilt, self-doubt, and lack of initiative.
- When an ideal balance of individual initiative and a willingness to work with others is achieved, the ego quality known as **purpose** emerges.

Psychosocial Stage 4 - Industry vs. Inferiority

The fourth psychosocial stage takes place during the early school years from approximately age 5 to 11.

- Through social interactions, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments and abilities.
- Children who are encouraged and commended by parents and teachers develop a feeling of competence and belief in their skills. Those who receive little or no encouragement from parents, teachers, or peers will doubt their abilities to be successful.
- Successfully finding a balance at this stage of psychosocial development leads to the strength known as **competence** or a belief in our own abilities to handle the tasks set before us.

Psychosocial Stage 5 - Identity vs. Confusion

The fifth psychosocial stage takes place during the sometimes turbulent teenage years. This stage plays an essential role in developing a sense of personal identity which will continue to influence behavior and development for the rest of a person's life.

- During adolescence, children explore their independence and develop a sense of self.
- Those who receive proper encouragement and reinforcement through personal exploration will emerge from this stage with a strong sense of self and a feeling of independence and control.
- Success leads to the ability to form committed, lasting, and nurturing relationships with others. Young adults need to form intimate, loving relationships with other people. Success leads to strong relationships, while failure results in loneliness and isolation.

Psychosocial Stage 6 - Intimacy vs. Isolation

This stage covers the period of early adulthood when people are exploring personal relationships.

- Erikson believed it was vital that people develop close, committed relationships with other people. Those who are successful at this step will form relationships that are lasting and secure.
- Remember that each step builds on skills learned in previous steps. Erikson believed that a strong sense of personal identity was important for developing intimate relationships. In this stage those with a poor sense of self do tend to have less committed relationships and are more likely to suffer emotional isolation, loneliness, and depression.
- Successful resolution of this stage results in **love**. It is marked by the ability to form lasting, meaningful relationships with other people.

Psychosocial Stage 7 - Generativity vs. Stagnation

During adulthood, we continue to build our lives, focusing on our career and family.

- At the stage occurring during middle adulthood, people become concerned with contributing something to society and leaving their mark on the world.
- Raising a family and having a career are two key activities that contribute to success at this stage.
- Adults need to create or develop things that will longlast them, often by having children or creating a positive change that benefits other people. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in shallow involvement in the world.
- **Care** is the virtue achieved when this stage is handled successfully. Being proud of your accomplishments, watching your children grow into adults, and developing a sense of unity with your life partner are important accomplishments of this stage.

Psychosocial Stage 8 - **Integrity vs. Despair**

The final psychosocial stage occurs during old age and is focused on reflecting back on life.

The final stage of psychosocial development takes place in late adulthood and involves reflecting back on life.

Those who look back and feel a sense of satisfaction develop a sense of integrity and wisdom, while those who are left with regrets may experience bitterness and despair. Older adults need to look back on life and feel a sense of fulfillment. Success at this stage leads to feelings of wisdom, while failure results in regret, bitterness, and despair.

A barrier can be physical:

- The reading light is not bright enough.
- The room is too noisy or cold.
- There is someone in the room whose presence is affecting your concentration.
- You can hear the TV in the other room
- You can have a hearing or eye problem

A barrier can be mental/psychological:

- You were traumatized earlier in the day or life
- Two years ago your father, in a fit of anger, told you are stupid and will never amount to anything.
- You are experiencing hurt/pain from an illness or injury.
- You have a chemical imbalance. Too much sugar or not enough vegetables.

A barrier can be any thought that comes to mind:

A barrier is any thought that comes to mind when you ask you, or someone else asks you, "What's between you and comprehending this material?" Yes, any thought that comes from your mind is one of the barriers. The question must be asked over and over, perhaps two dozen times, until your answer is "Nothing comes up." several times in a row.

A barrier is an incomplete:

An incomplete is something that's floating around in your mind occupying space.

For example:

- If you stole something two years ago and haven't gotten acknowledged for stealing it then that incident is an incomplete.
- If when you were five your mom asked you if you brushed your teeth and you lied, that lie is an incomplete. It's a communication that has yet to be completed.
- If your aunt sent you a check for your birthday and you haven't thanked her, that perpetration is an incomplete.
- If your father asked you to do something and you sassied him and you have yet to acknowledge the sassing, "Dad I get that I was abusive." then that incident is hanging out, way in the back

Dalton Plan

The Dalton Plan is an educational concept created by Helen Parkhurst. Inspired by the intellectual ferment at the turn of the twentieth century, and educational thinkers such as Maria Montessori and John Dewey, Parkhurst created the Dalton Plan, aiming to achieve a balance between each child's talents and the needs of the community.

Specifically, she had these objectives: to tailor each student's program to his or her needs, interests and abilities; to promote both independence and dependability; to enhance the student's social skills and sense of responsibility toward others. Parkhurst developed a three-part plan that continues to be the structural foundation of a Dalton education—the House system, the Assignment, and the Laboratory.

The House is a social community of students.

The Assignment is a monthly larger goal which students contract to complete.

The Laboratory refers to the subject teachers and subject-based classrooms intended to be the center of the educational experience from fourth grade through the end of secondary education. Students move between subject "laboratories" (classrooms) exploring themes at their own pace.

The Dalton Plan takes its name from an early trial of the system at the High School of Dalton, Massachusetts in 1920.

According to psychologist Jean Piaget, children progress through a series of four critical stages of cognitive development. Each stage is marked by shifts in how kids understand the world. Piaget believed that children are like "little scientists" and that they actively try to explore and make sense of the world around them.

Jean Piaget was born in Switzerland in 1896. While he developed an interest early on in how people come to know the world around them, Piaget developed an interest in the intellectual development of children.

Through his observations of his children, Piaget developed a stage theory of intellectual development that included four distinct stages:

- The sensorimotor stage, from birth to age 2
- The preoperational stage, from age 2 to about age 7
- The concrete operational stage, from age 7 to 11
- The formal operational stage, which begins in adolescence and spans into adulthood.

Piaget's stage theory describes the cognitive development of children. Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities. In Piaget's view, early cognitive development involves processes based upon actions and later progresses to changes in mental operations.

A Look at Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

- The Sensorimotor Stage: During this stage, infants and kids acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects. At this point in development, a child's intelligence consists of their basic motor and sensory explorations of the world. Piaget believed that developing object permanence or object constancy, the understanding that objects continue to exist even when they cannot be seen, was an important element at this point of development.
- The Preoperational Stage: At this stage, kids learn through imagine play but still struggle with logic and taking the point of view of other people. They also often struggle with understanding the ideal of constancy. For example, a researcher might take a lump of clay, divide it into two equal pieces, and then give a child the choice between two pieces of clay to play with. One piece of clay is rolled into a compact ball while the other is

EDUCATION

Education is a process of acquisition of knowledge and experience as well as the development of skills habits and attitudes.

Education means to lead out of ignorance. Swami Vivekananda thinks education is the manifestation of divine Perfection already existing in man. Education is a triangular process. It involve the inter play of the educator. The educand and the soul force. Educator is the teacher who tries to, modify the child. The educand and the social force is an element of society which has the capability of causing a change or inference people.

DISCIPLINE

Academic discipline/field of study is a branch of knowledge that is taught and researched at College or University level.

Discipline are defined and recognized by the academic journal in which research is published and by the learned society and academic departments or facilities.

It describes type of knowledge, expertise, skill people, projects, communities problem challenged studies. Inquiry approaches and research areas that are associated with academic area of study.

For example the branches of science are commonly referred to as the scientific disciplines e.g.: physics and gravitation is strongly associated with that disciplinary knowledge.

Academic discipline have several branches or sub disciplines that leads to co-evolve with the system of professions may be said to own knowledge in particular disciplinary area.

WHY EDUCATION IS A DISCIPLINE?

To become a discipline a subject must be professional enough. A discipline has its own independent language system and its own professional techniques. It means that the discipline should have its own theory & practice.

This particular language system divide the people into two. One is the expert and the other is lay man. In medicine the expert is a doctor and in education the expert is an educationalist.

Reason for considering education as a discipline

Ø It has well defined function.

Education as a discipline has clearly defined objectives & purpose. It is for development of individual and growth of society.

Ø Its scope and subject matter is well defined.

Education as a discipline has both theoretical and practical aspect.

2.2 What is Psychosocial Development?

Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages.

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Psychosocial Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt

The third stage of psychosocial development takes place during the preschool years.

Gender roles, gender relations, gender discrimination, gender equality, gender equity, gender analysis, gender balance, gender mainstreaming – over the past decade, all of those terms have been accepted into declarations, plans of action, policies, programmes and projects for agriculture and rural development.

Accepted, but not always fully understood. For some, the stumbling block is the word "gender", a relatively recent concept in social science. "Gender" refers not to *male* and *female*, but to *masculine* and *feminine* - that is, to qualities or characteristics that society ascribes to each sex. People are born female or male, but learn to be women and men. Perceptions of gender are deeply rooted, vary widely both within and between cultures, and change over time. But in all cultures, gender determines power and resources for females and males.

Rural women have less access than men to productive resources, services and opportunities, such as land, livestock, financial services and education. Numerous studies underscore the social costs of rural women's lack of education and assets, linking it directly to high rates of undernutrition, infant mortality and - in some countries - HIV/AIDS infection. There are also high economic costs: wasted human capital and low labour productivity that stifle rural development and progress in agriculture, and ultimately threaten food security - both for women and men.

That is why gender has become central to FAO's new strategy for agriculture and rural development, and why understanding the terminology is so important.

Gender roles are those behaviours, tasks and responsibilities that a society considers appropriate for men, women, boys and girls

In some rural societies, commercial agricultural production is mainly a male responsibility. Men usually prepare land, irrigate crops, and harvest and transport produce to market. They own and trade large animals such as cattle, and are responsible for cutting, hauling and selling timber from forests.

Women and girls play an important, largely unpaid, role in generating family income, by providing labour for planting, weeding, harvesting and threshing crops, and processing produce for sale. Usually they are responsible for taking care of smaller animals.

