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Famous Psychologists

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UNIT 1

NATURE AND MEANING OF PSYCHOLOGY

Meaning of psychology.

The word psychology is originally derived from two Greek words i.e.; ψυχός (psycho) and λόγος (logos) meaning soul and study. So, originally psychology means study of soul or science of soul.

Various meanings of psychology.

1. Psychology as the science of soul. The earliest meaning of psychology was a science of soul. Philosophers like Plato, Aristotle and Descartes interpreted psychology according to this concept. Soul has been neither measured nor has been seen by anyone, so this meaning of psychology was rejected.

2. Psychology as a science of mind. Philosophers in the middle ages consider psychology as the science of mind. But they could not find the location of mind. Hence psychology as the science of mind could not progress.

3. Psychology as the science of consciousness. In the 19th century, psychologists like William James, Wilhelm Wundt and others consider psychology as a science of consciousness. By consciousness the psychologists meant awareness or wakefulness. A great psychologist Freud objected to this meaning of psychology. He said that man is only 10% conscious of his activities. Mostly he is unconscious. So psychology cannot be given the meaning of science of consciousness. Hence this meaning was rejected.

4. Psychology as a science of behavior. It is the latest meaning of psychology. Psychology tells us about our behavior. Behavior includes all the activities that man does. It includes internal and external behavior, conscious as well as unconscious behavior. Behavior can be observed. All psychologists are agreed on this meaning.

Psychology as a modern discipline aims at understanding the complexities of mental processes, experience and behavior of individuals located in a socio-cultural matrix. The central task of psychology is to describe, understand, predict and control behaviors in diverse situations. Psychology attempts to understand the complexities of human nature, identify the regularities and patterns in the way people behave and develop theories and laws about them. Thus psychology may be defined as the scientific study of mental processes, experiences and behaviors.

Definitions.

1. Woodworth. Psychology deals with the activities of the individual in relation to his environment.

2. Skinner. Psychology is the science of behavior and experience.

3. Munns. Psychology today concerns with the scientific investigation of behavior.


Analysis of above definitions is given as under:

1. Psychology studies the mental processes. Mental processes are the activities largely taking place in brain. However, they cannot be considered as purely physiological or bodily activities. They are related to not only the mental representations and neural activities taking place in the brain but are significantly linked with the objects, events, and activities existing in the outer world.

2. Psychologists are interested in the study of the experiences of the people. Psychologist studies the personal experiences such as dreams, sleep or conditions in which consciousness is alerted or any experience which one has in everyday life.

3. Psychology deals with behavior. Psychologist attends to all forms of behavior. The behaviors may be of short or long duration, simple or complex, verbal or motor, overt or covert.


Nature of psychology.
It is an accepted reality that the nature of the subject psychology is quite scientific. This fact has been properly recognized by the eminent psychologists and thinkers as may be inferred out of the definitions of psychology (in terms of scientific study or science of behavior). In general we may call the nature of a subject scientific if it fulfills the following criteria:

1. Possesses a body of facts and is able to support it through universal laws and principles.
2. Does not believe in hearsay, stereotype or superstitions.
4. Adopts the method of objective investigation, systematic and controlled observation and scientific approach.
5. Stands for generalization, verifiability and modification of the observed results.
7. Is able to turn its theory into practice by having its applied aspect.
8. Psychology possesses a well-organized theory which is supported by the relevant psychological laws and principles.
9. It has its applied aspects in the form of various branches of applied psychology like industrial, legal, clinical and educational psychology.
10. It believes that behavior has its roots, factors of its causing and influencing.
11. It emphasizes on the search for truth by advocating objectivity, reliability and validity in the assessment of behavior.
12. The methods and techniques employed in the study of the behavior in psychology are quite scientific.

On the basis of the above characteristics, it may be established beyond doubt that psychology is a science. Its nature is quite scientific and not philosophical or mysterious as well supposed to be in the past.

**SCOPE OF PSYCHOLOGY**

Psychology is chiefly concerned with human behavior. Anything that has a direct bearing on the behavior of an individual can be included in the scope of psychology. Scope of psychology includes its fields of study. Some of the major fields or areas of psychology are discussed below:

1. **Developmental processes.** It deals with the development of perception, cognition, language, skills, personality and social relationships of an individual. It also tells us about the stages of growth, principles of growth and factors of growth.
2. **Cognition.** Cognitive psychology deals with conscious and unconscious mental processes: sensation and perception, conditioning and learning, attention and consciousness, sleep and dreaming, memory and forgetting, reasoning and decision making, imagining, problem solving, and language.
3. **Comparative physiological psychology.** It deals with the study of similarities and differences between the behaviors of various animals.
4. **Abnormal psychology.** It seeks to describe, explain, predict and control behavior that are considered strange or unusual. Its main focus is on classification, assessment, treatment, and prevention of mental disorders.
5. **Personality.** All that is discussed in psychology is ultimately concerned with the psychological concept of personality. Personality can be understood as an umbrella enveloping all the aspects of psychology related to human behavior.
6. **Clinical and counseling psychology.** Clinical psychologist is a trained practitioner who diagnoses and treats psychological disorders. Counselor helps those with mild problems of social and emotional adjustments.
7. **Cross-cultural and cultural psychology.** It is the study of the ways in which social and cultural forces shape human behavior and how they too in return are shaped by human behavior.
8. **Education and learning process.** This field is concerned with all aspects of educational problems like learning, teacher training, classroom situation, counseling of children etc. Psychology also studies meaning of learning, theories, factors and principles of learning.

9. **Environmental psychology.** This field deals with the interaction between the physical world like noise, heat, humidity, pollution, and crowding etc. and human behavior.

10. **Industrial and organizational psychology.** It studies the principles of psychology to the work place. It tries to investigate the factors that affect the people working in an organization.

11. **Social psychology.** It attempts to understand the nature and causes of individual behavior and thought in social situations.

12. **Psychological assessment.** It deals with assessment of aptitude, intelligence, personality, attitude, values and many other psychological characteristics.

13. **Other fields.** Other fields are military psychology, forensic psychology, rural psychology, managerial psychology, political psychology etc.
NATURE AND MEANING OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Meaning of educational psychology.

It is the most important branch of applied psychology. Educational psychology is concerned with the problems, process and products of education. It is the application of psychological principles, techniques and other resources of psychology in the field of education for finding the solution of educational problems like teaching, learning and classroom management etc.

When a person applies the knowledge of psychology in the field of education to study the human behavior in relation to his environment and shows concern for the total growth and all round development it is called educational psychology.

Modern education aims at the harmonious development of the personality of the child. Therefore, it is the task of the teacher and school to treat such situations where the personality can be developed freely and fully. This is the modern meaning of education.

1. Trow. Educational psychology is the study of psychological aspects of education situation.
2. Crow and Crow. Educational psychology describes and explains the learning experiences of an individual from birth through old ages.
3. Judd. Educational psychology is the science which explains the changes that takes place in an individual as he passes through various stages of development.
4. Skinner. Educational psychology is that branch of psychology which deals with teaching and learning.
5. Stephen. Educational psychology is the systematic study of the educational growth and development of child.

Nature of educational psychology.

The nature of educational psychology is scientific and as such it has been accepted as a science of education. We can summarize the nature of educational psychology in the following way:

1. Educational psychology is an applied branch of the subject psychology. By applying the principles and techniques of psychology it tries to study the behavior and experience of the pupil.
2. Psychology deals with the behavior of all the individuals in all aspects of life. Educational psychology deals with the behavior of the pupil (learner) in relation to educational environment.
3. It is not concerned with what and why of education. It provides various technical skills, guidance in order to give education to the pupil in a proper and satisfactory way.
4. It is an applied positive science. It is not normative science as it is not concerned with what ought to be
5. It employs scientific methods and adopts scientific approach in order to study the behavior of an individual in educational environment.
6. Educational psychology has its own drawbacks, as it is not perfect science. It cannot claim objectivity, exactness and validity as claimed by natural science or even applied science like medicine and engineering etc.
7. Prediction of behavior and the controlling of the factors and generalized results give educational psychology a complete scientific base. Therefore, it is proper to say that its nature is scientific.

FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

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It is rightly said that a teacher is likely to be handicapped without a solid foundation of educational psychology. He may use psychological knowledge to improve his professional practice. In particular, the knowledge of educational psychology helps him in the following way:

1. **Helps teacher in understanding the child.** Educational psychology gives an insight to the teacher about the psychological make-up of the child. A teacher cannot teach the child unless he knows the child.
2. **Helps in framing the child-centered curriculum.** Now-a-days child is considered to be the pivot around which every activity of the school has to revolve. Curriculum is the pathway of these activities. Psychology helps the teacher how to devise such a curriculum.
3. **Helps in planning education for the child.** A sound system of education is characterized by proper planning for education. Proper planning can be made after assessing the capacity of the child.
4. **Helps in locating individual differences among children.** It is a basic assumption of psychology that each individual is different from every other individual in his psychological make-up. The teacher has to start teaching keeping in view the fact that the classroom is heterogeneous in nature. Educational psychology helps him here.
5. **Helps in becoming a good teacher.** Educational psychology enables him to know the qualities required for a successful teacher.
6. **Helps in understanding the importance of co-curricular activities.** Teacher’s concern is not only with the academic side of the curriculum but with non-academic side too. Educational psychology tells him that these two parts are not to be treated in isolation. They are complementary to each other.
7. **Helps in changing the outlook of the teacher towards his students.** The knowledge of educational psychology will change the outlook and attitude of the teacher towards children.
8. **Helps making teaching interesting.** It enables the teacher to make his teaching interesting for the child so that the child feels motivated in the lesson. He can do so by using modern methods of teaching, audio-visual aids and psychological maxims.
UNIT 2

INFANCY

Meaning of infancy. This period starts from the day the child is born. It continues up to 3 years. This period has tremendous importance. It is at the beginning of this stage that the child starts making adjustments to the totally new environment outside the mother’s body. In this stage, the child is fully dependent upon the parents. By and by he starts learning to be self-dependent.

