

AEX 101

Rural Sociology and Educational Psychology (2+0)

Objective

This course will enable students to acquire knowledge on basics concepts related to rural sociology and educational psychology. Students will also learn the practical applications of important sociological and psychological concepts.

Theory

UNIT I

Introduction to Sociology, Social groups, Culture and Social Values

Sociology and Rural Sociology – definitions; Society – rural and urban, characteristics, differences and relationships, important characteristics of Indian rural society; Social groups – definition, classification, role of social groups in extension; Culture – concept, cultural traits, characteristics, functions, Ethnocentrism, Acculturation, Cultural lag, Cultural diffusion, Marginal man, Ethos. Social Values – definition, values and norms, characteristics of values, functions;

UNIT II

Social Structure, Social Stratification and Migration

Structure of Rural Society – patterns of rural settlement, social institutions, social organizations, ecological entities (Region, Community, Neighbourhood, Family); Social Stratification – concept, functions, types, differences between class and caste system; Migration – concept, factors influencing migration.

UNIT III

Social Control, Social Customs

Social Control – definition; Customs – conventions, folkways, mores, rituals, taboos; Social Interaction Process – definition, basic social processes; Social Change – concept, factors influencing social change, indicators of social change; Social development :

UNIT IV

Introduction to Educational Psychology, Intelligence, Teaching-Learning Process;

Education – Psychology – Educational Psychology – Social Psychology – definitions, importance in extension; Basic principles of Human behaviour – Sensation, Attention, Cognitive, affective, psychomotor domain Perception – meaning, characteristics; Intelligence – concept, types, measurement, factors affecting intelligence; Personality – concept, types, measurement, factors influencing personality; Teaching–Learning Process – Teaching – definition, meaning, principles of teaching, steps in extension teaching; Learning – definition, meaning, principles, types of learning, learning situation.

UNIT V

Motivation, Attitude

Motivation – concept, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, techniques of motivation, importance in extension; Attitude – concept, factors influencing the development of attitudes.

Theory Schedule

1. Sociology and Rural Sociology – Definitions, nature of rural sociology,
2. Importance of rural sociology in extension education.
3. Society – rural and urban, characteristics, differences and relationship, important characteristics of Indian rural society;
- 4.. Social Groups – definitions, classification, role of social groups in extension.
5. Culture – concept, cultural traits, characteristics, functions,
- 6.. Ethnocentrism, Acculturation, Cultural lag, Cultural diffusion, Marginal man, Ethos.
7. Structure of Rural Society – patterns of rural settlement,
8. Social institutions, Social organizations and ecological entities - Region, Community, Neighbourhood, and Family.
9. Social Stratification – concept, functions, types, differences between class and caste system; Social Values – definition, values and norms, characteristics of values, functions.
- 10.
11. Migration – concept, factors influencing migration.
12. Social Control – definition;
13. Customs – conventions, folkways, mores, rituals, taboos;
14. Social Interaction Process – definition, basic social processes.
15. Social Change – concept, theories, factors and indicators of social change.
16. Social development

17. Mid semester Examination.
18. Education – Psychology – Educational Psychology –definitions, importance in extension.
19. Social Psychology – Definitions, importance in extension.
20. Basic principles of Human behaviour –
21. Cognitive, affective, psychomotor domain
22. Perception – meaning, characteristics.
23. Sensation, Attention
24. Intelligence – concept, types,
25. Intelligence - measurement, factors affecting intelligence;
26. Personality – concept, types,
27. Personality measurement- factors influencing personality
28. Teaching–Learning Process – Teaching – definition, meaning,
29. Principles of teaching, steps in extension teaching.
30. Learning – definition, meaning, principles,
31. Types of learning, learning situation.
32. Motivation – concept, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (including selfless-service), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation,
33. Techniques of motivation, importance of motivation in extension.
34. Attitude – concept, factors influencing the development of attitudes.

Suggested Readings (Textbooks, Reviews, Journals)

- Adivi Reddy, A. 2001. Extension Education, Sree Lakshmi Press, Bapatla, Andhra Pradesh.
- Chatterjee, S. 2000. Advanced Educational Psychology, Books & Allied (P) Ltd., Calcutta.
- Chauhan, S.S. 2001. Advanced Educational Psychology, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Chitambar, J.B.1997. Introductory Rural Sociology, New Age International (P) Ltd., Publishers, New Delhi.
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- Kundu, C.L and Tutoo, D.N. 2001. Educational Psychology, Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Lester Crow, D and Alice Crow. 1973. Educational Psychology, Eurasia Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Madumita Gupta. 2011. Fundamentals of Sociology, Pacific Publications, New Delhi.
- Mangal, S.K. 2000. Educational Psychology, Prakash Brothers, Ludhiana.

- Shankar Rao, C.N. 2012. Sociology – Principles of Sociology with an Introduction to Social Thought, S.Chand & Co. Ltd., New Delhi.
- Sharma, R.N. 1968. Principles of Sociology, Asia Publishing House, New Delhi.
- Supe. S.V. 2012. Text book of Extension Education, Agrotech Publishing Academy, Udaipur.
- Usha Rao. 2008. Advanced Educational Psychology, Himalaya Publishing House, New Delhi.
- Vidya Bhushan and Sachdeva, D.R. 2003. An Introduction to Sociology, Kitab Mahal, Allahabad.

Journals

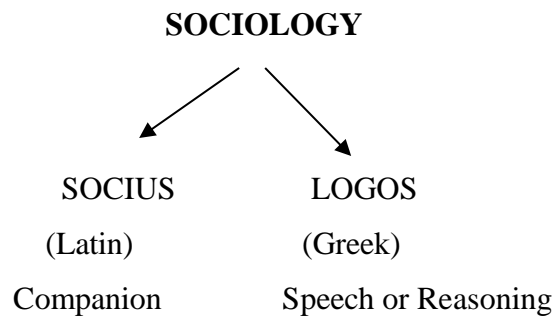
- Indian Journal of Social Research
- Journal of Rural Development
- Journal of Social Sciences
- Journal of Advances in Social Work
- Journal of Asian Social Sciences
- Journal of Social Sciences and Research
- Journal of Current Research in Social Psychology
- Journal of Rural Sociology
- Journal of Extension Education – Coimbatore

Web resources

- www.sociologyguide.com
- eu.wikipedia.org
- www.princeton.edu

1. Sociology

1.1. Introduction: The term sociology was coined by Auguste Comte (1789-1875) who is often referred as the father of sociology who named it from two words, of which one is Latin word 'socius' meaning companion and the other is Greek word 'logos' meaning speech or reasoning.



The etymological (based on the origin of the word) meaning of sociology is thus **'the science of society'**. Sociology has been referred to as systematized knowledge in the study of human social relationships. The content or subject matter of sociology is not literary writing as is assured (thought) by many people. It is a detailed and systematic study of society. There are animal societies also but sociology studies only human societies. Human beings have progressed to a large extent and therefore, sociology is used for the systematic study of the human being in **group relations**. Sociology is concerned with people and without people or human beings there cannot be sociology, it cannot be in isolation as its main emphasis is on their relationship with other persons. They stay in groups and therefore the sociologists study people organized in families, friendship groups, temples, schools, industrial plants and in other organizations. The fundamental process in any society is **interaction or social interaction**. In short sociology studies the social behavior of people, their different social groups and the intra and interrelationship of these social groups.

1.2. Definitions

- Sociology is the web or tissue of human interaction and interrelationship – Ginsburg
- Sociology is the study of human beings in their group relations. As such it studies the interaction within and between groups of people - Chitamber.

- Sociology in its broadest sense may be said to be the study of interactions arising from the association of living beings - Gillin and Gillin.

- Sociology is the science which attempts the interpretive understanding of social man - Max Weber.

The common idea underlying them all is that sociology is concerned with **human relationships**. Its subject matter is **society** rather than individual, though the individual cannot be left utterly out of account. The teaching of sociology as a separate discipline started in 1876 in the United states, in 1889 in France, in 1907 in Great Britain, after World War I in Poland and Sweden.

1.3. Rural Sociology

1.3.1. Definitions

According to F. Stuard the sociology of rural life is a study of rural population, rural social organization and the social processes operative in rural society.

According to Desai (1978), Rural Sociology is the science of rural society.

“The sociology of rural life is a study of rural population, rural social organization and the rural social processes operative in rural society.” - F. S. Chapin

Rural sociology is the study of human relationships in rural environment - Bertrand

Rural sociology is a branch of sociology. It is made up of two terms rural and sociology that is **science of rural society**. It is the study of the sociology of life in the rural environment, which systematically studies the rural communities to discover their conditions and tendencies and formulate the principles of progress as the term implies. It is limited to the study of various aspects of rural society. So, it is clear that rural sociology is related to the organized and scientific study of the life of rural people and their personal inter-relationships.

1.4. Scope of rural sociology

Each village in India lived almost an independent self sufficient social and economic existence. That was the unique agrarian socio-economic structure of India. This self sufficiency was disrupted in British period by foreign rulers. In social life the joint family systems, the caste, the village panchayat were gradually replaced by British laws (e.g) revenue, judicial, executive etc., Introduction of modern communication and transport accelerated the above process. Every aspect of village life, social, economic, political and cultural experienced a steady transformation. Thus changes made an agrarian economy into an acute crisis. The rural sociology studies the various problems concerning the rural society and rural life. The problems that fall within the scope of the study of the rural sociology are:

i. Rural social life: Rural Sociology as the name itself indicates is the scientific study of the rural social life. It studies the rural society of rural life in all its aspects. In fact this basic thing is the subject matter or scope of rural sociology.

ii. Rural social organizations: While studying the rural society, rural sociology makes a study of all the problems of various rural social organization such as Red Cross Society, Co-operative movement etc.

iii. Rural social institutions: No study of rural sociology shall be complete unless the rural social institutions like family, neighbourhood, marriage, caste, religion, economic and educational institutions are studied.

iv. Rural Social process: In rural society, different process like co-operation, competition etc, will go on. The study of rural society shall not be complete unless all these social processes are studied thoroughly and properly in a scientific manner.

v. Social control and social change in rural social setup: While studying the rural environment and complexities of the rural social set up, the factors of social control and social change have to be studied properly. They can be studied under rural sociology. The urban life influences the rural life. This in fact is very much responsible for social change. Factors of social control and social change form part of the scope of the study of rural sociology.

vi. Rural planning and reconstruction: The rural society needs reconstruction. It has to be done in a planned manner. Proper guidance is provided by the scientific study of the rural sociology is to provide guidance to the institutions that are engaged in the task of rural reconstructions and planning of rural society. Therefore the rural planning and reconstructions form a subject matter of the study of rural sociology.

vii. Religion and culture in rural society: In rural society religion plays an important role.

Cultural difference in rural society is typical. Rural sociology studies all the aspects of religion and culture in the rural social setup.

viii. Rural problems and rural community: Rural problems have to be viewed not from an isolated angle but from a comprehensive point of view. Problems of the rural community are a part of the problems of the society as a whole and they have to be viewed in this very context.

ix. Difference between rural and urban society: The study of rural society shall not be complete unless the difference that exists between rural society and the urban society is studied in a proper and scientific manner.

Thus rural sociology studies the village society, so its scope is very wide. Government agencies, scientists, welfare organizations etc. are now focusing their attention on the development of rural society. Thus, it becomes necessary for any development worker, scientist, administrator and planner to study the rural societies. Further, countries which has agriculture as main occupation

must have the well established rural sociology faculties. India has been described as a country of villages. In India, about 75 per cent of the population lives in about six million villages. After independence both the central and state governments are launching many rural development programmes and there is wider scope for rural sociology in India.

1.5. Nature of rural sociology

Rural sociology attempts at scientific study of the rural social phenomena. It cannot be a science like natural sciences, say, physics, chemistry or biology but it is certainly as science. Generally the subject which applies a scientific method is called a science. From this point of view, rural sociology is a science. According to Smith "thus the question of what is and what is not science resolves differences into the questions of whether or not the scientific method has been employed".

Scientific method is that organized systematized methodology through which the collection and classification of data are made according to the definite standards.

This scientific method consists of the followings stages: a) Selection of problem b) Formulation of hypothesis c) Observations d) Description e) Classification f) Generalization.

1.5.1. Rural sociology is a science

Having studied the science and scientific method, we now proceed to study the nature of rural sociology. Whether rural sociology is a science or not can be only when we study the methods applied by it and certain factors on its methodology, Generally it is believed that rural sociology employs the scientific method. It can be determined on the basis of the followings facts.

a. Use of scientific method

It is a uniform fact that rural sociology employs the scientific method. Almost methods of scientific study namely observation, interview schedule and questionnaire method, case history method, statistical method etc., are employed the study of rural sociology. Like other sciences, in rural sociology also generalization is formulated on the basis of accepted facts.

b. Factual study

Like other sciences rural sociology is also a factual study. It studies the social events. social relationship and process in a factual manner. It also studies and analyses the facts and the underlying general principles and theories. From this consideration also, the rural sociology is by nature, a science.

c. Discovery of cause and effect

Like other science rural sociology formulates its theories and laws on the basis of cause and effect relationship.

d. Universal law

The laws formulated by rural sociology are universal in nature because they, under normal and similar conditions, prove to be correct and produce the same results. When there is change in the circumstances there is change in the laws, which is true of other sciences as well. Thus, from this point of view, rural sociology is also a science.

e. Predications

Since the laws formulated by rural sociology are based on cause and effect relationships, it is possible to predict the results. It means that in certain conditions, the results shall be the same.

On the basis of the conditions enumerated above, it can be said that rural sociology is by nature, a science.

1.5.2. Rural sociology is not a science

There are certain objections against the scientific nature of rural sociology they are as follow:

a. Lack of objectivity

While studying the rural sociology and its problems, the investigator, continues to remain a part of the society that he is studying. Because he is a being, he has his own ideas and is also influenced by the subject matter. That is why, it is not possible to have objectivity in the study of rural sociology as in the case of natural sciences.

b. Lack of laboratory

Rural sociology is not studied in laboratories as the natural science. Because of this it is not possible to verify and test the theory and principles of rural sociology like the principles of natural science.

c. Lack of measurements

In natural sciences, there are definite and standard measurements through. which it is possible to measure and weigh different units. Grams, centimeters, meters etc., are the measurements through which the subject matter of natural science can be measured. But there are no such measurements for measuring the units of the rural sociology. Because of lack of measurements the results that are put forward by the rural sociology are some times not very dependable.

d. Lack of exactness

Rural sociology lacks exactness. It is not possible to follow its laws and principles universally as the principles of natural sciences. They lack the exactness because of which, they are not acceptable at every point. Due to this weakness, rural sociology is not regarded as science.

j. Lack of prediction

Because of the lack of objectivity and exactness, the principles that are ro. formulated by the rural sociology are not always correct. That is why on the basis f these principles and laws, predictions are not possible. In natural sciences this is not the case. They are on the basis of rules and regulations and principles, hence prediction is always possible. On account of this weakness also, rural is not given the status of science.

While discussing the nature of the rural sociology, it is to be kept in mind that there is vital difference between the subject matter of the natural science and rural sociology. As far as the exactness and the use of laboratory is concerned rural sociology is every day heading towards that and as far as the use of scientific method is concerned, rural sociology is even a science today.

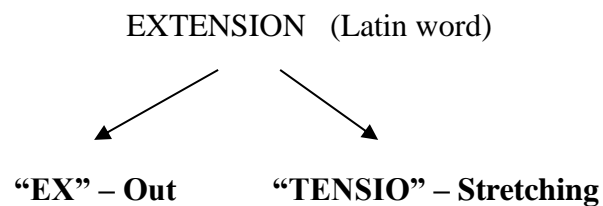
Lec 2. Importance of rural sociology in extension education

Extension education (Agricultural Extension) in the field of agriculture is concerned with agricultural education aimed at assisting people to bring about **continuous improvement** in their physical and social well being through individual and cooperative efforts. It makes available to the villagers, scientific information and also guidance in the application of such information in solving

their problems. Villagers are **educated** to change their attitudes so as to raise their standard of living .

2.1. Meaning of Extension Education:

The word Extension is derived from the **Latin** roots '**Ex**' meaning '**out**' and '**tensio**' meaning '**stretching**'. Thus the term extension education means the type of education, which is stretched out into the villages and fields beyond the limits of schools and colleges to which formal type of education is normally confined. In other words the word 'extension' used in this context signifies an **OUT OF SCHOOL** system of education. The three links in the chain of rural development are **research, teaching and extension**.



2.2. Definition: Extension education is the process of teaching rural people how to live better by learning ways that improve their farm, home and community institutions

2.3. Importance of rural sociology

Rural sociology is more important for modern India. Its importance can be evaluated in the following heads.

- i. India lives in villages and villages are the centres of Indian culture.
- ii. India is an agricultural country and the poverty of the country can be removed only when agriculture is improved.
- iii. Solution to rural problems can bring about the changes in rural reconstruction.
- iv. In the interest of decentralization of villages the community is to be studied in all aspects.

2.4. Importance of rural sociology in extension education

The basic purpose of agricultural extension is changing the behaviour farmers as desired. The inter relationship between rural sociology and extension education as given below will indicate the importance of rural sociology in extension education.

INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND EXTENSION

S. No.	Rural Sociology	Extension
1.	It is a scientific study of the laws of the structure and development of rural society	It is informal (actually non-formal) education for the rural people with a view to develop rural society on desirable lines
2	It studies the attitudes and behavior of rural people	It seeks to modify or change for the better, the attitudes and behavior of village people
3	It studies the needs and interests of rural society	It helps rural people to discover their needs and problems and builds educational programs based on these needs and wants
4	It analyses rural social relationships , or group organizations and leadership in rural areas, the social processes like cooperation, association, competition etc, among village people	It fosters (develops) and utilizes village organizations and leadership and favorable social processes, to achieve its objectives of rural development
5	It studies social situations and assembles social facts or rural society	It makes use of such social data as a basis for building up its extension programs for rural areas
6	It investigates the social, cultural, political, and religious problems of rural society	It also studies these problems with reference to their impact on extension work in villages

From the above interrelationship between the rural sociology and agricultural extension, one could understand that **rural sociology will help the extension agent to identify problems of farmers and develop an extension programme to help in solving the problems of farmers.** Thus it can be concluded that both sciences are closely related and benefited with each other by sharing the knowledge of each other.

Lec 3 - Society – rural and urban, characteristics, differences and relationship, important characteristics of Indian rural society

Definition of Society:

Society is defined as **a group of people in more or less permanent association** who are organized for their collective activities and who feel that they belong together.

Society is the **complex of organized associations and institutions** within the community

– G.D.M. cole

A society is a collection of individuals united by certain relations and modes of behaviour which mark them off from others who do not enter into these relations or who differ from them in behaviour.

– Ginsberg

Elements of a society:

- There should be social relationship
- There should be likeness
- Inter-dependence must be present
- Co-operations must be present

Characteristics of Indian Rural Society:

1. **Agriculture** is main economic activity of rural people. It is based predominantly on Agriculture. Agriculture is the main source of livelihood. The land is distributed between certain families. The distribution of land is between a big land owner and rest of the community, possession of which (land) has prestige value

2. **Caste** is **dominant** institution of village. It is peculiar type of grouping found in rural India. The village is governed to a very great extent by **traditional** caste occupations, carpenters, cobblers, smiths, washer men, agricultural laborers etc all belonging to separate castes, caste relations are important characteristics of rural life

3. The **religious and caste** composition of village largely determines its **character**. Different castes exist in village due to **social distance**. The habitation of each caste is separated from others. The habitation area has usually a distinct name e.g. Harijanawada

4. Each village is **independent**. All villages have their own organizations, authority and sanctions. Every village has **Panchayat** which is village **self government**

5. Village settlements are governed by certain **traditions**. The layout of the village, construction of houses, the dress etc is allowed according to the prescribed patterns of the culture of the area. In different areas a certain degree of diversity (differences between villages in the above aspects of the village life) in village organizations is **peculiar**

6. The rural society is **self-sufficient**. The unit of production in rural society is the **family**, which tries to produce much of its required goods. **Economic production** is the basic activity of rural aggregates (rural groups)

7. As a territorial, social, economic and religious unit, the village is a **separate** and distinct entity
8. It is common to find out a **sense of attachment** towards own settlement site. In rural society people do not have widely diversified tasks in different parts of the community
9. Village is characterized by **isolation**
10. The chief characteristic of rural life is **homogeneity**, there are not many differences among people pertaining to income, status etc.
11. The other characteristics are **less** density of population, less social mobility, less education, simplicity, traditionalism, fatalism, believing superstitions etc

Differences between rural and urban communities

Rural people are different from those living in urban areas. These differences are mainly due to the environment and its consequent impact on the lives of the people .

S. No	Parameters or Criteria	Rural	Urban
1.	Occupation	Totality of cultivators and their families	Totality of people engaged principally in manufacturing, trade, commerce, profession and non-agricultural occupation.
2	Environment	Direct relationship with nature	Predominance of man-made environment. Greater isolation from nature.
3.	Size of community	Rurality and size of community are not correlated	Urbanity and size of community is positively correlated.

4.	Heterogeneity and Homogeneity of population. (Similarity in socio-psychological and	More Homogeneity	More Heterogeneity
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	other characteristics of population like behaviour belief, language etc.)		
5.	Culture	1. Quite conservative and tradition bound	Free from conservation and tradition
		2. Guided by superstitions and age old customs. They do not accept importance of scientific functions.	Free from superstitions and customs. They are influenced by the scientific inventions which bring about changes in every day life.
6.	Social stratification (it determines the status and role of individuals, or differentiation or certain persons as superior to others)	1. Has the traditional system of stratifications.	The society is divided into different strata on the basis of economic, social, political, educational and other factors.
		2. Status is determined by birth	Status is not determined by birth. But on the economic, social, political, educational and other consideration.
		3. Stratification is more or less static. It does not change.	It changes with the changes in values. (e.g) A person who is rich now may become poor tomorrow. So the status shall change.
		4. Difference between the high and low is less.	More
7	Social mobility	1. Lack social mobility. People do not change their place, occupation, religion, political view etc.	Have a lot of social mobility

		2. Wards generally carries the occupation of parents and the social status also thus remains more or less same.	Occupation of wards is not necessary that of the parents.
		3. Occupation is determined by tradition & customs	Occupation differs according to skill
8.	Systems of interaction	1. Less contact per man	Numerous contacts
		2. Narrow area of interaction	Wide area of contact
		3. More of primary contacts	Predominance of secondary contacts
		4. Predominance of personal and relatively durable relations	Predominance of impersonal, casual and short lived relations
		5. Comparatively simple and sincere relations.	Greater complexity, superficiality and standardized formality of relations.
		6. Man is interacted as a human person	Man is interacted as a "number" and address.
9.	Social control	1. Informal because of size of community	More formal because of more laws
		2. It is the primary institutions like family & neighbourhood that	Primary institutions have social control. There are secondary institutions like economic and other

		control life and the society.	institutions that control social life.
10	Social change	The process of social change takes place at a very slow rate because of little competition	Social change is fast because there is a good deal of competition
11.	Social tolerance And family domination	1. More tolerance because	Less tolerance because
		a. People do not face the new situation	People often face new situation
		b. There is cultural uniformity	Cultural variety seen
		c. Lack of variety (Neither different castes nor religions)	Full of varieties
		2. Family is the most dominant institution	2. Apart from family other institution like economy dominates
12.	Status of women	1. Inferior to men	On par with men
		2. Role confined to house	Free to take part in out-door activities
		3. Live with serious restrictions. They do not enjoy full freedom	On par with men enjoy a good deal of freedom
13.	Neighbourhood environment	1. Have important place	Not important
		2. Rural life is based on co-operation and mutual goodwill. That is why neighbourhood is	People have fairly convenient life. People belong to different communities, castes and places and so no institutions like neighbourhood is

		important.	built.
		3. Neighbourhood generally consists of same caste and economic status. That is why a good deal of co-operation and fellow feeling is seen.	Belong to different economic status and castes so no co-operation is seen.
14.	Leaders	Based on personal characters	More impersonal leaders
15.	Solidarity	Stronger, informal	Less predominant
16.	Income	Less	More
17.	Sense of belongingness	More	Less

Lec 4 - Social Groups – definitions, classification, role of social groups in extension

Social structure is composed of **groups**. Organizations, institutions, community etc, are the forms of human associations. Society functions through different forms of human beings to fulfill needs and purposes. Man functions in society through different forms of groups. Man is born in a **social group** and his first association is with his mother. He associates with groups in some way or other. Individual nowhere lives in isolation. This tendency to unite in groups is one

of the important characteristics of human beings. **Social groups** are the units out of which society is constructed. Study of group is of primary importance in the study of society and also important as a part of the total structure of society. **Group** is a medium through which we learn **culture**. The process of socialization takes place in groups

Definitions of Group:

According to **Chitambar** a **social group** is a unit of two or more people in reciprocal (to and fro) interaction and in communication with each other.