In most societies rural women have also the primary responsibility for maintaining the household. They raise children, grow and prepare food, manage poultry, and collect fuel wood and water.

These gender roles can vary considerably depending on the geographical area, culture and other factors.

Gender relations are the ways in which a society defines rights, responsibilities and the identities of men and women in relation to one another

Although women make substantial contributions to agricultural production and household well-being, men largely control the sale of crops and animals and use of the income. The failure to value their work limits women's bargaining power in economic transactions, the allocation of household resources, and wider community decision-making.

Gender discrimination is any exclusion or restriction made on the basis of gender roles and relations that prevents a person from enjoying full human rights

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- Introduction
- Yearly Planning
- Unit Planning
- Lesson Planning
- Summary

Introduction:

Organized planning always plays a quite role in the execution of any task in our life. It not only caters to proper realization of the aims or purposes of doing that task but also helps in proper utilization of the time and energy on the part of human and material resources. It is equally true for the process of teaching-learning. The teachers who plan their work properly prove quite efficient and effective in their teaching. A subject teacher should always pay due consideration to the wise planning for his teaching and instructional work during the session. He may have three types of schemes for such planning:

1. *Year planning*
2. *Unit planning*
3. *Daily lesson planning*

What is Yearly Planning?

In yearly planning, in the teaching of a subject, the teacher tries to take complete view of what he has to do in the whole session regarding the instructional work of his subject. In this way, in the yearly plan, we mean the sessional programme that has to be chalked out by the teacher in his subject of teaching in the shape of teaching-learning activities to be carried out.

What is Unit Planning?

In this simple meaning, unit planning stands for the planning of the instructional stands for the planning of the instructional work of the session by dividing the prescribed syllabus into some well-defined and meaningful units. For more clarity, let us first define the term out. Unit has been variously defined as the following.

Herbartianism, pedagogical system of German educator [Johann Friedrich Herbart](#) (1776–1841). Herbart's educational ideas, which applied particularly to the instruction of adolescents, had a profound influence on late 19th-century [teaching](#) practices, especially in the United States, where educators established the National Herbart Society in 1895.

Herbart advocated five formal steps in teaching:

(1) preparation—a process of relating new material to be learned to relevant past ideas or memories in order to give the pupil a vital interest in the topic under consideration; by putting a few questions In general, with the help of this step, the teacher can check the students entering behavior before he starts teaching the lesson.

The following activities involved in this step

- The assumption about the previous knowledge of the students in relevance to the lesson
- The testing of the previous knowledge
- Utilizing the previous knowledge for introducing the lesson
- Motivating the students for studying the present lesson

(2) presentation—presenting new material by means of concrete objects or actual experience;

(3) association—thorough combination of the new idea through comparison with former ideas and consideration of their similarities and differences in order to implant the new idea in the mind;

(4) generalization—a procedure especially important to the instruction of adolescents and designed to develop the mind beyond the level of perception and the concrete;

(5) application—using acquired knowledge not in a purely utilitarian way but so that every learned idea becomes a part of the functional mind and an aid to a clear, vital interpretation of life. This step is presumed possible only if the student immediately applies the new idea, making it his own.

The Dalton Plan

Introduced at Ascham in 1922, the Dalton Plan is based on the theory that students learn best when they take responsibility for their own learning, supported by teachers who guide them while they mature as learners.

The Dalton Plan suits students of all abilities. Girls are taught to develop habits and practices that will enable them to make the most of their individual talents.

The Dalton Plan employs five building blocks:

1. the assignment,
2. the lesson,
3. the study,
4. corrections
5. the form class.

1. the assignment

The assignment is an online or printed document for each subject which allows students to navigate clearly through a topic. It gives an overview for the topic, lists the material to be covered in class, sets specific tasks for weekly completion and provides every student with the information needed to work independently on that topic.

2. the lesson,

Lessons are student-centred. Time is spent on some direct instruction and a variety of activities that engage students with the content and skills for the assignment and beyond. Class sizes are small to ensure individual attention and flexible timetable arrangements accommodate individual requirements.

3. the study

The study is a period that takes the place of a formal lesson and each week students must attend a required number of studies for each subject. Attendance at studies is monitored to ensure each student attends an appropriate mix of studies. Each week it is the student herself who decides when she attends studies and how she uses them. This encourages her to learn how to use her time efficiently, effectively and independently.

4. corrections

Students hand in set work every Tuesday morning. Teachers mark the work and students then make corrections. The teacher gives feedback to each student and guides the student to understand

In 1914 the whole world was in the throes of a horrible war known as the World War I.

It is so called because of its unprecedented horribleness and extensive nature. It was an inevitable consequence of the crisis in international situation towards the close of the nineteenth century.

a. Underlying Causes of the First World War:

1. in the Vienna Congress (1815) nationalism was totally disregarded consequently, potent nationalistic movements were launched everywhere in Europe.

2. sharp commercial and colonial opposition among the various European Powers started in the 19th century. This competition resulted in the opposition battle among the various European countries.

3. after union, Germany became a powerful and prosperous country and established itself as a competitor of England in the manufacture of industrial goods.

4. Germany now required colonies wherefrom it could bring raw materials and sell finished products. England and France which had already established colonies in various places of Asia and Africa considered Germany to be their rivals.

5. in the circumstances the European countries made an attempt to increase their military power. Very soon Germany became an opposition of England even in naval power. Britain and Germany were competing to have the

2.1 Jean Piaget's cognitive development

Jean Piaget's Background

Jean Piaget was born in Switzerland in 1896 and died on 19980. He was biologist, educationalist and psychologist. He published his first scientific paper “albino sparrow” on a bird, at the tender age of 10. Between the ages of 15 and 19, he published numerous papers on “SNAIL”. He got PH.D in Zoology. He observed that there is close relation between live and environment.

Piaget developed an interest in the intellectual development of children.

Intellectual process of development

Schemas - A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to **explain** and understand the world. A schema includes both a category of knowledge and the process of obtaining that knowledge.

Assimilation - The process of taking in new information into our already existing schemas is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective because we tend to modify experiences and information slightly to fit in with our preexisting beliefs. As experiences happen, this new information is used to modify, add to, or change previously existing schemas

Accommodation - Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves modifying existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

Equilibrium– **it is a process to** balance between assimilation and accommodation, which is achieved through a mechanism Piaget called equilibration. As children progress through the stages of cognitive development, it is important to maintain a balance between applying previous knowledge (assimilation) and changing behavior to account for new knowledge (accommodation). Equilibration helps explain how children can move from one stage of thought into the next.

Cognitive development (intellectual development)

Kohlberg Stages of Moral Development

Level 1 - Pre-conventional morality

At the pre-conventional level (most nine-year-olds and younger, some over nine), we don't have a personal code of morality. Instead, our moral code is shaped by the standards of adults and the consequences of following or breaking their rules.

Authority is outside the individual and reasoning is based on the physical consequences of actions.

- **Stage 1. Obedience and Punishment Orientation.** The child/individual is good in order to avoid being punished. If a person is punished, they must have done wrong.
- **Stage 2. Individualism and Exchange.** At this stage children recognize that there is not just one right view that is handed down by the authorities. Different individuals have different viewpoints.

Level 2 - Conventional morality

At the conventional level (most adolescents and adults), we begin to internalize the moral standards of valued adult role models.

Authority is internalized but not questioned and reasoning is based on the norms of the group to which the person belongs.

- **Stage 3. Good Interpersonal Relationships.** The child/individual is good in order to be seen as being a good person by others. Therefore, answers relate to the approval of others.
- **Stage 4. Maintaining the Social Order.** The child/individual becomes aware of the wider rules of society so judgments concern obeying the rules in order to uphold the law and to avoid guilt.

Level 3 - Post-conventional morality

Individual judgment is based on self-chosen principles, and moral reasoning is based on individual rights and justice. According to Kohlberg this level of moral reasoning is as far as most people get. Only 10-15% are capable of the kind of abstract thinking necessary for stage 5 or 6 (post-conventional morality). That is to say most people take their moral views from those around them and only a minority think through ethical principles for themselves.

- **Stage 5. Social Contract and Individual Rights.** The child/individual becomes aware that while rules/laws might exist for the good of the greatest number, there are times when they will work against the interest of particular individuals. The issues are not always clear cut. For example, in Heinz's dilemma the protection of life is more important than breaking the law against stealing.
- **Stage 6. Universal Principles.** People at this stage have developed their own set of moral guidelines which may or may not fit the law. The principles apply to everyone. E.g. human rights, justice and equality. The person will be prepared to act to defend these principles even if it means going against the rest of society in the process and having to pay the consequences of disapproval and or imprisonment. Kohlberg doubted few people reached this stage.

*A SUMMARY OF LAWRENCE KOHLBERG'S
STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT*

*Copyright 2000 by
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Lawrence Kohlberg was, for many years, a professor at Harvard University. He became famous for his work there beginning in the early 1970s. He started as a developmental psychologist and then moved to the field of moral education. He was particularly well-known for his theory of moral development which he popularized through research studies conducted at Harvard's Center for Moral Education.

Kohlberg defined three levels of moral development: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. Each level has two distinct stages.

Level 1: Preconventional

Throughout the preconventional level, a child's sense of morality is externally controlled. Children accept and believe the rules of authority figures, such as parents and teachers. A child with pre-conventional morality has not yet adopted or internalized society's conventions regarding what is right or wrong,

Stage 1: Obedience-and-Punishment Orientation

The first level of moral thinking is that generally found at the elementary school level. In the first stage of this level, people behave according to socially acceptable norms because they are told to do so by parent or teacher. Here child marks that there is rewarded for good and wrong is punished .

Stage 2: Instrumental Orientation

In this Stage child thinks what is is the benefit for it at each moment. Here the child has limited interest on needs of other and more on individual interest. What will be pleasant that will be the behavior . the moral judgment depends on moral judgment depends on self interest. in which right behavior is defined by whatever the individual believes to be in their best interest. An example would be when a child is asked by his parents to do a job. The child asks "what's in it for me?" and the parents offer the child an incentive by giving him an allowance.

