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DYNAMICS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

M.S.W. I Semester Paper -III

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SW03: DYNAMICS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Unit-1

Understanding Human Behaviour, Heredity and Environment in Shaping Human Behaviour, Basic Psychological Process, Perception, Motivation and Intelligence.

Unit-2

Nature and Principles of Human Growth and Development -- Stages of Life Span from Conception to Old age -- Theories of Human Development -- Freud's Psycho- Sexual Theory, Erickson's Psycho- Social Theory, Relevance of Social Work practice Across the stages of Development.

Unit-3

Personality: Meaning, Definition, Types of Personality, Factors in Adjustment, Stress, Frustration and Conflicts- Defence Mechanism -- Types.

Unit-4

Learning -- Nature and Theories- Classical Conditioning, Operant Conditioning, Application of Learning Principles in Behavioural Theory and Behavioural Modification Techniques.

Unit-5

Attitudes - Formation and Change of Attitudes -- Leadership -- Types, Traits and Functions.

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Lifespan Development - Definition and Stages

Lifespan Development Definition

The term lifespan development refers to age-related changes that occur from birth, throughout a persons' life, into and during old age.

8 Terms

Terms	Definitions
Lifespan Development Definition	The term lifespan development refers to age-related changes that occur from birth, throughout a persons' life, into and during old age
The six stages of lifespan development are:	Infancy, Childhood, Adolescence, Early Adulthood, Middle Age, Older Age.
Infancy	Birth-two years. While the infant is dependent on adults for most things, many psychological characteristics are rapidly developing. During this stage, the bond that develops between the infant and their primary caregiver is important in terms of the infant's later emotional development.
Childhood	Two-ten years. During this stage, children become increasingly independent from their parents as they learn to do things themselves and gain more self-control. During this stage, children's cognitive skills develop and they also begin to develop an understanding of what is right and wrong.
Adolescence	Ten-twenty years. The onset of puberty marks the beginning of adolescence. It is dominated by seeking independence from parents and developing one's own identity. Compared to the child, an adolescent's thought processes are more logical, complex and idealistic.
Early Adulthood	Twenty-forty years. This is the stage of establishing personal and financial independence and establishing and consolidating a career. For many, it is also the time in which individuals select a partner, develop an ongoing intimate relationship and begin a family.
Middle Age	Forty-sixty five years. This is a period of expanding social and personal involvements and responsibilities, advancing a career, and supporting offspring in their development to becoming mature individuals.
Older Age	Sixty five years plus. A period of considerable adjustment to changes in one's life and self-perceptions. For many older people, this is a very liberating time when they no longer have the day-to-day responsibility of looking after their children or working.

Growth and Development: An Overview

Author: Ludwig von Hahn

I. An Overview

Understanding the growth and development of the human organism requires an understanding of nature and nurture, and the complex interplay between the two.

Growth

Implies a physical change, usually resulting from either an increase in cell number or cell size

Development:

A change or modification in a person's capacity to function; the enhancement of a skill

Age-related norms for growth and development must be interpreted in context. The PATTERN of growth and development is much more important than the particular size of a child or the particular collection of developmental skills the child may possess at any given point in time.

II. Overview of Physical Growth

Growth in young people occurs in the following pattern:

1. Relatively rapid growth during infancy with a gradual deceleration until about the fourth year of life
2. A slow but uniform period of growth until puberty
3. A prominent adolescent growth spurt
4. A relatively gradual decrease in the rate of growth until completion of maturity, usually after age 20.

Differences in the size of adults between populations depends on differences in the gene pools of those populations as well as differences in environmental factors. There are differences in the size of Asians when compared to Caucasians, for example. However, Asians who grow up in the United States are generally taller and larger than Asians who grow up in Asia. Thus, genetic differences that may exist between these two populations can be mitigated by environmental factors.

Factors which affect growth are:

1. Genetic factors.
2. Maternal illnesses during pregnancy. Diabetes, endocrine diseases, diseases which affect placental sufficiency, etc., can affect foetal growth, even when these illnesses are adequately treated.
3. Maternal and family socio-economic disadvantages during and after pregnancy. Poor nutrition, lack of access to prenatal care, poor education, and inadequate treatment of maternal illnesses can affect maternal health. These factors thus also affect the size of the newborn, and usually continue to affect the size of the child after birth.

4. Maternal and family social/emotional problems during childhood. These factors, which may have affected the size of the newborn, can have an ongoing effect on the infant/child's growth. Examples include poor nutrition and environmental or emotional deprivation. Emotional deprivation alone, or the absence of a stimulating environment, even in the presence of adequate nutrition, can result in growth failure. Notable examples of this occur in eastern European orphanages, where staff shortages result in minimal stimulation for the infants and children cared for at the orphanage.

Statistically speaking, the most important factor affecting a child's growth is her size at birth, and the factors that contributed to this. These factors tend to persist, and thus have an ongoing effect on growth.

Adolescent physical growth and development

Physiologically speaking, adolescence emerges as early as age 8 (girls) or 9 (boys), and as late as 14 in boys and girls. The two major events occurring during this time are a rapid increase in height and weight, and the development of sexual characteristics. Tanner staging is a method of evaluating the sexual maturity of an adolescent, and is based upon the appearance of secondary sexual characteristics (breast development in girls, penis and testicular development in boys, and pubic hair development in both). Sexual maturity is complete by the end of the teenage years.

III. Overview of Development

Brain Growth and Development

Nearly one half of the brain's postnatal growth is achieved by the end of the first year, as witnessed by the impressive increase in head circumference. The enormous increase in head size is primarily accounted for by growth of the cerebral cortex. New cortical cells are added (neurons as well as dendritic cells), more connecting links are created, and cells become larger.

Myelination of brain cells (development of a sheath around each brain cell) is an important reason for the increase in head size as well. As different parts of the nervous system undergo myelination, the infant/toddler is capable of increasingly complex motor, verbal, and cognitive functions. The pattern of myelination results in a very predictable pattern of motor development:

- cephalad to caudal (head to tail)
- proximal to distal (from thorax to periphery)

Development in spheres other than the motor sphere is also predictable, but is not as clearly associated with myelination patterns.

Development is divided into four major areas:

1. Motor
2. Speech/language
3. Cognitive
4. Social/emotional

A. Motor development

Motor milestones will be described in the lecture devoted to this topic. For the purposes of today's lecture, it is sufficient to remember that motor development occurs in a cephalo-caudal, proximo-distal pattern. This means that the infant first achieves postural control of the head through control of the neck muscles, and is able to lift her head. Subsequently, she develops control of the shoulders, upper back, lower back, hips, etc. Arm and hand, and upper leg/lower leg motor control then also develops, subsequently extending to fingers and toes. The major accomplishments of the first year of life are the ability to stand, and the capacity for a pincer grasp. From here, motor development is programmed less from a biological/genetic perspective, and depends increasingly on environmental opportunities for refining and developing motor skills.

B. Speech and Language development

The development of speech and language skills also follow predictable patterns.

1. Infant communication: proto-conversations, in which parent and infant take turns responding through facial gestures.
2. Cooing: the infant makes vowel sounds
3. Babbling: the infant makes consonant sounds. Arises prior to six months
4. Jargon: speech-like sounds which include vowels, consonants, and prosody (the music of language) without actually using words. Arises prior to one year.
5. Single words. Usually arise by age one.
6. Two and three word sentences. Usually arise by age two.

The stages prior to jargon are largely biologically programmed. These abilities are present even if the environment does not provide a context for communication. However, jargon and words cannot develop without exposure to words. Thus, the neurobiological substrate intended to produce speech (and motor skills for that matter) can only be "activated" if the infant is stimulated by his/her environment.

Depending on the degree of stimulation, the development of speech and language skills is potentially limitless. In medical school, you will learn a vast number of new words. The same holds true when learning a foreign language. These new words are linked to new concepts as well. The greater the demands of the environment, the greater the number of skills (words) that can potentially be acquired. The capacity of the brain to respond to this environmental stimulation does have limits, however. Not all people are able to learn the vocabulary

of medical school, or of foreign languages, even if provided with the appropriate exposure.

C. Cognitive development: the work of Piaget

Piaget was the first child psychologist to map out child cognitive development in any detail. Much has been learned since he first published his work, and child psychologists have learned that the stages he presented are not necessarily acquired in the linear and ordered fashion he described. Nonetheless, his "map" of child development is still useful when attempting to understand various aspects of cognitive development.

Piaget divided child development into four stages:

1. Sensorimotor stage (ages 0 to 2)

In the sensorimotor stage, infants learn:

1. About their own body movements
2. That the movements of their body can have an effect on their environment
3. To coordinate two or more movements or activities to reach a goal
4. The concept of object permanence

The major cognitive development of the first two years of life is the acquisition of object permanence. The child can imagine an object, even when not seeing the object in front of him/herself. This is the start of representational thought.