Maclever defined **social group** as a collection of human beings who enter into distinctive social relationships with one another

According to **Sharif and Sharif**, a **social group** is a collection of two or more individuals in which there are psychological interactions and reciprocal roles based upon durable contacts, shared norms, interests, distinctive pattern of collective behavior and structural organization of leadership and followership

Terms related to group

Category: means collection of items that have at least one common characteristic that distinguishes from other items which have other characteristics in common (eg.) individuals between 15 and 20 years of age, for instance, are referred to as an age group.

Aggregation: is a collection of individuals in physical proximity of one another. (eg.) cinema audience, spectators of a football game. There may be some interaction between the individuals in an aggregation but it is generally of a temporary nature and lacks definite pattern of organisation. Interaction will be normally lacking.

Potential group: is a group made up of number of people having some characteristics common but does not possess any recognizable structure. A potential group may become a real group, if it becomes organised and comes to have union or organisation. Students form a potential group as long as they have no union but once they become organised, they form a social group.

Social group: is a collection of two or more individuals in which there are psychological interactions and reciprocal roles based upon durable contacts, shared norms and interests, distinctive patterns of collective behaviour and structural organisation of leadership and followership.

Characteristics of Social Group

- **Relationship:** Members of group are inter-related to each other. Reciprocal relations form an essential feature of a group.
- **Sense of Unity:** The members of the group are united by a sense of unity and a feeling of a sympathy.
- **We-feeling:** The members of a group help each other and defend their interests collectively.
- **Common interest:** The interests and ideas of the group are common. It is for the realisation of common interests that they meet together.
- **Similar Behaviour:** The members of a group behave in a similar way for the pursuit of common interest.
- **Group Norms:** Every group has its own rules or norms which the members are supposed to follow.

Types or classification of Social Groups:

Types	Based on
1. Primary and secondary groups	The type of relationship
2. In and out groups	Personal feelings
3. Formal and informal groups	Mode of organisation and functioning
4. Voluntary and involuntary group	Structure and type of membership
5. Horizontal and vertical group	Social class
6. Small group and large group	Size
7. Reference group	
8. Temporary and permanent	Duration
9. Homogenous and heterogeneous group	Similarity
10. Statutory and non-statutory	
11. Cohesive and in cohesive	Bondage
12. Aggressive and passive	Mode of action
13. Democratic and autocratic	Liberty

Based on the type of **relationship** groups are divided into primary and secondary groups: the details are as follows as given by **Rogers 1960**: Primary groups are **relationship** directed whereas secondary groups are **goal** oriented

Primary Group	Secondary Group
Small in size, often less than 20 to 30	Large in size

Persons	
Personal and intimate relationships among members are there	Impersonal and aloof(distant) relationships among members
Face to face association is there between the members	Less face to face contact
Permanency is there and members are together over a long period of time	Temporary in nature. Members spend relatively little time together
Members are well acquainted and have a strong sense of loyalty or 'we' feeling and a strong amount of group pressure is Present	Members are not well acquainted and anonymity prevails
Informality is most common i.e. group does not have any name, officers etc	Formality prevails i.e. group often has a name, officers and a regular meeting place
Group decisions are more traditional and non rational	Group decisions are more rational and the emphasis is on efficiency
E.g. family, friendship group, play group Etc	E.g. political groups, labour unions, trade unions, employees associations etc

Based on **mode of organization** and **functioning** groups are divided in to formal and informal groups:

Formal Group	Informal Group

These are formally organized and have prescribed structure i.e. constitution by-laws Etc	These are not formally organized and lack prescribed structure
E.g. Labour union, village council, students union etc	E.g. family, friendship group, play group Etc

Both in formal and informal groups are found ***Cliques*** which are tightly-knit groups based on common interest with very strong primary group feeling.

Based on **structure** and **type of membership** groups are divided in to voluntary, involuntary and delegate groups: *Concept of these groups given by **Dwight Sanderson***

Voluntary Group	Involuntary Group
A person becomes member of the group based on his choice	Persons become members of the group not according to their choice i.e. by birth, by residence, by location etc
E.g. friendship group, play group etc	E.g. family, neighbourhood, community etc.

Delegate group: The members of this group are representative and chosen by groups.

E.g. Gram Panchayat, U.N.O., etc.

Based on **social class** groups are divided in the horizontal and vertical groups: **P. A. Sorokin** has put forth this classification

Horizontal Group	Vertical Group
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The members of this group are alike or similar in status or position in the class system of the Society	The groups that are composed of members from different social strata (social status) and whose membership cuts vertically across the horizontal groupings in the society
E.g. caste	E.g. race, nation etc

Based on **personal feelings** the groups have been divided in and out groups. **William Graham Sumner** gave the concept of In and out group

In Group	Out Group
Persons in this group feel that they belong to that group based on their attitudes of the members towards their own social groups	Persons in this group do not feel that they belong to that group based on their Attitudes
E.g. my family, my class, my church etc.	E.g. corporate groups, etc.

Based on the size of the groups the groups are divided in to small and large groups:

Small Group	Large Group
The number of members is less than 30	The number of members is more
E.g. family, play group etc.	E.g. political group, labour union etc.

Locality Group:

This classification considers **locality** as one bond for holding groups together or it is based on the territory or locality occupied by the members. E.g. neighbourhoods, communities or villages towns etc

Reference Group:

In this group the individual feels **identified** with the group but he **may or may not** be the member of the group, the group influences individual. He shares the objectives of this group, which he accepts. The reference group provides the **standards** that guide behavior even when the standards are contrary to earlier membership groups. To understand the behavior of human beings we must know their reference groups. A reference group may be any group for E.g. Primary group, horizontal group etc. Reference group like friendship group may influence a farmer to accept or reject the adoption of an improved farming practice. **Reference group** is the group which the individual refers for advises on different aspects. An individual may have different reference groups for different purposes. In rural society the individual belongs to a comparatively small number of groups (largely primary) and his behavior is largely determined by them

Genetic and Congregate group.

F. H. Giddings classifies group into

- Genetic and
- Congregate

Genetic group is the family in which a man is born involuntarily. The **congregate group** is the voluntary group to which he joins voluntarily.

Role of social groups in extension education

Social groups play important **role** in accepting innovative ideas in **agriculture**. In any society people with like minded thought action or purpose are more prone to be grouped to gather. They share common ideas and influence each other in decision making. Role of social groups in extension education are as follows

- Contact with more farmers.
- Groups help targeting
- Improves the learning and spread of knowledge among farmers.
- Enables farmers to actively participate in programmes.
- Improves the flow of information about farmers problems.
- Provides a forum for farmers to take joint decisions / actions.
- Better access to resources.

Lec 5 - Culture – concept, cultural traits, characteristics, functions

Culture

Culture has been defined in number of ways. Some of these definitions are given below

- ❖ To **Sorokin**, culture stands for the moral, spiritual and intellectual attainments of man.
- ❖ **David Bidney** defines the culture as the self cultivation of the natural geographical environment. He says that culture is a product of agrofacts (products of cultivation), artifacts (products of industry), sociofacts (social organisation), and manifacts (language, religion, art, etc.)
- ❖ According to **Mac Iver** culture is the expression of our nature in our modes of living and our thinking, intercourse in our literature, in religion, in recreation and enjoyment.

In Sociology, the word culture is used to denote acquired behaviours, which are shared by and transmitted among the members of the society. The essential point in culture is that it is acquired by man as a member of society and persists through tradition.

Characteristics of Culture

i) Culture is an acquired quality

Culture is not innate, traits learned through socialisation habits and thoughts are called as culture. Culture is learned.

ii) Culture is social and not individual heritage of man

It is inclusive of the expectations of the members of the groups. It is a social product.

iii) Culture is idealistic

Culture embodies the ideas and norms of the group. It is a sum-total of the ideal patterns and norms of behaviour of a group.

iv) Culture is the total social heritage

Culture is linked with past. The past endures because it lives in culture. It is passed from one generation to another through tradition and customs.

v) Culture fulfils some needs

Culture fulfils those ethical and social needs of the groups which are ends in themselves.

vi) Culture is an integrated system

Culture possesses order and system. Its various parts are integrated with each other and any new element which is introduced is also integrated.

vii) Language is the chief vehicle of culture

Man lives not only in the present but also in the past and future. He is enabled to do because he possesses language which transmits to him what was learnt in the past and enables him to transmit the accumulated wisdom.

Types of Culture

1. **Material Culture:** Material culture refers to the tangible aspects of culture, those things that can be seen or touched; e.g. temples, bridges, furniture etc.
2. **Non-Material Culture:** Non material culture consists of the abstract aspects of culture, which cannot be directly seen or touched; e.g. values, folkways, ways of thinking and feeling etc.

Cultural concepts

Customs:

The sociologists have used various terms in order to classify various human acts of behavior. If these various types of human behavior are organized, they are called customs. **Maclever** defined customs as socially **accorded** (agreed) or **accredited** (given) ways of acting

Customs are the **accepted** ways in which people do things together. Customs are socially **prescribed** forms of behavior transmitted by tradition and enforced by social disapproval of its violation (not doing). Customs may also be defined as a habitual form of meeting people. Training the young, supporting the aged etc are some of the customs of society. Our acting, our dressing, our worship are controlled to a great extent by customs. We agree most of the customs of the group to which we belong. Custom is usage (habit) its essential feature is that it is a generally observed **code of conduct**. Its sanction (punishment) is **fear** of public opinion. Human behavior is not individualized. It has some definite forms. It occurs in regular fashion. Customs are thought of as being well-established and **difficult** to change. Customs are generally a group action. Unconsciously we conform to the customs of our own society. Folkway if transmitted by tradition and followed generation after generation may become **custom**

The **classification of customs** and their origin are as follows:

Folkways:

- Folkways are **expected** forms of behavior but are not rigidly enforced
- Folkways are the **customary** ways of behaving in society, in which society exerts some force for **conformity**
- Folkways are **recognized** ways of behavior in a society
- The Folkways are socially **acceptable** ways of behavior. The customary norms of society that do not imply moral **sanction** (punishment). Folkways are otherwise called as **Usages** sometimes
- The folkways are the **right** ways to do things because they are the **expected** ways. They do not have more sanctions associated with them. People who do not conform may be subject to criticism but would not be penalized

Examples of folkways are:

- Good manners
- Entering home only after removal of shoes
- Lady touching the feet of her mother-in-law
- Rajput wearing a turban
- Greeting others with folded hands

Thus folkways are accepted as **appropriate** but not insisted upon. Society cannot exercise pressure upon people to conform to regular pattern of behavior. **Folkways** help individuals in a group to order social life in a smooth and harmonious way. People who have similar needs began to satisfy these needs in a similar way in the same environment such actions give rise to **folkways**. Folkways usually arise without prior intention in the process of living. They are the results of frequent **repetition** of petty (little) actions often, by large number of people acting in the same way when faced with some needs. They arise from experience. Non-observance of folkways is not a vital matter, social sanction is relatively mild, but the disapproval is shown by lifted eyebrow expression of moderate surprise or smile

Mores:

Mores are the plural of Latin word '**More**'. The mores are the customs or patterns of behavior, which are regarded by members of social system as **vital** and **essential** to the welfare of the group. They show what is **right** for the welfare of group. Mores may be defined as those customs, which are held to be **essential** to ethical or moral values of people. Mores are the socially **acceptable** ways of behavior that do involve **moral standards** (regulations) and violation of **more**

may result in severe **social action** or **sanction**, such as ostracism (exclusion of individual or family from the village or society). Religion provides foundation for **mores** of the society

Examples of Mores:

- Inter-dining of high-caste Hindus with out-caste Hindus
- Honesty is one of the recognized mores of the society
- Saluting the National Flag
- Standing during the playing of National Anthem
- Monogamy (having one wife or husband)
- Women and children first in the event of crises

The term **more** is used for those things that are **ought to be done**. It is used for **positive** actions. Mores are insisted upon individuals. Society exerts pressure to conform the regular pattern and if not followed individual gets penalty from society. Mores are rigidly enforced.

Taboos:

Generally the term '**more**' is used for the **positive** action or things that ought to be done but the term '**taboo**' is used for the **negative** action and for the things that one **ought not to do**. Taboo means forbid. It refers to the prohibitions of the types of behavior because of some magical, supernatural (God) or religious sanction

Examples of taboo: Total abstinence (self denial) of eating beef in a Hindu village (eating beef in Hindu religion) and eating pork in Muslim religion

Rituals:

Ritual is prescribed form of behavior for **certain occasions** and certain actions are **designated** in prescribed manner. **Ritual** may be defined as a pattern of behavior or ceremony, which has become the **customary** way of dealing with **certain situations**. Generally it is discussed as an aspect of religion. Religion is found in all established form of activities. It may include prayers. Military organization and other formally organized groups have adhered to a prescribed form of behavior known as **ritualism**

Examples of rituals:

- Playing with crackers on 'Diwali'
- Celebration of Independence Day

- Celebration of Republic day

Conventions:

These are customs regulating more significant social behavior. Parents generally do not care to leave such learning to chance. Parents instruct their children the conventions though often they (parents) cannot explain why the child must conform

Examples of Conventions:

- Being polite to others
- Wearing clothes in public
- Dating or courtship (found in western countries) and engagement practices
- Using knife, spoon or fork for eating etc.

Differences between mores and taboos:

Mores	Taboos
Mores refer to positive action	Taboos refer to negative action
Mores are the customs regarded by the members of the society as vital or essential	They are the customs which are forbidden
Things ought to be done	Things ought not to be done
E.g. Monogamy, honesty etc.	E.g. eating of beef in Hindu religion etc.

Differences between mores and folkways:

Mores	Folkways

These are socially acceptable ways of behavior that involve moral standards	These are the customary ways of behaving in society
These are rigidly enforced and if not followed by a person the individual gets severe penalty from the society	Persons who do not conform may be subjected to criticism or be considered 'strange' but would not necessarily be Penalized
Patterns of behavior which are considered essential by the society	Expected form of behavior but not rigidly Enforced
If violated the group or society may be disturbed or divided	If violated will not have severe effect on Society
E.g. Monogamy, honesty etc.	E.g. Good manners, greeting others etc.

Cultural traits

A Cultural trait is the smallest unit of culture, and has been defined more specifically as a 'reportedly irreducible unit of learned behaviour pattern or material product thereof'.

- Hoebel, 1949.

Cultural complex

A cultural complex is a group of cluster of related traits. It is not always easy to distinguish from a cultural trait, and distinction often depends largely on the analytical ability of an observer. Thread ceremony in a Hindu Brahmin home is one of the example of clustering of a large number of related cultural traits to form a religious cultural complex.

Culture pattern

A culture pattern is a group of culture complexes, formed in the same way to form a culture complex. The term is also used in a more limited way so that one may refer to the cultural pattern of the rural Hindu society, in the broad sense and also the major segments of this culture in the narrower sense.

Functions of culture

Culture is important for individual and group. So one has to consider the functions of culture under two heads.

- a) for individual and
- b) for groups.

Importance to the individual

- Culture makes man a human being, regulates his conduct and prepares him for group life. It provides him a complete design of living. It teaches him what type of food he should take and in what manner; how he should behave with and influence the people and how he should co-operate or compete with others. In short, the qualities required to live in a social life are acquired by man from his culture.
- Culture provides solutions for complicated situations. Culture provides man with a set of behaviour even for complicated situations. Culture thoroughly influences him so that he does not require any external force to keep himself in conformity with social requirements. His actions become automatic (e.g.) forming a queue where there is a rush.
- Culture provides traditional integrations to certain situation (e.g.) if a cat crosses his way he postpones the journey. These traditional interpretations differ from culture to culture.

For the group

i) Culture keeps social relationships intact

Culture is important not only for man but also for the group. Had there been no culture there would have been no group life. By regulating the behaviour of people and satisfying their primary drives pertaining to hunger, shelter, and sex it has been able to maintain group life. Infact life would have been poor, nasty, brutish and short if there had been no cultural regulations. It is culture which keeps all social relations intact.

ii) Culture broadens the vision of the individual

Culture has given a new vision to the individual by providing him a set of rules for the cooperation of the individuals. It provides him the concepts of family, state, nation and class and makes possible the coordination and division of labour.

iii) Culture creates new needs

Culture creates new needs and new drives, for example, thirst for knowledge and arranges for their satisfaction. It satisfies the aesthetic, moral and religious interests of the members of the group. In this Way group owe much to culture.

Lec 6 -Ethnocentrism, Acculturation, Cultural lag, Cultural diffusion, Marginal man, Ethos.

Ethnocentrism:

Ethnocentrism refers to the **preferential** feeling we have for the way we do things in our culture. We presume that ours is the best of all cultures and the way we do things is the **right way** to do them. This is common characteristic we find among the people of all cultures. This influences the extension activities some times, which we have to understand and safeguard.

Acculturation

Acculturation is the process of social, psychological, and **cultural change** that stems from blending between cultures. The effects of acculturation can be seen at multiple levels in both the original (native) and newly adopted (host) **cultures**. Historically speaking, acculturation is a direct change of one's culture through **dominance** over another's culture through either military or political conquest. At this group level, acculturation often results in changes to culture, customs, religious practices, diet, healthcare, and other social institutions. Some of the most noticeable group level effects of acculturation often include changes in **food**, **clothing**, and **language**.

At the individual level, the process of acculturation refers to the socialization process by which foreign-born individuals adopt the values, customs, norms, attitudes, and behaviors of the dominant host culture. This process has been linked to changes in daily **behavior**, as well as numerous changes in **psychological** and physical well-being. As **enculturation** is used to describe the process of first-culture learning, **acculturation can be thought of as second-culture learning**.

Cultural Diffusion

Cultural diffusion is the processes by which the cultural traits invented or discovered in one society are spread directly or indirectly to other societies.

Exact origin of a specific cultural trait is difficult to trace, however, the diffusion of a trait can fairly be traced. In history certain societies have served as centres from which cultural traits have spread to other societies. Egypt was for many centuries a cultural centre. Subsequently Rome was a great cultural center from where Roman law spread in most countries of Europe. In Asia the Chinese Kingdom was considered from early time as the dominant culture center. Around fourteen century Western Europe became the dominant culture center. Now, the United States is exporting its culture to other countries.

Following are the influential factors to the process of diffusion.

- a) Relation and communication
- b) Need and desire for new traits
- c) Competition with old traits
- d) The respect and recognition of those who bring new traits.

Cultural diffusion may be incidental or by direction. Wherever a person migrates from one culture area to another he carried culture patterns with him. Cultural diffusion by direction is normally done either by sending missionaries or by colonization.

Cultural lag

Cultural lag means that some parts of people's culture do not change as do other traits. It means that one or more phases of culture have moved ahead and that all other phases are lagging behind.

Marginal man

Difference in culture produces a marginal man. A person who is living in two cultures is likely to occupy not the center of either but by the margins of both. He is the man who belongs to two or more cultures but is not fully accepted in any. A migrant, who has moved into a decidedly different culture area from the one in which he grew to manhood, is likely to be marginal man.

Ethos

The term “ethos” is used to signify those traits that are characteristic of or peculiar to a particular culture which may be used to differentiate one culture from another. For instance some important components of the ethos of the Indian culture are Handi-crafts and cottage industries, Emphasis on religion and tradition, including casteism, low standard of living, slow tempo of life, hospitality, love of fine arts including sculpture, painting and engraving.

Lec 7 - Structure of Rural Society – patterns of rural settlement

WHAT IS THE STRUCTURE OF RURAL SOCIETY?

There are many models or forms according to which rural society has been analyzed and described, and many different definitions. Rural society has a form - a structure - like a building. This structure consists of a physical, tangible form that can be seen and touched. This is called the physical structure. There is also an intangible form that cannot be seen and touched, and this is called the social structure. Together the physical and social structures form the structure of rural society within which the people live. These structures govern their behaviour. thinking, attitudes, values, motivations and actions. Both physical and social structures are interwoven and need to be

studied carefully to give clear comprehension and understanding of rural people and the society within which they live. With this background of understanding, implementing an effective strategy for working with the people in promoting change for their development, can be achieved.

PATTERNS OF RURAL SETTLEMENT

Patterns of settlement of rural people are of two basic and fundamental types—the grouped or clustered dwelling forms and the dispersed forms. Between the two points are varied combinations of patterns of settlement found in general all over the world. In considering these various patterns of settlements it is essential to bear in mind the following:

A. The two fundamental types of rural settlements are to be found widely diffused over the inhabited portions of the world. This has been so from antiquity and continues to the present day

B. The theory, widely accepted by some rural sociologists, that rural habitat evolved through transition from village type to isolated farm type, is still open to challenge and question. Evidence from various countries does not appear to fully substantiate such theory of transition and, in fact., seems to indicate that neither village nor isolated farm type can be conclusively considered original or following the other, subsequent in time.

C. The factors responsible for the type of rural habitat and pattern of settlement have been numerous and the type of habitat has been as a result of multiple factors and not due to the influence of a single factor.

