

MAR GREGORIOS COLLEGE OF ARTS & SCIENCE

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**Affiliated to the University of Madras
Approved by the Government of Tamil Nadu
An ISO 9001:2015 Certified Institution**



PG DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

**SUBJECT NAME: SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS
FOR SOCIAL WORK**

SUBJECT CODE: HAWEA

SEMESTER: I

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Objectives

- To give an understanding of concepts in Psychology and Sociology relevant to Social Work.
- To understand the various stages of Human Growth and Development.
- To enable the student to gain knowledge about the society and its dynamism

Unit1

Developmental Psychology: Definition, fields of Psychology; Definition and characteristics of behaviour; Relevance of Psychology to Social Work Practice; Growth and development of the individual – principles of development, stages of human growth and development, needs, tasks, changes and problems in every stage, emphasis on socio-cultural factors influencing development; Influence of heredity and environment.

Unit2

Theories Related to Personality: Personality: Definition and nature of Personality, Psycho-Dynamic approach (Freud), Humanistic approach (Carl Roger and Maslow's) PsychoSocial approach (Erik Erikson), Cognitive Development (Piaget), Moral Development (Kohlberg), Social learning theory (Bandura)

Unit3

Understanding Behaviour and Mental Health: Sensation, Perception and learning (Classical and Operant learning theories), Memory process: Registration, retention and recall, Intelligence – factors influencing intelligence, Mental Health; Mental Illness; Classification of minor and major mental illness, ICD 10 - Outline of common mental disorders, and Mental Retardation

Unit4

Sociology and Social Work: Meaning, scope, significance and relevance, Basic Sociological Concepts: Society- Meaning, definition, types, structure, Characteristics of Society, community, social groups; association and institution. social structure and functions of social institutions- marriage, family, kinship, caste, religion and education; socialization: process and agents. social control: concept, types and functions. Agents of social control: kinship, religion, law, education, traditions and customs, social change: urbanization, industrialization, westernization, sanskritisation, secularization, cultural lag and ethnocentrism.

Unit5

Social Movements in India: Concept and characteristics, Social movements- peasant, tribal, Dalits, backward class, women, minority groups, working class and student; social change in India, social movements; social issues in India; concept, issues and causes, approaches in responding to issues: corruption, malnourishment, child abuse, violence against women & sexual minorities- human trafficking, communalism, terrorism and environment degradation. current social issues, role of social worker

UNIT-1

Growth and Development of the individual

Personal development involves mental, physical, social, emotional, and spiritual growth that allows a person to live a productive and satisfying life within the customs and regulations of their society. This is achieved through the development of life skills.

These life skills, skills necessary for successfully living a productive and satisfying life, generally fall into one of several categories: feeling about self, intimacy, family, friends, community, job, leisure, and spirituality. They include being able to recognize and describe one's feelings, giving and receiving feedback, recognizing assumptions, setting realistic and attainable goals, and employing problem-solving strategies.

Increased personal growth and development is the goal of a wide range of men and women. It includes those who suffer from problems in their relationship with others, or who suffer emotionally with feeling of low self-esteem, anxiety, or depression. It also includes individuals who are marginally successful or even very successful in life, but who want to improve their efficiency, their ability to be and feel intimate and relate to others, and/or their general level of satisfaction with, and enjoyment of, living.

principles of development

Stages of development

Conception

Conception occurs during the part of a woman's menstrual cycle called ovulation. Doctors consider day 1 of a menstrual cycle the first day of a woman's period.

Ovulation usually occurs around the midpoint of a woman's menstrual cycle. This would fall around day 14 in a 28-day cycle, but it's important to remember that even normal cycle lengths can vary. During ovulation, one of the ovaries releases an egg, which then travels down one of the fallopian tubes. If there's sperm present in a woman's fallopian tube when this happens, the sperm could fertilize the egg. Usually, an egg has about 12 to 24 hours where it

can be fertilized by sperm. However, sperm can live for several days in a woman's body. Therefore, when the ovary releases the egg, sperm that are already present from intercourse a few days before could fertilize it. Or, if a woman has sex during the time the egg has been released, the sperm could fertilize the just-released egg. Conception comes down to timing, the health of a woman's reproductive tract, and the quality of a man's sperm. Most doctors usually recommend having unprotected sex starting about three to six days before you ovulate, as well as the day you ovulate if you wish to become pregnant. This increases the chances that sperm will be present in the fallopian tube to fertilize the egg once it's released.

pre-natal

Prenatal care, also known as **antenatal care**, is a type of preventive healthcare. Its goal is to provide regular check-ups that allow doctors or midwives to treat and prevent potential health problems throughout the course of the pregnancy and to promote healthy lifestyles that benefit both mother and child. During check-ups, pregnant women receive medical information over maternal physiological changes in pregnancy, biological changes, and prenatal nutrition including prenatal vitamins. Recommendations on management and healthy lifestyle changes are also made during regular check-ups. The availability of routine prenatal care, including prenatal screening and diagnosis, has played a part in reducing the frequency of maternal death, miscarriages, birth defects, low birth weight, neonatal infections and other preventable health problems.

Infancy

Infancy is recognized as the stage of life from a human's birth up until he or she learns how to speak: generally until the age of one or two. During this stage, the child transitions from a dependent toddler to a relatively active child; he or she is typically able to crawl, roll over and walk. In terms of physical development, the stage of infancy witnesses the most growth. Also during infancy the child gains a sense of trust when its caregivers provide affection and reliability.

Babyhood

The early stage of growth or development. early childhood, infancy. time of life - a period of time during which a person is normally in a particular life state.

Childhood

Childhood is the age span ranging from birth to adolescence. According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, childhood consists of two stages: preoperational stage and concrete operational stage. In developmental psychology, childhood is divided up into the developmental stages of toddlerhood (learning to walk), early childhood (play age), middle childhood (school age), and adolescence (puberty through post-puberty). Various childhood factors could affect a person's attitude formation.

Puberty

Puberty is the time in life when a boy or girl becomes sexually mature. It is a process that usually happens between ages 10 and 14 for girls and ages 12 and 16 for boys. It causes physical changes, and affects boys and girls differently. In girls: The first sign of puberty is usually breast development.

Adolescence

Adolescence is usually associated with the teenage years, but its physical, psychological or cultural expressions may begin earlier and end later. For example, puberty now typically begins during preadolescence, particularly in females. Physical growth (particularly in males) and cognitive development can extend into the early twenties. Thus, age provides only a rough marker of adolescence, and scholars have found it difficult to agree upon a precise definition of adolescence.

Adulthood

Adulthood, the period in the human lifespan in which full physical and intellectual maturity have been attained. Adulthood is commonly thought of as beginning at age 20 or 21 years.

Middle age, commencing at about 40 years, is followed by old age at about 60 years.

A brief treatment of development during adulthood follows. For full treatment, *see* human development and human behaviour.

Middle age

Middle age, period of human adulthood that immediately precedes the onset of old age. Though the age period that defines middle age is somewhat arbitrary, differing greatly from person to person, it is generally defined as being between the ages of 40 and 60. The physiological and psychological changes experienced by a middle-aged person centre on the gradual decline of physical abilities and the awareness of mortality. In middle age, the relative potencies of past, present, and future are altered as the individual increasingly directs effort to the process of reminiscence and recollection of the past, rather than anticipation of the future. If approached constructively, middle age can prepare an individual for a satisfying and productive old age.

Old age

On average, adults between the **ages** of 30 and 49 think **old age** begins at 69. **People** who are currently 50-64 believe **old age** starts at 72. Responders who are 65 and older say **old age** begins at 74.

An overview of the needs, tasks, changes and problems, emphasis on socio-cultural factors influencing development.

Unit II

Intelligence

Intelligence has been defined in many ways: the capacity for logic, understanding, self-awareness, learning, emotional knowledge, reasoning, planning, creativity, critical thinking, and problem solving. More generally, it can be described as the ability to perceive or infer information, and to retain it as knowledge to be applied towards adaptive behaviors within an environment or context.

Factors Influencing of Heredity and Environment

The following are a list of factors which influencing:

- **Heredity:** Heredity and genes certainly play an important role in the transmission of physical and social characteristics from parents to offsprings. Different characteristics of growth and development like intelligence, aptitudes, body structure, height, weight, color of hair and eyes are highly influenced by heredity.
- **Socioeconomic:** Socioeconomic factors definitely have some affect. It has been seen that the children from different socioeconomic levels vary in average body size at all ages. The upper level families being always more advanced. The most important reasons behind this are better nutrition, better facilities, regular meals, sleep, and exercise. Family size also influences growth rate as in big families with limited income sometimes have children that do not get the proper nutrition and hence the growth is affected.
- **Nutritional:** Growth is directly related with nutrition. The human body requires an adequate supply of calories for its normal growth and this need of requirements vary with the phase of development. As per studies, malnutrition is referred as a large-scale problem in many developing countries. They are more likely to be underweight, much shorter than average, and of low height for age, known as stunting. If the children are malnourished, this slows their growth process. There are nine different amino acids which are necessary for growth and absence of any one will give rise to stunted growth. Other factors like

zinc, Iodine, calcium, phosphorus and vitamins are also essential for proper growth and deficiency of anyone can affect the normal growth and development of the body.