2. The Preoperational stage: ages 2 to 4 or 5

"Operations" was a word Piaget coined to refer to 'mental schemes' or 'mental strategies'. Today, these are perhaps better understood as neural schemes or neural connections. They come into play after the preschool years.

1. Cause and Effect Relationships. Preschoolers establish cause and effect relationships between two events through their proximity in space or time. Any two events close in time or space are related causally. This is called transductive reasoning. In a preschooler's mind, a child can catch any and all illnesses by being close to someone with an illness. A preschooler might say that a child who misbehaved one day and caught a cold the next day caught that cold because of the misbehaviour. Transductive reasoning persists in the adult population, where a "cold" is said to come from "being cold."
2. The egocentricity of preschoolers. Preschoolers cannot understand that someone seeing an object from an angle different from themselves see the object differently from themselves.

3. Preschoolers cannot apprehend more than one concept at a time. This is illustrated by the concept of conservation of volume. Preschoolers are not able to understand that a liter of fluid in a tall, narrow container is the same volume as a liter of fluid in a short, wide container. They cannot apprehend two aspects of a problem such as this, eg. width and length, simultaneously

3. The concrete operational stage: ages 5 to 11 or 12

1. The child learns operations such as:
 1. addition,
 2. subtraction,
 3. multiplication,
 4. division,
 5. serial ordering
2. The child learns to conserve volume. Piaget considered this to be the major achievement of this age group. Conservation of number, substance, weight, and volume occur at different ages but in a specific order. There is a decline of egocentrism. Children at this stage are now able to imagine how others would perceive various situations.
3. The child is unable to understand hypothetical situations. Children at the concrete stage of operations have great difficulty accepting hypothetical situations. They are not able to answer a question based on a hypothetical proposition. For example, if you asked a child at a concrete operational stage of thinking: "If all dogs were pink, what colour would your dog be?", they would not be able to answer the question. They might answer: "Dogs aren't pink."

4. The stage of formal operations: Adolescence and beyond

Instead of thinking only about real things and actual occurrences, the adolescent must start to think about imaginary things and possible occurrences. Adolescents learn how to

- Use strategies for solving problems.
- Accept a proposition that may be completely ridiculous and make arguments or conclusions from this proposition.
- Understand abstractions (justice, liberty, etc.).
- Think about their own thinking.

What are the Principles of growth and development in psychology?

8 significant principles underlying in the process of growth and development

THERE ARE CERTAIN SIGNIFICANT PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING IN THE PROCESS OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT. THESE ARE AS FOLLOWS:

1. Development follows a pattern

The process of development is not haphazard but gradual and regular. We will find a particular pattern or sequence of development. In the cephalo-caudal sequence i.e. development proceeds from head to toe and proximo-distal sequence in this pattern direction of development proceeds from centre to periphery.

2. Growth is continuous and gradual

Growth always brings about certain change in the organism. But these changes do not take place suddenly. It is a continuous process. All the parts of body continue to grow gradually until they reach their maximum through infancy early childhood, late childhood.

3. Growth proceeds more rapidly during early years

The rate of growth is not uniform. The child grows more rapidly during early years and slowly during the later years. Growth during early years is so rapid that it is easily noticeable and growth becomes slow at the later stages.

4. Development proceeds from general to specific

The child first shows general responses as a whole. Then gradually he gives specific response to specific stimuli. The child moves his whole hand to indicate certain thing instead of one finger. In the emotional aspect he responds through only general response like crying & smile to denote, hunger, pain & Joy and the baby produces general babbling sounds, before he can speak words.

5. Development is a product of heredity and environment

Heredity and environment have considerable impact on the growth and development of the child. The child is born with some genetically endowments and develops by interacting with his environment. Neither heredity nor environment is the sole factor responsible for the development of a child. Nutrition, home climate and school environment regulate social, emotional and intellectual development while child inherits physical stature and different traits from his parents.

6. Most of the traits are correlated

The physical and the mental development of the child are mostly correlated to each other. A child who has a good physical health is also above average in

intelligence. A child whose intelligence is above average is also so in health size, sociability, attitudes and aptitudes. But this may not be always true.

7. Growth is not uniform

Different parts of body grow at different rates. All parts of body can never grow at the same rate. At birth, head is one fourth of the body in length. Later other parts of body grow very fast till it reaches maturation.

8. Development is predictable

In many cases it is possible to predict the type of probable development a child will follow, because the rate of development follows a Pattern. As it is possible to predict intelligence of a person with the help of an intelligence test given in earlier years. 'X'-rays of the bones of different parts of the body will tell approximately what will be the ultimate size.

Human Growth and Development - A Matter of Principles

Novella J. Ruffin, Ph.D., Assistant Professor and Extension Child Development Specialist, Virginia State University, Virginia Dept. of Education Licensed School Psychologist and NCSP

There is a set of principles that characterizes the pattern and process of growth and development. These principles or characteristics describe typical development as a predictable and orderly process; that is, we can predict how most children will develop and that they will develop at the same rate and at about the same time as other children. Although there are individual differences in children's personalities, activity levels, and timing of developmental milestones, such as ages and stages, the principles and characteristics of development are universal patterns.

Principles of Development

1. Development proceeds from the head downward. This is called the cephalocaudal principle. This principle describes the direction of growth and development. According to this principle, the child gains control of the head first, then the arms, and then the legs. Infants develop control of the head and face movements within the first two months after birth. In the next few months, they are able to lift themselves up by using their arms. By 6 to 12 months of age, infants start to gain leg control and may be able to crawl, stand, or walk. Coordination of arms always precedes coordination of legs.

2. Development proceeds from the center of the body outward. This is the principle of proximodistal development that also describes the direction of development. This means that the spinal cord develops before outer parts of the body. The child's arms develop before the hands and the hands and feet develop before the fingers and toes. Finger and toe muscles (used in fine motor dexterity) are the last to develop in physical development.

3. Development depends on maturation and learning. Maturation refers to the sequential characteristic of biological growth and development. The biological changes occur in sequential order and give children new abilities. Changes in the brain and nervous system account largely for maturation. These changes in the brain and nervous system help children to improve in thinking (cognitive) and motor (physical) skills. Also, children must mature to a certain point before they can progress to new skills (**Readiness**). For example, a four-month-old cannot use language because the infant's brain has not matured enough to allow the child to talk. By two years old, the brain has developed further and with help from others, the child will have the capacity to say and understand words. Also, a child can't write or draw until he has developed the motor control to hold a pencil or crayon. Maturational patterns are innate, that is, genetically programmed. The child's environment and the learning that occurs as a result of the child's experiences largely determine whether the child will reach optimal development. A stimulating environment and varied experiences allow a child to develop to his or her potential.

4. Development proceeds from the simple (concrete) to the more complex. Children use their cognitive and language skills to reason and solve problems. For example, learning relationships between things (how things are similar), or classification, is an important ability in cognitive development. The cognitive process of learning how an apple and orange are alike begins with the most simplistic or concrete thought of describing the two. Seeing no relationship, a preschool child will describe the objects according to some property of the object, such as color. Such a response would be, "An apple is red (or green) and an orange is orange." The first level of thinking about how objects are alike is to give a description or functional relationship (both concrete thoughts) between the two objects. "An apple and orange are round" and "An apple and orange are alike because you eat them" are typical responses of three, four and five year olds. As children develop further in cognitive skills, they are able to understand a higher and more complex relationship between objects and things; that is, that an apple and orange exist in a class called fruit. The child cognitively is then capable of classification.

5. Growth and development is a continuous process. As a child develops, he or she adds to the skills already acquired and the new skills become the basis for further achievement and mastery of skills. Most children follow a similar pattern. Also, one stage of development lays the foundation for the next stage of development. For example, in motor development, there is a predictable sequence of developments that occur before walking. The infant lifts and turns the head before he or she can turn over. Infants can move their limbs (arms and legs) before grasping an object. Mastery of climbing stairs involves increasing skills from holding on to walking alone. By the age of four, most children can walk up and down stairs with alternating feet. As in maturation, in order for children to write or draw, they must have developed the manual (hand) control to hold a pencil and crayon.

6. Growth and development proceed from the general to specific. In motor development, the infant will be able to grasp an object with the whole hand before using only the thumb and forefinger. The infant's first motor movements are very generalized, undirected, and reflexive, waving arms or kicking before being able to reach or creep toward an object. Growth occurs from large muscle movements to more refined (smaller) muscle movements.

7. There are individual rates of growth and development. Each child is different and the rates at which individual children grow is different. Although the patterns and sequences for growth and development are usually the same for all children, the rates at which individual children reach developmental stages will be different. Understanding this fact of individual differences in rates of development should cause us to be careful about using and relying on age and stage characteristics to describe or label children. There is a range of ages for any developmental task to take place. This dismisses the notion of the "average child". Some children will walk at ten months while others walk a few months older at eighteen months of age. Some children are more active while others are more passive. This does not mean that the passive child will be less intelligent as an adult. There is no validity to comparing one child's progress with or against another child. Rates of development also are not uniform within an individual child. For example, a child's intellectual development may progress faster than his emotional or social development.

