DJR2C: PSYCHOLOGY OF CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

Unit I Definitions

Human Behaviour and Mind: Aggression, mental disorders, personality disorder, prejudice and impulsive violence: Biological learning factors, attitudes, criminal behaviour, desires and beliefs. Definition, nature and scope of psychology. Relation between Psychology and Criminology.

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UNIT-1 - DEFINITIONS

Human Behaviour and Mind

- **Aggression**

Social psychologists define **aggression** as *behaviour that is intended to harm another individual who does not wish to be harmed* (Baron & Richardson, 1994). Because it involves the perception of intent, what looks like aggression from one point of view may not look that way from another, and the same harmful behaviour may or may not be considered aggressive depending on its intent. Intentional harm is, however, perceived as worse than unintentional harm, even when the harms are identical (Ames & Fiske, 2013).

Social psychologists use the term **violence** to refer to *aggression that has extreme physical harm, such as injury or death, as its goal*. Thus violence is a subset of aggression. All violent acts are aggressive, but only acts that are intended to cause extreme physical damage, such as murder, assault, rape, and robbery, are violent. Slapping someone really hard across the face might be violent, but calling people names would only be aggressive. The type or level of intent that underlies an aggressive behaviour creates the distinction between two fundamental types of aggression, which are caused by very different psychological processes.

Emotional or impulsive aggression refers to *aggression that occurs with only a small amount of forethought or intent and that is determined primarily by impulsive emotions*. Emotional aggression is the result of the extreme negative emotions we're experiencing at the time that we aggress and is not really intended to create any positive outcomes.

Instrumental or cognitive aggression, on other hand, is *aggression that is intentional and planned*. Instrumental aggression is more cognitive than affective and may be completely cold and calculating. Instrumental aggression is aimed at hurting someone to gain something—attention, monetary reward, or political power, for instance. If the aggressor believes that there is an easier way to obtain the goal, the aggression would probably not occur.

Social psychologists agree that aggression can be verbal as well as physical. Physical aggression is *aggression that involves harming others physically*—for instance hitting, kicking, stabbing, or shooting them. Nonphysical aggressionis *aggression that does not involve physical harm*. Nonphysical aggression includes verbal aggression (*yelling, screaming, swearing, and name calling*) and relational or social aggression, which is defined as *intentionally harming another person's social relationships*, for instance, by gossiping about another person,

- **Mental disorders**

Mental disorder, any illness with significant psychological or behavioural manifestations that is associated with either a painful or distressing symptom or an impairment in one or more important areas of functioning. Mental disorders comprise a broad range of problems, with different symptoms. However, they are generally characterized by some combination of abnormal thoughts, emotions, behaviour and relationships with others. Five major mental illnesses — autism, attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder, bipolar disorder, major depressive disorder and schizophrenia.

Autism: Autism, or autism spectrum disorder, refers to a range of conditions characterized by challenges with social skills, repetitive behaviours, speech and nonverbal communication, as well as by unique strengths and differences. We now know that there is not one autism but many types, caused by different combinations of genetic and environmental influences. The term "spectrum" reflects the wide variation in challenges and strengths possessed by each person with autism. Certain medical and mental health issues frequently accompany autism. They include gastrointestinal (GI) disorders, seizures, sleep disturbances, attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), anxiety and phobias.

Attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) : ADHD is a common disorder that impacts focus, self-control and other skills important in daily life. It's caused by differences in brain anatomy and wiring, and often runs in families. ADHD is essentially an issue with executive function. Because of that, kids with ADHD often have trouble:

- Managing time
- Getting and staying organized
- Managing emotions
- Paying attention and remembering things
- Shifting focus from one thing to another
- Getting started on tasks
- Thinking before saying or doing things

The stereotype of kids with ADHD is that they're always in motion, they're impulsive and hyperactive, and they often have behaviour problems at home and at school.

Bipolar disorder : Bipolar disorder, also known as manic depression, is a mental illness that brings severe high and low moods and changes in sleep, energy, thinking, and behaviour. People

who have bipolar disorder can have periods in which they feel overly happy and energized and other periods of feeling very sad, hopeless, and sluggish. In between those periods, they usually feel normal. You can think of the highs and the lows as two "poles" of mood, which is why it's called "bipolar" disorder. The word "manic" describes the times when someone with bipolar disorder feels overly excited and confident. These feelings can also involve irritability and impulsive or reckless decision-making. About half of people during mania can also have delusions (believing things that aren't true and that they can't be talked out of) or hallucinations (seeing or hearing things that aren't there).

Major depressive disorder: Major depression, also known as unipolar or major depressive disorder, is characterized by a persistent feeling of sadness or a lack of interest in outside stimuli. The unipolar connotes a difference between major depression and bipolar depression, which refers to an oscillating state between depression and mania. Instead, unipolar depression is solely focused on the ”lows,” or the negative emotions and symptoms that you may have experienced. Fortunately, major depression is well understood in the medical community and is often easily treatable through a combination of medication and talk therapy. Below is a guide to everything from the symptoms and causes of major depression, to statistics and treatment that you can seek from a medical professional if you feel that you need assistance.

Schizophrenia : Schizophrenia is a serious brain disorder that distorts the way a person thinks, acts, expresses emotions, perceives reality, and relates to others. People with schizophrenia - the most chronic and disabling of the major mental illnesses - often have problems functioning in society, at work, at school, and in relationships. Schizophrenia can leave its sufferer frightened and withdrawn. It is a life-long disease that cannot be cured but can be controlled with proper treatment.

- **Personality disorder**

A personality disorder is a way of thinking, feeling and behaving that deviates from the expectations of the culture, causes distress or problems functioning, and lasts over time. Personality disorder is divided into three categories such as Cluster A personality disorders are characterized by odd, eccentric thinking or behaviour, Cluster B personality disorders are characterized by dramatic, overly emotional or unpredictable thinking or behaviour and Cluster C personality disorders are characterized by anxious, fearful thinking or behaviour.

Prejudice and impulsive violence

- **Biological learning factors**

  Preparedness is the species-specific biological predisposition to learn in certain ways. For example, chimpanzees cannot speak English because they lack the necessary vocal equipment to do so.

  Instinctive Drift is the tendency to revert to instinctive behaviour thereby interfering with learning. Keller and Marion Breland (1961), students of B.F. Skinner (proponent of operant conditioning), trained pigs and raccoons to do certain things. Instead of performing what they've learned, the pigs and raccoons rooted and food-washed. This is because their instinct to root and food-wash interfered with learning.

  Lastly, **Taste Aversion** is distaste for substances that poison but do not kill. For example, Garcia, Ervin and Kelling (1966) paired radiation with eating a certain food, causing rats to feel nauseated and avoid the food for 32 days, a long-term effect that cannot be accounted to conditioning per se. This phenomenon is also observed in cancer patients undergoing radiation and chemical treatments. This principle is also used by ranchers to lessen the threat of pests and predators to their livestock. They feed these pests and predators poisoned meat of their prey.

- **Attitude** is a psychological construct, a mental and emotional entity that inheres in, or characterizes a person.[1] They are complex and an acquired state through experiences. It is an individual's predisposed state of mind regarding a value and it is precipitated through a responsive expression toward a person, place, thing, or event (the **attitude object**) which in turn influences the individual's thought and action.
- **Criminal behavior** refers to conduct of an offender that leads to and including the commission of an unlawful act.
- **Belief** is the state of mind in which a person thinks something to be the case with or without there being empirical evidence to prove that something is the case with factual certainty.

  Desire is a sense of longing or hoping for a person, object, or outcome. The same sense is expressed by emotions such as "craving".

Definition and scope of psychology

Psychology is that branch of philosophy which studies the human mind 0r soul. By the mind or soul is meant the thinking principle, that by which I feel, know, and will, and by which my body is animated. The terms Ego, Self, Spirit, are used as synonymous with mind and soul, and, though slight differences attach to some of them, it will be convenient for us (except where we specially call attention to divergences of meaning) to follow common usage and employ them as practically equivalent.

Scope of Psychology. -- The subject-matter of our science is, then, the Soul or Mind. The psychologist investigates those phenomena which we call sensations, perceptions, thoughts, volitions, and emotions; he analyses them, classifies them, and seeks to reduce them to the smallest number of fundamental activities. He studies the nature of their exercise and the laws which govern their operations, and he endeavours to enunciate a body of general truths which will accurately describe their chief and most characteristic features. But Psychology cannot rest here. Whether it wishes it or not, Psychology is inevitably a branch of Philosophy. It cannot remain satisfied with the mere generalization of facts; it must pass on to inquire into the inner nature and constitution of the root and subject of these phenomena; it must seek to explain the effect by its cause. Consequently a work which does nothing more than describe and classify the operations of the mind, omitting all discussion regarding the mind itself, is but an abortive attempt at a science of Psychology

Relation between psychology and criminology

Psychologists have studied many aspects of crime and criminality ever since modern psychology began to emerge in the late 19th century. The founding fathers of psychology taught courses on criminal psychology and considered delinquency at the time they were laying their foundations. Just about every psychological theory has been applied to the consideration of crime or its prosecution, from Freudian psychodynamics to neuropsychology, by way of learning theories and studies of memory. These theories have covered the causes of crime, psychological aspects of criminal investigations, assessment of criminals, court psychology, interventions to reduce offending and help offenders cope with prison, and victimology and the nature of criminal activity, emphasizing behavioural variations between offenses that have the same legal definition. In the last forty years the study of psychological aspects of crime and criminals has also become part of the professional discipline of forensic psychology. Thus, any review of

psychology and crime now overlaps with considerations of the professional roles of psychologists in a variety of legal, investigative, correctional, and therapeutic settings. The influence of the legal context and culture as well as the local institutional frameworks, therefore, always needs to be kept in mind when considering publications on psychology and crime. For example, access to offenders in prison for research purposes is currently extremely difficult in the United States but is much easier in developing countries. Consequently, a bias results in what is actually studied depending on where the studies take place. What is considered criminal and how crime is dealt with varies considerably from one jurisdiction to another. These variations carry implications for how readily findings can be generalized or acted on in practice beyond the context in which they were established. Furthermore, many of the considerations of the psychological aspects of crime take place under the umbrella of other disciplines, notably criminology but also socio-legal studies and even jurisprudence. Writings on psychology and crime, consequently, vary in the depth of their scholarship and the validity of their arguments. This qualitative range is further extended by the enormous popular interest in crime, both in fact and in fiction, producing a plethora of opinions on criminals that have little basis in systematic research or even, often, in objective evidence

UNIT-2 THEORIES

Theories of personality

Sigmund Freud

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), the father of psychoanalysis, spent much of his life developing an intricate theory of how the psyche, or mind, operates. Central to Freud's theory, and perhaps his greatest contribution to psychology, is the knowledge that psyche consists of parts that are conscious, preconscious, and unconscious

Conscious, pre-conscious and unconscious

The conscious mind is what you are aware of at any particular moment. It includes your present perceptions, memories, thoughts, fantasies, feelings, what have you.

Pre-conscious (available memory) involves anything that can easily be made conscious. It includes memories you are not at the moment thinking about but can readily bring to mind.

Now no-one has a problem with these two layers of mind. But Freud suggested that these are the smallest parts! The largest part is the unconscious. It includes all the things that are not easily available to awareness, According to Freud, the unconscious is the source of our motivations, whether they be simple desires for food or sex, neurotic compulsions, or the motives of an artist or scientist.

3 parts of personality

Freud believed that personality has three structures: the id, the ego, and the superego.

- Id

According to Freud, the Id is the most primitive part of our psyche. We are born with the id and it residues within the unconscious.

The id is driven by primitive animal instincts including sexual and aggressive impulses. It functions according to the pleasure principle. This seeks to maximize pleasure and minimize any discomfort. So, it is demand to take care of needs immediately. The id is illogical. It seeks pleasure without thought to what is practical, safe, or moral. Freud argued that we are not aware of the id, but it influences our behavior.

- Ego

The Freudian structure of personality that deals with the demands of reality. The ego is called the “executive branch“ of personality because it makes decisions. The id and the ego have no

morality. They do not take into account whether something is right or wrong. Freud posted that the ego is the second part of the psyche to develop.

The ego functions according to the reality principle because its job is to gratify the id in accord with reality. Ego is responsible for taking care of a need as soon as an appropriate object is found.

It operates on all three levels of awareness (the conscious, preconscious, and unconscious levels of the psyche). The ego, or that part of the psyche that is your sense of self, has a very difficult job. It must satisfy both the id and superego. It must gratify the id's primitive, instinctual needs within the constraints of reality and within the moral standards of the superego.

- Superego

The superego is the Freudian structure of personality. It is “the moral branch” of personality. The superego takes into account whether something is right or wrong. The last part of the psyche to develop is the superego. At five or six years of age, we begin to learn about the norms, rules, and values of society. Freud argued that children internalize these rules to form the superego, which functions as a very strict conscience.

The superego operates according to the morality principle. It seeks what is good and moral above all else. In that sense, Freud argued that it is just as illogical as the id. Like the ego, the superego functions on all levels of awareness.

There are two aspects to the superego: One is the conscience, which is an internalization of punishments and warnings. The other is called the ego ideal. It derives from rewards and positive models presented to the child. The conscience and ego ideal communicate their requirements to the ego with feelings like pride, shame, and guilt.

Life instincts and the death instinct

life instincts. These instincts perpetuate (a) the life of the individual, by motivating him or her to seek food and water, and (b) the life of the species, by motivating him or her to have sex. The motivational energy of these life instincts he called libido

Freud began to believe that "under" and "beside" the life instincts there was a death instinct. He began to believe that every person has an unconscious wish to die.