Lawrence Kohlberg's stages of moral development constitute an adaptation of a psychological theory originally conceived by the Swiss psychologist [Jean Piaget](#). [Kohlberg](#) began work on this topic while a psychology graduate student at the [University of Chicago](#)^[1] in 1958, and expanded and developed this theory throughout his life.

The theory holds that [moral reasoning](#), the basis for [ethical](#) behavior, has six identifiable [developmental stages](#), each more adequate at responding to moral dilemmas than its predecessor.^[2] Kohlberg followed the development of moral judgment far beyond the ages studied earlier by [Piaget](#),^[3] who also claimed that logic and morality develop through constructive stages.^[2] Expanding on Piaget's work, Kohlberg determined that the process of moral development was principally concerned with justice, and that it continued throughout the individual's lifetime,^[4] a notion that spawned dialogue on the philosophical implications of such research.^{[5][6]}

The six stages of moral development are grouped into three levels: pre-conventional morality, conventional morality, and post-conventional morality.

Stages^[edit]

Kohlberg's six stages can be more generally grouped into three levels of two stages each: pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional.^{[7][8][9]} Following Piaget's constructivist requirements for a [stage model](#), as described in his [theory of cognitive development](#), it is extremely rare to regress in stages—to lose the use of higher stage abilities.^{[14][15]} Stages cannot be skipped; each provides a new and necessary perspective, more comprehensive and differentiated than its predecessors but integrated with them.^{[14][16]}

Level 1 (Pre-Conventional)

- 1. Obedience and punishment orientation

(How can I avoid punishment?)

- 2. Self-interest orientation

(What's in it for me?)

(Paying for a benefit)

Level 2 (Conventional)

- 3. Interpersonal accord and conformity

(Social norms)

(The good boy/girl attitude)

- 4. Authority and social-order maintaining orientation

(Law and order morality)

Level 3 (Post-Conventional)

- 5. Social contract orientation

- 6. Universal ethical principles

(Principled conscience)

The understanding gained in each stage is retained in later stages, but may be regarded by those in later stages as simplistic, lacking in sufficient attention to detail.

Pre-conventional^[edit]

The pre-conventional level of moral reasoning is especially common in children, although adults can also exhibit this level of reasoning. Reasoners at this level judge the morality of an action by its direct consequences. The pre-conventional level consists of the first and second stages of moral development and is solely concerned with the self in an egocentric manner. A child with pre-conventional morality has not yet adopted or internalized society's conventions regarding what is right or wrong but instead focuses largely on external consequences that certain actions may bring.^{[7][8][9]}

In **Stage one** (obedience and punishment driven), individuals focus on the direct consequences of their actions on themselves. For example, an action is perceived as morally wrong because the perpetrator is punished. "The last time I did that I got spanked, so I will not do it again." The worse the punishment for the act is, the more "bad" the act is perceived to be.^[10] This can give rise to an inference that even innocent victims are guilty in proportion to their suffering. It is "egocentric," lacking recognition that others' points of view are different from one's own.^[11] There is "deference to superior power or prestige."^[12]

An example of obedience and punishment driven morality would be a child refusing to do something because it is wrong and that the consequences could result in punishment. For example, a child's classmate tries to dare the child to skip school. The child would apply obedience and punishment driven morality by refusing to skip school because he would get punished.

Stage two (self-interest driven) expresses the "what's in it for me" position, in which right behavior is defined by whatever the individual believes to be in their best interest but understood in a narrow way which does not consider one's reputation or relationships to groups of people. Stage two reasoning shows a limited interest in the needs of others, but only to a point where it might further the individual's own interests. As a result, concern for others is not based on loyalty or [intrinsic](#) respect, but rather a "You scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours" mentality.^[13] The lack of a societal perspective in the pre-conventional level is quite different from the social contract (stage five), as all actions at this stage have the purpose of serving the individual's own needs or interests. For the stage two theorist, the world's perspective is often seen as [morally relative](#).

An example of self-interest driven is when a child is asked by his parents to do a chore. The child asks, "what's in it for me?" The parents offer the child an incentive by giving a child an allowance to pay them for their chores. The child is motivated by self-interest to do chores.

Conventional^[edit]

The conventional level of moral reasoning is typical of [adolescents](#) and adults. To reason in a conventional way is to judge the morality of actions by comparing them to society's views and expectations. The conventional level consists of the third and fourth stages of moral development. Conventional morality is characterized by an acceptance of society's conventions concerning right and wrong. At this level an individual obeys rules and follows

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Instructional objectives represent the desired change in the pupil who undergoes instruction in a lesson. There are two types of instructional objectives. They are

- 1) General Instructional Objectives
- 2) Specific Instructional Objectives

When a teacher plans a lesson, he should ask himself, "Why should I teach this lesson?" The answer to this question constitutes Instructional objectives. All instruction will result in learning which in turn bring about changes in the behavior of the learners. So the instructional objectives it means the anticipated behavior change, which is what is what the teachers expect as a result of their teaching.

1) General Instructional Objective (GIO's)

If the objectives are stated in general and vague manner, then they are called general objectives. They contain non-behavioral verb i.e. they contain non-action verb.

For example;

- i. The learner acquires knowledge of the various branches of science.
- ii. The learner develops skill in manipulating apparatus.

Here the verbs 'acquires' and 'develops' are non-action verbs which are cannot measure or observe directly, because they are in the form of inner development or passive aspect of mental activity.

Example;

The pupil,

- i. Acquires knowledge of friction
- ii. Understands various types of friction
- iii. Applies knowledge of friction in relevant unfamiliar situation
- iv. Develops skill in doing experiments
- v. Develops interest in experimenting

2) Specific Instructional Objectives (SIO's)

Meaning of Teaching Aids

As we all know that today's age is the age of science and technology. The teaching learning programmes have also been affected by it. The process of teaching - learning depends upon the different type of equipment available in the classroom.

Need of Teaching Aids

- 1) Every individual has the tendency to forget. Proper use of teaching aids helps to retain more concept permanently.
- 2) Students can learn better when they are motivated properly through different teaching aids.
- 3) Teaching aids develop the proper image when the students see, hear taste and smell properly.
- 4) Teaching aids provide complete example for conceptual thinking.
- 5) The teaching aids create the environment of interest for the students.
- 6) Teaching aids helps to increase the vocabulary of the students.
- 7) Teaching aids helps the teacher to get sometime and make learning permanent.
- 8) Teaching aids provide direct experience to the students.

Types of Teaching Aids

There are many aids available these days. We may classify these aids as follows-

. Visual Aids . Audio Aids . Audio - Visual Aids

1) **Visual Aids**

The aids which use sense of vision are called Visual aids. For example :- actual objects, models, pictures, charts, maps, flash cards, flannel board, bulletin board, chalkboard, overhead projector, slides etc. Out of these black board and chalk are the commonest ones.

2) **Audio Aids**

The aids that involve the sense of hearing are called Audio aids. For example :- radio, tape

Meaning of Teaching Aids

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Types of Teaching Aids

MICRO TEACHING

Micro-teaching

Introduction:

Micro-teaching is one of the most recent innovations in teacher education or training programme which aims at modifying teacher's behavior according to the specific objectives. It is a process of subjecting samples of human behavior to 5 R's of video tape- 'recording', 'reviewing', 'responding', 'refining', and 'redoing'. Micro-teaching is a controlled practice that makes it possible to concentrate on teaching behavior in the student-teacher training programme.

Concept of Micro-teaching:

Micro-teaching is a training concept that can be applied at the pre-service and in-service stages in the professional development of teachers. Micro-teaching provides teacher with a practice setting for instruction in which the normal complexities of class- room are reduced and in which the teacher receives a great deal of feedback on his performance. To minimize the complexities of the normal teaching encounter, several dimensions are limited. The length of the lesson is reduced. The scope of the lesson is narrowed, and the teacher teaches only a few students.

Features of Micro-teaching

1. Micro-teaching is relatively a new innovation in the field of teacher education
2. Real teaching: Micro-teaching is real teaching but focuses on developing teaching skills.
3. Scaled down teaching: Micro-teaching is a scaled down teaching:
 - (i) To reduce the class size to 5-10 pupils.
 - (ii) To reduce the duration of period to 5-10 minutes.
 - (iii) To reduce the size of the lesson.
 - (iv) To reduce the teaching skill.
4. Individualised device: Micro-teaching is a highly individualized training device.
5. Providing feed back: It provides the adequate feedback for trainee's performance.
6. Device for preparing teachers: Micro-teaching ia a device to prepare effective teachers.

Moral development is the process through which children **develop** proper attitudes and behaviors toward other people in society, based on social and cultural norms, rules, and laws. Moral development can be both positive and negative, depending on the type of influences are given to the child.

Moral development focuses on the appearance, change, and understanding of [morality](#) from infancy through adulthood. In the field of moral development, morality is defined as principles for how individuals are able to function properly in society, with respect to [justice](#), others' welfare, and [rights](#). In order to investigate how individuals understand morality, it is essential to measure their beliefs, emotions, attitudes, and behaviors that contribute to moral understanding. To develop the morality, the role of peers and parents in facilitating moral development, the role of sense of right and wrong, its values, socialization and cultural influences, sympathy and humanity, and positive development are too much important.

Kohlberg's Assumptions of moral development.

1. moral development progresses step by step.
2. it can't skip, it depends on previous development.

One must progress through the stages in order, and one cannot get to a higher stage w/o passing through the stage immediately preceding it.

- Moral development is growth, and like all growth, takes place according to a pre-determined sequence.

- Can't walk before you crawl

2. In stage development, subjects cannot realize moral reasoning at a stage more than one stage outside their own.

The rise of Nazism in Germany was the direct result of the harsh and shameful treatment meted out to Germany at the end of the First World War. Germany was not only shorn of her extensive colonial empire but also militarily crippled and economically weakened.

Germany was held responsible for all the loss and damage caused to the Allies during the war and required to pay a huge amount of money as reparation. According to Langsam, "The war and the peace settlement left Germany crushed, spiritually and materially. The Germans could not easily forget the humiliation of the 'dictate of Versailles'.