An understanding of the principles of development helps us to plan appropriate activities and stimulating and enriching experiences for children, and provides a basis for understanding how to encourage and support young children's learning.

Freud's Psychosexual Theory



Figure

Sigmund Freud, was the founder of psychoanalysis and psychoanalytic theories. These theories are based on the belief that developmental changes occur because of the influence of internal drives and emotions on behavior.

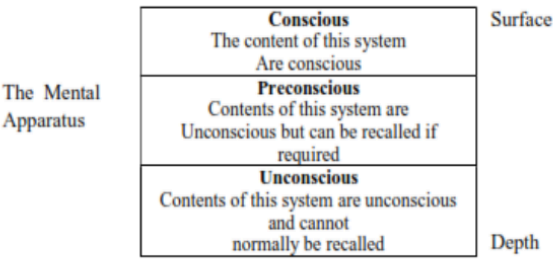
From Freud's psychoanalysis theories psychologists were given one possible insight as to how the conscious and unconscious mind works. Freud believed that there is a constant unconscious drive in humans to seek pleasure, which he called the libido. He argued that the human personality can be divided into three different parts.

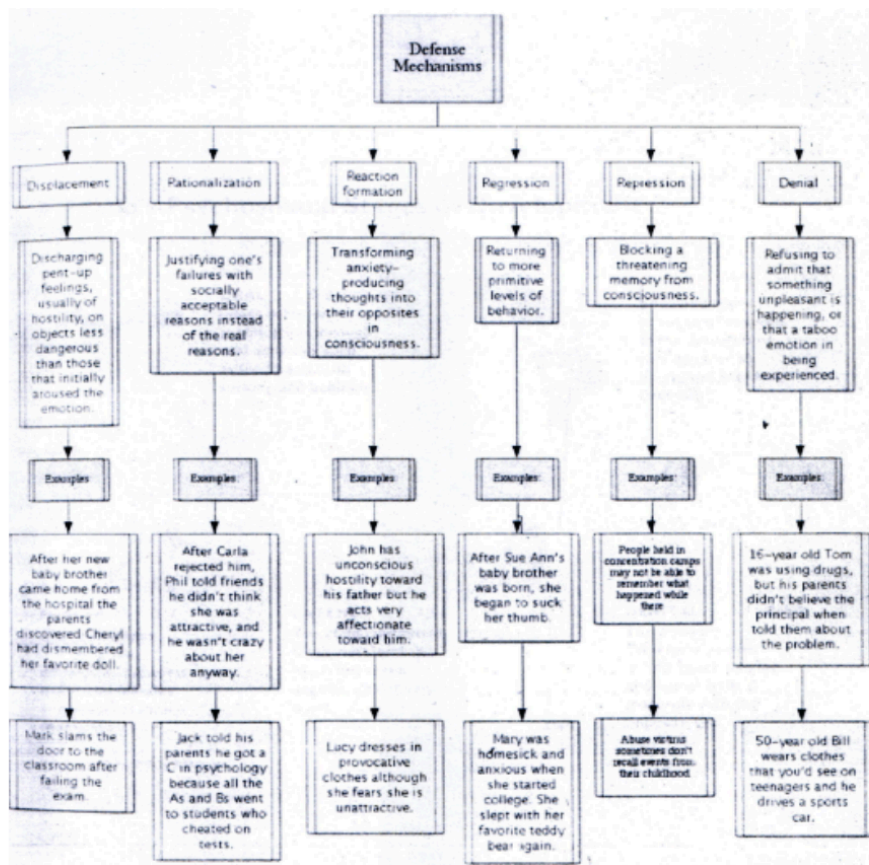
The conscious mind includes everything that we are aware of. This is the aspect of our mental processing that we can think and talk about rationally.

Preconscious is our memory, which is not always part of consciousness but can be retrieved easily at any time and brought into our awareness.

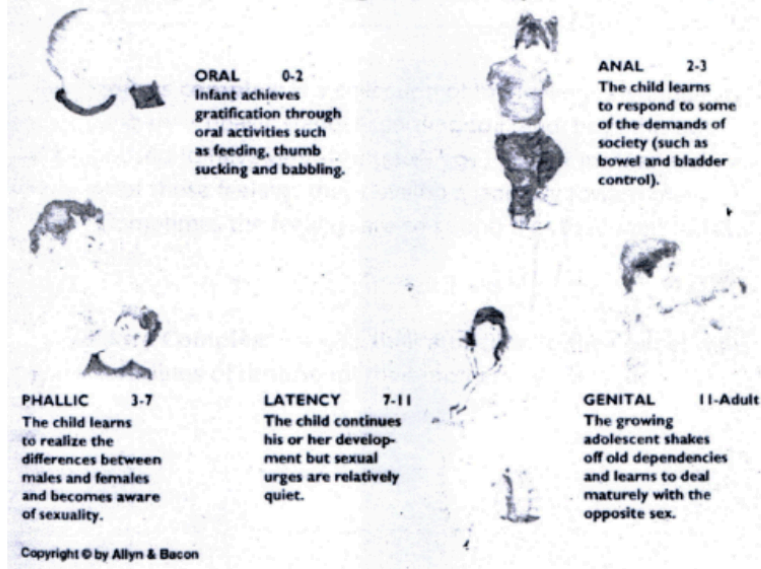
The unconscious mind is a reservoir of feelings, thoughts, urges, and memories that outside of our conscious awareness. Most of the contents of the unconscious are unacceptable or unpleasant, such as feelings of pain, anxiety, or conflict. According to Freud, the unconscious continues to influence our behavior and experience, even though we are unaware of these underlying influences.

Figure
External World





► Freud's Psychosexual Stages of Development



Stages	Ages	Major Development (& Focus of Libido)
Oral	0 to 1	Weaning off of breast feed or formula (Mouth, Tongue, Lips)
Phallic	1 to 3	Toilet Training (Anus)
Latency	3 to 6	Resolving Oedipus/ Electra Complex (Genitals)
Anal	6 to 12	Developing defense Mechanisms
Genital	12+	Reaching full Sexual Maturity (Genitals)

The Oedipus complex: is a collection of the feelings a young boy has during their phallic stage. According to Freud, boys this age are supposed to have very strong feelings for their mother and because of those feelings they develop a jealousy toward their father. Sometimes the feelings are so strong that they want to kill their father.

The Elektra Complex: For girls their attraction to their father will result in feelings of distaste for their mothers.

Theory of Psychosocial Development
Erik H. Erikson

"Healthy children will not fear life if their elders have integrity enough not to fear death."- Erikson.

INTRODUCTION

- Erik Erikson was a psychoanalyst who developed the theory of psychosocial development.
- He was born on June 15, 1902 in Karlsruhe Germany.
- His classic work "*Childhood and Society*" set forth his theory of the life cycle.
- *Young Man Luther: Identity: Youth and Crisis* and *Gandhi's Truth* are his other influential works.
- He believed that the achievements and failures of earlier stages influence later stages, whereas later stages modify and transform earlier ones.
- Erikson's conceptualization of psychosocial development based its model the epigenetic principle of organismic growth in utero.
- Erikson views psychosocial growth occurs in phases.

EIGHT STAGES OF THE LIFE CYCLE

- Erikson explains 8 developmental stages in which physical, cognitive, instinctual, and sexual changes combine to trigger an internal crisis whose resolution results in either psychosocial regression or growth and the development of specific virtues.
- Erikson defined virtue as "inherent strength".

Table

Stages	Ages	Major Development (& Focus of Libido)
Oral	0 to 1	Weaning off of breast feed or formula (Mouth, Tongue, Lips)
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Trust Versus Mistrust (Birth to About 18 Months)

- The infant is taking the world in through the mouth, eyes, ears, and sense of touch.
- A baby whose mother is able to anticipate and respond to its needs in a consistent and timely manner despite its oral aggression will learn to tolerate the inevitable moments of frustration and deprivation.
- A person who, as a result of severe disturbances in the earliest dyadic relationships, fails to develop a basic sense of trust or the virtue of **hope** may be predisposed as an adult to the profound withdrawal and regression characteristic of schizophrenia (Newton DS, Newton PM, 1998).

Autonomy Versus Shame and Doubt (About 18 Months to About 3 Years)

- "This stage, therefore, becomes decisive for the ratio between loving good will and hateful self-insistence, between cooperation and willfulness, and between self-expression and compulsive self-restraint or meek compliance." - Erikson
- This oral-sensory stage of infancy, marked by the potential development of basic trust aiming toward the achievement of a sense of **hope**.
- Here, the child will develop an appropriate sense of autonomy, otherwise doubt and shame will undermine free will.
- An individual who becomes fixated at the transition between the development of hope and autonomous will, with its residue of mistrust and doubt, may develop paranoic fears of persecution (Newton DS, Newton PM, 1998).
- Other disturbances of improper transition of this stage results in perfectionism, inflexibility, stinginess and ruminative and ritualistic behavior of obsessive-compulsive personality disorder.