Physical development. At the time of birth, the neonate is a helpless mass of human flesh. Infancy is a period of rapid physical growth.

1. At birth a normal child weighs about 7 pounds and his height is about 20 inches. But by the end of first year, weight increases to 20 pounds and the height increases to 28 inches.
2. At birth the number of bones of the child is 206. The bones of the neonate contain more of water and less of matter than those of adults. Hence the bones are flexible. In early years, the growth of bones is faster than in later years.
3. Teeth are absent at birth. The first tooth appears at the age of 6 months. By the end of first year, the baby has 5 to 6 teeth and by the end of second year the baby has 16 teeth. They are all milk teeth.
4. At birth, the size of the head is approximately 1/4th of the body and the rest of the body is unbalanced. In the process of development, the length of arms and legs increases. Later on the head grows slowly in proportion to the body.
5. Child develops his sensory and muscular skills.
6. By the second year, the child develops sufficient motor skills.

Emotional development. The emotions of the child are not specific at birth. The child at this stage cannot show specific emotions like anger, fear or joy as the adults do. He makes a total random reaction to a stimulus.

1. By second year child exhibits anger. Anger is usually exhibited when adults interfere in his activities.
2. He also expresses joy on seeing familiar faces.
3. He starts crying at the least delay in preparation of his food.
4. At the smallest and the most insignificant things he throws himself upon the ground and becomes adamant.

Social development. At birth he is neither social nor antisocial. He is asocial. He does not know anything about the society. He is not bothered about the rules of the society. Social behavior, in fact, is non-existent at birth.

1. Social development takes place at slow rate.
2. He keeps his contacts only with those persons who look after him.
3. The first event of social development takes place when he starts playing with his mates.
4. The child shows sign of selfishness.
5. He hides himself on seeing outsiders. He feels shy.
6. In this stage he makes friendship with other children, but this friendship is temporary. It is not permanent.

Cognitive/Intellectual development. Almost all the psychologists are agreed on the point that intellectual development includes the development of vocabulary, learning, memory, thinking, reasoning and perception. In this period, the child’s vocabulary develops at tremendous rate.

1. At the end of first year, his vocabulary consists of 3 or 4 words but by the 2nd year it develops to 280.
2. The speed of learning is fastest.
3. He has sharp memory.
4. It is the period of development of perception of size, color, shape, time and distance.
5. Initially span of attention is low, but it increases gradually.
6. During infancy, the power of reasoning and judgment are very sharp. He makes queries. He shows great curiosity in knowing more and more about his environment. He asks various questions. Even adults are not abler to answer such questions. His queries are virtually ceaseless. The question come so rapidly that the child does not bother to wait for an answer to one before going on to another. These questions are an expression for his developing mental capacities.

**Educational Implication / Educational Importance.**

1. The child should feel secure in the family and the parents should treat him well. They should give him balanced diet for his body growth.
2. The child should be given enough freedom in his movements.
3. Over-protection and under-protection should be avoided.
4. He should be provided with play material. This play material should be easy to handle and use.

**CHILDHOOD**

**Childhood.** Childhood is the second stage of growth and development. It comes after infancy and adolescence. This period roughly ranges between 4th and 12th years of life. In this period the child is in the elementary stage of education.

**Physical and motor development.** During this period there is an all-round development of the body. The speed of growth and development is not as rapid as it was in the infancy stage. Some of the important aspects of physical development are shown below:

1. Height and weight progress at a fairly uniform rate.
2. At this stage different parts of the body begin to take proportions size. The baby look starts disappearing. The child look appearing as a boy or a girl. The arms, legs and other parts of the body develop.
3. Motor development and motor skills which start during infancy go on unchecked to know why and how of things.
4. At the end of this period permanent teeth replaces the milk teeth.
5. The head grows slowly and the brain achieves about 90% growth and development.

**Emotional development.**

1. The child throws himself on the ground if his wishes are frustrated during early childhood but during late childhood, he develops patience.
2. He fights with the children of his age.
3. Fear is also common at this stage.
4. The child is also jealous of newborn baby, if there is any.
5. Bursts of aggressiveness, anger and negativism are the characteristic behavior of this stage.
6. As the child advance in age, he changes the manner of expression of emotions. He learns to control his emotions. He develops the techniques of controlling, suppressing and postponing emotions.

**Social development.** Social development of an individual depends on many factors like his family atmosphere, his physical fitness, his ability to cope with individuals in different situations etc.

1. If the family atmosphere is congenial and permissive, the child’s social development will be facilitated and vice versa.
2. He learns how to talk, behave and converse with his family members.
3. He also develops friendship with the children in the neighborhood.
4. He develops complex social behavior characterized by cooperation, sympathy, imitation, teasing and quarrelling. His behavior is largely influenced by the group. He is loyal to the group.
5. The child prefers group games to individual games. In the beginning of this period, the child plays with boys and girls without any inhibitions but towards the end of this period children like to play in separate groups.

**Intellectual development.**

1. He tries to understand various objects of universe.
2. He develops his reasoning power.
3. He attends to concrete material only. In late childhood stage he proceed on abstract thinking.
4. He can relate objects to each other and classify them.
5. His vocabulary is enriched by leaps and bounds.
7. His curiosity leads him to ask questions to parents and teachers.

**Educational implications.**

1. The child should be encouraged to do things with his own hands, thus developing his muscles.
2. In schools there should be provision of games and the child should take part in these games.
3. The teacher should provide a number of co-curricular activities and encourage child to take part in them.
4. Healthy atmosphere should be provided.
5. The teacher should encourage the students to ask questions, thereby satisfying their curiosity.

**ADOLESCENCE**

Adolescence. Adolescence is the most important period of human life. The term ‘adolescence’ is derived from the Latin word ‘adolescere’ which means ‘growing towards maturity’ between childhood and adulthood. It emerges from childhood and merges into adulthood. The period of adolescence starts at the age of 10 or 11 for girls and a year or so later for the boys. It continues up to 20 or 22. So it is called teen age.

Adolescence is a period when the individual in neither a child nor an adult. In fact this is a period when the child gets an opportunity to prepare himself to be an adult. During this period of development great physical and mental changes occur.

**Physical development during adolescence.** This is a period of rapid growth and development.

1. Individual attains maximum growth of internal and outer organs. Different parts of the body grow at different rates and reach their final size. Arms and legs grow longer. Facial features change.
2. Girls put on more weight. There is roundness of breasts and hips among them. Boy’s face is adorned with beard and moustaches.
3. Voice of girls become sweet while as voice of boys become hoarse.
4. The reproductive organs and all other parts of the body connected with reproduction grow very rapidly.
5. Sex glands secrete hormones into the blood and it results in significant physical as well as mental changes

**Emotional development.** Adolescence is a period of heightened emotionality. The feelings of an adolescent undergo a great change. There is no mental peace for him. His emotions are very intense. They go on fluctuating between two quits opposite impulses. They are not under control.

1. The adolescent is emotionally unstable. When adolescent hates someone, he hates strongly and when he loves someone he loves him passionately. Sometimes he is in state of elation and sometimes in depression. At times he is optimistic and sometimes pessimistic.
2. The most important emotional pattern of an adolescent include love, anger, jealousy, fear, worry, envy etc. At the onset of adolescence. Love takes the form of auto-eroticism (self-love). The young adolescent loves his body.
3. Boys like the company of girls and girls like the company of boys.
4. The adolescent exhibits the emotion of anger when he is teased or ridiculed.

**Social development.** The social behavior of an adolescent is perplexing in the beginning.
1. Adolescent may have a desire for isolation. He may withdraw himself from playmates and from their activities.
2. He ceases to be selfish. He wants to mold his behavior according to the norms of the society.
3. The interest in the family decreases and in the company of the age group increases.
4. Altruism, an important social trait, develops among them.
5. Adolescent may have a deep feeling of patriotism.
6. Adolescent may ignore the advice of parents to please the members of their groups.
7. Adolescent form groups and discuss their problems. They become loyal to groups. Hence they learn the quality of sympathy, cooperation, obedience and leadership.

**Intellectual development.** During the period of adolescence, tremendous mental changes take place.

1. In this period intelligence reaches at its peak. Intellectual powers like logical thinking and abstract reasoning develop.
2. The memory span of the individual widens.
3. The power of critical thinking and observation is much developed.
4. Adolescents like to read love stories, film magazines, adventurous tales and such other documents. They begin to write poems and stories.
5. Power of imagination is developed. At this age the individual begins to think in terms of his future, i.e., the profession he is going to adopt. He analyses the pros and cons of different options which seem open to him

**Educational implications.**

1. They are full of energy, so in order to utilize the energy constructively, there should be provision of co-curricular activities.
2. Facts about sex education should be provided to the youth in logical as well as psychological manner.
3. Parents and teachers should exhibit sympathetic attitude towards adolescents.
4. They should be given tasks of responsibility.
5. There should be provision of moral and religious education.
6. Adolescents face too many physical, social, educational, personal problems. In order to solve these problems there should be provision of guidance and counseling.
7. They should be provided with suitable literature.