The stages

According to Freud, the sex drive is the most important motivating force. Freud noted that, at different times in our lives, different parts of our skin give us greatest pleasure :

- The oral stage lasts from birth to about 18 months. The focus of pleasure is, of course, the mouth. Sucking and biting are favorite activities.
- The anal stage lasts from about 18 months to three or four years old. The focus of pleasure is the anus. Holding it in and letting it go are greatly enjoyed.
- The phallic stage lasts from three or four to five, six, or seven years old. The focus of pleasure is the genitalia. Masturbation is common.
- The latent stage lasts from five, six, or seven to puberty. During this stage, Freud believed that the sexual impulse was suppressed in the service of learning.
- The genital stage begins at puberty, and represents the resurgence of the sex drive in adolescence, and the more specific focusing of pleasure in sexual intercourse. Freud felt that masturbation, oral sex, homosexuality, and many other things we find acceptable in adulthood today, were immature

Henry Murray (1893 – 1988)

Personality

Henry Murray's theory was strongly influenced by Freud's psychoanalytic theory. However, for Murray, the id includes impulses that are acceptable to the self and society. The super-ego is an internalized subsystem that acts within the idealized picture of the self. It is a set of personal ambitions that the individual aspires for.

The first principle in Murray's personality, which is the study of personality, is that personality is rooted in the brain. The individual's cerebral physiology guides and governs every aspect of the personality. Everything on which personality depends exists in the brain, including feeling states, conscious and unconscious memories, beliefs, attitudes, fears and values.

The second principle involves the idea of tension reduction. Murray agreed with Freud and other theorists that people act to reduce physiological personality and psychological tension, but this does not mean we strive for a tension-free state. It is the process of acting to reduce tension that is satisfying, according to Murray, rather than the attainment of a condition free of all tension. Murray believed that a tension-free existence is itself a source of distress. We need excitement, activity and movement, of all which involve increasing, not decreasing, tension. We generate tension in order to have the satisfaction of reducing it. Murray believed the ideal state of human nature involves always having a certain level of tension to reduce.

A third principle is that an individual's personality continues to develop over time and is constructed of all the events that occur during the course of that person's life. Therefore, the study of a person's past is of great importance. Murray emphasized the uniqueness of each person while recognizing similarities among all people. As he saw it, an individual human being is like no other person, like some other people, and like every other person.

He also theorized different stages of personality. These are 1) childhood, adolescence and young adulthood, 2) middle years, 3) senescence (final era). During the first stage, new structural compositions emerge and multiply. The middle years are marked by conservative recompositions of the already emerged structures and functions. During the final stage, senescence, the capacity to form new compositions and recompositions decreases while the atrophy of existing forms and functions increases. Within each period, there are numerous smaller programs of behavioural and experiential events that run under the guidance of genetically controlled maturational processes.

When the effects of infantile experiences upon later behavior are clear and extensive, the individual is said to have a complex. Murray mentioned five complexes: Claustral complexes which represent residuals of the uterine or prenatal experience of the individual; oral complexes represent derivatives of early feeding experiences; anal complexes are derived from events associated with the act of defecating and bowel training; urethral complexes are associated with excessive ambition and distorted sense of self-esteem; lastly, genital or castration complex that is when fear grows out of masturbation and parental punishment.

He also categorized different types of needs: Primary and secondary needs; Overt and convert needs; Focal and diffused needs; Proactive and reactive needs; and lastly Modal and effect needs. These are the characteristics of the following:

1. Primary needs – physical satisfaction
   Secondary needs – characterized by a lack of focal connection with physical satisfaction.
2. Overt needs – manifest needs
   Covert needs – latent needs
3. Focal needs – linked to specific classes of environmental objects
   Diffused needs – so generalized that they apply to almost every environmental setting.
4. Proactive needs – are those from within as a result of something in the person
   Reactive needs – are activated as a result of some environmental event

5. Modal need – involve doing something with a certain degree of excellence or quality.
   Effect needs – are those that lead to a desired state or end.

Murray also used the word "press". The press is an environmental force that interacts with needs to determine behavior. Press is linked to persons or objects that have direct implications on an individual's effort to satisfy his or her striving. There are two kinds: alpha press wherein environmental objects are seen as they exist in reality while beta press are environmental objects that are perceived and interpreted by an individual.

He also talked about "thema" and "needs". Thema is an interactive behavioral unit. It involves the interaction between the press and the need that is operating. The needs explain the motivation and direction of behavior. He created 20 needs of people. He also made the Thematic Apperception Test. Murray believed that human behavior may be understood through the processes of satisfying motives and needs. Personality can be described generally in terms of these needs and the ways they interact with environmental forces.

Personality Factors –B. Cattell

Raymond B. Cattell entered the field of psychology almost against his own better judgment. After working in a hospital during World War I, he decided that understanding human behavior and interaction is the only way to get beyond the irrationality of the times. While a graduate student at London University, he was hired as a research assistant to Charles Spearman, a mathematician studying the quantification of intelligence.

Spearman, a well known name in the field of intellectual assessment, developed a mathematical formula known as factor analysis. This statistical technique allows one to take raw data and determine groupings of data. In other words, if you and many others took a general test that had both math and English questions, a factor analysis would likely determine that there were two factors or groupings on this test. Imagine the power of this technique for lesser understood concepts such as intelligence and personality.

By developing questionnaires and tests consisting of personality characteristics, and analyzing data from report cards of students, evaluations from employees, etc., Cattell applied this new statistical technique. In 1949, he published his findings in an assessment device known as the 16PF. According to Cattell's research, human personality traits could be summarized by 16 personality factors (PF) or main traits.

He described these 16 traits on a continuum. In other words, everybody has some degree of every trait, according to Cattell. The key to assessment is determining where on the continuum an individual falls. The 16 traits are shown in the chart below.

1. Abstractedness: Imaginative versus practical.
2. Apprehension: Worried versus confident.
3. Dominance: Forceful versus submissive.
4. Emotional Stability: Calm versus high-strung.
5. Liveliness: Spontaneous versus restrained.
6. Openness to Change: Flexible versus attached to the familiar.
7. Perfectionism: Controlled versus undisciplined.
8. Privateness: Discreet versus open.
9. Reasoning: Abstract versus concrete.
10. Rule-Consciousness: Conforming versus non-conforming.
11. Self-Reliance: Self-sufficient versus dependent.
12. Sensitivity: Tender-hearted versus tough-minded.
13. Social Boldness: Uninhibited versus shy.
14. Tension: Impatient versus relaxed.
15. Vigilance: Suspicious versus trusting.
16. Warmth: Outgoing versus reserved.

Theories of learning

Classical Conditioning (Pavlov)

Summary: Classical conditioning is a reflexive or automatic type of learning in which a stimulus acquires the capacity to evoke a response that was originally evoked by another stimulus.

Originators and Key Contributors: First described by Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936), Russian physiologist, in 1903, and studied in infants by John B. Watson (1878-1958).

Keywords: stimulus-response, psychic reflexes, unconditioned stimulus, conditioned response, respondent conditioning.

Classical Conditioning (Ivan Pavlov)

Several types of learning exist. The most basic form is *associative learning*, i.e., making a new association between events in the environment. There are two forms of associative learning:

classical conditioning (made famous by Ivan Pavlov's experiments with dogs) and Operant conditioning.

Pavlov's Dogs

In the early twentieth century, Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov did Nobel prize-winning
Work on digestion. While studying the role of saliva in dogs' digestive processes, he stumbled. Upon a phenomenon he labeled "psychic reflexes." While an accidental discovery, he had the Foresight to see the importance of it. Pavlov's dogs, restrained in an experimental chamber, Were presented with meat powder and they had their saliva collected via a surgically Implanted tube in their saliva glands. Over time, he noticed that his dogs who begin salivation before the meat powder was even presented, whether it was by the presence of the handler or merely by a clicking noise produced by the device that distributed the meat powder. Fascinated by this finding, Pavlov paired the meat powder with various stimuli such as the ringing of a bell. After the meat powder and bell (auditory stimulus) were presented together several times, the bell was used alone. Pavlov's dogs, as predicted, responded by salivating to the sound of the bell (without the food). The bell began as a neutral stimulus (i.e. the bell itself did not produce the dogs' salivation). However, by pairing the bell with the stimulus that did produce the salivation response, the bell was able to acquire the ability to trigger the salivation response. Pavlov therefore demonstrated how stimulus-response bonds (which some consider as the basic building blocks of learning) are formed. He dedicated much of the rest of his career further exploring this finding.

In technical terms, the meat powder is considered an unconditioned stimulus (UCS) and the dog's salivation is the unconditioned response (UCR). The bell is a neutral stimulus until the dog learns to associate the bell with food. Then the bell becomes a conditioned stimulus (CS) which produces the conditioned response (CR) of salivation after repeated pairings between the bell and food.

Operant Conditioning (Skinner)

Summary: A behaviorist theory based on the fundamental idea that behaviors that are reinforced will tend to continue, while behaviors that are punished will eventually end.

Originators and Key Contributors: B. F. Skinner built upon Ivan Pavlov's theories of classical conditioning.

Keywords: response-stimulus, voluntary response, reinforces.

Operant Conditioning (B. F. Skinner)

Operant conditioning can be described as a process that attempts to modify behavior through the use of positive and negative reinforcement. Through operant conditioning, an individual makes an association between a particular behavior and a consequence.

• Example 1: Parents rewarding a child's excellent grades with candy or some other prize.

• Example 2: A schoolteacher awards points to those students who are the most calm and well-behaved. Students eventually realize that when they voluntarily become quieter and better behaved, that they earn more points.

• Example 3: A form of reinforcement (such as food) is given to an animal every time the animal (for example, a hungry lion) presses a lever.

The term "operant conditioning" originated by the behaviorist B. F. Skinner, who believed that one should focus on the external, observable causes of behavior (rather than try to unpack the internal thoughts and motivations)

Reinforcement comes in two forms: positive and negative.

Positive and negative reinforcers

• *Positive reinforcers* are favorable events or outcomes that are given to the individual after the desired behavior. This may come in the form of praise, rewards, etc.

• *Negative reinforcers* typically are characterized by the removal of an undesired or unpleasant outcome after the desired behavior. A response is strengthened as something considered negative is removed.

The goal in both of these cases of reinforcement is for the behavior to increase.

Positive and negative punishment.

Punishment, in contrast, is when the increase of something undesirable attempts to cause a decrease in the behavior that follows.

• *Positive punishment* is when unfavorable events or outcomes are given in order to weaken the response that follows.

• *Negative punishment* is characterized by when an favorable event or outcome is removed after a undesired behavior occurs.

The goal in both of these cases of punishment is for a behavior to decrease.

What is the difference between operant conditioning and classical conditioning? In operant conditioning, a voluntary response is then followed by a reinforcing stimulus. In this way, the

voluntary response (e.g. studying for an exam) is more likely to be done by the individual. In contrast, classical conditioning is when a stimulus automatically triggers an involuntary response.

Learning theory-Thorndike

Edward L. Thorndike was born and raised in Massachusetts. He graduated from Wesleyan University in 1895, and received his Ph.D. in Psychology from Columbia University in 1898. He attended Harvard briefly before Columbia, largely due to the fact that he wished to study under the Psychologist William James. According to the *Encyclopaedia of World Biography*, "James let Thorndike perform learning experiments with animals in his own basement. Thorndike continued these experiments at Columbia University and published his results as *Animal Intelligence* (1898), his doctoral thesis" However, he switched from experimenting with chicks at Harvard to using cats and dogs at Columbia.

Thorndike's first foray into teaching was at the College for Women of Case Western Reserve in Cleveland, Ohio. According to Erika Reinemeyer, "In 1899, after a year of unhappy, initial employment...he became an instructor in psychology at Teachers College at Columbia University, where he remained for the rest of his career, studying human learning, education, and mental testing" During his time at Columbia, he went from adjunct professor to professor, and from 1922 to 1940**.** Thorndike served as the director of the psychology division of the Institute of Educational Research at Teachers College. In addition, he was elected president of the American Psychological Association in 1912, and he was one of the first psychologists admitted to the National Academy of Sciences in 1917.

During his lifetime, Thorndike published several books on modern day educational psychology. Among his works are: Educational Psychology (1903), Animal Intelligence (1911), The Measurement of Intelligence (1926), and Human Nature and the Social Order (1940). Edward L. Thorndike died in August in 1949, and he is perhaps known best for his early work with animals and the subsequent *law of effect*.

Theory

In 1989, Edward Thorndike introduced a theory of learning in his doctoral dissertation that emphasized the role of experience in the strengthening and weakening of stimulus response connections. Thorndike named this perspective connectionism. This classic experiment, on which his dissertation is based, involved cats placed in a puzzle box with a door that opened when a certain device (wire loop) was appropriately manipulated. He then observed the cat in its attempts to get out of the box. Eventually, the cat triggered the mechanism that opened the door and allowed escape. Thorndike returned the cat to the box a second time, and the cat again engaged in trial-and-error attempts; however the cat escaped in less time than previously. Thorndike continued to place the cat in the box, and although the cat continued to demonstrate seemingly random behaviour, it escaped within shorter and shorter time periods.

Thorndike concluded from his observations that the learning of a response to a stimulus (working the wire loop) is affected by the consequence of that behaviour (escape). Simply put, Thorndike's original law of effect is as follows:

"Responses to a situation that are followed by satisfaction are strengthened; responses that are followed by discomfort are weakened"

This summary implies that reward and punishment have opposite but equal effects on behaviour. However, Thorndike's later research indicated that punishment may not be as effective in weakening responses.