Initiative Versus Guilt (About 3 Years to About 5 Years)

- Here, the child's task is to develop a sense of initiative as opposed to further shame or guilt.
- The lasting achievement of this stage is a sense of **purpose**.
- The child's increasing mastery of locomotors and language skills expands its participation in the outside world and stimulates omnipotent fantasies of wider exploration and conquest.

Industry Versus Inferiority (About 5 Years to About 13 Years)

- Here the child is in school-age, so called stage of latency.
- He tries to master the crisis of industry versus inferiority aiming toward the development of a sense of **competence**.

Identity Versus Role Confusion (About 13 Years to About 21 Years)

- At puberty, the fifth stage, the task of adolescence is to navigate there "identity crisis" as each individual struggles with a degree of "identity confusion."
- The lasting outcome of this stage can be a capacity for **fidelity**.

Intimacy Versus Isolation (About 21 Years to About 40 Years)

- Young adulthood, at the stage of **geniality** or sixth stage, is marked by the crisis of intimacy versus isolation, out of which may come the achievement of a capacity for **love**.

Generativity Versus Stagnation (About 40 Years to About 60 Years)

- "Generativity is primarily the concern for establishing and guiding the next generation." -Erikson
- Care is the virtue that corresponding to this stage.
- This failure of generativity can lead to profound personal stagnation, masked by a variety of escapisms, such as alcohol and drug abuse, and sexual and other infidelities. Mid-life crisis may occur.

Integrity Versus Despair (About 60 Years to Death)

- "The acceptance of one's one and only life cycle and of the people who have become significant to it as something that had to be and that, by necessity, permitted of no substitutions."
- The individual in possession of the virtue of **wisdom** and a sense of integrity has room to tolerate the proximity of death and to achieve.
- When the attempt to attain integrity has failed, the individual may become deeply disgusted with the external world, and contemptuous of persons as well as institutions.

NURSING IMPLICATIONS

- Application of Erikson's stages of psychosocial development helps in analysing patient's symptomatic behavior in the context of traumatic past experiences and struggles with current developmental tasks.
- When patients' resolutions of previous psychosocial stages have been so faulty as to seriously compromise their adult development, they have the opportunity to rework early development through the relationship with the therapist. (Newton OS, Newton PM, 1998).
- "The object of psychotherapy is not to head off future conflict but to assist the patient in emerging from each crisis "with an increased sense of inner unity, with an increase of good judgment, and an increase in the capacity 'to do well' according to his own standards and to the standards of those who are significant to him." (Erikson in *Identity: Youth and Crisis*)

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Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) is probably the most well known theorist when it comes to the development of personality. *Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development* are, like other stage theories, completed in a predetermined sequence and can result in either successful completion or a healthy personality or can result in failure, leading to an unhealthy personality. This theory is probably the most well known as well as the most controversial, as Freud believed that we develop through stages based upon a particular erogenous zone. During each stage, an unsuccessful completion means that a child becomes fixated on that particular erogenous zone and either over- or under-indulges once he or she becomes an adult.

Oral Stage (Birth to 18 months). During the oral stage, the child is focused on oral pleasures (sucking). Too much or too little gratification can result in an Oral Fixation or Oral Personality which is evidenced by a preoccupation with oral activities. This type of personality may have a stronger tendency to smoke, drink alcohol, over eat, or bite his or her nails. Personality wise, these individuals may become overly dependent upon others, gullible, and perpetual followers. On the other hand, they may also fight these urges and develop pessimism and aggression toward others.

Anal Stage (18 months to three years). The child's focus of pleasure in this stage is on eliminating and retaining feces. Through society's pressure, mainly via parents, the child has to learn to control anal stimulation. In terms of personality, after effects of an anal fixation during this stage can result in an obsession with cleanliness, perfection, and control (anal retentive). On the opposite end of the spectrum, they may become messy and disorganized (anal expulsive).

Phallic Stage (ages three to six). The pleasure zone switches to the genitals. Freud believed that during this stage boys develop unconscious sexual desires for their mother. Because of this, he becomes rivals with his father and sees him as competition for the mother's affection. During this time, boys also develop a fear that their father will punish them for these feelings, such as by castrating them. This group of feelings is known as Oedipus Complex (after the Greek Mythology figure who accidentally killed his father and married his mother).

Later it was added that girls go through a similar situation, developing unconscious sexual attraction to their father. Although Freud strongly disagreed with this, it has been termed the Electra Complex by more recent psychoanalysts.

According to Freud, out of fear of castration and due to the strong competition of his father, boys eventually decide to identify with him rather than fight him. By identifying with his father, the boy develops masculine characteristics and identifies himself as a male, and represses his sexual feelings toward his mother. A fixation at this stage could result in sexual deviancies (both overindulging and avoidance) and Weak or confused sexual identity according to psychoanalysts.

Latency Stage (age six to puberty). It's during this stage that sexual urges remain repressed and children interact and play mostly with same sex peers.

Genital Stage (puberty on). The final stage of psychosexual development begins at the start of puberty when sexual urges are once again awakened. Through the lessons learned during the previous stages, adolescents direct their sexual urges onto opposite sex peers, with the primary focus of pleasure is the genitals

Freud's Structural and Topographical Models of Personality

Sigmund Freud's Theory is quite complex and although his writings on psychosexual development set the groundwork for how our personalities developed, it was only one of five parts to his overall theory of personality. He also believed that different driving forces develop during these stages which play an important role in how we interact with the world.

Structural Model (id, ego, superego)

According to Freud, we are born with our **Id**. The id is an important part of our personality because as newborns, it allows us to get our basic needs met. Freud believed that the id is based on our pleasure principle. In other words, the id wants whatever feels good at the time, with no consideration for the reality of the situation. When a child is hungry, the id wants food, and therefore the child cries. When the child needs to be changed, the id cries. When the child is uncomfortable, in pain, too hot, too cold, or just wants attention, the id speaks up until his or her needs are met.

The id doesn't care about reality, about the needs of anyone else, only its own satisfaction. If you think about it, babies are not real considerate of their parents' wishes. They have no care for time, whether their parents are sleeping, relaxing, eating dinner, or bathing. When the id wants something, nothing else is important.

Within the next three years, as the child interacts more and more with the world, the second part of the personality begins to develop. Freud called this part the **Ego**. The ego is based on the reality principle. The ego understands that other people have needs and desires and that sometimes being impulsive or selfish can hurt us in the long run. It's the ego's job to meet the needs of the id, while taking into consideration the reality of the situation.

By the age of five, or the end of the phallic stage of development, the **Superego** develops. The Superego is the moral part of us and develops due to the moral and ethical restraints placed on us by our caregivers. Many equate the superego with the conscience as it dictates our belief of right and wrong.

In a healthy person, according to Freud, the ego is the strongest so that it can satisfy the needs of the id, not upset the superego, and still take into consideration the reality of every situation. Not an easy job by any means, but if the id gets too strong, impulses and self gratification take over the person's life. If the superego becomes too strong, the person would be driven by rigid morals, would be judgmental and unbending in his or her interactions with the world. You'll learn how the ego maintains control as you continue to read.

Topographical Model

Freud believed that the majority of what we experience in our lives, the underlying emotions, beliefs, feelings, and impulses are not available to us at a conscious level. He believed that most of what drives us is buried in our **unconscious**. If you remember the Oedipus and Electra Complex, they were both pushed down into the unconscious, out of our awareness due to the extreme anxiety they caused. While buried there, however, they continue to impact us dramatically according to Freud.

Figure

The role of the unconscious is only one part of the model. Freud also believed that everything we are aware of is stored in our **conscious**. Our conscious makes up a very small part of who we are. In other words, at any given time, we are only aware of a very small part of what makes up our personality; most of what we are is buried and inaccessible.

The final part is the preconscious or subconscious. This is the part of us that we can access if prompted, but is not in our active conscious. Its right below the surface, but still buried somewhat unless we search for it. Information such as our telephone number, some childhood memories, or the name of your best childhood friend is stored in the preconscious.

Because the unconscious is so large, and because we are only aware of the very small conscious at any given time, this theory has been likened to an iceberg, where the vast majority is buried beneath the water's surface. The water, by the way, would represent everything that we are not aware of, have not experienced, and that has not been integrated into our personalities, referred to as the no conscious.

Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

Like Piaget, **Erik Erikson** (1902-1994) maintained that children develop in a predetermined order. Instead of focusing on cognitive development, however, he was interested in how children socialize and how this affects their sense of self. *Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development* has eight distinct stage, each with two possible outcomes. According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and successful interactions with others. Failure to successfully complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore a more unhealthy personality and sense of self. These stages, however, can be resolved successfully at a later time.

