

F-1.2
GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEARNER
Course Content:

UNIT- I: Understanding Growth and Development

- (a) Human growth and development- concept, characteristics and difference of growth and development.
- (b) Principles and factors affecting growth and development.
- (c) Stages of development- characteristics of different stages with special reference to developmental characteristics, needs and problems of adolescence period.

UNIT- II: Learner as a Developing Individual

- (a) Relevance and applicability of various theories of development- Piaget (Cognitive), Erickson (Social), Kohlberg (Moral) and Vygotsky's theory (Contextual).
- (b) Heredity and Environment- meaning, laws of heredity and role of heredity and environment in development, Nature-nurture debate.
- (c) Human Diversity- nature and concept of human diversity, variations and developmental components, causes and implications.

UNIT- III: Learner in Socio-Cultural Perspective

- (a) Role of family, school and society in cognitive, affective and psychomotor development of the children.
- (b) Role of media (Printed and Electronic) on developmental aspects of children with special reference to adolescents.
- (c) Understanding development of self-concept from diverse aspects: Social, Cultural, Community, Religion, Caste, Gender, Location, Language, Socio-economic status and literacy of parents.

UNIT- IV: Group Behaviour-Implication for Teachers

- (a) Group Dynamics- meaning, types of groups, factors of group behaviour and role of teacher in promoting classroom as a cohesive group.
- (b) Discipline- Developmental model, role of school, critical examination of enforcement of discipline in Indian classrooms.
- (c) Role of different methods of discipline in character education, truancy & drop-out.

UNIT- I: UNDERSTANDING GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

CONCEPT OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

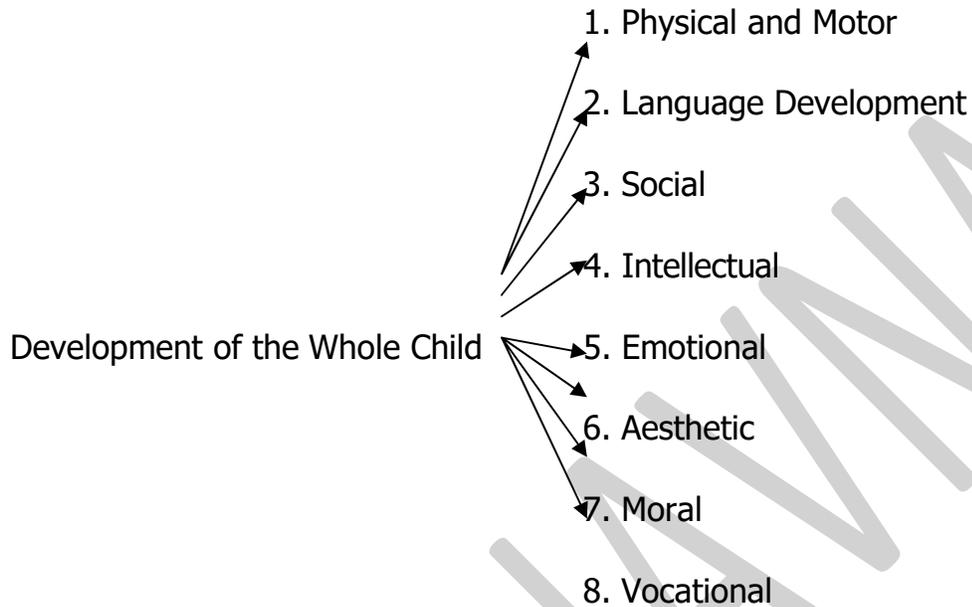
Growing meaning – increase in size, height and weight. It implies growth of heart, brain, muscle and body in general. It can generally be easily observed or measured. According to Arnold Gessel, "Growth is the function of the organism rather than of the environment. The environment furnishes the soil and surroundings for the manifestation of development, but these manifestations came from inherent inner organism and an intrinsic physiology of development. Growth is a process so intricate and so sensitive that these must be powerful stabilizing factors, intrinsic balance of the total pattern and direction of the growth trend". "Growth is intrinsic process which can be measured, observed and quantified. It is dependent upon many factors like education, environment. It is not a continuous and life long process. It starts with conception and continuous upto some particular stage. It stops when the person attains maturity.

Meaning of Development

Development is a series of orderly progression of change towards maturity. It refers to change in structures and improvement in functioning e.g. hands, legs do not grow only large but they also develop because they improve in their functions. Thus development can best be defined as a progression series of changes in an orderly coherent pattern.

According to J.E. Anderson: "Development does not consist merely of adding inches to one height or improving one" ability. Instead development is complex process of integrating many structures and functions.

Webster's Dictionary "Development is the series of changes which an organism undergoes in passing from an embryonic state to maturity."



DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Growth	Development
1. Part: Growth is a part or an aspect of development.	1. Wider: Development is a wider and comprehensive all aspects of development.
2. Not continuous: It is not continuous. It starts from conception but ends from some particular age. Mostly, it stops	2. Continuous process: It is a continuous and life-long process. It starts when the person attains maturity. Covers the whole life span of an individual.
3. Changes in particular aspects growth	3. Changes as a whole development

in particular aspect of body and behavior.	refers to change in various parts of body and behavior as whole.
4. Improvement in structure e.g. hand, legs:- grow large.	4. Improvement in structure and functioning:- e.g. hand does not grow large but also develop because they improve in their functions.
5. Not integrated: growth is not an integrated process. It refers to changes in structure only.	5. Integrated: it is a complex process of integrated many structures and functions.
6. Cellular: It may be looked as cellular multiplication. It refers to changes in the particular aspects of the body.	6. Organizational: It is an organization of all the parts which grow. It implies the organism as a whole.
7. Organism: It is the function of the organism rather than that of environment.	7. Environment: It is the function of both organism and environment.
8. Measurable: Growth can be measure, quantified like inches etc.	8. Assessment: Qualitative changes are assessed not measured.
9. May not bring development: growth may or may not bring development e.g. A child may grow (e.g. weight) by becoming fat but this growth may not bring any functional improvement.	9. Possible without growth: generally, growth and development go hand in hand. But it is possible to growth e.g. many persons do not gain in terms, size, height but they do experience

	function improvement in various aspects.
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PRINCIPLES OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

