

ASSESSMENT OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND ACTION PLANNING-I

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1.0 OBJECTIVES

- To understand and define social problems
- To gain deeper insight to identification of social problems
- To understand the different theory-based explanations for social problems

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of Social Psychology, social problems refer to issues that arise within society that affect the well-being and functioning of individuals and groups. These problems typically involve interactions and relationships between people, and they often result from various social, cultural, economic, or political factors.

Social problems can manifest in different forms and impact various aspects of society. Some common examples include:

1. Prejudice and Discrimination:

Prejudice refers to negative attitudes and beliefs held by individuals or groups toward others based on their perceived social group membership (e.g., race, gender, religion). Discrimination involves the differential treatment or unfair behavior towards individuals or groups based on such prejudices.

2. Inequality and Social Stratification:

Social inequality refers to the unequal distribution of resources, opportunities, and privileges among individuals or groups within a society. It can manifest in areas such as income, education, healthcare, and social status. Social stratification refers to the division of society into different hierarchical levels based on factors like wealth, occupation, or social class.

3. Stereotyping:

Stereotypes are widely held beliefs and expectations about the characteristics, traits, or behaviors of individuals or groups based on their social category. They can lead to biased judgments, assumptions, and unfair treatment of others.

4. Social Influence and Conformity:

Social influence refers to the impact of others on an individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Conformity occurs when individuals change their attitudes or behaviors to align with social norms or group expectations, even if it contradicts their personal beliefs.

5. Aggression and Violence:

Social Psychology examines the causes and consequences of aggressive behavior, including verbal and physical aggression, bullying, and violence. It explores factors like frustration, social learning, and situational cues that can contribute to aggressive tendencies.

6. Group Dynamics and Intergroup Conflict:

Understanding how groups form, function, and interact with each other is a key aspect of Social Psychology. Group dynamics explores topics such as leadership, cooperation, competition, and conflict between different groups.

Addressing social problems often requires a multi-faceted approach that involves understanding the psychological processes underlying these issues, developing interventions, promoting awareness, and advocating for social change. Social psychologists study these problems to better understand their causes, consequences, and potential solutions in order to improve social well-being and foster more inclusive and equitable societies.

Check your progress:

1. Define social problems.
2. List the common social problems.

1.2 PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

Social problems refer to issues or phenomena that are related to the social interactions and relationships between individuals, groups, and societies. These problems can include issues related to prejudice, discrimination, inequality, aggression, violence, conformity, obedience, social influence, and other social phenomena that affect individuals and groups in negative ways.

Social problems can arise from a variety of factors, including cultural differences, economic disparities, political ideologies, and individual beliefs and attitudes. They can affect people of different races, genders, religions, and social classes, and can lead to social tension, conflict, and even violence.

In Social Psychology, identifying social problems involves recognizing and understanding issues that affect individuals, groups, or societies.

1.2.1 Observational Research:

Researchers may engage in systematic observations to identify social problems. They might observe and document behaviors, interactions, and patterns that indicate the presence of a problem within a specific social context. For example, observing instances of discrimination or inequality in a workplace.

Observational research is a method commonly used in Social Psychology to understand social problems. This method involves observing and recording the behavior of individuals or groups in their natural settings without any intervention from the researcher.

There are two main types of observational research:

i. Naturalistic observation:

This involves observing individuals or groups in their natural environment without any manipulation of the environment or the behavior of the individuals being observed. This method is useful for understanding social behavior that occurs in real-life situations.

ii. Participant observation:

This involves the researcher becoming a part of the group being observed, often by living with them or spending a significant amount of time with them. This method is useful for understanding the social dynamics within a group and the meanings behind certain behaviors.

Both types of observational research can be used to understand social problems in Social Psychology. For example, researchers may use naturalistic observation to study the behavior of individuals in crowded public spaces to understand how people behave in groups. Alternatively, researchers may use participant observation to study the social dynamics within a group of individuals experiencing homelessness to understand the factors that contribute to their situation.

Observational research can provide valuable insights into social problems, but it also has limitations. Observers may be biased in their interpretations of behavior, and the presence of an observer can sometimes alter the behavior of those being observed. Nonetheless, with careful planning and execution, observational research can be a powerful tool for understanding social problems in Social Psychology.

Check your progress:

1. Define observational research.
2. Differentiate among various types of observational research.

1.2.2 Surveys and Questionnaires:

Researchers often use surveys and questionnaires to collect data on people's perceptions, attitudes, and experiences. By asking individuals about their thoughts and experiences regarding certain issues, researchers can gain insight into social problems such as prejudice, discrimination, or social isolation.

Surveys and questionnaires are commonly used research tools in Social Psychology to identify social problems. Here are some ways in which these tools can be used to identify social problems:

i. Identifying the prevalence of social problems:

Surveys and questionnaires can be used to determine the prevalence of social problems within a given population. For example, a survey can ask individuals about their experiences with discrimination, bullying, or social exclusion, providing insight into how widespread these problems are.

ii. Understanding the causes of social problems:

Surveys and questionnaires can also be used to identify the causes of social problems. Researchers can use survey data to identify patterns in the factors that contribute to social problems. For instance, a questionnaire might ask about experiences of prejudice or discrimination, and responses can be analyzed to identify common themes and underlying causes.

iii. Examining the consequences of social problems:

Surveys and questionnaires can also be used to assess the consequences of social problems on individuals and communities. Researchers can use survey data to examine the psychological, emotional, and social impacts of social problems on individuals and communities.

iv. Evaluating interventions:

Surveys and questionnaires can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions aimed at addressing social problems. For example, a survey might be used to assess changes in attitudes and behaviors after a school implements an anti-bullying program.

Overall, surveys and questionnaires are valuable tools for identifying and addressing social problems in Social Psychology. They allow researchers to gather data on the prevalence, causes, and consequences of social problems, and can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions aimed at addressing these problems.

Check your progress:

1. How do surveys and questionnaires facilitate the process of problem identification of problems?

1.2.3 Interviews and Focus Groups:

Conducting interviews and focus groups allows researchers to delve deeper into individuals' experiences and perspectives. By engaging in open-ended discussions, researchers can uncover social problems that may not be immediately evident. These methods help identify issues that people face personally or observe in their communities.

Interviews can be a useful method for identifying social problems in Social Psychology by allowing researchers to gather in-depth and detailed information from individuals who have experienced or observed the problem.

Here are some ways interviews can be used:

i. Identify the scope of the problem:

By conducting interviews with individuals who have experienced or observed the social problem, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of the extent and scope of the problem. They can ask questions to determine how prevalent the issue is and how it affects different groups of people.

ii. Explore the causes of the problem:

Interviews can also be used to explore the underlying causes of social problems. Researchers can ask questions about the factors that contribute to the problem, such as cultural norms, social structures, or individual attitudes and beliefs.

iii. Examine the impact of the problem:

Interviews can provide insight into the impact of social problems on individuals and society as a whole. Researchers can ask questions about the effects of the problem on people's mental and physical health, relationships, and quality of life.

iv. Develop interventions:

Finally, interviews can help researchers develop interventions to address social problems. By gathering information on people's experiences and perspectives, researchers can identify potential solutions and tailor interventions to meet the needs of those affected by the problem.

Focus groups are a research method commonly used in Social Psychology to gather qualitative data on participants' perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes about a specific topic or issue. They typically involve a small group of people, usually around six to ten individuals, who are guided by a moderator to discuss their thoughts and feelings about a particular issue or topic.

In terms of identifying social problems, focus groups can be a useful tool because they allow researchers to collect rich, detailed data on participants' experiences, opinions, and perspectives. By analyzing the discussions and themes that emerge from the focus group, researchers can gain insight into the social problems that people are facing, as well as the underlying causes and factors that contribute to these problems.

For example, a social psychologist interested in understanding the causes of bullying in schools might conduct a focus group with a group of students who have experienced bullying. Through the discussion, the researcher could gather information on the different types of bullying that are occurring, the impact that it has on the students, and the factors that contribute to bullying, such as social norms or cultural attitudes.

Another example, could be used to gather insights from individuals who have experienced discrimination in the workplace. By bringing together a diverse group of individuals who have experienced similar issues, researchers can gain a better understanding of the underlying causes of the problem, as well as potential solutions.

During a focus group session, a moderator will typically ask open-ended questions and encourage participants to share their thoughts and experiences. The moderator will also encourage group discussion and facilitate interaction between participants. The goal is to gather as much information as possible about the topic of interest, while also allowing participants to learn from each other's experiences.

Overall, focus groups can be a valuable tool for identifying social problems and gaining insights into people's attitudes and experiences related to these issues. By understanding the perspectives of those affected by a social problem, researchers and policymakers can develop more effective strategies for addressing these issues and creating positive change in society.

Interviews can also be a powerful tool for identifying and addressing social problems in Social Psychology by providing a deeper understanding of the problem and its underlying causes, as well as informing the development of effective interventions.

Check your progress:

1. Define focus groups.
2. What is the role of the facilitator in focus groups?
3. What are the ways in which interviews can be used?

1.2.4 Analysis of Existing Data:

Researchers analyze existing data sources such as government reports, crime statistics, health records, or media coverage to identify social problems. These sources provide valuable information about issues like poverty, crime rates, educational disparities, or health disparities.

Analyzing existing data allows researchers to examine patterns and trends in social behavior, attitudes, and experiences. There are several approaches to analyzing existing data in Social Psychology, including:

i. Meta-analysis:

Meta-analysis involves combining the results of multiple studies to identify overall patterns and trends in the research. This approach allows researchers to examine the consistency and strength of the relationships

between variables across studies, and to identify factors that may moderate those relationships.

ii. Content analysis:

Content analysis involves systematically coding and categorizing the content of written or spoken communication, such as interviews, speeches, or social media posts. This approach allows researchers to identify themes, patterns, and trends in social behavior, attitudes, and experiences.

iii. Secondary data analysis:

Secondary data analysis involves using data that has been collected for another purpose, such as government census data or survey data collected by another researcher. This approach allows researchers to examine social problems in a broader context and to test hypotheses using existing data.

iv. Longitudinal analysis:

Longitudinal analysis involves examining changes over time in social behavior, attitudes, and experiences. This approach allows researchers to identify developmental trends and to test hypotheses about the causes and consequences of social problems.

Overall, the choice of data analysis approach will depend on the research question being addressed, the available data sources, and the specific research design being used.

1.2.5 Community Engagement:

Engaging with communities and individuals directly affected by social problems is crucial for understanding their nature and impact. By listening to people's stories, concerns, and grievances, researchers can gain insight into the issues they face and identify the underlying social problems.

Engaging with the community is a crucial part of understanding social problems because it allows individuals to gain first-hand knowledge about the challenges and issues that affect different groups of people. By engaging with individuals and groups from diverse backgrounds and perspectives, people can gain a more nuanced understanding of the complex social problems that exist in their communities.

When individuals engage with the community, they can gather information about the needs and experiences of different groups, including those who are most vulnerable or marginalized. They can also learn about the social, economic, and cultural factors that contribute to these problems, as well as the different strategies and approaches that have been tried to address them.

Engaging with the community also helps to build trust and relationships between individuals and groups, which can be essential for developing effective solutions to social problems. By working together and building

strong partnerships, individuals and organizations can identify common goals and strategies for creating positive change.

Ultimately, engaging with the community is critical to understanding social problems because it allows individuals to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the issues that affect their communities, and to work collaboratively to develop solutions that are effective, equitable, and sustainable.

Check your progress:

1. Explain community engagement in the process of problem identification.

1.2.6 Comparative Analysis:

Comparing different societies, cultures, or groups allows researchers to identify social problems that may vary across contexts. By examining differences in social norms, values, and practices, researchers can identify and understand issues that are unique to certain societies or cultures.

Comparing different societies, cultures, or groups can be a valuable method for identifying social problems that may vary across contexts. By examining how different societies or groups operate and function, researchers can identify differences and similarities in social issues, which can help to inform policy decisions and social interventions.

For example, by comparing the gender roles and attitudes toward gender in different societies, researchers can identify how cultural beliefs and values impact the status and treatment of women and other marginalized groups. Similarly, by comparing the prevalence of certain health conditions or diseases in different populations, researchers can identify potential risk factors and develop targeted interventions to address them.

However, it is important to be mindful of the potential limitations and biases that can arise when comparing different societies or groups. Factors such as cultural differences, language barriers, and differing research methodologies can impact the validity and generalizability of findings. Therefore, it is important to approach comparative research with a critical and nuanced perspective.

1.2.7 Academic Literature Review:

Reviewing existing research literature in Social Psychology and related fields provides a comprehensive overview of social problems. Scholars and experts often publish studies, theories, and findings that shed light on

various social issues and offer insights into their identification and understanding.

Reviewing existing research literature in Social Psychology and related fields can provide a comprehensive overview of social problems in several ways:

- **Identifying the key issues:** Social Psychology research often focuses on key issues in society, such as prejudice, discrimination, and social influence. By reviewing the literature on these topics, one can gain a deeper understanding of the underlying causes of these social problems.
- **Examining the scope of the problem:** Literature reviews can help to identify the prevalence and severity of social problems. For example, a review of research on the effects of poverty on mental health can provide a comprehensive overview of the scope of this issue.
- **Understanding the underlying mechanisms:** Social Psychology research often explores the underlying mechanisms that contribute to social problems. By reviewing this literature, one can gain insight into the factors that contribute to these issues, as well as potential solutions.
- **Examining potential solutions:** Social Psychology research often explores potential solutions to social problems, such as interventions to reduce prejudice or increase social support. Reviewing this literature can provide a comprehensive overview of the effectiveness of different approaches to addressing social problems.

In summary, reviewing existing research literature in Social Psychology and related fields can provide a comprehensive overview of social problems by identifying key issues, examining the scope of the problem, understanding the underlying mechanisms, and examining potential solutions.

It's important to note that the identification of social problems is an ongoing and evolving process. Social problems can vary across time, culture, and context, and new issues may arise as societal values and norms change.

Check your progress:

1. List the ways in which reviewing existing literature can provide a comprehensive overview of social problems.

1.3 THEORY-BASED EXPLANATIONS FOR PROBLEMS

Social Psychology offers a variety of theoretical explanations for social problems, which are based on different perspectives and assumptions about the nature of social behavior. Here are some of the most prominent theories:

	Theory	Description
1.	Social Identity Theory	This theory suggests that people's sense of identity is largely determined by their membership in various social groups. Social problems can arise when people define their identities in opposition to other groups, leading to intergroup conflict and prejudice.
2.	Social Learning Theory	This theory proposes that people learn attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors through observation and imitation of others. Social problems can result from exposure to models who engage in problematic behavior, or from reinforcement of negative attitudes and behaviors.
3.	Cognitive Dissonance Theory	This theory posits that people experience psychological discomfort when their attitudes and behaviors are inconsistent. Social problems can arise when people hold beliefs or engage in behaviors that contradict their values or morals, leading to feelings of guilt or conflict.
4.	Social Exchange Theory	This theory suggests that people engage in social interactions to maximize rewards and minimize costs. Social problems can occur when people exploit others or when social norms and institutions create unequal distributions of rewards and costs.
5.	Social Norms Theory	This theory proposes that social norms - the unwritten rules and expectations that govern behavior - shape individual behavior and can perpetuate social problems. For example, social norms that condone aggression or substance use can contribute to social problems in those areas.
6.	Social Constructionism	This theory asserts that social problems are constructed and defined by society, rather than being inherent or objective.

		Social problems arise when individuals or groups are marginalized or stigmatized by society's constructions of their identities or behaviors.
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1.3.1 Social Identity Theory:

Social identity theory is a theory in Social Psychology that aims to explain how our identification with various social groups affects our thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. According to this theory, people define themselves in terms of the social groups they belong to, such as their race, ethnicity, gender, religion, nationality, and so on. These social groups provide individuals with a sense of belonging, self-esteem, and identity, but they can also lead to intergroup conflicts and discrimination.

Social identity theory proposes that people categorize themselves and others into social groups based on certain characteristics, such as physical appearance, language, religion, or behavior. Once individuals categorize themselves into a social group, they tend to identify more strongly with that group and differentiate themselves from other groups. This can lead to the formation of in-group favoritism, which involves the tendency to favor and support one's own group over other groups.

In addition, social identity theory proposes that people engage in social comparison, which involves comparing their own group with other groups. This comparison can lead to the perception that one's own group is superior to other groups, which can contribute to prejudice, discrimination, and intergroup conflict.

Social identity theory can help us understand social problems in Social Psychology by highlighting the importance of social groups and the ways in which our identification with these groups can influence our attitudes and behaviors. It can help explain why intergroup conflicts and discrimination occur, and how they can be reduced through strategies that promote intergroup harmony, such as increased contact and cooperation between groups, and the promotion of a shared group identity.

1.3.2 Social Learning Theory:

The social learning theory is a psychological perspective that emphasizes the role of observation and modeling in the acquisition of behavior. This theory suggests that individuals learn by observing the behavior of others and the consequences of that behavior. The social learning theory has been used to understand social problems in Social Psychology.

One social problem that can be understood through the social learning theory is aggression. According to this theory, aggressive behavior can be learned through observation and modeling. Children who observe aggressive behavior in their environment may be more likely to engage in similar behavior. Additionally, the consequences of aggressive behavior may reinforce and encourage this behavior. For example, a child who

observes that their peers who engage in aggressive behavior receive attention and praise may be more likely to engage in similar behavior.

Another social problem that can be understood through the social learning theory is prejudice and discrimination. Prejudice and discrimination can be learned through observation and modeling. Children who observe their parents or peers engaging in prejudiced behavior may be more likely to adopt similar attitudes and behaviors. Additionally, the media can play a role in the development of prejudice and discrimination. Exposure to negative stereotypes and biased information can reinforce and encourage these attitudes and behaviors.

The social learning theory also suggests that behavior can be shaped through reinforcement and punishment. This can be applied to social problems such as substance abuse and addiction. For example, if an individual receives positive reinforcement (e.g., feeling good, receiving praise) after using a drug, they may be more likely to continue using that drug. On the other hand, if an individual experiences negative consequence (e.g., feeling sick, losing a job) after using a drug, they may be less likely to continue using that drug.