Trust versus Mistrust. From ages birth to one year, children begin to learn the ability to trust others based upon the consistency of their caregiver(s). If trust develops successfully, the child gains confidence and security in the world around him and is able to feel secure even when threatened. Unsuccessful completion of this stage can result in an inability to trust, and therefore an sense of fear about the inconsistent world. It may result in anxiety, heightened insecurities, and an over feeling of mistrust in the world around them.

Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt. Between the ages of one and three, children begin to assert their independence, by walking away from their mother, picking which toy to play with, and making choices about what they like to wear, to eat, etc. If children in this stage are encouraged and supported in their increased independence, they become more confident and secure in their own ability to survive in the world. If children are criticized, overly controlled, or not given the opportunity to assert themselves, they begin to feel inadequate in their ability to survive, and may then become overly dependent upon others, lack self-esteem, and feel a sense of shame or doubt in their own abilities.

Initiative vs. Guilt. Around age three and continuing to age six, children assert themselves more frequently. They begin to plan activities, make up games, and initiate activities with others. If given this opportunity, children develop a sense of initiative, and feel secure in their ability to lead others and make decisions. Conversely, if this tendency is squelched, either through criticism or control, children develop a sense of guilt. They may feel like a nuisance to others and will therefore remain followers, lacking in self-initiative.

Industry vs. Inferiority. From age six years to puberty, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments. They initiate projects, see them through to completion, and feel good about what they have achieved. During this time, teachers play an increased role in the child's development. If children are encouraged and reinforced for their initiative, they begin to feel industrious and feel confident in their ability to achieve goals. If this initiative is not encouraged, if it is restricted by parents or teacher, then the child begins to feel inferior, doubting his own abilities and therefore may not reach his potential.

Identity vs. Role Confusion. During adolescence, the transition from childhood to adulthood is most important. Children are becoming more independent, and begin to look at the future in terms of career, relationships, families, housing, etc. During this period, they explore possibilities and begin to form their own identity based upon the outcome of their explorations. This sense of who they are can be hindered, which results in a sense of confusion ("I don't know what I want to be when I grow up") about themselves and their role in the world.

Intimacy vs. Isolation. Occurring in Young adulthood, we begin to share ourselves more intimately with others. we explore relationships leading toward longer term commitments with someone other than a family member. Successful completion can lead to comfortable relationships and a sense of commitment, safety, and care within a relationship. Avoiding intimacy, fearing commitment and relationships can lead to isolation, loneliness, and sometimes depression.

Generativity vs. Stagnation. During middle adulthood, we establish our careers, settle down within a relationship, begin our own families and develop a sense of being a part of the bigger picture. We give back to society through raising our children, being productive at work, and becoming involved in community activities and organizations. By failing to achieve these objectives, we become stagnant and feel unproductive.

Ego Integrity vs. Despair. As we grow older and become senior citizens, we tend to slow down our productivity, and explore life as a retired person. It is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments and are able to develop integrity if we see ourselves as leading a successful life. If we see our lives as unproductive, feel guilt about our pasts, or feel that we did not accomplish our life goals, we become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness.

LYCEUM

"A great text book that definitely sets itself apart from other HBSE texts with the in-depth focus on issues within each chapter."
Melody Loya, West Texas A&M

HUMAN BEHAVIOR FOR SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE: A Developmental-Ecological Framework

Second Edition

Wendy L. Haight, *University of Minnesota, Twin Cities*
Edward H. Taylor, *University of British Columbia-Okanagan*

Contemporary social workers continue to face growing challenges of complex and diverse issues such as child maltreatment, poverty, unemployment, oppression, violence, mental illness, and end-of-life care across varied contexts. Wendy L. Height and Edward H. Taylor present their book *Human Behavior for Social Work Practice, Second Edition* as a core text that will help students implement a consistent framework through which to approach multifaceted social issues in any environment, whether it be in inner city schools or rural nursing homes with individuals of different ages, ethnicities, and socioeconomic status.

Human Behavior for Social Work Practice, Second Edition uses the developmental, ecological-systems perspective as an analytic tool to show students how social scientific evidence helps us understand human development and enhances social work practice. Students will learn that by effectively connecting theory to practice, they can develop successful strategies to use as they encounter complex issues currently facing social workers.

The authors have reorganized and expanded this new edition to better illustrate developmental thinking in social work practice throughout the lifespan. This book also now includes special topic chapters on human brain development and the increasing relevance of neuroscience to social work practice as well as important social justice issues specific to race and gender that occur throughout the lifespan. Also new to this edition, Haight and Taylor have developed instructor's materials that can be tailored to include the social work experience of the instructor. It is comprehensive so that no additional resources are needed, and it is dynamically structured so information can be added where relevant to the course material.

Features

- **New!** Complete instructor's manual with additional material not included in the book to further enhance students' understanding
- **New!** Introduction to the brain and its neuroscientific relevance to social work practice
- **New!** Special topic chapters expound on social justice issues of race and gender
- Interviews with seasoned practitioners highlight real-life experiences and introduce a variety of policy contexts

- Text boxes present and discuss social issues such as substance abuse, poverty, and violence as they evolve across the life span
- Updated syllabus and assignments

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About the Authors

Wendy L. Haight (Ph.D., *University of Chicago*) is professor and Gamble-Skogmo Chair in Child Welfare and Youth Policy, University of Minnesota, Twin Cities Campus. The focus of her career has been to build a more culture-inclusive understanding of diverse children's development and to use this understanding to enhance social work practice. This has required deeply and respectfully engaging with a variety of cultural perspectives and scrutinizing mainstream North American assumptions that undergird so much research in developmental psychology, education, and social work. She is author or coauthor of eight books including *Raise Up a Child: Human Development in an African American Family*, also available from Lyceum.

Edward H. Taylor (MSW, *University of Denver*; PhD, *University of Southern California, Los Angeles*) is associate professor and director of the University of British Columbia-Okanagan School of Social Work. Previously he served as associate professor in the School of Social Work at the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities Campus, and chief of social work for the Department of Psychiatry, University of North Carolina, and he spent ten years as a clinical social worker and researcher with the National Institute of Mental Health, Intramural Research Program. Throughout his career, Taylor has specialized in assessing, treating, and researching children and young adults with severe mental disorders.

Social work engages with people across the life course, and practitioners often work with groups of people at different stages of life. Developing a thorough understanding of human growth and development (HGD) to encompass the whole life course is therefore a central element of social work education and practice.

Terminology

Terms such as life cycle imply that HGD is staged around relatively fixed and linear normative life events. Use of the term 'life course' or 'life span' is a more flexible and appropriate frame of reference, highlighting that development is a life-long concept and that a person's life course is not always a straightforward, linear progression. A life course perspective also highlights the importance of diversity and that our lives are shaped by social, political, cultural, economic and environmental factors.

The Challenge is for students to gain an understanding of theories of human development, whilst also recognizing the importance of diversity and difference. Understanding the developmental milestones that a young person might normally expect to accomplish must be underpinned by a critical appreciation of the difference between individual variations and delayed growth or development. HGD offers an excellent opportunity to explore and challenge personal attitudes and assumptions about the life course (e.g. considering how development in later life may encourage students to challenge assumptions that deterioration and decline are inevitable concomitants of ageing) and personal feelings (e.g. encouraging reflection on a time of life many find troubling or painful). Critically, students need opportunities to appreciate why an understanding of HGD is central to their developing knowledge base and its application to practice.

Teaching may be approached thematically (where HGD is the focus of teaching and learning) or by service user (where the focus is on children or adults), or indeed both (e.g. initial learning in HGD modules, supported by learning in modules about user groups later). Opportunities may also be found to include HGD within practice learning/skills development. Whatever the approach, students need to grasp the notion of a life course rather than perceiving stages of life as unconnected to what has gone before and what is yet to come. The study of HGD draws on theories and research from a range of disciplines, so learning opportunities should effect the contributions of different disciplines.

Key content areas

Basic concepts and knowledge

Explain how human development is a lifelong process from infancy to old age.

Draw on knowledge from a range of disciplines. Understand how development is an interaction between heredity, environment and social determinants. Explain how studying human development is relevant to social work practice. Intervene to promote rights, justice and wellbeing and challenge inequalities within the life course. Recognize the diversity of life course and challenge assumptions and stereotypes about 'groups' of people, e.g. children and young people, older people.

Introduce key concepts, e.g. key principles of life course development; critical periods; transition; change and continuity; strengths, resources and resilience; adversity, vulnerability, risk and accumulation of risk.

Specific areas of knowledge

Development of children: how children mature and develop; physical developmental milestones; cognitive development and developmental psychology (e.g. theories of learning); language acquisition; moral development; psycho-social theories of personality development; attachment and separation.

Adolescent development: physical, cognitive, moral, sexual, identity development (including race/ethnicity), becoming independent.

Critical perspectives on developmental psychology e.g. cross-cultural differences in attachment, cognition and communication; social constructions of childhood and adolescence and disability.

Challenges to development: adversity, understanding the potential impact of social divisions and inequalities in children's and young people's lives, age-based discrimination, disablism

The implications of impairment and disability on childhood, adolescence, adulthood and a critical perspective on normative models of development.