**CHARACTERISTICS AND PROBLEMS OF ADOLESCENTS**

The period of adolescence is the most critical period of individual's life. An adolescent has to face many problems. Some of them are given below:

1. **Physical growth.** In this period the adolescent gains the maximum growth with regard to height and weight. The individual himself feels bewildered at it. He thinks he may be criticized by others. It restricts his movements. It hampers his social adjustment.
2. **Competition.** The adolescent finds great competition in every walk of life. He sometimes thinks that he cannot cope with a particular problem or he cannot even pass the examination because academic courses seem challenging to him. In many cases, the parent of the adolescent are over-ambitious. They pressurize him to come up to their expectations. He is not in a position to pull on. Therefore, he sometimes withdraws from the situations.
3. **Emotional disturbance.** The adolescent has no control over emotions. His emotions go to extremes. Under the influence of emotions, he may cross the boundaries of decency. His parents and teachers ridicule him. Sometimes he rebels against authority. So he faces problem on this account.
4. **Problem with his parents.** The adolescent at this stage wants to accomplish the task fit for an adult. He wants to be given recognition. He forms his own ideas about marriage, vocation, etc. He wants to act independently. But his parents treat him as a child. They do not recognize him what he is not. They do not even expect him to take decisions for himself. They resist his carvings for independence. This leads to trouble.
5. **Adjustment with friends.** Friendship with the members of his own sex as well as the members of the opposite sex is a problem for the adolescent. The adolescent has host of problems which he wants to discuss with his
friends. These problems are very pressing for him. He does not find it proper to discuss these problems with his parents or teachers. Friendship with the members of the opposite sex is also equally important for him. It is a new experience for him to have friendship with the members of the opposite sex.

6. Sex. The maturity of sex instincts creates a great problem for the adolescent. The adolescent has no previous experience of the phenomena, which he now undergoes in the form of nocturnal emissions (in case of boys) or menstruation (in case of girls). Though these phenomena are normal, yet the adolescent takes them as problem because of their sudden occurrence. The phenomena give rise to many fears, worries, anxieties and complexities in the mind of adolescents.

**NEED AND ASPIRATIONS OF ADOLESCENTS**

The adolescent has certain pressing needs. A brief discussion of them is given below:

1. **Need to understand the implications of marriage.** The growing individual needs to understand the institution of marriage, its functions, social demands and implications.

2. **Need to establish personal identity.** Another need is to establish his personal identity. "Who am I? What are my strengths and weaknesses? Where do I belong in my social environment?" These are some of the pertinent questions the young individual is trying to answer for himself.

3. **Need to belong.** The need to belong is the universal need with human beings. With the young adolescent, who is struggling with his personal identity, the need to belong becomes impelling.

4. **Need to express.** It includes the need to be able to express his ideas, to be heard, to be paid attention to and to be consulted about matters concerning them.

5. **Need to succeed.** All human beings, especially young people, need to experience success in meaningful and constructive ways. If a person is always criticized for his drawbacks and failures and is never appreciated for the success that he achieves, his self-image is bound to be different from what it can be if his worthwhile experiences are appreciated and rewarded.

6. **Need of freedom from dependence.** Adolescents do not want to remain dependent on elders. They consider themselves as adults, capable of managing their own affairs.

7. **Need of security.** The individual at this stage feels insecure. He feels all alone and isolated. He has the craving for security. He needs to be treated sympathetically and with love.

8. **Need for recognition.** The young adolescent wants recognition from his parents, teachers and his fellows.

**GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING FOR ADOLESCENTS**

Adolescence is the most difficult period of one's life. It is a transitional stage of life when the child tries to grapple with the realities of an adult life. He is overwhelmed with host of problems which are mainly psychological in nature and which make him emotionally tense. The main functions of guidance and counseling department of the school at the adolescent stage are the following:

1. The adolescent is conscious of economic realities of life and the need of a career for self-support. Lest he should resort to floundering; the guidance programme will help him in seriously thinking of a career which is in accord with his aptitude and interest.

2. With our society getting industrialized, the young adolescent needs help with information about various jobs available to him and the requirements, responsibilities and the nature of work involved in a particular job.

3. Adolescence is a stage when the individual has to make a choice between joining the college and joining the world of work. The student needs mature help in making his choice. Guidance and counseling department of the school can render this sort of service to him.

4. Many problems faced by the adolescents during this period (e.g., shyness, emotional tension, fear, anxiety etc.) are psychological in nature. It requires the services of a trained counselor who is in a position to help the adolescent in solving such problems.
5. The child at this stage is a problem child. He is in confusion. He is not in a position to chalk out a strategy for his future life. He does not stick to one decision. He goes on changing his decisions. He does not show the signs of maturity and responsibility. Therefore, the guidance and counseling wing of the school can help him.

6. At this stage, the individual is to be helped to develop a right attitude towards work and to build a philosophy of work in accordance with individual ambition and social good. Guidance and counseling is to be provided to the individual for this purpose.

7. At this stage, the adolescent is expected to play the role as a responsible citizen of a free society. Here too guidance and counseling programme of the school will help him a lot.
UNIT 3

Learning – Meaning and Concept.

Learning means to bring changes in the behavior of organism. The child starts learning from the birth. This learning continues throughout his life. He lives in a very complex environment after his birth. He has various types of experiences—direct or indirect. These experiences modify his behavior. This modification is commonly known as learning. If the fire has burned a child, he learns to be away from the fire in future.

Generally learning is described as the process of having one’s behavior modified by what he does or by the consequences of his actions or by what he observes. In this way, the term learning, broadly speaking, stands for all those changes and modifications in the behavior of the individual which he undergoes during his lifetime.

Usually two factors involved in learning to make adjustment with environment are: maturation and experience.

Definitions.

1. Gates & others. Learning is modification of behavior through experience and training.

2. G. D. Booz. Learning is the process by which the individual acquires habits, knowledge and attitude that are necessary for meeting the demands of life in general.

3. Garry & Kingsley. Learning is the process by which behavior is originated or changed through practice and training.

4. Skinner. Learning is a process of progressive behavior adaptation.

In short it involves:

1. Acquisition of new experiences.
2. Retention of new experiences in the form of impression.
4. Organization synthesis and integration of old and new experiences.

5. Behaviorist view. Behaviorists are of the view that learning is a change in the behavior as a result of experiences. As soon as the child is born, he tries to learn something from the environment.

6. Gestalt view. According to this view, learning depends on gestalt or configuration (wholeness of the situation). Learning is total reaction of total situation.

Characteristics of learning.

1. Progressive change in behavior. Learning brings progressive change in behavior as an individual reacts to the situation and that is why learning is known as improvement.

2. Learning is adjustment. The individual tries to adjust himself physically, intellectually, and socially with his environment. Sometimes he changes the environment as well.

3. Learning is changes in development. The pattern of development is free to move in either direction: positive or negative, i.e., right direction or wrong direction.

4. Learning is life long process. Learning starts from the time the child takes birth in the world and it continues till death.

5. Learning is goal directed. When the purpose of goal is clearer, the learning becomes meaningful and effective for the learner.

6. Learning is active and creative. Learning largely depends upon the activities of the learner. It is said that no learning can take place where there is no self-activity. Children learn more quickly when they participate in some learning activity.

7. Learning is aroused by individual and social needs. Learning depends upon individual needs, problems, interests, ambitious, aspirations and the needs of the society. Learning is affected by environment. No learning can take place in the absence of environment.
8. **Learning and maturation.** Maturation acts as modifier of our behavior which finally leads to learning. Proper and timely maturation of the child is helpful in timely bearing of maturation.

9. **Learning is universal.** Learning is universal among human beings. Man is a learning animal. Nothing in the nature of man is more fundamental than the ability to learn.

10. **Learning is transferable.** If a person learns any skill for a particular situation, he can use the skill in some other situation. For example, learning of typewriting helps and individual in using the keyboard of computer efficiently and quickly.

11. **Intelligence affects learning.** It has been found that intelligence affects learning. If a person is intelligent enough, he learns quickly and vice versa.

12. **Learning is possible on cognitive, affective and conative side.** Learning influences cognitive (knowledge), affective (feeling) and conative (doing) side of personality.

**FACTORS INFLUENCING LEARNING**

Though learning is a universal phenomenon, yet every person does not acquire it in the same way and to the same extent. One learns quickly and another learns slowly; one learns efficiently and another does not learn so efficiently; one learns only in the first attempt and another learns after repeated attempts. There are individual differences in the acquisition of learning.

**Personal factors affecting learning.**

On personal side there are some conditions which are basic to learning situation. A brief description of some of them is given below:

1. **Maturation.** Maturation is a biological phenomenon. It refers to any instance of development that occurs in the absence of specific practice. Maturation puts a limit to learning. It shows the extent to which learning can take place. We all know that a very young infant cannot be expected to walk even if we give him enough practice and training... he must first mature before he learns walking.

2. **Ability.** Abilities are our personal equipment. There is evidence to say that abilities play their part in school learning. Often it is seen that some students find some subjects easier and more fascinating than other subjects.

3. **Attitude.** Attitudes refer to the opinions and beliefs that a person holds regarding objects, people, activities and social practices and policies. Attitudes are an important variable in classroom learning. They influence what is learned. They determine the direction in which the students strive.

4. **Interests.** Interests refer to the preferences of a person among things, persons and activities in his environment. Interests are one of the forces that motivate activity. They represent a tendency to select one activity or thing in reference to something else. Interests represent an area of very great importance to learning. It is the key to child\d learning.

5. **Mental set.** Mental set is a state of readiness or preparedness to behave in a particular manner in a given situation. It is a predisposition to view a problem or react to it in certain way. It is a readiness to perceive or to respond in some particular way. If the student forms an appropriate set, it has a facilitating effect.

6. **Physical and mental conditions.** Efficient learning also depends on the favorable physical and mental conditions. The individual should not be suffering from physical ill health and mental worries. He should have no emotional disturbance like restlessness, anxiety, fear or psychosomatic disorders. If a child with some physical or mental handicap is put in a classroom, his chances of academic growth are curtailed.