Overall, the social learning theory can provide insight into how social problems are learned and perpetuated through observation, modeling, reinforcement, and punishment. By understanding these processes, psychologists can develop interventions and strategies to address social problems and promote positive behavior.

Check your progress:

1. What is the aim of the social learning theory?
2. What does the social identity theory propose?

1.3.3 Cognitive Dissonance Theory:

The Cognitive Dissonance Theory is a framework that helps to understand how people deal with conflicting beliefs, values, or attitudes. This theory was developed by social psychologist Leon Festinger in the 1950s. According to Festinger, people are motivated to reduce the discomfort or dissonance that arises from holding two or more conflicting beliefs, values, or attitudes.

In Social Psychology, cognitive dissonance theory is often applied to understand how people deal with social problems. For example, a person might hold the belief that they are a good person who cares about others, but also hold the belief that it is okay to discriminate against people of a certain race or gender. This conflicting belief can cause discomfort or cognitive dissonance. It suggests that when people encounter information

that contradicts their existing beliefs or behaviors, they experience a state of discomfort or "dissonance."

This discomfort motivates individuals to reduce the dissonance by changing their beliefs or behaviors to align with the new information, or by rejecting or ignoring the new information altogether. For example, if someone who believes that smoking is bad for their health sees their friend who is a smoker in good health, they may experience cognitive dissonance and either change their belief about smoking or find a way to dismiss their friend's good health as unrelated to smoking.

The cognitive dissonance theory can be applied to understanding social problems by examining how people respond to new information that challenges their beliefs or attitudes about the problem. For example, if someone holds a strong belief that a certain group of people are inferior, they may experience cognitive dissonance when presented with evidence that contradicts this belief, such as statistics showing that the group is not less intelligent or capable than others.

To reduce this cognitive dissonance, people may engage in different strategies, including:

- i. **Changing their beliefs:** In this strategy, a person may change their belief about the issue to reduce the dissonance. For example, they may come to believe that discrimination is wrong and therefore change their beliefs about it.
- ii. **Changing their behavior:** In this strategy, a person may change their behavior to align with their beliefs. For example, they may stop engaging in discriminatory behavior to reduce the dissonance.
- iii. **Seeking new information:** In this strategy, a person may seek out new information to help them resolve the conflict. For example, they may research the issue of discrimination and learn about the negative effects it has on individuals and society.
- iv. **Minimizing the importance of the conflict:** In this strategy, a person may downplay the importance of the conflict to reduce the dissonance. For example, they may say that discrimination is not that big of a deal and therefore minimize the importance of the conflict.

Overall, the Cognitive Dissonance Theory is a useful framework for understanding how people deal with conflicting beliefs, values, or attitudes. It can help us understand why some people might continue to hold beliefs or engage in behaviors that are harmful to others, and what strategies might be effective in reducing cognitive dissonance and promoting positive change.

Understanding cognitive dissonance can be useful in promoting social change because it can help identify the factors that contribute to resistance to change and provide strategies for reducing dissonance. For example, presenting information in a way that is consistent with an individual's

existing beliefs or values can be a more effective way of promoting change than presenting information that directly contradicts their beliefs.

Check your progress:

1. Explain the cognitive dissonance theory.

1.3.4 Social Exchange Theory:

Social exchange theory is a theoretical perspective in Social Psychology that seeks to explain social behavior in terms of the exchange of rewards and costs between individuals or groups. According to this theory, individuals engage in social interactions because they expect to receive rewards or benefits and avoid costs or punishments. Rewards may include tangible goods such as money or material possessions, or intangible benefits such as social approval, self-esteem, or love. Costs may include the effort, time, or resources required to participate in an activity, as well as the risk of rejection, disapproval, or conflict.

The social exchange theory assumes that people are rational actors who make decisions based on the expected outcomes of their actions. In other words, individuals weigh the benefits and costs of their social interactions and choose the course of action that maximizes their rewards and minimizes their costs. For example, if a person wants to make friends with someone, they might engage in behaviors that they believe will be rewarded, such as showing interest in their hobbies or offering them help with a task. On the other hand, if they believe that the costs of friendship outweigh the benefits, they may avoid or withdraw from social interactions.

The social exchange theory can be used to understand a wide range of social problems in Social Psychology. For example, it can help explain why people stay in abusive relationships despite the harm and suffering they endure. According to this theory, individuals may stay in a relationship if they believe that the rewards of the relationship, such as emotional support or financial stability, outweigh the costs of the abuse, such as physical harm or psychological trauma. Similarly, social exchange theory can explain why individuals engage in risky or self-destructive behaviors, such as drug abuse or unprotected sex. People may engage in these behaviors because they believe that the rewards of the behavior, such as pleasure or social acceptance, outweigh the costs, such as health risks or social stigma.

The main components of social exchange theory include:

1. Social exchange:

Social exchange is the process of giving and receiving in social interactions. Individuals engage in social exchange to maximize their rewards and minimize their costs. Rewards can include tangible resources, such as money and status, as well as intangible rewards, such as emotional support and companionship. Costs can include time, effort, and emotional investment.

2. Rewards:

Rewards are the benefits that individuals receive from social interactions. These rewards can be positive, such as receiving emotional support from a friend, or negative, such as experiencing social rejection or criticism. Rewards can also be tangible, such as money or gifts, or intangible, such as respect or status.

3. Costs:

Costs are the negative aspects of social interactions that individuals experience. These can include tangible costs, such as monetary expenses or time investments, or intangible costs, such as emotional stress or social rejection.

4. Comparison level:

The comparison level is a standard that individuals use to evaluate the outcomes of their social interactions. This standard is based on the individual's past experiences and expectations for the future. If the outcome of a social interaction exceeds the comparison level, the individual experiences a positive outcome; if the outcome falls below the comparison level, the individual experiences a negative outcome.

5. Comparison level for alternatives:

The comparison level for alternatives is a standard that individuals use to evaluate the outcomes of their current social interactions compared to the outcomes of other potential interactions. This standard is based on the individual's perception of the alternatives available to them. If the outcome of a current interaction is better than the outcomes of other potential interactions, the individual is likely to continue that interaction.

Overall, social exchange theory provides a useful framework for understanding how individuals make decisions about social interactions and relationships. By considering the costs and rewards of social exchange, as well as the individual's comparison level and comparison level for alternatives, researchers can gain insights into a range of social problems and phenomena.

Check your progress:

1. What is the assumption of the social exchange theory?

1.3.5 Social Norms Theory:

The social norms theory is a social psychological perspective that explains how individuals are influenced by the social norms prevalent in their respective societies. The theory posits that social norms are powerful determinants of human behavior, and that individuals tend to conform to these norms because they want to be accepted and approved by their social group. The social norms theory provides an important framework for understanding how social problems arise and persist in society, and it has been applied to a wide range of social issues, including substance abuse, bullying, and sexual violence.

Key components of social norms theory:

	Component	Description
1.	Descriptive norms	Refer to the perceptions of what behaviors are actually prevalent in a particular group or society. Individuals often conform to descriptive norms because they believe that these behaviors are widely accepted or expected by their peers.
2.	Injunctive norms	Refer to the perceptions of what behaviors are considered appropriate or desirable in a particular group or society. Individuals often conform to injunctive norms because they want to be seen as fitting in with the social group or because they want to avoid social disapproval or rejection.
3.	Pluralistic ignorance	Occurs when individuals in a group misperceive the attitudes and behaviors of others in the group, leading to a false consensus about what is considered normal or acceptable behavior. This can lead to a situation in which individuals engage in behavior that they perceive to be normative, even if it is not.
4.	False uniqueness	Occurs when individuals overestimate the extent to which their attitudes and behaviors are different from those of others in their social group. This can lead to a situation in which individuals engage in behavior that they believe to be non-normative, even if it is actually quite prevalent.

By understanding these components of the social norms' theory, researchers and practitioners can develop interventions and strategies to address social problems by targeting the social norms that underlie them. For example, interventions that aim to correct misperceptions of social norms or that provide positive injunctive norms can be effective in reducing problematic behaviors such as substance abuse or sexual violence.

Check your progress:

1. Define the key components of the social norms theory.

1.3.6 Social Constructionism:

Social constructionism is a theoretical perspective in Social Psychology that suggests that social problems arise from social constructions or interpretations of reality, rather than from objective, external realities. It proposes that the meaning of social issues is shaped by the language, beliefs, and values of the society in which they occur. Social constructionists argue that what is defined as a social problem is not simply a reflection of reality, but is instead created through the social interactions and interpretations of individuals and groups within a society.

Social constructionism is a theoretical framework in Social Psychology that emphasizes the role of social processes and cultural norms in shaping our understanding of reality. According to this perspective, the meanings and definitions we attach to things are not fixed or objective but are created and negotiated through social interaction.

In the context of social problems, social constructionism suggests that the way we define and respond to issues such as poverty, crime, and mental illness is not solely determined by objective facts or scientific evidence, but is shaped by cultural beliefs, social norms, and power relations.

For example, the way that society defines and responds to mental illness is not solely based on scientific evidence of brain chemistry or behavior, but also on cultural norms and values regarding what is considered "normal" or "abnormal" behavior. This can lead to stigmatization and discrimination against people with mental illness, which in turn exacerbates their social and psychological problems.

Social constructionism also emphasizes the role of language in shaping our understanding of social problems. The words we use to describe and label social issues can have a significant impact on how we perceive and respond to them. For instance, the label "welfare queen" is often used to describe people who receive public assistance, and this label carries

negative connotations that can shape public attitudes towards poverty and social welfare policies.

Key components of social constructionism include:

1. Language and discourse:

Social constructionism emphasizes the importance of language and discourse in shaping social reality. It suggests that language is not just a tool for describing reality, but is also a powerful tool for creating and shaping it.

2. Historical and cultural context:

Social constructionists argue that social problems cannot be understood outside of their historical and cultural context. The meaning of a social problem is shaped by the values and beliefs of the society in which it occurs, and these values and beliefs change over time.

3. Power and privilege:

Social constructionism highlights the role of power and privilege in shaping social reality. It suggests that some individuals and groups have more power than others to define what is and is not a social problem, and that this power can be used to marginalize or silence certain perspectives.

Pros of social constructionism theory include:

1. Provides a more nuanced understanding of social problems:

By emphasizing the role of language, discourse, and power in shaping social reality, social constructionism provides a more nuanced understanding of social problems than traditional approaches that focus on objective, external realities.

2. Emphasizes the importance of context:

Social constructionism highlights the importance of understanding social problems within their historical and cultural context, which can help to avoid simplistic or reductionist explanations.

3. Raises awareness of power and privilege:

By highlighting the role of power and privilege in shaping social reality, social constructionism can raise awareness of issues of social justice and inequality.

Cons of social constructionism theory include:

1. Can be seen as relativistic:

Social constructionism can be seen as relativistic, in that it suggests that the meaning of social problems is not objective or universal, but is instead shaped by the beliefs and values of the society in which they occur. This

can lead to accusations that social constructionism denies the existence of objective reality.

2. Can be criticized for being too abstract:

Some critics argue that social constructionism is too abstract and theoretical, and that it lacks concrete, practical applications for addressing social problems.

3. Can be seen as ignoring biological factors:

Critics argue that social constructionism ignores the role of biology and genetics in shaping human behavior and social reality, and that it overemphasizes the role of language and culture.

These theories, among others, help to explain the social and psychological factors that contribute to social problems, and provide a framework for understanding and addressing them.

Overall, social constructionism offers a valuable perspective for understanding how social problems are constructed and perpetuated by cultural norms and power relations, and how language and discourse can shape our perceptions and responses to these issues.

1.4 SUMMARY

Social problems refer to issues or conditions that affect society as a whole, typically leading to negative consequences for individuals, groups, or communities. These problems arise from various sources, including economic disparities, inequality, discrimination, crime, substance abuse, violence, and environmental degradation, among others.

Identifying social problems can involve recognizing patterns, assessing their impact on individuals and society, and considering the perspectives of various stakeholders. Some methods used for identification include statistical data analysis, surveys, interviews, observations, and media analysis. It is crucial to consider different cultural, economic, and historical contexts when identifying social problems.

Theories of social problems based in Social Psychology attempt to understand the underlying causes and dynamics of these issues. They explore how individual and group behavior, cognition, and attitudes contribute to the emergence and persistence of social problems. These theories, among others, help social psychologists understand the complex interplay between individual, group, and societal factors that contribute to social problems. They provide insights into the causes and consequences of these issues and inform the development of interventions and policies aimed at addressing them.

1.5 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss common examples of social problems.
2. Explain the various methods of assessing social problems.
3. What are the different types of observational research?
4. What are the ways in which surveys can be used in the process of identification of social problems?
5. Explain with examples the role of focus groups in problem identification.
6. Enumerate the several approaches to analyse existing data.
7. Explain community engagement in the process of problem identification.
8. Discuss in detail the different theory-based approaches towards assessing social problems.
9. With examples, explain the different kinds of social problems that can be understood with the social learning theory
10. What are the strategies to reduce cognitive dissonance?
11. Differentiate between the key components of the social exchange theory and social norms theory.
12. Explain the social constructionism in detail.
13. What are the pros and cons of social constructionism?

1.6 REFERENCES

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ASSESSMENT OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND ACTION PLANNING: II

Unit Structure

- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
 - 2.1.1 The process model of social problems
 - 2.1.2 The Development of the process model
- 2.2 Testing the process model
- 2.3 Developing interventions
 - 2.3.1 Examples of developing interventions
 - 2.3.2 Examples of social problems to develop interventions:
- 2.4 Summary
- 2.5 Questions
- 2.6 References

2.0 OBJECTIVES

- Understand the process model of interventions in Social Psychology.
- Explore and gain knowledge about the development of interventions for social problem.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In social psychology, the process model of social problems refers to a framework that helps us understand how social issues develop, perpetuate, and impact individuals and societies. This model typically consists of several interconnected stages or processes that contribute to the emergence and persistence of social problems. While different researchers may present slightly varied versions of this model, the general idea remains consistent.

2.1.1 The process model of social problems:

The following explains the process model of social problems:

1. Emergence:

Social problems often begin as concerns or issues within a society. These concerns can arise due to various factors such as changes in social norms, technological advancements, economic shifts, or cultural influences. A social problem emerges when a particular issue is recognized as having negative consequences for individuals or the larger community.

2. Recognition:

The recognition stage involves people acknowledging and identifying the issue as a problem. This recognition can be influenced by media coverage, personal experiences, social activism, or public discourse. As more individuals and groups recognize the issue, it gains visibility and attention.

3. Legitimization:

At this stage, efforts are made to legitimize the issue as a legitimate social problem that requires attention and action. This involves presenting evidence, statistics, and anecdotes that highlight the negative impact of the issue on individuals and society. Legitimization is crucial for mobilizing support and resources to address the problem.

4. Mobilization:

Mobilization refers to the process of individuals and groups coming together to address the social problem. This can include forming advocacy groups, organizing protests, creating awareness campaigns, and seeking policy changes. Mobilization is a key step in driving social change and influencing public opinion.

5. Resolution:

Ideally, the social problem is addressed and resolved through various means, such as policy changes, institutional reforms, public awareness campaigns, and shifts in societal attitudes. Successful resolution leads to a decrease in the negative consequences associated with the social problem.

6. Maintenance or Recurrence:

In some cases, even after initial resolution, social problems can reemerge or persist due to various factors such as complacency, inadequate implementation of solutions, or new contextual changes. This stage highlights the importance of ongoing monitoring and vigilance.

7. Evaluation and Reflection:

After the resolution or management of a social problem, it's important to evaluate the effectiveness of the measures taken. This stage involves reflecting on what worked, what didn't, and what lessons can be learned for addressing similar issues in the future.

It's important to note that this process model is a simplified representation, and the stages are not always linear or distinct. Social problems can be complex and dynamic, influenced by a variety of factors including cultural norms, power dynamics, economic structures, and individual behaviors. Social psychologists and researchers use this model as a tool to analyze and understand the development and progression of social problems in societies.

Check your progress:

1. List the steps involved in the process model of social problems.
2. Which stage focusing understanding the effectiveness of the resolution in terms of the social problem?

2.1.2 The Development of the process model:

The process model of social problems in social psychology refers to a framework that explains how social issues develop, evolve, and are addressed within society. This model helps researchers and practitioners understand the various stages and factors involved in the emergence and resolution of social problems. The development of this process model has been influenced by theories and research in social psychology, sociology, and other related disciplines. While specific models may vary in their details, they generally follow a similar progression. Here's an overview of the key components of the process model:

1. Issue Identification and Definition:

The first step in the process model involves identifying and defining a social issue. This could be any problem that affects individuals, groups, or society as a whole. The issue may arise from various sources, such as individual experiences, societal trends, or external events.

2. Salience and Perception:

Once an issue is identified, its salience—the degree to which it captures public attention and concern—becomes important. Social problems that are perceived as more relevant, urgent, or personally relevant are more likely to gain attention and drive discussions.

3. Social Construction:

Social problems are not inherent in the issue itself but are constructed through social interactions and interpretations. Various groups and stakeholders may frame the problem differently, leading to diverse perspectives on its causes, consequences, and potential solutions.

4. Moralization and Attribution:

Issues often become morally charged as people attribute blame or responsibility for the problem. This attribution process influences how society assigns responsibility and constructs narratives around the issue.

5. Collective Action and Mobilization:

As awareness of the issue grows, individuals and groups may start to mobilize and engage in collective action to address the problem. This can involve protests, advocacy campaigns, and the formation of social movements.

6. Media and Communication:

The media plays a crucial role in shaping how social problems are portrayed, discussed, and understood by the public. Media coverage can influence public opinion, policy agendas, and the overall perception of the issue.

7. Policy Formation and Implementation:

Governments and other institutions may respond to public pressure by formulating policies to address the social problem. However, the effectiveness of these policies can vary based on factors like resource allocation, stakeholder engagement, and the alignment of policy goals with the issue's root causes.

8. Evaluation and Feedback:

Over time, the implemented policies and interventions are evaluated to assess their impact on the social problem. This feedback loop informs whether further adjustments, refinements, or new approaches are needed.

9. Cognitive and Behavioral Changes:

Successful policy implementation and sustained efforts to address the social problem can lead to changes in public attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors. This might involve shifts in societal norms, increased awareness, and reduced stigmatization.