The continuing hostile attitude of France,

In view of this people of Germany did not approve of the policy pursued by the Republican Government of Germany. The youth of Germany particularly felt bitter about the complacent and cowardice attitude of the Republican leaders and aspired for a glamorous and secure future.

The Weimer Republic which bridged the years between the Hohenzollerns and the Nazis, did its level best to bring peace and prosperity in the country. With the help of the Dawes Plan it succeeded in increasing the industrial production and prosperity of the country.

It also successfully induced the Allies to evacuate those areas of Germany which were under their occupation. It also took steps to restore the sovereignty of the Reich, recovery of Danzig and correction of frontier in Upper Silesia. The problem of reparation was also resolved through Young Plan and Lausanne

Conference and Germany's liabilities were considerably lightened. Despite all these achievements the German people, specially the younger elements, were not happy with the Republican Government and continued to nourish ambitions for a glamorous and powerful Germany.

The attempt on the part of the officials to drag down the ideals and heroes of imperial Germany also greatly irritated the young students, above all the Germans were not quite happy with the way in which the democratic parliamentary system was functioning in the country.

The people still remembered the days when order and discipline prevailed in the Reichstag which was in quite contrast to the bickering and quarrel going on in the lower house of the republic, people felt that only a strong man could restore prosperity and prestige to Germany.

The need Environmental awareness

It is essential to make the public aware of the formidable consequences of the Environmental Degradation. If these are not addresses and reformative measures undertaken, the extinction of life is inevitable. We are facing various environmental challenges as discussed below:

- **Growing Population** A population of over thousands of millions is growing. Over 17 million people are added each year. It puts considerable pressure on its natural resources and reduces the gains of development. Hence, the greatest challenge before us is to limit the population growth. Although population control does automatically lead to development, yet the development leads to a decrease in population growth rates.
- **Poverty** India has often been described a rich land with poor people. Poverty and environmental degradation have a nexus between them. The vast majority of our people are directly dependent on the natural resources of the country for their basic needs of food, fuel, shelter and fodder.
- Environment degradation has adversely affected the poor who depend upon the resources of their immediate surroundings. Thus, the challenge of poverty and the challenge of environment degradation are two facets of the same challenge.
- Population growth is essentially a function of poverty. Because, to the very poor, every child is an earner and helper and global concerns have little relevance for him.
- **Agricultural Growth** People must be acquainted with the methods to sustain and increase agricultural growth without damaging the environment. High yielding varieties have cause soil salinity and damage to physical structure of soil.
- **Need for Ground water** It is essential to rationalize the use of groundwater. Factors like community wastes, industrial effluents and chemical fertilizers and pesticides have polluted our surface water and affected quality of the groundwater. It is essential to restore the water quality of our rivers and other water bodies as lakes. Deciding on suitable technologies for restoring the quality of groundwater aquifers is essential.
- **Development And Forests** Forests serve catchments for the rivers. The increasing demand of water, led to using rivers for irrigation projects. These caused forests to submerge and displacement of local people apart from damaging the local flora and fauna.
- Forests in India have been shrinking for several centuries owing to pressures of agriculture and other uses. Vast areas that were once green, stand today as wastelands. These areas are to be brought back under vegetative cover. The tribal communities inhabiting forests respects the trees and birds and animal that gives them sustenance. We must recognize the role of these people in restoring and conserving forests.
- The modern knowledge and skills of the forest department should be integrated with the traditional knowledge and experience of the local communities. The strategies for the joint management of forests should be evolved in a well planned way.
- **Degradation of land** A small portion of land possesses potential for production. Agricultural land suffers from varying degrees of soil degradation. Land degradation mainly occurs due to overgrazing and soil erosion due to wind and water.
- **Reduction of Genetic Diversity** Proper measures to conserve genetic diversity need to be taken. At present most wild genetic stocks have been disappearing from nature. Wild animals including the Asiatic Lion are facing problem of loss of genetic diversity. The protected areas network like sanctuaries, national parks, biosphere reserves are isolating populations. So, they are decreasing chances of one group breeding with another. Remedial steps are to be taken to check decreasing genetic diversity.
- **Evil Consequences of Urbanisation** Nearly 27 per cent Indians live in urban areas. Urbanisation and industrialisation has given birth to a great number of environmental problem that need urgent attention. Over 30 percent of urban Indians live in slums. Out of India's 3,245 towns and cities, only 21 have partial or full sewerage and treatment facilities. Hence, coping with rapid urbanization is a major challenge.
- **Air and water Pollution:** Majority of our industrial plants are using outdated and population technologies and makeshift facilities devoid of any provision of treating their wastes. A great number of cities and industrial areas that have been identified as the worst in terms of air and water pollution. Acts are enforced in the country, but their implementation is not easy. The reason is their implementation needs great resources, technical expertise, political and social will. Again the people are to be made aware of these rules. Their support is indispensable to implement these rules.

- **OPERANT CODITIONING**

- Definition of Learning.
- Definition of Operant Conditioning.
- Respondent and Operant behaviour.
- Skinner' s Experimental Box.
- Reinforcement.
- Schedules of Reinforcement.
- Educational Implications.
- Different between Classical and Operant Conditioning.
- Definition of Programmed Learning.
- Principles of Programmed Learning.
- Types of Programmed Learning.
- Check List.

=====

Definition No: 1

Learning is a process that results in permanent change in behavior or behavior potentially and is based on experience practice

Definition No: 2

Learning is a change in the individual following upon changes in his environment .

OPERANT CONDITIONING

Definition No:1

Operant Conditioning is the learning process whereby a response is made more probable or more frequent and operant is strengthened i.e. reinforced.

Definition No:2

ALL INDIA B.Ed Academy, Balipatna,khordha,odisha

(Regd. Under Gitarani Educational and Social Trust. Regn. No-41091200169/2012
(Affiliated to KASHMIR UNIVERSITY & KURUKHETRA UNIVERSITY/ACHARYA
NAGARJUN & ANDHRA UNIVERSITY)

photo

No. _____

Dated ____/____/ ____

ADMISSION FORM

Form No.....: List No.....: S.No. in the list.....: Admitted on.....

Name (in capitals)

Father (in capitals)

Mother (in capital).....

Religion Caste..... Sex.....

Date of BirthAge (in complete years)

Permanent address:

At..... Po Dist.....

Pin code PhoneFax No.....

Educational Qualifications:

| Exam Passed | Year/ Session | Roll No | Marks | Percentage (%) | University |
|--------------------|------------------|---------|-------|-------------------|------------|
| B.A/B.Sc/ B.Com | | | | | |
| M.A/M.Sc/ M.Com | | | | | |
| Any Other | | | | | |

Subjects to be studied in B.Ed (other than foundation courses):

1. 1. Teaching subjects: (a).....(b).....

2. 2. Optional subjects:.....

Declarations:

1. I solemnly declare that the information given above is correct and nothing has been concealed.

2. I also declare on oath that I will abide by the rules and regulations of the College and will be personally responsible for any breach of discipline whatsoever.

Admitted

Sig. of Adm. In-charge

Sig. of the applicant

The Dalton Plan

Introduced at Ascham in 1922, the Dalton Plan is based on the theory that students learn best when they take responsibility for their own learning, supported by teachers who guide them while they mature as learners.

The Dalton Plan suits students of all abilities. Girls are taught to develop habits and practices that will enable them to make the most of their individual talents.

The Dalton Plan employs five building blocks:

1. the assignment,
2. the lesson,
3. the study,
4. corrections
5. the form class.

1. the assignment

The assignment is an online or printed document for each subject which allows students to navigate clearly through a topic. It gives an overview for the topic, lists the material to be covered in class, sets specific tasks for weekly completion and provides every student with the information needed to work independently on that topic.

2. the lesson,

Lessons are student-centred. Time is spent on some direct instruction and a variety of activities that engage students with the content and skills for the assignment and beyond. Class sizes are small to ensure individual attention and flexible timetable arrangements accommodate individual requirements.

3. the study

The study is a period that takes the place of a formal lesson and each week students must attend a required number of studies for each subject. Attendance at studies is monitored to ensure each student attends an appropriate mix of studies. Each week it is the student herself who decides when she attends studies and how she uses them. This encourages her to learn how to use her time efficiently, effectively and independently.

4. corrections

Students hand in set work every Tuesday morning. Teachers mark the work and students then make corrections. The teacher gives feedback to each student and guides the student to understand

- What is a “Method”?
- a procedure or process for attaining an object: as
 - a (1) : a systematic procedure, technique, or mode of inquiry employed by or proper to a particular discipline or art (2) : **a systematic plan followed in presenting material for instruction**
 - b (1) : **a way, technique, or process of or for doing something** (2) : a body of skills or techniques

Teaching Method

- Objective oriented activities and flow of information between teachers and students

play way method

Children love to play and it is their natural instinct. The play-way method was conceived by Friedrich Wilhelm August Froebel, who is also the father of the Kindergarten method. 'Play' according to Froebel is the work of the children. It is 'the purest, the most spiritual, and product of man at this stage.'

There is a theory, which states that a child understands his needs and goals while playing. So it is very important to teach children with the play way method. It has been proved that maximum amount of learning results while playing games. While playing games the environment is very relaxed, this makes learning interesting and fun. This is the most desirable method of learning for kids. The informal and free atmosphere gives the kids a chance to learn concepts, ideas, math and even language. Toys can sometimes be the root of mathematical concepts. Thus, in the play way methodology toys and apparatus like checkers, magic squares, Puzzles and building blocks are used to make teaching and learning a memorable experience for the learners.

ATI's Pre and Primary Course incorporate the principles and methodologies based on the Play Way Method. The Teachers training makes the trainee teachers aware of the salient features of this method linking play and literacy effectively.

project method

The **project method** is a medium of instruction which was introduced during the 18th century into the schools of architecture and engineering in Europe when graduating students had to apply the skills and knowledge they had learned in the course of their studies to problems they had to solve as practitioners of their trade ..

Social studies is important because it teaches students fundamental concepts of culture, economics and politics skills to groom them into educated, productive citizens. Social studies centers around understanding how the world works on a social level.