Kohler learning theory

Max Wertheimer is the father of Gestalt Theory. Later on, Wertheimer's theory was further refined and developed by Kurt Koffka and Wolfgang Kohler. **C.V.Good** defines gestalt-

configration, total structure, form or shape, a term designating an undivided articulate as a whole that cannot be made by the more addition of independent elements, the nature of each element depending on its relationship to the whole. The term **'gestalt'** means a whole, a total composition. According to this theory, an individual learns an object as a whole, a single entity, not in parts or bits. In other words, an individual's understanding of an object comprehends the whole object, not merely parts or bits of the object. This theory can be summed up in the succinct statement: 'The whole is greater than the sum of its parts.'

III. Kohler's Experiments

In order to establish the existence of insight, Kohler conducted a number of experiments on a chimpanzee named **Sultan**. Although he conducted a number of other experiments on dogs, hens, and other creatures, his experiments with Sultan were the most noteworthy. Kohler divided his experiment in to four steps.

1. **Experiment**- Sultan was placed in a cage. A stick was placed in the cage and a banana just outside the cage, but outside Sultans direct reach. Sultan made many attempts to obtain the banana but it failed. It sat down in despair. But, after sometime it suddenly got up, lifted the stick and used it to draw the banana towards itself.
2. **Experiment**- In the second stage, Kohler placed inside the cage two sticks which could be joined to each other. This time the banana was so placed that it could not be drown by the chimpanzee towards itself with a single stick. After numerous attempts, Sultan joined the two sticks together and succeeded in obtaining the banana.
3. **Experiment**- In the third step, Kohler hung the banana from the roof of the cage of such a height as to ensure that Sultan could not reach it even by jumping upwards. A box was also placed inside the cage. After many attempts, Sultan climbed up on the box and obtained the bananas.
4. **Experiment**- In the final step, Kohler placed two boxes at one place in the cage the banana was placed at an even high level. At first, Sultan kept on trying to reach the banana by standing up on one box, but after numerous failures, it placed one box upon the other and claiming quit obtained the banana.

IV. Factors Influencing Insight

Many experiments have thrown light upon and established the various factors which influence insight. Some of them are mentioned below;

1. **Experience -** Past experiences help in the insightful solution of the problems. A child cannot solve the problems of Modern Mathematics unless he is well acquainted with its symbolic language.

2. **Intelligence** – Insightful solution depends upon the basic intelligence of the learner. The more intelligent the individual is the greater will be his insight.

3. **Learning Situation** – How insightfully the organism will react depends upon the situation in which he has to act. Some situations are more favourable than the others for insightful solution. As a common observation, insight occurs when the learning situation is so arranged that all the necessary aspects are open for observation.

4. **Initial Efforts or Trial and Error** – Insightful learning has to pass through the process of trial and error. Whatever an activity may be, attempts or efforts or trials always lie at its root. This opens the way for insightful learning.

5. **Repetition and Generalization** – After having an insightful solution of a particular type of problem, the organism tries to repeat it in another situation, demanding similar type of solution. The way found in one situation helps him to react insightfully in the other identical situations.

V. Characteristics of Insight

The above mentioned experiments make it quite obvious that learning by insight has certain characteristics of its own. They are briefly as follows;

1. Insight is sudden.
2. Insight alters perception.
3. Old objects appear in new patterns and organization by virtue of insight.
4. Insight is relative to the intellectual level. The higher species of animals including human beings have more insight than the members of lower species.
5. In insight, understanding is more useful than dexterity of hands.
6. Previous experience is of assistance in insight. An organized perception is an essential factor in learning.

7. Maturity also affects insight as evidenced by the smoother working of insight in older age than in adolescence.
8. If the pieces essential for the solution of the puzzle are present together when perceived, insight comes about earlier.
9. Learning by insight is associative learning. Insight appears suddenly after the manipulation of thoughts or objects for a small, through significant length of time.
10. The insight gained in particular circumstances is of assistance in other circumstances.

VI. Principles Involved in Insightful Learning

There are principles involved in perceptual organization or insightful learning. Some of the basic laws propounded by Gestalt psychologists are as follows;

1. **Law of figure ground**: Everything is perceived in the context of its background. Thus, close relationship is there between figure and ground. For example, we try to solve a sum by using the means that closed areas are more stable and satisfying than the unclosed ones. Closed areas form groups very easily. This law is also called law of closure.
2. **Law of pragnanz**: An organism is motivated to learn when there is tension or disequilibrium of forces in the psychological field. Learning is the removal of this tension. When we perceive an object, we find some gaps in our perceptions. These gaps are filled by the perceiver and a whole figure is prepared.
3. **Law of continuity**: Objects having continuity are learnt easily because they can easily make a whole.
4. **Law of similarity**: this law makes the individual to grasp things which are similar. They are picked out as they were from the total context. Similar ideas and experiences get associated. An object revives another object which resembles or looks similar to it. For example, seeing a man and remembering an intimate friend by some resemblance though never saw them together in the past.
5. **Law of proximity**: this law states the proximate or near together things are picked up first and learnt easily than distant things. In other words, perceptual grounds are favoured according to the nearness of their respective parts. Items tend to form groups if they are spaced together. For instance, a triangle or a circle is understood in this way.

VII. Educational Implications

1. Subject matter (learning material) should be presented in Gestalt form. The plant or flower as a whole be presented before the students and later on the parts should be emphasized.

2. In the organization of the syllabus and planning of the curriculum, the Gestalt principle should be given due consideration. A particular subject should not be treated as the mere collection of isolated facts or topics. It should be closely integrated into a whole. Similarly the curriculum should reflect unity and cohesiveness.

3. This theory has brought motivation in the fore-front by assigning purpose and motive, the central role in learning process. It is goal oriented. Purpose or goals of learning should be made clear to the students, before the teacher starts teaching.

4. The greater contribution of the insight theory of learning is that it has made learning an intelligent task requiring mental abilities. It has called a halt to the age old mechanical memorization, drill and practice work which lack in basic understanding and use of thinking, reasoning and creative mental powers.

5. It emphasizes that the learner must be given opportunities for using his mental abilities. Instead of telling him, how to do a work or solve a problem, he should be placed in the position of an independent enquirer and discoverer. He should himself collect the information and discover the knowledge. The teacher should not engage himself in spoon-feeding but help the children in acquiring knowledge and skill through their own attempts by using their mental powers. Scientific and progressive methods like Heuristic method, analytic and problem solving, which advocate the learning by insight, should be made more popular.

6. If the teacher believes in the theory of insight learning he seeks, to overcome impatience as the moment of insight is unpredictable and sudden. He must give his students a chance to fumble and search for the solution. This fumbling and search is more than trial and error procedure. It is purposeful experimentation. It is a goal directed activity.

7. The teacher must realize the necessity of preliminary steps of experimentation and purposeful search so that the child may become capable of understanding or perceiving cause and effect relationships.

8. As an arrangement of the elements in the situation conditions insight, the teacher determines the methods and order of presentation that will prove most helpful.

9. As insight depends upon capacity, all pupils are not able to use insight in an equal measure. The teacher recognizes differences in capacity and age and understands classroom implications of readiness.

10. The teacher will have build up insight step by step; be it History, Geometry or Language, some insight is sudden but the learner always has partial (glimpses) insight of the total.

11. The function of the teacher is the teaching learning situation to help the child to perceive the goal and the intervening obstacles. If the goal is too difficult in terms of the pupil's present development, it must be made easier or its pursuit may be delayed. In a situation, where an obstacle blocks the perception or achievement of the goal the teacher may take the following three steps-

a) Allow the pupil to grow by waiting or by providing preparatory experiences and knowledge that will increase his power.

b) Make the problem less difficult. Get easier text-books. Use more immediate goals. Find more concrete problems.

c) Give the pupil some help, offer suggestions, hints, clues, show him how to take specific steps and arrange sequential approach.

12. If the goal is too difficult to reach and the child is forced to achieve it, without making it easier or without delaying its achievement, so the child will develop the tendency to escape. By making the task easier, there shall be partial insights which mean relief from tension.

13. If insight is to be achieved, school-tasks must not be too difficult to perform. They must be appropriate to the understanding of the child on the part of the student and there are more failures in examination, when the work is too difficult for the pupils to achieve insight, or when explanations by the teacher or by the text books are no sufficiently clear. The theory of insight learning lays especial emphasis upon understanding to achieve success.

14. The teacher should not be frustrated if in spite of his hard labour, pupils show progress and do not understand a particular problem. The progress of growth is always slow.

15. Insight lays emphasis on maturation. If the child is not mature enough let him grow by waiting. Maturation is an important factor in the ability to perceive clearly the relationship in the total situation and thus achieve insight.

16. Development of insight is possible when goal are clearly defined. When the learner accepts the goal, he will exert energy to achieve the goal. The student should be led to discuss both the

immediate and ultimate goals of learning. The teacher should preview the activities involved and the problems to be faced. In this way, he should lead the pupil to see the total situation at the beginning. For examples; teaching a novel and teaching Chemistry where preview is needed.

17. The theory helps the learner to develop reasoning, thinking and imagination powers and thus their creative potentials are always encouraged.

VIII. Criticism

Some of the main objections against the gestalt theory are the following;

1. Gestalt is a composite of Psychology and Philosophy of Education.
2. Every kind of learning for example; reading, writing, speaking etc., cannot be satisfactorily explained by the laws of Gestalt.
3. Some scholars opine that the insight inherent in gestalt cannot be ascribed to children and animals because they lack power of thought. However it is often observed in daily life that even very young infants display insight in many of their activities.
4. Trial and error is an essential element in gestalt at one stage or the other.

Social Learning Theory (Bandura)

People learn through observing others' behavior, attitudes, and outcomes of those behaviors.

"Most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others,
One forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded
Information serves as a guide for action." (Bandura). Social learning theory explains human behavior in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental influences.

Necessary conditions for effective modeling:

1. Attention — various factors increase or decrease the amount of attention paid. Includes distinctiveness, affective valence, prevalence, complexity, functional value.

One's characteristics (e.g. sensory capacities, arousal level, and perceptual set, past reinforcement) affect attention.

2. Retention — remembering what you paid attention to. Includes symbolic coding, mental images, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, motor rehearsal
3. Reproduction — reproducing the image. Including physical capabilities, and self observation of reproduction.

4. Motivation — having a good reason to imitate. Includes motives such as A past (i.e. traditional behaviorism), promised (imagined incentives) and vicarious (seeing and
recalling the reinforced model)

Bandura believed in "reciprocal determinism", that is, the world and a person's behavior cause each other, while behaviorism essentially states that one's environment causes one's behavior, Bandura, who was studying adolescent aggression, found this too simplistic, and so in addition he suggested that behavior causes environment as well. Later, Bandura soon considered personality as an interaction between three components: the environment, behavior, and one's psychological processes (one's ability to entertain images in minds and language).

Social learning theory has sometimes been called a bridge between behaviorist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation. The theory is related to Vygotsky's Social Development Theory and Lave's Situated Learning, which also emphasize the importance of social learning.

Theories of Motivation

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Summary: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (often represented as a pyramid with five levels of needs) is a motivational theory in psychology that argues that while people aim to meet basic needs, they seek to meet successively higher needs in the form of a hierarchy.

Originator: Abraham Maslow in 1943.

Key terms: deficiency needs, growth needs, physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, self-actualization

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham H. Maslow felt as though conditioning theories did not adequately acapture the complexity of human behavior. In a 1943 paper called *A Theory of Human Motivation*,

Maslow presented the idea that human actions are directed toward goal attainment. Any given behavior could satisfy several functions at the same time; for instance, going to a pub could satisfy one's needs for self-esteem and for social interaction.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs has often been represented in a hierarchal pyramid with five levels. The four levels (lower-order needs) are considered *physiological needs,* while the top

level is considered *growth needs*. The lower level needs need to be satisfied before higher order needs can influence behavior. The levels are as follows (see pyramid in Figure 1 below).

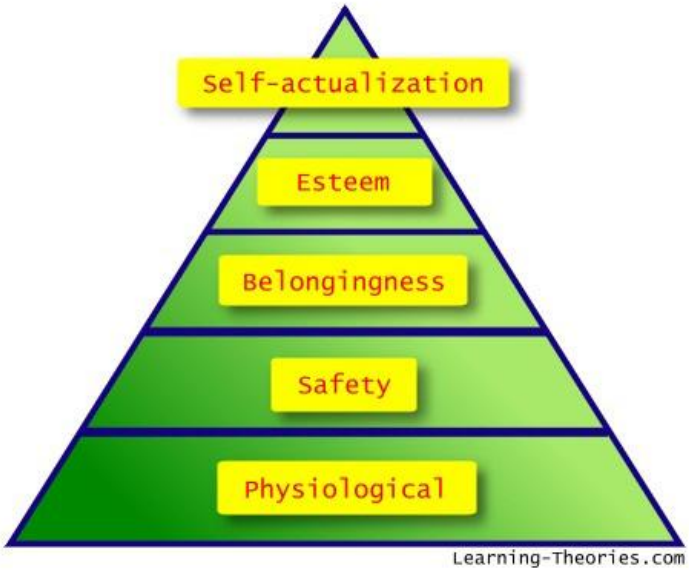
• **Self-actualization** – morality, creativity, problem solving, etc.

• **Esteem** – includes confidence, self-esteem, achievement, respect, etc.

• **Belongingness** – includes love, friendship, intimacy, family, etc.

• **Safety** – includes security of environment, employment, resources, health, property, etc.