10. Resolution or Transformation:

Ideally, a social problem reaches a stage where its negative impacts are significantly reduced or eliminated. In some cases, this may involve a complete resolution of the issue. In other cases, the problem might transform into a different form or evolve into a related but distinct concern.

It's important to note that the process model of social problems is dynamic and nonlinear. Different issues can be at various stages simultaneously, and the factors influencing each stage can interact in complex ways. Additionally, cultural, historical, and contextual factors can greatly influence how a specific social problem develops and how the process unfolds.

Check your progress:

1. State the key components of the process model.

Fill in the blanks:

- 1) The process model is considered to be _____ and dynamic.
- 2) _____ stage focuses on elimination of impacts.
- 3) The effectiveness of implementation of policies is dependent on factors such as _____ & _____.

2.2 TESTING THE PROCESS MODEL

The process model of social problems in social psychology can be tested through a combination of empirical research methods. This model typically involves understanding how various factors contribute to the development, maintenance, and resolution of social problems. Here's a general outline of how one might approach testing this model:

1. Literature Review:

Begin by conducting a thorough literature review to understand the existing research on the social problem you're investigating. This will help you identify the key variables, theoretical frameworks, and proposed processes relevant to your study.

2. Hypothesis Development:

Based on your literature review, formulate specific hypotheses about the relationships between different variables in the process model. These hypotheses will guide your research.

3. Research Design:

Choose an appropriate research design that aligns with your hypotheses and the nature of the social problem. This could include experimental designs, correlational studies, longitudinal studies, or even qualitative approaches like interviews or content analysis.

4. Operationalization of Variables:

Clearly define and operationalize the variables you're studying. This involves specifying how you will measure or manipulate each variable in your study.

5. Data Collection:

Collect data according to your research design. This might involve conducting surveys, experiments, interviews, observations, or analyzing existing data sets.

6. Data Analysis:

Use appropriate statistical or qualitative methods to analyze your data. This could involve regression analyses, structural equation modeling, thematic analysis, etc., depending on the nature of your research.

7. Test Relationships:

Analyze the data to test the relationships proposed in your process model. For example, if the model suggests that perceived social support buffers the negative effects of a particular social stressor, you would test whether these relationships hold in your data.

8. Model Fit:

If you're using a theoretical model that involves a sequence of processes, consider using structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the overall fit of your proposed model to the data. SEM allows you to assess how well your hypothesized model matches the observed relationships among variables.

9. Replication:

Replicate your study with different samples or in different contexts to ensure the robustness and generalizability of your findings.

10. Conclusions:

Based on your analyses, draw conclusions about whether the data supports the process model of social problems. Discuss the implications of your findings for the broader understanding of the social problem and its underlying mechanisms.

11. Limitations and Future Research:

Acknowledge any limitations of your study, such as sample size, measurement issues, or methodological constraints. Suggest directions for future research that could further validate or refine the process model.

12. Publication and Communication:

Present your findings through academic papers, presentations at conferences, or other relevant communication channels to contribute to the field's knowledge about the process model of social problems.

Remember that testing a process model is an iterative process. It involves refining your hypotheses and methods based on the results of previous studies and contributing to the cumulative knowledge in the field.

Check your progress:

1. State the general outline of how one might approach to test the process model.

2.3 DEVELOPING INTERVENTIONS

Developing interventions for social problems in social psychology is a multi-step process that involves understanding the problem, designing effective strategies, implementing interventions, and evaluating their impact. Here's a detailed overview of the process:

1. Problem Identification and Definition:

- Identify and define the social problem that needs intervention. This could be an issue like reducing prejudice, promoting healthy behaviors, preventing bullying, or increasing cooperation among groups.
- Conduct thorough research to understand the underlying causes and factors contributing to the problem. This might involve literature reviews, surveys, interviews, and observations.

2. Theory and Framework Selection:

Choose appropriate psychological theories and frameworks that can help explain the problem and guide the intervention design. Social psychology theories, such as social identity theory, cognitive dissonance theory, and social norms theory, can provide valuable insights.

3. Goal Setting:

Define clear and measurable goals for the intervention. What specific changes or outcomes are you aiming for? Goals could relate to attitude change, behavior modification, or intergroup relations improvement.

4. Intervention Design:

- Develop intervention strategies based on the chosen theories and goals. There are several types of interventions, including cognitive interventions (changing beliefs and attitudes), behavioral interventions (promoting certain actions), and structural interventions (changing the environment).
- Tailor the intervention to the target audience's characteristics, needs, and cultural context. Effective interventions consider factors such as age, socioeconomic status, cultural background, and personal experiences.

5. Pilot Testing:

Test the intervention on a smaller scale with a representative sample of the target population. This helps identify potential issues, refine the intervention, and ensure that it is culturally sensitive and well-received.

6. Implementation Planning:

Develop a detailed plan for implementing the intervention. This includes selecting appropriate channels for delivering the intervention (workshops, online platforms, community events), identifying resources required, and establishing a timeline.

7. Intervention Implementation:

Execute the intervention according to the plan. This might involve conducting workshops, distributing educational materials, organizing public campaigns, or using technology for online interventions.

8. Data Collection and Monitoring:

Collect data before, during, and after the intervention to track changes and outcomes. This could involve surveys, behavioral observations, and interviews. Monitoring the intervention's progress allows for adjustments if needed.

9. Evaluation:

Analyze the collected data to determine the intervention's effectiveness. Compare the outcomes with the initial goals and assess whether the intervention had the desired impact.

Consider both short-term and long-term effects of the intervention. Did attitudes and behaviors change? Did the problem decrease? Were there any unintended consequences?

10. Feedback and Refinement:

Based on the evaluation results, gather feedback from participants, stakeholders, and researchers involved. Use this feedback to refine and improve the intervention for future implementations.

11. Dissemination:

Share the findings and lessons learned from the intervention with the broader community. This could be through academic publications, presentations, workshops, or media outlets.

12. Sustainability and Long-Term Impact:

Consider how the intervention can be sustained over time. For long-lasting impact, interventions may need to be integrated into existing systems or policies.

Remember that developing interventions for social problems is an iterative process. It often requires collaboration among researchers, practitioners, and the community to create meaningful and effective change.

Check your progress:

1. What are the stages of developing interventions?

2.3.1 Examples of developing interventions:

Developing interventions for social problems in social psychology involves a systematic process of understanding the underlying causes of the problem, designing strategies to address those causes, implementing the strategies, and evaluating their effectiveness. Here's a detailed explanation of the process along with an example:

Example: Addressing Bullying in Schools

Step 1: Problem Identification

Bullying is identified as a prevalent issue in a local school. Research shows that it leads to negative psychological effects on victims, bystanders, and even the bullies themselves.

Step 2: Theory and Conceptual Framework

Drawing from social cognitive theory, the intervention aims to change the attitudes and behaviors of students by addressing cognitive processes underlying bullying behavior.

Step 3: Setting Clear Objectives

Reduce instances of bullying behavior by 30% within one academic year.
Improve students' empathy and conflict resolution skills.

Step 4: Designing the Intervention

Develop a school-wide program that includes workshops on empathy and communication skills, classroom discussions about bullying, teacher training on intervention strategies, and establishing a reporting system for bullying incidents.

Step 5: Pilot Testing

Conduct a pilot program in a few classrooms to assess the effectiveness of the workshops and strategies. Gather feedback from teachers and students to make necessary improvements.

Step 6: Implementation

Roll out the intervention across the entire school, involving teachers, students, parents, and administrators.

Step 7: Data Collection and Evaluation

Collect data through surveys and observations before and after the intervention. Measure changes in reported bullying incidents, students' attitudes toward bullying, and their conflict resolution skills.

Step 8: Analysis of Results

Analyze the data and find that reported bullying incidents have decreased by 25%, and students' empathy scores have improved significantly.

Step 9: Adaptation and Improvement

Based on feedback and data, refine the workshops and strategies to make them more engaging and effective.

Step 10: Long-Term Monitoring

Continue to monitor bullying incidents and students' attitudes over the next few years to ensure that the positive changes are sustained.

In conclusion, developing interventions for social problems in social psychology involves a systematic approach of research, theory-building, strategy design, implementation, and evaluation. It's an iterative process that requires continuous monitoring and adaptation to achieve meaningful and lasting change.

2.3.2 Examples of social problems to develop interventions:

Certainly, Social Psychology can provide insights and interventions for a wide range of social problems. Here are some other examples of social problems along with potential interventions rooted in social psychology:

1. Prejudice and Discrimination:

Intervention: Contact Theory - Creating opportunities for people from different social groups to interact in positive and meaningful ways to reduce stereotypes and prejudices.

2. Bullying:

Intervention: Norm Dissemination - Promoting anti-bullying norms through educational campaigns and social influence to change the perception of bullying behavior.

3. Implicit Bias:

Intervention: Implicit Bias Training - Educating individuals about their unconscious biases and providing strategies to counteract them in decision-making.

4. Group Conflict:

Intervention: Superordinate Goals - Identifying common goals that require cooperation between conflicting groups to reduce intergroup tension and competition.

5. Ingroup-Outgroup Bias:

Intervention: Recategorization - Emphasizing shared identities and similarities between different groups to break down the "us vs. them" mentality.

6. Social Isolation:

Intervention: Social Skills Training - Teaching individuals effective communication and interpersonal skills to foster meaningful connections.

7. Diffusion of Responsibility:

Intervention: Personal Responsibility Emphasis - Encouraging individuals to take personal responsibility for helping others in emergencies through awareness campaigns.

8. Cyberbullying:

Intervention: Digital Empathy Education - Promoting empathy and ethical behavior online through educational programs and awareness campaigns.

9. Sexual Harassment:

Intervention: Bystander Intervention Training - Equipping witnesses to intervene safely and effectively when witnessing instances of sexual harassment.

10. Environmental Conservation:

Intervention: Norm Activation Theory - Highlighting the prevalence of pro-environmental behaviors to encourage individuals to adopt more sustainable actions.

11. Racial Tensions:

Intervention: Perspective Taking - Encouraging individuals to actively consider the perspectives of others from different racial backgrounds to foster empathy and understanding.

12. Cultural Stereotypes:

Intervention: Counter Stereotyping - Exposing individuals to counter-stereotypical examples and narratives to challenge and change existing stereotypes.

13. Hate Speech:

Intervention: Empathy-Based Education - Teaching individuals about the impact of hate speech and fostering empathy to promote more respectful communication.

14. Gender Inequality:

Intervention: Role Model Exposure - Exposing individuals to successful individuals who defy traditional gender roles to challenge gender stereotypes.

15. Health Behavior Change:

Intervention: Social Norms Approach - Utilizing social norms to encourage healthy behaviors by conveying that desired behaviors are common and accepted.

16. Civic Engagement:

Intervention: Social Identity Framing - Framing civic engagement as a way to express one's identity and belonging to a larger community.

These interventions are just a starting point, and their effectiveness can vary based on context and implementation. Social psychology provides a valuable toolbox for understanding and addressing a wide array of social issues through evidence-based interventions.

Check your progress:

1. State some examples of developing interventions for social problems.

2.4 SUMMARY

The process model of social problems outlines stages from emergence to resolution, emphasizing evaluation. Its development draws from social psychology and sociology, encompassing issue identification, mobilization, media influence, policy formation, and cognitive changes. Testing involves literature review, hypothesis development, data collection, and model fit assessment. Developing interventions follows problem identification, theory application, goal setting, implementation, and evaluation. Examples include addressing bullying with workshops and norm dissemination. Social problems like prejudice, bullying, and implicit bias can be tackled through interventions such as contact theory and social skills training. Overall, the process model guides understanding, testing, and addressing diverse social issues in a systematic and evidence-based manner.

2.5 QUESTIONS

1. What is the key concept behind the process model of social problems?
2. Why is testing the process model important in understanding social problems?
3. What challenges might be encountered when designing and implementing interventions for social issues?

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NATURE OF BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS AND INTERVENTIONS - I

Unit Structure

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 A behavior analysis approach to skills and intervention
- 3.3 Impact of behavior focused skills and interventions
- 3.4 Behavior intervention strategies- Antecedents and Consequences
 - 3.4.1 Behavioral intervention strategies
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 Questions
- 3.7 References

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe Behaviour Analysis Approach to Skills and Intervention.
- Understand Impact of Behaviour focused skills and Intervention.
- Explain Behaviour Intervention strategies- Antecedent and Consequences.
- Elaborate Behavioural Intervention strategies.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

You should be able to tell that applied social psychologists have plenty of work to do by watching the evening news on any given night. There are many societal issues, such as epidemics like HIV and obesity, drug use and violence in schools, wars, traffic fatalities, and environmental degradation, which have severe financial impacts in addition to the pain and loss of life they cause in people. Even if each of these societal issues is caused by human behavior, it can also play a significant role in the solution. Behavior analysts and social psychologists are especially qualified to address these issues and make a difference in enhancing the standard of living on our planet, as they are experts in the development and evaluation of behavior-focused interventions.

The behavioral approach offers creative, complementary, and typically affordable solutions for policy improvement by integrating psychological, social, and contextual explanations of human behavior into policy design. The goal of the approach is to identify potential bottlenecks in existing

systems and mechanisms of service delivery by giving emphasis to design details.

The scope is altered by this strategy. Problems that are stated too broadly or too narrowly may not be within the project's achievable parameters, respectively. It is essential to approach the issue from the standpoint of the end user and those that contact with or have influence over the user's decisions. It also gets rid of presumptions. By posing the "how" question, we may expand the universe of potential answers to test out.

The strategy uses a straightforward cycle for implementation:

1. The first stage is to define the problem by identifying the stakeholders, their relevant behaviors, and the context.
2. Then, the following stage is to diagnose the bottlenecks that prevent stakeholders from attaining the desired behavior. For this, the context is carefully examined to then provide hypotheses about which psychological concepts may cause the problem.
3. Once potential bottlenecks and drivers have been identified, it comes the time to design interventions to address the challenge.
4. In the implementation and evaluation stage, multiple interventions are carried out and assessed.
5. Subsequently, after drawing lessons from the interventions comes a stage to adapt the initial assumptions. The problem statement, hypothesized bottlenecks, and potential interventions are redefined, re-diagnosed, and redesigned until an effective intervention has been identified.

This chapter's objective is to give you a general overview of the methods utilized in large-scale behavior-based interventions. Behavior analysts have been in the forefront of using psychological concepts to alter behavior on a wide scale. As a result, we start by outlining some of the core presumptions of a behavior-analysis approach to the development and assessment of interventions. The following section outlines six intervention strategies that behavior analysts have used to successfully alter behavior. Finally, we present six social psychological concepts that can help these treatments work better. After reading this chapter, you will be able to identify the fundamental ideas and steps of a number of interventions that can be used to alter pertinent human behavior.

3.2 A BEHAVIOR ANALYSIS APPROACH TO SKILLS AND INTERVENTION

The applied behaviour-analysis approach to intervention is based on the scientific philosophy of B. F. Skinner. Instead of targeting internal events such as thoughts and attitudes, Skinner believed psychologists should focus their attention on observable behaviour. Thus, the behaviour-analysis approach to skills and interventions measures an observable

behaviour or behavioural outcome as the dependent variable.

A second principle of Skinner's approach is 'selection by consequences'. In other words, we do what we do because of the consequences that follow our behaviour. More specifically, we do what we do in order to gain positive consequences and avoid or escape from negative consequences. Interestingly, not all consequences are created equal. The most motivating consequences are those which are 'soon' and 'certain' (Geller, 2001). For example, smokers find the soon and certain consequences of relief from cravings and the pleasurable feeling of inhaling and exhaling smoke much more motivating than the distant and uncertain prospect of dying a horrible death of lung cancer or emphysema. In this case, the sizeable negative consequence of death is remote and uncertain. If the smoker believed the next drag on his cigarette would cause soon and certain illness and death, he would be likely to avoid that behaviour.

The soon and certain factors are also relevant for environmental degradation. For example, soon and certain consequences of convenience and comfort motivate many of us to drive our own vehicle. But if you believed driving your vehicle to work or university for the week would certainly cause global temperatures to rise to the point where we all cooked the following week, you might consider walking or riding your bicycle- or at least joining a car-pool. This discussion of consequences has perhaps given ideas for an intervention technique. One effective way to increase the frequency of desirable behaviour or decrease the occurrence of undesirable behaviour is to change the consequences which follow the behaviour. An alternative approach is to alter the environmental stimuli that occur before a target behaviour.

3.3 IMPACT OF BEHAVIOR FOCUSED SKILLS AND INTERVENTIONS

Behavioral focused intervention has successfully been used to treat a large number of conditions. It's considered to be extremely effective. The first and most important pro of this approach is simple: It works. Both the American Psychological Association and the United States Surgeon General categorize this as an evidence-based, best practice treatment. In other words, numerous studies have demonstrated the efficacy of this approach as an autism treatment. Every child is going to be different based on the child's age, abilities, needs, and more. There is no one-size-fits-all approach.

Additionally, this approach can be utilized to teach a wide variety of skills, ranging from finite and specific to abstract and complex. Behavioral focused intervention can be easily adapted to individual needs and goals, making it highly personalized for each person who uses it. It can be used in a variety of settings, including home, school, or community-based programs. It has been shown to help improve social skills, communication skills, academic performance, self-care abilities and behavior management. It helps individuals learn adaptive behaviors that help them become more independent and able to function better in society.

There are some Cons of a behaviour focused approach. It is not a quick fix. That is because it doesn't always teach simple, finite skills. It is worth mentioning that [the results](#) are not linear, either. Learning new things can be difficult and overwhelming. Depending on the severity of the individual's approach, it can require hours of therapy in order for it to be effective. Some people may feel uncomfortable with some techniques which involve rewards or punishments.

Despite the cons, Behaviour Approach has been proven to be an effective treatment for autism spectrum disorder (ASD). With patience and commitment from both the family and professionals involved, it can have positive results that help individuals with ASD learn new skills, improve communication abilities, manage challenging behaviors and become more independent in their communities.