- 1. Principles of Sequential Development:** Development follows a pattern (sequence)
 - a) Every species whether animal or human beings follow a general or specific pattern of development. In the case of human beings the process of development follows a definite pattern.
 - b) It follows cephalocaudal sequence – which means we begin to grow from head downwards.
 - c) Development follows Proximodistal sequence – the spinal cord of the individual develops first and then outward development takes place.
- 2. Principle of orderly development:** It proceeds from general to specific e.g. in building vocabulary, child first learn general words, and it is only afterwards that he learn specific words.
- 3. Principle of rapid development during early years:** It proceeds more rapidly in early years of life e.g. period of infancy is marked rapid period of growth and development.
- 4. Principle of Continuous development:** Development is continuous. Development of both physical and mental traits reaches their maximum growth.
- 5. Principle of constancy of Individual differences:** Individual difference in the development remains constant. Those who develop slowly at birth will

continue to do so, while those whose development was rapid during early years will continue to develop rapidly.

- 6. Principle of Interrelated different aspects of development:** Different aspects of development are interrelated and interdependent. Child's early social behavior is interrelated with his physical development. If the child is physical handicapped then his social behavior will be retarded.
- 7. Principle of Predictability:** Development is predictable. It is possible to predict the aptitude or intelligence of a person on the bases of aptitude or intelligence tests given in earlier years.
- 8. Principle of Cumulative and Recapitulatory development:** Cumulative means "to add up". In development a single experience matters and it does not waste. Our behavior is a result of behaviors experiences. Development is recapitulatory because character of an stage can be establish in other stages e.g. self lane of infancy can also be seen in the ad descent stage.
- 9. Principle of interaction of Heredity and Environment:** An individual is product of both heredity and environment development is caused by both heredity and environment.
- 10. Principle of Interaction of Maturation and Learning Growth and Development** occur both as a result of maturation means changes in a development organism due to unfolding and ripening of abilities, traits present at birth. Learning denotes the changes in behavior due to training or experience.
- 11. Principles of different rates of development:** Development occurs at different rates for different parts of the body. Different aspects of physical

and mental traits develop at their own rates and reach maturity at their own rates and reach maturity at different times.

- 12. Principles of Unique Development:** Individuals differ individually with regards to their time schedule i.e. all children will first sit up, crawl and stand before they walk. But individual children will vary in regard to timing or age at which they can perform these activities. It means that development is not uniform in all individuals.
- 13. Principle of different rates of development in male and female child or differential develops:** There is difference in the growth rate of boys and girls. Girls mature earlier in comparison to boys.
- 14. Principle of struggle:** While the child is developing up towards maturity, there are conflicts and demands. The child struggles against these in his striving for maturity.
- 15. Principle of Anticipation:** A child in his process of development also uses his capacity of self despair. He modifies his behavior and even habits keeping in view what he is going 'to become' in future. Thus, he continuously anticipates his future direction of development.
- 16. Principle of Indigenous motivation:** As a child matures in his capacity of doing, thinking and feeling, he has an impulse to put them to use and he does it whole heartedly. This has been describe by Jersild as 'Indigenous Motivation'.
- 17. Principle of spiral versus Linear Advancement:** The path followed by child is not straight and linear.



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EDUCATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PRINCIPLES OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The knowledge of principles of growth and development is very important and useful for parents, teacher and educationists. Some of the users are:

1. Adjusting school programmes, procedures and practices: According to the level of development of child so that teacher's teaching can become effective.
2. It helps parents and teachers in treating their children sympathetically and solving their problems in realistic way.
3. Effective guidance by having an insight and understanding of individual differences of children.
4. Importance of childhood period: Teacher and parents should provide a large variety of social and emotional experience so that healthy patterns of adjustment and behavior are formed.
5. Right Expectations: It helps the parents and teacher is knowing that they should expect from the children neither what is beyond their stage of growth and development.
6. Importance of heredity and environment.
7. Knowledge of individual difference.
8. Helps to aim for harmonious development.

In this way the knowledge of the principles of growth and development helps much in the well being of the youngsters.

Check your Progress-1

1. What do you mean by Growth?
2. What do you mean by Development?
3. Differentiate Growth and Development.
4. Enlist various principles of Growth and Development
5. Explain Educational significance of principles of growth and development.

STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT

These are 4 stages:-

1. Infancy stage (0 to 5 years)
2. Late childhood stage (5 to 12 years)
3. Adolescence stage (12 to 17 or 18 years)
4. Adulthood stage (Beyond 17 or 18 years of age)

And we will discuss about adolescence period in detail

ADOLESCENCE PERIOD

Adolescence is the most important period of human life

Etymological meaning: The term 'adolescence' comes from the word 'Adolescere' which means 'to grow to maturity'.

Chronologically, this is a span of life ranging from 12 to 18 years and having individual and cultural differences.

Sociological definition: Adolescence is a transitional period from dependence on parents to self sufficient adulthood.

Cultural definition: Culturally, adolescence period varies from community. In some communities marriage among boys and girls take place quite early. (As early as 13 or 16 years of age)

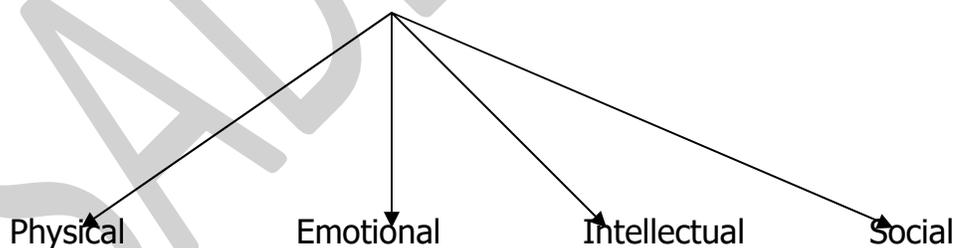
Psychological definition: Adolescence is a marginal situation in which psychological disturbances and problems of adjustment. In differences the childhood behavior form the adulthood behavior.

Jersild view, "Adolescence is that span of years during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood – mentally, emotionally, socially and physically."

Stanley Hall has regarded adolescence as a "period of great stress and strain, storm and strife."