The following patterns of settlement in different parts of the world and they are as follows

- 1. Isolated farmsteads:** Here the individual farmer lives in the midst of the farm, surrounded by his her farm land. Neighbours may be some distance away depending on the size of their respective or Located adjacent to the individual farmer's dwelling place, are the livestock, barn, farm equipment, seed, fertiliser storage, harvested produce and other such commodities. This pattern is found in some parts of South India - in the State of Kerala and the Malabar Coast.
- 2. Village:** This patten of settlement consists of dwellings of rural people concentrated together with their farm land outlying their clustered dwellings or village. The number of dwellings will vary and will indicate the size of the village. Examples of the village pattern of settlement are to be found in most of the countries of the East, where such a pattern predominates. In India this pattern exists almost all over the country.
- 3. Line villages:** Here, houses are located along a road, a waterway or artery of transportation, each with adjoining strips of farm land oblong in shape extending away from the road. Residences are thus close and easily accessible to one another and at the same time arc located on their respective farms. This pattern of settlement may be seen along canals in

Thailand, in certain parts of Canada along the St. Lawrence River, in French Canadian settlements in Maine and Louisiana in the U.S.A. and is characteristic of the French land tenure pattern. Many villages in France and Germany are also of this type.

4. **Round village or circular patterns:** In a round village houses are arranged in a circle enclosing a central area with the house and yard at the apex of a triangular plot. In this way, houses are closer together without creating a corresponding greater length in the tract of farm land. Such a pattern has been followed by some villages in Israel where irrigated land is very limited.
5. **Cross-roads and market centre settlements:** Common in various parts of the world and based on economic factors of location for supply and distribution of goods, these settlements provide needed products and commodities, such as prepared foodstuffs, refreshments, services such as petrol stations, repair shops, barber shops, etc. Market centre settlements, therefore, are predominantly inhabited by merchants who handle agriculture products, bankers, shopkeepers and others. Farmers usually do not reside in such centres unless their farm land is adjacent. Normally, these centres consist of shops that line the main road.
6. **Hamlets:** These are small villages located away from other villages or on the fringes of larger villages. Usually, they do not possess adequate supplies and service facilities that may be more available in the larger village.
7. **Other:** Other types of settlements exist to serve specific functions. For example, in India at points of religious pilgrimage or interest, a temple, a mosque or a church may be built and along with it dwelling places for those who visit and worship. Similarly, there may be historic and other places of tourist interest around which settlements have formed.

Factors significantly influencing the pattern of settlement in rural areas:

(A) Influence of Natural Conditions:

Under natural conditions three sub-factors have influence on the type of rural habitat. The first is **relief configurations or the topography of land**. Level flat land is more conducive to the village type of settlement rather than dispersed. On the other hand, mountainous areas make isolated dispersed patterns of settlement easier, for land in such areas is broken into irregular often terraced strips, and flat land suitable for village type dwelling is scarce. Dispersion of dwelling increases as mountains or hilly topography of land increases.

The second is **soil constitution**, which often imposes very difficult conditions on the pattern of settlement – depending on whether the soil is soft and marshy or dry and solid. The third sub-factor which exerts influence on the type of rural habitat is **water resources**. Habitation centres

around sources of water and the amount of water available limits the size of settlement to that able to be supported by water resources.

(B) Influence of Social Conditions:

While conclusive evidence is not available it is probable that primitive man, following his original tendencies, first lived together with his nuclear family and then expanded the group by living together with the extended family, clan and kinship groups. Thus, the pattern of living in clustered dwellings emerged, and, afterward, was followed because of ethnic tradition. In addition, living in clustered villages provides **defence and mutual protection**. Finally, in an **agrarian regime** under the feudal or landlord system, the landlord located his tenants and serfs in such pattern as was convenient to him. In some cases, village settlements were advantageous for control and in others it was better for dwellings to be dispersed.

(C) Influence of Agricultural Economy:

The various stages of agricultural development have exerted influence on the pattern of rural settlement. In the nomadic stage of cultivation 'slash and burn' agriculture was followed with movement from one area to another. Dwellings of necessity were light and impermanent. In the **stage of periodic redistribution** of land, dwellings were accordingly impermanent in pattern and structure, for the farmer easily could be dispossessed of his land and home and moved elsewhere. The **stage of fixed possession** brought more permanence both in pattern and type of rural habitat; there was greater stability in location of residence in both village or isolated dispersed type of settlement. Now, in the **stage of specialised culture**, the trend is away from village type of rural habitat to the isolated dispersed type.

Lec 8 - Social institutions, Social organizations and ecological entities - Region, Community and Neighbourhood

Social institutions are created by man from social relationships in society to meet basic needs such as stability, law and order and clearly defined roles of authority and decision making. These are organised systems of behaviour to meet basic needs of society.

Horton (1964) defined institution as an organised system of social relationships which embodies certain common values and procedures and meets certain basic needs of society. According to Landis, "social institutions are formal cultural structures devised to meet basic social needs."

Major Institutions in Rural Society

Generally, five basic institutions are recognised in rural society: the family, religion, the economic, government and education.

The family

It is the most multifunctional of all institutions in society, and is a system of organised relationships involving workable and dependable ways of meeting basic social needs. Family commonly fulfils the following tasks in society:

- Sex regulation
- Reproduction and perpetuation of the family and human race,
- Socialisation'
- Provision of economic maintenance and livelihood in many cultures
- Provision of love, affection and security to individuals and
- Provision of class status to the individual of the family into he has been born

Within the basic institution of the family are secondary institutions such as engagement, marriage, courtship and relationships with the family into which marriage has taken place.

Classification of family

Family is the most universal group. Family is classified based on structure (patriarchal or matriarchal) and residence.

1. Patriarchal family

It is the family where male is the head of family inclusive of powers. He is the owner and administrator of the family property and right. To him all persons living in the family are subordinated.

2. Matriarchal family

The authority vests in the woman head of the family. The male is subordinated to her. She is the owner of property and rules over family. This type of family is said to prevail among the primitive people, who led a wandering or hunting life.

3. Based on residence the family is classified as

Matrilocal family: In this type of family husband goes to live in the house of his wife.

Patrilocal family: Wife goes and lives in the house of her husband.

4. Based on the marriage the family is classified as:

- i. **Monogamous family:** In which man marries one woman only at one time.
- ii. **Polygamous family:** In this kind of family one man marries many women at one time.
- iii. **Polyandrous family:** In. this kind of family one man marries many women and lives with all of them or each of them alternatively.

5. The family is also classified based on ancestry as follows:

- ii. **Matrilineal family:** Here woman is believed to be the ancestor of the family.
- iii. **Patrilineal family:** Here the ancestry continues through the father.

Religion

Religion provides a foundation for mores in society. The function of religion is to provide means where man can face the crisis with strength and fortitude. Most religions of the world have the following elements:

- I. A set of beliefs regarding the ultimate power in the universe
- II. A set of beliefs regarding the ideal and proper pattern of behaviour
- III. A set of ceremonial ways of expressing these beliefs

Government

It is also referred as the political institution. It administers the regulatory functions of law and order and maintains security in society. Within this major institution are secondary institutions such as military systems, political forces, legal systems, and diplomatic relations with other countries.

Economy and Maintenance

Such institutions provide basic physical subsistence for society and meet basic needs for food, shelter, clothing and other necessities. Included are the economic institutions of production – agriculture, industry, and the distribution, exchange and consumption of commodities, goods and services necessary for human survival. Secondary institutions included within the major economic institutions are credit and banking systems, advertising, cooperatives etc.

Education

Educational institutions are those institutions which seek to socialise individuals in society or introduce them in formal ways into their social and cultural world. Every new generation must

be prepared and trained to play a role in society. This process referred as the process of socialisation, commences informally at home and then formally in the institution of education.

Functions and the structural elements associated with major institutions in the society

Function	Institution	Major roles	Physical traits	Symbolic traits
Bearing and rearing children	Family	Father mother child	House furnishings	Ring wedding will
Providing food, clothing and shelter	economic	Employer employee consumer producer	Factory office store	Merit award emblem trade- mark
Enforcing laws, rules and standards	Political	Ruler Subject	Public building Public works	Flag Codes charter
promoting cooperative attitudes, faith, hope, charity	religious	Pastor Member	Cathedral Temple	Cross Altar Bible
Socializing persons into basic values and practices of society	education	Teacher student	School College Books	Diploma Degrees

Social Organisation

Social organisations are classes of human relationship structures wherein people purposefully associated in systematically arranged units to promote and achieve some common purposes or interests that are not specifically expressed in the institution. In organisation each member has a formal status and role.

It may be defined as a group with special concern and interests that have developed a structure involving specific roles for various members, and that have a more or less formal set of rules and regulations for operation.

An organisation differs from an institution by its focus on a narrowly limited purpose. It is a group of people organised to pursue specific objectives. An organisation may operate within an institution e.g. Alumni Association of a College. Rural Youth Club.

Essential Characteristics of organisations

1. Clearly defined Limits
2. Formal membership, status and Role
3. Self contained Administrative structure
4. Operative principles, procedures and goals
5. Provision for control, authority and decision making
6. An outlet for Individual interest
7. A Channel for purposeful action

Types of Organisations

Organisations may be classified in many ways:

1. On the basis of political structure within which they are created:

a). **Prescribed organizations:** exist in totalitarian societies and are partially or wholly government established and controlled with membership usually compulsory.

b). **Voluntary organizations:** exist in non-totalitarian societies and arise as spontaneous expressions of the interests of people in society.

2. On the basis of motives of participation

Individuals expect organisations either to provide them personal satisfaction and pleasure or to enable them to be service of others. Thus, organisation may be classified into those provide personal pleasure and satisfaction (such as recreational clubs) and service and civic clubs.

3. On the basis of admission to membership

Three categories may be identified.

a). **Inclusive-open** to anyone who is interested in the purpose of organisation and meets its requirements, e.g. recreational clubs.

b). **Restricted-open** to those persons who possess predetermined classification e.g. an association of agricultural graduates.

c). **Exclusive**-where admission is limited through selection by members of the organisation e.g. Rotary International when membership is at the discretion of members of the club within its constitutional provision.

4. On the basis of organisational operations.

Select: where secrecy is maintained regarding goals and membership.

Open: Open organisations are generally of public knowledge.

Role of Social Organization in Agricultural Extension

In rural areas of developing countries the number of, and membership in organizations is increasing, fulfilling the rapidly expanding interests of individuals. Organizations influence the behaviour of rural people which varies in many ways depending on membership or the life of organization itself. They perform the following important functions:

1. An outlet for individual interests: An organisation enables a group of persons sharing a common interest in society to associate with one another, working together toward realisation of their interest.

2. A channel for purposeful action: Unfulfilling its goal, an organisation may influence social decision and effect or stimulate social change.e.g. A farmer's organisation may be instrumental for pushing about land reform and other such measures to benefit rural people.

3. As a testing ground for new programmes: Because of their modest size and flexibility, organization can test new programmes and projects for possible advantages.

Ecological entities

Ecological entity

- A place or group which is ecologically known for its existence something.
- When these place or group naturally designed and built without plan, then it is called natural unplanned ecological entity.
- They generally have definite boundaries

In rural sociology, we are generally referring three ecological entities. They are

- Region
- Community

- Neighborhood

Region

- an area within which historical and environmental factors have combined to create a relatively homogeneous social structure and a consciousness of individuality" (Bertrand, 1958)
- Generally it is defined as an area of sufficiently homogeneous physical features to distinguish it from another region

Features of region

- Homogeneity of physical environment as well as cultural and economic uniformity
- Uniqueness and distinctiveness of which people are aware and which distinguishes it from other regions
- The presence of indistinct boundaries which constitute the overlapping of two or more distinct core-centred regions
- Presence within it of a distinctive core

Classification of region

a). Based on the number of indices used in delineation

- Natural regions
- Cultural region
- Agricultural region
- Service region

b). Based on the relationship

- Subordinate relationship-minor regions
- Superordinate relationship-major regions

c). Political boundaries

Community

"Community" refers to groups of mutually dependent people, living in a more or less compact continuous geographical area, having a sense of belonging and sharing common values, norms, and some common interests, and acting collectively in an organized manner to satisfy their chief needs through a common set of organization and institutions (J.B. Chitambar).

Components of a community

- Some common interest.
- Common set of organizations and institutions.
- Common social values, norms, and other aspects of culture.
- A sense of belonging or identification.
- A continuous geographical area.
- A group of people

Features of community

- A community may grow or may decline
- Communities change with changing social conditions
- Interaction and the feeling of belonging
- It is not static but operates in accordance with prescribed laws, rules, and procedures.
- A community may be rural or urban

Neighbourhood

Neighbourhoods have been described as "limited geographic areas in which the individuals and families are known to each and carry on intimate associations together" (Anderson, 1964).

The neighbourhood is smaller than the community; a community is often composed of several neighbourhoods. The community is self sufficient while the neighbourhood is not.

Features of neighbourhood

1. Presence of some service or supply agency, organization or institution.
2. Frequent participation in common activities such as visiting, inter-dining, borrowing and exchanging and other forms of mutual aid,
3. Frequent face-to-face contacts and intimate association with one another.
4. Limited geographical area,
5. A locality group of people,
6. We can easily demarcate the boundaries of the neighbourhood than any other natural unplanned ecological entity
7. They have more homogeneity than others due to the interpersonal relationship
8. The members have more personal relationship than that of the community

Lec 9 - Social Stratification – concept, functions, types, differences between class and caste system

If we look around us, we find that society is heterogeneous in nature. Here are the rich, there the poor; here are the industrialists, there are peasantry; here are the rulers, there the sweepers. Everywhere society is divided into classes, economic, social, political and religious. Social stratification means **division of society into different classes**.

Murray, “Social stratification is the horizontal division of society into higher and lower social units.”

Gisbert, “Social stratification is the division of society into permanent groups or categories linked with each other by the relationship of superiority and subordination.”

Social stratification thus divides society into various sections. Some individuals are ranked higher than others on the basis of opportunities and privileges which they enjoy. It may therefore be seen that inequality of status is the distinguishing feature of social stratification. Thus we may define social stratification as division of society into classes on the basis of status.

Status is very important element in the concept of social stratification. It involves some special combination of social privileges. Therefore privileges determine the standard of living and the way of life of the members of each class. The upper class is thus accorded a high status.

Maciver, “status is the social position that determines for its possessor, apart from his personal attributes or social service, a degree of respect, prestige and influences.”

Functions of Stratification

A means of accomplishing jobs in society:

In society social stratification contributes as an essential mean to get some of its jobs by distributing different amounts of prestige and privilege to various strata. An university is an example of stratification with clearly defined strata, each marked with visible symbols denoting status, specific roles and role expectations, norms and prescribed standards of behaviour and interrelationships – all clearly organised to do a job. The society gives rewards to serve as incentives to get the various jobs accomplished. These rewards are economic, aesthetic, materialistic and psychological.

Regulation and control of individual and group relationships:

Stratification regulates and control human relationships in society by defining the roles and roles expectations. Whatever an individual's position, whether high or low, social stratification regulates his participation in certain areas of social life. Social stratification tends to regulate participation of groups and individuals in the total life of society, giving them access to certain areas and restricting them to others.

Contribution to social integration and structure:

Stratification in society has a strong integrative function, serving to co-ordinate and harmonise units within social structure because in stratified society members are dependent one another.

Simplification:

Stratification of society categorises people into different strata. Every status has its particular role. Thus role expectations simplify man's world in respect to his relations with other people.

Bases for stratification

In the system of stratification differential position or status of members are found in all societies all over the world from the most primitive to the most modern. Members differ in the roles and status ascribed to them by society. There are two different sources from which stratification in society has developed either ethnic, or social.

Ethnic stratification occurs in society in which two ethnic or racial groups exist and one dominates the other over a long period of time.

Social basis for stratification in society involves the growth of a system of ranked strata within society. The social factors that give status to individuals or groups are criteria socially determined, based on the value system and social values of society. The presences of the factors which are considered of social worth contribute to one's prestige and high status varies from society to society. In some societies, occupation, income and wealth, education are considered; in other societies, ownership of landed property, ancestry and family name may be most important; in still others education, caste, creed and power or influence with authorities may rank high as social values. The universal criteria for determinants of status are wealth, ancestry, functional utility of the individual, religion, biological characteristics.

Forms of social stratification

All over the world there is existence of similarities and differences in various systems of stratification in all societies. The differences in societies are somewhere rigid and somewhere flexible. In some systems different strata are easily identifiable, while in others the boundaries are hard to locate. Considering the various societies that have existed and do exist in the world, certain recurrent forms of social stratification generally can be identified.

Slavery: The term slave is used to denote "a man whom law and custom regard as the property of another". In slavery every slave has his master to whom he is subjected. The master's power over the slave is unlimited. Slaves are in lower condition and have no political rights. The basis of slavery is economic.

Estates: The feudal estates of medieval period have been the basis of social stratification. The feudal estates were legally defined. They represented a broad division of labour having definite functions to perform. The feudal estates were also political groups.

Caste: Caste system is peculiar to India. In the first place caste is connected with economic differentiation. It is more apparent when we consider the four traditional *varnas* where there is a clear specification of occupations. In India Caste is also occupational group.

Social Class: A social class system is based on economic considerations. It represents the group of industrial societies. Thus the industrial society is divided into upper class, middle class and lower class.

Difference between class and caste system

Caste is a social category whose members are assigned a permanent status with in given social hierarchy and whose contacts are restricted accordingly. It is the most rigid and clearly graded type of social stratification and has been often referred to as the extreme form of closed class system. An individual is born into the caste of his parents can rise no further, with few exceptions he cannot fall to a lower caste, but if he violates taboos and other mores of his caste, he may be expelled from his caste group. Personal qualities or ability have no part whatever in determining the caste of an individual, with lineage being the only criterion. The following are the characteristics of rigid caste system.

- Membership in the caste is hereditary and unchangeable for life.
- Marriages must be made with in the caste line.
- There is a caste name and each caste has its particular customs.
- Contacts with other castes or sub castes in all aspect of life are strictly regulated and limited by mores.
- The hierarchy of caste is well understood and strictly enforced according to its local variations.

Class

Social classes are defined as abstract categories of persons arranged in levels according to social status they possess. There are no firm lines separating one category from the other. Classes are loosely organized groupings, whose members behave towards each other as social equals.

The classes may be based on power, prestige, wealth or a combination of these and other factors.

1. Defined classes are culturally defined groups recognized as such by society e.g. tribal and non-tribal classes

2. Economic classes are groups engaged in different economic activities or standing in different relationships to the means of production in a society e.g. business, service farmer and other classes.

3. Political classes are groups formed on the basis of political power e.g. Congress, BJP, and BSD.

4. Self identified classes are conceived in terms of the identification of their members e.g. Rotary Club, Lions club etc.

Differences

The fundamental points of difference between class and caste are the following:

Open vs. Closed

Class is more open than caste. A man can change his class and status by his enterprise and initiatives but in case of caste system it is impossible to change one's caste status. Once a man is born in a caste he remains in it for his life-time and makes his children suffer the same status. A caste is thus closed class. The individual's status is determined by the caste status of his parents, so that what an individual does has little bearing upon his status. On the other hand the membership of a class does not depend upon heredity basis; it rather depends on the worldly achievements of an individual. Thus class system is an open and flexible system while caste system is a closed and rigid system.

Divine vs. Secular

The caste system is believed to have been divinely obtained. In the Bhagavadagita the Creator is said to have apportioned the duties and functions of the four castes. An individual must do duty proper to his caste. Caste system in India would not have survived for so many centuries if the religious system has not made it sacred and inviolable. On the contrary, there is nothing sacred or of divine origin in the class stratification of society. Classes are secular in origin. They are not founded on religious dogmas.

Endogamous

The choice of mates in caste system is generally endogamous. Members have to marry within their own castes. A member marrying outside his caste is treated as outcaste. No such restrictions exist in class system. A wealthy man may marry a poor girl without being outcaste. An educated girl may marry an uneducated partner without being thrown out from the class of teachers.

Class consciousness

The feeling of class consciousness is necessary to constitute a class but there is no need for any subjective consciousness in the members of caste.

Prestige

The relative prestige of the different castes is well established but in class system there is no rigidly fixed order of prestige.

Lec 10 - Social Values – definition, values and norms, characteristics of values, functions

Definitions:

Values are relative importance or preferences we give to any object, idea or content of experience etc. **Value** is defined as anything desired or chosen by someone.

Social values are relatively enduring (lasting or permanent) awareness plus emotion regarding an object, idea or person – **Green** 1964.

Social values are abstract and often unconscious assumptions of what is right and important **Young** – 1959.

Values and Norms

Norms are closely associated with values but are clearly differentiated from them (values). **Values** are the attitudes, held by the individuals, groups or society as a whole, as to whether material or non-material objects are good, bad, desirable or undesirable. *The **rules** that govern action directed towards achieving values are called **norms**.* **Norms** are the accepted and approved forms of behavior that are based on and consistent with dominant **social values** in society. The values and norms go together

A set of social values will always have an accompanying set of social norms or rules that uphold and support values

E.g. of value: Religious worship and respect to god usually is considered value

E.g. of value system: Religion

Examples of norms: Observance of religious festivals and performance of rituals and worship and other relevant activities are important norms of society towards the value system of religion

Major values prevailing in rural society or Social values in Indian rural society:

- **Importance of ascribed (given by somebody) status:** Status of individual is decided by the group to which he belongs. There is an established order of hierarchy of castes in the Indian society
- **Recognition of inequality:** Caste is still a guiding factor. There are inequalities based on the concept of higher and lower castes which are manifested (brought out) in many ways
- **Patriarchal tendency:** Father is the head of family. Eldest male member of family has supreme power and tends to act autocratically
- **Status of women:** There is a tendency towards giving greater respect and recognition to women, but they are supposed to be inferior to men. As far as their sphere of work is concerned it is mostly restricted to home management
- **Greater male dominance:** Boys receive greater attention than girls. E.g. it is general attitude of parents that daughter(s) need not be highly educated
- Adherence to well regulated sex relations
- **Charity:** There is religious significance and approval for the giving of alms (something or money or food item given freely to poor). A person with a charitable disposition is respected
- **Tendency of non-violence:** Killing of animals except for the purpose of food is considered to be immoral
- **Respect for old aged and elders:** There are fixed norms which guide the behavior of individuals towards elders, superiors and old persons

- **Religious attitude:** People in rural areas are religious. Performance of rituals and ceremonies are common in the traditional way

Types of Values:

Ultimate values: Ultimate values are often referred as **dominant values**. These values express the general **views of society** towards matters such as the nature of the universe and man relation to it and to his fellowmen. These values are found most easily in **social institutions** such as **religion**, government or the family. E.g. The democratic proceedings expressed in the system of government (democracy). Ultimate values are **abstract** (not specific) and often **not** attainable

Intermediate values: These values are derived from **ultimate values** and are actually ultimate values that have been rephrased into more reasonable attainable categories. E.g. **Freedom of speech**, adult franchise (choice, religious freedom, free public education, non-discrimination, adequate housing etc.)

Specific values: The subdivisions of **intermediate** values are called specific values and are almost **unlimited** in number. Specific values must be in conformity with the total value system of which they form the **smallest unit**. E.g. To a farmer with intermediate value of adequate housing the related specific values can be a brick construction with a **flat slab roof**, wide verandah and large court and with provision to livestock housing. If public education is the intermediate value specific values can be the type of school, room and other facilities and content of courses or instructions etc.