3.4 BEHAVIOR INTERVENTIONS STRATEGIES - ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES

In this section, we discuss intervention strategies. Consequences control behaviour, antecedent stimuli direct behaviour. Stimuli in the environment often announce the availability of consequences. These stimuli are termed antecedents or activators, because they precede and direct behaviours necessary to obtain a desired consequence. For example, people who are overweight and dieting may fall victim to the antecedent stimulus of the sign in front of a fast-food restaurant, directing them to drive into the car park, walk into the restaurant, and open their wallets in order to get the immediately reinforcing consequence of a large burger and supersized fries. So far, focusing on observable behaviours is important, and a rationale for the importance of the events immediately preceding a behaviour (antecedents) and those which follow (consequences).

The sequence of antecedents → behaviours consequence has been termed the three-term contingency. It provides the theoretical foundation for the behaviour-change interventions developed and evaluated by applied behaviour analysts.

In order to change behaviour in a desired direction, behaviour analysts carefully define a problem behaviour and identify the antecedents that precede it and the consequences that follow. Ideally, this analysis of behaviour is accomplished through direct observation but, in some cases, surveys or interviews can be used to define the relevant antecedents and consequences of a behaviour. When the antecedents and consequences are defined, behaviour analysts attempt to change the behaviour by altering existing contingencies (e.g., by adding new antecedents or consequences).

3.4.1 Behavioral Intervention strategies:

Behaviorism generally focuses on observable behavior, rather than thoughts and emotions. It often centers on conditioning and predicting behavior based on a stimulus-and-response association. Methodological and radical behaviorism are typically viewed as subtypes of the behavioral

approach to psychology. Studies done in the field that exemplify behavioral principles may include Pavlov's Dogs, The Bobo Doll Experiment, The Skinner Box, and The Little Albert Experiment. Mental health treatment approaches that involve behaviorism can include cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT), applied behavior analysis, social learning theory, and exposure theory. If you'd like to experience the behavioral approach to mental health treatment for yourself, you may wish to try online therapy.

Most large-scale interventions designed to improve behaviour can be classified as either antecedent or consequence strategies. We outline below four antecedent strategies and three consequence strategies behaviour analysts have applied successfully to change socially important behaviours.

Antecedent strategies:

Antecedent interventions include (1) education, (2) verbal and written prompts, (3) modeling and demonstrations and (4) commitment procedures.

Education and training:

Before attempting to change a behaviour, it is often important to provide a strong rationale for the requested change (i.e., education). In some cases this involves making uncertain, remote or unknown consequences more salient to the target audience. For example, an intervention designed to increase recycling could provide information about (1) the negative consequences of throwing cans in the rubbish bin. e.g., wasted resources, energy consumption and overflowing landfills and (2) the positive consequences, e.g., energy savings, decreased pollution, reduced use of landfill space, are associated with recycling behaviour. Training is different from education in that training usually involves adding a role-playing and feedback component to verify participants can perform the target behaviour.

Educational and training information can be delivered through print or electronic media, or personally in individual or group settings. Research has demonstrated that information delivered interpersonally is more effective when it is done in small, rather than large, groups and when it actively involves participants in relevant activities and demonstrations. In addition, the effectiveness of educational and training interventions can be enhanced by tailoring the information to the target audience. For example, Daamen, Staats, Wilke and Engelen (2001) demonstrated tailored messages containing specifics about how oil pollution in a specific garage could be minimized led to more behaviour change than general messages sent to a group of comparable garages. Although providing information and promoting awareness of a problem are often important components of a behaviour-change intervention, information alone is seldom sufficient to change behaviour. This is especially true when the desired behaviour is inconvenient. Information presentations have often been combined with other intervention components.

Verbal and Written Prompts:

Procedures include any help given to learners to assist them in using a specific skill. Prompts are generally given by an adult or peer before or as a learner attempts to use a skill. Prompting procedures that have been shown to be effective with learners with ASD include least-to-most-prompts, simultaneous prompting, and graduated guidance and can include verbal, gestural, and model prompts.

A verbal prompt is any verbal assistance given that helps to use target skills correctly such as spoken words, signs, or statements. A verbal prompt includes hints, a clue, or a direction and range in intensity level from least to most restrictive. For example, providing a direction is more restrictive than providing a hint about how to identify the object. You can utilize prompts when the learner is about to respond with an incorrect response, responds with an incorrect response, or doesn't respond at all (~3 sec).

Modeling and Demonstrations:

Interventions that rely on an adult or peer providing a demonstration of the target behavior that should result in an imitation of the target behavior by the learner. Often combined with other strategies such as prompting and reinforcement

Modeling has its theoretical roots in Social Learning Theory by psychologist Albert Bandura (1977). [Social Learning Theory](#) identifies four factors in learning: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation.

- **Attention:** In order for a student to learn, they must be attentive to the teacher during instruction.
- **Retention:** The information acquired must be placed in long-term memory.
- **Reproduction:** The student must be able to reproduce the learned behavior.
- **Motivation:** Even if the above three conditions are met, the student must also want to display the learned behavior.
- In addition, characteristics of the person modeling the behavior are also important. Models that are rewarded for their actions, are considered experts, or have high status in society are more likely to be emulated.
- [Modeling Social Norms](#): Social norms are modeled by parents and educators on a daily basis. By acting as the ideal model – being polite, not raising your voice, etc. children learn what is acceptable and unacceptable in the school or home environment.
- [Gender Socialization](#): It is believed children learn gender norms through daily, implicit, cultural modeling from parents, caregivers,

siblings, and media. By watching how models behave, children learn what appears to be normal behavior for their gender, which leads them toward embracing those behaviors in their own lives.

- **Modeling Rules:** A good teacher or parent sets a high standard for the child to follow. Similarly, a good boss does not flout their own rules, or else they may lose the respect of their staff.
- **Role Modeling:** A role model may be a parent, teacher, sibling, celebrity, or sports star. They are often observed closely by the person who admires them, meaning they have greater responsibility to model everyday good behaviors.
- **Modeled Instruction:** Teachers model instruction in lessons where they first show the students how to do a task before the students themselves have gone. For example, a baseball teacher might talk the students through the right pose (stance, shoulder and elbow placement) for the pitcher before the students then each have a try.
- **Workplace Modeling:** Bosses, managers and supervisors model appropriate behavior in the workplace to set the standard for others to follow. This is necessary for a productive workplace culture.
- **Explicit Modeling:** This involves a teacher clearly and intentionally demonstrating something so the learners can follow. It's contrasted with implicit modeling.
- **Implicit Modeling:** Unlike explicit modeling, implicit modeling doesn't involve a teacher talking through their demonstrations or even asking for attention. Instead, they just set a standard through their behavior daily.
- **Chunking:** Often, demonstrations fail because the information is too much, leading to cognitive overload. To overcome this, the teacher models one step at a time then gives the learner a chance to master that step before moving onto the next.
- **Gradual Release of Responsibility:** This instructional model is a three-step process for learning. First, the teacher models a task. Then, the teacher and class attempt the class together (with the teacher still taking an active guiding role). Thirdly, each student individually has a go without the teacher's direct modeling or assistance.
- **Situated Learning:** Situated learning theory holds that learning occurs very effectively when it takes place in the context in which it's applied. For example, learners during an internship or work placement will observe someone at work, then slowly try out some of the responsibilities for themselves.

So, Modeling a learning process is an excellent instructional technique to help students learn how to do something. The teacher demonstrates, the students observe, then the students do. Modeling is a great way to help

students understand how to self-regulate emotions, and engage in non-disruptive classroom behaviour.

Commitment Procedure:

Behavioral consistency is a judgment heuristic to which we default in order to ease decision making. It is easier to make one decision, and stay consistent to it, than it is to make a new decision every single time we are presented with a problem. From an evolutionary standpoint, behavioral consistency also serves us well in a social environment, unpredictable people are less likely to be liked and to thrive among others.

Obtaining a behavioural commitment has been an effective component of many behaviour-based interventions. Geller et al. (1989) combined commitment and prompting strategies by asking individuals to sign a card promising to use their safety belts. Participants also agreed to hang the 'promise card' on the rear-view mirror of their vehicles, which served as a proximal prompt to buckle up. Results indicated students who made the commitment and displayed the prompt increased their safety-belt use by 40 per cent over baseline while non-signing controls showed no change. This is how Commitment and consistency are powerful motivators to increase engagement and persuade users to fulfil their goals.

Consequence strategies:

Now let's consider intervention techniques that employ consequence strategies. As explained above, behaviour analysts consider consequences to be the primary determinant of voluntary behaviour. In fact, many of the antecedent strategies reviewed above are presumed to work because they announce the availability of consequences associated with the desired behaviour. Following are three basic consequence strategies: penalties, rewards and feedback.

Penalties:

Interventions employing penalty techniques identify undesirable behaviours and administer negative consequences to those who perform them. Although this approach seems to be favoured by governments, behavioural psychologists have typically avoided this approach in community interventions for a variety of reasons. One practical reason is penalty interventions usually require extensive enforcement in order to be effective, and enforcement requires backing by the proper authority. For example, if you tried to reduce the wasteful disposal of cans in your community by finding people who threw their cans in the rubbish bin, you would probably have a hard time catching them, and even more difficulty getting them to pay up when you knock at their door. Although these are significant obstacles, it could be overcome by psychologists working with local governments to pass laws and hire individuals to enforce them.

The main reason behavioural psychologists have opposed the use of negative consequences is the effect it has on the attitudes and long-term behaviours of those who receive it. Instead of performing a behaviour

because of its positive consequences, they simply do it to avoid negative consequences. And, when enforcement is not consistent, behaviours are likely to return to their previous state.

Rewards:

Because of the negative side-effects associated with penalties, behavioural psychologists have typically favoured the strategy of following a desirable behaviour with a positive consequence, or reward. Rewards can come in the form of a variety of positive consequences, including money, merchandise, verbal praise or special privileges. Although reward strategies have some problems of their own, many community-based reward interventions have produced dramatic increases in targeted behaviours.

However, rewards are often preceded by antecedent messages announcing the availability of the reward upon completion of a specified behaviour. This antecedent message is termed an incentive. Similarly, an antecedent message announcing a punitive consequence or penalty for undesirable behaviours is considered a disincentive. In some cases rewards can be used without incentives. In these cases you would simply provide the reward immediately following the behaviour - without announcing its availability in advance.

Some would refer to rewards as 'positive reinforcement' and penalties as 'punishment', but this is technically incorrect. Because positive reinforcement and punishment always influence the behaviour they follow. Positive reinforcement increases future occurrences of a behaviour, while punishment decreases behaviour through the delivery of a consequence. In both cases, the correct terminology is dependent on subsequent behaviour. If a consequence does not increase or decrease the prior behaviour, positive reinforcement or punishment was technically not implemented. Thus, we avoid this technical issue by using the more popular real-world terms of rewards and penalties.

A wide range of behaviours have been targeted with incentive/reward programmes. For example, studies have shown significant beneficial impact of incentive/reward programmes to increase safety-belt use, medication compliance, commitment to organ donation, and to decrease drug use and environmental degradation. In addition, incentives and rewards are used frequently and effectively by employers to increase the productivity of their workers. Jenkins, Mitra, Gupta and Shaw (1998) used a statistical technique called meta-analysis to evaluate the effects of financial incentives on performance quantity in 39 studies. In a meta-analysis, results from various studies are combined and analysed statistically, thus providing insight into the consistency of effects across studies. Averaged across all studies, workers offered financial compensation for increased production increased their productivity by 34 per cent over those who were not offered behaviour-based rewards (Jenkins et al., 1998).

Unfortunately, there are a few disadvantages to incentive/reward

strategies. An obvious practical disadvantage of using rewards is they can be expensive to implement. This shortcoming can be addressed in part by providing rewards only after a behaviour has been completed a set number of times, or by varying the number of times a behaviour needs to be completed before a reward is offered. The technical terms for these practices are known respectively as fixed and variable-ratio reinforcement, while continuous reinforcement refers to a process in which an individual receives a reward each time he or she completes a behaviour. Although fixed and variable-ratio reinforcement schedules both produce high rates of responding, individuals who are on a fixed-ratio schedule are more likely to stop performing a behaviour immediately after receiving their reward, because they know the next reward is distant. Variable-ratio schedules are favoured by many, because the unpredictability of the reward leads to the most consistent behaviour pattern.

A second limitation of rewards is that the target behaviours on which they are contingent tend to decrease when the rewards are removed almost as dramatically as they increased when the rewards were implemented. In fact, this effect is so reliable behaviour analysts often use it as their research-design strategy. They first measure the pre-intervention level (baseline) of a target behaviour, then assess the increase in the frequency of the behaviour while rewards are in place and finally, document a decrease in behavioural occurrence when the rewards are removed. When behaviour analysts show a target behaviour occurs more often while an intervention is in place and returns to near baseline levels when the intervention is withdrawn, they demonstrate functional control of the target behaviour. The intervention is shown to be effective. Of course, an obvious solution to this reversal problem is to keep a reward strategy in place indefinitely. For example, in the United States, bottle bills, which provide a refund of 5-10 cents when bottles and cans are returned, illustrate an effective long-term incentive/reward strategy.

Finally, reward interventions have been criticized by some who contend rewards diminish intrinsic motivation. The contention is that instead of focusing on the positive aspects of completing a task for its own sake, individuals become extrinsically motivated to perform the behaviour. In essence they reason that if someone is paying or rewarding me to perform a behaviour, it must be unpleasant and not worth performing when the opportunity for reward is removed.

Extrinsic motivation is a motivation that is driven by external rewards. These can be tangible, such as money or grades, or intangible, such as praise or fame. Unlike [intrinsic motivation](#), which arises from within the individual, extrinsic motivation is focused purely on outside rewards. People who are extrinsically motivated will continue to perform a task even though it might not be in and of itself rewarding. For example, they will do something at their job that they don't find enjoyable in order to earn a wage.

Extrinsic motivation is involved in [operant conditioning](#), which is when someone or something is conditioned to behave a certain way due to a

reward or consequence. Operant Conditioning is a type of learning in which a behaviour is strengthened (meaning, it will occur more frequently) when it's followed by reinforcement, and weakened (will happen less frequently) when followed by punishment. It is based on a simple premise – that behaviour is influenced by the consequences that follow. When you are reinforced for doing something, you're more likely to do it again. When you are punished for doing something, you are less likely to do it again. In Spite of limitations Reward strategy works well and plays an important role in the study of behavioural approaches..

Feedback:

Feedback is a key piece of management responsibility– both for supporting and continuing positive behavior and results, and for addressing and correcting issues or concerns. In order for feedback to be most effective, it should be:

- Timely
- Balanced– both positive and constructive feedback are important, but should NOT be mixed
- Behavioral
- Clearly linked to goals and performance standards
- Thoughtfully prepared
- A dialogue
- Followed up appropriately

Structuring the Feedback Conversation:

- **Situation** : State the specific situation.
- **Behavior**: State the specific observed behaviors– either which are appreciated and valuable (positive feedback) or are unacceptable or needing correction (corrective or constructive feedback).
- **Effect** : Share what effect you see the behavior having on the individual's productivity and performance, on others on the team, or long-term goals and progress. Invite reflection and perspective from the individual.
- **Expectations and Results**: For corrective or constructive feedback, state your expectations for changing or adjusting the behavior as well as what to expect if the behavior does not change.
- **Questions**: Invite any questions the individuals may have. Be sure concerns are addressed, for constructive feedback, and thank the individual for sharing in the conversation.

Feedback Checklist:

- Provide feedback frequently.
- Plan and prepare for the feedback conversation.
- Link feedback to goals and focus on established performance standards.
- Discuss behavior and results by focusing on tasks and outcomes, not the person.
- Make it a dialogue, not a monologue.
- Specify what needs to be done and agree on responsibilities and performance standards going forward.
- Remember to fit feedback to the individual.

So, as we discussed an overview of seven intervention techniques (education, prompts, modeling, commitment, penalties, rewards and feedback) that behaviour analysts have used successfully to change behaviours on a large scale. Although we reviewed them separately, in practice several are often combined in a single intervention. For example, most interventions have some sort of education or information, which is combined with other behaviour- change strategies such as prompts, feedback or commitment strategies.

We have devoted substantial space to applied behaviour analysis in a book focused on applied social psychology. Because applied behaviour analysts have conducted the most intervention-based research on societal problems. Now we turn to a discussion of how social influence principles can be used to enhance the intervention strategies implemented and evaluated by behaviour analysts. The synergy from combining the practical behaviour-change strategies of behaviour analysis with the tools of social influence can enable greater and longer-term intervention impact.

3.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter we have reviewed a variety of intervention techniques that have been used successfully by behaviour analysts and social psychologist. Each strategy has its own importance. We believe integrating strength of applied behaviour analysis and social psychology results in a powerful set of tools for large scale behaviour change intervention. This chapter overviews about behaviour approach. Then we study the impact of this approach and with the help of strategies we understand methods or skills of behaviour approach.

3.6 QUESTIONS

A) Write long answers

1. Explain behaviour intervention strategies- antecedent and consequences.
2. Elaborate impact of behaviour focused skills and intervention.

B) Write Short Notes

- Education
- Commitment procedures
- Rewards
- Feedback

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NATURE OF BEHAVIORAL SKILLS AND INTERVENTIONS – II

Unit Structure

- 4.0 Objectives
- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Enhancing interventions through social influence
 - 4.2.1 Consistency
 - 4.2.2 Social Proof
 - 4.2.3 Authority
 - 4.2.4 Liking
 - 4.2.5 Reciprocity
 - 4.2.6 Scarcity
- 4.3 Summary
- 4.4 Questions
- 4.5 References

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe Consistency
- Understand Social Proof
- Explain Authority
- Elaborate Reciprocity
- Understand Enhancing interventions through social influence

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses how social influence might improve interventions. As we interact with society, their influence has a significant impact on how we live. Therefore, it is crucial to comprehend these interventions and how a person might avoid them with a few straightforward realizations and advice. We are going to study the following social influence interventions: (1) consistency, (2) social proof, (3) authority, (4) liking, (5) reciprocity and (6) scarcity.

4.2 ENHANCING INTERVENTIONS THROUGH SOCIAL INFLUENCE

In his popular book *Influence*, Robert Cialdini outlines six social-influence

principles used frequently by marketing professionals to increase sales of their products: (1) consistency, (2) social proof, (3) authority, (4) liking, (5) reciprocity and (6) scarcity. Cialdini describes the principles as compliance techniques, because they are frequently used to increase the odds a target individual will comply with a request.