Bigge and Hunt have remarked, "the one word which best characterize adolescence is change. The change is physiological, sociological and psychological. The incidents of this period greatly affect the whole personality of the individual that is why it has been called the most crucial.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENTS



Physical Growth and Changes

1. Increase in height and weight
2. Rapid development of bones and muscles
3. Changes in bodily proportions different parts of body grow at different rates.

- I. Arms and legs grow longer.
 - II. Hands and feet grow bigger.
 - III. Shoulders become broadened.
 - IV. Facial features also changes
4. Change in voice: there is distinct change: in voice among the two sexes. The voice of boys become's harsh, rough and dry and girl's voice acquire shrillness and become sweet.
 5. Changes in motor performance – especially boys excel in motor activities which involve speed and muscular strength.
 6. Increased size of genital organs.
 7. Breast development and growth of penis.
 8. Night emissions and mensuration.
 9. Hair growth.
 10. Increase in Blood pressure.
 11. Increase in heart and pulse rate.
 12. Physiological system – Digestive system, blood pressure, respiratory system also changes.

Emotional Characteristics

1. Heightening of emotions: heightened emotionality is evident from nail biting, tension, conflicts, quarrels with parents and classmates.
2. Variation in emotional moods.
3. Not under control.

4. Complexity.
 5. Development of inferiority complex.
 6. Sexual frustration.
 7. Day dreaming and fantasy.
 8. Development of abstract emotions.
 9. Realism in emotional experience.
 10. Capacity of sharing emotions.
 11. Widened loyalties – with neighborhood, friends.
 12. Increased compassion: compassionate means fellowship of feelings and appreciate the emotional feelings of others.
 13. Common emotional pattern:- The most important emotional patterns of adolescents include long anger, jealousy, fear, worry, some of more complex emotions are gratitude, scorn, contempt, hatred, joy, grief, pity, shame etc.
- **Emotion of love:** One of the dominant emotions of adolescent period. This is due to development of sex instincts which takes place during this period. There are three phases of sexual development.
 - a) Auto – eroticism (self-love) self-conscious, love oneself.
 - b) Home – sexuality – when adolescent show sexual activity with the member of same sex.
 - c) Hetero – sexuality – when an adolescent show sexual activity with opposite sex.
 - **Emotions of anger:** When an adolescent is teased, ridiculed and criticized.

- **Emotions of worry:** Tests and examinations, girls also worry about appearance, health problems, clothes and money.
- **Emotions of jealousy**

2.8.3- III. Intellectual or Mental Characteristics

- 1. Development of intelligence:** Adolescence is the period of maximum growth and intellectual development. Intelligence reaches its climax during this period. Intellectual powers like logical thinking, abstract reasoning and concentration are almost developed upto the end of this period. As adolescent leans to reason and seeks answer to 'how and why' of everything scientifically.
- 2. Increase in span of attention:** His power of concentration is increased.
- 3.** Development of memory
- 4.** Development of understanding
- 5.** Development of abstract thinking
- 6.** Development of generalization
- 7.** Development of problem solving ability
- 8.** Ability to make decision
- 9.** Development of imagination
- 10.** Hero – worship
- 11.** Widening of interests
 - (i) Recreational interests
 - (ii) Social interests

- (iii) Personal interests
- (iv) Vocational interests
- (v) Religious interests
- (vi) Interest in sexual matters

2.8.4 Social characteristics

1. Sex consciousness
2. Social consciousness
3. Group loyalty
4. Social service

PROBLEMS OF ADOLESCENTS

Adolescence is a period of stress and strain, storm and strife. This is quoted by Stanley Hall. Because in this period many problems occurs. That is why adolescence is a period of stress and strain, storm and strife. Problems related:

1. Adjustment to physical growth.
2. Problems related to adjustment to mental competition.
3. Problems related to adjustment to emotional disturbances.
4. Problems of home adjustment.
5. Problems of adjustment with friends.
6. Problems of sex adjustment.
7. Problems of adjustment with society.

Check your Progress-2

1. What are the stages of Development?
2. Which period is called the 'period of stress and strain, storm and strife'.
3. Enlist physical characteristics of Adolescents.
4. What are the intellectual or mental characteristics of Adolescents?
5. Enlist social characteristics of Adolescents.

ROLE OF TEACHERS, PARENTS AND SCHOOL FOR ADOLESCENTS

1. **To have the proper knowledge of adolescent's psychology:** A teacher should have knowledge about adolescent's psychology. I. What are the specific needs of adolescents? II. What type of changes does taken place during this period? III. What are the problems faced by the adolescent? How should they be treated?
2. **Provide suitable environment for proper growth:** Adolescence is the stage where maximum growth takes place. They must be provided with balanced diet. They must be given knowledge of health, personal hygiene, cleanliness, various diseases and their privation etc.
3. **Rendering proper sex education:** The rapid physiological changes the secretion of sex hormones, the sudden of sex instincts – all necessitate the provision of adequate sex information and education for adolescents.
4. **Proper dealing with the adolescents:** They should not be under estimated.
5. **Training of emotions and satisfaction of emotion needs:** The age of adolescence is marked by too much intensity, force, instability and immaturity

of emotions. Their emotions should be properly trained and diverted towards the constructive sides.

- 6. To take care of special interests of the students:** The curriculum should provide the open choice of various subjects and activities according to tasks and temperament of the adolescents.
- 7.** Providing religious and moral education.
- 8. Provision for vocational education:** The strong need of today is to provide job-oriented and vocation based practical education for the adolescents.
- 9.** Arranging guidance services.

LET US SUM UP

In this chapter, you have studied the concept of human growth and development. The principles of development, their importance and need to study them scientifically have been discussed. The stages of development and the characteristics of adolescent period have also been discussed. As you have seen adolescence is a period of transition between childhood and adulthood. Accompanying it are a number of problems. During this period, adolescents are considered neither as children nor as adults. What you, as a teacher, can do to attend to these problems and how you can help the development of a balanced personality of your students have also been dealt with in order to create a better understanding of student's needs and problems.

UNIT END EXERCISES

- 1.** Differentiate growth and development. Explain the principles of Growth and Development.