• **Physiological** – includes air, food, water, sex, sleep, other factors towards homeostasis, etc.



Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid.

Deprivation Needs

The first four levels are considered *deficiency* or *deprivation needs* ("D-needs") in that their lack of satisfaction causes a deficiency that motivates people to meet these needs.

Physiological needs, the lowest level on the hierarchy, include necessities such as air, food, and water. These tend to be satisfied for most people, but they become predominant when unmet. During emergencies, *safety needs* such as health and security rise to the forefront.

Once these two levels are met, *belongingness needs*, such as obtaining love and intimate relationships or close friendships, become important. The next level, *esteem needs*, include the need for recognition from others, confidence, achievement, and self-esteem.

Growth Needs

The highest level is *self-actualization*, or the self-fulfillment. Behavior in this case is not driven or motivated by deficiencies but rather one's desire for personal growth and the need to become all the things that a person is capable of becoming (Maslow, 1970).

Criticisms

While a useful guide for generally understanding why students behave the way that they do and in determining how learning may be affected by physiological or safety deficiencies,

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs has its share of criticisms. Some have noted vagueness in what is a "deficiency"; what is a deficiency for one is not necessarily a deficiency for another.

Secondly, there seem to be various exceptions that frequently occur. For example, some people often risk their own safety to rescue others from danger.

Hen berg's Two-Factor Theory

On the basis of extensive interviews with some 200 engineers and

Accountants employed in l l industries in an around Pittsburgh area, U.S.A.,

Frederick Herzberg and his associates developed a two factor and 3 model of motivation. In the interviews they were asked about what kind of things on their job made them unhappy or dissatisfied and what things made them happy or satisfied. From the analysis they found that reported good feelings were associated with job content factors4. Reported bad feelings, on the other hand, were associated with the peripheral aspects of the job-the job context factors. The intrinsic job content factors are the job satisfiers or motivators and the extrinsic job context factors are the dissatisfies or hygiene factors. Taken together, they became known as Herzberg's dual factor theory.

Frederick Herzberg and his associates developed a two factor model of

Hygiene Factors

Company policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, security, status, salary, and interpersonal relations are considered as maintenance factors. They are not an intrinsic part of a job, but they are related to the conditions under which a job is performed. Maintaining a hygienic work environment will not improve motivation. He found that the presence of hygiene factors will prevent dissatisfaction but do not increase satisfaction or motivation and the absence of which, increase dissatisfaction with the job. Hence he called these factors as dissatisfies/maintenance factors.

Motivators

Motivators are associated directly to the content of job itself. These factors include achievement, recognition, advancement, work itself, responsibility, growth etc. The presence of motivators leads to satisfaction whereas the absence of which will prevent both satisfaction and motivation. According to Herzberg's theory, only challenging jobs that have the opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth will motivate personnel.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION (ATKINSON & MCCLELLAND – 1953)

In contrast with theories of motivation based on biological and behavioural determinants are theories of motivation based on cognitive and social cognitive perspectives. Covington (1998) cited the following study, reported by Ferdinand Hoppe, as one of the precursors to the study of achievement motivation and "the key to the question of how, psychologically, humans define success and failure" (p. 27):

Professor Lewin's laboratory was crowded with the research paraphernalia of his time, including an odd conveyor-belt device. This contraption allowed a series of pegs to move on circular rollers at a uniform rate and speed, much like a row of ducks in a shooting gallery…

Hoppe (1930) invited an assortment of local trades people and university students to practice tossing rings on the moving pegs at various distances from the target. He found that some subjects felt satisfied after placing, say, eight rings, while others expressed extreme frustration at only twelve correct tosses. Additionally, Hoppe found that the performance level needed to arouse feelings of success changed over time for each individual. A score that was initially judged a success might well be considered unacceptable on a later practice trial. (p. 28)

Covington (1998) noted several factors of motivation derivable from Hoppe's findings (pp. 28 – 32):

1. *Levels of Aspiration* – Judgments of success or failure depend less on actual levels of performance, and more on the relationship between the individual's performances and aspirations. Feelings of success come when goals are achieved. Feelings of failure come when they are not.
2. *Self-Confidence* – "Self-confidence reflects the extent to which individuals believe themselves able enough mentally to win the prize, strong enough to turn back the foe, or possessing sufficient hand-eye coordination to toss enough rings correctly" *Expectancy* –

"The term expectancy generally refers to perceived estimates of eventual success—how sure individuals are of doing well in the end, but not necessarily that they themselves are the cause of their success"

3. *Realistic Challenges* – "The key to sustained involvement in learning requires that a realistic match be established between the individual's present capabilities and the demands of the achievement task" *Self-Generated Goals* – Hoppe's subjects set their own achievement goals, and altered them as necessary. The result was that "their aspirations spiralled upward just ahead of current achievement levels, but not so far ahead that their temporary goals could not be reached and surpassed through persistent effort and practice" In this manner, Hoppe's subjects were constantly performing at their current maximum.
4. *Control of One's Own Progress* – The feeling of control of one's own progress that came by way of setting one's own goals generated a positive dynamic that sustained involvement in the task.

These same principles from Hoppe's study can also be found in a theory of achievement motivation that is more well known, namely, Atkinson and McClelland's theory of achievement motivation, also known as *need achievement, need for achievement,* and *n Achievement*. This theory comes from a broad program of research on achievement motivation that was initiated in the 1940s by McClelland and was first summarized in the 1953 publication by McClelland et al. of *The Achievement Motive* (J. W. Atkinson & Feather, 1966, p. vi). Achievement motivation is a theoretical model intended "to explain how the motive to achieve and the motive to avoid failure influence behaviour in a situation where performance is evaluated against some standard of excellence" (J. W. Atkinson, 1957, p. 371). More specifically,

Achievement-oriented activity is activity undertaken by an individual with the expectation that his performance will be evaluated in terms of some standard of excellence. It is presumed that any situation which presents a challenge to achieve, by arousing an expectancy that action will lead to success, must also pose the threat of failure by arousing an expectancy that action may lead to failure. Thus achievement-oriented activity is always influenced by the resultant of a conflict between two opposed tendencies, the tendency to achieve success and the tendency to avoid failure. Normally, achievement-oriented activities are also influenced by other *extrinsic* motivational tendencies, which are attributable to other kinds of motive and incentive. The

theory of achievement motivation focuses primarily upon the resolution of the conflict between the two opposed tendencies that are inherent in any achievement-oriented activity, but it also emphasizes the importance of extrinsic sources of motivation to undertake an activity, particularly when the resultant achievement-oriented tendency is negative. (J. W. Atkinson & Feather)

McClelland's Theory of Needs

In his acquired-needs theory, David McClelland proposed that an individual's specific needs are acquired over time and are shaped by one's life experiences. Most of these needs can be classed as achievement, affiliation, or power. A person's motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions are influenced by these three needs.

McClelland's theory sometimes is referred to as the three need theory or as the learned needs theory.

Achievement

People with a high need for achievement seek to excel and thus tend to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations. Achievers avoid low-risk situations because the easily attained success is not a genuine achievement. In high-risk projects, achievers see the outcome as one of chance rather than one's own effort. High individuals prefer work that has a moderate probability of success, ideally a 50% chance. Achievers need regular feedback in order to monitor the progress of their achievements. They prefer either to work alone or with other high achievers.

Affiliation

Those with a high need for affiliation (need harmonious relationships with other people and need to feel accepted by other people. They tend to conform to the norms of their work group. High individuals prefer work that provides significant personal interaction. They perform well in customer service and client interaction situations.

Power

A person's need for power can be one of two types - personal and institutional.

Those who need personal power want to direct others, and this need often is perceived as undesirable. Persons who need institutional power (also known as social power) want to organize the efforts of others to further the goals of the organization. Managers with a high need for institutional power tend to be more effective than those with a high need for personal power.

Thematic Apperception Test

McClelland used the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) as a tool to measure the individual needs of different people. The TAT is a test of imagination that presents the subject with a series of ambiguous pictures, and the subject is asked to develop a spontaneous story for each picture. The assumption is that the subject will project his or her own needs into the story.

Psychologists have developed fairly reliable scoring techniques for the Thematic Apperception Test. The test determines the individual's score for each of the needs of achievement, affiliation, and power. This score can be used to suggest the types of jobs for which the person might be well suited.

Implications for Management

People with different needs are motivated differently.

- High need for achievement - High achievers should be given challenging projects with reachable goals. They should be provided frequent feedback. While money is not an important motivator, it is an effective form of feedback.
- High need for affiliation - Employees with a high affiliation need perform best in a cooperative environment.
- High need for power - Management should provide power seekers the opportunity to manage others.

UNIT 3- HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

THE UNITS OF BEHAVIOUR - In either case it is concerned with the individual or neural patterns of response, and in the latter case it must consider the collective patterns of response. In this chapter we shall review the fundamental and general individual or neural (primarily neuro-muscular) patterns of response. In later chapters we will consider the more specific and derivative (primarily neuro-psychic) individual patterns of adjustment.

The units of behaviour discussed in this chapter are random movements, reflexes, instincts, and tropisms. It has been the custom of some social psychologists to consider all more complex forms of behaviour as constructed rather mechanically from pre-existing instinct patterns by a process of assembling. This atomic conception has been almost as strongly marked with reference to behaviour as it has been in regard to matter. As a matter of fact the complex patterns of acquired behaviour are integrated originally and in the main from much simpler and in part from less definite units of behaviuor than the instincts, namely, reflexes and random movements and impulses.

TROPISMS - There are two views regarding the nature of tropisms. Jennings and others consider the tropism to be "any reaction in which orientation of the body or of direction of movement with respect to the external factor occurs, whether by trial and error or otherwise." This definition, however, does not distinguish the tropism essentially from habit, or for that matter from any other type of behaviour. It is decidedly too broad and to accept it would be essentially to make tropic behaviour synonymous with all behaviour whatever. Loeb's view of the tropism, that it is a forced movement or orientation of the organism dependent upon its general symmetry or the symmetry of the orientation mechanism, appears to be the better one. Tropisms are also generally regarded as determined by inherited structure and mechanisms. According to the symmetry view of Loeb, animals walk forward in approximately a straight line or the moths fly into the flame because of their bilateral symmetry and the bifocal nature of their vision. Asymmetrical animals also have tropic responses in some variation of the normal curve of behaviour from that of the symmetrical ones, according to the kind and degree of variation from symmetry which they possess. The more or less spiral movement of the paramecium serves as an illustration of this variation.

Loeb has isolated a considerable number of types of tropic response. He speaks of heliotropism, or forced orientation due to light; galvanotropism, relating to the influence of an electric current; geotropism, which he thinks has some of its best illustrations in the growth behavior of plants; stereotropism ; chemotropism; and thermotropism. Animals may of course be negatively as well as positively tropic and certain organic or physico-chemical changes within the organism may so modify the capacity of the organism to respond to stimuli that the negative form may be changed into the positive form of tropism, or vice versa.

Tropisms, according to Loeb, may occur in both plants and animals. Likewise thev are to be found in animals without nervous systems as well as in those possessing differentiated nervous systems. In the former case the tropism must function on the basis of excitation gradients developed in the nonneural protoplasm or on the basis of temporary axes established in the undifferentiated nervous processes. Where reflexarcs and patterns have been established in a nervous system these necessarily serve in the process of forced orientation. Responses will of necessity occur on the basis of existing behaviour patterns where stimuli can be effective through them. Doubtless most tropisms do occur on the basis of reflexes, and possibly of instincts, which serve as mechanisms of response.

TROPISMS AND HUMAN BEHAVIOR— Whether we conceive of tropisms as playing any considerable part in the behaviour of the highest animals and man does not depend on whether we limit them to inherited behaviour patterns, as is sometimes supposed. If we conceive of tropisms as including all forced or rigidly determined behaviour arising out of the symmetry of the organism, and based on acquired as well as on inherited patterns and structure, tropistic response among human beings would normally cover as wide a range of behaviour as among other animals. Man performs acquired as well as instinctive activities according to the general limitations of his structure quite the same as other animals. He moves straight forward towards an object, faces it, hears with both ears, sees with both eyes, and orients himself accordingly. The only difference is that he may learn fairly easily to vary such symmetrical responses when he finds it to his advantage to do so.

It is impossible to characterize tropisms strictly on the basis of the inheritance or non-inheritance of their constituent behaviour mechanisms. The tropism is not a stimulus-response process in the same sense that reflexes and instincts are. It makes use of stimulus-response mechanisms, but the essential fact about it is that it is response in a *certain direction,* on the basis

of whatever neural or other mechanisms are essential to it, determined by the symmetry or specific degrees of asymmetry of the organism and its sensory equipment. In the degree, therefore, to which this structural symmetry is hereditary the tropism will itself be determined by inheritance. But the behaviour mechanisms which set the tropism into action may be either inherited or acquired. They are not a part of the tropism proper, but a means to its operation. The essential thing about the tropism is the forced orientation, not the content of the neural mechanism operating within it.

On this basis it seems justifiable to regard tropistic behaviour as being equally as characteristic of man as of other animals. But the opportunity, and perhaps the necessity, for modifying tropistic responses by acquired behaviour is doubtless much greater in the case of man, who is primarily a habit-forming animal. A child crawling toward the light or a man taking the shortest path between two points or approaching a fire in cold weather will serve to illustrate the persistence of tropistic response in the human type. On the other hand, man has doubtless lost the capacity to respond tropically to various chemical stimuli. And it is certain that in the present complex world he inhibits many tendencies to spontaneous and direct response to stimuli which in a less sophisticated world would not be inhibited. The tropism is merely the general form of the movement of the organism as a whole as determined by the animal's structure. The random movement, reflex, instinct, and habit are the specific mechanisms by which the animal responds tropically.