- **Hormones:** There are a large number of endocrine glands present inside our body. These glands secrete one or more hormones directly into the bloodstream. These hormones are capable of raising or lowering the activity level of the body or some organs of the body. Hormones are considered to be a growth supporting substance. These hormones play an important role in regulating the process of growth and development.
- **Pollution:** According to studies, air pollution not only affects the respiratory organs but also have harmful effects on human growth. Indoor pollution or the pollution from housing conditions can result in ill health which can negatively impact human growth and development. For example, lead exposure from deteriorated lead-based paint in older housing can be very harmful. Lead is very harmful for children as it simply gets immersed into the growing bodies of children and obstructs with the normal development of brain and other organs and systems.
- **Race:** Racial factors also influence height, weight, color, features, and body constitution of a human being. The body growth and development differences show a relationship with varied cultural groups. For example a child of black race will be black, their height, their hair and eye color, facial structure are all governed by the same race.

Intelligence test and Aptitude

Aptitude tests are a fundamental component of a psychometric test. They attempt to measure trait intelligence (IQ) and cognitive ability, which is indicated by your efficiency in information processing. There are different types of intelligence, namely fluid and crystallised intelligence (Kaufman & Kaufman, 1993). Crystallised intelligence involves verbal or language-based accumulated knowledge developed mainly through your education and other life experiences. In contrast, fluid intelligence refers to your adaptability and flexibility in the face of novel experiences that do not permit automatic reasoning. For example, aptitude test items which measure fluid intelligence require psychometric test-takers to demonstrate deductive logic or reasoning. To give you an idea, you would need deductive logic to identify common logical rules among a group of shapes. This logic would assist you to identify the odd shape (in an 'odd one out type of question) or the next shape in a sequence.

Research into the effects of test preparation, i.e. practice, on performance in aptitude tests has revealed overall positive result. Practice, in this context, involves both learning from one's own experience and experience with practicing aptitude tests in preferably the same form which they are delivered in – online. A common question raised in aptitude test research is, what are the effects of practice on an applicant's true score on their aptitude test? One answer is that errors are reduced and even eliminated due to reduced test anxiety, increased confidence and increased preparedness.

It has also been found that practicing aptitude tests online leads to substantial improvement in the test-takers' ability, without undermining the validity (apparent truth) of the test-takers' general intelligence scores. It was further concluded by these researchers that practicing for psychometric testing is a valid and useful exercise for job applicants. They linked preparation for and practicing psychometric tests to students studying for exams, in an attempt to

get good grades and a good education. It was argued that familiarity with psychometric tests such as aptitude tests is important so that the test-taker is not taking the test 'cold'. It is better for the individual test-taker to know what to expect of the psychometric testing situation.

Memory

Memory is the faculty of the brain by which data or information is encoded, stored, and retrieved when needed. It is the retention of information over time for the purpose of influencing future action. If past events could not be remembered, it would be impossible for language, relationships, or personal identity to develop. Memory loss is usually described as forgetfulness or amnesia.

Memory is often understood as an informational processing system with explicit and implicit functioning that is made up of a sensory processor, short-term (or working) memory, and long-term memory. This can be related to the neuron. The sensory processor allows information from the outside world to be sensed in the form of chemical and physical stimuli and attended to various levels of focus and intent. Working memory serves as an encoding and retrieval processor. Information in the form of stimuli is encoded in accordance with explicit or implicit functions by the working memory processor. The working memory also retrieves information from previously stored material. Finally, the function of long-term memory is to store data through various categorical models or systems.

Registration

The first stage of memory, the registration stage is the beginning of the process memory. If there is no registration, there is no memory. Registration is

the stage where you learn something, or simply try to register some data in the brain, with an intention to retain it for a length of time and recall it when you need it. This stage is so crucial that if the quality of registration is good enough, the later two stages – the retention and the recall will be automatic processes.

Retention

Retention, as a stage of memory, means the capacity to keep the information in the brain for as long as you want it. As already discussed, retention would be an automatic process, provided the registration is perfect.

Recall

Recall is the final stage of the memory process. People can only accept that you have a good memory based on the quality of your recall. Recall, as a stage of memory process, implies “recall at will”. The crux of recall is, one should be able to recall any information, exactly as and when it is required.



Types of memory

Memory Types

There are two major categories of memory: long-term memory and short-term memory. To learn more, choose from the options below.

Long-Term Memory

Long-term memory is our brain's system for storing, managing, and retrieving information. Learn more about it.

Short-Term Memory

Closely related to “working” memory, short-term memory is the very short time that you keep something in mind before either dismissing it or transferring it to long-term memory.

Types of Long-Term Memory

As you would imagine, long-term memories are much more complex than short-term ones. We store different types of information (procedures, life experiences, language, etc.) with separate memory systems.

Explicit Memory

Explicit memory, or declarative memory, is a type of long-term memory requiring conscious thought. It's what most people have in mind when they think of a memory.

Implicit Memory

Implicit memory is a major form of long-term memory that does not require conscious thought. It allows you to do things by rote.

Personality

Definition

Personality is defined as the characteristic sets of behaviors, cognitions, and emotional patterns that evolve from biological and environmental factors. While there is no generally agreed upon definition of personality, most theories focus on motivation and psychological interactions with one's environment. Trait-based personality theories, such as those defined by Raymond Cattell, define personality as the traits that predict a person's behavior. On the other hand, more behaviorally based approaches define personality through learning and habits. Nevertheless, most theories view personality as relatively stable.

Approaches

Approaches to Studying Personality

Research into these five philosophical questions has branched into several different approaches to studying personality. The major theories include the psychodynamic, neo-Freudian, learning (or behaviorist), humanistic, biological, trait (or dispositional), and cultural perspectives.

- Psychodynamic theory, originating with Sigmund Freud, posits that human behavior is the result of the interaction among various components of the mind (the id, ego, and superego) and that personality develops according to a series of psychosexual developmental stages.
- Neo-Freudian theorists, such as Adler, Erikson, Jung, and Horney, expanded on Freud's theories but focused more on the social environment and on the effects of culture on personality.
- Learning theories, such as behaviorism, regard an individuals' actions as ultimately being responses to external stimuli. Social learning theory

believes that personality and behavior are determined by an individual's cognition about the world around them.

- Humanistic theory argues that an individual's subjective free will is the most important determinant of behavior. Humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers believed that people strive to become self-actualized—the “best version” of themselves.
- Biological approaches focus on the role of genetics and the brain in shaping personality. Related to this, evolutionary theories explore how variation in individual personalities variance may be rooted in natural selection.
- Trait theorists believe personality can be conceptualized as a set of common traits, or characteristic ways of behaving, that every individual exhibits to some degree. In this view, such personality traits are different from person to person but within an individual are stable over time and place.

Personality tests

A **personality test** is a method of assessing human personality constructs. Most personality assessment instruments are in fact introspective self-report questionnaire, or reports from life records such as rating scales.

Types

- Openness
- Conscientiousness
- Extraversion
- Agreeableness
- Neuroticism

Interaction of Motives

The essence of motives as well as psychological and pedagogical conditions for their training can be better revealed in studying the interaction between the motives and other motivation factors submotives. Many psychologists in our country and abroad for such motivation factors keep needs, purposes of activities, emotions, wills, habits, the peculiarities of temperament and personality. Interaction of motives and submotives forms complicated hierarchical system of motives, in which an individual motive cannot be changed without affecting all the system. Therefore, a successful formation of motives in any field of human activities, including the motives of conscious choice of profession, is possible only in the process of complex and all-round development of pupils personality.

Theories

Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristics behavior and thought"

Both definitions emphasize the uniqueness of the individual and consequently adopt an idiographic view.

The idiographic view assumes that each person has a unique psychological structure and that some traits are possessed by only one person; and that there are times when it is impossible to compare one person with others. It tends to use case studies for information gathering.

The nomothetic view, on the other hand, emphasizes comparability among individuals. This viewpoint sees traits as having the same psychological meaning in everyone. This approach tends to use self-report personality questions, factor analysis, etc. People differ in their positions along a continuum in the same set of traits.

We must also consider the influence and interaction of nature (biology, genetics, etc.) and nurture (the environment, upbringing) with respect to personality development.

Trait theories of personality imply personality is biologically based, whereas state theories such as Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory emphasize the role of nurture and environmental influence.

Sigmund Freud's psychodynamic theory of personality assumes there is an interaction between nature (innate instincts) and nurture (parental influences).