Transitions to adulthood, physical, psychosocial and cognitive changes, identity development, lifestyles, social networks and relationships; partnerships and becoming a parent, mid-life issues/crises.

Ageing and older age, physical ageing, common health problems associated with ageing and their impact (e.g. dementia); theories of ageing; life course perspectives on inequalities in later life; gender, ageism; social networks and relationships; grand parenting; continuities and change; managing transitions.

End of life: diverse perspectives on end of life and dying (e.g. cultural norms and expectations); unequal dying, acceptance and denial and death: loss, grief and mourning

Human growth and development and social work interventions

.The relationship between HGD and social work interventions. e.g. the way in which knowledge of children's social, physical and emotional development informs social work assessments of children's needs and risk.

- Linking communication methods and interventions with children with child development.
- Understanding the impact of adverse environments (e.g. domestic violence, marginalization through poverty and custody) on children and young people's development to inform assessment.
- Appreciating the difference between 'normal' and 'abnormal' ageing; listening to older peoples' life stories.

Key to other curriculum areas (Including curriculum guides)

Children and families: how children and young people might communicate at different developmental stages; factors which can impact on development that are pertinent to assessment of need; developing insight into parents'/caretakers' understanding about a child's developmental needs

Social work with adults: for example, adult development, identity development, lifestyles and networks; managing transitions and coping with change

Health and disability: challenges to life course aspirations; critical perspectives on normative approaches to development

Mental health: transitions and change, life course perspectives on mental health/illness: identity development and maintenance, lifestyles and networks, managing transitions and coping with change

Safeguarding: understanding developmental processes across the life course: understanding the impact of adversity on development; resilience and vulnerability across the life course.

Communication skills challenging our assumptions about what an older person can or cannot do, ensuring our communication with children and young people takes account of likely development

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3. SWAPBox. <http://www.swapbox.ac.uk> using search terms human growth and development, life course development; life span.

4. www.bbc.co.uk/child in our time/ website following children from birth onwards
– excellent resource for teaching and learning.

Ego Defense Mechanism

***Dr.Saraswati Raju Iyer**

Anxiety is the central theme of human existence. It arises out of frustration and psychological conflicts. Human beings try to cope with anxiety-producing situations in a number of ways which soon become the characteristic modes of an individual's behaviour, often permanently ingrained in his personality structure.

The credit of discovering defense mechanisms goes to Dr.Sigmund Freud. He, however, thought of them as a person's devices of defending himself against the anxiety aroused by conflicts between id, ego and super ego. Modern psychologists, however, do not subscribe to Freud's theory in its entirety, though

they do concede that all people use defense mechanisms when they are up against difficult situations. For contemporary psychologists, however, these defense mechanisms are a sort of learned habits or ways of reacting to situations which are capable of reducing frustration and anxiety.

In fact, it is through learning alone that a person acquires various ways of adjusting himself to his environment. But even then he has to face difficulty situations which are often frustrating and anxiety-producing. As anxiety is always unpleasant and difficult to tolerate, getting rid of it becomes a problem for the individual. It is here, defense mechanisms begin to operate to protect him from his anxiety.

Defense mechanisms, however, do not enable us to deal with anxiety-producing situations because in most of them an individual using them does not face the anxiety producing situation boldly but tries to evade it in some way. That is why some psychologist feels that these defense mechanisms distort one's perception of a situation and make it less threatening. They do not alter the objective conditions

of danger; they simply change or is in this sense that most defense mechanisms involve an element of self-deception. This is often likely to a distortion of reality and makes it difficult for an individual to make a healthy adjustment with the problems of life. In many cases of neuroses and psychoses, the defense mechanisms are used to such an extent that a person is completely cut off from reality and begins to live in a world of make belief.

There is no agreement among psychologists about the exact number of defense mechanisms or even the exact psychological processes involved in them. We shall present here only some which are considered most important. However, before we discuss them, some facts should be borne in mind. First, we do not have experimental evidence in support of them because most of them are based on observation. Secondly, even though they provide useful descriptive explanations of behavior; a full explanation invariably requires an understanding of the needs of an individual. Thirdly, their moderate use may increase one's satisfaction in living and therefore they are helpful modes of adjustment. It is only when they become dominant modes of problem-solving that they lead to personality maladjustment, sometimes of an extremely serious type.

1. Repression: As we have seen, each defense mechanism is a device for protecting individuals from a full awareness of the impulses that they would prefer to deny. When, therefore, an anxiety producing impulse or wish is completely blocked from awareness, we say that repression has occurred.

Repression might be distinguished from suppression. In suppression, one deliberately or consciously tries to keep in check impulses, wishes, tendencies that are unpleasant and anxiety producing. In repression, on the other hand, a person may not at all be aware of whatever is repressed. It is in this sense that suppression is conscious while repression is unconscious.

Repression if effective, results in a complete forgetting of the unacceptable motive or wish that is the cause of worry and anxiety to a person. But when it is not complete, impulses may find indirect expression in a person's behaviour or dreams.

The cases of amnesia illustrate some aspects of repression. A person worried by his worsening financial position may walk out of a store forgetting to pay the bill. Similarly, you may forget an appointment if it is going to bring you face to face with some harsh and intolerable reality. You may forget names and many other things which may have been sources of unpleasantness or worry for you. These are simple instances of repression; but if one analyses a person's motives and needs accurately, it will not be difficult to state how and why repression, has occurred. In many cases of disassociate reactions like fugue, split personality or multiple personality, hysteria or conversion reactions, repression appears to be an important factor.

2. Reaction Formation: It is sometimes possible to conceal one's real wishes and motives from oneself by giving a strong expression to an opposite motive. Such a tendency is called reaction formation. For instance, the mother of an unwanted child may feel guilty about not welcoming her child and so become over-solicitous and over-indulgent in order to assure it of her love and also perhaps to assure herself that she is a good mother. Or, again, if a person is troubled by some sexual desires that he cannot accept as normal, there is every possibility that they may be buried in the unconscious and often replaced by an extremely puritanical attitude towards sex. When a person appears to be too modest, too solicitous or too affectionate, the possibility is that he is harboring exactly opposite desires or motives. Reaction formation is an unconscious mechanism

Social crusaders and fanatics, who vigorously campaign against minor vices and loose public morals, are frequently battling against their own unconscious desires. However, all such persons cannot be regarded as cases of reaction

formation. Within certain limits, reaction formation may be of real value in preventing behaviour that is undesirable. In extreme cases, however, it can result in behaviour that is personally and socially harmful

Projection: Most of us have weaknesses or undesirable qualities which are so painful that we do not even acknowledge them to ourselves. The unconscious mechanism that helps us to protect ourselves from acknowledging them is known as projection. In projection, a person usually protects his self-esteem by assigning his own undesirable qualities or unworthy impulses, thoughts and motives to other people in an exaggerated way. For instance, after a fight or an ugly scene, it is easier to see the other person wholly at fault. A Student who fails in his examination may blame his teacher instead of admitting that he himself is to blame for his failures.

Examples of projection about in human behaviour though projection itself is rarely deliberate. Freud thinks that when demands of id cause great anxiety, the ego attributes them to an external cause because it can cope with external dangers more easily than with internal ones. Other psychologists are of the opinion that a projecting individual is simply making a poor discrimination as a form of avoidance. Thus by not discriminating that an error is due to his own fault rather than that of others, he avoids the unpleasant situation of facing his own ugly wishes and desires.

4. Rationalization: The fox, in Aesop's fable, who declared that grapes were sour because he could not reach them, best illustrates the defense mechanism

known as rationalization. In Rationalization a person finds excuses for making his failures laudable. It is an unconscious process of devising rational explanations for a situation that would otherwise result in the loss of social approval or self-esteem. Although rationalizations are logical they are generally based on false premises and if an individual relies too much on them, he may develop an unrealistic way of dealing with life.

5. Displacement: Displacement occupies a very important place in Freud's theory. He was of the opinion that displacement was the most satisfactory way of handling aggressive and sexual impulses. The basic drives cannot be changed; but the objective toward which a drive is directed can be changed. For example the sexual impulses towards parents (the Oedipus wish) cannot be satisfied; but such impulses can be displaced towards a more suitable object of life. Erotic impulses, when thwarted, are often expressed in creative activities-in art, poetry, music, social service, etc. similarly aggressive impulses are often displaced in such socially acceptable substitutes as athletics, racing and other sports, where aggression is expressed in new ways that are socially acceptable and rewarding such as winning.

In most cases of everyday displacement, aggression is often the motive that is involved because aggression is not tolerated and inhibited in most societies and therefore often finds a substitute expression. For instance, when a person is snubbed by his boss, he may express his suppressed anger towards some defenseless member of his family. Thus by displacement, aggression may find a socially acceptable outlet.