RANDOM MOVEMENTS AND IMPULSES may be regarded as raw materials for larger integrated behaviour patterns. They are termed random because as movements and impulses they do not appear to be directed to any particular adjustment end. They seem to arise out of the excess general energy of the organism and its specific drives and to be determined structurally more or less by its metabolism on the one hand and by the general conformation of the various protoplasmic systems or organs and tissue structures on the other. For example, the structure of the somatic organization as a whole, the bones, joints, and the placement of muscles, as well as the existence of predetermined neural connections, set the limits of such random movements as kicking, turning the head, wriggling the toes, moving the arms and fingers, and even such vocal acts as crying, sighing, shrieking, and early monosyllabic expressions. These types of behaviour are not entirely random, for they are clearly delimited by such structural characteristics of the organism as those mentioned. And yet they are in no sense truly adaptive, because they occur as

an expression of the inner forces of metabolism rather than as an effort or predisposition to do some particular thing. Random behaviour is of course, a characteristic of early childhood and does not normally appear to any considerable extent in older children or in adults. If it does occur in the latter it is a sign of temporary nervousness or of chronic neural disorganization and is distinctly pathological. Normally random behaviour of all kinds, except possibly in part that of the higher cortical processes, should become integrated and transformed into definite and economical patterns as the individual reaches the age when one ordinarily makes an effective adjustment to his environments.

While random behaviour is not purposive and is not functional or adaptive in any specific sense, it is not without a general function. It is the raw material out of which habits are to a large extent built. The specific methods by which random behaviour is organized into adaptive and purposive habits or acquired behaviour will be presented in the discussion of the processes and methods of imitation. But it is possible at the present time to indicate the general method by which the integration of random behaviour into definite or purposive behaviour occurs. The child in moving his head or hands or in kicking in a random way brings parts of his body into contact with objects and establishes useful stimulus-response processes which thereupon are repeated, at first with little or no awareness of their significance, but later frequently in a highly purposive way. In this manner the child learns to reach out for objects which have given it satisfaction and to appropriate them, or it acquires the definite coordination of crawling and walking. In a similar way, it develops the random cry or shriek and other random articulations into a more or less rich language content, because it observes that certain types of cries and sounds bring desirable results. The early life of the child is a period of strenuous practice in evolving all sorts of definitely coordinated movements and vocal expressions out of the raw material of random behaviour as a means to a favourable adjustment to its environment. The child comes into the world relatively helpless and would be unable to survive without the aid of others, but it is equipped with a random behaviour capital which it gradually develops through practice until under normal conditions it becomes a well integrated and relatively self-sufficing individual, but always of course in a social world.

REFLEXES - Another behaviour unit of a simple character is the reflex which occurs in animals with nervous systems. The reflex arc is a highly specialized mechanism of the stimulus-response type. That is, a definite stimulus such as a pin prick or the dryness of the eyeball

produces a definite and predictable response, in these instances in the form of withdrawal or of winking. It is a purely unconscious behaviour process and is in no sense purposive, although it is highly adaptive and regulatory in character. We speak of simple reflex arcs, but as a matter of fact such do not ordinarily function in isolation. Nearly always they integrate with other reflexes or with other behaviour patterns in the organism.

The origin of reflexes in the organism has been most clearly described by Child. The reflex arc and integrations of reflex behaviour in an organism are products of the trend of development of that organism. "They are consequences and expressions of all that has gone before. The receptor and effector connections of each reflex arc, the interrelations of different arcs, whatever their adaptive evolutionary significance, must all have a physiological basis in the developmental processes and are evidently outgrowths of the general organismic pattern. In fact, the physiological continuity in the individual between the physiological or metabolic gradient and the reflex arc is evident. The physiological gradient is the general physiological foundation on which the reflex arc develops. If we consider development in its functional, rather than in its structural aspects, it appears that the gradient is the primitive and generalized excitation arc out of which the various reflex arcs develop by specialization of function and differentiation of structure. In short, the physiology of development of the reflex arc has its starting point in the excitability of protoplasm, the differential action of environmental factors upon it and the resulting physiological gradient or gradients . . . . From the physiological viewpoint, then, the reflex arcs and the reflex behaviour of any particular organism, like other characteristics of the individual, are determined by this primary behaviour and from the viewpoint of heredity, by the hereditary constitution of the protoplasm. Here, as elsewhere, heredity determines the possibilities in each case and behaviour in the broad sense determines the realization of possibilities in each individual."

THE FUNCTION OF THE REFLEX would therefore appear to be to give some sort of stability to the behaviour of the organism in a standardized environmental situation. This is the function also of the axial gradient which arises within the protoplasmic systems of the organism and which precedes the organization of the more definite and fixed reflex arcs and their combinations. Organisms must be able to respond repeatedly in the same way to the same or similar environments, or they will suffer disintegration and destruction. Continuity of life is, at least in the lower and simpler forms, dependent upon continuity of behaviour patterns.

Consequently permanent gradients and reflex arcs and behaviour systems arise to insure this integrity and continuity of the organism and of its type.

But variability in behaviour is also necessary to survival, particularly in the higher and more complex organisms which are compelled to make rapid and frequent changes in their adjustments to changing and complex environments. This flexibility is sometimes secured, at least in the less specialized lower organisms, by modifying the protoplasmic gradient, but in complex types it can also be secured by building up new integrations of acquired reflex arcs and systems. In this way the reflexes are merged into acquired or habit behaviour mechanisms often of a more complex constitution. Where, as in the case of man, the requisite modifiability of behaviour mechanisms cannot be obtained on the basis of acquired combinations of reflex arcs, a greater degree of flexibility of neural organization appears in the cerebral cortex in the form of unconnected and modifiable synapses out of which new and highly diverse and variable control patterns or habits are integrated to supplement the modified and reintegrated reflex patterns on a lower level. Such possibilities of modification of behaviour are especially necessary in the highly complex and changing social environments of man. The human animal could not possibly respond environments on a purely reflex basis or on the basis of recombination of his reflexes. His reflexes are valuable to him mainly in that they give him economical and unconscious mechanisms for taking care of the routine and simpler affairs of adjustment, chiefly the physiological ones, while he handles the more complex and pressing adjustment problems through the organization of acquired patterns in the cortical neurons. Even these cortical patterns may be reduced to routine uniformity and relegated to the unconscious. There they mediate adjustments in much the same manner as the original reflexes, when they can be sufficiently standardized and stereotyped, that is, where the adjustment to the environment which they mediate can remain sufficiently constant to make this fixity of type and unconscious functioning possible.

THE RELATION OF REFLEXES TO RANDOM MOVEMENTS— A question may be raised as to the relationship between random behaviour and reflexes. It is not always easy to distinguish the two categories, but in general we may say that random behaviour is less specific and less adaptive than reflexes, which are both highly specific and adaptive. However, random behaviour often includes or makes use of reflexes, and in some cases perhaps it approaches pretty closely to the reflex in character. No random movement is entirely random or

uncontrolled. Nor, perhaps, is any reflex absolutely invariable. Both random movements and reflexes serve as raw materials for the building of habit mechanisms, but the acquired behaviour built out of reflexes is necessarily more limited in scope and more predetermined than that arising out of the raw materials of the random movements, because the latter are themselves less fixed and more freely modified in the habit building process.

INSTINCTS differ from reflexes primarily in their greater degree of complexity. Like reflexes they are definite and apparently inherited stimulus-response or neural behaviour mechanisms, by means of which a specific stimulus produces a specific and definite response. They also normally operate without the exercise of consciousness. If consciousness appears in the behaviour processes it is because the original or inherited behaviour pattern has been modified or is being interfered with in the adjustment situation. The fact that we find a consciousness of the end or of the process involved in the operation of most so-called instinct mechanisms is not to be regarded as proof that instincts, unlike reflexes, have a conscious element in their constitution, but that in our human and complex social world adjustment to a rapidly changing environmental complex is not possible on the rigid basis of unmodified instinct. Very few instincts remain intact in the human adult. The modifying pressures of environment are too insistent. The simpler reflexes may keep their original form, but even they are constantly reorganized into new acquired combination patterns or habits, as was pointed out above. The instinct is itself just such a combination or organization of reflexes. But this organization has been determined by biological selection and is therefore fixed in the inheritance instead of being determined directly by environment, and therefore acquired.

Such inherited organizations of reflexes into instincts are in the form either of complexes and sets or of chains. An instinct composed of a chain of reflexes may be illustrated by the swallowing instinct, where the completion of one reflex sets in operation another, until the total act of swallowing is completed. An instinct composed of a complex or constellation of reflexes may be illustrated by digestion, where the presence of food in the viscera sets up a number of reflexes more or less simultaneously rather than in series. Instincts composed of chains of reflexes and of constellations of reflexes differ essentially only in the relative degree of consecutiveness with which the reflexes come into operation.

INSTINCTS ARE NOT PURPOSIVE, but like reflexes they are adaptive. They serve a definite function in the adjustment process. Like the reflexes they constitute a method of

standardizing and economizing the behaviour of organisms in adjusting to fairly permanent and constant environmental conditions. In this way they aid in preserving the integrity of the organism under stable environmental conditions, and prevent its destruction by random responses to stimuli. They also render adjustments more economical of energy and of time. But even less able are the instincts to withstand the rapidity and irregularity of change which modern complex and highly differentiated social environments bring to bear upon the human organism as the result of its intellectual development and the consequent accumulation of culture which it has created and symbolized and objectified. Since instincts are larger and more complex units of fixed behaviour the necessity for breaking them up into constituent units is all the greater under these conditions. As a result not many complex animal instincts survive in the human type. Those that remain relatively intact control the comparatively fixed physiological functions connected with eating, breathing, digestion, circulation, excretion, reproduction, and other vegetative processes. Even these functions are subjected to increasing degrees of acquired control under modern environmental conditions. We modify our tastes and our foods, we injure our digestions and "doctor" them up again, we acquire diseases of the circulatory system, our food and lack of exercise induce constipation and other kindred disorders, and so on indefinitely. In the sphere of the somatic adjustments of the organism as a whole to its environments, the original processes have been even more extensively modified, with the result that few instincts appear as units in our somatic behavior. Habits and acquired behavior of the sort described under the discussion of reflexes have taken their place.

AN ERRONEOUS VIEW OF INSTINCT - Some writers persist in speaking of these modified behaviour processes as instinctive or inherited. Such usage, as is shown elsewhere, is of course untenable. Instincts must be defined in terms of their structure, since it is the biological structure only which is inherited. We cannot inherit ideas, values, or the ends of adjustment behaviour processes, because these are conceptual and not structural facts. Yet those who speak of the modified behaviour patterns as instinctive frequently do so because they define the instinct in terms of its function rather than of its structure. This is a metaphysical rather than a scientific usage and has no basis in fact. To speak of instincts as teleological or purposive is unwarranted. If the instinct is not a conscious behaviour pattern, neither can it involve within its own organization any foresight of ends. Nor can it control its own organization and functioning in the interest of these ends. If the teleological concept of instinct also involves a moral or aprudential

judgment regarding the worth or value of the behaviour, by the same token it is impossible to attribute this moral or prudential quality to the instincts. Such judgments are based on acquired knowledge regarding consequences and relationships and thus grow out of the experience of the individual or the collective experience of mankind which is transmitted culturally to the individual. Such complex forms of consciousness, arising out of relatively modern situations which have not had an opportunity to select attitudes and responses into the individual organism, cannot be a part of man's instinctive equipment. The metaphysical and unscientific character of the teleological view of instinct becomes easily apparent once we analyze it.

DISINTEGRATION AND ADAPTATION OF INSTINCTS IN MAN - Some of the instincts themselves have apparently disintegrated in man under the pressures of the new environments and man's heredity has correspondingly changed. Or, perhaps we should say, following the general line of argument of Child, that certain of the behaviour patterns which seem to be congenital and have therefore commonly been called instincts have failed to develop in the human protoplasms in the course of the growth of the organism because the environments no longer call them into existence. Whether we speak from the standpoint of the disintegration of instinctive behaviour patterns in the inheritance or from that of the failure of specific behaviour patterns to develop in the protoplasm under the influence of environmental pressures, it is quite clear that the human infant is helpless in a world where the young of the lower types of organisms are able to survive of their own initiative. The "instincts" which would enable it to go in search of food and to appropriate it and to escape from danger are lacking. The explanation of this fact is that the human infant is born into and is adjusted to a human and social environment, while the offspring of the lower animals are born into and adjust themselves to the natural environments. The human mother and the various social agencies and institutions through their ministrations to the child take the place of the "instincts" which it lacks or has failed to develop because its environment did not offer it the proper stimulus. If we take the view that the heredity of the child has been changed, we have here a clear case of the disintegration or breaking down of instinctive behaviour patterns into their constituent reflexes under the pressures of a changed environment. This environment no longer calls for such behaviour patterns, but builds its own patterns out of the constituent elements of the now vestigial instincts as a means of securing a more efficient and economical adjustment of the organism to its environment.

We find a similar marked change in the method of adaptation to environment in connection with what we call the delayed instincts, such as those of sex. These behaviour patterns are riot matured until the human offspring approaches maturity in the remainder of his structures and behaviour mechanisms. In the meantime his social environments, especially the psychosocial, have built up in him those habitual and acquired attitudes regarding sex which are conventional in his social milieu. The result is that the maturing of the sex instincts comes after his behavior patterns in this field are already relatively fixed, with the consequence that the sex activity of the lower animal type is largely inhibited or diverted into substitute channels as sublimations or perversions. In this case environment has been beforehand with nature and has already built up its own system of behaviour which the tardily maturing instincts ordinarily are not able to overturn or set aside.