7. **Intelligence.** Intelligence is an in built generalized ability in an individual. In classroom learning intelligence plays a great role. The more intelligent a child is, the greater learning capacity he has.

8. **Motivation.** In a teaching learning system motivation has the central place. Intact, motivation is the basic energizer which releases learning forces. It pushes forth the vehicle of learning. Motivation makes an individual to search for various ways in order to reach the goal. Before starting the lesson the teacher should see that the children are motivated and if they are not motivated he should motivate them and then start teaching.

**Environmental factors influencing learning.**
Environmental factors lie outside the individual. The individual is always surrounded by environment. So, the environment influence is there on the performance of the individual. A brief description of some of the important environmental factors is given below:

1. **Physical conditions.** Physical conditions affect learning. If the atmosphere is calm and quiet and if there is no interference either from within or from outside the class, there is an increase in the efficiency of learning. Similarly, the pleasant weather, proper ventilation, sufficient sunlight and fresh air all contribute towards the efficiency of learning.

2. **Home environment.** The environment at home matters much more than any other factor. If the child is born in a literate and educated family, his learning at school gets greatly facilitated. On the other hand, if a child is born in an uneducated family his learning at school does not go so smooth. Economic conditions at home are also to be reckoned with.

3. **Classroom management.** Learning, among other things, depends in the way the teaching learning process is conducted. If the teacher acts in a dictatorial manner, the curiosity of the students is crushed and the chances of learning are minimized. On the other hand if there is a democratic atmosphere in the classroom, the chances of learning are maximized.

4. **Knowledge of results or feedback.** Various experiments conducted by psychologists have proved that as long as knowledge of results is given the number of errors go on decreasing and when the knowledge of results is terminated there is an increase in the number of errors. For best results in learning, the feedback should be given immediately.

5. **Learning material.** If the learning material is meaningful and clear, the learning becomes easy for the child. On the other hand, if the learning material is confusing or difficult, learning becomes difficult.

6. **Length of the working period.** If the working period is very long, fatigue sets in it causes retardation in learning. On the other hand, if the working period is very short, it does not give learner the satisfaction of working.

**MOTIVATION**

**Concept.** The term motivation refers to a force that serves to imitate, guide and maintain our behavior towards a goal. Psychologists studying motivation have generally focused on three basic questions, namely;

1. What causes a person to initiate some action?
2. What causes a person to move towards a particular goal?
3. What causes a person to persist in his attempts to reach the goal?

In simple words they want to know why people behave in the manner they behave. A person walks in a field, another person walks on the road and a third person climbs the mountain risking his life and limb. Why do they do so? The answer is that they are responding to their own motivation. Such questions related to ‘why of behavior’ are always answered through a key word ‘Motivation’. The bird who builds its nest does so in order to lay eggs and hatch them. It is persuaded to act in order to satisfy its basic motives and attain the desired goal. The students work hard and learn in order to satisfy their basic motives and attain the desired goal. Motivational cycle involves the following elements:

1. Motive is aroused in the organism, which originates from need, desire or want.
2. The internal process of the organism is generated in the presence of the motive, which results in tension causing imbalance or dis-equilibrium.
3. The organism acts to satisfy the motive. The response of the organism removes tension and restores the equilibrium when the goal is reached.
4. When the organism reaches the desired goal, he gets immediate reinforcement or encouragement. In other words, he is further motivated to act.

**Definitions of motivation.** Few definitions of motivation are as under:

1. **Dandakar.** Motivation implies a state of energy mobilization and a direction towards a goal.
2. **Mathur.** Motivation is that force which impels or incites individual’s action, determines the individual’s direction of action and his rate of reaction.
3. **Munn.** Motivation refers to activation from within the organism.

**Nature/characteristics/features of motivation.**

1. A motive works as a source or energizer for pushing and pulling the motivated behavior.
2. It is in fact aimed towards the satisfaction of one or the other basic need.
3. One’s behavior can be properly initiated and its continuity can be properly assured in the shape of his motivated behavior.
4. Motivated behavior is quite selective. Here one tries to respond to the environmental stimuli strictly in view of the satisfaction of the desired needs linked with the motivated behavior.
5. Motivated behavior has dynamicity and flexibility in its nature. In the course of behaving, if there is some alteration in the nature of the further requirements of satisfaction of the need, it may bring change in one’s motives of behaving. As a result, the shape or direction of the motivating behavior may altogether be changed as per demands of the new situation.
6. Motivated behavior is goal directed. The individual is totally engaged in the realization of the goals of his motivated behavior. The realization of one goal may further put him in the cycle of motivated behavior as he may feel the necessity of the realization of his further needs in the path of his progress or cycle of his life.
7. Motivated behavior helps us in seeking equilibrium between our needs and their satisfaction. It lies in between one’s need and its satisfaction. Since, the key to our adjustment lies in the satisfaction of our needs, the motivated behavior proves an important tool and means for making ourselves adjusted and integrated.

Thus, motivation as a process or behavior refers to a reinforced, selective and goal directed behavior initiated and energized by a motive which aims to maintain balance and equilibrium of the person in relation to his environment by keeping his basic needs in the process of satisfaction.

**Types of motivation.**

Motivation is generally of two kinds, i.e., intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

**Intrinsic motivation.** Intrinsic motivation is created by personal factors, i.e., liking, interest, curiosity etc. When we are intrinsically motivated, we do not need any reward or incentive. Work is its own reward. We perform many activities not necessarily because of the promise of reward or because of external force or pressure, but because we find these activities enjoyable. Doing these activities seem enjoyable and attractive to us. We do an activity because we derive satisfaction from it. We recognize the activity as self-rewarding.

**Extrinsic motivation.** Extrinsic motivation is created by environmental factors, i.e., reward, reinforcement, incentive etc. In extrinsic motivation the reward lies outside the person and outside the activity. A person who studies for the sake of earning a scholarship is an example of an extrinsic motivation. He pursues the activity for the sake of same external reward.

It may be mentioned that the intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are not contradictory to each other. Rather they are supplementary to each other. Intrinsically motivating forces push the individual from within and extrinsic motivation forces pull the individual from without. So it is the joint effort of the pushing and pulling forces that make a person motivated.

**TECHNIQUES OF ENHANCING LEARNERS MOTIVATION**

Following techniques are mentioned for enhancing learner’s motivation:

1. **Addressing the students.** While presenting the lesson, the teacher should address the students in such a way that he takes them along. His approach should be personal and not impersonal.
2. **Using teaching aids.** We have been using chalk and blackboard. They are very essential. They are pre-requisites of teaching, but their continuous use has made them monotonous and distasteful. Children want something new and non-traditional. They want change. Variety is spice of life. In an unchanging environment, students are bound to get bored. Variety catches their attention. So, in order to motivate the students, the teacher should make the use of audio-visual aids.
3. **Changing methods of teaching.** There are many methods and the teacher can choose from among them keeping in view the principle of variety. He can prefer one method to another method if he thinks it more effective and motivating than the other.

4. **Arousing curiosity.** The teacher should arouse curiosity of the students in the new lesson. Once curiosity is aroused children will feel interested and motivated. Curiosity can be aroused by many ways. Questioning is one of the best technique.

5. **Relating lesson to the day-to-day activities of the children.** Children are likely to listen attentively to the teacher if they find that what the teacher speaks is related to their day-to-day activities.

6. **Coming down to the level of students.** A good teacher is he who comes down to the level of the students and then starts teaching. Teaching from this point of view will be highly motivating for the child.

7. **Using maxims of teaching.** The teacher should keep into view the maxims of teaching. The important among them are as under.
   a. Proceed from simple to complex.
   b. Proceed from concrete to abstract.
   c. Proceed from easy to difficult.
   d. Proceed from known to unknown.
   e. Proceed from part to whole.

8. **Involve students in planning the lesson.** The teacher should involve students in planning the lesson. If this is done, the students will like the programme because it is not teacher-directed but student-suggested.

9. **Making goal clear.** The teacher should keep the goal clearly in view before the students so that they work in the direction of the goal. The nearer the child reaches the goal, the greater drive is there in him to complete the task.

10. **Fixing the goal attainable.** The teacher should be very precise about the goal he wants his students to achieve.

11. **Present meaningful, worthwhile and reasonably challenging task.** The task given by the teacher should be meaningful and worthwhile. The task should be reasonably challenging. It should be neither too easy nor too difficult.

12. **Organized classroom.** Classroom must be organized and free from constant interruptions and disruptions. Frequent interruptions causes disturbance in the classroom.

13. **Teacher's qualities.** The teacher should have following qualities as he has to perform the job.
   a. He must be having a sympathetic attitude.
   b. He must have a good sense of humor. By his humorous approach he can change the dull environment into lively one.
   c. He should keep himself fully ready for the topic he has to teach. He should be ready to answer any question that the students ask.
   d. The teacher should be alert to the classroom situation. He should feel the pulse of the classroom. He must catch cues of disinterest or lack of motivation. He has to show his ingenuity and resourcefulness to bring the students back on the motivational track.

**S – R THEORY OF LEARNING (Thorndike, Edward Lee)**

E. L. Thorndike was one of the earliest of the educational psychologists of America. His influence on learning has been widespread. His theory, which basically belongs to the S ¡ R family, is known as ŠR Bond theory or Connectionism. Thorndike divides the whole sequence into two chief parts:

a. Those things which are acting on the individual, i.e., Š and
b. Those things that the individual does, i.e., R

According to this theory, learning does not take place all of a sudden. An individual learns through the process of trial and error. In the beginning he makes a great number of errors, but as he goes on making trials, the number of errors go on decreasing and at last trial there is no error. Let me give the example of a boy learning to ride a bicycle. Initially he may keep on falling because of his inability to coordinate the activities of his hands and legs or to balance
his body properly or to hold the handle in proper way. But with repeated trials he comes to know of his mistakes and eliminates those activities which are not helpful to him in riding the bicycle. He repeats only those acts which helps him to learn to ride the bicycle properly. In this way he learns riding a bicycle.