Role of value system in Extension:

Society places different values on various items which form a part of village life e.g. villagers spend money on daughter's marriage, building a house etc. Extension worker should understand the **value system** in a village and implement his programs in such a way that the programs are not going to interfere with the value system. Extension worker should think of changing the same (values) before introducing his programs

Lec 11 - Migration – concept, factors influencing migration

Migration

Migration is the movement of people from one place to another for 'improving their standard of living, in search of jobs etc., The rate at which people move into a territory is described as the in-migration rate, in statistical terms, the number of people entering a territory for every thousand people in the total population. The rate of movement out of a territory is called the out-migration rate - the number of people leaving a territory for every thousand people in the total population. Because any territory is likely to experience both types of migration simultaneously, demographers calculate the net-migration rate as the difference between the in-migration rate and the out-migration rate. The people shift their residence or abode from their native place to another place in search of jobs and for improving their life career etc. The act of changing place of residence or abode is termed as migration. A person can become 'migrant' when he leaves territorial

jurisdictions of a state, district or even lip a village. In other words migration is related to some boundary.

What is migration?

In modern times, migration has been proved as a development fostering process. The mobility of human population all over the world has become an important component of economic development and social change.

Migration is not merely a physical movement of people from on ht place to another; it has its social, economic, cultural and other dimensions as well.

Meaning of migration

The word migration means the movements of individuals or group from one place of abode to another or from one country to another. The census studies migration solely with reference to the place of birth and the place of enumeration. A person born at the place other than the place of enumeration is treated as a migrant.

Types of migration

There are two types of migration.

- a) in migration (or) internal migration and
- b) out migration (or) international migration.

(I) In migration : If the migration of population occurs within the country then it is called as in migration or internal migration.

(ii) Out migration : If the migration occurs outside the country (i.e.) If people migrate out of their country in search of jobs etc. then it is termed as international migration (or) out migration (e.g.) People migrates from India to USA.

Causes for migration

(I) Economic causes

Economic cause is the most important factor in so far as migration is concerned. The people leave their place, district, state or even country of birth in search of having better economic opportunities. Eg. People from north east India, migrate to major cities for jobs. usually the hill people come to plains only in search of livelihood. Similarly, people go from East to West to earn money for themselves as well as for their families. It is because West is more industrialized and needs manpower of all kinds.

(ii) Geographical causes

Geographical factors considerably help in migration process. The people migrate to places where there is better climate or where minerals are found in abundance. Similarly people do not wish to live at places where the chances of flood and fires or earthquakes are quite frequent. The people wish to settle or migrate to places which are comparatively safe and climatically attractive.

(iii) Social causes

There are social factors responsible for migration as well as people leave the place or country of their origin where social barriers are very rigid and do not allow proper development. Eg. Migrants from Syria and Iraq because of religious orthodox principles. Similarly when social restrictions are rather unbearable, the people leave the society. They also migrate to remain away from family feuds and disputed family life or to end their unhappy married life. In social life, adjustment also plays a very big role. The educated and awakened raise their voice against social evils, e.g., child marriage, dowry, drinking habits, wastage of expenditure in social ceremonies. They are resisted by the old orthodox and when young ones find that they are not adjusting on those lines, they decide to migrate.

(iv) Demographic causes

Demographic factors also go a long way in deciding in favour of migration. The people from such area where density of population is more wish to migrate to areas where it is less.

(iv) Political causes

Government's Policy of discrimination towards a particular community can result in the migration of that particular community. Some belonging to that community. Some people do not tolerate dictatorship and leave their country to raise protest against the system. In some cases, the people leave their country when there is a fear of war, When the government of the day has failed to check inflation, price rise or maintain security and law and order.

(v) Religious causes

The people migrate to new places when there is religious intolerance and those in position do not allow other than their own religion to function. Similarly in some cases the people migrate to religious places where they find religion of their belief is followed.

(vi) Industrialization

Industrialization results both in local as well as outside migration. Regions which get industrialized receive many migrants who leave their native home to permanently settle down in newly rising industrial towns and cities.

Pull and Push factors of migration

People migrate for a number of reasons. These reasons may fall under these four areas: Environmental, Economic, Cultural and Socio-political. Within that, the reasons may also be 'push' or 'pull' factors.

Push Factors

Push factors are those that force the individual to move voluntarily, and in many cases, they are forced because the individual risk something if they stay. Push factors may include conflict, drought, famine, or extreme religious activity.

Poor economic activity and lack of job opportunities are also strong push factors for migration. Other strong push factors include race and discriminating cultures, political intolerance and persecution of people who question the status quo.

Pull Factors

Pull factors are those factors in the destination country that attract the individual or group to leave their home. Those factors are known as place utility, which is the desirability of a place that attracts people. Better economic opportunities, more jobs, and the promise of a better life often pull people into new locations.

Sometimes individuals have ideas and perceptions about places that are not necessarily correct, but are strong pull factors for that individual. As people grow older and retire, many look for places with warm weather, peaceful and comfortable locations to spend their retirement after a lifetime of hard work and savings. Such ideal places are pull factors too.

Very often, people consider and prefer opportunities closer to their location than similar opportunities farther away. In the same vein, people often like to move to places with better cultural, political, climatic and general terrain in closer locations than locations farther away. It is rare to find people move over very long distances to settle in places that they have little knowledge of.

Lec 12 – Social Control - Definition

Social control is the control of society over individual. Social control includes those laws by which an individual behaves in concurrence with the mores of the group. It is by the social control that every particular group and individual member outcomes tensions and conflicts. Mannheim has defined social control as,” the sum of those methods by which a society tries to influence human behaviour to maintain a given order”.

Features

- Social control is influence. The influence may be exerted through public opinion, social suggestions, religion, appeal to reason, or any other method.
- The influence is exercised by society. It means that the group is better able to exercise influence over the individual than a single individual is. The group may be the family, church, the state, the club, the school etc.

- The influence is exercised for promoting the welfare of the group as a whole. Social control is exercised for some specific end in view. The end is always the welfare of the whole.

Importance of social control

Every society has tried to control the behaviour of its members. In the earliest and primitive society social control existed as a powerful force in organizing socio-cultural behaviour. From birth to death man is surrounded by social control of which he may even be unaware. In modern times social control is mostly exercised through an appeal to reason. Today man's behaviour is controlled by showing him through education and propaganda the consequences of his action. The aim of social control is always the welfare of the society. So we can't ignore its importance in modern society.

Means of social control

The numerous means of social control, some formal others informal, have been listed by sociologists.

Informal means

Gossip, sympathy, resentment, the sense of justice, public opinion, folkways and mores are some of the informal means of social control. Informal means of social control are very powerful in primary social groups where interaction is on a permanent basis. The effectiveness of informal devices of social control is lessened in modern larger communities where contact tends to be impersonal. Among the several means of social control the important ones are folkways and mores, custom, law, fashion, religion and morality.

1. **Belief** : in religion controls the behaviour to a great extent
2. **Social suggestions**: we suggest the younger generations many ideas like giving the examples of great men, celebration of anniversaries of great people, etc.
3. **Ideologies**: The communication of ideologies like Gandhism, capitalism, communism etc by which the social behaviour of individual is controlled.
4. **Folkways** are socially acceptable ways of behaviour, the customary norms of society that do not imply moral sanctions; e.g. Good Manners.
5. **Mores** are socially acceptable ways of behaviour that do involve moral standards, violation may result in severe social action such as ostracism; e.g., inter-dining of an orthodox high caste Brahmin with an outcaste Hindu Harijan.
6. **Social Values** are attitudes held by the society; those define what society considers correct and of relative importance are referred to as social values. According to Young, "abstract and often unconscious assumption of what is right and wrong".

7. **Norms** are the accepted and approved forms of behaviour that are based on and consistent with dominant social values in society.
8. **Religion**
9. **Art and literature** : A purposeful classical dance as art and religious epics like Bible, Ramayana, Quran, etc
10. **Humour and Satire**: Cartoons, comics etc as a part of humour and satires as indirect criticism of actions harmful to help in maintaining the social values.
11. **Public opinion** : In villages people know each other even otherwise the fear of public criticism and the need of recognition by individuals makes to control his behaviour.

Formal means of social control

1. **Law**: is a body of rules by legally authorized bodies and enforced by authorized agencies like police, judiciary, etc.
2. **Education** : prepares the child for social living by removing his wrong attitudes and learning discipline, honesty and what is right or wrong
3. **Coercion (force)** : Physical coercion like imprisonment or death penalty and non violent coercion like strike, boycott or non cooperation.

Need of social control

Society is an organised body of individuals and groups, having structure and function, with a complex of form or systems of social relationships involving social roles, values and norms. The components are so organised that they are normally held together in various relationships that enable them to operate effectively towards the achievement of societal goals. But, changes in the normal routine of life create a disturbance in the balance in the functioning of the existing parts, and the customary and socially approved ways of the life no longer prevail and this situation refers as social disorganisation.

Disorganised society can only be organised by practicing social control. From birth to death man is surrounded by social control of which he may even be unaware. In modern times social control is mostly exercised through an appeal to reason. Today man's behaviour is controlled by showing him through education and propaganda the consequences of his action. The aim of social control is always the welfare of the society. So we can't ignore its need in society.

**FOR LEC 13 CUSTOMS, CONVENTIONS, FOLKWAYS, MORES, RITUALS,
TABOOS –**

REFER LECTURE - 5

Lec 14 - Social Interaction Process – definition, basic social processes

Social interaction:

It has been defined as the “dynamic interplay of forces in which contact between persons and groups results in a modification of the attitudes and behaviour of the participants”.

-Sutherland,

1961

Social interaction process refers to “repetitive forms of behaviour which are commonly found in social life”.

-Horton, P.B (1964)

Major basic social process

- Cooperation
- Accommodation
- Assimilation

- Competition
- Conflict

Cooperation:

Cooperation means working together towards common objectives or goals. The word is derived from Latin words “co” meaning together and “operate” meaning to work. Thus, where two or more individuals or groups work or to act together jointly in pursuit of a common objective, there is co-operation.

“Cooperation is the process by which the individuals or groups combine their effort in a more or less organised way for the attainment of common objective”.

Fairchild,1951

Cooperation may be brought about by several motivating factors and by situations involving such factors. That are

1.Personal gain:

Cooperative action is probably motivated largely by personal gains that would accrue through cooperative effort.

2.Common purpose:

Another motivating factor in subscribing to cooperative effort is dedication to a common purpose, perhaps the construction of a village road, a village school, a community centre, a village clinic or similar “public works”.

3.Altruistic motive:

Individuals and groups working together may be motivated by a genuine desire to help others in need.

4.Situational necessity:

During emergencies cooperative action is necessary. After a flood , and before measures for rescue and relief are implemented by non- village agencies , village people of all classes, creeds etc.

5.Achievement of goals of greater values:

Two rival factions in a village may on occasion “bury their difference” to work cooperatively to achieve a common goal of mutual value, such as the establishment of a medical centre or village protection squad.

Types of Cooperation:

Cooperation is of different types. Maclver and Page have divided cooperation into two main types namely, (i) Direct Cooperation (ii) Indirect Cooperation.

(i) Direct Cooperation: Under direct cooperation may be included all those activities in which people do like things together. For example, plying together, working together, carrying a load together or pulling the car out of mud together

(ii) Indirect Cooperation: Under indirect cooperation are included those activities in which people do unlike tasks together towards a common end. For example, when carpenters, plumbers and masons cooperate to build a house.

B)Accommodation:

Adjustment is the way of life. It can take place in two ways such as adaptation and accommodation. Adaptation refers to the process of biological adjustment. Accommodation, on the other hand, implies the process of social adjustment. “Accommodation is the achievement of adjustment between people that permits harmonious acting together in social situation.

Accommodation is “a process of developing temporary working arrangements between conflicting individuals or groups”

-Horton,

1964

Accommodation refers to “a permanent or temporary termination of rivalrous parties to function together without open hostility at least in some respects”.

-Cuber,

1968.

It is a process of getting along despite differences. The conflicting parties arrange for alternatives to conflict to bring termination of hostilities or conflicting relationship and to enable some form cooperation.

Forms of Accommodation:

- Compromise
- Conversion
- Tolerance
- Arbitration
- Truce
- Subordination and superordination
- Displacement
- Institutionalised “Safety valves for release of hostility”

Compromise:

In a compromise, each antagonist party agrees to make concessions that allow them to reach an agreement. This “give and take “ continues until all parties are satisfied. In sharp conflicts between farmers over farm field boundaries and encroachment, a compromise is frequently sought, and illustrations of compromise in labour management disputes are numerous.

Conversion:

In this form Accommodation , one of the interacting parties accepts and adopts the religious beliefs and views of others are referred to as converts.

Tolerance:

In this form of Accommodation , interacting parties agree to disagree. Each party holds its own position, but respects the fact that the other party has an opposing viewpoint. They “tolerate” each other, despite that fact that the basic issue is not eliminated. Such a form of accommodation sometimes succeeds when compromise and conversion fail.

Arbitration:

When contending parties do not settle differences among themselves , arbitration is frequently employed – the problem is submitted to a mutually agreeable third party who acts as a mediator, capable of studying the issue objectively.

Truce :

A truce is an agreement to cease rivalrous interaction for a definite or indefinite period of time. The purpose is usually to give both parties time to review the issue in the light of proposals or suggestions for settlement. Like some others, this form of accommodation is temporary ,usually giving way to a more permanent form.

Subordination and superordination:

Subordination as a form of accommodation serves to structure relationships between a victor and the conquered at the end of a conflict.

Displacement:

Displacement involves termination of one conflict by replacing it with another. For instance, the threat of war may unify parties within a country. Deliberate use of displacement as a technique is a standard strategy adopted by dictators and to some extent known in democracies.

Institutionalised “Safety valves for release of hostility”:

The structure of various societies may provide institutionalised means for release of tensions, which may serve as a form of accommodation in bringing about termination of antagonistic relationships. Community sports, wrestling and other amusements, special feast days, religious and other festivals at various times of the year are examples.

C) Assimilation:

Assimilation has been referred to as the fusing or blending process, whereby cultural differences tend to disappear and individuals and groups once dissimilar become similar.

“Assimilation implies complete merging of divergent cultural groups within a society and has been defined as a “ process of mutual diffusion through which persons and groups become culturally alike”.

-Horton , 1964.

“Assimilation is the process whereby individuals or groups once dissimilar become similar, that it become identified in the interests and outlook - **Ogburn, 1964.**

D) Competition:

Competition is the social process or form of social interaction in which two or more individuals or groups strive against each other for the possession or use of some material or non – material good.

Competition is the struggle for possession of material and or non material items that are in limited supply and has been defined as “ the process of seeking to monopolize a reward by surpassing all rivals”.

- Horton, 1964

“Competition is an impersonal, unconscious, continuous straggle between individuals and groups for satisfaction which, because of their limited supply, all may not have”.

Types of competition:

1. Absolute and relative competition:

When the goal is such that it can be achieved or secured by one competitor only at a time and he is declared the victor is Absolute competition.

Competition which is based on the degree to which a goal or objective may be achieved by competitors is Relative competition.

2. Personal and impersonal competition

The focus of attention of each competitor is on other competitors whom the individual strives to eliminate as well as on the goal is personal competition.

No personal focus on individual rivals, striving instead to reach a goal rather than to defeat an opponent is impersonal competition.

C) Conflict:

Conflict refers to the struggle in which competing parties, attempting to reach goal, strive to eliminate an opponent by making the other party ineffectual or by annihilation. Victory is at the expense of the opposing party.

Conflict has been defined as “ the process of seeking to monopolise rewards by eliminating or weakening the competitors”. **-Horton , 1964**

“Conflict is the social process in which individual or groups seek their ends by directly challenging the antagonist by violence or threat of violence”.

-J.H. Fitcher ,1964.

Types of conflict:

- Personal or individual conflict
- Corporate or Group conflict

Personal or individual conflict : This conflict refers to conflict within a group in society, involves intense personal animosities and is much more severely restricted than corporate conflict. Motives for personal conflict are based chiefly on individual goals, and a group has little if anything to gain from such conflict.

Corporate or Group conflict : Corporate conflict takes place between two societies or groups within a society. Such conflict is impersonal. Group attempt to impose their will on other groups in order to acquire commodities considered of value, such as wealth, power, prestige.

Lec 15 - Social Change – concept, theories, factors and indicators of social change.

Change is the law of nature. What is today shall be different from what it would be tomorrow. Modern world is a world of rapid change. People too much change and acquire the facility of change. The social structure is also subject to change. Over a period of fifty years the government is changed. Family, religion etc. are also changed. Our understanding of the society will not be complete unless we take into consideration the changeable nature of society, however, differences emerge and discover the direction of change. So let us see what are social change and its characters.

Definition

The word 'change' denotes a difference in anything observed over some period of time. Following are some of the definitions.

1. **Jones:** Social change is a term used to describe variations in or modifications of any aspect of social process, social patterns, social interaction or social organization.

2. **Gillin and Gillin:** Social changes are variations from the accepted modes of life; whether due to alteration in geographical conditions, in cultural equipment, composition on the population or ideologies and whether brought about by diffusion or inventions within the group.
3. **Davis & Mac Iver:** Social change is change in the relationships.

Theories of Social change

While studying the theories of social change one should know the theories regarding (i) the direction of social change and (ii) the causes of social change.

The direction of social change

Early sociologists viewed the culture of primitive people as completely static. Anthropologists now agree that primitive cultures have undergone changes although as such a slow pace as to give the impression of being stationary. In recent years the social change has proceeded at a very rapid rate. Since World War I numerous countries have passed through profound changes not only in their political institutions but in their class structure, their economic system, their modes of living, etc. Various theories have been advanced to explain the direction of social change. Each of them is described.

Theory of Deterioration:

Some thinkers have identified social change with deterioration. According to them, man originally lived in a perfect state of happiness in a golden age. Subsequently, however, deterioration began to take place with the result man has reached the degeneration. That is why the modern age is called as the age of 'Kaliyug', wherein man is false, dishonest, selfish and consequently unhappy. This concept is understandable since we observe deterioration in every walk of life today.

- i. **Cyclic Theory:** Some Sociologists believe that society has a predetermined life cycle and has birth, growth, maturity and decline. Modern society is in the last stage. It is in its old age. Then the history repeats itself. Society after passing all stages returns to the original stage where the cycle again begins. According to this present "Kaliyung" will be over and after that "satyug" will again start which is the best again in which man will be honest, truthful and perfectly happy.

- ii. **Sage Theory:** Some thinkers subscribe to the stage theory of social change. According to them, society gradually moves to an even higher state of civilization and that it advances in a linear fashion and in the direction of improvement. **August Comte** postulated three stages of social change: the theological, the metaphysical and the positive. Man has passed the first two stages. In the first stage man believed the supernatural powers controlled and designed the world. He advanced gradually from belief to metaphysical stage where man tried to explain by resorting to abstractions. On the third stages of positive stage man considers searching for ultimate causes and seeks the explanatory facts that can be empirically observed.

The causes of Social Change

It has briefed about the direction in which social change has taken place. But none of the above theories strikes the central question of causation of change. Among the causal theories change the deterministic theory is the most popular.

Deterministic theory

According to this theory there are certain forces, social or natural or both, which brings about social change. It is not reason or intellect, but the presence of certain forces and circumstances, which determines the course of social change. Summer and Keller stated that social change is automatically determined by economic factors. Conscious effort has very little effect to change, social change is essentially unconscious process. Many sociologists held the religion as the chief initiator of social change.

The theory of religious determination has been criticized by Sorokin in his Contemporary Sociological Theories. According to him change is caused by the interaction of various parts of a culture and none of them is considered as primary. It means that change is pluralistic rather than monistic in origin.

Factors of Social Change

Social Change has occurred in all societies and in all periods of time. But the rate of change differs from society. In one society the rate is rapid while in another it is slow. There are various factors which determine the rate and direction of social change. Some of the factors are:

I. Biological Factors

By biological factors we mean the factors that determine the number, composition, the selection and the hereditary quality of the successive generations. Every human element in society is always changing. If we compare ourselves with our parents, we will know that we are different from them in our make-up, ideas and in most other things. No new generations are an exact replica of the old. Each new generation is a new beginning.

The changes in population in both number and composition have effect on society. For example, in a society where the number of girls is greater than the number of male children one will find out a different system of courtship, marriage and family organization from where the case is reverse.

II. The physical factors

The surface of our planet is never at rest. There are slow geographical changes as well as occasional convulsions of nature in storm, earthquakes and floods. These changes in the physical environment sometimes bring about important changes in society. The flood in India may hasten the birth of model village in place of those which have been washed off or they may lead to the construction of dams in order to prevent future floods.

III. Technological Factors

Technology affects society greatly. A variation in technology causes a variation in some institution or custom. The introduction of machine technology as a result of the discovery of the new sources energy has made such far-reaching consequences that it is often described as a 'revolution'. Invention and discovery are significant characteristics of our age. The present age is often called the "age of power", the scientific age. For example mechanization has changed not only the economic structure of society but also led to a study devaluation of old forms of social organization and old ideologies.

a) Changes in the production technology

Our attitudes, beliefs and traditions have crumbled before technological advance. Take the familiar example of status of women in industrial age. Industrialism has destroyed the domestic system of production, brought women from the home to the factory and the office and distinguished their earnings. It has meant a new social life for women. Changes in agricultural techniques have affected the rural community. With the invention of new agricultural tools, chemicals and fertilizers agricultural production has increased and thereby the standard of living of rural people rose. Fewer people needed for agricultural labourers shifted to cities.

b) Changes in the means of communication

The changes in the means of communication have also affected the social life greatly. However, the changes in the means of communication depend upon the production technology, for example, the newspaper and automobile are industrial products that have been made possible by modern technological developments.

The primary techniques of communication are speech and gesture, which greatly influences the intimacy and understanding between people of different societies and groups. The press has influenced entertainment, education, politics, and trade. Similarly radio, telegraph, telephone, television, etc has influenced the business, public opinion, recreation and furthered the development of new modes of organization.

c) Changes in the means of Transportation

Transport is the physical consequent of space. The methods and means of transportation determine how easily man can move themselves and easily meet the people of other places or other societies to exchange goods or ideas. Modern man lives so much on wheels. If the wheels are stopped for a single day, the life of modern society would be put out of gears.

Transport has broken the barrier to cultural isolation. People who were culturally isolated may under modern means of transportation technology become a host for the entire world. The new transport modes have played significant role as the diffusion of cultural elements.

d) Derivative Social Effects

Invention influences the institution or customs. The influence does not stop there, but continues on and on. For example, the influence of cotton gin in USA was to increase cotton process more quickly with less labour. But cotton cultivation could not be increased without more labour. So additional Negroes were brought from outside and slavery grew very rapidly. The increase in slavery was the second derivative influence of the cotton gin. The increase in slavery led to the Civil war, the third derivative influence of the cotton gin.

e) Social inventions may bring social changes

Technological invention may also give rise to social inventions. Social inventions are inventions that are not materials and not a discovery in natural science. Non cooperation movement, boycott, representations, old age pensions, juvenile court, civil service, matrimonial bureau, rotary and other such clubs, are some of the examples of social inventions. So, non-material inventions are social inventions.