2. Adolescence is a period of stress and strain, storm and strife comment.
3. Discuss the problems of an adolescent and suggest measures to solve them.
4. What are the special needs of Adolescent
? As a teacher ,how will you help him to meet those needs?

UNIT- II: LEARNER AS A DEVELOPING INDIVIDUAL

(a) Relevance and applicability of various theories of development- Piaget (Cognitive), Erickson (Social), Kohlberg (Moral) and Vygotsky's theory (Contextual).

Erickson (Psycho-Social)

Erikson identified eight stages of psychosocial development with each stage presenting a conflict that must be overcome. This lesson will discuss the conflict and growth associated with each stage of development.

Psychosocial Development

How does one develop a sense of who they are; where they belong? How does one person feel confident and secure while another may feel depressed and question their life? In this lesson, we will discuss the conflict and growth associated with each stage of Erik Erikson's psychosocial development theory.

Psychologist Erik Erikson, a major contributor to developmental psychology, proposed a comprehensive theory of the ways that individuals develop their identity, or in other words, a sense of who they are and society's influence on that development. This theory is labeled the **Stages of Psychosocial Development** and is characterized as a series of psychological stages that have a basic conflict and important events leading to growth. The theory was developed from his hundreds of clinical observations in children.

Erikson identified eight stages of psychosocial development of an individual. Characteristics of these stages include:

- Each stage unfolds from the preceding stage in a particular sequence,
- Each stage involves an ever-widening involvement with others, and
- The centerpiece of each stage is a life task for the individual; specifically, each stage involves a conflict between two opposites and the individual's efforts at each stage are to achieve a ratio between the two.

Birth - 12 Years

Let's take a look at the stages now and then group them into categories as we go. Birth Through Elementary School: the four basic conflicts from birth through elementary school are *trust vs. mistrust*, *autonomy vs. shame and doubt*, *initiative vs. guilt*, and *industry vs. inferiority*.

Trust vs mistrust occurs from birth to 12-18 months. The quality of the relationship between the infant and its mother or primary caregiver is essential to developing the infant's trust and the environment and developing a sense of trust is a cornerstone of a healthy personality. The important event in this stage is feeding. The unsuccessful completion of this stage can result in an inability to trust and culls a sense of fear about the inconsistent world, leading to feelings of anxiety, insecurity, and an overall feeling of mistrust toward the world.

Autonomy vs. shame and doubt occurs between 18 months and three years old. As the child begins to stand firmly on his or her feet, he or she separates the environment into 'I and you, me and mine'. The general significance of this stage consists of the maturation of the child's muscle system and the ability to coordinate such actions as holding and letting go and the child's increased ability to exert his or her will. The important event in this stage is toilet training. If children are encouraged in this stage, they will become confident and secure. If they are criticized or overly controlled, they will begin to feel inadequate in their ability to survive and become overly dependent on others, lack self-esteem, and feel a sense of shame and doubt in their abilities.

The **initiative vs. guilt** stage occurs between three and six years old. At the end of the third year, the child learns to move around more freely, asks questions about many things because his or her language skills are more developed, and imagination expands. During this stage, the child's personality forms around imagination. This stage is characterized by a willingness to

learn quickly and to make things together with other children. The important event in this stage is independence of activities. If children are given the room to be independent and play, the child develops a sense of initiative and security. If the child is controlled and not allowed to use his or her imagination, they begin to develop a sense of guilt and may feel like a nuisance to others.

The **industry vs. inferiority** stage occurs between six and 12 years old. The trend in this stage is observing how things are done and learning. In elementary school, this involves planning, working, and sharing with others. The important event in this stage is school. If children are reinforced by adults and teachers for their initiative, they begin to feel industrious and confident in their abilities. If they do not receive this reinforcement, they may begin to feel inferior and doubt their abilities. The danger in this period is the potential for developing a sense of inadequacy. The child may feel, for example, that skin color, parental status, or the cost of his or her clothes determines social worth, instead of a will to learn. In these situations, permanent damage can be done to the child's sense of identity.

Middle and High School

In the middle and high school range, there is one stage in this period: **identity vs. role confusion**, which occurs between 12 and 18 years old.

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Summary

Stage: Infancy (birth to 18 months)

Basic Conflict: [Trust vs. Mistrust](#)

Important Events: Feeding

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

Stage: Early Childhood (2 to 3 years)

Basic Conflict: [Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt](#)

Important Events: Toilet Training

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

Stage: School Age (6 to 11 years)

Basic Conflict: [Industry vs. Inferiority](#)

Important Events: School

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

Stage: Adolescence (12 to 18 years)

Basic Conflict: [Identity vs. Role Confusion](#)

Important Events: Social Relationships

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

Stage: Young Adulthood (19 to 40 years)

Basic Conflict: [Intimacy vs. Isolation](#)

Important Events: Relationships

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

stage: Middle Adulthood (40 to 65 years)

Basic Conflict: [Generativity vs. Stagnation](#)

Important Events: Work and Parenthood

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

Stage: Maturity(65 to death)

Basic Conflict: [Ego Integrity vs. Despair](#)

Important Events: Reflection on life

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

Relevance –

1. The child must be allowed room for the expression of imagination, such as playing with various natural, simple materials, and role-playing. Ready-made toys often inhibit this expression, as there is very little that can be done imaginatively with most of them. For example, a matchbox can become a car or an aircraft, but a ready-made car cannot become anything other than what it is. It can only be manipulated.
2. Stories and songs that stimulate the imagination can be introduced.
3. Real-life activities like serving food, chopping vegetables or making chappatis, prepare children for participation in the community around them. Children of this age are capable of contributing productively to the environment in which they live. I would go so far as to say that it is vital that they do so, and that they feel their contribution is 'real' and not just 'pretend'. This is commonly observed in poorer families, where children of this age take charge of the younger siblings and certain home responsibilities.
4. Child-directed activities where the child chooses her activity and repeats it as often as she wants must be encouraged. This again is an opportunity for the child to show initiative and take responsibility. Ridiculing, making fun of the child's imagination, and subtle or overt expectation can inhibit the natural sense of initiative. One may also distort the child's initiative by linking it to reward and performance. Lying should be dealt with sensitively at this age, as spinning imaginative stories may not be the same as lying. Discouraging initiative by inducing guilt or shame may lead to a repressed child, or to one who does things on the sly.

Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

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

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

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

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

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

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

Jean Piaget set out to study his daughter Jacqueline as she developed through infancy, toddlerhood, and childhood. He quickly noted that during the early months of his daughter's life, she seemed to believe that objects ceased to exist once they were out of

her sight. At nearly a year, she started to search actively for objects that were hidden from her view although she made mistakes similar to the one Gerard made. By 21 months, Jacqueline had become skilled at finding hidden objects and understood that objects had an existence separate from her perception of them.

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

Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

- **The Sensorimotor Stage:** During this stage, infants and toddlers acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects. It was his observations of his daughter and nephew that heavily influenced his conception of this stage. At this point in development, a child's intelligence consists of their basic motor and sensory explorations of the world. Piaget believed that developing object permanence or object constancy, the understanding that objects continue to exist even when they cannot be seen, was an important element at this point of development. By learning that objects are separate and distinct entities and that they have an existence of their own outside of individual perception, children are then able to begin to attach names and words to objects.
- **The Preoperational Stage:** At this stage, kids learn through pretend play but still struggle with logic and taking the point of view of other people. They also often struggle with understanding the ideal of constancy. For example, a researcher might take a lump of clay, divide it into two equal pieces, and then give a child the option of choosing two pieces of clay to play with. One piece of clay is rolled into a compact ball while the other is smashed into a flat pancake shape. Since the flat shape *looks* larger, the preoperational child will likely choose that piece even though the two pieces are exactly the same size.

- **The Concrete Operational Stage:** Kids at this point of development begin to think more logically, but their thinking can also be very rigid. They tend to struggle with abstract and hypothetical concepts. At this point, children also become less egocentric and begin to think about how other people might think and feel. Kids in the concrete operational stage also begin to understand that their thoughts are unique to them and that not everyone else necessarily shares their thoughts, feelings, and opinions.

- **The Formal Operational Stage:** The final stage of Piaget's theory involves an increase in logic, the ability to use deductive reasoning, and an understanding of abstract ideas. At this point, people become capable of seeing multiple potential solutions to problems and think more scientifically about the world around them.

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

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

Summary

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

1. Relevance & Applicability of various theories of development :Kohlberg(Moral Development)& Vygotsky(Socio-Cultural Theory).

Kohlberg Stages of Moral Development

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

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

Kohlberg believed...and was able to demonstrate through studies...that people progressed in their moral reasoning (i.e., in their bases for ethical behavior) through a series of stages. He believed that there were six identifiable stages which could be more generally classified into three levels.

Level 1 - Pre-conventional morality

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

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

- **Stage 1. Obedience and Punishment Orientation.** The child/individual is good in order to avoid being punished. If a person is punished, they must have done wrong.
- **Stage 2. Individualism and Exchange.** At this stage children recognize that there is not just one right view that is handed down by the authorities. Different individuals have different viewpoints.

Level 2 - Conventional morality

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

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

- **Stage 3. Good Interpersonal Relationships.** The child/individual is good in order to be seen as being a good person by others. Therefore, answers relate to the approval of others.
- **Stage 4. Maintaining the Social Order.** The child/individual becomes aware of the wider rules of society so judgments concern obeying the rules in order to uphold the law and to avoid guilt.

Level 3 - Post-conventional morality

Individual judgment is based on self-chosen principles, and moral reasoning is based on individual rights and justice. According to Kohlberg this level of moral reasoning is as far as most people get. Only 10-15% are capable of the kind of abstract thinking necessary for stage 5 or 6 (post-conventional morality). That is to say most people take their moral views from those around them and only a minority think through ethical principles for themselves.

- **Stage 5. Social Contract and Individual Rights.** The child/individual becomes aware that while rules/laws might exist for the good of the greatest number, there are times when they will work against the interest of particular individuals. The issues are not

always clear cut. For example, in Heinz's dilemma the protection of life is more important than breaking the law against stealing.

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

THE FOLLOWING ARE OBSERVATIONS THAT WERE MADE BY KOHLBERG FURTHER EXPLAINING HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN STAGES.

1. STAGE DEVELOPMENT IS INVARIANT AND SEQUENTIAL.

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

2. IN STAGE DEVELOPMENT, SUBJECTS CANNOT COMPREHEND MORAL REASONING AT A STAGE MORE THAN ONE STAGE BEYOND THEIR OWN.

If Johnny is oriented to see good almost exclusively as that which brings him satisfaction, how will he understand a concept of good in which the "good" may bring him no tangible pleasure at all. The moral maxim "It is better to give than to receive" reflects a high level of

development. The child who honestly asks you why it is better to give than to receive, does so because he does not and cannot understand such thinking. To him, "better" means better for him. And how can it be better for him to give, than to get. Thus, higher stages can comprehend lower stages of reasoning though they find it less compelling. But lower stages cannot comprehend higher stages of reasoning.

3. IN STAGE DEVELOPMENT INDIVIDUALS ARE COGNITIVELY ATTRACTED TO REASONING ONE LEVEL ABOVE THEIR OWN PRESENT PREDOMINANT LEVEL.

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

4. IN STAGE DEVELOPMENT, MOVEMENT THROUGH THE STAGES IS EFFECTED WHEN COGNITIVE DISEQUILIBRIUM IS CREATED, THAT IS, WHEN A PERSON'S COGNITIVE OUTLOOK IS NOT ADEQUATE TO COPE WITH A GIVEN MORAL DILEMMA.

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

5. IT IS QUITE POSSIBLE FOR A HUMAN BEING TO BE PHYSICALLY MATURE BUT NOT MORALLY MATURE

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

vygotsky sociocultural learning theory

Vygotsky's Words...