Following are the essential features or characteristics of the SīR theory of learning.

1. Through this approach learning shows a gradual improvement, but not a very regular improvement. For instance the time taken by the learner in learning an act can be 9 minutes in the first trial, 7 minutes in the second trial and 8 minutes in the third trial.

2. Learning by this theory is not guided by reasoning or imitation.

3. This theory of learning is blind so far as means are concerned but it is not blind so far as end as concerned.

4. All the responses or movements made by the learner do not get fixed or stamped in. Only those responses get stamped in which bring him nearer the goal.

5. The learner is motivated to act. If the learner is not motivated to act, no learning can take place.

6. Practice is the basis of this type of learning. An act once learnt has to be practiced again and again so that forgetting does not take place.

**Experimental evidence.**

Thorndike put a hungry cat in a cage. He put some food at a little distance in front of the cage. The food served as the stimulus. The cat, being hungry, became restless and indulged in making random movements inside the cage in order to get out of the cage and eat the food. All its efforts proved in vain. Eventually in the course of its random activity, its tail by chance touched the latch. The door of the cage opened. The cat came out of the cage and ate the food.

Thorndike repeated the experiment on the cat for a number of times. He found that as the number of repetitions increased, the cat made lesser and lesser number of errors. It gradually began to eliminate the useless activities. On a particular trial, as soon as the cat was put in the cage and the food was put outside the cage, the cat came out immediately.

**Educational implications.**

1. The learner must be motivated for learning. Had the cat not been hungry, it would not have made the effort.

2. Goal must be clear to the learner. Had the goal (i.e., food) not been present before the cat, the cat would not have tried to get the food.

3. Learning is not smooth and regular. Had the learning been smooth, the cat would have taken less time in subsequent trials to open the door. But on certain trials the cat took more time than it had taken on the previous trials. So if the student shows any minor deterioration or backward trend in learning at any time, the teacher should not worry about it. He should know that such fluctuations disappear soon.

**Merits.**

1. This theory is useful for slow learners and below average students. Such types of students mostly solve their problems through this method. Their limited intellectual capacity does not allow them to take advantage of other theories.

2. This theory is even helpful to intellectually bright children. No doubt they apply reasoning, but initially they use trial and error method.

3. This theory stresses motivation and drill. Both these things are very important for learning.

4. Many school activities are learnt on the basis of this theory. Learning of formulae, arithmetic tables, handwriting etc., takes place according to the principle of this theory.

5. This theory is helpful in skill learning, e.g., cycling, swimming etc.

**Thorndike's laws of learning**

Thorndike in over half a century of experimenting and theorizing developed a number of explanatory principles which constitute his trial and error or Connectionist theory of learning. Following are the laws of learning propounded by Thorndike about the learning process:
1. **Law of readiness.** When any conduction unit is ready to conduct, for it to do so is satisfying. When any conduction unit is not in readiness to conduct, for it to conduct is annoying. When any conduction unit is in readiness to conduct, for it not to do so is annoying. 

Readiness, according to Thorndike is preparation of action. If the child is ready to learn, he learns more quickly, effectively and with greater satisfaction than if he is not ready to learn. Before actual learning, one's mind must be mentally set. Before teaching, pupils must be motivated or stimulated to learn.

**Educational implications:**

a. Teacher should wait till learner is ready to learn and should give those experiences which help to enhance readiness.
b. Teacher should create interest or readiness among the pupils. He should tap the previous knowledge of the pupils first. Then he should arouse interest for the new topic among them by asking stimulating questions and then announce the aim of the lesson.
c. Curiosity also is as important as interest. These are interdependent. The teacher should arouse curiosity for the new lesson. Knowledge should not be presented in a mechanical way.

2. **Law of exercise.** According to this law, repetition and drill helps learning. Absence of repetition or drill causes forgetfulness. The law of exercise is divided into two parts:

a. **Law of use.** The law of use states that other things being equal, the more frequently a modifiable connection between Stimuli – Response (S–R) is made, the stronger that connection will be.
b. **Law of disuse.** The law of disuse states that other things being equal, when a modifiable connection between Stimuli – Response (S–R) is not made over a period of time, the strength of that connection is weakened.

**Educational implications:**

a. More opportunities should be given to the students to use and repeat the knowledge they get in the class.
b. Between one practice and another practice, much time should not elapse.
c. Drill work in all those aspects of curriculum, where facts and skills are to be mastered, is highly useful.
d. Delayed use or long disuse always cause forgetfulness.

3. **Law of effect.** When a modifiable connection between stimulus and response is made and is accompanied or followed by satisfying state of affairs, that connection’s strength is increased. Then made and accompanied or followed by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is decreased.

According to this law satisfaction or reward strengthens learning. If a child solves question correctly, he feels encouraged to do more. But if he fails repeatedly, he does not make subsequent attempts. A response that gives achievement of the goal and thus provides satisfaction, will be stamped in. a response that is accompanied by dissatisfaction will be stamped out.

**Educational implications:**

a. The class-room experiences should be satisfactory and pleasant. The teacher must enjoy his teaching work.
b. Learning experiences and other activities must be meaningful and understandable in terms of the personal life of the learners.
c. School experiences and activities must be arranged in such a way that learners may have some degree of confidence and success in their work.
d. School activities should be organized in increasingly difficult order so that the students may progress without any failure.
e. Material should be provided in varied ways so that novelty may be maintained.
f. Guidance, praise and encouragement that gives pleasure and satisfaction of knowing that he is on right path, should be properly used.

**Secondary laws of learning:**
1. **Law of multiple response.** This law states that animal or man may try many responses before attempting the right response through the process of trial and error. Trial and error learning involves many factors as motives, a difficulty or barrier and sometimes aimless attempts to achieve the goal, a successful trial, and elimination of unproductive responses and consolidation of successful responses.

   **Educational implication:**
   1. The significance of trial and error learning in education is that the learners get wide experience and a chance to experiment themselves. They learn from their own errors.
   2. The teacher provides help to the students when they need it.
   3. Psychologists now agree that all experiences are educative including the committing errors.

2. **Law of attitude.** It means that individual learns with previous beliefs, attitude and opinion. It determines that the response of the individual will be satisfying or annoying on the basis of previous belief.

   **Educational implication:**
   1. The emotional atmosphere of the classroom should be congenial.
   2. Pupils have been known to develop favorable attitudes towards learning merely on the basis of knowing that the teacher is concerned about them and that the teacher desires to be of assistance.
   3. Students must feel that they have control over their future.

4. **Law of analogy of assimilation.** An individual responds to a new situation on the basis of responses made by him in a similar situation in the past, i.e., he makes responses by comparison or analogy.

   **Educational implication:**
   1. The teacher must provide similarities between the new and the old, the importance of leading from the known to the unknown and the usefulness of bringing textbook abstractions to life by relating them to the experiences of the learners.
   2. The teacher must provide identity between historical event and present day events.
   3. The principle of analogy is explained in unit approach. In unit approach, individual learner makes decisions, grows and develops democratic point of view.

4. **Law of associative shifting.** This law states that any response of which a learner is capable may be attached to any stimulation to which he is sensitive. A common school example would be reading where certain combinations of letters through repetition and reinforcement call to mind highly specific things. The letters H O R S E are attached to a large grass-eating animal. Associative shifting may then cause these same letters to mean a device on which wood may be held while it is being sawed.

   **Educational implication:**
   1. Habits, attitudes and interests that child develops in school inevitably from the working equipment with which they will perform their functions as adults.
   2. Respect for objective viewpoint, systematic methods of problem solving, concern for others and effective work habits should be developed in students.

**OPERANT CONDITIONING THEORY**

American psychologist B. F. Skinner became one of the most famous psychologist in history for his pioneering research on operant conditioning. In fact, he coined the term operant conditioning. Beginning in the 1930s, Skinner spent several decades studying the behavior of animals, usually rats or pigeons, in chambers that became known as Skinner boxes. Like Thorndike’s puzzle box, the Skinner box was a barren chamber in which an animal could earn food by making simple responses, such as pressing a lever or a circular response key. A device attached to the box recorded the animal’s responses.

The principles discovered during the experiment were applicable to behavior of people also, as discovered by Skinner. He acknowledged that many factors influence human behavior including heredity, basic types of learning such as classical conditioning, and complex learned behaviors such as language. He maintained that rewards and punishments
control the great majority of human behaviors, and that the principles of operant conditioning can explain these behaviors:

**Operations in operant conditioning.**

Several operations are involved in operant conditioning. Some of them are discussed briefly as under:

1. **Shaping.** Shaping is a reinforcement technique that is used to teach animals or people those behaviors which they have never performed before. In this method, the teacher begins by reinforcing a response the learner can perform easily, and then gradually requires more difficult responses. Three principles are involved in the process of shaping the behavior discussed briefly as under:
   a. **Generalization.** Generalization may be of two types
      i. **Response generalization.** When responses are repeated, they are likely to vary over a range of more or less similar acts. It is important that response generalization does occur.
      ii. **Stimulus generalization.** Stimulus generalization occur when a particular response elicited by a particular stimulus becomes also elicited by other similar stimuli.
   b. **Habit competition.** At each point of the chain, the correct habit must attain dominance over competing habit.
   c. **Chaining.** It means that each segment in the chain must be linked with the succeeding segment.