Freud's Theory

Personality involves several factors:

- Instinctual drives – food, sex, aggression
- Unconscious processes
- Early childhood influences (re: psychosexual stages) – especially the parents

Personality development depends on the interplay of instinct and environment during the first five years of life. Parental behavior is crucial to normal and abnormal development. Personality and mental health problems in adulthood can usually be traced back to the first five years.

Attitude and Prejudice

For ages people have been finding the difference between attitude and prejudice as both these are feelings of human beings and are expressions that are easily confused.

Attitude is common in all human beings. People have both positive and negative attitudes towards different things. Attitudes could be in favor of something or not in favor something. And, on the other hand, prejudice is a prejudgment of something without really knowing the facts or having exposed to the reality of a situation. Prejudice is always an adverse conclusion about somebody. However, the fact remains that both attitudes and prejudices can be seen in almost every person. Prominent psychologist Gordon Allport described attitudes as “the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology”. Attitude forms an important part of our personality and the way we think is a very important element in creating the kind of life we want to live.

Attitude and behaviour

Definition of Attitude

To put simply, attitude is a person’s mental outlook, which defines the way we think or feel anything. It is a hypothetical construct, i.e. whose direct observation is not possible. It is a predisposition to respond in a settled way to

a person, event, opinion, object, etc., which is reflected in our body language. It has a strong impact on our decisions, actions, stimuli, etc. Education, experience, and environment are the major factors that affect a person's attitude.

A person's attitude can be positive, negative or neutral views, which shows one's likes and dislikes for someone or something. So, the type of attitude we carry, speaks a lot about us, as we get into that mood and transmits a message to the people around us. There is no such thing like ideal attitude, for a particular situation as it is spontaneous and so we always have a choice to opt the right attitude for us.

Definition of Behavior

The term 'behavior' can be described as the way of conducting oneself. It is the manner of acting or controlling oneself towards other people. It is the range of actions, responses, and mannerisms set by an individual, system or organization in association with themselves or their environment, in any circumstances.

In short, behavior is an individual or group reaction to inputs such as an action, environment or stimulus which can be internal or external, voluntary or involuntary, conscious or subconscious.

The difference between attitude and behavior can be drawn clearly on the following grounds:

- Attitude is defined as a person's mental tendency, which is responsible for the way he thinks or feels for someone or something. Behavior

implies the actions, moves, conduct or functions of an individual or group towards other persons.

- A person's attitude is mainly based on the experiences gained by him during the course of his life and observations. On the other hand, the behavior of a person relies on the situation.
- Attitude is a person's inner thoughts and feelings. As opposed to, behavior expresses a person's attitude.
- The way of thinking or feeling is reflected by a person's attitude. On the contrary, a person's conduct is reflected by his behavior.
- Attitude is defined by the way we perceive things whereas behavior is ruled by social norms.
- Attitude is a human trait but behavior is an inborn attribute.

Sigmund Freud

Unconscious: the focus of Freud's depth psychology -- a level of psychic functioning deeper than the conscious or preconscious. The unconscious is inaccessible to introspection, not attached to language, revealed only symbolically in dreams, fantasy, myth, Freudian slips, and free association.

Early studies of hysteria: Freud argued that hysteria was caused neither by a physiological disorder of the female sexual organs nor mere play-acting; hysteria was not uniquely female. Hysteria was caused by painful, emotion-charged memories, repressed from consciousness, leading to physical symptoms. Repressed memories were typically of childhood sexual seduction. Freud originally believed these were memories of actual events (trauma theory), but later concluded that they usually recalled forbidden

wishes (wish theory).

Theory of the instincts: Freud uses the term **libido** for the energy that drives the sexual instincts. Freud conceives of psychic functioning as the flow of this energy along paths shaped by **cathexis** (attachment) and **anti-cathexis** (aversion). Libido seeks release through pleasure; when blocked this leads to neurotic symptoms. Initially Freud distinguished between sexual and self-preservation instincts, but soon came to view these as merely two expressions of a single libidinal energy. Late in life he speculated on the existence of a **death instinct** -- the drive of all living things to return to an inorganic state.

Model of the psyche

Id: biological substratum; completely unconscious; consists of wishes seeking gratification; operates according to the **pleasure principle** (seeks immediate satisfaction).

Ego: the more rational part of psyche (perception, learning, memory, reasoning); arises at interface of id and external world; aims at preservation of the organism; operates according to the **reality principle** (postpones or redefines gratification until safe or appropriate).

Super-ego: conscience; represents social norms and taboos; internalized from parental commands; produces guilt feelings (as well as self-esteem).

Repression: unacceptable desire is denied and rendered unconscious

Sublimation: transfers the energy of an unacceptable desire to a substitute activity or object; especially the transfer of sexual drives into "higher" cultural pursuits.

Projection: subject of unacceptable desire is transformed into object (e.g., "I hate you" becomes "You hate me").

Reaction formation: unacceptable desire is turned into its opposite (e.g., "I hate you" becomes "I love you").

Childhood sexuality: his insistence on the sexual nature of children made Freud highly controversial in a society that pretended otherwise. Compared with adult sexuality, Freud argued that childhood sexuality tends to be more **auto-erotic** (self-focused rather than directed toward external sexual objects), **polymorphously perverse** (the entire body is eroticized rather than focusing mainly on genital pleasure), and **bisexual** (rather than desiring only male or female sexual objects).

Stages of childhood sexuality

Oral Stage: focus on the mouth; pleasure in nursing; trauma at separation from mother/breast.

Anal-erotic stage: focus on excretory organs; pleasure in emptying bowels/bladder; fascination with products of own body; trauma at toilet training and learning societal norms of cleanliness and disgust toward bodily functions.

Genital (phallic or Oedipal) stage: focus on genital sexuality; desire for sex with parent of opposite sex; trauma when confronted with incest taboo (**Oedipus complex**); leads to repression of sexual attraction toward parent, latency period, and super-ego formation.

Female oedipus complex: original attachment to mother; emergence of genital sexuality leads to feelings of inferiority (**penis envy**); mother blamed for inadequacy and rejected as an inappropriate sexual object; redirection of sexual desire toward father; this is repressed by incest taboo; having experienced desire for both parents the girl retains a stronger bisexual orientation.

Origins of adult personality traits in childhood stages

Narcissism: appears as self-centeredness and self-love but actually reflects a lack of self-esteem, an inner loneliness and insecurity, dependence upon attention of others. Rooted in failures and inconsistencies of maternal empathy in the oral stage. Might be intensified by anything that interferes with the mother's ability to respond consistently to the child's needs or to facilitate the child's development toward autonomy. Latent predispositions may also

be reinforced by adult institutions like the therapy industry and consumerism that encourage anxious self-scrutiny.

Anal-erotic character:

A syndrome characterized by extreme possessiveness, miserliness, greed, hoarding, stubbornness. Rooted in a particularly traumatic anal stage. Might be intensified by anything that imposes stricter norms of toilet training (e.g., urban living imposes greater need for cleanliness; organization of daily life around the clock intensifies norms of punctuality).

Authoritarianism:

Exaggerated devotion to authority and authority figures, paralysis of skeptical or rebellious impulses, sadistic desire for punishment of any who defy authority. Rooted in a particularly traumatic Oedipal crisis leading to the overdevelopment of the super-ego. Might be intensified by anything that intensifies the Oedipal conflict (e.g., isolation of the nuclear family) or that increases the patriarchal authority of the father over wife and children.

Character structure:

Each society tends to reinforce a distinctive set of compulsive personality traits (e.g, narcissism, anality, or authoritarianism). Being widespread, these traits are seen as normal and adaptive, although they are rooted in the same kind of childhood traumas that produce idiosyncratic neurotic symptoms. Followers of Freud have characterized early capitalism as a society marked by the prevalence of anal character traits, while late capitalism has more often been described as a culture of narcissism. Authoritarian personality traits have figured prominently in Freudian inspired analyses of fascism and other repressive right-wing movements.

Group psychology:

Close-knit social groups (e.g., sports teams, religious orders, military units) are held together by libidinal ties (aim-inhibited sexual desire); strong identification with the leader (=father) is based on the Oedipal complex.

Theory of religion:

religious beliefs build upon unconscious memories of early childhood. The modeling of gods on parental figures reflects the child's extreme helplessness and dependency upon parental care; the ritual pursuit of transcendence of self reflects the desire to return to the blissful state of unity between self and world, child and mother (oceanic feeling) that existed before the emergence of the ego.

Civilization and its Discontents:

civilization depends upon the renunciation of sexual instinct through a combination of repression and sublimation, leading to malaise. Each new generation is forced to repeat this process of repression -- i.e., the life of the individual repeats the history of the species (**ontogenesis recapitulates phylogenesis**). Social reform and the overcoming of material scarcity cannot change this situation, since human sexual appetites remain unsatisfied. Discontent, bred by excessive sexual repression, can attach itself to the death instinct, resulting in outbursts of anti-social aggression (**return of the repressed**). The best that can be hoped for is that the masses can learn the art of sublimation, which at least allows the partial satisfaction of sexual desires through substitute outlets, rather than relying exclusively on repression.

Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development

What is Psychosocial Development?

Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology. Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson believed that personality develops in a series of stages. Unlike Freud's theory of psychosexual stages, Erikson's theory describes the impact of social experience across the whole lifespan.

One of the main elements of Erikson's psychosocial stage theory is the development of **ego identity**. Ego identity is the conscious sense of self that we develop through social interaction. According to Erikson, our ego identity is constantly changing due to new experience and information we acquire in our daily interactions with others. In addition to ego identity, Erikson also believed that a sense of competence also motivates behaviors and actions. Each stage in Erikson's theory is concerned with becoming competent in an area of life. If the stage is handled well, the person will feel a sense of mastery, which he sometimes referred to as **ego strength** or **ego quality**. If the stage is managed poorly, the person will emerge with a sense of inadequacy.

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

Psychosocial Stage 1 - Trust vs. Mistrust

Psychosocial Stage 2 - Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

- Thesecondstageoferikson'stheoryofpsychosocialdevelopmenttakesplaceduringearlychildhoodandis focused on children developing a greater sense of personal control.
- Like Freud, Erikson believed that toilet training was a vital part of this process. However, Erikson's reasoning was quite different then that of Freud's. Erikson believe that learning to control one's body functions leads to a feeling of control and a sense of independence.
- Otherimportanteventsincludegainingmorecontroloverfoodchoices,toypreferences,and clothingselection.

- Children who successfully complete this stage feel secure and confident, while those who do not are left with a sense of inadequacy and self-doubt.

Psychosocial Stage 3 - Initiative vs. Guilt

- During the preschool years, children begin to assert their power and control over the world through directing play and other social interaction.
- Children who are successful at this stage feel capable and able to lead others. Those who fail to acquire these skills are left with a sense of guilt, self-doubt and lack of initiative.

Psychosocial Stage 4 - Industry vs. Inferiority

- This stage covers the early school years from approximately age 5 to 11.
- Through social interactions, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments and abilities.

Children who are encouraged and commended by parents and teachers develop a feeling of competence and belief in their skills. Those who receive little or no encouragement from parents, teachers, or peers will doubt their ability to be successful.

Psychosocial Stage 5 - Identity vs. Confusion

- During adolescence, children are exploring their independence and developing a sense of self.
- Those who receive proper encouragement and reinforcement through personal exploration will emerge from this stage with a strong sense of self and a feeling of independence and control. Those who remain unsure of their beliefs and desires will be insecure and confused about themselves and the future.

Psychosocial Stage 6 - Intimacy vs. Isolation

- This stage covers the period of early adulthood when people are exploring personal relationships.
- Erikson believed it was vital that people develop close, committed relationships with other people. Those who are successful at this step will develop relationships that are committed and secure.
- Remember that each step builds on skills learned in previous steps. Erikson believed that a strong sense of personal identity was important to developing intimate relationships. Studies have demonstrated that those with a poor sense of self tend to have less committed relationships and are more likely to suffer emotional isolation, loneliness, and depression.

Psychosocial Stage 7 - Generativity vs. Stagnation

- During adulthood, we continue to build our lives, focusing on our career and family.
- Those who are successful during this phase will feel that they are contributing to the world by being active in their home and community. Those who fail to attain this skill will feel unproductive and uninvolved in the world.

Psychosocial Stage 8 - Integrity vs. Despair

- This phase occurs during old age and is focused on reflecting back on life.
- Those who are unsuccessful during this phase will feel that their life has been wasted and will experience many regrets. The individual will be left with feelings of bitterness and despair.
- Those who feel proud of their accomplishments will feel a sense of integrity.

Successfully completing this phase means looking back with few regrets and a general feeling of satisfaction. These individuals will attain wisdom, even when confronting death

Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development Summary Chart



Stage	Basic Conflict	Important Events	Outcome
Infancy (birth to 18 months)	Trust vs. Mistrust	Feeding	Children develop a sense of trust when caregivers provide reliability, care, and affection. A lack of this will lead to mistrust.
Early Childhood (2 to 3 years)	Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt	Toilet Training	Children need to develop a sense of personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence. Success leads to feelings of autonomy, failure results in feelings of shame and doubt.
Preschool (3 to 5 years)	Initiative vs. Guilt	Exploration	Children need to begin asserting control and power over the environment. Success in this stage leads to a sense of purpose. Children who try to exert too much power experience disapproval, resulting in a sense of guilt.
School Age (6 to 11 years)	Industry vs. Inferiority	School	Children need to cope with new social and academic demands. Success leads to a sense of competence, while failure results in feelings of inferiority.

Adolescence (12 to 18 years)	Identity vs. Role Confusion	Social Relationsh ips	Teens needs to develop a sense of self and personal identity. Success leads to an ability to stay true to yourself, while failure leads to role confusion and a weak sense of self.
Young Adulthood (19 to 40 years)	Intimacy vs. Isolatio n	Relationshi ps	Young adults need to form intimate, loving relationships with other people. Success leads to strong relationships, while failure results in loneliness and isolation.
Middle Adulthood (40 to 65 years)	Generativity vs. Stagnation	Work and Parentho od	Adults need to create or nurture things that will outlast them, often by having children or creating a positive change that benefits other people. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in shallow involvement in the world.
Maturity(65 to death)	Ego Integrity vs. Despair	Reflection on Life	Older adults need to look back on life and feel a sense of fulfillment. Success at this stage leads to feelings of wisdom, while failure results in regret, bitterness, and despair.

HUMANISTIC APPROACH

The Humanistic Approach began in response to concerns by therapists against perceived limitations of Psychodynamic theories, especially psychoanalysis.

Individuals like Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow felt existing (psychodynamic) theories failed to adequately address issues like the meaning of behaviour, and the nature of healthy growth. However, the result was not simply new variations on psychodynamic theory, but rather a fundamentally new approach.

In humanistic psychology it is emphasised people have free will and they play an active role in determining how they behave. Accordingly, humanistic psychology focuses on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behaviour. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers were proponents of this view, which is based on the “phenomenal field” theory of Combs and Snygg.

Maslow and Rogers emphasised a view of the person as an active, creative, experiencing human being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters. They disagree with the dark, pessimistic outlook of those in the Freudian psychoanalysis ranks, but rather view humanistic theories as positive and optimistic proposals which stress the tendency of the human personality toward growth and self-actualisation. This progressing self will remain the center of its constantly changing world, a world that will help mould the self but not necessarily confine it.

Rather, the self has opportunity for maturation based on its encounters with this world. This understanding attempts to reduce the acceptance of hopelessness and redundancy.

Humanistic therapy typically relies on the client for information of the past and its effect on the present, therefore the client dictates the type of guidance the therapist may initiate. This allows for an individualised approach to therapy. Carl Rogers found patients differ in how they respond to other people. Roger tried to model a particular approach to therapy, that is he stressed the reflective or empathetic response. This response type takes the client’s viewpoint and reflects back his or her feeling and the context for it. An example of a reflective response would be, “It seems you are feeling anxious about your upcoming marriage”. This response type

seek to clarify the therapist's understanding while also encouraging the client to think more deeply and seek to fully understand the feelings they have expressed.

HUMANISTIC APPROACH

Abraham Maslow developed the Hierarchy of Needs model in the 1940-50's in the USA, and the Hierarchy of Needs theory remains valid even today for understanding human motivation, management training, and personal development. Indeed, Maslow's ideas surrounding the Hierarchy of Needs concerning the responsibility of employers to provide a workplace environment that encourages and enables employees to fulfill their own unique potential (self-actualisation) are today more relevant than ever.

Maslow took this idea and created his now famous hierarchy of needs. Beyond the details of air, water, food, and sex, he laid out five broader layers: the physiological needs, the needs for safety and security, the needs for love and belonging, the needs for esteem, and the need to actualise the self, in that order.

Hierarchy of Needs

- 1) *The physiological needs:* These include the needs we have for oxygen, water, protein, salt, sugar, calcium, and other minerals and vitamins. They also include the need to maintain a pH balance and temperature. Also, there's the need to be active, to rest, to sleep, to get rid of wastes, to avoid pain, and to have sex.

Maslow believed, and research supports him, that these are in fact individual needs, and that a lack of, say, vitamin C, will lead to a very specific hunger for

things which have in the past provided that vitamin C—e.g. orange juice. I guess the cravings that some pregnant women have, and the way in which babies eat the most foul tasting baby food, support the idea anecdotally.

- 2) *The safety and security needs:* When the physiological needs are largely taken care of, this second layer of needs comes into play. You will become increasingly interested in finding safe circumstances, stability, protection. You might develop a need for structure, for order, some limits.