This social invention brings about social changes. It is quite evident.

IV. Cultural Factors

The social and cultural factors are so closely interwoven. All cultural changes involve social change. Culture is not something static. Culture gives directions to social behaviour.

Measures/ indicators of Social Change

Following are the indicators of social change

- i. **Nutrition** - Calories consumed per head, protein consumption quantity, etc.
- ii. **Clothing** - Quantity and quality of cloth used per head.
- iii. **House** - Number of houses for the population. Normally one house should be available for five members.
- iv. **Health** - Number of hospitals, beds, nurses and doctors available per 10,000 populations.
- v. **Education** - Percentage of children going to school, literacy level, women literacy level, technical education facility available at school and colleges, etc.
- vi. **Media exposure** - Number of radio sets, TV sets, cinema seats, newspaper, etc. per 10,000 populations.
- vii. **Communication** - Length of railways, black topped road, and transport number of vehicles, etc for 10000 population and number of post office and maximum distance for the population to walk to the post office.
- viii. **Energy** - Percentage of village and town with electricity, domestic consumption consumption of electricity, number of pumpsets in cultivation, etc.
- ix. **Proportion of industrial workers**
- x. **Birth and death** - Decreased trend in both the birth and death is a good indicator of rate society's development.
- xi. **Urbanization** - Proportion of population living in urban area, proportion of population living in slums, etc.

Any similar factor can be taken up to study the social changes based upon the nature of the study, its objective, availability of factors, their importance etc. The success of the researcher depends on how he selects appropriate variables, quantifies them and concludes and changes.

Lec 16 – Social development

Generally, the term ‘development’ is used and understood in terms of economic development. But it is more than purely economic and physical. It is directly related with satisfaction which may have little or nothing to do with objective statistical measures, such as GNP, GDP or per capita income.

Economic development with no concern for social development is dubbed as ‘development without human face’. ‘Social development is the process of planned institutional change to bring about better adjustment between human needs and aspirations on the one hand and social policies and programmes on the other’ (Ahuja, 1993)

Social development is about putting people at the centre of development. This means a commitment that development processes need to benefit people, particularly but not only the poor, but also a recognition that people, and the way they interact in groups and society, and the norms that facilitates such interaction, shape development processes.

It encompasses a wide range of issues—social and economic equality, universal education, health and food security, provision of housing and sanitation conditions, safeguarding environment, upliftment of weaker section of society, redistribution of wealth, moral development, etc. All these may be regarded as indicators of social development. Development cannot be understood in isolation. It is part of a more general process of social transformation. At no point in that process are we simply concerned with the attainment of economic goals or the creation of a new economic system.

The goals and priorities, and the phasing of economic development, are deeply affected by overall social transformation requirement. An important aspect of development is that it is concerned with improving the overall welfare of human beings. It includes more than just increased productivity; it includes the resulting rise in the ability of people to consume the things they need to improve their level of living.

Social development entails changes in everything at once to achieve the following:

1. Elimination of poverty.
2. High literacy.
3. Social justice—equal distribution of opportunities.
4. Improvement in social welfare amenities.
5. A safe environment.
6. Opportunity for personal growth.
7. Protection and improvement of health—security in old age.
8. Upliftment of weaker sections of the society.
9. Providing security against various contingencies of life.
10. Enrichment and access to goods and services beyond the absolute minimum to sustain life.
11. High expectation of life at birth and low fertility.
12. Increase in level of employment—low proportion of labour engaged in agriculture.

According to Ram Ahuja (1993), social development involves four things:

- (i) Assessing the needs of the people;
- (ii) Introducing some structural changes in society such as discarding some old institutions and creating some new institutions, or changing some existing institutions;
- (iii) Making institutions responsible to people; and

(iv) Associating people with decision-making.

Indices of Social Development

The Indices of Social Development focus on measuring the informal social institutions, how they compare across countries, and how these changes over time. It does this by using existing databases, around the world, and combining these to find the best possible match with our definition of social development. Through an on-going process of expert discussion, and review of existing databases, we have organised the Indices of Social Development into five groupings:

Civic activism refers to the social norms, organisations, and practices which facilitate greater citizen involvement in public policies and decisions. These include use of media, access to civic associations, and involvement in activities such as nonviolent demonstration or petition.

Clubs and associations uses data on levels of engagement in local community groups, time spent socialising in voluntary associations, and membership of developmental organisations, to identify the extent to which people are part of social networks and potentially supported by community ties.

Inter-group cohesion refers to relations of cooperation and respect between groups in a society; where this cooperation breaks down, there is the potential for conflict and acts of terror and riots.

Interpersonal safety and trust measures the level of trust and confidence between individuals that do not know each other personally, specifically with regard to the likelihood of criminal violence and other forms of trust violation, and combines this with measures of rates of violence.

Gender equality estimates the extent of discrimination against women, whether in the labour market, education, healthcare, or in the home.

Lec. 17.

Mid semester Examination

Lec 18 - Education – Psychology – Educational Psychology –definitions, importance in extension.

Education

EDUCATION:

Education is the production of desirable changes in human behavior, through gaining knowledge (Things known), attitudes (things felt) and skills (things done) either in all or one or more of them.

Types of Education

- a) **Informal Education** - Is the life long process by which every person acquires knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at home, at work, at play etc.
- b) **Non-formal Education** - Is an organised, systematic educational activity carried on outside the frame work of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, including adults and children. E.g.: adult education, vocational education, functional literacy, continuing education, extension education etc.
- c) **Formal Education** - Is highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured, education starting from primary school and reaching upto university education.

Psychology

DERIVATION

The term **psychology means the science of soul**, psyche is a Greek word meaning soul or atma: Logos means science. This term '**psyche**' then used to mean mind. In modern literature, the term psyche mostly means what the layman understands by mind.

At one time during the history of psychology, scholars felt that the main business of psychology was to study our conscious experience. Ordinarily, we are aware of what we do, be it motor or mental activity. Taking the clue from this, they defined psychology as the science of consciousness. But objections were soon raised to this developing branch of abnormal psychology which brought the study of the unconscious part of the mind within the province of psychology. As such the definition which referred only to the conscious part of the psyche could not get general acceptance. Further the term consciousness had something vague about it and people found it difficult to give explanations of this concept in quantitative term and to use scientific methods in its study. The term consciousness was to use scientific methods in its study. The term consciousness also was supposed to have a philosophical tinge. Hence, later psychology was means as the science of consciousness. As psychology claimed admission into the fellowship of sciences the natural desire to deal with objective and quantitatively measurable entities was strengthened. As a result of these ideas psychology came to be defined by some as

the science of human behaviour.

The term behaviour is used by the layman in a narrower meaning. In psychology the term „behaviour“ is used to include not only overt behaviour such as running and eating, but also activities like perceiving, remembering or learning, in fact, all these processes are activities of the human organism. It is in the light of the concept that behaviour is studied in modern psychology. The term behaviour as used in the definition also includes motives that determine and direct our behaviour. Thus, using the term behaviour in a very broad sense to cover our overt behaviour and innate experiences and the more definitely psychological activities such as thinking, reasoning etc.

DEFINITIONS

- i. Psychology is the science of human and animal behaviour .
- ii. Psychology is the positive science of human experience and behaviour.
- iii. Psychology is a field of study which seeks scientific methods to describe, understand, predict and control the behaviour of living organisms. Literally **psychology means the science of mind.**

FIELDS OF PSYCHOLOGY

General psychology: General psychology deals with the general principles of psychology like perception, feelings and emotion, personality, intelligence, remembering and forgetting, learning and motivation.

Psychological psychology: This deals with the brain, the nervous system, sensations and the structure of the sense organs. It studies about the endocrine glands and its function with the context of its contribution for human development in various aspects like maturation, physical development, intellectual development and personality development. It also studies about the structure and function of the brain.

Comparative psychology: It deals with the comparison of the behaviour of different animal species.

Individual psychology: It studies about the man as individual and the individual differences.

Industrial psychology: It is the application of psychological factors in industry. Industrial psychology is the latest development in psychology. It deals with vocational guidance and vocational selection. Its aim is to select right persons for right job. It studies about the motivational factors involving in increased output.

Child psychology: It deals with the development of the child in various aspects namely, physical development, social development, intellectual development, personality development and the development of other skills and abilities of the child.

Adolescent psychology: It deals with adults from 13 years to 21 years of age. It studies about the various developments that take place in adolescent period. The approximate age is 12 to take place in adolescent period. The approximate age is 12 to 21 for girls, who mature earlier than boys and 13 to 22 for boys.

Abnormal psychology: It deals with the abnormal person who deviates from normal.

Clinical psychology: Clinical psychology is the practical application of the psychology and psycho analysis for the treatments of mental disorders.

Social psychology: It is the study of individual in various groups. Social psychology considers the psychological interrelations of people forming families, crowds, societies and mobs and the leaders with his followers.

Educational psychology: This directly concerned with the application of the psychological principles to the problems of educating our children, the problems of the classroom teaching and learning, the school administration of discipline and conduct of the members of the educational institutions. Psychology applied in education has a vastly fruitful range in our social life. Psychological analysis of the processes of learning and attention have been of immense help to education lists. Educational psychology seeks to apply psychological discoveries to the teaching. Educational psychology investigates psychological problems in the area of education and applies the formalized methods for solving these problems.

Animal psychology: Animal psychology is concerned with the systematic study of animal behaviour particularly from a comparative point of view.

Applied psychology: This branch of psychology utilizes the principles and discoveries of psychology for practical ends.

Vocational guidance: This new branch psychology analyses the various requirements for success in a particular job and examines people by means of various test and finds out whether they are fit for a particular job.

Differential psychology: This branch deals with studies on individual difference in learning, intelligence etc. It includes within its scope problems of heredity and environment.

Para psychology: This branch is also known by „psychicresearch“. It deals with problems like extrasensory perception. Telepathy, clair voyance etc.

Experimental psychology: It constituted by the experimental studies of the various aspects of general psychology conducted under experimental conditions in the laboratory with the help of tests, tools, techniques etc., Mostly animals are used in experiments.

Social psychology: It is the study of individual in various group. Social psychology considers the psychological interrelations of people forming families, crowds, societies and mobs and the leaders with his followers.

Social psychology attempts to determine the character of social behaviour.

IMPORTANCE OF PSYCHOLOGY IN EXTENSION

In extension, we are concerned with changing behaviour in general with improvement based on certain goals and objectives. Success or failure of our extension work very much depends on how we approach people and how much we are able to influence them and affect their actions. The objectives of psychology are to describe, understand, predict and control behaviour of the people with whom we work in extension, or whom we try to educate. The study of psychology helps its readers:

- a. Gives information about the personality of village people with whom we are concerned in our extension programme.
- b. It is man/woman centered as it places emphasis on ability and attitudes of human beings.
- c. Says that a farmer or home-maker is not a clean state but he or she has with him/her certain traits so that extension workers may create suitable environment.
The extension worker simply guides the farmer/farm women/youth.
- d. Tells that first six or seven years of the child are the most important in the development of the child for his/her future career. This gives rise to the multiple factor theory why people behave as they do?
- e. Tells us that a person who behaves differently is mentally sick and needs our sympathy and treatment. This requires a change in attitudes of extension workers towards such mentally sick persons.
- f. Makes emotional experiences clear which extension worker can make use of in his approach.
- g. Gives knowledge about level of intelligence of clients with whom extension agent works.
- h. Gives knowledge about individual differences so that extension workers are able to adjust their teaching according to the differences.
- i. Give knowledge about individual differences so that extension workers can handle the individual farmers, farm women etc.,
- j. Gives knowledge about the aptitudes, inclination and interests of human beings ,so that extension workers can suggest projects to their taste.

- k. Gives knowledge about psycho analysis of the „problem man,, and how he can be handled in learning meeting or projects in the villages.
- l. Gives knowledge about sense experiences, learning and thinking which cane make extension work more effective.
- m. Analyse the causes of feeble mindness in persons and other drawbacks which help in solving such problems and also in approaching people with friendly attitude.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

MEANING

It deals with the behaviour of human beings in **educational situations**. This means that it is concerned with the study of human behaviour or the human personality – its growth, development and guidance under the social process of education.

It is a branch of general psychology which deals with various aspects of psychological factors in teaching and learning process. It describes and explains the learning experiences of an individual from birth through old age. Its subject matter is concerned with the conditions that affect learning.

Educational psychology can be regarded as an applied science in that it seeks to explain learning according to scientifically determined principles and facts concerning human behaviour. In the light of available data, educational psychologists attempt to discover.

- ☐ The extent to which the factors of heredity and environment contribute to learning.
- ☐ The nature of the learning process.
- ☐ The educational significance's of individual differences in rate and limit of learning.
- ☐ The inner change that occur during learning.
- ☐ The relation of teaching procedures to learning outcomes.
- ☐ The relative effect upon an individual, the formal learning's as compared with informal learning experiences.
- ☐ To value the scientific attitude towards education

- ☐ The psychological impact upon learners attitude in sociological conditions.

AIMS OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

According to *skinner* (1968) the general aim of educational psychology is to provide a body of organized facts and generalizations that will enable the teacher to realize increasingly both cultural and professional objectives. An analysis of the general aim reveals many specific aims. Some of the more important of these specific aims, or results, that may be expected from the study of this subject are the following:

1. To develop a conviction and realization of the extent that growth can be promoted, learning acquired, social behaviour improved and personality adjustments effected. The realization of this objective will produce an increasing appreciation of what educational psychology contributes to the teacher.
2. To assist in defining and setting up educational objectives and standards in terms of desirable behaviour (conduct, attitudes and so forth) that ought to be the goal of all teaching efforts.

To aid in developing an immortal but sympathetic attitude towards children so that their behaviour will be regarded objectively.

4. To assist in achieving a better understanding of the nature and importance of social relationships and the methods of developing in children such modes of social functioning as getting along with others, participation in group efforts and co-peration.
5. To provide a body of fact and principles that can be used in solving the problems of teaching: how the materials of instruction can best be selected and organised into a graded series of problem – projects , units or contracts: how these materials can be used intelligently as means of attaining the desired outcome: how the learning process can be so guided that the materials and methods will not obstruct learning: and how the entire process can be directed so that what is learned, functions not only here and now, but anywhere and at any time in school or outside.
6. To aid in according the teacher a better perspective for judging both the results of his own teaching and the educational practices of others. Educational psychology helps to develop a scientific, problem – solving attitude towards the problem of education.

7. To furnish the teacher with the necessary techniques for analyzing the behaviour of both his own and that of others to the end that normal adjustment may be facilitated and growth in personality effected.
8. To assist in setting up, defining and maintaining progressive teaching procedures, guidance programmes and function of organisation and administration.

SCOPE AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

- a. Educational psychology studies the limitations and qualities of individuals – physical capacity, intelligence, aptitude interests *etc.* Which play a major role in one's learning.
- b. It helps in improving teaching and learning. This branch helps in formulating training programmes for improving the skill of teachers and methods for organizing good learning situations.
- c. It helps to have better education through evolution of syllabi for different levels of education, preparation of different text books, development of examination patterns *etc.*
- d. Psychology attempts to discover the source of knowledge belief, customs and to trace the development of thinking and reasoning so as to find the kind of environmental stimulation that produces certain type of activity.
- e. It will help extension workers to find causes of prejudices, the habit of sticking to old practices and ways of doing things, the doubts and lack of confidence and factors affecting motivation.
- f. It also helps them to know the emotions and feelings of farmers, how villagers or farmers learn new practices and what type of approaches is adopted and teaching aids be used.

Lec 19 - Social Psychology – Definitions, importance in extension

Social psychology: It is the study of individual in various groups. Social psychology considers the psychological interrelations of people forming families, crowds, societies and mobs and the leaders with his followers.

Definitions

What is Social Psychology?

(adapted from Allport, 1935)

Social psychology is the study of human behaviour in its social context. It involves scientific investigation of how the...

- ❑ **thoughts** [cognitions]
- ❑ **feelings** [emotions] and
- ❑ **behaviours** [observable]

of individuals are influenced by the...

- ❑ **actual**
- ❑ **imagined** or
- ❑ **implied**

presence of others.

Lec 20 - Basic Concepts of Human Behaviour

BASIC CONCEPTS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Psychology studies about mental behaviour. All activities or behaviour can be fitted into the stimulus – response mechanism.

Stimulus – response mechanism (S.R. Mechanism)

A Stimulus is anything that arouses the organism or any of its parts to activity.

Example: light is the stimulus for eyes. Sound is the stimulus for the ear and so on.

A response is any activity that is aroused by a stimulus. Example: somebody pricks you with a pin and you lift up your arm. Here pin prick is the stimulus and lifting the arm is the response. A stimulus need not necessarily be an external one.

When you feel hungry you eat. The stimulus hunger is an internal one. Response also need not be necessarily an external one (outward behaviour). When you hear the college bell, instead of running to the class you may think how pleasant if today is a holiday, here the response thinking is internal one. All mental phenomena or behaviour is a response to some present stimulus. This S.R. Mechanism is due to the following things:

Receptors: Man lives in an environment of objects and persons. He sees the colour, hears the sound, smells the odour, tastes the food. All this knowledge of objects and persons is possible to man because he possess several sense organs. These sense organs get impression from objects and persons. These sense organs are called receptors the environment of objects and persons

influences these receptors. Receptors are sensory cells, specialized for sensitivity to environmental stimulation.

Effectors: The parts of the body by which man's actions to objects and persons are performed are called motor organs or organs of response. Any kind of movement is possible only through them. They are called effectors. Effectors are the cells of muscle and gland whose activity is behaviour.

Connectors: These connectors connect receptors and effectors. For e.g. The spinal cord is connected with receptors and unites the effectors. These nerves are called sensory nerves and also called as in carrying or off – efferent nerves.

Another set of nerves connects the spinal cord with the motor organs. These nerves are called motor nerves and also are called out going or efferent nerves. They carry the nerves impulse from the spinal cord to the effectors. There are several sensory and motor nerves in our body. These form the peripheral nerves system. They are called peripheral nervous system because they connect the central nervous system with the receptors and effectors.

Nerves and neuron

Every single nerve consists of numerous minute fibers. The nerves are not like one strong string. The unit of nerve fiber is called the „neuron“. The neuron consists of a nucleus called the „nerve cell“ and two different kinds of branches. They are called „axon“ and „dendrites“. Both the sensory and motor nerves are made up of neurons. Neurons are so arranged that the nerve communication is always received by the dendrites and passed on through the nucleus of the axon. The axon conducts the communication either to a muscle or the spinal cord or to the dendrites of the next neuron on the case may be.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF BEHAVIOUR

Sensation

Sensations are the simplest mental activities of man. A sensation is the awareness of a quality of an object that stimulates any sense organ. There are as many kinds of sensations as there are sense organs. Each sensation is important and each has particular sense organ. We have visual sensation of light and colour related to the eyes and auditory sensation of nose and tone related to the ears.

Attributes of sensation

There are some general attributes of sensations. They are found in most sensations.

Quality: One attribute is quality. Example: A visual sensation may be of one colour or of another colour, The quality of a taste sensation may be sour, sweet, bitter or acid.

Intensity: Another attribute is intensity. We distinguish bright colour from a dull colour. We have a loud sound or a mind whisper; we have strong smell or a weak smell and so on.

Duration: Duration is the third attribute, a light may appear for a moment and then disappear or it may last. A sound may come and go or it may persist.

Extensivity: Fourth attribute is extensivity. There may be a point light, the light of a tiny star in the distant sky. There may be an expansive light for example, the light reflected from a shiny surface.

Change: Change is the fundamental characteristic to all sensations. The „change“ is called as stimulation.

Latency period: Sensations have a latency period. This is the time taken by bodily tissues before they start making their normal response.

15.2.1.2. Mechanism of sensation

For a sensation to happen stimuli from the external world must come into contact with the sense organ. The list of sensation with their corresponding stimuli and organs is given below.

Sensation	Stimulus	Sense –organs
a. Tactual	Changes in the temperature or objects coming into contact with skin	The skin
b. Gustatory	Chemical substances dissolved in saline or other liquids	The tongue
c. Organic	Churning of the walls of the stomach and certain chemical changes in the back of the throat	The nose, stomach and the back of the throat
d. Olfactory	Chemical substances in gaseous form	The nose
e. Kinesthetic	Pressure on the muscle spindles and the tendons in the joints	Muscle spindles and certain tendons in the joints
f. Bodily	Disturbance in the fluid of the semi-circular canals	Semi-circular
g. Auditory	Air vibrations	The ear
h. Visual	Light radiation	The eye

This is a process of attending to a series of stimuli. From among the many stimuli which are within the range, physiologically we select only those that are related to our present needs and interest.

Objective factors of attention

The objective factor means the factor possess by the object, by which it attracts our attention. They are intensity, size, repetition, movement, change. Systematic form and novelty.

Intensity: Our attention is attracted by a louder sound than a weaker one. A bright colour attracts our attention than a lighter shade. Of two stimuli, the stronger one has an advantage over the weaker.

Size: The bigger the stimulus the better the chances of its catching our attention. Among a group of boys, the boy who is bigger in size than other will easily attract our attention.

Repetition: Some times, a stimulus even when it is not very intense or big in size may still attract our attention by being. Repeated several times. If an advertisement is given several times repeatedly easily it will catch out attention.

Movement: A moving object will easily attract our attention.

Change: If there is a sudded change either in the intensity or in size or even by way of sudden stopping then we attend of once to the change in the stimulus. For example, the ticking of clock in our room usually will not draw our attention because of its being repeated continuously. But if it suddenly stops we may at once turn and remark why the clock has stopped.

Systematic form: We easily attend to those stimuli which have a definite systematic pattern. Some melodious tune through song very softly may be picked up for attention even in midst of other louder noises. Gestalt psychologists have emphasized the importance of the systematic form.

Novelty: Anything strange or unusual whether a sight or sound or any other sensation invariable draws our attention.

Subjective factors of attention

Subjective factor means the factors possessed by an individual which facilitate his attention. They are interest, organic state, habits, inner drives etc..

Interest: It is an important subjective factor. One who is interested in gardening may be attracted by a new kind of flower or plant. He attended to it because of his own developed interests and knowledge.

Organic state: It also plays an important part. A hungry person may be attracted by anything that could be eaten in preference to other objects. Out mood also determine our attention when we are in happy mood we may notice things that are pleasant.

Affection: Motivation and inner drives also may play a great part in attracting our attention. A sleeping mother may not be disturbed by a whole lot of loud noise outside. But if her sick child raised even a faint cry, it attracts her attention

Habits: Habits also can help in the selection of stimuli. As children we are taught to attend to certain types of stimuli and neglect other and these habits of attention determine to a large extent the trend of our attention in later life.