2. **Extinction.** Reinforcing an operant strengthens it. Non-reinforcement of a response is alleged to weaken it, and a prolonged series of non-reinforced responses result in gradual lowering of response rate and ultimately to a state of no response. This is called extinction.

3. **Spontaneous recovery.** It refers to the fact that if an organism is removed from the situation for a while after extinction and then returned and again presented with that stimulus, his performance will be better than would be predicted from his performance at the end of preceding extinction. The phenomenon of spontaneous recovery has almost similar characteristics in Pavlovian and Skinnerian conditioning.

4. **Reinforcement.** Reinforcement is central in operant conditioning theory of Skinner. A reinforcer is defined by its effects. A reinforcer is any environmental event that is programmed as a consequence of a response that can increase the rate of responding is called a reinforcer. Reinforcers have been divided into three categories:
   a. **Positive reinforcer.** Positive reinforcer is any stimulus that follows an operant response and strengthens the probability of that response. Food, money, water, praise etc. work as positive reinforcer.
   b. **Negative reinforcer.** Negative reinforcers are those unpleasant stimuli which the learner will terminate if given the opportunity to do so. Negative reinforcers strengthen avoidance response. In negative reinforcement an organism does something to avoid something.
   c. **Punisher.** Punishment is an experimental arrangement in which presentation of an aversive stimulus is contingent upon a designated response. A punisher is an aversive stimulation which follows a response and frequently serves to suppress it. A negative reinforcer precedes the response and forces its occurrence to terminate the unpleasant condition, whereas the punisher follows the response and decreases the likelihood of the occurrence of the response.

**Schedules of reinforcement.** Skinner put forward the idea of planning the schedule of reinforcement for conditioning. There are two main schedules of reinforcement:

a. **Continuous reinforcement schedule.** It is an arrangement where provision is made to reinforce correct response of the organism during acquisition of learning.

b. **Partial or intermitted schedule.** It is an arrangement when sometimes we provide reinforcement and sometimes we withhold the reinforcement. This has been further classified as follows:
   i. **Interval schedule.** Passage of time is more important in this arrangement. It can be further classified into two types:
1. **Fixed interval schedule.** In fixed interval schedule the reinforcement is presented after a prescribed interval of time e.g., a teacher gets his salary on the first of every month. It means that his behavior is operating on fixed interval schedule.

2. **Variable interval schedule.** In variable interval schedule, the interval is randomly varied about some time value. Experimental evidences show that after a prolonged training on this schedule the organism develops a steady rate of responding.

ii. **Ratio schedule.** Here performance of the learner is important. Ratio schedule can be of following two types:
   1. **Fixed ratio schedule.** In this schedule the reinforcement is given after a fixed number of responses. A rat is reinforced only after it has emitted a certain number of responses.
   2. **Variable ratio schedule.** In this schedule an individual make a number of responses before receiving a reinforcer, but the number is variable and unpredictable. E.g., gambling.

**Educational implications.**

1. The response or behavior is not necessarily dependent (contingent) upon a specific known stimulus. It is more correct to think that a behavior or response is dependent upon its consequences. Therefore, for training an organism to learn a particular behavior or response it may be initiated to respond in such a way as to produce reinforcing stimulus.

2. It is applied in behavior modification. We have to find something, which is rewarding for the individual whose behavior we wish to modify. Wait until the desired behavior occurs and immediately reward him when it does.

3. The school can use the principles of operant conditioning to eliminate the elements of fear by using positive reinforcement. This theory advocated the avoidance of punishment for unlearning the undesirable behavior and for shaping the desired behavior.

4. Consequences of a behavior or response are a source of motivation to further occurrence of that behavior. E.g., verbal praise, prize, positive facial expression, etc.

5. Operant conditioning emphasizes the importance of schedules in process of reinforcement of behavior. Hence schedules should be planned carefully.

6. It has contributed a lot to the development of teaching machines and programmed learning. The programmed instruction proceeds in a serial order from initial to terminal behavior by reinforcing behavior at each step.
UNIT 4TH

INTELLIGENCE

Meaning. To define intelligence is really a difficult task. Psychologists all over the world have made attempts to define intelligence in their best possible language but a definition which is universally accepted has not yet been noticed in any literature on intelligence. For example, intelligence has been defined as an ability of the individual. But there is no agreement as to:

1. What kind of ability it is, and
2. The ability to do what.

Like the blind man appraising the size of an elephant, psychologists have defined intelligence in their own way. While the psychologists try to measure intelligence and the teachers try to cultivate intelligence, nobody seems to know precisely what intelligence is. It is worthwhile, to quote some of the definitions here to arrive at a meaning of intelligence.

1. Alfred Binnet. Intelligence manifests in purposive direction, active adaptation and conscious correction. It is the ability to take and maintain a given mental set. Capacity to make adaptation for purpose of attaining the desired and the power of self-criticism.

2. Terman. An individual is intelligent in proportion to as he is able to carry on abstract thinking.

3. David Weschler. Intelligence is the global or aggregate capacity of an individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment.

4. Charles Spearman. Intelligence is the analytic and synthetic ability of man.

5. A. W. Heim. Intelligence activity consists of grasping the essentials in a given situation and responding appropriately to them.

An analysis of various definitions reveals the following facts:

Intelligence is:

1. Ability to profit from experience
2. Ability to solve problems.
3. Ability to perceive relationship.
4. Ability to adjust and relate to one's environment
5. Ability to think abstractly.
6. Ability to behave competently and effectively
7. Ability to learn.

All these meanings are not mutually exclusive. Rather they are inter-related, e.g., if an individual can perceive relationship, he can learn. If he can learn, he profits from experiences. This helps him to behave competently and effectively to think abstractly and to solve problems. He is now able to adjust and relate to this environment.

Characteristics of intelligence.

1. Intelligence is a universal human trait. Intelligence is associated with human beings only. We do not associate intelligence with animals or birds.
2. Heredity is the basis of intelligence. No one is born without intelligence.
3. Environment plays a great role in developing intelligence. If two twins are put in two types of environment, they will differ in intelligence.
4. Intelligence is akin to intellect but it is not identical with it. Intelligence is intellect put to use. In other words intellect is only a faculty. It is a cognitive disposition. Intelligence represents the applied or functional aspects of the same cognitive disposition.

5. Intelligence is not knowledge but capacity to acquire knowledge. It is not thought, but capacity to think.

6. Intelligence does not grow forever. Growth ceases after 17 or 18 years of age. However, growth can cease vertically. It cannot cease horizontally.

7. The two sexes do not show any significant differences in intelligence on the whole. Psychological tests have shown that males cannot claim superiority over females in so far as possession of intelligence in concerned.

8. Intelligence is related to knowledge, but it is not knowledge. The more intelligent a person is, the more knowledge he can get. It means that intelligence develops in him the capacity to acquire more and more knowledge but the reverse is not true. Knowledge does not make intelligence. An individual may be knowledgeable still he may not be intelligent because he may not be knowing how to use knowledge.

9. Intellectual development is related to academic or scholastic development of the person but it is not merely the scholastic development. It is much more than that. It has erroneously become common to talk of children's intellectual achievements in terms of such scholastic pursuits as reading, writing, language, study etc. Schooling is not a necessary condition of intelligence. However, schooling enriches intelligence. This is a definite correlation between the children's IQ and his ability to succeed in school.

10. There are individual differences in intelligence. People differ from one another in the possession of this trait. However, the difference is one of degree and not of kind. Some have more of it and others have less of it. More of intelligence does not make a man angel and less of it does not make him a devil.

11. Intelligence is not a single or unitary trait, but a composite of several traits.

**INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT**

The concept of intelligence quotient (IQ) was first of all suggested by Stern and Kuhlmann in 1912 but used by Terman in the Stanford Binet Scale revised in 1916. The IQ is the ratio of an individual's mental age (MA) to his chronological age (CA). It is found by the formula (M.A / C. A) x 100. The ratio is multiplied by 100 to remove the decimal and magnify the number. The two terms MA and IQ are not independent of each other as can be seen by examining the formula. The IQ has meaning only in terms of the measured MA. If a child's MA equals his CA, his IQ will be exactly 100. An IQ of 100 thus represents normal or average performance. IQ below 100 indicates retard action and IQ above 100 indicates acceleration. Let us define the terms MA and CA.

**Mental Age (MA).** MA refers to mental maturity of a person corresponding to his level of performance on an intelligence test. Ideally if a 6 year old child is able to solve the tasks of a test meant for 7 years, old, then his MA is 7 years. Let us suppose a child passes all tests for age 4, half tests for age 5 and none for age 6, then his MA is 4½ years.

**Chronological age (CA).** CA is the physical age of the child. It is calculated according to the date of birth of the child.

IQ is not a property of the organism. It is simply an index of performance on a specific test. An individual's IQ indicates rate of mental development or degree of brightness. It is an expression of an individual's ability at a given point of time in relation to his age norms. It is both a reflection of prior educational achievement and a predicator of subsequent educational performance. When we say that a particular individual has an IQ of 150, it implies that the individual is growing one and a half times faster each year intellectually than the average individual of his CA group.