Looking at it negatively, you become concerned, not with needs like hunger and thirst, but with your fears and anxieties. In the ordinary American adult, this set of needs manifest themselves in the form of four urges to have a home in a safe neighborhood, a little job security and a nest egg, a good retirement plan and a bit of insurance, and so on.

- 3) *The love and belonging needs:* When physiological needs and safety needs are, by and large, taken care of, a third layer starts to show up. You begin to feel the need for friends, as sweet heart, children, affectionate relationships in general, even a sense of community. Looked at negatively, you become increasingly susceptible to loneliness and social anxieties.

In our day-to-day life, we exhibit these needs in our desire to marry, have a family, be a part of a community, a member of a church, a brother in the fraternity, a part of a gang or a bowling club. It is also a part of what we look for in a career.

- 4) *The esteem needs:* Next, we begin to look for a little self-esteem. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, fame, glory, recognition, attention, reputation, appreciation, dignity, even dominance. The higher form involves the need for self-respect, including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom. Note that this is the “higher” form because, unlike the respect of others, once you have self-

respect, it's a lot harder to lose!

The negative version of these needs is low self-esteem and inferiority complexes. Maslow felt that Adler was really onto something when he proposed that these were at the root of many, if not most, of our psychological problems. In modern countries, most of us have what we need in regard to our physiological and safety needs. We, more often than not, have quite a bit of love and belonging, too. It's a little respect that oftentimes seems so very hard to get!

All of the preceding four levels she calls deficit needs, or D-needs. If you do not have enough of something, that is, if you have a deficit, you feel the need. But if you get all you need, you feel nothing at all! In other words, they cease to be motivating.

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Level 1. Pre-conventional Morality

- **Stage 1 - Obedience and Punishment**

The earliest stage of moral development is especially common in young children, but adults are also capable of expressing this type of reasoning. At this stage, children see rules as fixed and absolute. Obeying the rules is important because it is a means to avoid punishment.

- **Stage 2 - Individualism and Exchange**

At this stage of moral development, children account for individual points of view and judge actions based on how they serve individual needs. In the Heinz dilemma,

children argued that the best course of action was the choice that best-served Heinz's needs. Reciprocity is possible, but only if it serves one's own interests.

Level 2. Conventional Morality

- **Stage 3 - Interpersonal Relationships**

Often referred to as the "good boy-good girl" orientation, this stage of moral development is focused on living up to social expectations and roles. There is an emphasis on conformity, being "nice," and consideration of how choices influence relationships.

- **Stage 4 - Maintaining Social Order**

At this stage of moral development, people begin to consider society as a whole when making judgments. The focus is on maintaining law and order by following the rules, doing one's duty and respecting authority.

Level 3. Post-conventional Morality

- **Stage 5 - Social Contract and Individual Rights**

At this stage, people begin to account for the differing values, opinions and beliefs of other people. Rules of law are important for maintaining a society, but members of the society should agree upon these standards.

- **Stage 6 - Universal Principles**

Kohlberg's final level of moral reasoning is based upon universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. At this stage, people follow these internalized principles of

justice, even if they conflict with laws and rules.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist was particularly concerned with the way thinking develops in children from birth till they become young adults. To understand the nature of this development, Piaget carefully observed the behaviour of his own three kids. He used to present problems to them, observe responses slightly after the situations and again observe their responses. Piaget called this method of exploring development clinical interview. Piaget believed that humans also adapt to their physical and social environments in which they live. The process of adaptation begins since birth. Piaget saw this adaptation in terms of two basic processes: Assimilation and Accommodation. Assimilation. It refers to the process by which new objects and events are grasped or incorporated within the scope of existing schemes or structures. Accommodation. It is the process through which the existing schemes or structure is modified to meet the resistance to straightforward grasping or assimilation of a new object or event.

According to Piaget there are 4 basic elements in development: 1. Maturation. 2. Experience. 3. Social transmission (learning through language, schooling or teaching by parents) 4. Equilibrium. The important concept of Piaget's theory of cognitive development is the fixed progression from one stage to another. Piaget viewed cognitive growth as a progressive change. Growth varies from person to person. Piaget assumed that it follows a fixed sequence. Stages of cognitive development. Piaget has identified 4 sequential stages through which every individual progresses in cognitive development. Each stage has an age span with distinctive learning capabilities. This would be helpful in framing curriculum. And understanding of this development sequence is indispensable for parents as well as for teachers because these influences a great deal during infancy, childhood and adolescence. The 4 developmental stages are discussed below

1. Sensory-Motor Stage. This stage begins at birth and lasts till the child is about 2 years old. It is called Sensory-Motor Stage, because children's thinking involves seeing, hearing,

moving, touching, testing and so on. This stage marks a transitional stage for a person from a biological to a psychological being. In the first few weeks of life the baby's behaviour consists simply of reflex responses, such as sucking, stepping and grasping. Later the reflex disappears and the baby chooses what and when to grasp. During this period the infants attain the concept of object permanence. This refers to the understanding that objects and events continue to exist even when they cannot directly be seen, heard or touched. Till this kind of understanding is achieved, an object that is out of sight remains out of mind and therefore, becomes non-existent. A second major accomplishment in the Sensori-Motor period is learning to reverse actions. E.g., we give a toy to a child that has ten detachable parts. We detach all parts. Through trial and error, the child gradually learns to attach all the parts of the toy.

2. Pre-Operational Stage (2 to 7 Years). This stage is called Pre-Operational because the children have not yet mastered the ability to perform mental operations. Children's thinking during this stage is governed by what is seen rather than by logical principles. Following are the accomplishments of Pre-Operational Stage: a. Semantic function. During this stage the child develops the ability to think using symbols and signs. Symbols represent something or someone else; for example, a doll may symbolize a baby, child or an adult. b. Egocentrism. This stage is characterized by egocentrism. Children believe that their way of thinking is the only way to think. c. Decentering. A pre-operational child has difficulty in seeing more than one dimension or aspects of situation. It is called decentering. d. Animism. Children tend to refer to inanimate objects as if they have life-like qualities and are capable of actions. e. Seriation. They lack the ability of classification or grouping objects into categories. f. Conservation. It refers to the understanding that certain properties of an object remain the same despite a change in their appearance.

3. Concrete Operational Stage (7 to 11 years). At this stage a child is concerned with the integration of stability of his cognitive systems. He learns to add, subtract, multiply and

divide. He is in a position to classify concrete objects. In short, children develop the abilities of rational thinking but their thinking is tied to concrete objects.

4. Formal Operational Stage (11 & above). This type is characterised by the emergence of logical thinking and reasoning. Other important cognitive attainments during this period are: the ability to think about the hypothetical possibilities and to solve problems through logical deductions and in a systematic manner.

Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory, proposed by Albert Bandura, emphasizes the importance of observing, modelling, and imitating the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Social learning theory considers how both environmental and cognitive factors interact to influence human learning and behavior.

In social learning theory, Albert Bandura (1977) agrees with the behaviorist learning theories of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. However, he adds two important ideas:

1. Mediating processes occur between stimuli & responses.
2. Behavior is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning.

Observational Learning

Social learning theory focuses on the learning that occurs within a **social context**. It considers that people learn from one another, including such concepts as observational learning, imitation, and modeling. Among others **Albert Bandura** is considered the leading proponent of this theory.

General principles of social learning theory follows:

1. People can **learn by observing** the behavior of others and the outcomes of those behaviors.
2. Learning can occur **without a change** in behavior. Behaviorists say that learning has to be represented by a permanent change in behavior, in contrast social learning theorists say that because people can learn through **observation alone**, their learning may not necessarily be shown in their performance. Learning may or may not result in a behavior change.
3. Cognition plays a **role** in learning. Over the last 30 years social learning theory has become **increasingly cognitive** in its interpretation of human learning. Awareness and expectations of future reinforcements or punishments can have a major effect on the behaviors that people exhibit.
4. Social learning theory can be considered a bridge or a **transition** between behaviorist learning theories and cognitive learning theories.

How the environment reinforces and punishes modeling:

People are often reinforced for **modeling** the behavior of **others**. Bandura suggested that the

environment also reinforces modeling. This is in several possible ways:

- 1, The observer is reinforced **by the model**. For example a student who changes dress to fit in with a certain group of students has a strong likelihood of being accepted and

thus reinforced by that group.

2. The observer is reinforced by a **third person**. The observer might be modeling the actions of someone else, for example, an outstanding class leader or student. The teacher notices this and compliments and praises the observer for modeling such behavior thus reinforcing that behavior.

3. The imitated **behavior itself leads** to reinforcing consequences. Many behaviors that we learn from others **produce satisfying** or reinforcing results. For example, a student in my multimedia class could observe how the extra work a classmate does is fun. This student in turn would do the same extra work and also receive enjoyment.