These principles are relevant for intervention design because most behaviour-change interventions involve an intervention agent asking a target individual to comply with a request (e.g., increase recycling behaviour, practice safe sex, buckle up, or wear a bicycle helmet). It is logical that the same techniques that have proved successful in evoking purchasing behaviour should be effective in encouraging individuals to change other behaviours, or at least to make a commitment to attempt change. Once the behaviour has been initiated, further applications of the principles may activate social consequences with potential to maintain the behaviours for longer periods of time. The remainder of this chapter addresses ways to integrate these six principles with the intervention techniques discussed so far in order to make them more influential.

4.2.1 Consistency:

The idea that a desire to be consistent is a fundamental human motive has served as the basis for some of the most influential theories in social psychology, including cognitive dissonance and balance theory. In addition to the desire for internal consistency, as outlined in dissonance and balance theory, other research has demonstrated that individuals also have a strong desire to show others they are consistent (Cialdini, 2001).

People reflect on the potential negative outcomes of their undesirable behaviour. For example, individuals who may have a problem with drinking too much alcohol may be asked to list the 'good' and 'not so good' things about consuming alcohol. If the individual has a problem with alcohol, the list of good things (e.g., taste, social lubrication, relaxation) is likely to be quite small compared to the not-so-good list (e.g., expense, hangovers, missed work, lost jobs, legal problems, fights with spouse, medical problems, etc.). In a case like this, the dissonance gong is likely to be sounding quite loudly when the individual is confronted with the list of negative consequences of excessive alcohol consumption, and motivation for change should be increased. Indeed, arousing cognitive dissonance to motivate change is a basic component of motivational interviewing, a promising therapeutic technique that has been applied to a number of clinical problems (Miller & Rollnick, 2002).

Dissonance strategies have been effective when applied on a large scale to problems like environmentally harmful behaviours. For example, Aitken, McMahon, Wearing and Finlayson (1994) used a dissonance strategy to reduce water consumption in Australia. An initial survey of area residents revealed (1) many residents had very positive attitudes towards conserving water, and (2) positive attitudes towards water conservation were poor predictors of actual water conservation as measured on water meters. Aitken et al. applied dissonance by delivering postcards to residents (1)

reminding them they had strongly agreed on the survey it was their duty to conserve water, and (2) providing feedback about how their household water consumption compared to similar-sized households in the region. Results indicated households that received the dissonance manipulation significantly reduced their water use, while a comparison group who simply received the feedback without the dissonance manipulation did not.

Although these studies and others demonstrate the promise of dissonance-based interventions, the bad news is that it is also possible that individuals may reduce dissonance by changing their *attitudes* instead of their behaviours. When behaviours are difficult or inconvenient to perform, changing one's attitude may be far easier. For example, in a study conducted in the Netherlands, Tertoolen, Van Kreveld and Verstraten (1998) found individuals who scored high on an initial measure of environmental awareness scored lower on the same measure after they were given feedback about the environmental consequences of frequent use of their own cars.

Public commitment:

Behavioural commitment (as discussed in the section on antecedent interventions) may be the most practical and frequently used application of the consistency principle. Viewed through the lens of the consistency principle, it is easy to see that fulfilling a behaviour-change promise follows the consistency principle and failing to change violates it. Social psychologists have found that commitment strategies work best when the commitment is active, public and perceived as voluntary (Cialdini, 2001). The requirement that commitment be voluntary makes sense, because breaking a promise you were forced to make is unlikely to arouse much dissonance. In fact, it is reasonable to question if a coerced commitment amounts to a commitment at all.

Individuals who actively voice a commitment or sign a promise card are more likely to fulfil their promise than those who passively nod their heads in agreement. Active commitments are more concrete, and make future violations more likely to cause dissonance. Because individuals are motivated to appear consistent to themselves and to others, commitments should also be made publicly whenever possible.

Interestingly, there is some evidence suggesting that commitments may become more effective when followed by reminders of past failures to live up to the values espoused in the commitment. Social psychologist Elliot Aronson has termed this phenomenon the 'hypocrisy effect' and speculates it functions through cognitive dissonance.

Pallak and Cummings (1976) demonstrated the effectiveness of a public commitment in an intervention targeting energy consumption. The investigators began by meeting with homeowners to discuss strategies for conserving natural gas and electricity (foot-in-the-door). After presenting the information, the researchers either (1) simply asked the participants to sign a form consenting to their participation, or (2) asked the individuals to sign a form giving their consent to participate in the research and have

their names published in the local newspaper in order to publicize the project. As predicted, during the month following the intervention, participants in the public- commitment condition had significantly lower percentages of energy use than those in the private-commitment condition.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of the Pallak and Cummings study was that participants in the public-commitment condition continued to show significantly lower energy usage in a follow-up study conducted a year later. After being informed the study had concluded and their names would not be published in the paper. Subsequent research has also indicated commitment strategies may be among the best for maintaining long-term behaviour change (Geller, 2002).

Cialdini (2001) notes individuals who become strongly committed to performing a behaviour often adjust their identities to become consistent with that behaviour. When individuals repeatedly perform a behaviour they are more likely to adopt an identity consistent with that behaviour, and thus be more likely to perform it in the future. The maintenance of post-commitment behaviour can also be explained by the process of behavioural self-perception (Bem, 1972). According to Bem, individuals infer their attitudes and other internal states from their overt behaviours. Bem's theory could also account for the failures of reward interventions to maintain behaviours when the rewards are removed. Individuals who are receiving rewards are likely to attribute their behaviour to the reward and changes in self-perception are unlikely to occur. Because of this, interventions using reward strategies should consider presenting rewards as tokens of appreciation, and consider offering rewards that are just large enough to encourage behaviour in order to allow for behavioural self-perception to occur (Geller, 2002).

American social psychologist Elliot Aronson developed an innovative method for enlisting the power of cognitive dissonance. The first step of the *hypocrisy effect* involves obtaining a commitment to a certain course of action. Next, individuals complete an exercise in which they are reminded of past failures to perform according to their commitment. Aronson hypothesized this process of making hypocrisy salient should enhance dissonance and increase the likelihood future behaviours will align with the commitment.

Geller (2005) has advocated using the hypocrisy effect to promote occupational safety by asking individuals who espouse safety as a core value to recall times when their behaviour was inconsistent with this value. This is presumed to motivate participants to perform safe behaviour in order to reduce the tension caused by the noted inconsistency.

How To Say No:

“Consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds.” Or, at least, so goes a frequently heard quotation attributed to Ralph Waldo Emerson. But what a very odd thing to say. Looking around, it is obvious that, quite contrary to what Emerson seems to have suggested, internal consistency is a hallmark of logic and intellectual strength, while its lack characterizes the

intellectually scattered and limited among us. the essay “Self-Reliance,” where it was clear that the problem lay not in Emerson, but in the popular version of what he had said. Actually he wrote, “A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds.” For some obscure reason, a central distinction had been lost as the years eroded the accurate version of his statement to mean something entirely different and, upon close inspection, entirely silly.

While consistency is typically commendable and often crucial, one must avoid a foolish and rigid form. Emerson cautioned against the inclination to be consistently automatic and thoughtless.

But since automatic consistency is so useful in allowing us an economical and appropriate way of behaving most of the time, we can not decide merely to eliminate it from our lives altogether. The results would be disastrous. If, rather than whirring along in accordance with our prior decisions and deeds, we stopped to think through the merits of every new action before performing it, we would never have time to accomplish anything significant. We need even that dangerous, mechanical brand of consistency. The only way out of the dilemma is to know when such consistency is likely to lead to a poor choice. There are certain signals—kinds of signals, in fact—to tip us off. We register each type in a different part of our bodies.

The signal is easy to recognize. It occurs right in the pit of our stomachs when we realize we are trapped into complying with a request we know we don’t want to perform. Whenever your stomach tells you that you would be a sucker to comply with a request merely because doing so would be consistent with some prior commitment, do not try to deny the importance of consistency; just point out the absurdity of foolish consistency.

4.2.2 Social proof:

Although most people like to be considered consistent, many would cringe if called conformist. Despite negative connotations, there is no denying the fact our behaviour is profoundly influenced by those around us. In unfamiliar situations we follow the crowd in order to act effectively (if most people are doing it, it must be the right thing to do); and in other situations, we conform in order to gain social approval (Cialdini, 2001). Cialdini uses the term 'social proof' to describe the compliance technique in which evidence about the behaviour of others is provided in order to evoke a conforming response. For example, salespeople and advertisers frequently cite the popularity of an item to increase sales.

Social norms can be defined as codes of conduct which inform members of a social group how to act in various situations. Unlike laws, which are explicitly outlined, norms are implicit and spread through interactions within groups.

Neighbors, Larimer and Lewis (2004) conducted an experiment with 252 college students who had been screened as heavy drinkers. After

completing a computer-based questionnaire about their own drinking behaviour and perceptions about drinking norms on campus, participants received a graph contrasting their drinking behaviour with the actual drinking rates on campus. Follow-up analyses revealed the intervention significantly reduced participants' perceptions of student drinking and more importantly, significantly reduced their self-reported drinking in three- and six-month follow-up surveys.

As noted above, several studies that have documented college students in the United States consistently overestimate descriptive and injunctive drinking norms among their peers (see meta-analysis by Bosari & Carey, 2003).

According to Perkins (2003) inflated injunctive norms may be due to pluralistic ignorance and attribution biases. Pluralistic ignorance is the belief that others' private attitudes and beliefs are different from one's own despite the fact that their public behaviour is identical. Although many students may share the private belief moderate use is best, they may feel pressured to drink heavily by the behaviour of others, who share similar beliefs but are feeling the same social pressure. Attribution theory predicts individuals are likely to dismiss their own behaviour as socially pressured, while attributing the behaviour of their fellow students to stable internal attitudes. This tendency to underestimate the situational influences for others is known as correspondence bias or the fundamental attribution error.

A contributor to inflated descriptive norms may be the availability heuristic, which states we calculate the probability of an event's occurrence based on the ease with which we can bring that event to mind. At university parties the behaviour of students who are drinking heavily may be amusing, disturbing or revolting, any of which would likely make it more salient at the party and is the belief others' private attitudes and beliefs are different from one's own despite the fact that their public behaviour is identical. Although many students may share the private belief moderate use is best, they may feel pressured to drink heavily by the behaviour of others, who share similar beliefs but are feeling the same social pressure. Attribution theory predicts individuals are likely to dismiss their own behaviour as socially pressured, while attributing the behaviour of their fellow students to stable internal attitudes. This tendency to underestimate the situational influences for others is known as correspondence bias or the fundamental attribution error.

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of the source of the inflated norms, their existence combined with the consistent finding that perceived drinking norms are predictive of individual use have made social-norms interventions a popular prevention approach on college campuses.

Uncertain(ty):

Especially in an ambiguous situation, the tendency for everyone to be looking to see what everyone else is doing can lead to a fascinating phenomenon called “pluralistic ignorance.” A thorough understanding of the pluralistic ignorance phenomenon helps immeasurably to explain a regular occurrence in our country that has been termed both a riddle and a national disgrace.

Devictimizing Yourself:

Fortunately, our newfound understanding of the bystander “apathy” process offers real hope. Armed with this scientific knowledge, an emergency victim can increase enormously the chances of receiving aid from others. The key is the realization that groups of bystanders fail to help because the bystanders are unsure rather than unkind. They don’t help because they are unsure of whether an emergency actually exists and whether they are responsible for taking action. When they are sure of their responsibilities for intervening in a clear emergency, people are exceedingly responsive! Once it is understood that the enemy is not some unmanageable societal condition like urban depersonalization but is, instead, the simple state of uncertainty, it becomes possible for emergency victims to take specific steps to protect themselves by reducing the bystanders’ uncertainty.

Monkey Me, Monkey Do:

A bit earlier we stated that the principle of social proof, like all other weapons of influence, works better under some conditions than under others. We have already explored one of those conditions: uncertainty. Without question, when people are uncertain, they are more likely to use others’ actions to decide how they themselves should act. But, in addition, there is another important working condition: similarity. The principle of social proof operates most powerfully when we are observing the behavior of people just like us. It is the conduct of such people that gives us the greatest insight into what constitutes correct behavior for ourselves. Therefore, we are more inclined to follow the lead of a similar individual than a dissimilar one. That is why I believe we are seeing an increasing number of average person-on-the-street testimonials on TV these days. Advertisers now know that one successful way to sell a product to ordinary viewers (who compose the largest potential market) is to demonstrate that other “ordinary” people like and use it. So whether the product is a brand of soft drink, or a pain reliever, or a laundry detergent, we hear volleys of praise from John or Mary Every-person.

How To Say No:

The difficulty is compounded by the realization that most of the time, we don't want to guard against the information that social proof provides. The evidence it offers about how we should act is usually valid and valuable. With it we can cruise confidently through a myriad of decisions without personally having to investigate the detailed pros and cons of each. In this sense, the principle of social proof equips us with a wonderful kind of automatic-pilot device not unlike that aboard most aircraft. Yet there are occasional but real problems with automatic pilots. Those problems appear whenever the flight information locked into the control mechanism is wrong. In these instances, we will be taken off course. Depending on the size of the error, the consequences can be severe. But, because the automatic pilot afforded by the principle of social proof is more often an ally than an enemy, we can't be expected to want to simply disconnect it. Thus, we are faced with a classic problem: how to make use of a piece of equipment that simultaneously benefits and imperils our welfare. Fortunately, there is a way out of the dilemma. Because the disadvantages of automatic pilots arise principally when incorrect data have been put into the control system, our best defense against these disadvantages is to recognize when the data are in error. If we can become sensitive to situations where the social-proof automatic pilot is working with inaccurate information, we can disengage the mechanism and grasp the controls when we need to.

Then we can take the controls, make the necessary correction for the misinformation, and reset the automatic pilot. The transparency of the rigged social proof we get these days provides us with exactly the cue we need for knowing when to perform this simple maneuver. With no more cost than a bit of vigilance for plainly counterfeit social evidence, then, we can protect ourselves nicely. Fortunately, this precaution requires neither much effort nor much time. A quick glance around is all that is needed. And this little precaution is well worth it. The consequences of single-minded reliance on social evidence can be frightening.

4.2.3 Authority:

Whenever we are faced with such a potent motivator of human action, it is natural to expect that good reasons exist for the motivation. A multilayered and widely accepted system of authority confers an immense advantage upon a society. It allows the development of sophisticated structures for resource production, trade, defense, expansion, and social control that would otherwise be impossible. The other alternative, anarchy, is a state that is hardly known for its beneficial effects on cultural groups and one that the social philosopher Thomas Hobbes assures us would render life "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short." Consequently, we are trained from birth that obedience to proper authority is right and disobedience is wrong. The essential message fills the parental lessons, the schoolhouse rhymes, stories, and songs of our childhood and is carried forward in the legal, military, and political systems we encounter as adults. Notions of submission and loyalty to legitimate rule are accorded much value in each.

Once we realize that obedience to authority is mostly rewarding, it is easy to allow ourselves the convenience of automatic obedience. The simultaneous blessing and bane of such blind obedience is its mechanical character. We don't have to think; therefore, we don't. Although such mindless obedience leads us to appropriate action in the great majority of cases, there will be conspicuous exceptions—because we are reacting rather than thinking. Let's take an example from one facet of our lives where authority pressures are visible and strong: medicine. Health is enormously important to us. Thus, physicians, who possess large amounts of knowledge and influence in this vital area, hold the position of respected authorities. In addition, the medical establishment has a clearly terraced power and prestige structure. The various kinds of health workers well understand the level of their jobs in this structure; and they well understand, too, that the M.D. sits at the top. No one may overrule the doctor's judgment in a case, except perhaps, another doctor of higher rank. As a consequence, a long-established tradition of automatic obedience to a doctor's orders has developed among health-care staff.

The worrisome possibility arises, then, that when a physician makes a clear error, no one lower in the hierarchy will think to question it—precisely because, once a legitimate authority has given an order, subordinates stop thinking in the situation and start reacting. Mix this kind of click, whirr response into a complex hospital environment and mistakes are certain.

Wherever our behaviors are governed in such an unthinking manner, we can be confident that there will be compliance professionals trying to take advantage. We can stay within the field of medicine and see that advertisers have frequently harnessed the respect accorded to doctors in our culture by hiring actors to play the roles of doctors speaking on behalf of the product. For example, a TV commercial featuring actor Robert Young counseling people against the dangers of caffeine and recommending caffeine-free Sanka Brand coffee. The commercial was highly successful, selling so much coffee that it was played for years in several versions. as the advertising agency that hired him knew perfectly well—he is associated in the minds of the American public with Marcus Welby, M.D., the role he played in an earlier long-running television series. Objectively it doesn't make sense to be swayed by the comments of a man we know to be just an actor who used to play a doctor. But, as a practical matter, that man moved the Sanka.

Connotation, Not Content:

The most intriguing feature in the Robert Young Sanka commercial was its ability to use the influence of the authority principle without ever providing real authority. The appearance of authority was enough. This tells us something important about unthinking reactions to authority figures. When in a click, whirr mode, we are often as vulnerable to the symbols of authority as to the substance. There are several kinds of symbols that can reliably trigger our compliance in the absence of the genuine substance of authority. Consequently, they are employed

extensively by those compliance professionals who are short on substance. Con artists, for example, drape themselves with the titles, clothes, and trappings of authority. They love nothing more than to emerge elegantly dressed from a fine automobile and to introduce themselves to their prospective “mark” as Doctor or Judge or Professor or Commissioner Someone. They understand that when they are so equipped, their chances for compliance are greatly increased. Each of these three types of symbols of authority has its own story and is worth a separate look.

Titles:

Titles are simultaneously the most difficult and the easiest symbols of authority to acquire. To earn one normally takes years of work and achievement. Yet it is possible for somebody who has put in none of this effort to adopt the mere label and receive a kind of automatic deference. As we have seen, TV-commercial actors and con artists do it successfully all the time.

Clothes:

A second kind of authority symbol that can trigger our mechanical compliance is clothing. Though more tangible than a title, the cloak of authority is every bit as fakable. Police bunco files bulge with records of con artists whose artistry includes the quick change. In chameleon style, they adopt the hospital white, priestly black, army green, or police blue that the situation requires for maximum advantage. Only too late do their victims realize that the garb of authority is hardly its guarantee. A series of studies by social psychologist Leonard Bickman gives an indication of how difficult it can be to resist requests that come from figures in authority attire.