ACQUIRED BEHAVIOR PATTERNS— The conclusion which apparently we are compelled to draw from these facts is that the significance of instinctive behaviour for man has been vastly overestimated. Instincts, like reflexes, undoubtedly have served a useful function in the adjustment processes of lower animal types, especially in the case of the simpler responses under relatively constant environmental conditions. But as environment became more complex and fluid or flexible for higher types of animals, and as the complexity of both organism and environment grew up and changed together, instincts no longer served adequately the higher functions of adjustment. They hindered rather than aided the coordinated and concomitant changes in environment and organism. It became necessary to discard them, or to reduce them to their constituent reflexes, or to inhibit their development and functioning, as was thecase with the delayed instincts. The reflexes could, in large measure, still remain, because their greater simplicity made it possible for them to be organized into new and acquired composite patterns by environmental pressures or selection. Thus habits have largely supplanted the instincts and the independent or isolated reflexes as human behaviour patterns. Modern culture and civilization are built primarily, if not wholly, out of acquired behaviour patterns. Civilization itself has sometimes rightly been termed a complex of acquired characteristics.

THE SOURCE OF ACQUIRED BEHAVIOR PATTERNS— The acquired behaviour patterns, which are dominant in modern human behaviour, do not arise out of nothing. They are developed from underlying behaviour patterns which can be organized into habits and habit complexes by the environmental pressures. These underlying patterns, as we have seen, are

random movements, reflexes, instincts, and other simpler antecedent habits. How the inherited behaviour patterns are organized into acquired patterns was shown in a general way in connection with the antecedent discussion of each of the underlying types of behaviour patterns. The modern derivative control environments, especially the formative institutions which are organized within these composite or derivative control environments, are vast social mechanisms with the specific function of seizing upon the inherited behaviour patterns through the selective stimuli which they offer the organism and of organizing these patterns of behaviour into more inclusive derivative acquired behaviour complexes or sets to dominate the behaviour of individual organisms in social situations. It is always the organism which acts, or reacts, but this behaviour is always on the basis of a stimulus or a set of stimuli which is to the organism the environment. This is true even when one part of the organism or its behaviour is stimulus to the behaviour of another part or the whole of the organism. Thus acquired behaviour complexes are integrated within the individual organism and are, properly speaking, individual habits. But they also function in collective situations and are therefore a part of the data of sociology and social psychology. Because they are organized in individuals by the pressures of a social environment they occur in essentially the same form or in similar forms in the various members of groups, with the result that in the aggregate they constitute collective or social behaviour. Habits, acquired under the pressures of social environments, especially under the dominance of the psycho-social environment, are pre-eminently social, not only in their origin, but also in their collective modes of expression and in the social effects which they produce when themselves operating in the role of environment.

THE METHOD OF ACQUIRING HABITS is that known as the conditioning of responses. It has long been known that old responses may be adjusted to new stimuli and that new responses may be integrated and adapted to old stimuli. Pavlow demonstrated the mechanism experimentally. He showed that by ringing a bell at the same time that meat was shown to a dog, the dog would come in time to respond with a flow of saliva to the sound of the bell even when the meat was not present. Here was an old instinctive response occurring through association upon the presentation of a stimulus not originally biologically adequate. This is the simplest or positive method of conditioning a response. It is also a simple form of habit acquisition. A simple negative method of conditioning responses is to modify the response by a process of substitution of one response for another, as in the case of a rat learning the maze. Protopathic

stimuli or blind alleys cause the rat to modify its responses, either by selecting a substitute response pattern for the one already in use, or by making a combination of old response patterns. These combination responses are made up of the original and acquired behaviour patterns referred to in the previous section. Both positive and negative conditioning of responses may become highly complex and result in the acquisition of compound habits or responses. This may be called the abbreviated or abstract and symbolic method of conditioning responses. But always the acquired response is a conditioned response. It is never made out of nothing, but is always a modification or a combination of sonie behaviour pattern or set which existed before.

The process of conditioning responses or the integration of new habits begins in the earliest days of infancy, probably even before birth, and continues throughout life. But it is especially active for most people in the earliest years of their lives, that is, before they get their adjustment to their worlds. It apparently begins postnatally in the act of nursing and of crying and develops from one movement and vocalization to another. Random movements and vocalizations are especially valuable material out of which to integrate new composite or variational responses, but reflexes, and even instincts, must not be neglected in an account of the formation of habits. The fact that the original behaviour patterns of man are so simple and rudimentary facilitates greatly the process by which he acquires new habits by means of the mechanism of the conditioned response. This simplicity of his inherited patterns is closely correlated with his neural flexibility or synaptic incompleteness. Animals with greater fixity of neural connections and with correspondingly more complete response patterns are relatively less capable of learning new habits, that is, of conditioning new responses to their environmental stimuli.

ACQUIRED NON-OVERT BEHAVIOR PATTERNS— Acquired behaviour patterns are not merely overt, or neuro-muscular, response systems. Behaviour is also psychic, or neuro-psychic, in character. Perhaps we should say that the behaviour merges at one extreme into the almost purely cortical, with a minimum of overt or symbolical activity, just as at the other extreme it is almost wholly muscular and glandular with a minimum of cortical and conscious direction. Or, perhaps it is wholly automatic, mediated entirely through the lower neural centers. Those acquired behaviour patterns which have a large and visible element of overt or striated muscular adjustment in them and which are integrated clearly with reference to the overt adjustments of the organism to its environment we ordinarily call habitual. This is the popular understanding of the term habit. But there are also neuro-psychic habits or organizations and

integrations of symbolic behaviour or inner adjustment patterns which have not yet been realized in complete overt expression. They are preliminary to the complete overt or neuro-muscular adaptation of the organism to its environment. In their conscious aspects they consist of a survey, perhaps in terms of words, of the possibilities of such adjustment and a weighing or evaluation of the significance of various contemplated or projected behaviour patterns for adjustment purposes. These are attitudinal or neuro-psychic behaviour patterns and involve a minimum of muscular activity. When speaking in terms of consciousness they might perhaps better be called value complexes instead of merely habit complexes, although they are as truly acquired as any overt behaviour patterns. Merely for purposes of distinction this term value complex will be used frequently in this book.

The term habit itself is here employed, not to indicate an acquired behaviour pattern which has become so fixed by repeated functioning as to be relatively automatic, although this appears to be the popular usage. It is used rather in the technical sense of an acquired behaviour pattern, regardless of whether it has functioned only once or many times.

Motivation

Concepts of Motivation

The term ‘motivation’ comes from the word ‘motive’. The motive is developed as an internal state of our mind that enhances and directs our behaviour. It helps us to functions the action. It is always internal and it shows our external behaviour. The people willingness to do the efforts towards the achieving the goal of themselves is called motivation. There are some definitions on motivation that provide the meaning of motivation in an effective way. Fred defined motivation as a method that begins with a physiological or psychological deficiency or desire that activates behaviour or a drive that helps in achieving the goal incentive and so on. Stephen P. Robbins defines that one willingness for exerting high levels of efforts toward goals of the company through the effort of satisfying the need of person. Gray and Starke tells that the outcome of internal or external method of the individual, that creates enthusiasm and persistence for pursuing the best course of action. From the above-given definitions, motivation can be described as the will for exerting towards the achieving of personal goal or need of individual and company.

Motivation is an inspiration that helps to use the employees' knowledge and skill for the growth and development of the organization. It is an act of persuading the people who work in the organization. It is defines as the psychological process that hell to increase the will to do work. It is the process of inspiring people from which the people can use their ability. It is an important function of management,. The employees who are engaged in the organization must be motivated. Without motivation, their ability and skill can't be used properly. Every employee has the capacity to do work. It is the process that helps the employee to explore their talent.

"The concept of motivation is mainly psychological. It relates to those factors or forces operating with the individual employee or subordinate which impel him to act or not to act in certain ways." —Delton e. McFarland

Importance of motivation

1. Proper utilization of production factor: Motivation is the mechanism which is used to stimulate the employees. Stimulated employees are ready to use the production factor properly and efficiently. So it results in increase in production and productivity.
2. Willingness and interest creation: Motivation stimulates the employees in an organization. It influences the willingness of employees to work hard and help to present better performance. It is a process that acts according to desire of employees and increases the willingness and interest of employees to do work.
3. High productivity: When the employees are fully motivated there is better performance. It results high production and productivity increment.
4. Organizational goals: The machine, equipment, money cannot be effectively used when the employees are not motivated to do the work in an organization to the maximum extent .so it helps to achieve the organizational goals.
5. Readiness for change: Changes are required in every organization. Such changes may be in technology, environment etc. when the changes are introduced in the organization there is tendency to resist them by the employee or hesitate to accept the change. Motivated employees are already made ready to accept the change.
6. Efficiency in work: Motivated employees perform their duties according to the goals of the organization. They perform work efficiently and timely and increase the efficiency

7. Reduce absenteeism: – Motivated employees don't want to be absent frequently. In other words, Motivated employees stay in the organization more and non-motivated employees are careless for the organizational goals.

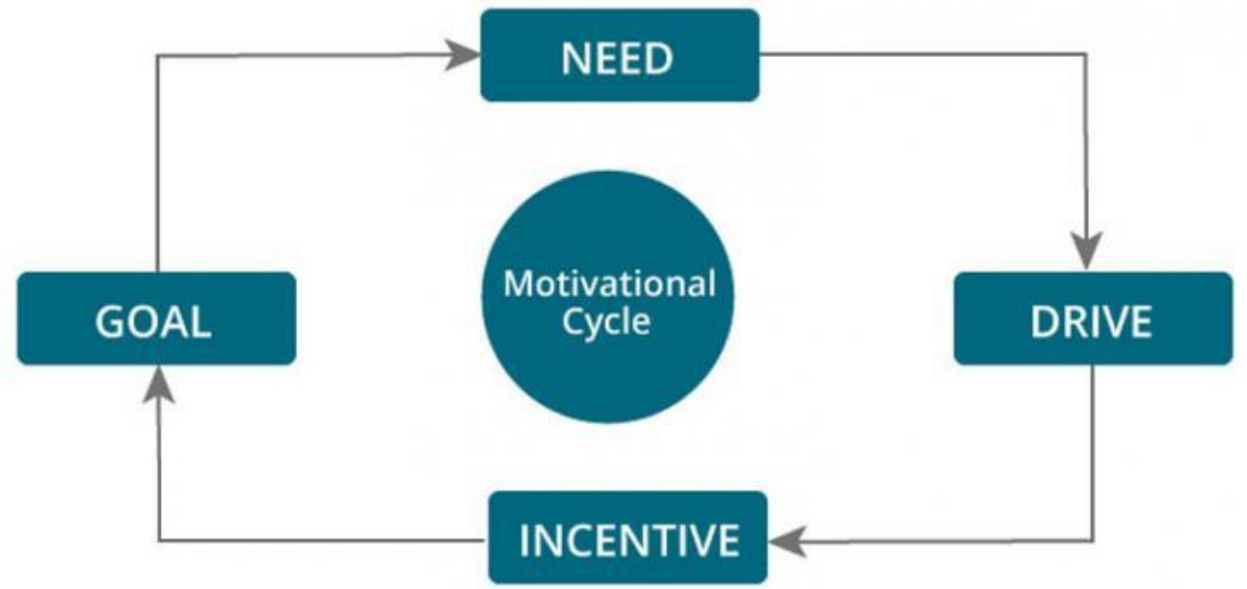
8. Employees' satisfaction: Employee's satisfaction is an important aspect for the managerial point of view. Employees may be motivated by fulfilling their needs and giving satisfaction in their work. In short motivated employees are always satisfied.

9. Less disputes and strikes: disputes and strikes are harmful for organizational activities. When the employees are not motivates they are dissatisfies which creates disputes in the organization.

10. Better human relation: all employees must be treated as human beings by the organization. Motivation I mainly related to behave the human beings.

Motivation Cycle

As stated earlier, motivation helps in achieving the goals of the organization. The basic aspect involved in the process is motives, goals and behaviour. Motives: The human behaviour all aspects is motivated. It does not need motivation for growing the hair but the method for getting a hair cut does. Motives help people to put into the action. Hence, these are the core concept of the process of motivation. Motives are the method for determining the thrust that helps reach a goal. The desire for food and water are converted into the hunger and thrust motives. Similarly, the need for friends means the drives for affiliation. Goa ls: Motives is related to the objective or goals. Motives affect in the physiological or psychological method so it creates the imbalance. Achieving goals maintain the balance. For instances, a goal arises when the human being require for food or water or when the individual personality is deprived of friends or companions. Behavior: Behavior is the task that must be undertaken. Behaviour helps or is related to achieving a goal or objective of a company. For instances, the people goes to barber for cutting their hair. The processes of motivations are shown in the figure:



Importance of motivation:

The motivation is essential for various important factors some of them are given below as,

Profitability and productivity

Motivational tools help the company for leading in profitable operations. The motivated employee does their duties with full responsibility. The self-responsibility is developed among the workers by contributing for the optimum utilization of given resources such as materials, money, machines, man and others. Motivation helps in developing the working efficiency of workers. The workers which are motivated develop their skill in improving their working efficiency. The development of working efficiency between the employees enhances in maximizing the production and productivity. Management can grow organizational task in wide areas for profitability and growth.