Shifting of attention

Attention shifts from one thing to another very rapidly. We can attend to a thing continuously only for a few seconds. Continuous attention means continuity with plenty of shifting. Now and then attention will be diverted but will be immediately brought back. The eyes do not steadily gaze at anything for any length of time beyond a few seconds. Such shifts occur mostly because of the fatigue affecting the sense receptors. Shifting of attention is also referred to as fluctuation of attention.

Span of attention

Span of attention means how many letters or digits that we can see at a single glance. How many figures or letters can one notice in one act of attention? This can be determined by the use of an apparatus called the Tachistoscope. There are individual differences but usually 4 or 5 numbers or letters can be attended to at a single glance. The registration plate of a motor car contains usually only four figures. Serially numbering will go up to 9999, not 10000. This is because when a car runs fast the traffic constable will ordinarily be able to take note of 4 numbers.

Perception

Perception is the process of understanding sensations or attaching meanings based on past experience to signs.

- a. The perceptual process is a highly selective one.
- b. We perceive whole objects even when there are no corresponding sense impressions and only some isolated sensations are received.
- c. We perceive various objects as having spatial qualities (space) existing in relationships and as involving movement.
- d. We perceive various objects as having also temporal qualities existing in time and relationships.

Characteristics of perception

Perception shifts: Just like attention, perception also shifts. As we attend to one part of the stimulus we perceive that part and then as attention passes on to another part we perceive that part also.

Perception is grouping and combining response: We put several stimuli together and make a joint response to it. When we perceive the face of a friend there are several stimuli coming to us from different parts of his face, eyes, ears, nose etc. We put them all together and understand it as a totality.

Perception is an isolating response: We perceive the thing we select for our attention and do not perceive the things that are not attended to.

Figure has advantage over background in perception: There are no gaps in nature and the human mind also hates gaps. It tends to fill in gaps and perceive things as having definite form.

Perception follows the 'law of reduced cues': Applied to perception the law of reduced cues means that as we become more and more acquainted with an object, the signs by which we can perceive it become less and less till at last a fraction of the original sign is enough for us to recognize that object.

Determinants of perception

The various factors that determine our perception can be grouped as follows

The sense organs: Perception depends upon sense impressions. Perception will depend upon the number, structure and function of the available sense organs. For example, absence of certain taste buds will limit one's taste perception.

Brain function: Perception depends on the nature of the brain function. This gives us various frames of reference against which perception is made. Certain relations such as bigger and smaller, light and heavier, above and below etc. are all perceived because of the function of the brain.

Past experience: Perception also depends on one's past experience. The few light sensations that come from a ship are interpreted as a ship because of our past experience. Past experience may also influence perception in the form of creating various kinds of prejudices and assumptions regarding the object perceived.

Set or attitude: Perception also depends very much on one's set or attitude. This is the subjective condition. The individual who is starving from hunger will easily perceive the eatable objects. One's motive also determines his perception.

Errors of perception

There are several possibilities of our perception process being wrong and misleading. Such errors of perception are studied as two different phenomena *viz.*, illusions and hallucinations.

a. Illusions

An illusion is a wrong or mistaken perception. The perceptual process always involves an interpretation of the sensory experience in the light of our past experience or present attitude, our organic needs etc. In some cases this interpretation is done wrongly and so the stimulus is perceived wrongly. Such a phenomenon is called illusion. **Example:** We perceive the coils of a rope in darkness as a snake.

Psychologists have experience with a number of geo – metrical designs to understand The phenomenon of illusions.

Two of the well-known examples are

- a. Muller - Lyer illusion
- b. Horizontal - Vertical illusion.

In the Muller – Lyer illusion, there are two straight lines of equal length.

One is bounded at the two ends by pairs of short opening outwards. The others is bounded by two pairs of short lines which are reversed and give the idea of closure. Through the two lines are equal in length invariably the latter is perceived to be shorter than the former. This is an illusion.

In the horizontal- vertical illusion there are two straight lines one horizontal and other vertical. Both are of equal of length. But invariably the vertical line is perceived to be longer than the other.

Both the Muller- Lyer and Horizontal- vertical illusions are optical illusions. We do have other illusions such as auditory, tactual etc.

b. Hallucinations

We perceive a figure or an object purely because of our subjective conditions when there is no stimulus at all. Such an error in perception which has no basis in a real sensory stimulus is called hallucination. While illusion is wrong perception, hallucination is false perception.

If at night we see a ghost when there is practically no stimulus in the form of a human figure or anything resembling it would be an example of hallucination.

Lec 21 – Cognitive, Affective and Psychomotor domain

Components of behaviour

Affective component:

This component deals with feelings or emotions that are brought to the surface about something, such as fear or hate. Using our above example, someone might have the attitude that they hate teenagers because they are lazy or that they love all babies because they are cute.

Behavior that is primarily aimed at producing a desired result, like attempting to understand the needs of another party and attempting to satisfy those needs, such as the personality and salesmanship that is displayed by a sales representative that leads to the customer opening a new account.

Cognitive component:

This represents our thoughts, beliefs and ideas about something. Typically these come to light in generalities or stereotypes, such as 'all teenagers are lazy,' or 'all babies are cute.'

Factors Affecting Behaviour components

1. **Situation** [*Role*] - The current situation the person is in. e.g being in a prison vs being at an office, a pool party or walking past a house on fire. Special mention should be given to 'normal' social situations and crisis situations.
2. **Environment** [*Resources*] - Beyond just the situation, this is what resources someone has access to, e.g if you can already hear the fire fighters sirens, if it is dark and the guards aren't looking, or if there are nice windows with trees to look out at when stressed.
3. **Habits** [*Triggered/Automatic Responses*] - Habits are usually those things which you do without really thinking about anymore., doing a familiar behaviour from now on. An example might be brushing your teeth before you go to bed. At some point you had to learn the habit, but now you do the behaviour almost instinctively.
4. **History** [*Knowledge and experience*] - How/Have you been trained to deal with the situation? Have you been in a similar situation, what did you do and did it work?
5. **Perspective** [*Time, Beliefs*] - What is your Time Perspective (past positive/negative, present headonistic, deterministic, future oriented, afterlife). What is your religious and moral beliefs. Do you align yourself to an emo, punk, hippy, military or some other stereotype? This is very similar to the cultural expectations, but regarding the specific sub-group to the general culture.

6. **Culture** [*Expectations*] - What the general expectations are for a person in that situation and environment. If your sub-group hasn't specified what its stance is, then what is generally considered morally justified? Stopping CPR on the random homeless guy on the street after 4mins might be seen as fine, whilst stopping CPR after 20mins on a child who's drowned in a pool might cause outrage.
7. **Emotions** [*Mood*] - Was the person happy or sad at the time?
8. **Hormones** [*Emotional propensity*] - If you are a teenage male you are likely to have a surge in testosterone which will amplify the likelihood of aggression (assuming the situation is one that involves violence or aggression). This can be thought of as shortening the 'fuse' so to speak. Pregnant women can be particularly susceptible to stress and may become even more irritable due to lack of food than normal... Drugs can also have a similar although usually more profound but short lived effect.
9. **Pre-natal** [*How birth affected you*] - Humans are far more susceptible to conditioning during birth than most people realise. When your mother was pregnant with you, if she was heavily stressed then it can have negative consequences. If she was obese then you are more likely to be obese { A child after birth also needs the right amount of care and attention. They need to be held and touched and talked to.
10. **Genetics** [*Physical propensity*] - There is barely a 0.5% difference in genetic material between humans and we are only 4-6% genetically different from apes. Our DNA is 90% similar to cats. Given such similarity it is generally said that genetics can cause a propensity for a particular behaviour or physical attribute, but it is the environment which has the most impact.

Different circumstances will mean the resulting behaviour is influenced by the factors above in differing amounts. Whilst normally the situation and environment will be the most influential a strong enough culture and belief can over-ride that. If you want to change people's behaviour you need to work out which are the most important factors involved or which other factors can over-ride those and you can try to change or at least deal with them.

An example is the selfish-gene concept. Those humans are simply a mechanism by which genes can make a copy of themselves. Whilst this may be the default behaviour of people it is not the absolute only factor which affects our behaviour. Another important thing to note is that the concept of our 'kin' or family is very important in many cases. Who are people that we should help and be around, versus those that are against us. Our understanding of kin has grown larger over time, from immediate family to village, group (e.g religious group or work colleges) to nations and

at the present rate will soon encompass the world. Doing so helps reduce the violence within our species. We will likely need to expand kin to include other animals and should we meet friendly alien entities it may have to include even them.

Psychomotor learning

Psychomotor learning is the relationship between cognitive functions and physical movement. Psychomotor learning is demonstrated by physical skills such as movement, coordination, manipulation, dexterity, grace, strength, speed; actions which demonstrate the fine motor skills such as use of precision instruments or tools

Behavioral examples include driving a car, throwing a ball, and playing a musical instrument. In psychomotor learning research, attention is given to the learning of coordinated activity involving the arms, hands, fingers, and feet, while verbal processes are not emphasized.

Stages of psychomotor development

When you were learning psychomotor skills, individuals progress through the cognitive stages, the associative stage, and the autonomic stage. The cognitive stage is marked by awkward slow and choppy movements that the learner tries to control. The learner has to think about each movement before attempting it. In the associative stage, the learner spends less time thinking about every detail, however, the movements are still not a permanent part of the brain. In the autonomic stage, the learner can refine the skill through practice, but no longer needs to think about the movement.

How motor behaviors are recorded

When an individual learns physical movements, this leads to changes in the motor cortex. The more practiced a movement is, the stronger the neural encoding becomes. Psychomotor learning is not limited to the motor cortex, however. For example, the Perceptual System is also involved in integrating visual feedback when driving a car, or physical feedback when playing the piano.

Lec 22 & 23. Perception, Sensation and Attention– meaning, characteristics.

Refer lecture no. 20

**Lec 24 & 25 – Intelligence – Concept, Types, Measurement,
Factors affecting intelligence**

Extension personnel can increase their effectiveness by using appropriate language and teaching methods for the individual and groups with whom they work. Understanding the nature of intelligence and how it varies from one person to another and how to recognise these varying degrees of intelligence, will assist the educator in achieving good human relations to introduce the programme of change of the people.

DEFINITIONS

Psychologists have evolved many definitions of intelligence.

They are,

Intelligence may be defined as flexibility or versatility and is a function of the living organism.

-Norman-Munn

Intelligence is the ability of an individual to adjust himself to the conditions that arise in his environment. **-Brown** Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment. **- Weagsler**

Intelligence has been defined as the ability of an individual to cope with his environment. It may be thought of as a composite or organisation of abilities to learn, to grasp broad and subtle facts, especially abstract facts, with alertness and accuracy to exercise mental control and to display flexibility and ingenuity in seeking the solution of problems.

AREAS OF INTELLIGENCE (THORNDIKE)

a) **Abstract intelligence:** Persons having the ability with ideas, as in language, mathematics, science, words, numbers. Professional people are generally high in abstract ability.

b) **Mechanical ability:** Persons who understand things as in skilled trades, has much of science, manual skills. Individuals in building trades are higher in mechanical ability.

c) **Social ability:** Persons who understand individuals, mix with people, such as salesman, ministers, diplomats who have social ability.

Thus, intelligence is the product of heredity and environment. The opportunities to learn vary widely, yet the inherited capacity as modified by maturation accounts for a greater part of the individuals variability.

Thurstone identified the following primary abilities that are observed in common among individuals.

1. Perceptual ability (P)
2. Numerical ability (N)
3. Verbal (V)
4. Memory (M)
5. Reasoning ability (R)
6. Spatial ability (S)
7. Fluency in dealing with words (W)

FACTORS AFFECTING INTELLIGENCE

Psychologists pointed out that there are numerous factors which directly or indirectly affect the intelligence or ability of the individual and which make up the behaviour pattern of the individual. These factors may be of the following forms:

a) Heredity and environment

Heredity provides the physical body to be developed with certain inherent capabilities, while environment provides for the maturation and training of the organism. Extensive studies have been conducted on this problem which showed the relationship. In 1940, Newman concluded that variation in the I.Q. were determined about 68 per cent by heredity and 32 per cent by environment. This was an average statistical determination.

b) Age

A person who is bright or dull in childhood tends to remain bright or dull throughout his life. The evidence shows that a person achieves his maximum I.Q. at about 20 years and remains relatively stable until around 70 years when it rapidly decreases, if health and other factors do not interfere. Some abilities remain constant, while others decline rapidly due to declining physical efficiency.

c) Health and physical development

Physical and mental health may be related to one's ability to gain desirable achievements in mental activity. With delicate health, one may not possess enough energy to engage mental activity to the extent to achieve necessary success. Physical defects such as related or incomplete maturation of brain cells may result in subnormal intelligence. Blindness, or near blindness, and deafness and other sensory and physical handicaps will interfere with observable intelligence behaviour. Conditions such

as glandular imbalance, enlarged adenoids and diseased tonsils also affect intelligence. An emotional block may interfere with one's ability to give evidence on intelligence which one actually possess.

Although unfavorable health conditions may seem to affect mental status, actual mental ability is not reflected in any appreciable degree in remediable health handicaps. In those cases in which the physical or mental health handicaps can be removed or mitigated, a decided improvement in intellectual behaviour can be observed.

d) Sex

The administration of tools of intelligence to the same group of boys and girls appears to yield the following general results.

- (1) The rate of physical growth is more in girls who seem to surpass boys during the childhood and early adolescent years.
- (2) During early childhood, there is no difference in mental ability between the sexes.
- (3) During later adolescence boys may show slight superiority over girls, but the difference is negligible especially since there are wide divergences among the members of both sexes.
- (4) Analysis of performance on scientific items of intelligence tests appear to show that there is a slight superiority of boys in questions that involve mathematical material and scientific concepts, and that girls excel in material that deal more directly with the humanities (Crow & Crow). It appears that children become interested and learn what the culture dictates, a boy and girl should know.

e) Race

There is no convincing evidence to show how far race is a factor in determining intellectual level. However, when differences exist between families, as a result of environment, they will be more marked between racial and national groups.

f) Culture

Culture influences the intelligence of the individual to a degree. The test in this respect should be standardised from one culture to another culture.

g) Social and economic conditions

As the home plays a significant role in the early developmental years, it can be expected that home conditions can exercise considerable influence on behaviour and attitudes. The activities, interests and financial status of parents, and of other adults in the neighborhood environment may provide for the child poor, relatively meagre or an extremely rich series of experiences. The amount and kind of mental challenge to which the person is exposed at various periods of his life determines to a great degree, the amount and kind of mental activity in which he engages. Apparently, low socio-economic status may result from factors outside the immediate control of parents, such as a period of economic depression. The parents themselves, may possess a high degree of intelligence but become the victims of circumstances.

In such cases, the child's inherited, intellectual potential usually is able to assist him to get over unfavorable living conditions. As opportunities are presented, he will tend to achieve according to his intellectual capacity. Drive and motivation can operate to overcome social and economic handicaps.

MEASUREMENT OF INTELLIGENCE

The social stimulus value of the individual, i.e., the individual's inner dynamics and traits must be understood and measured by standard tests and observations.

Classification of psychological tests

There are five tests as follows:

1. According to the aspect of the individual's behaviour
2. Verbal or non-verbal
3. Group or individual
4. Ability to perform certain tasks in a certain time (speed test) or the degree of difficulty of

tasks the individual can accomplish. This may be called a power test.

5. Test may be analytical or situational

(a) An analytical test is one which measures the separate component traits into which complex performance patterns may be analysed.

(b) Situational tests are those which present a miniature life situation and measure performance, under conditions which require traits to be organised into functional units.

INTELLIGENCE TEST

There are two important tests: (1) The Standard-Binet Scale for measuring general intelligence; and (2) The Wechsler-Bellevue Scale.

The Standard-Binet scale

It was originally developed by the French Psychologist Alfred Binet and later revised by an American Psychologist, L. M. Terman of Stanford University. If a child can perform most of the tasks of the test that most 10 year olds can perform, he has a "mental age" of 10, regardless of whether his actual or chronological age is 6, 8 or 14 years. These tests may be:

a) For a child of four years

- (1) **A picture vocabulary:** The child must recognise and name everyday objects as seen in pictures.
- (2) **Naming objects from memory:** Small toys representing common objects named for him. Later, he must remember the name of each object.
- (3) **Picture completion:** The incomplete picture of a man is shown which the child must complete.

- (4) **Pictorial identification:** The child must identify pictures of objects presented to him on a card.
- (5) **Discrimination of forms:** A Child must recognise a number of simple geometrical forms.
- (6) **Comprehension:** A series of "why" questions are asked to which sensible answers must be given.

b) For Persons of the age of 13

- (1) **Vocabulary:** Subject must correctly define 14 words from a standard vocabulary list.
- (2) **Verbal absurdities:** Subject must be able to determine what is "foolish" in a series of statements.
- (3) **Responses to picture:** Subjects must be able to tell what a picture is about.
- (4) **Repeating 5 digits:** The examiner reads 5 digits in a forward order and the subject must repeat them backwards.
- (5) **Abstract words:** The subject must define abstract words like "constant" and "charity".
- (6) **Sentence completion:** The subject must provide the missing words in incomplete sentences.

c) For average adults

- (1) **Vocabulary:** Subject must define twenty words from a standard vocabulary list.
- (2) **Codes:** Subject must learn two codes and write messages in the code terms.
- (3) **Difference between abstract words:** Subject must tell the difference between difficult and abstract words.
- (4) **Arithmetical reasoning:** Subject is required to solve arithmetic problems mentally.
- (5) **Proverbs:** Subject is required to interpret proverbs.
- (6) **Ingenuity:** Subject is requested to solve the problems requiring "mental manipulation".
- (7) **Memory sentences:** Subject must reproduce long and involved sentences after a single hearing.
- (8) **Reconciliation of opposites:** Subject must tell how words denoting opposites are alike. Similar tests can be framed for farmers, villages leaders, members of youth organisation in villages, village women, etc.

Intelligence quotient (I.Q.)

After the above tests are given to the subject, his mental age is determined, or, in other words, his intelligence quotient is calculated, abbreviated as I.Q.

The I.Q. is the ratio between the subject's mental age (abbreviated M.A.) and his chronological age (abbreviated C.A.). In order to avoid fractions, the ratio is multiplied by 100. The I.Q. formula thus becomes

Some characteristics of I.Q.'s are
$$I.Q. = \frac{M.A.}{C.A.} \times 100$$
 as follows:

1. I.Q. tends to remain constant unless there are extreme changes in environment.
2. An Individual's intelligence is influenced by heredity and environment.
3. Cultural factors influence test results in measuring intelligence, so that the test must be designed to consider the language, physical environment, habits and kinds of experience of the person being tested. The tests in use in U.S.A. cannot apply to people in India.
4. Some special factors must be considered in studying intelligence.

These are:

- a) First - born children are usually slightly inferior in I.Q. to those coming latter in the family.
- b) A thyroid deficiency in early life interferes with initial. development of intelligence.
- c) Boys excel girls in problem solving while girls excel over boys in word fluency and memory.
- d) Verbal ability and performance on informational tasks may actually improve up to 60 years of age and then remain almost constant.
- e) Visual motor factors also begin to decrease after a certain age.

The I.Q. test is most often used with children over an age range 4 to 14

The Wechsler-Bellevue scale

It is designed for adults, Some of the tests in this scale are verbal, dealing with arithmetic, reasoning, general information, comprehension, memory, span for digits and vocabulary. Other tests are of a performance type, *i.e.*, they do not depend to a great extent upon language.

APTITUDES TESTING

The aptitudes are special abilities in such areas as agriculture, architecture, mechanics, clerical activity, handling animals, etc. To measure these - aptitudes, some of the tests that have been designed are:

The Minnesota paper form board

This consists of a series of two dimensional diagrams cut into separate parts. From each diagram there are five figures with lines indicating the different shapes out of which they are made. The subject's task is to choose the one figure that is composed of the exact parts of previously reported diagrams.

The satisfaction to be derived from any educational or vocational pursuit depends to some extent upon the individual's interest in the activity that he engages in. Many people have similar abilities but

differ markedly in their interest in activities. Interest tests distinguish between real and superficial interests. These can be:

(a) **Strong vocational interest bank:** This is a questionnaire. It consists of 420 items to which the person, being tested, responds by indicating whether he likes, dislikes or is indifferent to the object or activity named. The test items include names of occupations, hobbies, personal traits, school subjects and amusements.

(b) **Duder preference record:** This is a score for the types of occupational areas including outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service, clerical, etc. The examinee is presented with items with instructions. E.g., to punch with a pin the whole to the right of one activity of 3 that he likes the least, and to the left of the activity that which he likes most. The pinpunches make a pattern on an underlying sheet from which the examiner can count the area: the literary, the mechanical, and so on. The scores are finally translated from a table in to percentages.

Unlike intelligence tests and tests of special abilities, interest tests are much more concerned with the measurement of motivation than with ability

MEASURING SPEED OR REACTION

This is the most direct way to measure the processes of perception, choice and discrimination. Here we determine the time that is taken by a person to perceive and report upon the differences or similarities among various kinds of stimuli. The time that elapses between the occurrence of a stimulus and the beginning of a response to it is called the reaction time. These times are measured by a mechanical or electrical clock-work instrument known as a chronoscope, and a number of pieces of accessory equipment.

MEASURING THE MORE GENERAL TRAITS OF PERSONALITY

This consists of a wide range of techniques popularly called personality tests. Because of their success with the quantitative measurement of intelligence, special abilities, sensory abilities, interest and reaction times - all of which are, of course, personality components - psychologists have been encouraged to extend their efforts to measuring such personality traits as dominance, sociability, irritability and suspiciousness.

One way to test the above is the use of a questionnaire - the Allport Ascendancy - Submission Reaction Study - which aims to discover the tendency of an individual to dominate his fellows, or to be dominated by them, in various face-to-face relationships of everyday life.

Lec 26 & 27 - PERSONALITY - Concept, Types, Measurement, Factors affecting intelligence

CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

Personality is the total quality of an individual. It is defined as an individual's typical or consistent adjustments to his environment. Personality consists of manifold and diverse elements. The elements of personality are called the traits of personality. These traits that make one person different from another person in his behaviour. Shyness and social ability are different traits of personality. Personality is the dynamic organisation of the traits and characteristic of an individual. All characteristics which an individual possess are his powers. Needs, Abilities, wants, attitudes and habits, his goal and aspirations his patterns of behaviour to objects and persons constitute his personality. Since an individual is a bundle of characteristics as traits, we can define personality as an integrated pattern of traits.

According to *William James*, personality consists of one's

- a. Material self (his body, clothes, family, property, home)
- b. Social self (his home, club, office, church, etc.)
- c. Spiritual self (his ability to argue and discriminate, consciousness, will, moral sensitivities). According to *Medeugali*, personality consists of his

- ☐ disposition
- ☐ temper
- ☐ temperament and
- ☐ character.