4. Consequences of the model's behavior affect the observers behavior **vicariously**. This is known as vicarious reinforcement. This is where in the **model is reinforced** for a response and then the **observer shows an increase** in that same response. Bandura illustrated this by having students watch a film of a model **hitting a inflated clown doll**. One group of children saw the model being praised for such action. Without being reinforced, the group of children began to also hit the doll.

Contemporary social learning perspective of reinforcement and punishment:

1. Contemporary theory proposes that both reinforcement and punishment have **indirect effects** on learning. They are not the sole or main cause.

2. Reinforcement and punishment **influence** the extent to which an individual exhibits a behavior that has been learned.

3. The **expectation** of reinforcement **influences cognitive** processes that promote learning. Therefore attention plays a critical role in learning. And attention is influenced by the expectation of reinforcement. An example would be, where the teacher tells a group of students that what they **will study next** is not on the test. Students will not pay attention, because they do not expect to know the information for atest.

Cognitive factors in social learning:

Social learning theory has cognitive factors as well as behaviorist factors (actually operant factors).

1. Learning without performance: Bandura makes a distinction between learning through **observation** and the actual **imitation** of what has been learned.

2. Cognitive processing during learning: Social learning theorists contend that **attention** is a critical factor in learning.

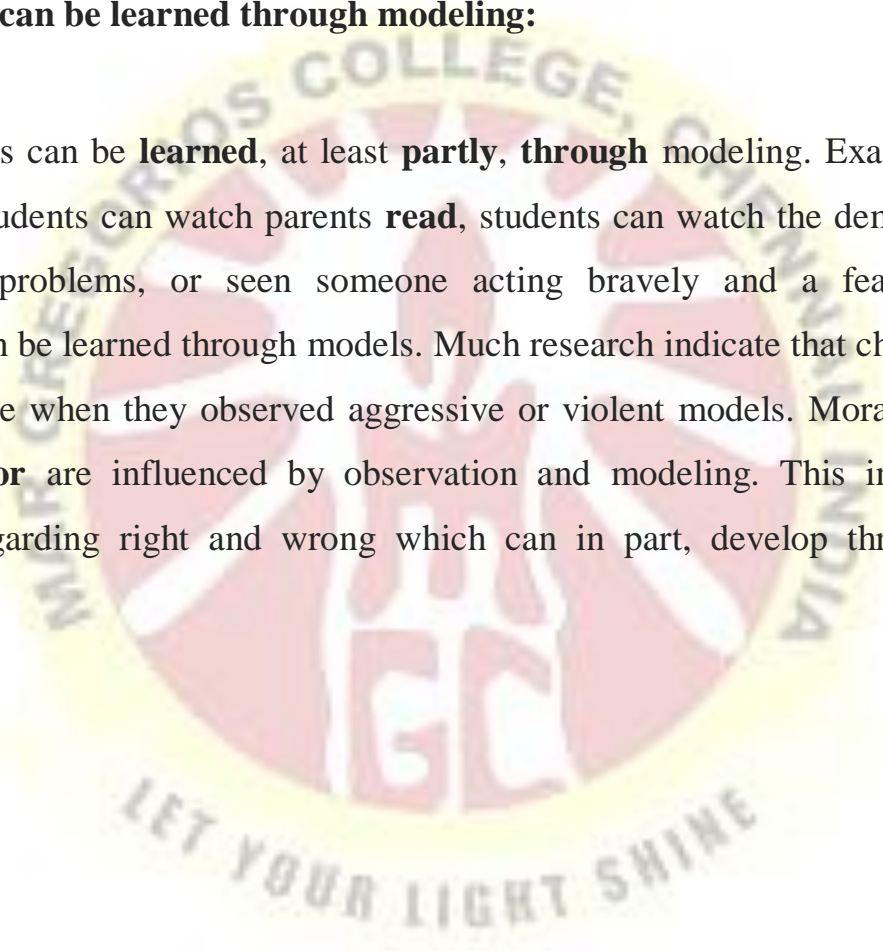
3. Expectations: As a result of being reinforced, people form expectations **about the consequences** that future behaviors are likely to bring. They expect certain behaviors to bring reinforcements and others to bring punishment. The learner needs to **be aware** however, of the response reinforcements and response punishment. Reinforcement increases a response only when the learner is aware of that connection.

4. Reciprocal causation: Bandura proposed that behavior can influence both the environment and the person. In fact each of these **three variables**, the person, the behavior, and the environment can have an influence on each other.

5. Modeling: There are different **types** of models. There is the **live model**, and actual person demonstrating the behavior. There can also be a **symbolic model**, which can be a person or action portrayed in some other medium, , such as television, videotape, computerprograms.

Behaviors that can be learned through modeling:

Many behaviors can be **learned**, at least **partly, through** modeling. Examples that can be cited are, students can watch parents **read**, students can watch the demonstrations of **mathematics** problems, or seen someone acting bravely and a fearful situation. **Aggression** can be learned through models. Much research indicate that children become more aggressive when they observed aggressive or violent models. Moral thinking and **moral behavior** are influenced by observation and modeling. This includes **moral judgments** regarding right and wrong which can in part, develop through modelin





UNIT- III

MENTAL HEALTH

Mental health is the level of psychological well-being or an absence of mental illness. It is the state of someone who is "functioning at a satisfactory level of emotional and behavioral adjustment". From the perspectives of positive psychology or of holism, mental health may include an individual's ability to enjoy life, and to create a balance between life activities and efforts to achieve psychological resilience. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), mental health includes "subjective well-being, perceived self-efficacy, autonomy, competence, inter-generational dependence, and self-actualization of one's intellectual and emotional potential, among others. The WHO further states that the well-being of an individual is encompassed in the realization of their abilities, coping with normal stresses of life, productive work and contribution to their community. Cultural differences, subjective assessments, and competing professional theories all affect how one defines "mental health".

MAJOR AND MINOR MENTAL DISORDERS

Clinical depression

A mental health disorder characterised by persistently depressed mood or loss of interest in activities, causing significant impairment in daily life.

Anxiety disorder

A mental health disorder characterised by feelings of worry, anxiety or fear that are strong enough to interfere with one's daily activities.

Bipolar disorder

A disorder associated with episodes of mood swings ranging from depressive lows to manic highs.

Dementia

A group of thinking and social symptoms that interferes with daily functioning.

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)

A chronic condition including attention difficulty, hyperactivity and impulsiveness.

Schizophrenia

A disorder that affects a person's ability to think, feel and behave clearly.

Obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD)

Excessive thoughts (obsessions) that lead to repetitive behaviours (compulsions).

Autism

A serious developmental disorder that impairs the ability to communicate and interact.

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

A disorder characterised by failure to recover after experiencing or witnessing a terrific incident.

COMMUNITY MENTAL HEALTH

Community mental health is a decentralized pattern of mental health, mental health care, or other services for people with mental illnesses. Community-based care is designed to supplement and decrease the need for more costly inpatient mental health care delivered in hospitals. Community mental health care may be more accessible and responsive to local needs because it is based in a variety of community settings rather than aggregating and isolating patients and patient care in central hospitals. Community mental health assessment, which has grown into a science called psychiatric epidemiology, is a field of research measuring rates of mental disorder upon which mental health care systems can be developed and evaluated.

DEFENCE MECHANISM AND ITS ROLE

A defence mechanism is an unconscious psychological mechanism that reduces anxiety arising from unacceptable or potentially harmful stimuli.

Defence mechanisms may result in healthy or unhealthy consequences depending on the circumstances and frequency with which the mechanism is used. In psychoanalytic theory, defence mechanisms (German: Abwehrmechanismen) are psychological strategies brought into play by the unconscious mind to manipulate, deny, or distort reality in order to defend against feelings of anxiety and unacceptable impulses and to maintain one's self-schema or other schemas. These processes that manipulate, deny, or distort reality may include the following: repression, or the burying of a painful feeling or thought from one's awareness even though it may resurface in a symbolic form; identification, incorporating an object or thought into oneself; and rationalization, the justification of one's behaviour and motivations by substituting "good" acceptable reasons for the actual

motivations. In psychoanalytic theory, repression is considered as the basis for other defence mechanisms.

UNIT- IV

CONCEPTS OF SOCIETY

A society is a group of individuals involved in persistent social interaction, or a large social group sharing the same geographical or social territory, typically subject to the same political authority and dominant cultural expectations. Societies are characterized by patterns of relationships (social relations) between individuals who share a distinctive culture and institutions; a given society may be described as the sum total of such relationships among its constituent of members. In the social sciences, a larger society often exhibits stratification or dominance patterns in subgroups.

Fundamental Concepts of Society and Culture. Society is made up of people, groups, networks, institutions, organisations and systems. These aspects of society may include local, national, regional and international patterns of relationships and organisation.