Types of Motivation

Extrinsic

There are two primary types of motivation. Extrinsic Motivation is geared toward external rewards and reinforcer's. Some examples of external rewards are money, praise, awards, etc. Some examples of external reinforcer's are policy and procedures, disciplinary action, speeding tickets, boundary-setting, etc.

Extrinsic Motivation is said to be less effective because it comes from outside the person. External reinforcer's, for instance, are usually in the form of control. Laws are there for social control...Policies and procedures are there for internal controls and regulations... household rules are in place to provide limits and consequence for stepping over the line.

People don't usually like to feel controlled. It's an invitation to rebel, or dig in our heels, or become defiant. Most of use prefer to use our own map of the world...not have to conform to someone else's ideas about how it should be. We need to explore our blocks to success and how we may be sabotaging ourselves.

According to Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory many external rewards (e.g, salary, job security, benefits) don't really motivate but if they're not there the person can become *de-motivated*. Herzberg calls these "hygiene factors".

Intrinsic

Intrinsic Motivation is geared toward internal rewards and reinforcer's. We can celebrate our success when we do well and we can beat ourselves up when we don't.

Some examples of internal rewards are enjoyment, achievement, a sense of competence. Some examples of internal reinforcer's are "Shoulds", "Musts", & "Oughts", a guilty conscience, and Toxic Shame.

Internal rewards are associated with high academic and occupational achievement. It seems motivation is strongest when we do it for the fun of it...or for the feeling of accomplishment. Maybe it's a hobby, or a career path, or our purpose in life.

Addiction

When it's something we really like we can even feel driven to do it. Or get addicted to it, whatever "it" is... In other words, motivation does not always lead in a positive direction. Remember that an addiction is an unhealthy "love-and-trust" relationship with an object or an activity. Love and trust are very strong intrinsic rewards that are tied into our neural networks for survival.

Survival needs, such as the need to eat, is an internal reinforcer because it causes pain in the form of hunger when we don't eat. We get a internal reward when we enjoy what we are eating.

The same is true when we resist something we are addicted to. The pain is in the form of cravings or withdrawal symptoms and the reward is in the feeling we get when we engage.

However, in the late stages of addiction we no longer get the reward but the reinforcer gets stronger.

Subconscious Motivations

Addiction is an example of subconscious motivation...we may not know "why we do it" or "how that could happen" when we find ourselves in trouble again. This is because it would be too uncomfortable for us to know that we are dependent on an object or activity so our faithful servant - the subconscious mind - "protects us" from that reality with a system of defense mechanisms we refer to as denial.

Other subconscious types of motivations might include various neural networks created early in life which are now part of Implicit Memory - such as...

- An accident-prone person may have a subconscious desire to hurt or punish himself for guilt over some long-past misdeed or mistake.
- A person who uses food for comfort may have a subconscious "part" of themselves...a neural network...that learned early in life to substitute food for the nurturing that wasn't available.
- Someone who pushes others away may have a part of themselves that sabotages opportunities for intimacy in order to protect from abandonment.

It has long been known that the subconscious mind uses defense mechanisms to ward off pain and anxiety. These defensive strategies are learned programs that run automatically from neural networks that we intuitively refer to as "parts".

All of us can remember explaining that "one part of me wants to do X... but another part of me holds me back". These "parts" are programs installed on conflicting neural networks. There are various forms of therapy for "integrating" these parts to resolve subconscious conflicts.

Most of us have heard of the "Carrot-or-Stick" types of motivation. Conventional wisdom suggests that some people are motivated more by the stick and others by the carrot. "Stick People" respond better to external and internal *reinforcer's* while "Carrot People" respond better to external and internal *rewards*.

Another way to look at this is the "Toward or Away From" orientation. Stick people are oriented to move *away from* pain. Carrot people move *toward* pleasure. There are times when each orientation is necessary. For example, if your goal is to manage your weight it's more effective to

adopt a "toward pleasure" orientation because the closer you get to your goal (e.g., a healthy lifestyle), the stronger your motivation becomes. If you take the "away from" orientation...the further you get away from a weight you don't like, The weaker your motivation becomes.

In the case of Risk Management in a hospital it's better to have "Away From" pain people running the show because they are better at identifying potential hazards. Carrot People tend to be idealists who can set the course, but Stick People are good at seeing the bumps in the road.

Frustration leads to aggression

Frustration is the feeling of irritation and annoyance when something blocks you from achieving a goal. In the previous scenario, your goal of turning in your research paper on time is being hindered by the printer's malfunction. You throw your backpack down in exasperation and proceed to kick it several times. This is an example of frustration turning into aggression. Aggression is a malicious behaviour or attitude towards someone or something, usually triggered by frustration.

As noted in the definition of aggression, frustration doesn't have to be a behaviour. It can be an attitude. For example, a dog that is trying to protect its family's home may feel threatened by the mailperson and will bark fiercely whenever he or she comes around. This is aggression in the form of an attitude or outlook. The dog's bark is malicious in its desires to hurt the mailperson if he or she comes any closer.

Now that we have the definitions of frustration and aggression down pat, the definition of the frustration-aggression theory may seem obvious. The frustration-aggression theory largely implies that aggression is often a result of frustration. This theory was proposed by psychologists Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mower, and Sears in their 1939 book *Frustration and Aggression.*

When people perceive that they are being prevented from achieving a goal, their frustration is likely to turn to aggression.

The closer you get to a goal, the greater the excitement and expectation of the pleasure. Thus the closer you are, the more frustrated you get by being held back. Unexpected occurrence of the frustration also increases the likelihood of aggression.

Frustration does not always lead to aggression, particularly when we deliberately suppress it because either we know that it is wrong or we fear the social consequences of being aggressive (e.g. losing friendship of target, criticism from others). As a result, we often displace aggression into other activity, such as sports, driving fast and so on.

Some people are more predisposed to aggression and find it harder to contain it. For such people, frustration is more likely to that lead directly to aggression than for other people with a calmer disposition or greater self-control.

Concepts of conflict:

There is a difference between conflict and frustration. The latter (frustration) is the product or the consequence of the dissatisfaction of needs, whereas, the former (conflict) is the process, or one of the factors responsible for causing frustration.

Conflict is the operation of two incompatible action systems, it may be drives; needs, values, tendencies and impulses. The individual finds it difficult to make a choice between two conflicting situations.

A conflict is caused under two situations.

First, it (conflict) arises when there is an urge to fulfill the two equally important objectives, needs, drives, values, tendencies and impulses. This situation of conflict is exemplified in the following situation.

Second, conflict arises when two different goals are set to fulfill a single need. For example, a young girl wants to establish herself as a social scientist. There are many ways through which she can get recognition. She can work hard as a committed researcher and achieve her objective, or can seek the influence of the higher authority in the department and get the academic recognition, without working on it.

Mental disorder and crime

The relationship between mental health and crime, as with that between the brain and crime, is one that is both complex and controversial. The media has, unfortunately, often represented this link in a negative way, leading to the perception that people committing certain types of offences are all mentally ill. This is, of course, far from the case. Yes, some individuals with mental health problems do commit serious crime; there is no doubt about that. But far more people who suffer with these conditions don’t, and pose no danger to other people at all. The misperceptions and misunderstandings that surround the links here do, I believe, really need to be tackled so as to reduce the stereotyping that is so often their result.

UNIT 4 – Perception and Learning

Sensory Process:

Sensory Processing – or Integration as it is also known – is the effective registration (and accurate interpretation) of sensory input in the environment (including one's body). It is the way the brain receives, organizes and responds to sensory input in order to behave in a meaningful & consistent manner.

Memory:

Learning and memory are closely related concepts. Learning is the acquisition of skill or knowledge, while memory is the expression of what you've acquired. Another difference is the speed with which the two things happen. If you acquire the new skill or knowledge slowly and laboriously, that's learning. If acquisition occurs instantly, that's making a memory.

Types of Memory

Memory actually takes many different forms. We know that when we store a memory, we are storing information. But, what that information is and how long we retain it determines what type of memory it is. The biggest categories of memory are short-term memory (or working memory) and long-term memory, based on the amount of time the memory is stored. Both can weaken due to age, or a variety of other reasons and clinical conditions that affect memory.

Memory Types

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

Long-Term Memory

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

Short-Term Memory

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

Types of Long-Term Memory

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

Explicit Memory

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

Implicit Memory

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

Autobiographical Memory

Most of us have one part of life that we remember better than others. Find out if you have a "memory bump"!

Memory & Morpheus

Researchers have come to believe slumber actively helps our brains consolidate what we learn and remember. Can sleep hurt or help memory?

Intelligence:

Intelligence is expressed in the ability to learn. Smart people learn faster and learn more than not so smart people. Intelligence is manifest in the ability to acquire complicated skills and excel in performance by practice and progressive improvement. Competent people are smart people who have the discipline to practice and improve their performance. In demanding, professional environments the nicest people tend to be the smartest and most competent. There are exceptions.

Various Source of Learning:

General culture

How cultures reflect and shape the psychological processes of their members. The main tenet of cultural psychology is that mind and culture are inseparable and mutually constitutive, meaning that people are shaped by their culture and their culture is also shaped by them. Cultural psychology is the study of the way cultural traditions and social practices regulate, express, and transform the human psyche, resulting less in psychic unity for humankind than in ethnic divergences in mind, self, and emotion.

Mass Media:

Mass media is the means used to communicate to the general public. In this lesson, you will learn the different platforms for mass media and the influence that mass media has on society. Through *mass media*, news outlets have a major influence on the general public and a major

impact on the public's opinion on certain topics. In many cases, the *mass media* is the only *source* that the general public relies on for news

Media influence and media effects are topics relating to mass media and media culture effects on individual or audience thought, attitudes and behavior.

Media influence is the actual force exerted by a media message, resulting in either a change or reinforcement in audience or individual beliefs. Media effects are measurable effects that result from media influence, or a media message. Whether that media message has an effect on any of its audience members is contingent on many factors, including audience demographics and psychological characteristics. These effects can be positive or negative, abrupt or gradual, short-term or long-lasting. Not all effects result in change: some media messages reinforce an existing belief. Researchers examine an audience after media exposure for changes in cognition, belief systems, and attitudes, as well as emotional, physiological and behavioral effects.

Affective disposition theory (ADT)

The concept of affective disposition theory is used to differentiate users' perspectives on different forms of media content and the differences within attention focus.] The theory consists of four components that revolve around emotion: (1) media is based on an individual's emotions and opinions towards characters, (2) media content is driven from enjoyment and appreciation from individuals, (3) individuals form feelings about characters that are either positive or negative and (4) media relies on conflicts between characters and how individuals react to the conflict.

Simulation theory (ST)

Simulation theory argues that mental simulations do not fully exclude the external information that surrounds the user. Rather that the mediated stimuli are reshaped into imagery and memories of the user in order to run the simulation. It explains why the user is able to form these experiences without the use of technology, because it points to the relevance of construction and internal processing.

Psychological theory of play

The psychological theory of play applies a more general framework to the concept of media entertainment. This idea potentially offers a more conceptual connection that point to presence. The activity of playing exhibits consistent results to the use of entertainment objects. This theory states that play is a type of action that is characterized by three major aspects:[6]

1. It is intrinsically motivated and highly attractive.
2. It implies a change in perceived reality, as players construct an additional reality while they are playing.
3. It is frequently repeated.

The psychological theory of play is based upon the explanations given by eminent people such as Stephenson, Freud, Piaget, and Vygotsky. The theory is based on how an individual uses media for their satisfaction and how media changes within a person's life according to its contents. Play is used for pleasure and is self-contained. People are influenced by media both negatively and positively because we are able to relate to what we see within the environment. Through looking more in depth at the different forms of playing; it becomes apparent that the early versions of make believe play demonstrate the child's need for control and the desire to influence their current environment.

Values conducive to crime: Few people including criminals generally approve of serious crimes like burglary and robbery. Surveys and interviews with criminals suggest that beliefs favoring crime fall into three categories. And data suggest that each type of belief increases the likelihood of crime.

First, some people generally approve of certain minor forms of crime, like certain forms of consensual sexual behavior, gambling, "soft" drug use, and—for adolescents—alcohol use, truancy, and curfew violation.

Second, some people conditionally approve of or justify certain forms of crime, including some serious crimes. These people believe that crime is generally wrong, but that some criminal acts are justifiable or even desirable in certain conditions. Many people, for example, will state that fighting is generally wrong, but that it is justified if you have been insulted or provoked in some way. Gresham Sykes and David Matza have listed some of the more common justifications used for crime. Several theorists have argued that certain groups in our society—especially lower-class, young, minority males—are more likely to define violence as an acceptable response to a wide range of provocations and insults. And they claim that this "subculture of violence" is at least partly responsible for the higher rate of violence in these groups. Data in this area are somewhat mixed, but recent studies suggest that males, young people, and possibly lower-class people are more likely to hold beliefs favorable to violence. There is less evidence for a relationship between race and beliefs favorable to violence.

Third, some people hold certain general values that are conducive to crime. These values do not explicitly approve of or justify crime, but they make crime appear a more attractive alternative than would otherwise be the case. Theorists such as Matzo and Sykes have listed three general sets of values in this area: an emphasis on "excitement," "thrills," or "kicks"; a disdain for hard work and a desire for quick, easy success; and an emphasis on toughness or being "macho." Such values can be realized through legitimate as well as illegitimate channels, but individuals with such values will likely view crime in a more favorable light than others.

Specialized skills for learning:

Social learning theory is a theory that attempts to explain socialization and its effect on the development of the self. There are many different theories that explain how people become socialized, including psychoanalytic theory, functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interaction theory. Social learning theory, like these others, looks at the individual learning process, the formation of self, and the influence of society in socializing individuals.