"It is through others that we become ourselves"

All learning is social

"What a child can do in co-operation today he can do alone tomorrow"

Guided participation, ZPD, scaffolding

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of human learning describes learning as a social process and the origination of human intelligence in society or culture. The major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. Vygotsky believed everything is learned on two levels. First, through interaction with others, and then integrated into

the individual's mental structure. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. (Vygotsky, 1978, p.57) A second aspect of Vygotsky's theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a "zone of proximal development" (ZPD). This "zone" is the area of exploration for which the student is cognitively prepared, but requires help and social interaction to fully develop (Briner, 1999). A teacher or more experienced peer is able to provide the learner with "scaffolding" to support the student's evolving understanding of knowledge domains or development of complex skills. Collaborative learning, discourse, modelling, and scaffolding are strategies for supporting the intellectual knowledge and skills of learners and facilitating intentional learning

Vygotsky's Basic Concepts

Cultures create **mental tools** which transform our mental work just like physical tools transform our physical work.

Vygotsky's Basic Concepts

As we **internalize** these tools we become smarter (i.e., we develop **higher psychological processes**).

Language is the mother of all mental tools.

Vygotsky developed the theory of the **Zone of proximal development** (ZPD)

The distance between where a learner is at developmentally on their own & where a learner could be with the help of a **more knowledgeable other**.

A **more knowledgeable other** can be an adult or a peer, helping a learner in this way is to **scaffold** their learning. Scaffolding occurs through the process of internalization... mediated by language and thought (see youtube).

More Knowledgeable Other

The more knowledgeable other (MKO) is somewhat self-explanatory; it refers to someone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner, with respect to a particular task, process, or concept.

Although the implication is that the MKO is a teacher or an older adult, this is not necessarily the case. Many times, a child's peers or an adult's children may be the individuals with more knowledge or experience. For example, who is more likely to know more about the newest teenage music groups, how to win at the most recent PlayStation game, or how to correctly perform the newest dance craze - a child or their parents?

In fact, the MKO need not be a person at all. Some companies, to support employees in their learning process, are now using electronic performance support systems. Electronic tutors have also been used in educational settings to facilitate and guide students through the learning process. The key to MKOs is that they must have (or be programmed with) more knowledge about the topic being learned than the learner does.

Zone of Proximal Development

The concept of the More Knowledgeable Other is integrally related to the second important principle of Vygotsky's work, the Zone of Proximal Development.

This is an important concept that relates to the difference between what a child can achieve independently and what a child can achieve with guidance and encouragement from a skilled partner.

Vygotsky and Language

Vygotsky believed that language develops from social interactions, for communication purposes. Vygotsky viewed language as man's greatest tool, a means for communicating with the outside world.

According to Vygotsky (1962) language plays 2 critical roles in cognitive development:

1: It is the main means by which adults transmit information to children.

2: Language itself becomes a very powerful tool of intellectual adaptation.

Classroom Applications

A contemporary educational application of Vygotsky's theories is "reciprocal teaching", used to improve students' ability to learn from text. In this method, teachers and students collaborate in learning and practicing four key skills: summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. The teacher's role in the process is reduced over time.

Also, Vygotsky is relevant to instructional concepts such as "scaffolding" and "apprenticeship", in which a teacher or more advanced peer helps to structure or arrange a task so that a novice can work on it successfully.

Vygotsky's theories also feed into the current interest in collaborative learning, suggesting that group members should have different levels of ability so more advanced peers can help less advanced members operate within their [ZPD](#).

UNIT- III: LEARNER IN SOCIO-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

(d) Role of family, school and society in cognitive, affective and psychomotor development of the children.

School's Role in Influencing Child Development

Academic Potential

Ideally, the school's role is to bring each student to her individual, maximum academic potential. While its effectiveness may vary from school to school, it's not enough to teach the ABCs and 123s and call it a day. A significant amount of schoolwork throughout the grades is dedicated to helping children become expert problem solvers and solution-seekers, skills that will come in handy in just about every personal and professional aspect of a child's adult life.

Social Skills

He's got straight A's across the board. But without some healthy social skills, your youngster won't make it through his first job interview, and he'll probably be going stag when prom night rolls around. The school plays an important role in helping children learn to interact positively with their peers and teachers. They learn about healthy relationship skills and develop them further through interactions, both in the classroom and on the playground.

Character Building and Self Concept

Now that he's getting straight A's and he snagged that first job, it's time to focus on his character and his values. Character building is not an alternative to academic achievement, but rather an essential adjunct of it. Just as the school provides lessons on reading, writing and arithmetic, from the very beginning it also focuses on helping kids learn about compassion, respect, empathy and integrity. At first it begins with basic lessons like "raise your hand to speak" and "keep your hands to yourself."

Broadening Horizons

The school can introduce a child to a multitude of opportunities. From early on, children are often exposed to different nationalities, cultures and traditions, helping to shape their viewpoint of the world around them. Field trips and interactive projects let your child try out new things, while each different subject in school gives her a taste of what could await her in the future. As children get older, many schools offer a variety of extracurricular opportunities to further whet your youngster's appetite for the future

ROLE OF FAMILY

"The family is profoundly important to the developmental, emotional and cognitive growth of a child," says Tamara Gold, a New York psychotherapist and parenting coach. "A child will learn about relationships, manners, self-esteem, worth and loyalty, all by watching and participating in family."

Values

A child first learns about right and wrong in the family. Modern parents face many challenges in teaching values, says Dr. Michael Osit, author "Generation Text: Raising Well-Adjusted Kids in an Age of Instant Everything" and a clinical psychologist in Warren, New Jersey. "With children as young as 3 years old using the Internet, the access to the world is unprecedented in this generation. Children are bombarded with messages that are often inconsistent with the parents' values and behavioral standards for their kids." Committed and involved parents can strengthen a child's desire to make good choices. Parents teach about values first by living those values. Children learn much more from what you do than what you say.

Parents can also teach about values by sharing family stories, setting boundaries and serving oth

Consistency and Security

"Family life is where the child spends most of his or her learning time," says Jennifer Little, an Oregon-based psychologist and teacher who works with learning-challenged students. "School counts, but home is more lasting over the years. It is where the closest relationships build and allow us to express ourselves (for good or ill). This does not mean that 'peace and harmony' need to be constant. Children need to learn about disagreements and how to handle conflict. The most important support parents can give their children is consistent structure to the daily routines of life. That structure and consistency gives the child security."