Understanding the many facets of society and how it runs is essential for all grade levels of students from elementary through college. Social studies is a broad category that includes important aspects of the many different parts of the humanities and social sciences; it is important for every person to have a basic understanding of key concepts that have molded modern society.

Learning the basic history of government and economic structure is necessary to inform future voters. Social studies are also important for teaching students basic values, such as justice and equality, which are the foundation of modern society. For very young students, social studies are often based around being a good member of the community at the local level. For example, the early levels talk about neighborhood relationships, social responsibility in terms of recycling and helping others, and then understanding how the individual affects the group. A good understanding of how history has influenced the modern world gives people knowledge that they can apply to other subjects and everyday life

Socialisation: The Meaning, Features, Types, Stages and Importance

Every society is faced with the necessity of making a responsible member out of each child born into it. The child must learn the expectations of the society so that his behaviour can be relied upon. He must acquire the group rule. The society must socialise each member so that his behaviour will be meaningful in terms of the group rule. In the process of socialisation the individual learns the reciprocal responses of the society.

Socialisation is a processes with the help of which a living organism is changed into a social being. It is a process through which the younger generation learns the adult role which it has to play subsequently. It is a continuous process in the life of an individual and it continues from generation to generation.

Meaning of Socialisation:

The newborn is merely an organism. Socialisation makes him responsive to the society. He is socially active. He becomes a 'Purusha' and the culture that his group inculcates in him, humanises him, and makes him 'Manushya'. The process indeed, is endless. The cultural pattern of his group, in the process gets incorporated in the personality of a child. It prepares him to fit in the group and to perform the social roles. It sets the infant on the line of social order and enables an adult to fit into the new group. It enables the man to adjust himself to the new social order.

Socialisation stands for the development of the human brain, body, attitude, behaviour and so forth. Socialisation is known as the process of inducting the individual into the social world. The term socialisation refers to the process of interaction through which the growing individual learns the habits, attitudes, values and beliefs of the social group into which he has been born.

From the point of view of society, socialisation is the way through which society transmits its culture from generation to generation and maintains itself. From the point of view of the individual, socialisation is the process by which the individual learns social behaviour, develops his 'self'.

Socialisation is a comprehensive process. According to Horton and Hunt, Socialisation is the process whereby one internalises the norms of his groups, so that a distinct 'self emerges, unique to this individual.

Through the process of socialisation, the individual becomes a social person and attains his personality. Green defined socialisation "as the process by which the child acquires a cultural content, along with selfhood and personality".

What is Society (short type)

Individual is the basic component of society. The interaction of individuals with each other gives birth to group. The social groups interact with each other and develop relationships with each other, leads to a society. The players in football or other games came together is not a society, but just an aggregate of people. Within the society there are patterns and groupings on the basis of likeness and differences. "Likeness" creates a chain of relations among the individuals having similarity in one or more conditions' like same profession, same residence, same caste, family and kinship, college, age, sex etc."

Consciousness of kind is developed and the people of similar interests are joined together resulting in the formation of various groups and categories. Without difference in cultural conditions of a society the human life would have been monotonous and probably limited in which little change is predictable. The system of give and take relationship creates reciprocal roles in human life. These differences lead to variety of human behaviors and social division of labor; the process of specialization is developed. Man is dependent on society for basic needs satisfaction i.e. food, protection, education, etc. There are societies on local as well as on national levels.

Meaning of Society

This term has been derived from a Latin word 'socius' that means association or companionship. Thus society means 'A larger group of individuals, who are

Specific objectives

- To create among young people an understanding of the environmental impacts due to human behaviour and lifestyle
- To provide young people knowledge and skills of eco-citizens
- To enable young people to be actively involved in environmental protection
- To give primary and secondary teachers effective pedagogical information, sufficient knowledge as well as up-to-date resources and tools for environmental education

Aims & Objectives of environmental education:-

The objectives of environmental education is to increase public awareness about environmental issues, explore possible solutions, and to lay the foundations for a fully informed and active participation of individual in the protection of environment and the prudent and rational use of natural resources. The resolutions provide the following guiding principles for environmental education:

- The environment as a common heritage of mankind.
- The common duty of maintaining, protecting & improving the quality of environment, as a contribution to the protection of human health and safeguarding the ecological balance;
- The need for a prudent and rational utilisation of resources;
- The way in which each individual can, by his own behavior and action, contribute to the protection of environment;
- The long-term aims of environmental education are to improve management of environment and provide satisfactory solutions to environmental issues.
- Provide opportunities to acquire the knowledge, values, attitudes, commitment and skills needed to protect and improve the environment.
- Encourage pupils to examine and interpret the environment from a variety of perspectives- physical, geographical, biological, sociological, economic, political, technological, historical, esthetic and ethical.
- Arouse pupil's awareness and curiosity about the environment and encourage active participation in resolving environmental problems.

Definition:

A teaching aid is a tool used by the teacher as a facilitator to the process of teaching and learning inside the classroom. It is one of the means by which we, as teachers bring life into the theoretical texts by bringing environment inside the classroom indirectly. Also, it is a means of personification to the concrete texts in the students' books. The final purpose remains as a means of relating teaching with the environment that students live in and communicate with.

Why we need teaching aids:

- 1) They help to retain more concept permanently.
- 2) Students learn better when motivated properly through different teaching aids.
- 3) They develop the proper image when the students see, hear taste and smell
- 4) They provide complete example for conceptual thinking.
- 5) They create the environment of interest for the students.
- 6) They help to increase the vocabulary of the students.
- 7) They help the teacher to get sometime and make learning permanent.
- 8) They provide direct experience to the students.

Importance :

1) Motivation

Teaching aids motivate the students so that they can learn better.

2) Clarification

Through teaching aids , the teacher clarify the subject matter more easily.

3) Discouragement of Cramming

Teaching aids can facilitate the proper understanding to the students which discourage the act of cramming.

4) Increase the Vocabulary

Teaching aids helps to increase the vocabulary of the students more effectively.

5) Saves Time and Money

Teaching through using aids takes a shorter time than traditional teaching that depends on lecturing and more repetition from the side of the teacher. There will be no need to re-explain the lesson once more, as the learners have learnt the content through using all their senses and emotion. Here, money is saved.

6) Classroom Live and active

Teaching aids make the classroom live and active.

7) Avoids Dullness

Teaching aids make the lesson interesting and the learners more interested. Learners see the set-book text pictures and photographs speaking and acting.

8) Direct Experience

Teaching aids provide direct experience of great experts to the learners. ([Back](#))

1. LECTURE METHOD

A lecture is an oral presentation of information by the instructor. It is the method of relaying factual information which includes principles, concepts, ideas and all *THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE* about a given topic. In a lecture the instructor tells, explains, describes or relates whatever information the trainees are required to learn through listening and understanding. It is therefore teacher-centred. The instructor is very active, doing all the talking. Trainees on the other hand are very

TECHNOLOGY ASSISTED LEARNING:

Any large learning of material can never assure good learning. This can only be achieved when instructional resources are used skillfully and creatively. They should be used for two main reasons.

- 1 To provide first hand experience with some aspects of the problem under consideration.
- 2 To add realism and furnish the class with a common background of experience.

- Computer.
- CD ROMs.
- Over head projects.
- Television.
- Films and filmstrips.
- Video tapes.
- Internet websites blogs etc.

Internet is a powerful factor in learning since attention is the task, at hand making for interesting achievement.

TEACHING AIDS: Teaching aids are aid to teaching social studies effectively. Teacher has a variety of aids to choose to makes his teaching interesting and effective. It helps in teaching different types of learners (visual, auditory, kinesthetic and tactile)

Printed aids: Books, news papers, periodicals

Visual aids: Slides, charts, diagrams, film strips, sketches- models, transparency graphs and charts pictorial material, globes, maps, exhibitions, museums- bulletin boards, excursion.

Audio- visual aids: Motion pictures, television, dramatization, role play.

Why are they important in teaching?

Audio aids, Tapes, CDs, phonographs discs, radio.

EVELUATION:

TYPES OF EVALUATION:

Formative evaluation,
Evaluation done prior to any program,
Objective, Evaluation includes objective types of tests.
Subjective evaluation test items are mostly descriptive.

Summative evaluation

“According to NCERT Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which an objective is being attained, the effectiveness of the learning experiences provided in the class room and how well the goals of education have been accomplished”.

PURPOSE OF EVALUATION PROGRAMME:

STEPS IN EVALUATION:

Objective
Learning experience
Evaluation techniques

- 1) Grading students.
- 2) Maintaining standards.
- 3) To check effectiveness of the school programme and the teacher's performance.
- 4) To give appropriate guidance to students'.
- 5) To motivate students.
- 6) To improve teaching programme.

Freud's Structural Model

Freud believed that the human personality consisted of three interworking parts: the *id*, the *ego*, and the *superego*. According to his theory, these parts become combined as a child works through the five stages of psychosexual development. The *id*, the largest part of the mind, is related to desires and impulses and is the main source of basic biological needs. The *ego* is related to reasoning and is the conscious, rational part of the personality; it monitors behavior in order to satisfy basic desires without suffering negative consequences. The *superego*, or conscience, develops through interactions with others (mainly parents) who want the child to conform to the norms of society. The superego restricts the desires of the *id* by applying morals and values from society. Freud believed that a struggle existed between these levels of consciousness, influencing personality development and psychopathology.

The *id*, *ego*, and *superego*

Freud believed that we are only aware of a small amount of our mind's activities and that most of it remains hidden from us in our unconscious. The information in our unconscious affects our behavior, although we are unaware of it.