6. Fantasy: When a person's desires are frustrated he may retreat into a world of fantasy, where his thwarted wishes or impulses may be satisfied. In fantasy, we create a world of our own, as we would like it to be, without worries, cares, conflicts or difficulties of any sort. Fantasy -- making has positive value in the sense that it can temporarily relieve a person of the pressures of harsh realities

of life. But it can become a negative approach to life if a person builds up a world of fantasy and tries to live in it, completely shutting himself *off* from reality. In some behavioural disorders like schizophrenia, this is exactly what happens.

Experimental work on fantasy has shown that the frequency of day dreaming is mostly determined by the strength of the motive underlying it and also the degree to which the motive is frustrated. Small children day-dream of food more than teenagers do, because food (like candy) is the greatest source of their satisfaction.

Adolescents, on the other hand, day-dream about love because they generally experience considerable frustration of their new-found interest in sexual activity.

Satisfaction of some sort may come from night – dreams as well as from day dreams, both expressing unsatisfied desires. Psychoanalysts mention that the primary function of nearly all dreams is to fulfill wishes which have been frustrated by reality.

7. Identification: One more way of coping with frustration is to identify ourselves with someone else, who has realized the motives or impulses that are frustrated within ourselves. This often enhances a feeling of worth and protects an individual against self-devaluation. Adults often identify themselves with their profession, homes, or even the accomplishments of their children, college students, who work actively for social and political causes, often identify themselves with their leaders. In all such identifications, persons usually take as their own some of the desirable attributes of the people with whom they wish to identify themselves. We have already mentioned how the psychoanalysts think of identification as one of the important mechanisms in the resolution of Oedipus and Electra complexes in which the boy or girl identifies with the father and mother respectively.

When one identifies with a person, one does not feel that one is that person but tends to act like that person. Many girls and boys, who identify themselves with film stars, often fashion their clothing, hair styles, and way of talk after their idols.

8. Regression: Sometimes, when frustrated, all of us feel like returning to an earlier and more secure period of life – the one in early childhood. This is known as regression, in which an individual flees from the painful realities and responsibilities of the present to the projected existence of his early childhood. He reverts to old habits of adjustments weeping, pouting, or emotional displays – which worked in the past, but which are of little use in solving adult problems.

Regression is often very clearly manifested in 4 year and 5 year old children because, at this stage, they begin to face many difficulties in their lives. In such cases, a child reverts to baby talk and to all sorts of behaviour which is characteristic of a two-year-old.

Usually regression appears in a relatively mild form and may not even interfere seriously with an individual's efficiency to make adjustments. A mild form of regression is homesickness. Regression can occur at any age, and its intensity varies considerably from individual to individual. It may appear more frequently in people who are over-protected and unduly dependent than among the people who are mature both emotionally and intellectually.

9. Compensation: The feeling of inferiority that typically accompanies failure in some activity is often counteracted by an individual's efforts in some other sphere of activity in which he can succeed. In other words, in compensation, an individual's failures in one sphere of activity are covered up by success in another sphere.

Compensation may be defined as an attempt to disguise the presence of the weak or undesirable trait by emphasizing a desiring one. An ugly girl, who feels socially incompetent, may compensate herself by excelling in studies or by developing charming manners or learning to be a great conversationalist. In most cases, the compensatory behaviour is aimed at bringing social approval to the individual, and that is why it often results in accomplishments of considerable social value.

But compensatory behaviour ceases to be of any value when it gets out of control. For instance, an unattractive child, in order to gain the approval or draw the attention of his classmates, may sometimes resort to over compensatory activities like talking loudly or wearing gaudy clothes or behaving funnily to attract their attention. This type of behaviour, instead of helping him, may actually lead

to a further estrangement from his school -- mates and consequently deepen his feelings of inferiority. Over compensation is rarely useful in the long run.

Positive and Negative Aspects of Defense Mechanisms

In conclusion over discussion on defense mechanisms, we should note that they have both positive and negative aspects. If they were not useful for a person, they would not persist as they do not in most human beings. There is also the possibility that they provide us with a sort of protective armour at a time when we are learning better and more mature ways of behaviour when we are able to solve our problems according to the demands of the real situation we no longer need defense mechanisms, which are often a sort of a stop gap arrangement in our adjustment to reality.

Characteristics & Functions of Leadership

Definition of Leadership

John Newstrom and Keith Davis have described leadership as "the process of influencing and supporting others to work enthusiastically toward achieving objectives." It is a process where by one individual influences other group members toward the attainment of defined group or organizational goals."

Leadership is not the same as management. Although leaders need management skills, they possess many other important qualities and have many other functions to perform.

Characteristics of a Leader

A great deal of research has been carried out to find out the physical, intellectual and personality characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders and successful leaders from unsuccessful leaders.

Research findings indicate that successful leaders possess the following characteristics:

1. Drive: This includes desire for achievement, ambition, high energy, tenacity and initiative. Most leaders have a clear sense of purpose (or mission) clear goals, focus and commitment.

2. Intelligence: Leaders are generally more intelligent than the followers. It was found that leaders have higher intelligence than the average intelligence of the

followers. It was also found **that** the leader should not be far more intelligent than the followers.

3. Energy levels and stress tolerance: Leaders are very energetic and have the ability to **tolerate** high levels of stress. These qualities enable the leader to deal with role conflicts and **handle** the pressure of making important decisions with inadequate information.

4. Optimistic : Most leaders are highly optimistic : they always look at the brighter side of life. For them the glass is always half-full rather than –empty . Even in the worst situations, they see something to smile about.

5. Emotional maturity: Leaders are emotionally mature and stable. They are not self centered and have greater self-control. They do not get easily upset or excited Emotional **maturity** helps the leaders to maintain cooperative and rood relation with their subordinates, peers and superiors.

6. Honesty and integrity: Leaders are trustworthy, reliable and open. They are not hypocrites and their behavior matches the values they hold and speak of.

7. Leadership motivation: This is the desire to influence and lead others but not to seek power for its own sake. Leaders exercise influence over others to reach shared goals.

8. Self-confidence: They have faith in their own abilities and believe in themselves. They are persistent and continue to work toward the goal despite problems and setbacks.

9. Cognitive ability: Leaders have a high ability to integrate and interpret large amounts of information.

10. Knowledge of the business: Leaders are well informed above industry and other relevant technical matters.

Functions of a Leader

A leader has to perform many functions. The functions or the different roles that a leader has to perform depend on the type, structure and goal of the group. The functions that a general of the **army** has to perform are quite different from the functions that a political, social, or religious **leader** has to perform.

Some of the many different functions that a leader has to perform are:

1. Policy Maker: An important function of the leader of any social group is to plan out the group goals objectives and policies. He has to lay down specific policies and objectives and inspire subordinates to work towards the attainment of the goal.

2. Planner: The leader also functions as a planner. He decides the ways and means that are to be adopted to achieve the objective of the group. He draws up both long-term and short-term plans. Based on it, he prepares a step-by-step plan to achieve the group's objectives. He also plans for contingencies or unexpected events.

3. Executive: Setting goals and drawing plans is of no use until and unless they are implemented. In his executive function, the leader has to ensure that the plans are executed. The leader has to coordinate the activities of the group. As an executive, the leader does not carry out work or activities by himself but assigns it to other group members and ensures that they are implemented.

4. External Group Representative: The leader has to assume the role of representative of the group in its external relations. All incoming and outgoing communications are channeled through the leader. Members of other groups deal with the leader as a representative of the particular group. He is the official spokesperson of the group.

5. Controller of Internal Group Relationship: The leader controls the internal relations among the members of the group. All communication in the group is channeled through him. He tries to establish good relations among the group members. He encourages team spirit and tries to develop the group into a cohesive unit.

6. Controller of Reward and Punishment: The leader uses the power to give rewards and punishments to motivate, discipline and control group members. He rewards members who contribute and work towards the attainment of group goals and punishes those who obstruct the group's progress.

Rewards may be in the form of cash rewards, appreciation in public, promotion, increased status etc. Punishment may be in the form of scolding, taking away responsibility, assigned penalties etc.

7. Arbitrator and Mediator: The leader acts as an arbitrator and mediator when there are conflicts or differences in the group. He must resolve disputes in a fair and just manner. He tries to establish good inter-group relationships, reduce tensions in the group and establish harmony.

8. Exemplar: The leader serves as a role model to the members of the group. He must serve as an example for others to follow and set high standards. The leader must 'walk the talk.' He should practice the ideology, beliefs, values and norms laid down in the group.

9. Father Figure: The leader has to sometimes play the emotional role of a father figure for members of the group. He has to be a source of psychological and moral support to the followers. He guides his followers not only in work-related issues but also helps in their personal life. He sometimes acts as a punching bag for the frustration of the followers. The followers vent out their feelings on him.

10. Scapegoat: The leader is accountable for the performance of the group. Hence when the group does well the leader gets a lot of credit for it. However, when the group performs poorly or fails the leader is held responsible for it even though the leader did everything possible. Thus he has to pay the role of a scapegoat.