Coping Skills

"Parents model how to handle emotions when they react to their own feelings," says Heidi Smith Luedtke, a psychologist in northern Virginia and the author of "Detachment Parenting: 33 Ways to Keep Your Cool When Kids Melt Down." She advises that "parents can teach kids about emotions by giving them specific emotion words to describe their feelings. Studies show that labeling feelings with words helps to decrease distress and makes it less likely that an angry person will act on his or her anger. Words help us make the shift from reacting to responding

Relationships

"Families play an enormously important role in kids' social and emotional development," says Smith Luedtke. "In addition to being your child's first

teacher, as a parent, you are also his personal coping consultant." Nurturing family relationships lay the foundation for all other relationships. Through these experiences, children learn to trust others and seek out friendship and comfort. These early lessons pave the way for satisfying personal relationships later

(e) Role of media (Printed and Electronic) on developmental aspects of children with special reference to adolescents.

MEDIA INFLUENCE AND ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOUR

There are some links between media content and negative teenage behaviour.

Media influence on body image

Your child's [body image](#) is influenced by many factors. These include family environment, ability or disability, peer attitudes, the fashion industry, cultural background – and mainstream media, social media and advertising.

If teenagers see unrealistic 'thin' or 'muscly' body types often enough, it can have an impact on their body image and dieting behaviour. This is especially true when there's no-one to disagree with messages like 'thin is beautiful'.

Body image ideals in the media have increased teenagers' desire for plastic surgery. For example, some teenage girls now want breast implants and laser hair removal, and some boys want soft tissue fillers (muscle enhancers).

Media influence and violence

Seeing violent media content often enough can make it more likely that someone will behave in

an aggressive or violent way, be less understanding of other people's needs and feelings, or feel more afraid of their environment.

This kind of content doesn't always – or even often – show what would happen if people behaved violently in real life. It can mean that teenagers don't get a realistic understanding of what happens when you're violent in real life.

Media influence and other unhealthy behaviour

Media can also influence other unhealthy or risky behaviour, including smoking, [drinking alcohol and taking other drugs](#). But it's worth remembering that media is just one of several influences on this kind of behaviour. Other more powerful influences include family and friends.

MEDIA INFLUENCE AND POSITIVE ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOUR

Here's the good news: the media can be a positive influence for teenagers.

For example, teenagers who are exposed to and take an interest in the news are more likely to be interested in major social and political issues. This can help educate them and encourage them to become more involved as citizens in their communities.

Teenagers can also pick up important health promotion messages from the media – for example, messages aimed at preventing youth depression and suicide, encouraging healthy eating and lifestyle habits, and promoting positive, respectful relationships.

How media celebrities influence teenagers

Celebrities often get into the media for bad behaviour. But celebrity role models aren't always bad influences.

Media influence can be powerful if a celebrity role model says a particular lifestyle, product or behaviour is good. There are lots of examples of celebrities whose lifestyles, values and behaviour provide positive examples. The hard work and success of these role models can be inspirational.

Children and teenagers do need to be aware that some celebrities are paid to advertise the products they endorse.

Helping your child handle media influence

Exposure to media messages is a part of modern life, but you can help your child work out what's worth paying attention to.

UNIT- IV: GROUP BEHAVIOUR-IMPLICATION FOR TEACHERS

(d) Group Dynamics- meaning, types of groups, factors of group behaviour and role of teacher in promoting classroom as a cohesive group.

GROUP

A group may be defined as set of people who have the same interests or objectives and who organize themselves to work together and strive towards a common goal.

According to Shaw, "Group is defined as two or more persons who are interacting with each other in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other."

A group is characterized by the following features:

- i. a common motive or goal and shared attitudes
- ii. a hierarchical group structure i.e., clearly defined role for each member
- iii. standard norms of behavior

iv. Influence of interaction with each other.

Groups exist in every organization and it is believed that “an organization will function best when its personnel function not as individuals but as members of highly effective work groups with high performance goals.”

As groups are essential for organizational functioning, they are either created by the organization itself in order to facilitate division of labor for achieving its sub-goals and ultimately its ultimate goal or groups are created automatically, as a result of the socio-psychological factors at the workplace. The study of group dynamics provides understanding of groups.

GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics encompasses the dynamics of interaction pattern within the group, the manner in which decisions are made in the group, how work gets done, and how member's needs are satisfied.

The interactions that influence the attitudes and behaviour of people when they are grouped with others through either choice or accidental circumstances.

The group dynamics include both the group content and the group processes.

- Group content refers to the specific tasks, problems, topics, or conditions addressed by the group as a whole.
- Group processes refers to the interaction between the group members.
Process also refers to all of the factors that contribute to the group processes.
- Both content and process occur simultaneously and are equally important.

CONCEPT OF GROUP DYNAMICS

It was at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology that the Research Centre for the group dynamics was founded in 1945 and later in 1948 was moved to the University of Michigan. It was founded by Kurt Lewin to study group decision, group productivity, group interaction, group cohesiveness and group communication. The underlying assumption was that the laws of the group behavior can be established independently of the goals or specific activities of group irrespective of the structure of the group. A variety of experiments later on by Herbert Spenser, Allport , Georg Simmel , put forward the concept of group dynamics as a technique of fostering the conciliation between individuals and groups with an idea to formulate principles which underlie group behavior , and devise principles of group decisions and actions.

The term ‘group dynamics’ is formed by the combination of the two words ‘group’ and ‘dynamics.’ While ‘group’ refers to two or more individuals sharing an explicit socio-psychological relationship, ‘dynamics’ refers to the forces within the group that shape the patterns of interaction between group members i.e., the power or capacity of a group member to change or influence change in other members according to changed circumstances.

There are 3 views about group dynamics:

1. First view describes how a group should be organized and conducted, stressing more on democratic leadership and members’ participation.

2. Second view describes the techniques used in group dynamics, for instance, role playing, leaderless groups, brainstorming, group therapy, transactional analysis etc.

3. Third view describes group dynamics from the perspective of internal nature of groups; the structure, processes, reasons and methods of their formation, their influence within the group, with other groups and with the organization.

Types of Groups:

There are two types of groups in every organization:

Formal groups and Informal groups

1. Formal Groups:

An organization creates and maintains formal groups to fulfill needs or tasks that are included in its mission or organizational goals. In order to achieve its ultimate goal, an organization creates sub-goals which it assigns to different units or departments. These formal groups created by the organization itself are regulated by the organizational rules and regulations.