- **Sigmund Freud's theory of psychosexual development is based on the idea that parents play a crucial role in managing their children's sexual and aggressive drives during the first few years of life to foster their proper development.**
- **Freud's structural model posits that personality consists of three interworking parts: the *id*, the *ego*, and the *superego*.**
- **The five stages of Freud's psychosexual theory of development include the oral, anal, phallic, latency, and genital stages.**
- **According to his theory, each stage of psychosexual development must be met successfully for proper development; if we lack proper nurturing and parenting during a stage, we may become stuck in, or fixated on, that stage.**
- **Freud's psychosexual theory has been seriously criticized for the past few decades and is now considered largely outdated.**

Psychosexual Stages of Development

For Freud, childhood experiences shape our personalities and behavior as adults. Freud viewed development as discontinuous; he believed that each of us must pass through a series of stages during childhood, and that if we lack proper nurturing and parenting during a stage, we may become stuck in, or *fixated* on, that stage. According to Freud, children's pleasure-seeking urges (governed by the *id*) are focused on a different area of the body, called an erogenous zone, at each of the five stages of development: *oral*, *anal*, *phallic*, *latency*, and *genital*.

The Three Parts of a Mager Performance-Based Learning Objective

According to Mager, a learning objective should ideally include the following three components:

- **A performance** (performed by the learner, remember)
- **Conditions** (under which the learner shall perform the performance)
- **Criteria** (by which the performance is evaluated by another)

Performance

In Mager's words, the objective must specify "what learners must be able to DO or PERFORM when they demonstrate mastery of an objective." So, as we've said before, the key is the learner must do something.

But you've got to be careful when you're writing an objective so that you write a performance that you can somehow observe, and you must tell the learner how their performance will be evaluated. Or, as Mager puts it, "the most important and indispensable characteristic of a useful objective is that it describes the kind of performance that will be accepted as evidence that the learner has mastered the objective."

1. *Be able to write a news article.*

THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE

There are different theories about intelligence, none of which agree with each other. Every approach to thinking comes up with its own different perspective and assumptions, often contradicting at least one earlier theory.

1. Faculty theory:

It is the oldest theory regarding the nature of intelligence and flourished during 18th and 19th century. According to this theory, mind is made up of different faculties like reasoning, memory, discrimination, imagination, etc. These faculties are independent of each other and can be developed by vigorous training. Faculty Theory had been under criticism by experimental psychologists who disproved the existence of independent faculties in the brain.

CONCEPT

One factor/UNI factor theory: It reduces all abilities to a single capacity of general intelligence or 'common sense'. This would imply that they are all perfectly correlated, and would make no allowance for the unevenness of people i.e. abilities along different lines. Since it goes against the common observation that "an individual does possess different levels of different abilities and does not shine equally in all directions"—it has no ground to stand.

2. Spearman's two-factor theory

It was developed in 1904 by an English Psychologist, Charles Spearman, who proposed that intellectual abilities were comprised of two factors: one general ability or common ability known as 'G' factor and the other a group of specific abilities known as 'S' factor.

CONCEPT

- '**G' factor** is universal inborn ability. Greater 'G' in an individual leads to greater success in life.
- '**S' factor** is acquired from the environment. It varies from activity to activity in the same individual.

3. Thorndike's multifactor theory

Thorndike believed that there was nothing like General Ability. Each mental activity requires an aggregate of different set of abilities.

Various Approaches of Lesson Planning

1. Pre-operational stage:

At the stage a child begins to construct sentences. He learns to respond to the external world by means of symbols. He does not view his world as composed of Constants, Properties of objects; do not remain invariant for him.

He does not have concept of conservation and is prepared by perception. Preoperational children cannot understand Science and mathematics concepts unless they do activities with concrete objects several times by their own hands.

2. Formal operational stage:

At this stage a child exhibits the ability to form hypotheses and deduce possible results from these hypotheses. He can think in terms of all possible combinations for a given problem and he can function at an abstract level without. The necessity of perceiving the objects.

Formal operation children can understand Science concepts even without doing activities with concrete objects by their own hands. It implies from Piaget's work that at primary school level most of the children will be either at pre-operational stage and very few will be a formal operational stage.

Therefore majority of primary school children will be unable to understand Science concepts and skills without working with concrete objects. Therefore, manipulating the objects, observing and performing experiments are very essential for primary school children in order to learn science.

3. Concrete operational stage:

At this stage a child begins to structure basic ideas of conservation in the sense that certain properties of objects remain invariant. At this stage a child must have real objects upon which to operate both physically and mentally. The child can organise data from objects which are present in his immediate environment but he cannot formulate generalizing hypotheses or concrete operational children cannot understand Science and Mathematics concepts unless they do activities with concrete objects at least once by their own hands.

4. Sensory- Motor Periods:

Mostly activities and no thought highly dependent on parents for satisfying its physical needs- not self conscious limited linguistic ability and so mainly performs overt activities. The gains of this stage may be stated as follows-

i. Variety is available patterns of action, the growing recognition of symbols, rudimentary projecting of time, as well as increased accommodation stress the internal aspects of the child's prospective behaviour.

WHAT IS DISCIPLINE?

Discipline is the required action by a teacher toward a student (or group of students), after the student's behavior disrupts the ongoing educational activity or breaks a preestablished rule created by the teacher, the school administration or the general society. Discipline, guiding children's behavior, or setting limits are all concerned with helping children learn how to take care of themselves, other people, and the world around them.

Discipline is a major component of education because

if the teacher does not maintain the discipline in

the classroom, the teaching and learning process cannot be accomplished. It is a first step in creating a learning environment.

as socialization agents, teachers have to teach their students which behaviors are expected in which situations. Hence, through their own actions and reactions, teachers transmit the messages to children about their expectations for proper behavior in particular situations.

To be successful in the classroom,

teachers need a well planned, individual approach to discipline.

they must understand various theories of discipline and the assumptions on which they are based,

they must understand their own values and educational philosophy and

they must make an approach to discipline that is in harmony with their beliefs. If you believe in something and do something, else, you will experience personal conflict and you also confuse your students.

What is sustainable development

According to the WCED, this is "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." Sustainable development implies economic growth together with the protection of environmental quality, each reinforcing the other. The essence of this form of development is a stable relationship between human activities and the natural world, which does not diminish the prospects for future generations to enjoy a quality of life at least as good as our own. Many observers believe that participatory democracy, undominated by vested interests, is a prerequisite for achieving sustainable development (Source: Mintzer, 1992)

"Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

The concept of sustainable development can be interpreted in many different ways, but at its core is an approach to development that looks to balance different, and often competing, needs against an awareness of the environmental, social and economic limitations we face as a society.

All too often, development is driven by one particular need, without fully considering the wider or future impacts. We are already seeing the damage this kind of approach can cause, from large-scale financial crises caused by irresponsible banking, to changes in global climate resulting from our dependence on fossil fuel-based energy sources. The longer we pursue unsustainable development, the more frequent and severe its consequences are likely to become, which is why we need to take action now.

In 1987, the Brundtland Commission published its report, *Our Common Future*, in an effort to link the issues of economic development and environmental stability. In doing so, this report provided the oft-cited definition of sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (United Nations General Assembly, 1987, p. 43). Albeit somewhat vague, this concept of sustainable development aims to maintain economic advancement and progress while protecting the long-term value of the environment; it "provides a framework for the integration of environment policies and development strategies" (United Nations General Assembly, 1987). However, long before the late 20th century, scholars argued that there need not be a trade-off between environmental sustainability and economic development.

Need

1. We can't end poverty without tackling inequality

Aptitude: Meaning, Assumptions and Nature

Meaning of Aptitude:

In the present situation aptitude is confined to the potentialities for the future. An aptitude isn't an ability rather a special ability. But it helps to predict the probable development of certain abilities. An aptitude isn't inborn. It is a combination of in-born capacities and developed abilities and skills etc. Such combinations of in born capacities and acquired abilities make the person what he is at any given time and predicts what he may become.

"An aptitude is a condition or set of characteristics regarded as symptomatic of an individual's ability to acquire with training some knowledge and skill onset of responses such as the ability to speak a language or to practice music etc." —Warren

"Aptitude is a present condition which is indicative of an individual's potentialities for the future." —Traxler

"Aptitude is a measure of the probable rate of learning which results in interest and satisfaction and is relatively specific and narrow." —Van Dunsen

"Aptitude has been defined by Jones as, "A measure of the probability of the success of an individual, with training in a certain type of situation-a job, in school or in such activities as playing the violin or learning a language." —Jone S

So aptitude test or tests of special ability predicts about an individual whether he will be successful in a particular area or field if trained. It is the present ability of an individual to perform a special work successfully.

Assumptions Regarding Concept of Aptitude:

Bingham states that the concept of aptitude lies in three assumptions:

ADVERTISEMENTS:

- (i) An individual's potentialities are not equally strong.
- (ii) Individuals differ from one another in their potentialities.
- (iii) Many of these differences are stable.

Nature of Aptitudes:

Aptitude is vested with the following nature of it:

ADVERTISEMENTS:

1. An aptitude is a unique combination of abilities and personality characteristics which predisposes a person to do one kind of work better than another and increases his chances of success at it.
2. An aptitude is not a unitary trait of human personality.

3. An aptitude is largely acquired though in many cases. It is inborn in nature.

Aptitude tests guide

What is an aptitude test and what does it measure?

Aptitude tests are designed to measure your work-related cognitive capacity. The concept behind these tests is that each test question has only one correct answer, and everyone can correctly solve all the test questions. The only difference between people is in how quickly they can correctly complete the test (i.e. answer all the test questions). That's why these tests are always timed. The time is defined in such a way that only 1% to 5% of the population can correctly solve all the test questions within the allowed time frame.

What do aptitude tests measure? These tests measure what psychologists refer to as your fluid and crystallised intelligence. The theory of fluid and crystallised intelligence suggests that people's intelligence is composed of a number of different abilities that interact and work together to produce overall individual intelligence.

Fluid intelligence is the ability to think and reason abstractly and solve problems. It's more commonly known as 'street smarts' or the ability to 'quickly think on your feet'. This ability is considered independent of learning, past experience, and education. Examples of the use of fluid intelligence include coming up with problem-solving strategies, ability to quickly learn new skills, ability to quickly integrate new information, strategic thinking, etc. The aptitude test that measures your fluid intelligence is called abstract reasoning.