Trappings:

Aside from its function in uniforms, clothing can symbolize a more generalized type of authority when it serves an ornamental purpose. Finely styled and expensive clothes carry an aura of status and position, as do trappings such as jewellery and cars. The effect of such influence was grossly underestimated. This property of authority status may account for much of its success as a compliance device. Not only does it work forcefully on us, but it also does so unexpectedly.

How To Say No:

One protective tactic we can use against authority status is to remove its element of surprise. Because we typically misperceive the profound impact of authority (and its symbols) on our actions, we are at the disadvantage of being insufficiently cautious about its presence in compliance situations. A fundamental form of defense against this problem, therefore, is a heightened awareness of authority power. When this awareness is coupled with a recognition of how easily authority symbols can be faked, the benefit will be a properly guarded approach to situations involving authority-influence attempts.

Generally, authority figures know what they are talking about. Physicians, judges, corporate executives, legislative leaders, and the like have typically gained their positions because of superior knowledge and judgment. Thus, as a rule, their directives offer excellent counsel. The trick is to be able to recognize without much strain or vigilance when authority promptings are best followed and when they should be resisted.

Posing one question to ourselves can help enormously to accomplish this trick. when we are confronted with what appears to be an authority figure's influence attempt, "Is this authority truly an expert?" The question is helpful because it focuses our attention on a pair of crucial pieces of information: the authority's credentials and the relevance of those credentials to the topic at hand. By orienting in this simple way toward the evidence for authority status, we can avoid the major pitfalls of automatic deference.

4.2.4 Liking:

Simply stated, the social influence principle of liking is based on the fact we are more likely to do things for people we know and like (Cialdini, 2001). Research has shown people tend to like those similar to them and those who compliment them. Sales professionals are well aware of these effects, and use compliments frequently and point out similarities between them and potential customers (Cialdini, 2001). In a social influence experiment, Burger, Messian, Patel, del Prado and Anderson (2003) demonstrated that bogus superficial similarities in names, birthdays and fingerprint types resulted in increased compliance with a request.

Identify with the target audience:

The liking principle suggests similarities between intervention agents requesting behaviour change and targets should be emphasized whenever possible. In addition, interventions which make use of observational learning should pick models who closely match the target audience. In a study that used television modeling successfully to increase energy conservation, Winett et al. (1985) noted they intentionally selected the actors, homes and scenes depicted in the programme to match specific characteristics of the target audience.

Block-leader approach:

A second implication of the liking principle is the opinions and advice of those we know and like to carry more weight than the advice of strangers. The block-leader approach is an application of the liking principle for behaviour-change intervention. Block leaders are members of a community recruited to serve as intervention agents and encourage programme participation in their neighbourhoods. Although there is no way of knowing if block leaders are "'liked' by their fellow community members, the fact they are members of the same neighbourhood demonstrates a degree of similarity; and in close-knit communities, block leaders are likely to know their neighbours. For examples of block-leader approaches to behaviour-change intervention, Burn (1991). In this study

and others, recycling pleas delivered by block leaders were significantly more effective than similar pleas delivered by experimenters.

How To Say No:

There are simply too many routes to be blocked effectively with such a one-on-one strategy. Besides, several of the factors leading to liking—physical attractiveness, familiarity, association—have been shown to work unconsciously to produce their effects on us, making it unlikely that we could muster a timely protection against them. Instead we need to consider a general approach, one that can be applied to any of the liking-related factors to neutralize their unwelcome influence on our compliance decisions. The secret to such an approach may lie in its timing. Rather than trying to recognize and prevent the action of liking factors before they have a chance to work on us, we might be well advised to let them work. Our vigilance should be directed not toward the things that may produce undue liking for a compliance practitioner, but toward the fact that undue liking has been produced. The time to react protectively is when we feel ourselves liking the practitioner more than we should under the circumstances.

By concentrating our attention on the effect rather than the causes, we can avoid the laborious, nearly impossible task of trying to detect and deflect the many psychological influences on liking. Instead, we have to be sensitive to only one thing related to liking in our contacts with compliance practitioners: the feeling that we have come to like the practitioner more quickly or more deeply than we would have expected. Once we notice this feeling, we will have been tipped off that there is probably some tactic being used, and we can start taking the necessary countermeasures. We don't attempt to restrain the influence of the factors that cause liking. Quite the contrary. We allow these factors to exert their force, and then we use that force in our campaign against them. The stronger the force, the more conspicuous it becomes and, consequently, the more subject to our alerted defenses. The recognition of that feeling can serve as our reminder to separate the dealer from the merits of the deal and to make our decision based on considerations related only to the latter.

4.2.5 Reciprocity:

Reciprocity reflects the norm that people should repay others for benefits received from them. The reciprocity norm has been shown to exist in all cultures, and is thought to facilitate social exchange and create a sense of interdependence (Cialdini, 2001). Reciprocity-based strategies have also been shown to be useful in increasing the return rates for mailed surveys. Including a cash or cheque payment in advance often outperforms offers of payment upon receipt of the survey (e.g., James & Bolstein, 1992). Recent applied work has demonstrated restaurant staff can enhance their tips by giving their customers sweets or writing a pleasant message on the back of their cheque (e.g., Strohmetz, Rind, Fisher & Lynn, 2002).

Pre-behaviour rewards:

The reciprocity norm suggests offering a pre-behaviour reward (antecedent) may be a useful alternative to conventional incentive/rewards. An experiment by Boyce and Geller (2001) compared the effectiveness of a reciprocity-based strategy with conventional rewards. The rewards were given to encourage participants to deliver thank-you cards to people who helped others or performed environmentally friendly behaviours. Participants were given 30 cards and asked to sign a commitment to distribute at least five cards weekly over a five-week period. Participants who received a gift of an insulated travel mug and T-shirt upon signing the commitment delivered significantly more cards over the five weeks (mean = 28 cards) than those who signed a commitment and were promised the same gifts upon delivery of five cards (mean = 16 cards).

Reciprocity prompts:

An experiment by Cialdini (2005) provides an example of the application of the reciprocity principle to behavioural prompts. The target behaviour was reusing hotel room towels rather than discarding them on the floor to be exchanged for clean ones. Instead of a message stating the hotel would donate a portion of the money saved from guests reusing their towels to environmental causes, the message was changed to indicate donations to environmental causes had already been made on behalf of the guests. The message invoked reciprocity by inviting guests to help recover the expense and help the environment by reusing their towels. The reciprocity-based message resulted in a 47% towel- reuse rate, compared to a 36% reuse rate for the message that promised future donation.

How To Say No:

With the proper understanding of the nature of our opponent, we can come away from the compliance battlefield unhurt and sometimes even better off than before. It is essential to recognize that the requester who invokes the reciprocation rule (or any other weapon of influence) to gain our compliance is not the real opponent. Such a requester has chosen to become a jiu jitsu warrior who aligns himself with the sweeping power of reciprocation and then merely releases that power by providing a first favor or concession. The real opponent is the rule. If we are not to be abused by it, we must take steps to defuse its energy. It seems too widespread to escape and too strong to overpower once it is activated. Perhaps the answer, then, is to prevent its activation. Perhaps we can avoid a confrontation with the rule by refusing to allow the requester to commission its force against us in the first place. Perhaps by rejecting the requester's initial favor or concession to us, we can evade the problem. Invariably declining the requester's initial offer of a favor or sacrifice works better in theory than in practice. The major problem is that when it is first presented, it is difficult to know whether such an offer is honest or whether it is the initial step in an exploitation attempt. If we always assume the worst, it would not be possible to receive the benefits of any

legitimate favors or concessions offered by individuals who had no intention of exploiting the reciprocity rule.

4.2.6 Scarcity:

The principle of scarcity can be conceptually linked to the economic principle of supply and demand. The extent to which something is rare or difficult to obtain serves as a heuristic to determine its perceived value. According to Cialdini (2001), scarcity-based influence techniques gain part of their power through our desire to have freedom of choice and avoid loss. Cialdini describes numerous scarcity techniques used by advertisers and salespeople, including one-day-only sales, limited supplies and high-pressure sales techniques requiring customers to make an immediate decision to buy before a special price is withdrawn forever.

Avoid reactance:

Cialdini (2001) also relates reactance (Brehm, 1966) to the scarcity principle. Reactance is the tendency of individuals to act in ways to re-establish freedom when it becomes limited or threatened. In addition to desiring items that are scarce, freedom becomes more desirable when it is limited or threatened. In the instance of the scarcity principle, that power comes from two major sources. The first is familiar. Like the other weapons of influence, the scarcity principle trades on our weakness for shortcuts. The weakness is, as before, an enlightened one. In this case, because we know that the things that are difficult to possess are typically better than those that are easy to possess, we can often use an item's availability to help us quickly and correctly decide on its quality. Thus, one reason for the potency of the scarcity principle is that, by following it, we are usually and efficiently right.

In addition, there is a unique, secondary source of power within the scarcity principle: As opportunities become less available, we lose freedoms; and we hate to lose the freedoms we already have. This desire to preserve our established prerogatives is the centerpiece of psychological reactance theory, developed by psychologist Jack Brehm to explain the human response to diminishing personal control. According to the theory, whenever free choice is limited or threatened, the need to retain our freedoms makes us desire them (as well as the goods and services associated with them) significantly more than previously. So when increasing scarcity—or anything else—interferes with our prior access to some item, we will react against the interference by wanting and trying to possess the item more than before. As simple as the kernel of the theory seems, its shoots and roots curl extensively through much of the social environment. From the garden of young love to the jungle of armed revolution to the fruits of the marketplace, impressive amounts of our behavior can be explained by examining for the tendrils of psychological reactance.

The realization that we value limited information allows us to apply the scarcity principle to realms beyond material commodities. The principle works for messages, communications, and knowledge, too. Taking this

perspective, we can see that information may not have to be censored for us to value it more; it need only be scarce. According to the scarcity principle, then, we will find a piece of information more persuasive if we think we can't get it elsewhere. This idea that exclusive information is more persuasive information is central to the thinking of two psychologists, Timothy Brock and Howard Fromkin, who have developed a "commodity theory" analysis of persuasion.

Optimal Conditions:

Much like the other effective weapons of influence, the scarcity principle is more effective at some times than at other times. An important practical problem, then, is to find out when scarcity works best on us. A great deal can be learned in this regard from an experiment devised by social psychologist Stephen Worchel. The basic procedure used by Worchel and his research team was simple: Participants in a consumer preference study were given a chocolate-chip cookie from a jar and asked to taste and rate its quality. For half of the raters, the jar contained ten cookies; for the other half, it contained just two. As we might expect from the scarcity principle, when the cookie was one of the only two available, it was rated more favorably than when it was one of ten. The cookie in short supply was rated as more desirable to eat in the future, more attractive as a consumer item, and more costly than the identical cookie in abundant supply. Although this pattern of results provides a rather striking validation of the scarcity principle, it doesn't tell us anything we don't already know. Once again, we see that a less-available item is more desired and valued. The real worth of the cookie study comes from two additional findings.

The first of these noteworthy results involved a small variation in the experiment's basic procedure. Rather than rating the cookies under conditions of constant scarcity, some participants were first given a jar of ten cookies that was then replaced by a jar of two cookies. Thus, before taking a bite, certain of the participants saw their abundant supply of cookies reduced to a scarce supply. Other participants, however, knew only scarcity of supply from the outset, since the number of cookies in their jars was left at two. With this procedure, the researchers were seeking to answer a question about types of scarcity: Do we value those things that have recently become less available to us, or those things that have always been scarce? In the cookie experiment, the answer was plain. The drop from abundance to scarcity produced a decidedly more positive reaction to the cookies than did constant scarcity. The idea that newly experienced scarcity is the more powerful kind applies to situations well beyond the bounds of the cookie study. For example, social scientists have determined that such scarcity is a primary cause of political turmoil and violence. Perhaps the most prominent proponent of this argument is James C. Davies, who states that we are most likely to find revolutions where a period of improving economic and social conditions is followed by a short, sharp reversal in those conditions.

Let's look back to the cookie study for another insight into the way we

react to scarcity. We've already seen from the results of that study that scarce cookies were rated higher than abundant cookies and that newly scarce cookies were rated higher still. Staying with the newly scarce cookies now, there was a certain cookie that was the highest rated of all: those that became less available because of a demand for them. Remember that in the experiment the participants who experienced new scarcity had been given a jar of ten cookies that was then replaced with a jar of only two cookies. Actually, the researchers did this in one of two ways. To certain participants, it was explained that some of their cookies had to be given away to other raters to supply the demand for cookies in the study. To another set of participants, it was explained that their number of cookies had to be reduced because the researcher had simply made a mistake and given them the wrong jar initially. The results showed that those whose cookies became scarce through the process of social demand liked them significantly more than those whose cookies became scarce by mistake.

In fact, the cookies made less available through social demand were rated the most desirable of any in the study. This finding highlights the importance of competition in the pursuit of limited resources. Not only do we want the same item more when it is scarce, we want it most when we are in competition for it. Advertisers often try to exploit this tendency in us. In their ads, we learn that "popular demand" for an item is so great that we must "hurry to buy," or we see a crowd pressing against the doors of a store before the start of a sale, or we watch a flock of hands quickly deplete a supermarket shelf of a product. There is more to such images than the idea of ordinary social proof. The message is not just that the product is good because other people think so, but also that we are in direct competition with those people for it.

How To Say No:

It is easy enough to feel properly warned against scarcity pressures, but it is substantially more difficult to act on that warning. Part of the problem is that our typical reaction to scarcity hinders our ability to think. When we watch something we want become less available, a physical agitation sets in. Especially in those cases involving direct competition, the blood comes up, the focus narrows, and emotions rise.

If, because of brain-clouding arousal, we can't rely on our knowledge about the scarcity principle to stimulate properly cautious behavior, perhaps, in fine jiu-jitsu style, we can use the arousal itself as our prime cue. In this way, we can turn the enemy's strength to our advantage. Rather than relying on a considered, cognitive analysis of the entire situation, we might simply tune ourselves to the internal, visceral sweep for our warning. By learning to flag the experience of heightening arousal in a compliance situation, we can alert ourselves to the possibility of scarcity tactics there and to the need for caution.

But suppose we accomplish this trick of using the rising tide of arousal as a signal to calm ourselves and to proceed with care. After all, merely recognizing that we ought to move carefully doesn't tell us the direction in which to move; it only provides the necessary context for a thoughtful decision. Fortunately, there is information available on which we can base thoughtful decisions about scarce items. It comes, once again, from the chocolate-chip-cookie study, where the researchers uncovered something that seems strange but rings true regarding scarcity: Even though the scarce cookies were rated as significantly more desirable, they were not rated as any better-tasting than the abundant cookies. So despite the increased yearning that scarcity caused, it did not make the cookies taste one whit better. Therein lies an important insight. The joy is not in experiencing a scarce commodity but in possessing it. It is important that we not confuse the two.

Whenever we confront the scarcity pressures surrounding some item, we must also confront the question of what it is we want from the item. If the answer is that we want the thing for the social, economic, or psychological benefits of possessing something rare, then, fine; scarcity pressures will give us a good indication of how much we would want to pay for it—the less available it is, the more valuable to us it will be. But very often we don't want a thing purely for the sake of owning it. We want it, instead, for its utility value; we want to eat it or drink it or touch it or hear it or drive it or otherwise use it. In such cases, it is vital to remember that scarce things do not taste or feel or sound or ride or work any better because of their limited availability. Although this is a simple point, it can often escape us when we experience the heightened desirability that scarce items naturally possess.

Should we find ourselves beset by scarcity pressures in a compliance situation, then, our best response would occur in a two-stage sequence. As soon as we feel the tide of emotional arousal that flows from scarcity influences, we should use that rise in arousal as a signal to stop short. Panicky, feverish reactions have no place in wise compliance decisions. We need to calm ourselves and regain a rational perspective. Once that is done, we can move to the second stage by asking ourselves why we want the item under consideration. If the answer is that we want it primarily for the purpose of owning it, then we should use its availability to help gauge how much we want to spend for it. However, if the answer is that we want it primarily for its function (that is, we want something good to drive, drink, eat, etc.), then we must remember that the item under consideration will function equally well whether scarce or plentiful. Quite simply, we need to recall that the scarce cookies didn't taste any better.

4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter, we have reviewed a variety of intervention techniques that have been used successfully by behavior analysts and social psychologists. We believe that integrating the strengths of applied behavior analysis (i.e., a focus on environmental determinants of behavior) and social psychology (i.e., understanding the interpersonal and social dynamics of behavior)

results in a powerful set of tools for large-scale behavior-change intervention.

So, while living in society, we have had influences that directed our behavior. With this chapter, we learn about all six influences: (1) consistency, (2) social proof, (3) authority, (4) liking, (5) reciprocity, and (6) scarcity, and study how we can recognize and effectively avoid them.

4.4 QUESTIONS

A) Write Short Notes.

- Consistency
- Social proof
- Authority
- Liking
- Reciprocity
- Scarcity

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APPLYING SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY TO DIVERSITY AND SOCIAL POPULATIONS – I

Unit Structure

- 5.0 Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Welfare Measures Undertaken
- 5.3 The Scheduled Tribes
- 5.4 Tribal Exploration and Unrest
- 5.5 Tribal Problems
- 5.6 Scheduled Castes
- 5.7 Other Backward Caste Classes
- 5.8 The Reservation Policy
- 5.9 Minorities
 - 5.9.1 Problems faced by minorities in India
- 5.10 Issues and Problems faced by Women in India
- 5.11 Summary
- 5.12 Questions
- 5.13 References

5.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the Welfare Measures Undertaken
- Understand Tribal Problems.
- Explain the Issues and Problems faced by Women in India

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The underprivileged people of India, especially the tribes, castes and classes who have been placed in a lower position by birth, must be important targets for a government committed to democracy.