Life of the formal groups may be permanent or temporary depending upon the specific objectives to be fulfilled. Examples of permanent formal groups are board of directors, managing committees etc. and temporary

formal groups are exemplified by task force or temporary committees created to fulfill certain specified objectives.

2. Informal Groups:

Informal groups are created voluntarily and spontaneously due to the socio- psychological forces operating in the workplace. Individuals working together often develop liking for each other and socialize with each other to overcome the psychological fatigue, boredom and monotony associated with their work.

Informal groups are formed as they satisfy the social needs of individuals while at work. As they are not created by the organization, the working of informal groups is not regulated by organizational rules and regulations.

As informal groups are smaller in size as compared to formal groups group-cohesiveness is easy to maintain. In spite of this, informal groups are not very stable. The instability is primarily due to the personality differences between the members of the informal group.

Dynamics of informal Groups:

Informal groups almost always arise if opportunities exist. If management prescribes production norms that the group considers unfair, the group's recourse is to adopt less demanding norms and to use its ingenuity to discover ways in which it can sabotage management's imposed standards.

Thus they counteract the tendency of the organization to get more output from the workers.

Psychological vs. Social organizations: A psychological group may be defined as one in which the two or more persons who are interdependent as each member's nature influences every other person, members share an ideology and have common tasks. These include families, friendship circles, political clubs, work, educational, religious, neighborhood, and recreational groups.

The social groups may be defined as integrated system of interrelated psychological groups formed to accomplish a defined function or objective. A political party with its many local political clubs, friendship circles is the social organizations.

Formal vs. Informal organizations: Formal groups refer to those which are established under the legal or formal authority with the view to achieve a particular end result and the group is designated by the organizational structure, having work assignments establishing tasks. E.g. People making up the airline flight crew, trade unions.

Informal groups refer to the aggregate of the personal contacts and Interaction and the network of relationships among individuals obtained in the formal groups. These groups may take the form of the interest or friendship groups.

Primary vs. Secondary groups: The primary groups are characterized by small size, face to face interactions and intimacy among the members of the group. The examples are family groups, play groups and neighborhood groups.

The secondary groups are characterized by large size and individual's identification with the values and beliefs prevailing in them rather than actual interactions. E.g. occupational associations and ethnic groups.

Membership vs. Reference groups: The membership group is those where the individual actually belongs and reference group is one in which they would like to belong.

Command vs. Task groups: The command group is formed by subordinates reporting directly to the particular manager and is determined by the formal organizational chart. E.g. an assistant regional transport officer and his two transport supervisors form a command group.

The task groups are composed of people who work together to perform a task but involve a cross- command relationship. Its boundaries are not located within its immediate hierarchical superior. E.g. for finding out who was responsible for causing wrong medication order would require liaison between ward in charge, senior sisters and head nurse.

Interest vs. Friendship group: The interest group involves people who come together to accomplish a particular goal with which they are concerned .Office employees joining hands to go to vacation or get vacation schedule changed form an interest group.

The friendship group is formed by people having one or more common features. The people coming from a particular area or having same language to speak belong to a friendship group.

FUNCTIONS OF THE GROUPS

Formal organizational functions: These relates to basic mission attainment by the organization. The group completes the work, creates ideas and embraces all activities for which they are accountable.

Psychological Personal functions:The group formation facilitates psychological functioning, satisfaction of the needs, outlet for affiliation and helps in getting stability and enhancing the achievements.

Mixed or Multiple functions:The formal as well as informal both kinds of roles are taken up by the members of the group. The formal group can try to fulfill various psychological roles and leading to increased loyalty, commitment and energy for effective attainment of the administrative and organizational goals.

(e) Discipline- Developmental model, role of school, critical examination of enforcement of discipline in Indian classrooms.

What is discipline?

In its most general sense, **discipline** refers to systematic instruction given to a disciple. *To discipline* thus means to instruct a person to follow a particular code of conduct “order.”

In the classroom discipline is regarded as a code of conduct that both teachers and students agree upon and cooperate in its enforcement. I insist on cooperation and agreement in classroom management. Once the rules are set by all learning and

teaching participants, it will be hard for them to deny or refuse disciplinary action in case of any transgression of the rule

(f) Role of different methods of discipline in character education, truancy & drop-out.

METHODS:

The easiest method is to simply register the fact ('You are X minutes late') and rather than ask for an instant explanation (generally only an opportunity for the offenders to lower your status further by lying to you about where they have been) raise your status instead by giving them their first indirect warning ('See me at the end, please). This approach covers the four points above but it does something else as well.

It is statistically likely that persistent latecomers may well exhibit behavioral problems in class. As we shall see later on, one well-used school discipline sanction that teachers have is the fact that as the pupil is in front of you for the duration of a lesson, you can keep them behind once the class has been dismissed. These pupils will be used to this routine. Establishing the fact early on that they already have to see you after the lesson to explain their lateness, will reinforce the realization that if they misbehave during the lesson, you may extend that period further.

Of course, like all warnings, direct or indirect, you have to do what you say you'll do or you will lose credibility and the pupils will push the boundaries further. Make sure that you do keep them and ask them why they were late and insist that they arrive on time. Some schools have lateness policies, which involve recording lateness and issuing sanctions for repeat offenders.

You may then want to raise your status again, after they have walked in, by telling the pupil where to sit, rather than allowing them to choose.

Seating plans in general are a great school discipline idea because they clearly establish your status as the person in control of the room. This is because pupils quite literally have to follow your instructions as to where to sit. They can also be seen as a physical manifestation of the positive learning frame that you are creating for your class. Allowing the cultural architects of your class to choose to sit together, could encourage them to work together to create a negative frame that could well hi-jack your own. Sitting them next to others will dilute any negative influence that they may have on others, by placing them next to students who may be more receptive to your learning frame.

Some theories suggest that sitting boys and girls next to each other works best and whilst this may be true in the sense that boy's natural exuberance may be tempered by the girls, it is important to remember that girls should not be made 'responsible' for 'disciplining' the boy