SOCIAL PROCESS

Social processes are the ways in which individuals and groups interact, adjust and readjust and establish relationships and pattern of behaviour which are again modified through social interactions. The concept of social process refers to some of the general and recurrent forms that social interaction may take.

TYPES

Social process can manifest itself in many ways. There are basically five types of social processes. They are competitive, conflict, cooperation, accommodation and assimilation. The modes are universal; They will take place at the micro and macro levels.

Some kinds of interaction help stabilize the social structure. Others promote change. Among the most common forms of social interaction are exchange, competition, conflict, cooperation, and accommodation. These five types of interaction take place in societies throughout the world.

Major elements of Indian culture

India's culture is among the world's oldest; civilization in India began about 4,500 years ago. Many sources describe it as "Sa Prathama Sanskrati Vishvavara", the first and the supreme culture in the world, according to the All World Gayatri Pariwar (AWGP) organization.

Language

India has 28 states and seven territories, according to the World Health Organization. There is no official language in India, according to a Gujarat High Court ruling in 2010, though Hindi is the official language of the government. The Constitution of India officially recognizes 23 official languages.

Many people living in India write in Devanagari script. In fact, it is a misconception that the majority of people in India speak Hindi. Though many people speak Hindi in India, 59 percent of India residents speak something other than Hindi, according to The Times of India. Bengali, Telugu, Marathi, Tamil and Urdu are some other languages spoken in the country.

Sanskrit, an ancient Indo-European language usually referred to in action movies, came from Northern India. How the language started has been a point of argument amongst linguists. It shares many similarities with English, French, Farsi and Russian languages. New DNA research in 2017 found that an Aryan invasion may have introduced the beginnings of Sanskrit. "People have been debating the arrival of the Indo-European languages in India for hundreds of years," said study co-author Martin Richards, an archaeogeneticist at the University of Huddersfield in England. "There's been a very long-running debate about whether the Indo-European languages were brought from migrations from outside, which is what most linguists would accept, or if they evolved indigenously." [Aryan Invasion May Have Transformed India's Bronze-Age Population]

Religion

India is identified as the birthplace of Hinduism and Buddhism, the third and fourth largest religions. About 84 percent of the population identifies as Hindu, according to the "Handbook of Research on Development and Religion," edited by Matthew Clarke (Edward Elgar Publishing, 2013). About 13 percent of Indians are Muslim, making it one of the largest Islamic nations in the world. Christians and Sikhs make up a small percentage of the population, and there are even fewer Buddhists and Jains, according to the "Handbook."

The CIA cited similar figures. According to its World Factbook, around 80 percent of the population is Hindu, 14.2 percent is Muslim, 2.3 percent is Christian, 1.7 percent is Sikh and 2 percent is unspecified.

FOOD

When the Moghul Empire invaded during the sixteenth century, they left a significant mark on the Indian cuisine, according to Texas A&M University. Indian cuisine is also influenced by many other countries. It is known for its large assortment of dishes and its liberal use of herbs and spices. Cooking styles vary from region to region.

Wheat, Basmati rice and pulses with chana (Bengal gram) are important staples of the Indian diet. The food is rich with curries and spices, including ginger, coriander, cardamom, turmeric, dried hot peppers, and cinnamon, among others. Chutneys — thick condiments and spreads made from assorted fruits and vegetables such as tamarind and tomatoes and mint, cilantro and other herbs — are used generously in Indian cooking.

Many Hindus are vegetarian, but lamb and chicken are common in main dishes for non-vegetarians. The Guardian reports that between 20 percent and 40 percent of India's population is vegetarian.

Much of Indian food is eaten with fingers or bread used as utensils. There is a wide array of breads served with meals, including naan, a leavened, oven-baked flatbread; and bhatoora, a fried, fluffy flatbread common in North India and eaten with chickpea curry.

Architecture and art

The most well-known example of Indian architecture is the Taj Mahal, built by Mughal emperor Shah Jahan to honor his third wife, Mumtaz Mahal. It combines elements from Islamic, Persian, Ottoman Turkish and Indian architectural styles. India also has many ancient temples.

India is well known for its film industry, which is often referred to as Bollywood. The country's movie history began in 1896 when the Lumière brothers demonstrated the art of cinema in Mumbai, according to the Golden Globes. Today, the films are known for their elaborate singing and dancing.

Indian dance, music and theater traditions span back more than 2,000 years, according to Nilima Bhadbhade, author of "Contract Law in India" (Kluwer Law International, 2010). The major classical dance traditions — Bharata Natyam, Kathak, Odissi, Manipuri, Kuchipudi, Mohiniattam and Kathakali — draw on themes from mythology and literature and have rigid presentation rules.

Clothing

Indian clothing is closely identified with the colorful silk saris worn by many of the country's women. A traditional piece of clothing for men is the dhoti, an unstitched piece of cloth that is tied around the waist and legs. Men also wear a kurta, a loose shirt that is worn about knee-length. For special occasions, men wear a sherwani or achkan, which is a long coat that with a collar having no lapel. It is buttoned up to the collar and down to the knees. A shorter version of a sherwani is called a Nehru jacket. It is named after Jawaharlal Nehru, India's prime

minister from 1947 to 1964, but Nehru never wore a Nehru jacket. He preferred the achkan, according to Tehelka, an Indian newspaper. The Nehru jacket was primarily marketed to Westerners.

Customs and celebrations

Diwali is the largest and most important holiday to India, according to National Geographic. It is a five-day festival known as the festival of lights because of the lights lit during the celebration to symbolize the inner light that protects them from

spiritual darkness. Holi, the festival of colors, also called the festival of love, is popular in the spring. The country also celebrates Republic Day (Jan. 26), Independence Day (Aug. 15) and Mahatma Gandhi's birthday (Oct. 2).

The cultural lag theory and its applications to the Indian society Institutions :

The term cultural lag refers to the notion that culture takes time to catch up with technological innovations, and that social problems and conflicts are caused by this lag. Subsequently, cultural lag does not only apply to this idea only, but also relates to theory and explanation. It helps by identifying and explaining social problems to predict future problems.

As explained by James W. Woodward, when the material conditions change, changes are occasioned in the adaptive culture, but these changes in the adaptive culture do not synchronize exactly with the change in the material culture, this delay is the culture lag. The term was coined by sociologist William F. Ogburn in his 1922 work *Social change with respect to culture and original nature*.^[2] His theory of cultural lag suggests that a period of maladjustment occurs when the non-material culture is struggling to adapt to new material conditions. This resonates with ideas of technological determinism. That is it can presuppose that technology has independent effects on society at large. However it does not necessarily assign causality to technology. Rather cultural lag focuses examination on the period of adjustment to new technologies. Cultural lag creates problems for a society in a multitude of ways. The issue of cultural lag tends to permeate any discussion in which the implementation of some new technology is a topic. For example, the advent of stem cell research has given rise to many new, potentially beneficial medical technologies; however these new technologies have also raised serious ethical questions about the use of stem cells in medicine. Cultural lag is seen as a

critical ethical issue because failure to develop broad social consensus on appropriate applications of modern technology may lead to breakdowns in social solidarity and the rise of social conflict.

Concept and meaning of religion

Religion is a social-cultural system of designated behaviors and practices, morals, worldviews, texts, sanctified places, prophecies, ethics, or organizations, that relates humanity to supernatural, transcendental, or spiritual elements. However, there is no scholarly consensus over what precisely constitutes a religion.

Different religions may or may not contain various elements ranging from the divine, sacred things, faith, a supernatural being or supernatural beings or "some sort of ultimacy and transcendence that will provide norms and power for the rest of life". Religious practices may include rituals, sermons, commemoration or veneration (of deities), sacrifices, festivals, feasts, trances, initiations, funerary services, matrimonial services, meditation, prayer, music, art, dance, public service, or other aspects of human culture. Religions have sacred histories and narratives, which may be preserved in sacred scriptures, and symbols and holy places, that aim mostly to give a meaning to life. Religions may contain symbolic stories, which are sometimes said by followers to be true, that have the side purpose of explaining the origin of life, the universe, and other things. Traditionally, faith, in addition to reason, has been considered a source of religious beliefs.

There are an estimated 10,000 distinct religions worldwide, but about 84% of the world's population is affiliated with one of the five largest religion groups, namely Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism or forms of folk religion. The religiously unaffiliated demographic includes those who do not identify with any particular

religion, atheists, and agnostics. While the religiously unaffiliated have grown globally, many of the religiously unaffiliated still have various religious beliefs.

POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS

Assessing the role of political institutions in economic performance is not an easy task. Long-standing, deep-rooted political and social challenges have shaped each national institution and economy today. Similar political institutions, set in two different countries, can affect their respective economy in different ways. And at the same time, institutions that differ politically, set in two different countries, can lead their countries to similar economic performance. What can account for these inconsistent and distinct results? What is the effect of political institutions on economic performance?