With the formation of the SC and STS Commission, a mechanism was created to protect the interests of SC and STS. It has now been renamed as National SC and STS Commission. It acts as an advisory body on issues and policies related to the development of SC and ST. It includes experts in social anthropology, social work and other social sciences. The main tasks of the State Commission are:

- To study the extent and ramifications of untouchability and social discrimination arising therefrom and effectiveness of the present measures.
- To study socio-economic circumstances leading to the commission of offense against persons belonging to SCs and STs.
- To take up studies on different aspects of development of SCs and STs to ensure integration of these groups with the mainstream of the society.

5.2 WELFARE MEASURES UNDERTAKEN

The State Governments have separate departments to look after the welfare of SCs and STs and Other Backward Classes. Their administrative set-up, however, varies from state to state. A number of voluntary organizations also promote the welfare of SCs and STs. The welfare of SCs and STs has been given special attention in the Five Year Plans.

Some of the important centrally sponsored schemes are:

- (1) Coaching and training for various competitive examinations (IAS, IPS etc.) in order to improve the representation of SCs and STs in various Services,
- (2) Post-matric scholarships for providing financial assistance for higher education,
- (3) Construction of hostels for providing Residential facilities to SC and ST girls studying in schools, colleges and universities,
- (4) Financial assistance to reputed social science research institutions for research in development and problems of SCs and STs,
- (5) Providing textbooks to SC and ST students of medical/ engineering courses, and
- (6) Scholarships and passage grants for higher education outside India

Besides the above measures to bring about their speedy development, the Constitution has also provided for adequate representation in the legislative organs at different levels as well as reservation in services and educational institutions. The reservation is 15 % for the SCs and 75% for the STs. This limit has been exceeded in several states. Though the principle of separate electorate was not accepted but the constituencies are earmarked from time to time from which persons belonging only to either SCs or STs can seek election. The number of reserved seats reflects their proportion in the population.

In government services, special quotas are allotted to them. The reservations are not only confined to recruitments but they are also extended to promotions for higher positions. To facilitate their adequate representation, concessions such as relaxation of age limit, relaxation in

the standards of suitability, relaxation of the qualification and experience, have also been provided to them.

5.3 THE SCHEDULED TRIBES

The Tribal Strength:

The tribal population of India, according to the 1981 census, was 51.62 million. It is estimated to have increased to 52.03 million in 1991. This is almost equal to the population of the United Kingdom. The tribals form 78% of the country's total population. India has the second largest tribal population in the world, only next to Africa. The tribes in India are spread over the length and breadth of the country. They vary in strength from a few hundreds to several lakhs. About two-thirds of the total tribal population of the country are found in the five states of Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Bihar, Gujarat and Maharashtra. There are three states (Rajasthan, West Bengal, and Andhra Pradesh) where tribes with more than 20 Lakhs population are found. There are five states and union territories where tribes constitute 70% to 95% of the total population of the state/territory. These are Mizoram, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh and Tripura.

Some of the important features of the tribals are that most of them live in isolated areas, the main sources of their livelihood are agriculture and gathering of forest products; they do not cultivate for profit; they still depend upon barter system, they spend a greater part of their earnings on social and religious ceremonies; and a large number of them are illiterate and are victimized by unscrupulous forest contractors and money-lenders.

5.4 TRIBAL EXPLORATION AND UNREST

For ages, tribals were considered a primitive segment of Indian society. They lived in forests and hills without having more than a casual contact with the so-called civilized and advanced neighbors. Tribal unrest and discontent, thus, may be described as the cumulative result of a number of contributory factors.

The main factors were:

- Indifference, and lack of sympathy from administrators and bureaucrats in dealing with tribal grievances. Harshness of forest laws and regulations.
- Lack of legislation to prevent the passing of tribal lands into the hands of non-tribals.
- Lack of credit facilities.
- Inefficiency of government measures to rehabilitate inner population.
- Lack of interest and dynamism among the political elites to solve tribal problems.

- Delay in the implementation of recommendations made by high level bodies
- Discrimination in implementation of reformatory measures. In short, the causes of tribal unrest may be described as economic, social and political.

5.5 TRIBAL PROBLEMS

The main problems the tribal face are:

They possess uneconomic holdings because of which their crop yield is less and hence they remain chronically indebted. Only a small percentage of the population participates in occupational activities in the secondary and tertiary sectors.

- A good portion of the land in tribal areas has been legally transferred to non-tribals. Tribals demand that this land should be returned to them. In fact, the tribals had earlier enjoyed much freedom to use the forest and hunt their animals: Forests not only provide them materials to build their homes but also give them fuel, herbal medicines for curing diseases, fruits, wild games, etc. Their religion makes them believe that many of their spirits live in trees and forests. Their folk-tales often speak about the relations of human beings and spirits. Because of such physical and emotional attachment to forest, the tribals have reacted sharply to restrictions imposed by the government on their traditional rights.
- Tribal development programmes have not helped the tribals much in raising their economic status. The British policy had led to ruthless exploitation of the tribals in various ways as it favoured the zamindars, landlords, money-lenders, forest contractors, and excise, revenue and police officials.
- Banking facilities in the tribal areas are so inadequate that they have mainly to depend on the money-lenders. The tribals, therefore, demand that Agricultural Indebtedness Relief Acts should be enacted so that they may get back their mortgaged land.
- 90% of the tribals are engaged in cultivation and most of them are landless and practice shifting cultivation. They need to be helped in adopting new methods of cultivation.
- The unemployed and the under-employed need to be helped in finding secondary sources of earning by developing animal husbandry, poultry farming, handloom weaving and the handicrafts sector.
- Most of them live in sparsely populated hills and communication in the tribal areas remains tough, therefore, they need to be protected from leading an isolated life. away from towns and cities, through the network of new roads.
- The tribals are exploited by Christian missionaries. In several tribal

areas, mass conversion to Christianity had taken place during the British period. While the missionaries have been the pioneers in education and opened hospitals in tribal areas, they have also been responsible for alienating the tribals from their culture.

In short, the main problems of the tribals are poverty, indebtedness, - illiteracy, bondage, exploitation, disease and unemployment.

Tribal Struggles:

After Independence, the tribal struggles may be classified into three groups - (1) struggles due to exploitation of outsiders (like those of the Santhals and the Mundas), (2) struggles due to economic deprivation (like those of the Gonds in Madhya Pradesh and the Mahars in Andhra Pradesh), and (3) struggles due to separatist tendencies (like those of the Nagas and Mizos)

The tribal movements may also be classified on the basis of their orientation into four types (1) Movements seeking political autonomy and formation of a state (Nagas, Mizos, Jharkhand), (2) Agrarian movements, (3) Forest-based movements, and (4) Socio-religious or socio-cultural movements) the Bhagat movement. When the law does not help them, the government remains callous, and the police fails to protect them and harasses them, they take up arms against the exploiters. These struggles and movements indicate that the tribals adopted two paths of achieving goals: (a) non-violent path of bargaining and negotiating with the government and using a variety of pressure struggles without resorting to violence/revolution, and (b) militant path of revolution or mass struggle based on developing the fighting power of the exploited/oppressed tribal strata. The consequences of both these paths are different. One indicates struggle oriented to reforms, while the other indicates structural transformation of the community. The fact that tribals continue to suffer from problems and also continue to feel discontented and deprived points out that both the paths have not helped them to achieve their goals.

5.6 SCHEDULED CASTES

Literacy among the Scheduled Caste people is extremely low. It was only 12.4% in 1981 as against the all India average of 41.3% (excluding SCs and STs). Most of them live below the poverty line and are the victims of social and economic exploitation. In theory, untouchability might have been abolished but in practice, Scheduled Caste people continue to be the subject of discrimination.

Development Strategies for the Scheduled Castes:

A comprehensive three-pronged strategy was evolved for the development of the Scheduled Castes during the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85). This was a combination of three schemes (1) Special Component Plans (SCPs) of the central ministries and state governments, (ii) Special Central Assistance (SCA) to SCPs for the SCs of the states, and (iii) Scheduled Caste Development Corporations (SCDCs) in the states.

The SCPs envisage identification of schemes of development which would benefit SCs, quantification of funds from all divisible programmes, and determination of specific targets as to the number of families to be benefited from these programmes. The overall objective is to assist SC families to substantially improve their income. The provision of basic services and facilities and of access to opportunities for social and educational development are also to be brought under the purview of the SCPs. During the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85), Rs. 4,481 crore were earmarked for the SCPs. Up to 1990, only eight central ministries had formulated the SCPs for the Scheduled Castes.

The Scheduled Caste Development Corporations (SCDCs) in the states are envisaged to interface between the Scheduled Caste families and financial institutions in respect of bankable schemes of economic development. The corporations provide money, loan assistance to these families, thereby helping to increase the flow of funds from financial institutions to Scheduled Caste families. The corporations have been set up in 18 states and three union territories. Grants are given by the Central Government to the State Governments for investment in the share capital of the corporations in the ratio of 49:51. For example, when during 1980-81 and 1989-90, the State Governments' contribution in each year had varied between Rs. 140 million and Rs. 190 million, the amount released by the Centre to the corporations in each year had varied between Rs. 130 million and Rs. 150 million each year.

The corporations provide loans up to Rs. 12,000. Besides arranging financial assistance for traditional occupations like agriculture, animal husbandry and household industry, the corporations also arrange for diversification of occupations such as financing of small shops, industries, auto-rickshaws and many other trades and professions. Some corporations arrange for immigration facilities too like digging wells and tube-wells. Some of them also impart training to enable the beneficiaries to take up profitable occupations or to improve their existing skills.

Sulabh Sauchalaya Schemes have been launched in several states for converting dry latrines into water-bomb latrines in order to liberate scavengers and rehabilitate them in alternative occupations.

5.7 OTHER BACKWARD CASTE CLASSES

The reservation for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was provided in the Indian Constitution framed after Independence but the reservation for other backward castes classes was announced by the Janata Dal Government only on August 7, 1990. As many as 276 seats were proposed to be reserved for 3,742 other backward caste/classes. This Commission submitted its report on December 31, 1980. It was discussed by both Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha in 1982 and thereafter the matter was remitted to a Committee of Secretaries for examination. The matter was repeatedly taken up in both the Houses of Parliament but no action was taken.

The government's decision to implement the Mandal Commission report on reservations for the backward castes provoked widespread resentment among students. Spontaneous agitations erupted all over the country. Most families endure hardship and sacrifice to educate their children. Most students are haunted by the nightmare of unemployment or of underemployment. In such a situation the government's electoral decision to reserve jobs on the basis of caste for an additional 27.0% to the existing quota of reservation of 22.5% for SCs and STs, was bound to create frustrations among the youth.

Earlier, the Minorities Commission headed by M.S. Beg in the report had cautioned against granting recognition to backward classes as recommended by the Mandal Commission.

5.8 THE RESERVATION POLICY

The demand for special concessions and privileges to the under-privileged are matters of right and not of charity or philanthropy. All the commissions and the committees that have examined this issue, like the Miller Committee appointed by the erstwhile Mysore State or the Kalelkar Commission appointed in 1955 by the Government of India, have accepted the need for compensatory discrimination. Some of the courts also in hearing the cases that have come up before them have examined the issue. One Hon'ble Judge pointed out that the reservation policy has generated a spirit of self-denigration, each caste and community competing to be more backward than others. In another case, the former Chief Justice of the Supreme Court (Shri Chandrachud) had recommended that the reservation policy should be reviewed every five years so that the state can rectify distortions and the people—both backward and non-backward—can ventilate their views in public debates on the practical impact of the reservation policy.

The first argument is that reservation in educational institutions and government jobs, by themselves, cannot achieve much. In fact, if extended to larger sections of the population, they can be counterproductive (S.C. Dube: September, 1990). At best, reservations are palliatives and no decisive transformations can take place unless such a measure is accompanied by structural changes in the nation's production relations, and most crucially, until land reforms become a reality, and educational support systems are so buttressed that candidates from any social groups are available for higher level jobs.

The second argument is that our country is already divided into various groups. Reservation will further divide the population artificially. Earlier, reservations were accepted under special conditions for a period of fifteen years only but continuing them forever will produce vested interests and separatism, and will lead to a caste-war and the disintegration of the country. Sometimes back, it was ordered that caste will not be mentioned in applications for jobs.

The third argument is that when the reservation policy was implemented after Independence, there were only a few SC and ST people in the administrative set-up. Later on, Shri Jagjivan Ram introduced reservations even in promotions when he was the Railway Minister, so that the superiors were passed over by their subordinates belonging to SCs and STs. This not only politicized the civil services but also affected the efficiency of the administration. It is time that the beneficiaries and society should give up reservations. The society should immediately think of bringing about conditions where all jobs and admissions are decided only on merit in an open competition, in which all aspirants are assured of a fair chance.

The fourth argument is that our experience in the last 43 years has shown that the reservation policy has not delivered the desired results. The reservations have also generated conflicts and tensions.

There is another school of thought which favours reservations. The supporters of this school maintain that there is a wide gulf between the social order that the people of India were promised by a political party led by Gandhiji and the one that has actually been established since Independence. The oppression of the weaker section of society (including lower and backward castes and tribes) by the stronger (upper castes) section has not ended. In fact, it has been aggravated. A new era of social justice and equality still remains a dream to be achieved. The English-speaking educated middle class has come to control and operate levers of state power. It has emerged as the ruling class of the country. By accepting the reservation policy, the government will only be working for the establishment of a new social order that would secure to the underprivileged sectors of our society, justice in social relations and equality of opportunity to rise in social scale.

The two institutions of democracy and planning were expected to serve as instruments for building a new India. But they failed to produce the intended results. For this failure, it is not the institutions themselves which are to be blamed, it is the way they have worked, or the way their working has been distorted by those in power. It was because of the vested interest of the middle-class upper caste which is the ruling elite that our country has a dualistic pattern of growth in which those with access to the holders of power flourish and the population at the lower level (socially and economically) is denied all the tangible gains from the development process.

Whatever may be the theoretical arguments against the reservation policy, in practice reservation policy will continue to be supported by all political parties because of the electoral advantage they derive from this issue. The vote banks are more important to them than the future of the country.

What are the youth and the students to do then? One alternative is that instead of raising the issue of forward versus backward castes, they should raise the issue of vested interests of the political parties and leaders versus the logical interests of the youth in the society. Second, there should be no

compromise on quality and efficiency. Third, they have to take the students/youth of the backward classes with their on this issue and be able to convince them of their stance.

If Weaker sections in India are to rise in revolt because they feel that only violence permits their voice to be heard, the nation will have to pay a very heavy price for this. Our government and our people have to give these docile people the chance of a fair deal to live with honour and self-respect. Similarly, little will be achieved by a debate on the pros and cons of reservations. It will only aggravate the problem and lead to the fragmentation of the country.

5.9 MINORITIES

The Indian socio-economic fabric is very complex because it is greatly affected by caste, religion, and, furthermore, regional/linguistic differentials. At the same time, the Indian economic, social, and political institutions that have persisted for centuries have a historical basis. These factors have given a unique character to Indian society. It has become a conglomeration of various layers and segments, divided and subdivided.

5.9.1 Problems faced by minorities in India

Problem of Identity:

- a) Due to variations in socio-cultural practices, history, and backgrounds, minorities often contend with the challenge of defining their identity.
- b) This, in turn, leads to difficulties in adjusting to the majority community.

Problem of Security:

- a) Different identities and their small number relative to the rest of the society develop feelings of insecurity about their life, assets and well-being.
- b) This sense of insecurity may get accentuated at times when relations between the majority and the minority communities in a society are strained or not very cordial.

Problem Relating to Equity:

- a) The minority community in a society may remain deprived of the benefit of opportunities of development as a result of discrimination.
- b) Because of the difference in identity, the minority community develops the perception of the sense of inequity.

Problem of Communal Tensions and Riots:

- a) Communal tensions and riots have been incessantly increasing since independence.
- b) Whenever the communal tensions and riots take place for whatever reason, minority interests get threatened.

Lack of Representation in Civil Service and Politics:

a) The Constitution provides for equality and equal opportunities to all its citizens including the religious minorities b) the biggest minority community, that is, Muslims have a feeling among them that they are neglected c) However, such a feeling does not seem to exist among the other religious minority communities such as the Christians, Sikhs, Jains and Buddhists, for they seem to be economically and educationally better than the majority community.

Failure to Stick on Strictly to Secularism:

a) India has declared itself as a secular country. b) But in actual practice there is a lack of commitment to secularism, purely religious issues are often politicized by these parties.

5.10 ISSUES AND PROBLEMS FACED BY WOMEN IN INDIA

This is a long challenge women face today for an in-depth understanding in clear words and simple language that can be of help to every student who intends to gain knowledge on this subject.

Our country India very proudly claims to be living in the motherland and worship various woman deities and goddesses but the dire concern of this is women sadly do not get the same respect and equal status.

Even while living in the country with the largest democracy in the world, the women in India fight a fight much harder than a man can even conceive it to be. Indian women's problems are not just limited to social rights, the problems are widespread even in workplaces and homes. The problems are infinite and are only rising by the day, let us understand some of them.

The problems that the generation that came much before us faced included sati-practice which is when a woman is set on fire because when her husband dies she cannot be safe in a society. The sati practice has been banned and even after many governments have changed the cruelty towards women has not faded. The sad part is, it has taken various gruesome forms that affect women physically, mentally and socially.

Problems Faced by Women on a Societal Level:

The main problem that lies in society is the rules set for women, about conduct and behaviour. Some of them are problematic as a woman cannot step out at night without a man, this subconsciously is only promoting the idea that women are unsafe, and due to this in many homes in India, the families treat the girls differently than boys.

Gender roles are set, how a woman speaks, dresses and chooses a way to live her life is also decided by someone who is not a woman but still perceived to have some sort of power over women. Some rules that the

women are expected to abide by, they must be accommodating, they should always compromise even when they are in an unhappy and unsafe environment there is no safe place for women to seek help, and they should learn all the domestic chores.

The consequences of all these rules are increased rapes, sexual harassment, subjection to child marriage, women are better than their per cent of marital rape and when a woman speaks up against any harassment as an act of revenge the harasser throws acid on her. Young girls go missing due to child trafficking and are forced to grow up in a harsher environment that can even be life-threatening. Needless to mention, women are being harassed in public places by bullying, remarking indecently, intimidating their human dignity and eve-teasing.