When we say that a particular child has an IQ of 50, it implies that the child is growing only half as fast intellectually as he is chronologically. An IQ of 100 means that one's MA and CA are the same that one is performing at the level most of the persons of his age performs. The IQ distribution is shown as under:
IQ Range | Category
---|---
1 60–70 | Feeble minded
2 70–80 | Borderline
3 80–90 | Dull
4 90–110 | Normal
5 110–120 | Superior
6 120–130 | Very superior
7 130 and above | Genius

STRUCTURE OF INTELLECT (SOI) (J. P. Guilford)

Structure of intellect was developed by Dr. J. P. Guilford and his associates in the psychological laboratory at the University of Southern California in 1966 on the basis of factor analysis of many tests. The idea of structure of intellect model was formulated in fifties, following the factor analysis of many tests. It was successively refined and modified until the present model was finally developed in the year 1966. He suggests that the mind is composed of at least three dimensions, instead of unidimensional model of intellect which permeated earlier writing. The model is a three way classification of intellectual abilities namely Operations, Contents, and Products. According to Guilford, each dimension of intellect is sufficiently distinct which may be detected by factor analysis. Every intellectual ability, in the structure, is characterized in terms of the type of operations, contents and sort of products which results. The three dimensions of intellect are given below:

A. **Operations.** The kind of classification on the basis of operations gives five major groups of intellectual abilities:
   1. **Cognition.** It is the most important fundamental operation in learning process.
   2. **Memory.** It is a primary mental process. It means retention of what is recognized.
   3. **Divergent thinking.** This operation is most clearly involved in aptitude of creative potential. In divergent thinking operations, we think in different directions, searching and seeking some variety and novelty. Divergent thinking is closely associated with creativity.
   4. **Convergent thinking.** It is the generation of information from given information, where the emphasis is upon achieving conventionally accepted best outcomes. The given information fully determines the response.
   5. **Evaluation.** It means teaching decisions or making judgements concerning criterion satisfaction of information. In evaluation we reach conclusion and decisions as to goodness, correctness, suitability or adequacy of what we know, what we remember and what we produce in productive thinking.

B. **Contents.** A second way of classifying the intellectual factor is according to the kind of material or content involved. The factor known thus for involve four kinds of material content. The content may be:
   1. **Figural content.** It is concrete material such as perceived through the senses. It does not represent anything except itself. Visual material has properties as size, form and color etc. Things we hear of feel, provide other figural material.
   2. **Symbolic content.** It is composed of letters, digits and other conventional signs usually organized in general patterns such as the alphabet or the number system...
   3. **Semantic content.** It is in the form of verbal meanings or ideas for which no examples are necessary.
   4. **Behavioral content.** It means the social behavior in society.

C. **Products.** When a certain operation is applied to certain kind of content, as many as six general kinds of products may be involved. These are:
1. **Units.**  
   ¡ Segregated chunks.

2. **Classes.**  
   ¡ Common properties within sets.

3. **Relations.**  
   ¡ Meaningful connections.

4. **Systems.**  
   ¡ Organized patterns.

5. **Transformations.**  
   ¡ Changes, transitions.

6. **Implications.**  
   ¡ Other information.

**Educational implications.**

1. Change is the concept of the learner and the learning process. Traditionally we have been following that learner is a kind of stimulus response device. But the new conception of the learner in the light of the findings of SOI model is that of electronic computer who not only stores information but also uses that information to generate new information either by divergent or convergent thinking and it also evaluates its own results.

2. This concept of the learner leads to the idea that learning is discovery of information and not merely the formation of associations (S → R bondage). The model suggests that in order to understand human learning and higher mental processes of thinking, problem solving and creative etc., some drastic modifications are to be made in our theory of curriculum construction and methodology of instruction.

3. The traditional idea that education is the training of mind or of the intellect has lost ground in the light of the recent findings of the factor analysis of the intellectual abilities. Now, the main emphasis in education is given to the learning of specific habits or skills.

4. The most learning has both specific and general aspects. The educators may take the view that every intellectual factor can be developed at least to some extent by learning.

5. We should plan our curriculum in such a way that a certain combination of contents, operations and products is made for the improvement of intellectual abilities. We have to develop teaching methods to accomplish the goal of education.

6. The model of intellect has explored 120 intellectual abilities, which enable us to find out if any of the general intellectual skills is being neglected in our curriculum. The model is very helpful to devise enrichment programmes for gifted and creative children.

**PERSONALITY**

The meaning and definition of any term is arbitrary. This also holds true in case of the word personality. To arrive at its meaning, we have to trace the historical root of the word. The term personality has been derived from the Latin word *persona* that was associated with Greek theatre in ancient times. The mask, worn by the actors, was called persona. According to the concept of mask, personality was thought to be the effect and influence which the individual wearing a mask left in the audience.

**Different views about personality:**

1. **Personality as stimulus.** Some psychologists define personality in terms of its social stimulus value. How an individual affects other persons, with whom he comes in contact, whether he is impressive or repulsive, has him dominating or submissive personality.

2. **Summative approach.** It emphasizes on the importance of sum total of different processes and activities of the individual, e.g., innate dispositions, habits, impulses and emotions.

3. **Integrative approach.** Personality is the integrative organization of all the cognitive, affective, conative and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in focal distinction from others (Warren’s Dictionary)

4. **Totality view.** A man’s personality is the total picture of his organized behaviour, especially, as it can be characterized by his fellowmen in a consistent way. Mark Sherman in his book, Personality: Inquiry and Application (1979) has defined personality as, “the characteristic pattern of behaviors, cognition and emotion which may be experienced by the individual and/or manifest to others.”

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5. **Personality as adjustment.** Personality is an individual’s characteristic pattern of behaviour. Individual, through his continuous reactions, attempts to adjust himself in his environment. Thus we see that different approaches have been made to define personality but there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. Though there is diversity of views but even then all psychologists agree on certain common basic characteristics.

**Definitions:**

1. **Watson.** "Personality is the sum of activities that can be discovered by actual observations over a long enough period of time to give reliable information."
2. **R. S. Woodworth.** "Personality is the quality of the individual's total behaviour."
3. **Allport.** "Personality is a dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment."
4. **R. B. Cattel.** "Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation."
5. **Eysenk.** "Personality is the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment."

Thus we can conclude the following points about personality:

1. The personality is something unique and specific. No two individuals behave in precisely the same way over any period of time.
2. The main characteristic of personality is self-consciousness. The man is described as a person or to have a personality when the idea of self enters into his consciousness.
3. Personality includes everything about a person. It includes all the behaviour patterns, i.e., conative, cognitive and affective and covers not only conscious activities but goes deeper into semi-conscious and unconscious also.
4. It is an organization of some psychophysical systems or some behaviour characteristics and functions as a unified whole.
5. Personality is not static, it is dynamic and ever in process of change and modification. One has to struggle with the environmental as well as the inner forces throughout the span of his life.
6. Every personality is the product of heredity and environment. Bot contribute significantly towards the development of the child's personality.
7. Learning and acquisition of experiences contribute towards growth and development of personality. Every personality is the end product of this process of learning and acquisition.

Indeed this short and concise explanation of the term has a wide meaning. It draws a beautiful portrait of an individual's totality. It may be understood to mean as the sum total of one's way of behaving towards oneself and others as well. It also predicts one's nature of behaviour as how one will behave in a particular situation and one's pattern of adjustment to the ever-changing forces of environment.

**Biological and socio-cultural determinants of personality**

Personality development does not take place in vacuum. Several factors within the individual and outside of him influence and shape his personality. We can classify these factors into two groups: biological and socio-cultural.

A. **Biological factors.** The biological factors affecting personality are the following:

1. **The ductless glands.** They secrete hormones and their secretion is responsible for growth and changes in personality. If they secrete in a normal way, it results in normal growth of personality. Their over-secretion or under-secretion causes various kinds of personality deformities. A brief description of them is given below:
   a. **Pancreas.** It sends insulin to the body. When there is deficiency of insulin, the mental powers are weakened and personality of the individual seems less balanced. The person's mood is changed and temperament becomes irritated.

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b. **Thyroid.** It produces thyroxin. It maintains the rate of body metabolism. Its excessive secretion produces various distortions of personality, i.e., rapid physical growth, tension, irritation and instability. Its inadequate secretion produces dwarfness, dullness of intelligence and retardation in bodily growth.

c. **Adrenal.** It produces two hormones, i.e., adrenaline and cortin. The excess of adrenaline produces rapid heartbeat and high blood pressure. It under-secretion results in weakness and lethargy in the body. The excess of cortin results in exaggerated masculinity. A boy of 3 or 4 years of age may show the physical and sexual maturity of 18 years old.

d. **Gonads.** They exert great influence on the sexual life of the individual. If they are overactive, they will make the individual oversexed. On the other hand if they are under-active, the sex urge becomes weak.

e. **Pituitary glands.** It is also called master gland. It controls other glands. Its over-activity results in giantness and muscular vigor. Its under-activity results in impaired growth and sluggishness.

2. **The physique.** It refers to one’s height, weight, physical features, body build, proportion etc. These factors affect one’s attitude towards oneself and others. Persons with fair complexion and relatively thin structure enjoy an advantage over their ugly and bulky associates. Tall persons enjoy an advantage over short ones. Dwarf and bulky person may develop a feeling of inferiority. A person with attractive physical appearances is liked by others. They like to associate with him. It helps to create a feeling of self-confidence in him. On the other hand a squint in the eye, snub nose, deafness etc. may cause shyness, reserved nature or inferiority complex in the person. A person with any or some of these defects find it difficult to mix with others. It hampers his social development. Similarly an ailing or unhealthy person is more likely to react emotionally than rationally. This type of behaviour is not liked by the people. As such he has to face adjustment problems.

B. **Socio-cultural (Environmental) determinants.** Personality develops and blossoms in socio-cultural environment. The socio-cultural environment consists of social codes or social norms. He has to adopt the code of conduct prescribed by the society and fashion himself according to the cultural pattern of that society. Various agencies are responsible for molding and developing his personality. A brief description of these agencies is given below:

1. **Family.** It is the primary agency of development of personality of the individual. It is here that the child is initiated into social set-up. The child spends the first 5 or 6 years exclusively in the family. This period is the most crucial stage in the child’s development. Development of child’s personality depends upon the conditions prevailing in the homes and the parent-child relationship existing there.