It has been already demonstrated that economic institutions (such as property rights, regulatory institutions, institutions for macroeconomic stabilization, institutions for social insurance, institutions for conflict management, etc.) are the major source of economic growth across countries (Rodrik 2007). Among other things, economic institutions have decisive influence on investments in physical and human capital, technology, and industrial production. It is also well-understood that in addition to having a critical role in economic growth, economic institutions are also important for resource distribution.

As a consequence, some groups or individuals will be able to gain more benefits than others given the set of the preexisting economic conditions and resource allocation. In other words, economic institutions are endogenous (Acemoglu and Robinson 2006) and reflect a continuous conflict of interests among various groups and individuals over the choice of economic institutions and the distribution of resources.

The prevailing institutional design of economic institutions thus depends mostly on the allocation of political power among elite groups. Political institutions, formal and informal, determine both the constraints and incentives faced by key players in a given society. Given the endogenous feature of political institutions and strategic allocation of powers they provide, appropriately chosen institutions can help the development of credible mechanisms capable of decreasing risks of opportunistic behavior of political and economic players. In other words, political institutions have to provide incentives for politicians to abide by them repeatedly over time.

UNIT- V

Social Stratification in India

The concept of stratification

Social stratification is a kind of social differentiation whereby members of society are grouped into socioeconomic strata, based upon their occupation and income, wealth and social status, or derived power (social and political). As such, stratification is the relative social position of persons within a social group, category, geographic region, or social unit.

In modern Western societies, social stratification is typically defined in terms of three social classes: (i) the upper class, (ii) the middle class, and the lower class; in turn, each class can be subdivided into strata, e.g. the upper-stratum, the middle-stratum, and the lower stratum. Moreover, a social stratum can be formed upon the bases of kinship, clan, tribe or caste, or all four.

Definition of Social Stratification

Social stratification refers to a system by which a society ranks categories of people in a hierarchy. In the United States, it is perfectly clear that some groups have greater status, power, and wealth than other groups. These differences are what led to social stratification. Social stratification is based on four major principles:

Social Stratification

- Social stratification is a trait of society, not simply a reflection of individual differences.
- Social stratification persists over generations.
- Social stratification is universal (it happens everywhere) but variable (it takes different forms across different societies).
- Social stratification involves not just inequality but beliefs as well (inequality is rooted in a society's philosophy)..

The Functions of Social Stratification

Structural functionalists argue that social inequality plays a vital role in the smooth operation of a society. The Davis-Moore thesis states that social stratification has beneficial consequences for the operation of society. Davis and Moore argue that the most difficult jobs in any society are the most necessary and require the highest rewards and compensation to sufficiently motivate individuals to fill them. Certain jobs, like mowing grass or cleaning toilets, can be performed by almost anyone,

while other jobs, such as performing brain surgery, are difficult and require the most talented people to perform them.

Stratification and Conflict

Social conflict theorists disagree that social stratification is functional for a society. Instead, they argue that social stratification benefits some at the expense of others. Two theorists, Karl Marx and Max Weber, are the primary contributors to this perspective.

Karl Marx was a German philosopher, sociologist, economist, and revolutionary socialist. He based his theory on the idea that society has two classes of people: the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. The bourgeoisie are the owners of the means of production, such as factories and other businesses, while the proletariat are the workers. Marx argued that the bourgeoisie (owners) give proletariats (workers) just enough to survive, but ultimately the workers are exploited.

concepts of class and caste

Caste and Class jointly determine the position of an individual in social strain. Particularly in rural communities where caste system has maintained its rigidity. It forms the basic for economic and special life. In a single village there may be as many as 24 castes and of these are interdependent. Even in the urban society a constant tendency to make caste distinction is observed in the upper and middle classes. Thus the castes have maintained their importance in class system of social stratification.

According to Weber, Caste and class are both status groups. A status group is a collection of persons who share a distinctive style of life and a certain consciousness of kind. While caste is perceived as a hereditary group with a fixed

ritual status, a social class is a category of people who have a similar socio-economic status in relation to other segments of their community or society.

The individuals and families who compose a social class are relatively similar in educational, economic and prestige status. Those who are classified as part of the same social class have similar life chances. Some sociologists regard social classes as being primarily economic in nature whereas others tend to stress factors such as prestige, style of life, attitudes, etc.

Caste system is characterised by cumulative in-equality but class system is characterised by dispersed inequality. The members of a class have a similar socio-economic status in relation to other classes in the society, while the members of a caste have either a high or low ritual status in relation to other castes. Caste is a unique phenomenon found in India but class is a universal phenomenon found all over the world. Caste works as an active political force in a village but not the class. It is also true that castes depend on each other (jajmani system) but besides interdependence, castes also compete with each other for acquiring political and economic power and high ritual position.

Further, in the caste system, status of a caste is determined not by the economic and the political privileges but by the ritualistic legitimization of authority, i.e., in the caste system, ritual norms encompass the norms of power and wealth. For example, even though Brahmins have no economic and political power, yet they are placed at the top in the caste hierarchy. In the class system, ritual norms have no importance at all but power and wealth alone determine one's status.

Hindu society was composed of classes such as (1) Brahmin or the priestly class, (2) Kshatriya or the military class and (3) Vaishya or the merchant class and (4) Sudra or the artisan. This was considered as a class system according to B.R.

Ambedkar. Among the Hindus the priestly class maintains social distance from others through a closed policy and becomes a caste by itself. The other classes undergo differentiation, some into large and some into very minute groups.

“Castes are the building blocks of the Hindu social structure. Caste is an important factor in the identification of other backward classes among the Hindu communities. Caste is also a class of citizens, as observed by Mandal Commission in its report.

Casteism and communalism

The rising trends of casteism and communalism and the accompanying violence have created a feeling of suspicion and insecurity among various castes. People in high positions in a caste give preference to members of their own castes and sub-castes in appointments and promotions.

This creates the caste solidarity to the extent that:

- (i) One caste attempts to dominate over others,
- (ii) Higher castes exploit the lower castes,
- (iii) Elections are contested and won on caste basis, and
- (iv) Inter-caste conflicts increase in society.

Though casteism, inter-caste conflicts and incidents of caste violence are more prevalent in rural areas yet they occur in the urban areas as well. In independent India, competition among different castes seems to be the normal situation. With the passing of political power to the people, castes have become pressure groups and are competing for power and using power to benefit caste fellows.

Many examples are cited in this regard. A few years ago, in one state, a very large number of Yadavas were recruited in the police department because a Yadav enjoyed the highest political power in the state. In the 1950s, there was a case of a state in which a Reddy Chief Minister appointed a large number of Reddys as ministers. In one state, a Jain officer gave preference to Jains and a Rajput officer to Rajputs in all appointments.

This tendency increases not only hatred for other castes but also leads to caste conflicts in the country. Such conflicts abound in Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Gujarat and Maharashtra. When one caste numerically preponderates over other castes in one geographical area, it seeks the position of a 'dominant' caste by attempting to secure economic and political power. When a caste enjoys one form of dominance, it is frequently able to acquire the other forms as well in course of time.

Casteism creates such solidarity among members that they use their unity to assert themselves or exploit the deprived caste(s). The best examples of this nature are found in Bihar among Bhumihars, Yadavs, Kurmis, Dalits, etc.

In politics, since last few decades casteism factor has been playing an important role even in the selection of candidates for contesting elections. In seeking votes also, this factor is played upon heavily. The National Integration Council, set up in June 1962, has been striving to deal with problems of casteism, regionalism and communalism.

social inequality and social mobility

Social mobility is defined as the movement of individuals, families, households, or other categories of people within between layers or tiers in an open system of social stratification. Open stratification systems are those in which at least some value is given to achieved status characteristics in a society. The movement can be in a downward or upward direction." Social mobility is any change in social position." It can be vertical and horizontal in nature. Any change in the physical position of a person or a group is horizontal mobility. If a bank manager is transferred from one branch to another, it is horizontal mobility as the social status of the person is not changing.

Social inequality occurs when resources in a given society are distributed unevenly, typically through norms of allocation, that engender specific patterns along lines of socially defined categories of persons. It is the differentiation preference of access of social goods in the society brought about by power, religion, kinship, prestige, race, ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation, and class. The social rights include labor market, the source of income, health care, and freedom of speech, education, political representation, and participation. Social inequality linked to economic inequality, usually described on the basis of the unequal distribution of income or wealth, is a frequently studied type of social inequality. Although the disciplines of economics and sociology generally use different theoretical approaches to examine and explain economic inequality, both fields are actively involved in researching this inequality. However, social and natural resources other than purely economic resources are also unevenly distributed in most societies and may contribute to social status. Norms of allocation can also affect the distribution of rights and privileges, social power, access to public goods such as education or the judicial system, adequate housing, transportation, credit and financial services such as banking and other social goods and services.