Finally personality is the most characteristic intergratic of an individual's structures, mode of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

A trait may be regarded as sedimension of personality. For example, dominance-submission is a trait that a person may show in any degree. A trait is description of human

behaviour. The traits of a person describe his personality. One's traits and the ways they are patterned make him different from other persons. Identifying and defining traits, psychology has made considerable progress toward a specific and objective understanding of personality. Personalities unique. This uniqueness is the result of the differences in the traits of different individuals and in the dynamic acquisition of the traits. Some of the traits are ascendant, submissive, cheerful, gloomy, friendly, hostile *etc.* *Caltell* has given two types of traits

- a. Surface trait: The qualities of one's behaviour that are observable directly in action .

- b. Source trait: The qualities at a deeper level

The dimensions of personality can be divided into:

Physical traits and Behavioral traits.

Physical traits

Biological inheritance is responsible for the individuals physical aspect. Genes which are inherited are responsible for the physical traits, e.g. colour of hair and eyes complexion etc. But some physical traits are also affected by environment, e.g. development of muscles depends on the food given to the child. This indicates that the relationship between environment and heredity is one of interaction.

The human organism is the product of many forces in interaction with the character with the each other. As it is difficult to differentiate between hereditary and environmental factors, it is convenient to use the term constitution, which represents both the forces. Constitution comprises of

- a) drives b) temperament c) Capacities

a. Drives: A drive is a form of motivation in which the organism is impelled by factors, essentially beyond its control to act without foresight of ends. These consist of inner energies, tendencies and urges that interact with outside forces and become dynamic patterns of response as a result of this interaction. The different types of drives may be: visual drives, hunger, thirst, sex activity, defence etc. The action of satisfying these drives calls for adjustment to one's social environment and thus the individual develops personality.

b. Temperament: This is the characteristic method of an individual which may bring elation, depression or confidence to him. The endocrine glands play a vital part in determining the type of temperamental reactions which the individual exhibits. These glands secrete directly into the blood stream. Certain chemical substances known as hormones, which in turn exert a profound effect on behaviour.

c. Capacities: Personal capacity is a sort of inherited potentiality or adaptability which enable the organism to acquire the ability to do a certain task or to solve a particular type of problem. Thus, from an individual who inherits an aptitude for learning how to solve mathematical problems quickly and easily one might infer that he was endowed to more than the average degree with a mathematical capacity.

Ability and capacity are not the same. Ability is equal to inherited capacity plus training. We can assume that unless a person has certain inherited capacities and has them in certain proportions he cannot develop the abilities. So our abilities are the product of both experience and inherited capacities.

Behaviour Traits

The important elements which influence the individual's behaviour are his ideas habits, attitudes and wishes. The individual learns these elements which become an integral part of his personality. These may be considered as follows.

- a. **Ideas:** Under these we include all mental pictures concepts impression, notions, factual knowledge, and the like which we carry in our heads.

- b. **Habits:** These include all the acquired ways of feeling and doing which tend to repeat themselves under appropriate conditions.
- c. **Attitudes:** An attitude is acquired, or learned and established tendency to react toward or against something or somebody. It is evinced either by an approaching or a withdrawing type of behaviour, and the object of the reaction becomes thereby either a positive or a negative value respectively, from the subject’s view point. An attitude may be largely latent, subjective, unexpressed, or it may represent any degree between two extremes. An attitude may be characteristic of a person, towards other person’s social groups, society or the universe. An attitude may be social in the sense that it is characteristic of homogenous groups of persons.

All attitudes are habits, but not all habits are attitudes The attitudes has a dynamic quality, which is lacking in some habit patterns. It involves an evaluation of the object or situation towards which it is called out.

- d. **Wishes:** A wish is one, or a set of attitudes, focussed on a goal, an attitude is a pre-disposition to want (or to avoid) something, while a wish is actual wanting, there is no action without a wish and no wish without action. Wishes help to explain human behaviour.

TYPES OF PERSONALITY

1. Jung

Jung has identified introversion- extroversion types in personality. Introverts will react negatively to situations, withdraw from the society, inwardly reflective. The introvert withdraws from the active participation in the objective world and is interested in his inner world of thought and fantasy. He will not move freely with others. He would not express out of his feelings and inner desires. He is sensitive to criticism, magnifies his failures, occupied with self-criticism.

Extroverts are opposite to introverts. Extroverts react positively and outwardly expressive. An extrovert is criticism, spontaneous in his emotional expression, impersonal in argument, neither deeply affected by failures nor much occupied with self analysis or self-criticism.

2. Sheldon

Sheldon classifies the people into 3 types.

- a. Endomorphy b. Mesomorphy c. Ectomorphy

In addition to this type, Sheldon also classifies people into 3 types according to their temperament. They are a. Viscerotonia b. Somatotonia and Corebrotonia

	Body types	Temperamental types
a	Endomorph	Viscerotonia
	Heavy muscular	Love of comfort, affection
b	Mesomorphy	Somatotonia
	Heavy muscular, Development, Hard body	Vigorous, self-assertive, Ambitious
c	Ectomorphy	Cerebrotonia
	Long, Slender, Extremities, poor	Restrained, inhibited, social withdrawal, thoughtful

MEASUREMENT OF PERSONALITY

The measurement of personality serves both theoretical and practical purpose. When an individual who has difficulties of personal adjustment comes for help to a psychiatrist, it is valuable to assess his personality. To measure the personality we have to measure the traits of personality. It is possible to measure needs, attitudes, Interests, values and other personality characteristics also. The following methods have been used for measuring personality characteristics.

Questionnaire method

This method involves the preparation of a list of questions or statements. Each one is concerned with some aspect of the feeling, attitude, habit or mode of behaviour related to the personality characteristic which is intended to measure. The respondent required to indicate his agreement or disagreement, acceptance or rejection, affirmation or denial of each statement. The questions are constructed in such a way that the affirmation of some and the denial of others express the presence of the trait that is measured. Each question is followed by „Yes“, „No“, „True“, „Untrue“, „Doubtful“ or other similar responses. Here, the respondent underlines a response that shows his character.

Example

- a. In social gatherings, I like to be the center of attention
- b. In meeting, I prefer to occupy a back seat
- c. When you have to make an important decision, do you prefer some to decide for you.

Usually a personality test contains 30 or 50 items. The questionnaire method is also called objective test of personality. In this method, the respondent should be truthful and very frank.

Projective tests

Projective tests are so named because they induce the individual to project to put himself into the test situation or to identify with the persons therein and, by telling about them, to reveal his own motives, attitudes, apprehensions and aspirations.

The use of projective test is based on the mechanism of projection. The projective test is a device for measuring personality which the person tested does not recognize as such he makes spontaneous responses in the test. The test presents a highly ambiguous situation which the test is required to perceive and describe. The situation has no definite characteristics and so different persons perceive It in different ways. In perceiving the amligris situation each person reflects his own needs, attitudes, habits, Interests, feelings and behaviour patterns. The projective method is called projective because in perceiving and describing the situation, a person brings out his personality characteristics. Two well-known protective tests are: (a) Rorschach inkblot test (b)Thematic apperception test.

a. Rorschach test: Rorschach test was introduced by Herman Rorschach. So the test was called after his name. This is the most widely used test. It was first described in 1921 by Herman Rorschach a Swiss psychiatrist.

Rorschach test consists of 10 cards, each one having an inkblot on it. Some blots are coloured and some are in black and white. These cards are always presented in regular serial order.

The inkblot does not represent any object. It is an ambiguous or unstructured figure. The ambiguity of the blot results in the great variety of responses it produces. Such an inkblot is placed before the subject. He is asked to describe what he sees. He is also required to say in what portion he sees and what makes him to see the object that he describes. His responses are noted and classified under different categories.

These responses differ from person to person. Some respond to the whole figure, some to the parts of the figure. Some respond to form a shape, some to colour or the white space between the coloured or black patches. Some see moving parts of human body. Others see animals. Classification of the responses made to the 10 cards by a subject shows that responses are interpreted as indicating the personality characteristics of the respondent.

b. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT): This TAT is also a widely used projective Test. This TAT was first given by Murray. This test consists of 20 pictures. Each picture contains one or more persons in very ambiguous situations. For example, in one picture a very old woman is standing behind a young woman. The subject is asked to write a story on each picture. The story should have a theme. It should say what is happening and what is going to be the outcome or result.

In writing a story, the subject is expected to identify himself unconsciously with a character in the story. The story thus express out his own needs and frustrations- feelings and attitudes, ideas of self and of others, real or imaginary and so on. One cannot get clue about the characteristics of the subject from a single story. When one finds the recurrence of the same or similar characteristics, expressing similar feelings and attitudes entertaining similar hopes and fears etc one may be led to think that the stories reveal the persons own characteristics.

Personality rating

In this method one person judges or rates the characteristic of another person. The person who judges is the rater and the person who is judged is the rate. The basis of the rating is the rater’s general impression drawn from his observation of the behaviour of the rate in a variety of related situations. For example, a class teacher may be asked to judge such personality, cooperatives, etc. The teacher may be asked to express his rating on each trait by locating the position of each pupil on a so called rating scale.

5	4	3	2	1
Always in time	Generally Punctual	Some times Punctual some time unpunctual	Generally Un punctual	Never in time

If the teacher feels that the student is highly is punctual he would place him at the left end of the scale and give him the score of 5.

Situational test

In the situational test, a person is required to act in a situation, which is specially arranged for the purpose of testing. The tester observes the behaviour of the test while he is acting in the situation. Generally, the testing is done in a group. For example, a party of 10 students is taken out and camps at the foot of hill. The students are given some cash. They are asked to plan to and arrange for preparing their launch in this they will discuss and plan to report launch who accompanies them observes the behaviour of each and come to conclusion regarding their personality character.

Interview

Interview is one of the method to assess personality. The interview is a face-to-face situation consisting of the interview and the interview. The success of the interview depends upon the degree to which the interview makes free and frank responses. The interview should establish with the interviewer a relation of cordiality, warmth-and responsiveness. Such a relation has been called 'rapport '.No psychological interview can be success.

FACTORS AFFECTING PERSONALITY

The individual is influenced by heredity, his geographical and physical environment, the culture of the group in which he is born the unique experience acquired by him throughout inter-personal interaction. These can described as follows:

a. Heredity

The role of heredity is not to develop human nature alone and unaided, but to furnish materials out of which experience will mould the personality. Although this raw material includes the whole human body and all of its mechanisms, certain biological tracts are more significant than others in the bearing they have upon personality. The more important mechanisms are the nervous system, the ductless glands, the organic drives, the emotions and emotions and the capacities for mental behaviour. These materials may lead may to difference in personality. Pronounced variations in the intelligence as in case of the idiot of (Having I.Q.below25) and the imbecile are such as to leave indelible stamp on personality.

Heredity influences upon personality are both direct and indirect. Indirect influence are those exerted thorough group evaluations of genetic traits. e.g. physique. Direct influence come from the degree emotional drive and mental alertness and individual may be energetic because of his heredity, but whether he is active on his own behalf or on behalf of others, is a matter of his training.

b. Physical and geographical environment

Food and climate may be the most significant aspects of the physical environment as they influence the individuals biological development and as such personality. Some traits such as development of muscles can be attributed primarily to environment. Even at birth the human organism is already the internal product of a very complex heredity potential and a specific physical environment in the uterus. The environment is not the same in all mothers. It varies from child to child. This is most easily understood in terms of the nultriltion available to the foetus.

c. Culture

What the child gets from his culture are things such as clothes, tools and skills, speech and occupation. These have both a direct and indirect on his personality. In addition, culture undertakes specifically to shape his attitudes and habits through such a avenues of influence as folkways, customs and groups ideas. These aspects may be called martial. Thus culture provides a framework, in which the individual develops his own personality. A child acquires his culture by conditioning. individuals comes under different aspect of the social heritage and develop distinctive personalities. Many factors determine the phases of culture and individuals will experience, but in general it may be said that the governing one in the individuals group affiliation.

d. Unique experience

Ideas, habits values are the integral part of one's personality and are acquired through the process of interpersonal interaction. This interaction is unique to the individual. Two twins

though they have the same kind of physical and cultural environment. Still develop different types of personality. The unique experiences, which they gain, account for this difference. as it is unique to each one of them.

Individuals develop ideas, attitudes and values according to their experience as they are unique or peculiar to them and in the process of interaction, they try to pass them on to others. In the process of personality development the early years are most important in laying down the basic personality pattern as the child learns the ways of the world.

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Personality is a very complex pattern. It cannot be completely and accurately described in one work. The two theories most prevalent are:

The type theory and trait theory

Type theory

This theory is based on the assumption that all persons can be classified into a limited number of personalities. Each type has certain related response tendencies as an individual. It implies that all the acts of an individual are related to each other's. It also implies that all the individuals of a type, are alike in behaviour.

By knowing the type of an individual, his actions in one situation can be predicted in other situations. Behaviour, according to this theory, is of the following three types as introvert, extrovert and ambivert.

a. Introvert: An introvert limits acceptance to a few. This person is very conservative and suspicious of the motives of others. He is not social, like solitude, prefers to remains in the background on certain occasions. He avoids embarrassment and public speaking. He is very reserved, self-centered, introspective, absent-minded, remains worried and is always day-dreaming. He is generally slow and hesitant to take the initiative. Philosophers, poets and scientists are generally introverts.

b. Extrovert: An extrovert is social and sociable. He likes to make friends and very soon creates a circle of friends around him. He prefers working in company with other people, does not like solitude, is talkative and fond of talking.

He is proud and self-assertive and generally takes things lightly. He never feels embarrassed. He has a keen sense of observation and is attentive. Reformers and social workers are generally extraverts.

- c. **Ambivert:** Ambiverts are partly introverts and partly extroverts. They have a liking for people as well liking for thought. It is very difficult to draw a line between introverts and extroverts. The same individual has certain qualities of the one and also of other.

This theory of types is regarded as unsound because

- a. It is difficult to find one hundred percent introverts. so it is difficult to see just what is the behaviour of Ambiverts.
- b. No two individuals will be exactly alike in behaviour under all circumstances.

Trait theory

According to this theory, there is a limited number of basic characteristic behaviour and it is possible to describe an individual's personality by stating how he stands on each of these characteristics. The traits are independent on one another in the sense that there may be little or no relationship between an individual status and a trait, such as shyness emotional stability and intelligence.

Traits profiles include

- a. Intelligence
- b. Emotional stability
- c. Aggressiveness
- d. social receptivity and
- e. Persistence

Traits used in personality descriptions

Trait cluster	As opposed to
a. Easy going, adaptable, warm Heated, expressive	Inflexible, indifferent, reserved, suspicious
b Intelligent, thoughtful, . (continuous to attempt)	Unintelligent, ineffective, quits easily.
c. Emotionally stable, realistic, calm and thorough.	Emotionally unstable, unrealistic excitable, Careless
d. Self-assertive, aggressive adventurous	Submissive, makes complaints and is timed
e. Cheerful, social energetic and witty	Pessimistic, retiring, languish and dull
f Preserving and responsible .	Flickle, fricolous and relaxed

It should not be assumed that these traits are fixed and final any of describing personality.

But they serve the purpose in the absence of something better.

Comparison of type and trait theory

	Type theory	Trait theory
a	Assumes that there are significant relationships between all the responses of an individual	Significant relationships are found only among those responses related to the trait in question, but not between them
t	Implies that we need to know only the type, to predict an individual’s behavior	This implies that we must know the status of an individual on all aspects and the responses related to some individuals.
c	It is over-simplified. People do not prove to be to the type in all situations	The traits predicts behavior more accuracy

Lec 28, 29, 30 & 31 - TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS –

TEACHING – definition, meaning, Principles of teaching, steps in extension teaching. LEARNING – definition, meaning, principles, Types of learning, learning situation

TEACHING

Definition of teaching

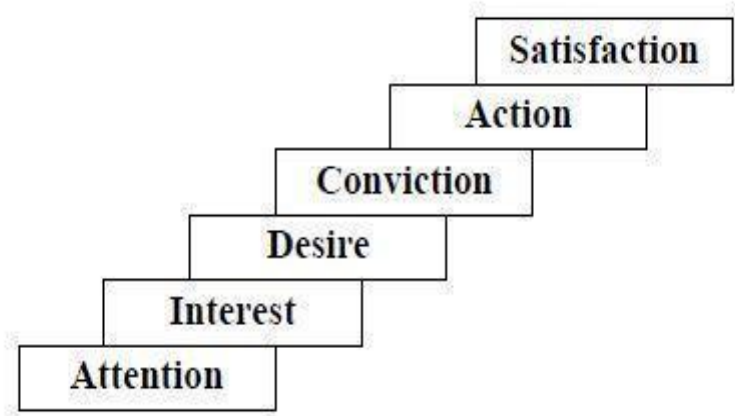
Teaching is the process of providing situations in which learning takes place; in other words, arranging situations in which the things to be learnt are brought to the attention of the leanness, their interest is developed, desire aroused, convocation created, action promoted and satisfaction ensured.

Principles of teaching

- i. The learner should subscribe to and understand the purpose of the course
- ii. The student should want to learn
- iii. The teacher should keep friendly and informal relationship with learner
- iv. The Physical condition should be favourable and appropriate to the learning
- v. The teacher should involve the learners so that they participate and accept some responsibility for the learning process.
- vi. The teacher should use of the learners experience
- vii. The teacher should prepare well for the class, should keep his teaching aids handy and should be enthusiastic about teaching it.
- viii. The teacher of instruction should be varied and appropriate
- ix. The teacher should change his notes with the availability of new knowledge on the topic of subject.

22.1.3. Steps in extension teaching

Teaching – learning is a continuous process consisting of various steps. It is difficult to separate steps from one another. According to Wilson and Gallup the following are the steps in teaching – learning process.



Attention: The first task of the extension worker is to attract attention of the learner to the new and better ideas. Farmers are to be made aware of the improvement.

Interest: Once attention has been captured it becomes possible for the teacher to appeal to the basic needs or urges of the individual and arouse his interest in further consideration of the idea. Extension worker reveals now that practice will contribute to the farmer's welfare. The message should be presented attractively.

Desire: The desire is concerned with the continuing learner's interest in the idea or better practice until that interest becomes a desire or motivation force. The extension worker explains the farmer that the learner visualizes the action in terms of his own peculiar situation and has acquired confidence in his own ability to do the thing.

Conviction: Action follows desire, conviction of the people, and prospect of satisfaction. In this step learner knows what action is necessary, and just How to take that action. He also makes sure that the learner visualizes the action in terms of his peculiar situation and has acquired confidence in his own ability to do the thing

Action: Unless conviction is covered into action, the efforts are fruitless. It is job of extension worker to make it easy for the farmers to act. If new control measure is the action needed the recommended chemical should be available within the farmers reach. Necessary equipment should also be available. If action does not quickly follow the desire the new idea will fade away. Therefore this phase should never be neglected.

Satisfaction: This is the end product of the process. Follow up by the extension worker helps the farmers to learn to evaluate their progress and it strengthens satisfaction. Satisfaction helps to continue his action with increased satisfaction. Satisfaction is the motivating force to further learning. "A satisfied customer is the advertisement" will also apply to the extension worker.

The above six steps are often blend in with each other and lose their clear cut identify. Of course these steps are based on motivation.

LEARNING

1. Definition

Learning is a process by which a person becomes changed in his behaviour through self – activity – Leagans

Learning is a process of progressive behaviour adaptation – Skinner 2.

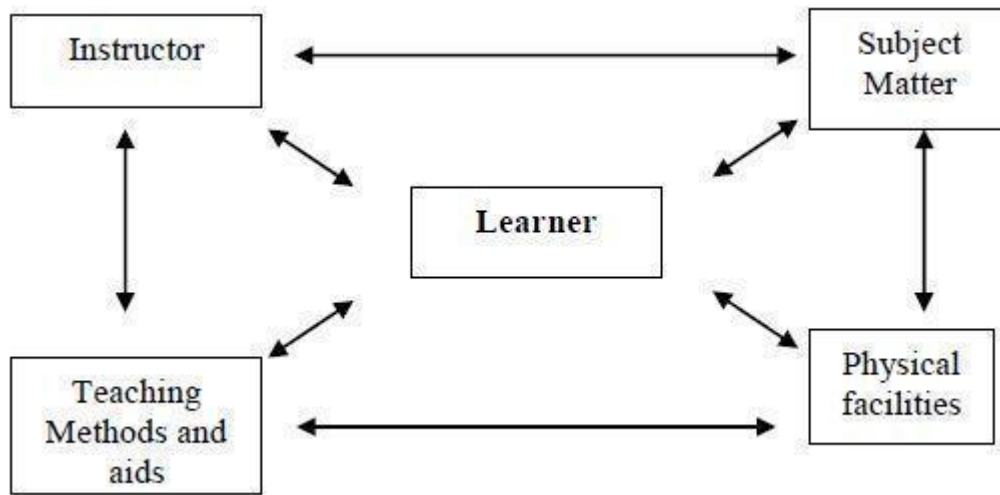
Learning experience

It is the mental and/or physical reaction one makes through seeing, hearing or doing the things to be learned through which one gains meaning and understandings of the material to be learned.

3. Learning situation

A learning situation is a condition or environment in which all the elements necessary for promoting learning are present; namely (1) Instructor (2) Learner (3) Subject Matter (4) Teaching materials and equipment's and (5) Physical facilities.

Figure below is a symbolic representation of the reaction the learner makes to the other elements and the way these five elements react to each other.



To have an effective learning, situation these five major elements should satisfy the following condition.

Instructor should

- Have clear objective
- Know the subject matter and have it well organized
- Be enthusiastic and interested in the subject
- Be able to communicate with learners
- Be democratic in his leadership
- Allow students participation, ask for it
- Be prepared, be prompt, be friendly, be courteous
- Use a teaching plan
- Speak so that all can hear
- Set a good example of a good leader and teacher
- Be skillful in the use of teaching materials and equipment's.

Learner should

- Have need for information
- Be interested
- Be capable of learning
- Use the information gained

Subject matter or content

- Pertinent to learner's needs
- Applicable to real life situations
- Taught at intellectual level of learners
- Well organised and logical presented
- Presented clearly

- f. Challenging, satisfying and significant to the learners
- g. Fits into overall objectives

Physical facilities

- a. Free from outside distractions
- b. Temperature as comfortable as possible
- c. Well lighted
- d. Adequate space for the group
- e. Furniture comfortable and well arranged

Teaching equipment

- a. Meet the needs effectively
- b. Readily available
- c. Each item used skillfully

The nature of each of these elements, their relationships to each other, their role in the educational process must be thoroughly understood by the instructor and skill developed by him in handling them. Effective learning situations are created through the skillful use of appropriate teaching methods and techniques.

4. Principles of learning and their implications for teaching A.

Principle of association

Learning is growth like and continuous. The kind of learning that keeps place is the result of the kind of experience we have. Experiences that occur together tend to recur together. Previous learning always sets the stage for subsequent learning.

Implication for teaching

1. Begin at the level of the learner
2. New must be related to the old
3. Adjust the pace to the learner's capacity. One idea at a time
4. Bring the attention of the learner repeatedly (In a variety of ways) and over a period of time.