2. **School.** Next to home, school is another agency which is responsible for the development of personality of the child. It is in the school that children learn to adjust to large groups of people. A good school, besides developing the child socially, emotionally, educationally and mentally, develops in him a broader outlook of life. If the school provides a rich balanced curriculum, it provides adequate recreational facilities and if there is competent supervision, these things influence the personality of the individual in a positive way. And vice versa.

3. **Neighborhood.** Neighborhood also casts a great influence on the individual’s personality. The child interacts with the members of the neighborhood. They values they cherish, the attitudes they possess, the type of education they receive, the educational institutions they attend, the type of occupation they engage in all these things directly or indirectly affect the personality of the individual.

**Cultural determinants.** Culture determines the nature and form of inter-personal relation, attitudes and behaviour of the members of a particular society. The way the child is handled in the family is also dependent on the culture. Since cultural values change from society to society, the personality of different individuals brought up in different societies differ from one another. Thus personality is the mirror or image of culture.
ALLPORT’S TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

G. B. Allport (1897 – 1967) was the first personality theorist who adopted trait approach. According to Allport personality traits are the basic units of the structure of our personality. Allport tried to search for these basic units of human behaviour. His conception and research on trait approach to personality had great influence on psychologists. He has conceived that traits have real and vital existence. He defined trait, “As a generalized and focalized neuro-psychic system with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent and to initiate and guide consistent forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour.”

The definition given by Allport is comprehensive one. It emphasizes that traits are not linked with small number of stimuli but they are general and enduring in nature.

1. Allport says trait provide structure, uniqueness and motivation that characterize a person’s personality.
2. Traits are functionally autonomous reaction tendencies which are aroused by focal classes of stimulus situation.
3. Such reaction tendencies which are in a sense unique for each individual personality, but because of common biological and environmental influences, many traits may be considered common traits, thus allowing the measurement and prediction of behaviour.
4. Traits account for the consistency in human behaviour. Traits can be observed directly, therefore, their existence must be inferred.
5. The frequency with which a person adopts a certain type of adjustment is one criterion of a trait. Second criterion is the range of situation in which he adopts this same mode of acting. Theirs criteria is the intensity of his reaction in keeping with this preferred pattern of behaviour.
6. Traits are not habits. Habits are more specific than traits, e.g., brushing, washing hands are habits while as cleanliness is trait.
7. Attitudes are not traits. Attitudes like habits are more specific than traits.

Characteristics of traits.

1. Traits are both general and focal.
2. Traits are aroused by certain classes of stimuli and not by specific stimuli.
3. Traits have dominance tendencies in the presence of other people.
4. Traits are consistent and permanent in nature.

Allport has classified human traits into three broad categories.

1. **Cardinal trait.** Cardinal traits are most active and dominant traits of one’s personality. Although present in a very small number just one or two, these are enough to color the personality according to their characteristics. E.g., we can cite sense of humour as cardinal trait in one’s personality. The person may be identified through his behaviour.
2. **Central trait.** All those traits which are frequently employed for identifying and describing one’s personality, e.g., honesty, kindness, shyness etc. Usually seven or eight such central traits are enough for knowing and describing the personality of an individual.
3. **Secondary traits (Secondary Dispositions).** Secondary dispositions are specific narrow traits. They are called attitudes. Secondary traits are those traits of an individual’s personality which play a quite secondary but significant role in the identification and description of one’s personality that is why they are reflected quite rarely in one’s behaviour like a person is named as miser, selfish and greedy.

**Common traits and individual traits.**

Common traits are those traits which are shared by several individuals. In contrast to this, individual traits are those traits which are possessed by a particular individual, e.g., group can be described by its trait as friendly, intelligent etc.
According to Allport traits differ in intensity and magnitude in general population from individual; to individual. No two individuals are alike. They operate in their unique way in the environment. Each individual is unique in his adjustment.

Educational implications:
1. The teacher can know the traits of a child and help him to develop and promote those characteristics which are his assets.
2. Education has to act as a positive intervention mechanism. It has to strengthen those traits which are worthwhile so that the personality of child flourishes.
3. It helps identifying personality profile of a cultural group, thus helping to find out the national character.
4. Teacher designs programme according to the traits of child. Positive traits should be strengthened and negative traits remedied.
5. We can depict those traits which are responsible for specific skill. It helps us in correlating traits with the performance in different aspects of school achievement.
6. We will be able to identify children who possess initiative and also those who lack initiative and work a plan to create leadership qualities.

PSYCHO ANALYTIC THEORY OF PERSONALITY SIGMUND FREUD
Sigmund Freud, a Viennese physician, is the originator of this theory. It is the most influential, most comprehensive and most widely studied personality theory. Freud published his theory in three volumes. The most ideas of his theory are given below.

A. The organization of structure of personality. According to Freud, human personality is composed of three interrelated and interacting elements, i.e., the id, the ego and the super ego. These structures are not physically present in the brain. They are psychological concepts or constructs that Freud proposed in order to explain certain aspects of human behaviour. A brief description of these is given below.

1. The id. It is the biological component of personality. It consists of life instincts (such as hunger, thirst, sex, etc.) and death instincts. The death instinct is responsible for aggressiveness and destruction. The id is the basic energy source that motivates all behaviour. It operates according to the pleasure principle. It seeks immediate gratification of all instinctive drives. It is not bothered about any reason or logic.

2. The ego. It begins to develop gradually out of the id. It is able to cope with the real world and protect the individual from harm. It is governed by reality principle. It seeks to satisfy the id’s wants and needs in a realistic way. Like id, the ego too wants to satisfy the instinctual urges. But it does so in a productive and realistic way. The ego is like the administrative officer of the personality. It is largely conscious and in direct contact with external world.

3. Super ego. As the infant becomes a child, a third system of personality called super ego, emerges. It represents the moral ideas and strives for perfection rather than for pleasure. It tries to persuade the ego to pursue moralistic goals. It makes the task of the ego harder by forcing it to consider not just what is real, but also what is right.

B. Psycho-sexual development.
Freud is convinced that personality is essentially formed within the first few years of life. Thus he proposes various stages of psycho-sexual development. The manner in which the child goes through these stages is a major determinant of personality.

1. Oral Stage. It is the first stage of psycho-sexual development. It lasts for the first few years of life. The child derives satisfaction primarily through the mouth sucking, biting and swallowing etc.

2. Anal Stage. It is the second stage of psycho-sexual development. It appears in the second year of child’s life and coincides with the toilet training. The erogenous zone shifts from the mouth to the anal area. The child’s major source of irritation and gratification involves processes of elimination.
3. **Phallic Stage.** It extends from the age of 3 to 5 years when the child first becomes fully aware of the genital differences between males and females. Child feels affection for the parent of the opposite sex and a sense of jealousy and rivalry with the parent of the same sex. For boys this issue is called Oedipus complex and for girls it is called Electra complex.

4. **Latent Stage.** It begins around the age of 6. According to Freud, children of both sexes are less concerned with psychosexual conflicts and more involved in refining ego processes for dealing with the environment.

5. **Genital Stage.** It begins around puberty when the physical changes of adolescence reawaken sexual urges. The sexual feelings that were dormant during the latency period remerge in full force. Adolescents and adults seek to gratify these drives through sexual relations with the people outside the family.

C. **Levels of consciousness.**

Freud proposed three levels of consciousness as given below:

1. **Conscious.** It is the upper most level. It is the present moment of awareness. Mental events and memories that the person is aware of at the moment constitute the conscious mind.

2. **Preconscious.** It is somewhat farther from the surface, but contains all memories and associations that will arise to consciousness if called upon.

3. **Unconscious.** It is the deepest layer of mind, it is the repository of buried thoughts, emotions, impulses, memories, wishes and desires that were once conscious but have been pushed back into the unconscious because they were too shocking shameful or painful to tolerate. As such they are not ordinarily accessible to voluntary control. Slip of tongue which causes an embarrassment to us is an example of the presence of the unconscious.

**Educational implications:**

1. This theory stresses the need of providing favorable environment to the child. Child should not be put under the environmental stress. Environmental stress may result in regression and fixation.

2. The child should be developed free from fear. Fear is the basic root of neurosis.

3. As far as possible, the child should be kept free from inhibitions. Inhibitions take roots in unconscious mind.

4. Toilet training should be given to the child. Do not slap him if he pass urine. Instead give him a proper training.

5. This theory has given insight into the complexity and depth of human personality. It has enabled us to know the causes of repression, mental conflicts, delinquency and problem behaviour. With the help of this knowledge we are in a position to bring improvement in an individual’s behaviour.

6. It has stressed the importance of childhood experiences in the development of personality. Hence the teachers should provide rich experience to the child so that he develops a healthy personality.

7. It has stresses the need of introducing co-curricular activities so that children may get their emotional tension released.

8. It is against the traditional concept of discipline which is negative in connotation. It is against using rod or creating fear in the child. It favors a concept of discipline, which is based on love, sympathy and understanding.
## Feedback Form

**Feedback/ Response of B.Ed Students regarding the module I (Computer Assisted Self Learning Packages in Learning and Development)**

**To submit feedback online click the following link** (press the allow button after clicking)

[https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSfIcALQd4U6QJJKaYEtvJ2UpMqQZkAxNTWX3wKMyyp2SatSQ/viewform](https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSfIcALQd4U6QJJKaYEtvJ2UpMqQZkAxNTWX3wKMyyp2SatSQ/viewform)

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