TRAITS OF HIGHLY EFFECTIVE LEADERS

If you want to up your leadership game, adopt these 7 qualities.

A remarkable amount of time, effort, and money has been devoted to the study of leadership. Despite all this research, there is little agreement about exactly what leadership is.

Still, people know effective leadership when they see it. And while great leaders may sometimes be born that way, there are certain traits that great leaders share in common that anyone can practice and adopt to become more effective.

What qualities are those? Well, to be a highly effective leader, you must..

... inspire action.

Try to paint a vision of the future that inspires your people to do whatever it takes to get there. The best leaders also clear away the organizational roadblocks that constrain employees' natural creativity and initiative, unleashing a tremendous amount of energy in the process.

... be optimistic

We all want to work with and for people who lift us up into the clouds instead of dragging us into the mud. Make sure to seek out the positives in your people, helping them overcome their own feelings of self-doubt and spreading optimism throughout your organization.

...have integrity.

Research shows that the top thing that employees want from their leaders is integrity. Be honest, fair, candid and forthright, and treat everyone in the same way that you yourself would want to be treated.

...Support and facilitate your team.

For people to do their very best work, they need an organizational environment that supports them by making it safe to take risks, to tell the truth, and to speak up ... without being punished or doing so. Support your employees by creating this kind of

environment, and it will facilitate their progress toward attaining your organization's goals.

... have confidence

Highly effective leaders know deep down inside that they and their team can accomplish anything they set their minds to. Failure is not an option. Tentative leaders make for tentative employees. If you're confident, your people will be too.

... communicate.

In any organization, knowledge is power, and great leaders ensure that every employee, from the very top to the very bottom of the org chart, is provided with complete and up-to-date information about the organization's goals, performance, successes and failures. To achieve this level of connection, you should also provide ample channels for two-way communication between employees and managers, actively soliciting their ideas for improvement and rewarding employees for submitting them.

... be decisive.

One of the most basic duties of any leader is to make decisions. Highly effective leaders aren't afraid to be decisive and to make tough calls quickly when circumstances require it. Once you have all the information you need to make an informed decision, then don't hesitate--make it. And once you make a decision, then stick with it unless there is a particularly compelling reason for you to change it.

No matter what type of organization or industry you're in, it's possible to become a more effective leader, inspiring your people to give their very best every day of the week. Make a point of practicing these 7 leadership traits, and you will be a highly effective leader too.

LEADERSHIP STYLES: WHAT ARE COMMON TYPES OF LEADERSHIP?

How do various leadership styles perform? How does somebody develop a style of leadership?

There are a number of leadership types that have been observed and studied, as you certainly know. Authorities and experts have several common systems for classifying these different styles.

All the classification systems of leadership below are valid and offer some guidance from which a leader can learn. Look at the several classification systems below, and consider which one best suits your needs and your situation.

"Most of the work that is accomplished is not yours; it's the work of others. The leader who can be the coach, coordinator, and cheerleader will be successful in today's business environment."

(Ed Rehkopf, Leadership on the Line)

Some authorities say leadership consists of three styles:

- **Authoritarian or autocratic** – this is the commanding style — "Do as I say, because I am the boss." This style is based on the power of the position.

Democratic or participative (sometimes called authoritative) – this is the style that includes participation and greater equality between leader and followers. This leader asks, "What do you think?" and may make some decisions by majority rule.

Laissez-faire or free reign – this style is unengaged in leadership, and simply lets people do their own thing with the leader exerting few controls.

The free reign style can be good or bad, depending on whether the followers are high performers *hot*. Good performers need free reign to perform best, but for beginners and marginal performers this style is completely ineffective.

Some authorities say leadership can be categorized into two styles:

- **Transactional** - focused on operations or the "business" of the organization. This leadership goal is to maintain the status quo. In this conception leadership rests on the unspoken agreement between leader and employee, in which the leader is "in charge," and the employee, by accepting the job, agrees to that fact.

- **Transformational** - focused on creating a new and shared vision of the future. How do we get from where we currently are to where we need to be? The status quo is no longer enough. This style seeks to transform the organization.

Situational leadership:

This classification of leadership types is based on the work of Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard and is well-respected. They believe that leaders should be able to move back and forth between four styles, based on the needs of the follower and the situation itself.

S1 - Telling or Directing; leader makes decisions and communication is primarily one-way.

S2 - Selling or Coaching; leader involves followers in offering ideas but leader still makes decisions.

S3 - Participating or Supporting; leader allows followers to have an increasing say in decisions but provides coordination and guidance.

S4 - Delegating; leader allows capable others to perform largely on their own and make their decisions.

Hersey and Blanchard say that all of these styles are appropriate and necessary under particular conditions. A good leader uses all these styles and at the correct times.

Other common leadership styles:

Several other common leadership styles have been widely studied. Two of them are: Servant leadership and bureaucratic leadership.

Servant leadership

The style called servant leadership is based on a term coined by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s. This refers to anyone (whether having a formal leadership title or not) who leads by meeting the needs of others or of his or her team. This leadership style is based on strong values and personal integrity. It's quiet, without fanfare.

Bureaucratic leadership

This type can be defined as "by the book" leadership. This leader focuses on policy and procedures and seeks to keep things fair and well-organized.

The RIGHT Leadership Style...?

Many experts believe there is no one "right" leadership type or style.

While this is partly true, if there is one default style of leadership that is most effective in today's organizational environment it is probably something resembling "participative."

The visionary style, especially when it includes democratic and participative elements, is also nearly always effective.

In the early years of an organization's development the leader may need to be somewhat more authoritative and directive (not authoritarian. See above definitions.) – providing a fair and just source of answers and boundaries. This leadership type at this juncture helps provide stability and lays the foundation for growth.

As the organization matures, followers can increasingly participate in setting goals and solving problems. A laissez-faire style, or delegating style, is more appropriate as the organization matures and followers learn and grow.

Your leadership style does not have to be based merely on your personality – you can choose a le. You can and should further develop your ability to use various leadership styles.

Create an inclusive style, a style that you can vary. Try new behaviors and techniques, depending on what the situation calls for and what fits with your personality and your values.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF LEADERSHIP STYLES

Some organizations require managers to follow certain leadership styles.

Different types of leadership styles exist in work environments. Advantages and disadvantages exist within each leadership style. The culture and goals of an organization determine which leadership style fits the firm best. Some companies offer several leadership styles within the organization, dependent upon the necessary tasks to complete and departmental needs.

LAISSEZ-FAIRE

A laissez-faire leader lacks direct supervision of employees and fails to provide regular feedback to those under his supervision. Highly experienced and trained employees requiring little supervision fall under the laissez-faire leadership style. However, not all employees possess these characteristics. This leadership style hinders the production of employees needing supervision. The laissez-faire style produces no leadership or supervision efforts from managers, which can lead to poor production, lack of control and increasing costs.

AUTOCRATIC

The autocratic leadership style allows managers to make decisions alone without the input of others. Managers possess total authority and impose their will on employees. No one challenges the decisions of autocratic leaders. Countries such as Cuba and North Korea operate under the autocratic leadership style. This leadership style benefits employees who require close supervision. Creative employees who thrive in group functions detest this leadership style.

PARTICIPATIVE

Often called the democratic leadership style, participative leadership values the input of team members and peers, but the responsibility of making the final decision rests with the participative leader. Participative leadership boosts employee morale because employees make contributions to the decision-making process. It causes them to feel as if their opinions matter. When a company needs to make changes within the organization, the participative leadership style helps employees accept changes easily because they play a role in the process. This style meets challenges when companies need to make a decision in a short period.

Transactional

Managers using the transactional leadership style receive certain tasks to perform and provide rewards or punishments to team members based on performance results. Managers and team

members set predetermined goals together, and employees agree to follow the direction and leadership of the manager to accomplish those goals. The manager possesses power to review results and train or correct employees when team members fail to meet goals. Employees receive rewards, such as bonuses, when they accomplish goals.

Transformational

The transformational leadership style depends on high levels of communication from management to meet goals. Leaders motivate employees and enhance productivity and efficiency through communication and high visibility. This style of leadership requires the involvement of management to meet goals. Leaders focus on the big picture within an organization and delegate smaller tasks to the team to accomplish goals.

M.A Degree Examination January -2022

First Semester

Social Work- Paper-III: Dynamics of Human Behaviour

Time : Three Hours

Maximum : 70 Marks

Answer any FIVE questions. All questions carry equal marks

- 1) Discuss the dynamics of understanding human behaviour.
- 2) Write an essay on intelligence.
- 3) Explain the stages of life span.
- 4) Discuss the relevance of Social Work practice across the stages of development.
- 5) What is the meaning of personality and explain the types of personality?
- 6) Explain the various factors influencing in adjustment.
- 7) Elucidate the classical conditioning theory of learning with suitable examples.
- 8) Explain in detail the various behaviour modification techniques.
- 9) What is an attitude and how are they formed?
- 10) Discuss the various types of leadership.

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