The second component of intelligence that the aptitude tests measure is crystallised intelligence. Crystallised intelligence is the ability to learn from past experiences and relevant learning, and to apply this learning to a situation. Employers, obviously, will only be interested in your ability to apply your learnings to work-related situations. Work situations that require crystallised intelligence include comprehending written reports and instructions, ability to produce reports, ability to use numbers as a tool to make effective decisions, etc. This type of intelligence is based upon facts and rooted in experiences, and becomes stronger as we age and accumulate new knowledge and understanding. There are many aptitude tests that measure different aspects of crystallised intelligence. The most common are verbal reasoning, numerical reasoning, spatial reasoning and mechanical reasoning

Popular aptitude tests

Abstract reasoning

Also called conceptual reasoning, this test is unique in its design. It is a non-verbal test, which uses shapes rather than words or text to measure someone's fluid intelligence. Each test question includes a series of shapes with common logical rules. Your fluid intelligence is measured by the number of correct answers (i.e. correct identification of the shapes' logical rules) within the given time. Read more about the [abstract reasoning test](#)

Verbal reasoning test

This is a timed test that is designed to measure your verbal analytical skills (or verbal reasoning skills). These skills include the capacity to quickly identify critical issues from written material such as reports, and logically derive conclusions from written facts or data. If, for example, you can process written documents and can come up with the most important content fairly quickly, then there is a good chance that you have high verbal reasoning skills. Read more about the [verbal reasoning test](#)

Numerical Reasoning Test

This test is also a timed test. It measures your numerical analytical skills (or numerical reasoning skills). These skills include the capacity to quickly identify critical issues from numerical data such as graphs and tables. It also includes the capacity to use work-related numerical data such as performance figures or financial outcomes to make effective decisions. It is important to note that numerical reasoning skills don't measure your mathematical ability. Read more about the [numerical reasoning test](#)

Other aptitude tests that measure your crystallised intelligence but are less common:

Spatial reasoning

This timed test measures your ability to visually manipulate objects. This is used to measure your ability to efficiently organise a warehouse or any other type of space. It is also used to measure your ability to identify hazards in the workplace or to solve technical problems.

Mechanical reasoning

This timed test measures your ability to quickly comprehend mechanical concepts and solve mechanical problems.

Preparing for Australian Defence Force's (ADF) Aptitude Tests - full practice tests, example test questions and test tips (YOU session)

The Institute of Psychometric Coaching will ensure you are well prepared for your aptitude tests and your 4-hour psychological assessment session with the Australian Defence Force (ADF) - YOU session

What the ADF psychological testing process includes:

- a timed General Ability Test
- a timed Mathematical Ability Test

The aim of psychological testing is to determine what skills and abilities candidates have and then to match the ADF jobs that require these same sets of skills and abilities.

What to expect in your ADF's Aptitude Testing process:

- You will be asked to sit ADF's aptitude tests online from a room at the recruitment centre.
- You are not allowed to use a calculator or a dictionary of any kind during any of your aptitude tests.
- During the test session, you will be provided with pencils, eraser and writing paper.

Why preparation is crucial for your aptitude testing with the ADF:

The outcome of your aptitude testing provides ADF recruiters with a good understanding of your aptitudes, abilities and underlying knowledge. With this information, they can assist you in identifying an occupation for which you are best suited. Typically, you only have two chances at ADF's aptitude testing. Failure to reach the thresholds in these tests twice in a row would make it almost impossible for you to have a career with the ADF.

How we prepare you for ADF's aptitude testing:

The ADF's General Ability Test:

This test measures your cognitive ability in three key areas using 3 sub tests:

1. **Verbal test**

This test measures your verbal analytical skills. Test questions in this section include word analogy, word meanings, synonyms and antonyms, etc. For example, **Car** is to **Road** as **Boat** is to?

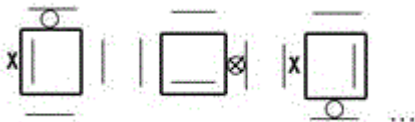
2. **Numerical test**

This test measures your numerical analytical skills. Test questions in this section include: number series, work problems, simple maths, etc. For example, **1, 3, 9, 27, ?**

3. **Abstract test**

This test measures your abstract analytical skills. Test questions in this section include: Which figure is next? Which figure is the odd one out? What is the missing figure?

For example, which figure is next in this series?



IPC's preparation solutions for your ADF aptitude test:

The Institute's specialists have prepared several full preparation solutions for this test. They include:

Test courses online

1. Short and practical online courses for the verbal test,
2. Short and practical online course for the numerical test
3. Short and practical online course for the abstract test

Practice tests online with full test reports

1. A large pool of practice test questions for the verbal test with full test reports, including detailed answer explanations.
2. A large pool of practice test questions for the numerical test with full test reports, including detailed answer explanations.
3. A large pool of practice test questions for the abstract test with full test reports, including detailed answer explanations.

One on one coaching with a Psychometric test trainer

How to access your preparation solutions for the ADF?

1. Go to our [home page](#)
2. Select 'Emergency Services' as your classification
3. Select 'Professional' as your job level
4. Click on 'Start Preparing Now'
5. Select from a list of tailored prep solutions

The ADF's Mathematical Ability Test:

This test measures your capability to use basic mathematical formulae.

Test questions in this section include: multiplying numbers; working with fractions; subtracting and adding numbers.

For example, what is the value of 0.02×0.40 ?

IPC's preparation for your mathematical ability test with the ADF:

To help you, the Institute's specialists have full preparation solutions for this test. They include:

1. A short and practical online numerical test with the required formulae.
2. A large pool of practice test questions with full test reports, including detailed answer explanations.
3. One-on-one sessions with our specialist psychometric test trainers.

How to access your preparation solutions?

1. Go to our [home page](#)
2. Select 'Emergency Services' as your classification
3. Select 'Professional' as your job level
4. Click on 'Start Preparing'
5. Select from a list of tailored prep solutions

The ADF's Personality Test:

In phase 2 of your selection (after successfully passing the ability and mathematical tests - your YOU session), you will be asked to come in for an interview conducted by an ADF psychologist and to undertake a personality test. The personality test is designed to identify personality impediments that will prevent you from successfully performing your role with the ADF.

IPC's preparation for your Personality test with the ADF:

To help you, the Institute's specialists have full preparation solutions for the personality test. They include:

1. A tailored practice personality test with a full test report.
2. A tailored personality test course online.
3. One-on-one sessions with our specialist psychometric test trainers.

How to access your preparation solutions?

1. Go to our [home page](#)
2. Select 'Emergency Services' as your classification
3. Select 'Professional' as your job level
4. Click on 'Start Preparing'
5. Select from a list of tailored prep solutions

questions that won't appear in the actual test. Types of question can be classified as follows:

Verbal Ability - Includes spelling, grammar, ability to understand analogies and follow detailed written instructions. These questions appear in most general aptitude tests because employers usually want to know how well you can communicate.

Numeric Ability - Includes basic arithmetic, number sequences and simple mathematics. In management level tests you will often be presented with charts and graphs that need to be interpreted. These questions appear in most general aptitude tests because employers usually want some indication of your ability to use numbers even if this is not a major part of the job.

Abstract Reasoning - Measures your ability to identify the underlying logic of a pattern and then determine the solution. Because abstract reasoning ability is believed to be the best indicator of fluid intelligence and your ability to learn new things quickly these questions appear in most general aptitude tests.

Spatial Ability - Measures your ability to manipulate shapes in two dimensions or to visualize three-dimensional objects presented as two-dimensional pictures. These questions not usually found in general aptitude tests unless the job specifically requires good spatial skills.

Mechanical Reasoning - Designed to assess your knowledge of physical and mechanical principles. Mechanical reasoning questions are used to select for a wide range of jobs including the military (Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery), police forces, fire services, as well as many craft, technical and engineering occupations.

Fault Diagnosis - These tests are used to select technical personnel who need to be able to find and repair faults in electronic and mechanical systems. As modern equipment of all types becomes more dependent on electronic control systems (and arguably more complex) the ability to approach problems logically in order to find the cause of

the fault is increasingly important.

Data Checking - Measure how quickly and accurately errors can be detected in data and are used to select candidates for clerical and data input jobs.

Work Sample – Involves a sample of the work that you will be expected to do. These types of test can be very broad ranging. They may involve exercises using a word processor or spreadsheet if the job is administrative or they may include **giving a presentation** or **in-tray exercises** if the job is management or supervisory level.

THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE

There are different theories about intelligence, none of which agree with each other. Every approach to thinking comes up with its own different perspective and assumptions, often contradicting at least one earlier theory.

1. Faculty theory:

It is the oldest theory regarding the nature of intelligence and flourished during 18th and 19th century. According to this theory, mind is made up of different faculties like reasoning, memory, discrimination, imagination, etc. These faculties are independent of each other and can be developed by vigorous training. Faculty Theory had been under criticism by experimental psychologists who disproved the existence of independent faculties in the brain.

CONCEPT

One factor/UNI factor theory: It reduces all abilities to a single capacity of general intelligence or 'common sense'. This would imply that they are all perfectly correlated, and would make no allowance for the unevenness of people i.e. abilities along different lines. Since it goes against the common observation that "an individual does possess different levels of different abilities and does not shine equally in all directions"—it has no ground to stand.

2. Spearman's two-factor theory

It was developed in 1904 by an English Psychologist, Charles Spearman, who proposed that intellectual abilities were comprised of two factors: one general ability or common ability known as 'G' factor and the other a group of specific abilities known as 'S' factor.

CONCEPT

- '**G' factor** is universal inborn ability. Greater 'G' in an individual leads to greater success in life.
- '**S' factor** is acquired from the environment. It varies from activity to activity in the same individual.

3. Thorndike's multifactor theory

Thorndike believed that there was nothing like General Ability. Each mental activity requires an aggregate of different set of abilities.

CONCEPT

He distinguished the following four attributes of intelligence:

- (a) Level—refers to the level of difficulty of task that can be solved.
- (b) Range—refers to a number of tasks at any given degree of difficulty.
- (c) Area—means the total number of situations at each level to which the individual is able to respond.
- (d) Speed—is the rapidity with which we can respond to the items.