Social learning theory considers the formation of one's identity to be a learned response to social stimuli. It emphasizes the societal context of socialization rather than the individual mind. This theory postulates that an individual's identity is not the product of the unconscious (such as the belief of psychoanalytic theorists), but instead is the result of modeling oneself in response to the expectations of others. Behaviors and attitudes develop in response to reinforcement and encouragement from the people around us. While social learning theorists acknowledge that childhood experience is important, they also believe that the identity people acquire is formed more by the behaviors and attitudes of others.

Social learning theory has its roots in psychology and was shaped greatly by psychologist Albert Bandura. Sociologists most often use social learning theory to understand crime and deviance.

Social Learning Theory and Crime/Deviance

According to social learning theory, people engage in crime because of their association with others who engage in crime. Their criminal behavior is reinforced and they learn beliefs that are favorable to crime. They essentially have criminal models that they associate with.

As a consequence, these individuals come to view crime as something that is desirable, or at least justifiable in certain situations. Learning criminal or deviant behavior is the same as learning to engage in conforming behavior: it is done through association with or exposure to others. In fact,

association with delinquent friends is the best predictor of delinquent behavior other than prior delinquency.

Social learning theory postulates that there are three mechanisms by which individuals learn to engage in crime: differential reinforcement, beliefs, and modeling.

Differential reinforcement of crime.

Differential reinforcement of crime means that individuals can teach others to engage in crime by reinforcing and punishing certain behaviors. Crime is more likely to occur when it

1. Is frequently reinforced and infrequently punished;

2. Results in large amounts of reinforcement (such as money, social approval, or pleasure) and little punishment; and

3. Is more likely to be reinforced than alternative behaviors. Studies show that individuals who are reinforced for their crime are more likely to engage in subsequent crime, especially when they are in situations similar to those that were previously reinforced.

Beliefs favorable to crime. On top of reinforcing criminal behavior, other individuals can also teach a person belief that is favorable to crime. Surveys and interviews with criminals suggest that beliefs favoring crime fall into three categories. First is the approval of certain minor forms of crime, such as gambling, “soft” drug use, and for adolescents, alcohol use and curfew violation. Second is the approval of or justification of certain forms of crime, including some serious crimes. These people believe that crime is generally wrong, but that some criminal acts are justifiable or even desirable in certain situations. For example, many people will say that fighting is wrong, however, that it is justified if the individual has been insulted or provoked. Third, some people hold certain general values that are more conducive to crime and make crime appear as a more attractive alternative to other behaviors.

For example, individuals who have a large desire for excitement or thrills, those who have a disdain for hard work and a desire for quick and easy success, or those who wish to be seen as “tough” or “macho” might view crime in a more favorable light than others.

The imitation of criminal models. Behavior is not only a product of beliefs and reinforcements or punishments that individuals receive. It is also a product of the behavior of those around us. Individuals often model or imitate the behavior of others, especially if it is someone that individual looks up to or admires. For example, an individual who witnesses someone they

respect committing a crime, who is then reinforced for that crime, is then more likely to commit a crime themselves.

UNIT 5 - CRIMINAL CAREERS

Sexual perversion:

Perversion is a type of human behavior that deviates from that which is understood to be orthodox or normal. Although the term *perversion* can refer to a variety of forms of deviation, it is most often used to describe sexual behaviors that are considered particularly abnormal, repulsive or obsessive. Perversion differs from deviant behavior, in that the latter covers areas of behavior (such as petty crime) for which *perversion* would be too strong a term. It is often considered derogatory, and, in psychological literature, the term *paraphilia* has been used as a replacement though this term is controversial, and *deviation* is sometimes used in its place.

Sexual offence:

Sexual assault is an act in which a person sexually touches another person without that person's consent, or coerces or physically forces a person to engage in a sexual act against their will.

Psychoneurotic disorders:

The psychoneurosis are minor mental disorder characterized by inner struggles and disturbed social relationship. Two essential features of psychoneurosis are that they are precipitated by emotional stresses, conflicts and frustrations and that they are most effectively treated by psychological techniques.

Psychoneurotic symptoms are extremely varied. Some of the more frequent psychological complaints are

Anxiety, Depressed Spirits, Inability To Concentrate, Or Make Decisions, Memory Disturbances, Irritability, Morbid Doubts, Obsessions, Irrational Fears, Insomnia, Compulsions And Inability To Enjoy Social Relations.

Physical symptom which are generally essential bodily concomitants of strong emotions and conflicts, include:

Loss Of Voluntary Control Over Certain Sensory Functions, Shortness Of Breathe, Persistent Tension, Fatigue, Headaches, Gastrointestinal Disturbances And multiple Aches And Pains.

Classification of Psychoneuroses:

The four types of psychoneurosis most generally recognized are:

1. Hysteria,
2. neurasthenia,

3. anxiety and
4. psychasthenia

Treatment:

Psychiatrists and psychologists treat neuroses in a variety of ways:

The psychoanalytic approach involves helping the patient to become aware of the repressed impulses, feelings, and traumatic memories that underlie his symptoms, thereby enabling him to achieve personality growth through a better and deeper self-understanding.

Those who hold that neuroses are the result of learned responses may recondition a patient through a process known as desensitization: someone afraid of heights, for example, would be gradually exposed to progressively greater heights over several weeks.

Other learning approaches include modeling more effective behaviour, wherein the patient learns by example.

Cognitive and interpersonal approaches include discussing thoughts and perceptions that contribute to a patient's neurotic symptoms, eventually replacing them with more realistic interpretations of external events and the patient's internal responses to them.

Many psychiatrists prefer physical approaches, such as psychotropic drugs (including antianxiety agents and antidepressant and antipsychotic drugs) and electroconvulsive (shock) therapy. Many psychiatrists advocate combinations of these approaches, the exact nature of which depend on the patient and his complaint.

Psychopathic personality:

The *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, Mental Disorders* of the American Psychiatric Association defines antisocial reaction as follows:

This term refers to chronically antisocial individuals who are always in trouble, profiting neither from experience nor punishment, and maintaining no real loyalties to any person, group, or code. They are frequently callous and hedonistic, showing marked emotional immaturity, with lack of sense of responsibility, lack of judgment, and an ability to rationalize their behavior so that it appears warranted, reasonable, and justified.

This term applies to individuals who manifest disregard for the usual social codes, and often come in conflict with them, as the result of having lived all their lives in an abnormal moral environment. They may be capable of strong loyalties. These individuals typically do not show significant personality deviations other than those implied by adherence to the values or code of

their own predatory, criminal or other social group. The term includes such diagnoses as "pseudo-social personality" and "psychopathic personality with asocial and amoral trends."

Mental Diagnosis, Prognosis and Treatment of Criminal and Delinquent Behavior:

Diagnosis is the process of identifying an illness by studying its signs and symptoms and by considering the patient's history. Much of this information is gathered by the mental health practitioner (e.g., psychiatrist, psychotherapist, psychologist, social worker, or counselor) during initial interviews with the patient, who describes the main complaints and symptoms and any past ones and briefly gives a personal history and current situation. The practitioner may administer any of several psychological tests to the patient and may supplement these with a physical and a neurological examination. These data, along with the practitioner's own observations of the patient and of the patient's interaction with the practitioner, form the basis for a preliminary diagnostic assessment. For the practitioner, diagnosis involves finding the most prominent or significant symptoms, on the basis of which the patient's disorder can be assigned to a category as a first stage toward treatment. Diagnosis is as important in mental health treatment as it is in medical treatment.

Classification systems in psychiatry aim to distinguish groups of patients who share the same or related clinical symptoms in order to provide an appropriate therapy and accurately predict the prospects of recovery for any individual member of that group. Thus, a diagnosis of depression, for example, would lead the practitioner to consider antidepressant drugs when preparing a course of treatment.

The diagnostic terms of psychiatry have been introduced at various stages of the discipline's development and from very different theoretical standpoints. Sometimes two words with quite different derivations have come to mean almost the same thing—for example, *dementia praecox* and *schizophrenia*. Sometimes a word, such as *hysteria*, carries many different meanings depending on the psychiatrist's theoretical orientation.

Psychiatry is hampered by the fact that the cause of many mental illnesses is unknown, and so convenient diagnostic distinctions cannot be made among such illnesses as they can, for instance, in infectious medicine, where infection with a specific type of bacterium is a reliable indicator for a diagnosis of tuberculosis. But the greatest difficulties presented by mental disorders as far as classification and diagnosis are concerned are that the same symptoms are often found in patients with different or unrelated disorders and a patient may show a mix of symptoms

properly belonging to several different disorders. Thus, although the categories of mental illness are defined according to symptom patterns, course, and outcome, the illnesses of many patients constitute intermediate cases between such categories, and the categories themselves may not necessarily represent distinct disease entities and are often poorly defined.

The two most frequently used systems of psychiatric classification are the *International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems*(ICD), produced by the World Health Organization, and the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM), produced by the American Psychiatric Association. The 10th revision of the former, published in 1992, is widely used in western Europe and other parts of the world for epidemiological and administrative purposes. Its nomenclature is deliberately conservative in conception so that it can be used by clinicians and mental health care systems in different countries. The 11th revision (ICD-11) was slated for publication in 2018. The DSM, by contrast, has undergone five revisions since its introduction in 1952; the most recent version, DSM-5, was presented in 2013. The DSM differs from the ICD in its introduction of precisely described criteria for each diagnostic category; its categorizations are based upon the detailed description of symptoms.

The DSM is the standard resource in the United States, though it has been widely used worldwide. Its detailed descriptions of diagnostic criteria have been useful in eradicating the inconsistencies of earlier classifications. However, there are still some major problems in its everyday clinical use. Chief among them is the DSM's innovative and controversial abandonment of the general categories of psychosisand neurosis in its classificatory scheme. These terms have been and still are widely used to distinguish between classes of mental disorders, though there are various mental illnesses, such as personality disorders, that cannot be classified as either psychoses or neuroses. Furthermore, its use of broad diagnostic criteria and its lack of inclusion of diagnostic criteria based on known biological factors have been sources of criticism.

Psychoses:

Psychoses are major mental illnesses that are characterized by severe symptoms such as delusions, hallucinations, disturbances of the thinking process, and defects of judgment and insight. Persons with psychoses exhibit a disturbance or disorganization of thought, emotion, and behaviour so profound that they are often unable to function in everyday life and may be incapacitated or disabled. Such individuals are often unable to realize that their subjective

perceptions and feelings do not correlate with objective reality, a phenomenon evinced by persons with psychoses who do not know or will not believe that they are ill despite the distress they feel and their obvious confusion concerning the outside world. Traditionally, the psychoses have been broadly divided into organic and functional psychoses. Organic psychoses were believed to result from a physical defect of or damage to the brain. Functional psychoses were believed to have no physical brain disease evident upon clinical examination. Much research suggests that this distinction between organic and functional is probably inaccurate. Most psychoses are now believed to result from some structural or biochemical change in the brain.

Neuroses:

Neuroses, or psychoneuroses, are less-serious disorders in which people may experience negative feelings such as anxiety or depression. Their functioning may be significantly impaired, but personality remains relatively intact, the capacity to recognize and objectively evaluate reality is maintained, and they are basically able to function in everyday life. In contrast to people with psychoses, neurotic patients know or can be made to realize that they are ill, and they usually want to get well and return to a normal state. Their chances for recovery are better than those of persons with psychoses. The symptoms of neurosis may sometimes resemble the coping mechanisms used in everyday life by most people, but in neurotics these defensive reactions are inappropriately severe or prolonged in response to an external stress. Anxiety disorders, phobic disorder (exhibited as unrealistic fear or dread), conversion disorder (formerly known as hysteria), obsessive-compulsive disorder, and depressive disorders have been traditionally classified as neuroses.

Human Aggression and Violence:

Aggression is a phenomenon that can take many forms, ranging from relatively minor acts (such as name calling or pushing) to more serious acts (such as hitting, kicking, or punching) to severe acts (such as stabbing, shooting, or killing). The fact that aggression appears in so many forms can sometimes make it difficult to determine whether or not aggression has occurred. Violence and aggression have existed as long as mankind and the need to understand and control these forces has only continued to grow throughout history. Thanks to the advance of psychological research within the social and behavioral sciences, as well as several other scientific disciplines, we have more knowledge than ever before about the genetic, developmental, interpersonal, and

cultural causes of aggression. Yet these findings have not been integrated into meaningful discussions about how to transform aggression research into practical applications.

Crowd Behaviour:

Collective behavior is a term sociologists use to refer to a miscellaneous set of behaviors in which large numbers of people engage. More specifically, collective behavior refers to relatively spontaneous and relatively unstructured behavior by large numbers of individuals acting with or being influenced by other individuals.

The mobs are of two types:

(a) The Purposive and Active Mobs:

These are deliberately planned by some interested parties to achieve their own predeceased purpose.

Example: Opponents of a political leader purposefully attacking a big rally; or leaders of the opposition and trade union leaders direct their followers to attack government offices, public properties, etc.

(b) The Confused and Random Mobs: These are not deliberately created, nor there do any attempt in them on the part of the leaders to give direction for their followers. Due to confusion a crowd may get converged into a mob.

Example: (i) A ferocious bull may, all of a sudden, rush towards a big gathering of people who have assembled in a field to listen to a political speech. Due to fear and confusion people may become panicky. Some may consider it to be the handiwork of the political opponents and may resort to violence in a bid to register their protest against it; (ii) Sudden outbursts of people and unanticipated communal disturbances, can also be cited here.

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