B. Principle of clarity

Learning is purposeful. Learning varies directly with the meaningfulness of the material presented. Learning is increased when the learner sees the end sought by the practice.

Implication for teaching

1. Learning must sense to the learner.
2. Progress must be constantly appraised and redirected.
3. Purposes must be kept in the sharp focus; (Objective must be clear to the learner and teacher)

C. Principle of self-activity

Learning results through self-activity. It is an active process on the part of the learner. Teachers can only set up the learning situation and stimulate a person to the learner. The door to listening is “looked on the inside” and unless the learner opens the door himself, learning cannot take place. Learning involves appropriate activities that engage a maximum number of senses

Implication for teaching

1. Activities appropriate to the specific learning situation must be used
2. Learning activities should engage a maximum number of senses, by using audio-visual aids.
Senses are the gate-ways to learning.

D. Principle of readiness (Motivation) and principles of rewards (Satisfaction):

Learning must be challenging and satisfying. Readiness does not be mere desire to learn; It includes social and intellectual maturity as well. The more fully a person is in readiness to act in a certain way, the more satisfying it will be for him, and more annoy if he is prevented from it. When not ready to act, he is annoyed if made to act. A favourable attitude accelerates learning a bad attitude retards learning. Without drive or interest a person does not learn. Consequently, leaning depends primarily upon satisfaction of wants or needs, In other words, upon success, Rewards maintain and strengthen the learning process.

Implication for teaching

1. Teacher motivation of the student is essential in making learning more challenging
2. Standards demanded of the learners should be suitable to their ability or capacity
3. Appropriate and timely recognition should be given to student achievement

E. Principle of practice (or law of exercise)

Learning must result in functional understanding Memorization alone is temporary unless reviewed or put in a practical situation. The often a situation evokes or leads to a certain response; the stronger becomes the tendency for it to do so in future. Practices leads to perfection; (not more countless repetitions).

Implication for teaching

1. Course content should be organized into meaningful units
2. Theory should be related to practice
3. Provide activities that stimulate (or resemble) use situations in real life) If possible, stimulate actual use situations)

F. Principle of disassociation

Learning is affected by emotions. The intensity of emotional feeling affects learning differently in different individuals. The most effective way of eliminating an undesirable response is to set up a desirable substitute, which must be made more satisfying than the original (undesirable) reaction.

Implication for teaching

1. Strive to increase pleasant emotions and decrease unpleasant emotions of students in connection with the learning process.
2. Train the expression of emotions in the right direction

G. Principle of timing

Learning takes place more readily when the facts or skill are given at the time or just before the time they are to be used in a serviceable way.

Implication for teaching

Select the appropriate time, depending on the learning activity; (neither too early, nor too late)

H. Principle of environment

Learning is affected by the physical and social environment

Implication for teaching

1. The general physical environment should be suitable to the kind of learning taking place
 2. Specific physical factors of the meeting place should be suitable to the activities selected for use in the learning situation
 3. The teacher should recognize and utilize the effects of the social environment on learning
- Summarising the major points, optimum learning takes place

1. When the teacher is in a state of physiological and psychological readiness
2. When he repeats at intervals the learning series is mastered and
3. That series is accompanied by an emotionally satisfying experience. The major task of the teacher is to arrange the learning situation so that these conditions prevail.

Lec 32 & 33 – MOTIVATION -- Concept, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Including Selfless-Service), Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation, Techniques of Motivation, Importance of Motivation in Extension

MOTIVATION

MEANING AND DEFINITION

Motivation is the process of initiating in and purposeful action. Motive means an urge, or combination of urges to infuse conscious of purposeful action. It is goal directed and need satisfying behaviour. It explains why people do the things they do. It influences a person to do a thing in a certain way.

It may be defined as goal seeking or goal-directed behavior or activity .It is also defined as 'a stage of the organism in which bodily is mobilized and selectively directed towards parts of the environment" This definition breaks down into two parts i.e. mobilization of bodily energy or drive and direction.

NEEDS WHICH MOTIVATE

i. Organic needs or physiological motives:

Man is constructed in such a way that he requires certain things in order that these may keep living. He is also so constituted that these needs initiate activity that will eventually satisfy them. These are all basic organic needs which demand periodic or continued satisfaction. These needs are called appetite (Eg.) breathing air, appetite of thirst, appetite for sleeps or rest etc.

ii. People have unique personal wants-e.g. Likes and dislikes for specific food, play etc.

iii. Emotions as motives: Under the influence of fear, anger etc., people may do many things that they would not do normally e.g. Parents use fear to direct the behaviour of children. Organisations use fear to produce a desired form of behaviour.

iv. Feelings and attitudes as Motives: An individual's experience activity is evaluated by him as pleasant or unpleasant. When the experience is pleasant, individual has an attitude of approach to that experience and if it is unpleasant, his attitude is withdrawn.

v. Social motives: Most people have a strong desire to achieve social approval. For this they try to improve their personality through clothes, possession of things knowledge, skills etc.

vi Other :

a. **Habit:** Somebody's settled practice. especially something's that cannot easily be given up Established habit becomes almost automatic and requires only stimulus to set it in action.

b. **Objective environment:** People act differently in different situations. The objective environment produces a 'set' or 'readiness' to respond in a particular way.

Types of Motivation

There are two types of motivation, Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation. It's important to understand that we are not all the same; thus effectively motivating your employees requires that you gain an understanding of the different types of motivation. Such an understanding will enable you to better categorize your team members and apply the appropriate type of motivation. You will find each member different and each member's motivational needs will be varied as well. Some people respond best to intrinsic which means "from within" and will meet any obligation of an area of their passion. Quite the reverse, others will respond better to extrinsic motivation which, in their world, provides that difficult tasks can be dealt with provided there is a reward upon completion of that task. Become an expert in determining which type will work best with which team members.

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from within. The individual has the desire to perform a specific task, because its results are in accordance with his belief system or fulfills a desire and therefore importance is attached to it. Our deep-rooted desires have the highest motivational power. Below are some examples:

- ❑ **Acceptance:** We all need to feel that we, as well as our decisions, are accepted by our co-workers.
- ❑ **Curiosity:** We all have the desire to be in the know.
- ❑ **Honor:** We all need to respect the rules and to be ethical.
- ❑ **Independence:** We all need to feel we are unique.
- ❑ **Order:** We all need to be organized.
- ❑ **Power:** We all have the desire to be able to have influence.
- ❑ **Social contact:** We all need to have some social interactions.
- ❑ **Social Status:** We all have the desire to feel important.

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from outside. In other words, our desires to perform a task are controlled by an outside source. Note that even though the stimuli are coming from outside, the result of performing the task will still be rewarding for the individual performing the task.

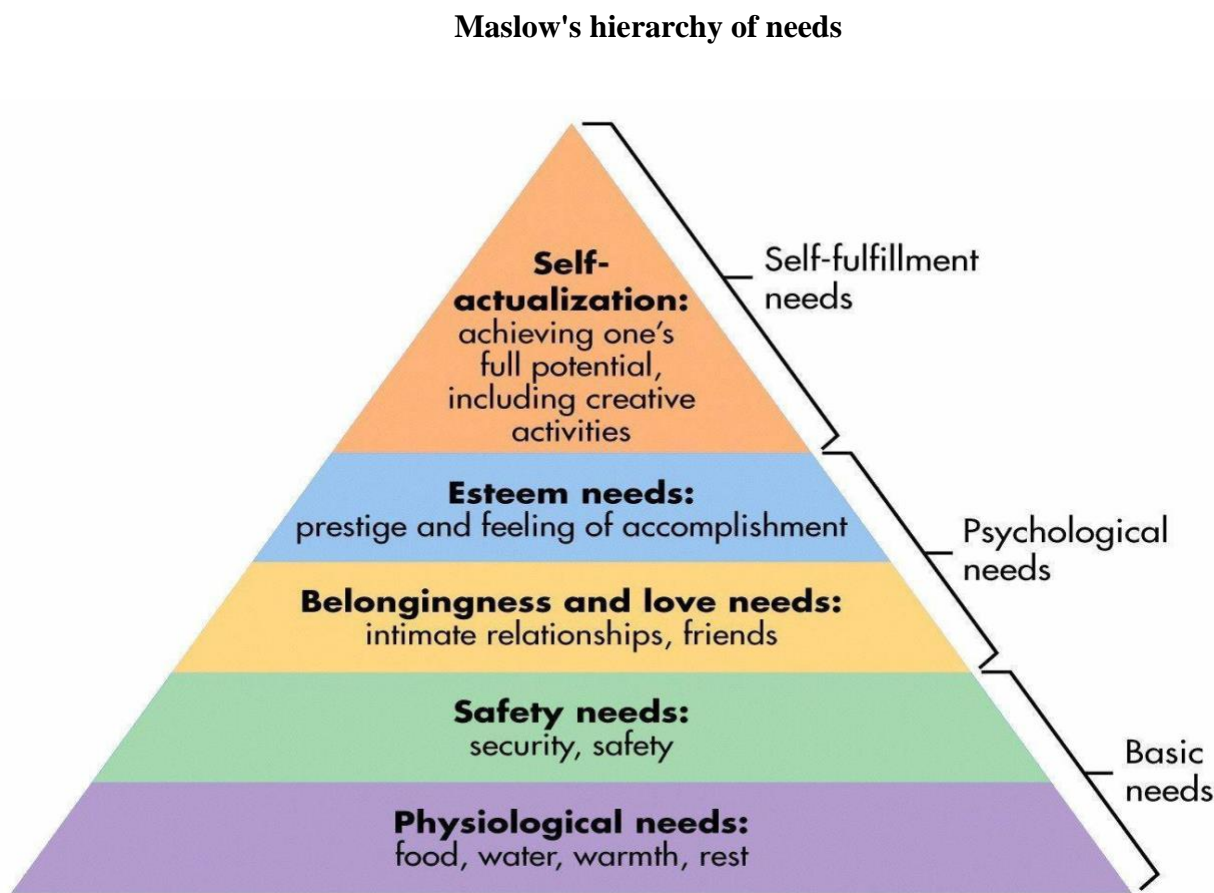
Extrinsic motivation is external in nature. The most well-known and the most debated motivation is money. Below are some other examples:

- ❑ Employee of the month award
- ❑ Benefit package
- ❑ Bonuses
- ❑ Organized activities

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid.

Maslow (1943, 1954) stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs and that some needs take precedence over others. Our most basic need is for physical survival, and this will be the first thing that motivates our behavior. Once that level is fulfilled the next level up is what motivates us, and so on.



MOTIVATION IN EXTENSION

1. Motivating farmers

In our educative process of extension, we have to take into consideration the following three basic elements:

A. The villager himself

- a. The villager is an individual human personality, He has inherited traits, tendencies and capacities which tend to shape what he thinks, what he does and how he does it. He is an independent unit in his system. His personality is the product and sum total of inherited traits shaped by forces in the environment in which he has existed. So the villager is in individual personality capable of independent action as well as group action within his community or society.
- b. The villager has a brain just like any human being. He has the capacity to learn things to reason to understand, to judge and to decide. This controls his behaviour. As extension workers, we have to recognize and remember that change in the mind of man/woman always precedes change in the motion of his /her hands.

- c. The villager also has a heart. Just like any human being he feels emotions of love fear resistance sadness or happiness. Through these he expresses his attitudes or tendencies to accept or] reject things told him by the extension workers.
- d. He has the desire to resist innovation, force unfriendliness and stinginess. We have to take these into consideration while approaching him.

B. Villagers' environment

Regardless of his economic and social conditions. there are usually external forces in the village environment that the villager has to be taught to deal with and overcome., to survive and make progress. These are : low production of crops and animals, poor housing conditions low education the importance of family planning, uneconomic size of holding and scattered plots, lack of capital, underemployment etc. He needs help to solve such problems

C. The device created by man to improve himself

Religion, Indian history the natural calamities the apathy of British administration and even the Mohammedan rule, the approach, of the development department in pre independence India, have all puzzled the villager. Due to it he is still not fully convinced that our programme is really going to improve his conditions. Some of the recommended practices he want to try out before he accepts. Here come out difficulty. We have a big job of bringing this change in his behavior. It needs education It changes are to be from the villager's won decisions to act to result from his own effort Internal changes in the knowledge, understanding desires, feelings and capacities of villagers must precede the outward expressions of changed ways of doing things for their own improvement in other words. It can be said that change in the mind of the villager must proceed change in the action of his hands.

The villager as any human being is endowed with internal desires for improvement. He needs only to be shown the path clearly and convincingly and helped to gain the necessary skills.

External stimuli must be created by the villagers himself. History shown that in society without these man-invented institutions and forces for application of external stimuli in the direction of economic and social improvement progress in these directions ha s tended to be slow. India is good example of it. If we compare the progress made by out extension service during the pre-independence period from 1904-51 and after 1952 the changes have tended to be rapid after 1952. Even during the early years of this new approach there was little progress, as compared to the past 5 or 10 years.

So the primary role of the extension worker is provide a Triggering' device, as Leagues calls it, that puts into action the inherent powers of the people in the in the direction of real process. This job well can, in time, create a 'Chain-Reaction' that results in the better people living in better homes or better farms. This is the objective behind the extension programme. The extension workers have to keep these points in mind that they are to handle the villages.

Award system in extension

Rewards in extension may be in form of material money, symbolic, public recognition *etc.* They are effective devices to motivate the rural people as well as the extension workers. Recognition of “Krishl Pandits” distributing among of money to farmers-regionwise or statewise, or giving cycles to village

level workers, etc., for the response to the extension programme, or fruitful results in their work, have given very beneficial results. However, the following consideration must be made while administering the award system in our areas.

- a. Award should be designed to encourage wide participation and activity. They therefore, should be given adequate 'Spread'.
- b. The potential ability of competitor should be considered i.e, age, training, experience, etc, .So that awards as nearly as possible are equally attainable by all constants.
- c. The learning experience' as a result of 'award motivation' should be the objective and should be graded towards improvement which is of define value to the contestant.
- d. The criteria for allotment of awards should be planned. publicized and understood by all concerned.
- e. Awards should be made "personal" resources rather than physical resources, and should be included; achievement co-operation and leadership.
- f. Awards should be planned to reward the work of the competitor himself, or his group and not that accomplished with outside help.
- g. Awards should be in keeping with the honour won, the efforts ,expanded and the stage of development of the participants, with strong emphasis placed on consistent achievement, Group approval and sense of accomplishment are important by product.
- h. The activity learned as a means of obtaining the reward should be one which is desirable as a "habit".
- i. An award should be attained within reasonable period after it is earned.
- j. Awards should be of durable nature, preferably of the intrinsic type which will encourage further knowledge or skill in the field of interest participant, intrinsic awards, when used, should be well-chosen to perform a similar function.
- k. Componential judges should motivate and prepare for future competitions.
- l. Major awards should not be attainable by an individual too often. But this regulation should not discourage participation on the part of past winners.
- m. Presentation of awards should be timely, effective and presented by important persons.
- n. The awards system should be continually evaluated to ensure progress.

Motivating extension workers

It is of equal importance that our extension workers themselves get motivated first; that they have a feeling of belonging to the organisation, love for the profession, are true to their duties and have a missionary zeal. The answer is that they have a high morale and from that motivated towards the goal. This could possibly be achieved if the following factors are given due consideration.

- a. Selection and training of workers
- b. Proper stimulus or incentives
- c. Development of an effective code of ethics for extension workers.
- d. Orientation of new workers towards the goals of the extension programme e.
Effective supervision
- f. Development of a high morale

TECHNIQUES OF MOTIVATION

Need based approach: The approach should be need based so that it could satisfy given categories of need by knowing the level of motivation and patterns of motivation among them. The five categories of needs are (i) physical need (ii) desire for love (iii) desire for recognition (iv) desire for new experiences and (v) organic needs.

Training to set a realistic level of aspirations: Any attempt to revise the expectations of farmer's should be done with full understanding of their socio-economic status.

- (E.g) (i) Creating an aspiration in a farmer who doesn't have any land of his own (one (or) two acres),
- (ii) A person who attains 30 tonnes / acre of yield could be made to aspire for 40 tonnes /acre

Such a realistic level of aspiration would ensure slow and steady progress. **Participation:** The involvement of farmers in the programmes of agricultural changes acts as booster of motivation not only for the immediate participants but also for others.

Use of audio visuals: The proper selection, combination and use of various audio visuals for the appropriate purpose will act as lubricants of motivation

Lec 34 – ATTITUDE - Concept, Factors Influencing the Development of Attitudes

Attitude involves some knowledge of a situation, however the essential aspect of the attitude is found in the fact that some characteristic feeling or emotion is experienced and as we would accordingly expect, some definite tendency to action is associated. Subjectively, then the important factor is the feeling or emotion objectively it's the response, or at least the tendency to respond. Attitude is one of the important determinants of behavior. If we are to change them, we must change the emotional components.

A farmer may vote for a particular political party because he has been brought up to the idea that it is the „right“ party. In the course of experience he may learn something, about the policies of that party which cause him to believe that his interests with another party. In that case his attitude will probably change. As a result he may be expected to vote in a different way. Knowledge, attitude and behaviour are then very closely linked.

FACTORS AFFECTING ATTITUDE

a. Maturation

The young child has only a very limited capacity for understanding the world around him and he is consequently incapable of forming attitudes about remote or complex or abstract things or problems.

At about a mental age of twelve years the child begins to understand abstract terms such as pity and justice, and his capacity for both inductive and deductive responding show a marked and continuous increase during adolescence. As a result of this growth in capacity, he becomes able to understand and to react to more abstract and more generalized propositions, ideas and ideas.

At the age of four or five years, three characteristics especially deserve mention. These are curiosity, contra-suggestibility and independence. The child at this age is like to express his curiosity by asking an endless series of questions.

Adolescence is marked especially by the maturation of sex emotions and by the development of altruism and co-operativeness. These in large measure furnish the basis for the formation of attitudes that differentiate adults from children. Boys at the age of twelve years may have a distant interest in girls, and they may even have crushes on particular girls, but their interest is quite different from what it will be some years later.

b. Physical factors

Clinical psychologists have generally recognized that physical health and vitality are important factors in determining adjustment and frequently it has been found that malnutrition or disease or accidents have interfered so seriously with normal development that behaviour disturbances have followed.

c. Home influences

It is generally accepted that attitudes are determined largely by the social environment and that home influences are especially important.

d. The social environment

The home environment is of primary importance in the formation of early attitudes but friends, associates and the general social environment come to have an increasing influence as the child grows older and has wider social contacts.

e. School government

The form of the school government seems to be an important factor in determining attitudes both toward government itself and toward other things.

f. Movie (or) Television pictures

Attendance at movie / TV pictures constitutes another important possible influence in the determination of attitudes. Thrust one concluded that films definitely change social attitudes although only about 10 percent of the attitudes studied seemed to be affected by movie attendance.

g. The teacher

Brown asked 300 graduate and undergraduate students in Educational sociology to evaluate the various factors in their school experience that had been influential in the formation of personality. Their teachers had been the most important single factor.

h. The curriculum

Thordike asked 155 teachers to rate eleven subjects and activities on the basis of what they considered the value of these to be for the training of character. Teaching has the highest rank, but athletic sports come next. English literature and history have the best ranks for the regular school subjects, mathematics and foreign languages are ranked much lower. This indicates that, in the opinion of this group of teachers, literature and the social sciences have more influence than other a reasonable view and it suggests that the units of work and the readings in these areas should be selected with particular reference to their probable influence on the attitudes formed by the students.

i. Teaching methods

One of the categories in Brown's study was "manner of presentation" of subject matter. This was judged to have had a favorable effect.

DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDE

Attitudes are not accidents of individual experience. They result from day-to-day living in the home, in the school, and in the community. Whatever attitude children develop can be traced, in part at least, to the effect upon them, of teacher precept and example. The challenge to teacher is that of helping the learner retain his identity, develop his individuality and absorb a background of democratic culture. Theoretically all education is aimed at helping learners develop to the full extent of their ability and those attitudes that fit them for living constructively in a democratic society.

Attitudes are formed without direction and also by direction as the result of careful planning by a person or persons who desire to encourage the development of certain attitudes in others. One function of school is that of stimulating young people towards acquisition of attitudes that are individually and socially desirable. It is through initiation, emotional experience and deliberate efforts on the part of the individual himself, teacher, and others the new attitudes arise.

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MODEL QUESTION PAPER
TAMIL NADU AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY

B.Sc. [Agriculture] Degree Programme

Final Theory Examination

I Year I Semester December, 2003

AEX. 101 Rural Sociology and Education Psychology [1+1]

(2003 Syllabus)

Time: 2 Hr. 30 Min.

Max. Marks: 30

PART-A

[Answer any **five** questions from each division]

[5 x 4 = 20] x 0.5=10

Fill in the blanks:

- A1. Father of sociology is _____.
- A2. In rural area, most of the families are _____.
- A3. Mobility from one area to another area is called as _____.
- A4. Group _____ is an important property of the group.
- A5. _____ is the strength of forces that keep the group together.
- A6. Any change that occurs in the structure and _____ of the social system is called social change.
- A7. _____ is a person who can influence the act of others.

State True or False:

- A8. Rural Society is less stabilized.
- A9. The degree of social solidarity is less in rural areas.
- A10. Caste is an open class system.
- A11. Customs are prescribed form of behaviour transmitted tradition.
- A12. Lay leader is paid for work.
- A13. Rituals are the patterns of ceremonies.

Name of the following in one word answer:

- A14. The harmonious operation of the different dimensions in the society.
- A15. The arrangement of individuals or groups a hierarchy representing a stratification system in a village.
- A16. The process of changes in any of the aspects of a culture.
- A17. Two or more people in reciprocal interaction with on another.
- A18. Process by which an individual is tended to move towards a desired goal.
- A19. The social distance scale was developed by

Choose the correct answer:

- A20. The study of human behaviour in society is called [Extension, Psychology, Society]
- A21. Socially acceptable ways of behaviour that do involve moral standards is known as [Folkways, Mores, Laws]
- A22. It is the first training group of human race [Family, Play group, Social group]
- A23. This type of leader determines all the policies and goals of organization [Autocratic leader, Democratic leader, Laissez faire leader]
- A24. It is the production of desirable changes in human behaviour [Aptitude, Need, Education]
- A25. J.P. Chitambar is the author of the book [An introductory rural sociology, Sociology and Psychology, Extension Education]

PART – B

[Answer any **Five** questions only]

[5 x 1 = 5]

Write short notes on:

- B1. Organization
- B2. Culture
- B3. Leader
- B4. Community
- B5. Education psychology
- B6. Teaching
- B7. Personality

PART – C

[Answer any **Three** questions only]

[3 x 5 = 5]

- C1. Explain the characteristics of rural society and bring out the differences between rural and urban society.
- C2. List out and explain in detail the functions of social institutions.
- C3. What is a group? What are its chief characteristics? As an extension worker how will you make use of the primary and secondary groups in a rural society?
- C4. As an extension worker what are the qualities you will look into for the selection of a leader for extension work and why?
- C5. Explain the various methods of measurement of personality.