4. Thurstone's theory

Primary mental abilities/Group factor theory : States that Intelligent Activities are not an expression of innumerable highly specific factors, as Thorndike claimed. Nor is it the expression primarily of a general factor that pervades all mental activities. It is the essence of intelligence, as Spearman held. Instead, the analysis of interpretation of Spearman and others led them to the conclusion that 'certain' mental operations have in common a 'primary' factor that gives them psychological and functional unity and that differentiates them from other mental operations. These mental operations then constitute a group. A second group of mental operation has its own unifying primary factor, and so on. In other words, there are a number of groups of mental abilities, each of which has its own primary factor, giving the group a functional unity and cohesiveness. Each of these primary factors is said to be relatively independent of the others.

CONCEPT

Thurstone has given the following six primary factors :

- (i) The Number Factor (N)—Ability to do Numerical Calculations rapidly and accurately.
- (ii) The Verbal Factor (V)—Found in tests involving Verbal Comprehension.
- (iii) The Space Factor (S)—Involved in any task in which the subject manipulates the imaginary object in space.
- (iv) Memory (M)—Involving ability to memorize quickly.
- (v) The Word Fluency Factor (W)—Involved whenever the subject is asked to think of isolated words at a rapid rate.
- (vi) The Reasoning Factor (R)—Found in tasks that require a subject to discover a rule or principle involved in a series or groups of letters.

Based on these factors Thurstone constructed a new test of intelligence known as "Test of Primary Mental Abilities (PMA)."

5. GUILFORD'S MODEL OF STRUCTURE OF INTELLECT

Denied the existence of a general factor, G, or even rejected possibility of intelligence being reduced to just a few factors and posted 120 unique intellectual abilities.

CONCEPT

Guilford (1967, 1985, 1988) proposed a three dimensional structure of intellect model. According to Guilford every intellectual task can be classified according to its

(1) content,

He further classified content into five categories, namely, Visual, Auditory, Symbolic, Semantic and Behavioral.

(2) the mental operation involved.

He classified operations into five categories, namely, Cognition, Memory retention, Memory recording, Divergent production, Convergent production and evaluation.

(3) the product resulting from the operation.

He classified products into six categories, namely, Units, Classes, Relations, Systems, Transformations and Implications.

6. VERNON'S HIERARCHICAL THEORY:

Vernon's description of different levels of intelligence may fill the gaps between two extreme theories, the two-factor theory of Spearman, which did not allow for the existence of group factors, and the multiple-factor theory of Thurstone, which did not allow a "g" factor.

CONCEPT

Intelligence can be described as comprising abilities at varying levels of generality:

1. ***The highest level:*** "g" (general intelligence) factor with the largest source of variance between individuals. (Spearman)
2. ***The next level:*** major group factors such as verbal-numerical-educational (v.ed) and practical-mechanical-spatial-physical (k.m.) ability.
3. ***The next level:*** minor group factors are divided from major group factors.
4. ***The bottom level:*** "s"(specific) factor. (Spearman)

Beginning in 1969, Vernon became increasingly involved in studying the contributions of environmental and genetic factors to intellectual development. Vernon continued to analyse the effects of genes and the environment on both individual and group difference.

in intelligence. He concludes that individual difference in intelligence are approximately 60% attributable to genetic factors, and that there is some evidence implicating genes in racial group differences in average levels of mental ability.

7.CATTELL'S FLUID AND CRYSTALLIZED THEORY

The fluid aspect of this theory says that intelligence is a basic capacity due to genetic potentiality. While this is affected by the past and new experiences, the crystallized theory is a capacity resultant of experiences, learning and environment.

CONCEPT

This theory has two fundamental types of theory the fluid intelligence and crystallize intelligence, fluid intelligence is the capacity for insight into complex relationships, acquiring new concepts, demonstrates general brightness and adaptability in novel situations while crystallized intelligence is a combination of acquired knowledge and developed of intellectual skills.

8.GARDNER'S THEORY OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE:

Howard Gardner in his book "Frames of Mind, The Theory of Multiple Intelligence" (1983), puts forth a new and different view of human intellectual competencies. He argues boldly and cogently that we are all born with potential to develop a multiplicity of Intelligence, most of which have been overlooked in our testing society, and all of which can be drawn upon to make us competent individuals. The potential for musical accomplishments, bodily mastery and spatial reasoning, and the capacities to understand ourselves as well as others are, Gardner argues, "the multiple forms of intelligence that we must add to the conventional—and typical tested—logical and linguistic skills long called I.Q.".

CONCEPT

The multiple intelligence theory is that people possess eight types of intelligence: linguistic, logical, spatial, musical, motor ability, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic intelligence. Gardner makes a strong case for the plurality of intelligence whose seven dimensions work together to solve problems, the approach taken is unique and are capable of development and facilitated by formal schooling.

9. STERNBERG'S TRIARCHIC THEORY:

Psychologist Robert Sternberg (1985) has constructed a three—pronged, or triarchic theory of intelligence. Work on a concept of intelligence that goes beyond the conventional or traditional theories that are confined to mental ability skills.

CONCEPT

The Three types are:

Analytical Intelligence—is what we generally think of as academic ability. It enables us to solve problems and to acquire new knowledge. Problem—solving skill include encoding information, combining and comparing pieces of information and generating a solution.

Creative Intelligence—is defined by the abilities to cope with novel situations and to profit from experience. The ability to quickly relate novel situations to familiar situations (that is, to perceive similarities and differences) fosters adaptation. Moreover, as a result of experience, we also become able to solve problems more rapidly.

Practical Intelligence—or “street smarts”, enable people to adapt to the demands of their environment. For example, keeping a job by adapting one's behavior to the employer's requirements is adaptive. But if the employer is making unreasonable demands, reshaping the environment (by changing the employer's attitudes) or selecting an alternate environment (by finding a more suitable job) is also adaptive.

10. ANDERSON'S THEORY: COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Anderson proposes that human cognitive architectures will have adapted optimally to the problems posed in their environment. Therefore, discovering the optimal solution to the problem posed by the environment, independent of the architecture, is equivalent to discovering the mechanism used by the architecture. A 'Rational Analysis', as it is called.

Concept

It takes into account the available information in the environment, the goals of the agent, some basic assumptions about computational cost (in terms of a 'general' architecture mechanism), and produces the optimal behavioral function. This function then of course can be tested empirically and assumptions modified if it proves inaccurate. A contrasting point of view to this is espoused by Simon, and is centered around the claim that, in a rational analysis, the assumptions about the architecture actually do most of the work.

11. EYSENCK'S STRUCTURAL THEORY

Eysenck discovered the neurological correlates of intelligence. Wherein he gives three correlates of intelligence and found that the waves of intelligent individuals are complex.

CONCEPT

He identified three correlates of intelligence i.e. reaction time, inspection time and average evoked potential. First two are observed behavior. Third behavior, is description of mental waves. Brighter individual progressively takes less time in responding. They show less variability in reaction time. Their inspection time is also less as compared to less intelligent. Average evoked potential is often measured by the wavelength in electroencephalogram and complexities of waveform.

12. Ceci's Biological Theory

Ceci (1990) proposes that there are multiple cognitive potentials. These multiple intelligence's are biologically based and place limits on mental processes. These are closely linked to the challenges and opportunities in the individual's environment.

CONCEPT

In his view, context is essential to the demonstration of cognitive abilities. By context, he means domain of knowledge and other factors such as personalities, motivation and education. Context can be mental, social or physical.

13. THEORY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Goleman (1995), Emotional Intelligence consists of "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think : to empathize, and to hope".

CONCEPT

The main areas are: knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships.

Simple Definition of IQ

- : a number that represents your intelligence and that is based on your score on a special test

Full Definition of IQ

A number used to express the apparent relative intelligence of a person:
as **a** : the ratio of the mental age (as reported on a standardized test) to the chronological age multiplied by 100
b : a score determined by one's performance on a standardized intelligence test relative to the average performance of others of the same age

Medical Definition of IQ

A number used to express the apparent relative intelligence of a person based on the results of standardized testing: as **a**: the ratio of the mental age (as reported on a standardized test) to the chronological age multiplied by 100
b: a score determined by one's performance on a standardized intelligence test relative to the average performance of others of the same age

$$I.Q. = (MENTAL AGE / CHRONICAL AGE) * 100$$

The four most commonly used intelligence tests are:

- **Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scales**
- **Wechsler-Adult Intelligence Scale**
- **Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children**
- Wechsler Primary & Preschool Scale of Intelligence

Advantages of group tests:

- *can be administered to very large numbers simultaneously
- *simplified examiner role
- *scoring typically more objective
- *large, representative samples often used leading to better established norms

Disadvantages of group tests:

- *examiner has less opportunity to obtain cooperation and maintain interest
- *not readily detected if examinee tired, anxious, unwell
- *evidence that emotionally disturbed children do better on individual than group tests
- *examinee's responses are more restricted
- *normally an individual is tested on all items in a group test and may become boredom over easy items and frustrated or anxious over difficult items
- *individual tests typically provide for the examiner to choose items based on the test takers prior responses - moving onto quite difficult items or back to easier items. So individual tests offer more flexibility.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATION

- Show respect for students' assumptions, Not considering of the developmental stage(s) they exhibit. Their assumptions are genuine, sincere reflections of their ways of making meaning, and are steps in a developmental progression. If students perceive disrespect or lack of emotional support, they may be less willing to engage in challenging discussions or to take the intellectual and personal risks required for development.
- Discuss controversial, ill-structured issues with students throughout their educational activities, and make available resources that show the accurate basis and lines of reasoning for several perception.
- Create many opportunities for students to analyze others' points of view for their evidentiary adequacy and to develop and defend their own points of view about controversial issues.
- Teach students strategies for systematically gathering data, assessing the relevance of the data, evaluating data sources, and making interpretive judgments based on the available data.
- Give students frequent feedback, and provide both cognitive and emotional support for their efforts.
- Help students explicitly address issues of uncertainty in judgment-making and to examine their assumptions about knowledge and how it is gained.
- Encourage students to practice their reasoning skills in many settings, from their other classes to their practicum sites, student organizations, residence hall councils, and elsewhere, to gain practice and confidence applying their thinking skills.