The problem of dowry, where the girl's family has to give a large amount to the groom's family, is an age-old and regressive problem that still prevails. Due to the inability of providing dowry, many families abandon the girl child and female foeticide is at an all-time high. Most girls in rural areas are also killed by their own families in the name of honour and reputation being hampered when she chooses to marry according to her own will. The honour killing practice is so prevalent and there are no safety rules that protect women.

Beauty is becoming a problem for women, and so is complexion. Fair looking women, especially from lower castes and religions, are not acceptable. This has resulted in acid attacks and deprivation of good food, diet, and lifestyle to look less beautiful and darker than the privileged women of their social class.

Tribal women are beaten to death for witchcraft, an accusation against women who do not cooperate or are incompetent for gratifying men's needs. Similarly, in villages and rich families, women are tortured for not begetting sons for the family. So the female child is killed, which is female foeticide. Having a girl child is considered a curse for the girl child will leave the family and learn the practices of another family while a boy child is expected to carry on the family practices.

Women who become widows and divorcees feel low in society and are deprived of job opportunities with unmarried women. Besides, these women are exploited and abused for auspices; and are not allowed to participate or enjoy functions and holidays.

Using a girl child as a sacrifice to temples results in the prostitution of those women and their exploitation by men and authorities. This practice resulted in the devadasi system.

Women are not allowed to have self-respect, efficiency, personality, individuality capacity and talent. They are blamed on their mental health, and their parents are humiliated and harassed for growing up self-made women who can empower others. They are not allowed to take leadership roles and make futuristic policies. Similarly, if women are ground-breaking or discoveries are hidden and given less importance, they are not encouraged and honed to further the new knowledge.

Pathetic is the plight of women in the media and modeling or fashion world. They are exploited for beauty and misrepresented, encouraging taboo practices and biased toward products and jobs.

Women's health and wellbeing taking secondary place by practice is a social evil, especially when they go out for jobs to bear the economic burden of the household. They should be allowed to eat well, go to the gym, and have a good physical appearance on par with men, indicating good health.

Psychiatric counseling to pregnant women and postpartum women should be encouraged rather than abusing them for hormonal problems. They should be able to manage emotions on par with men. Women should be helped even when they do not cry and shed tears or shout or die fighting back in times of need but can follow procedures, stay calm and ask for a proper protocol to take action.

According to reports, 75 percent of women live in homes where their husbands beat them and abuse them; domestic violence has no limits. The health of a woman is also neglected, poor medical care has put many women's lives in danger.

Problems faced by Women at Schools and Workplace:

Firstly, there are not enough schools especially for girls in rural areas. As women reach puberty their freedom and right to education are snatched away and they are prohibited from going to school. Due to a lack of proper sanitation facilities, many women unwillingly drop out of school. Even after a woman gains an education and a degree and enters the workplace, the problems and issues do not stop. At most workplaces be it corporate or even in a government office, the power play dynamic is exploited. Many male superiors take advantage of their juniors and harass them for pleasure and engage in unlawful activities.

Financial exclusion, the women are not considered when deciding the pay. The women's contribution at the workplace is underestimated and they are paid far lesser than their male colleagues. The women in powerful positions are also pulled down bypassing negative comments. Lack of women representation in every field creates a void in society and a nation does not progress.

Sexual exploitation at the workplace has been a concern and the me-too movement proved it occurs in every stratum. Women are not elected to be in power and decision making roles because they claim men are threatened by women bosses. The woman's progress in a company is not judged by her potential.

Some Ways to Tackle the Issues and Problems Faced by Women:

Raising your voice against the horrendous crime of child marriage and sexual harassment, and try to challenge such events and do your best to stop them. The government also should take steps in punishing those who

practice these. Making education gender-sensitive can be a very positive first step towards giving girls equal rights and opportunities in society. It can be done by ensuring that the school textbooks promote positive stereotypes, have information about women leaders and activities that can bridge the gap between men and women.

When you talk to more women and girls, you will truly understand the problems they face at a grassroots level and then steps can be taken in strides to improve their standing in society. It is very important to empower mothers, provide them with knowledge and real-life examples about how education can be life-changing. Only then they will raise an educated family and not deprive their girl child of this boon that education is.

Only education is not important, it is also crucial to raise the aspirations of girls and their parents by giving them proof of what education can lead to. Education can create powerful and independent women who live life according to their choice whether they choose to be professional or not is up to them. They should be given equal opportunity and encouraged to use opportunities without hesitation.

The important step can be to give proper value to 'women's work'. When the superiors appreciate somebody's work the gender should not come into play and only the work must be judged, only then discrimination at the workplace can be stopped. It is high time to get women into power, when women are in decision making roles they can make better decisions about what will run a society smoothly because they are sensitive and understand a woman's life, the problems she faces and the perspective.

Not depriving girls of progress and knowledge and letting girls make use of technology so that they are connected to the world and they can utilize opportunities for themselves is a win for themselves and the nation as well. Volunteering in an organisation that pledges to work for women safety and growth, since there are organisations that require funds and support as they provide a safe home to women who have gone through traumatic experiences.

One can start a fundraiser and raise money to help the people who are going through the problems and contribute to such causes. Attending marches and protests and claiming public attention attracted a lot of attention that can certainly drive change in the right direction.

Safety should be a point of concern and ensured at all levels be it on the roads, at night, at home and the workplace and laws must be implemented to protect the women of our country. More laws and implementing those laws to practice is essential, especially women employed in such services must be honed to think according to the need for implementing these policies.

The Prevention of Sexual Harassment at the Workplace (POSH) Act is the primary legislation that lays down the guidelines against sexual harassment of women in the workplace. It is important that it is

implemented properly in the workplace. Cases should not be crafted, and women must not be made a scapegoat for showing numbers by corporate companies to claim themselves as a women-friendly organisation. Paid leave for menstruation teaches men not to mistreat women for periods when they go down a little low on energy and feel tired, reducing productivity. Women should be encouraged to have good food and a lifestyle.

5.11 SUMMARY

Scheduled Castes, Other Backward Classes, Tribes, and minorities face different issues, many of which we have discussed in this chapter. Women also encounter numerous challenges in their lives. Women are often considered more compassionate and empathetic than men, but unfortunately, these qualities are sometimes perceived as signs of weakness. Men must realize that patriarchy and ego are not beneficial to women and do not serve their interests either. It's crucial to encourage young girls to speak up if they encounter any issues without fear. Equality in work contribution and pay should be the norm, and at home, men must also contribute to domestic chores. While there is still a long way to go, taking a step together can lead to progress. In short, equality is important, and there should be guidelines in every sector for treating everyone equally.

5.12 QUESTIONS

A) Write Down Short Notes

- Tribal Struggles
- The Reservation Policy
- Problems faced by minorities in India
- Problems Faced by Women on a Societal Level

5.13 REFERENCE

- Ahuja, R. Social Problems in India (2nd ed.). Rawat Publications.

APPLYING SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY TO DIVERSITY AND SOCIAL POPULATIONS – II

Unit Structure

- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Immigrants and host societies challenges and interventions
- 6.3 Migrant grant integration within host community
- 6.4 Diversity of migrants and host community Positive and Negative)
- 6.5 Social cohesion between migrants and host community
- 6.6 Strategic interventions to social cohesion and migrant integration
- 6.7 Psychosocial challenges and intervention strategies for orphans and street children
- 6.8 Approaches in Dealing with Street Children
- 6.9 Orphan children
- 6.10 Disability – Understanding the concept and rehabilitation
 - 6.10.1 Rehabilitation
 - 6.10.2 Provision of aids and appliance
- 6.11 Summary
- 6.12 Questions
- 6.13 References

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe Migrant Integration within host community.
- Understand orphans and street children, prosocial problems.
- Explain rehabilitation.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The decision to migrate is often accompanied by several preconceived expectations, especially that of acceptance by hosts, but with forced migration, the decision is often abrupt, to escape death, famine, and many other fatal conditions (Haug, 2008). The duration it takes a migrant to adapt to the new environment determines how soon to realize integration

with the society. Some migrants tend to adjust sooner than others, through social interaction and engagement in economic activities (Botero, Weissing, Wright, & Rubenstein, 2015). However, not all migrants are warmly received by the host communities or are allowed to enjoy similar privileges with members of the host communities. In such instances, migrants become segregated amongst the host population or marginalized from economic activities, especially if they are refugees. Most host communities are not receptive towards refugees, for fear of losing scarce and valuable resources, such as land (Ediev, Coleman, & Scherbov, 2014).

According to the Women's Refugees Commission (WRC), the urban refugee community of Kampala is divided into two wealth groups; "vulnerable households" and "struggling households". Uganda allocated plots of land in rural areas to refugees for Agriculture, in line with the Refugee Law Project (2005). However, the authorities controlled the movements of refugees leaving the camps. Movement out of the camp was restricted to those seeking medical attention in Kampala, security concerns, pending resettlement or proven self-sufficiency. Since 2006, the government has allowed only few refugees leave the rural settlements (Urban Refugees Organization, 2017). This has created a favorable living condition for refugees, where they can earn an income as well as remit funds to the families left behind. Most of the refugees have made enough money to relocate to urban areas such as Kampala, whereas, some refugees migrate to Kampala to seek employment opportunities or engage in informal trade. Majority of these refugees reside in informal settlements in Kampala, where they contribute to the rise in urban poverty and the swelling of slum population. According to the UN data, 2010, children of poor refugees residing in Kampala, are not registered in schools, due to the high school fees (Dryden-Peterson, 2006).

Migrants tend to display diverse cultures within the host communities. Countries that attract migrants from several geographical regions tend to enjoy a myriad of cultures that enriches the society, although not all cultures are accepted by the host communities. Some cultural practices are considered extreme and inhuman, as such the migrants are mistreated. Notwithstanding the negative impacts of migration on host populations, there are some instances where the host population benefit immensely from the migrants through cultural assimilation and induction of new economic practices (Skeldon, 2001). Social cohesion is induced by certain values such as trust, equity and respect. However, these elements are not always present in every situation. Some societies display cohesive tendencies for a limited period, while pursuing a common agenda and disperse as soon as they meet those objectives. Most of the ethnic groups united to force the colonial administrators out of power, to gain independence. Following independence, they retracted to their ethnic communities and began to contend for the seat of power independently through party systems.

6.2 IMMIGRANTS AND HOST SOCIETIES CHALLENGES AND INTERVENTIONS

Migration is the movement of people from their original habitat to a destination outside the borders of their origin, purposely to settle and can be voluntary or forced. The consequences of migration are usually not predetermined, due to various stages of uncertainty that may arise, to deter the motive of the migrant to relocate. Migrants are often faced with challenges of being accepted by host communities, hence the difficulties in communal integration, harmonious living, commerce, cultural practices, religious beliefs, language barriers, agricultural practices, economic activities, social integration, and others. Invariably, conflict between host communities and migrants distorts social cohesion and other forms of societal decadence. In other cases, migrants contribute significantly to Regional Economic Integration, whereby the migrants are the agents of economic diversity through cross-border trade activities. There are also positive benefits of hosting migrants. Cross-border trade contributes to the Gross Domestic Product of the host state, as well as improving the social and cultural relations between the migrants and the hosts. However, there are some drawbacks like human trafficking, smuggling of contraband, proliferation of small arms and light weapons and narcotic trafficking. It is widely argued, criminal organizations operating in the region are mostly residing in border communities, where mobility is not a hindrance to their escape when they operate between two countries.

It is often argued that when countries cooperate economically, they are less likely to engage in conflict, suggesting that immigrants are ambassadors of peace, promote good neighborliness and strengthen regional integration. The business integration objective of the East African Community (EAC) has encouraged economic migration in the region, giving migrants the opportunity to expand their businesses across borders, creating new jobs for host communities and improving social cohesion between migrants and their hosts. The driving force of economic integration is the development of the atmosphere of national market integration and the improvement of socio-cultural relations. Both programs are run by immigrants. However, forced migrants may not participate in the host community as much as volunteers because of the psychological impact of war on their productive capacity and because they lack access to the resources of the host country. Both voluntary and forced migrants contribute to the cultural diversity of host communities through social interactions that can be accepted or rejected. Therefore, their relationship can be a catalyst for development or conflict. Intercultural relations can lead to racist or xenophobic attacks, especially when opposing ideologies are consistent in the lifestyles of migrants of different races, such as among Somali migrants who have settled in different countries. When both immigrants and hosts are of the same race, the hatred is considered xenophobic. South Africa is an example of a country that experiences xenophobia and racism at the same time. The white and black races of South Africa are constantly in conflict over economic

resources, while the black races of South Africa are also in conflict with other African immigrants, an example of xenophobia. Kenya is a clear example of racism, xenophobia, intolerance, social cohesion, integration and diversity. When Kenya began to develop the railway, the Indians entered into an agreement to build and maintain the network, marking their settlement on the land. These railway workers became Kenyan citizens and became the largest non-African community. However, their compromise created racism that prevails in their relations with other races to this day. Kenyans were also xenophobic towards other Africans, especially the Somalis who ruled the northeast of the country.

The diverse ethnic groups exhibit intolerance between them which has hindered the prospect of nationalism after its demise, after independence. Intolerance is widely displayed among in-migrants when they are either in transit or converge with other tribes in urban cities.

6.3 MIGRANT INTEGRATION WITHIN HOST COMMUNITY

Assimilation:

The decision to cross an international boundary for the purpose of relocation, presents various opportunities as well as challenges. The foremost challenge a migrant encounter is culture shock, which is often caused by initial physical experience on arrival at destination. The culture of host communities often differs from that of the migrant, hence the difficulties in adapting to the language, religion, values and lifestyle choices of the host community. The challenges in assimilation are experienced by both host and migrants. The hosts may not easily comprehend the culture of the migrant, hence the resistance in accommodating migrants, especially refugees (Whitaker, 2015).

In the case of refugees, they are escaping volatile conditions and do not choose where they relocate, as such, they have no predetermined expectations or preparedness while crossing international borders (Gibney, 2015). They suffer mental stability, therefore their assumptions, expectations as well as the outcomes of their residence within host communities are new experiences. Some refugees, however are inflicted with psychological trauma, due to conflicts in their home countries. Therefore, are withdrawn, hence, not sociable on arrival at the host community (Familiar, Hall, Bundervoet, Verwimp, & Bass, 2016). For example, former child militants, who have been forced to kill close relatives to qualify for recruitment in the militia as evident in Sierra Leone Civil War (1991-2002)³. After the war, these child militants crossed the border to join their relatives in neighboring countries without going through any rehabilitation or demobilization and disarmament program (Derluyn, Vindevogel, & De Haene, 2013). They resumed civilian life with a distorted mindset, which reflects on their relative capacities with host communities. Female refugees face more psychological challenges

while settling down in host communities, due to mental and physical injuries sustained from rape during conflicts in their countries (Kohli, et al., 2014). These human right violations, destroy the productive capacity of refugee women in host communities, due to injuries sustained from rape, such as damaged uterus (Benshoof, 2014). In addition, men from those communities marry outside their community, and therefore not extend their lineage in the host communities (Clark, 2014). The perceived motive behind rape is to ensure the victims are not capable of reproduction, and never willing to return to their homeland, due to fear, trauma and stigma. This implies that the militants' objective of rape was to control population growth through rape. This in fact is an act of genocide and a gross human right violation (Chapleau & Oswald, 2013). Despite international conventions against rape, militia groups as well as the South Sudan military consistently violate the provisions of international law.

Employment:

Opportunities Migrants have very high expectations that may not be fulfilled at destination, hence, the disappointment and frustrations that ensue (Creighton, 2013). The first expectation of a migrant is to secure a meaningful job for immediate sustenance while they seek more sustainable opportunities. Migrants often consider the probability of finding employment in the host country overlooking potential barriers that may prevent access to the jobs they desire. They often ignore an assessment of the nature of the labor market before migrating. Some labour markets do not permit migrants, due to the limitations that exist, such as an overwhelming labour market, limited vacancies and government restrictions. Migrants are usually not permitted to work with their visitors' visa in many countries, which is a reason for migrant engagement in criminal activities, as a resolve to generating income for themselves and for the families left behind (Menjívar & Lakhani, 2016). Existing immigration policies at country level would have to be reviewed and where necessary revised, especially countries that attract labour migrants. This review will not only reduce the chances of migrants becoming undocumented and working with the risk of being deported, but will also endeavor to respect international obligations such as the United Nations 2030 Agenda Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) through its Member States. It aims to create conditions for sustainable, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, shared prosperity and decent work for all, importantly identifies migrants as vulnerable people who must be empowered and whose needs are reflected in the Agenda to end poverty in all its forms everywhere, protect labour rights and promotions of safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment with special attention on forced and child labour. The UN Member States also agreed to ensure that all migrants will be allowed to move safely and responsibly (Colglazier, 2015).

Unsafe migration distorts social and economic development and often leads to the exploitation of migrants. Exploitation of migrants often begins

at origin, where they are recruited for several informal labours in other countries. Their ignorance to international norms leave them vulnerable to the traffickers. Discussions at a global level have already begun through the Global Compact on Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration through regional consultations to outline some of the key issues to be considered. An example is the trafficking of teenage girls from Benin Kingdom of Edo State Nigeria to Lomé, Togo. The traffickers take the young girls through the West African borders to the Republic of Togo for orientation, which includes practicing prostitution. They are held there for several months until a host in Italy or France is prepared to receive them (John & Faith, 2015). Women and girls make up the majority of migrants globally, as a result of the discriminations they face in their country of origin (Gallagher, 2015). Patriarchal perceptions borne to the societies where these women reside generate expected roles and responsibilities by gender with women playing a more private role and men a public role. These perceptions of African women playing traditional homemaker roles have been challenged through feminist movements from the developed countries, which assume that this situation as enslavement and thus initiate programs to enlighten African women and their community to be self-sufficient and independent of men in the society (Allen, 2016). African women have been able to participate in employment and become self-sufficient as they contribute to the household economy while at the same time taking care of the home by recruitment house helps. This has often resulted in tensions between husband and wife as two divergent views on gender roles within the household and in the public sphere would lead to broken households (Yoon, et al., 2015). Those female migrants that play a more traditional role within the household would experience difficulties socializing with a host community where women contribute to the household economy and are self-sufficient. They are bound by culture to remain at home, therefore limiting their exposure to the host community which may lead to alienation due to cultural differences. Their contribution to development is often indirect, as they have transferred the culture of not working in public, hence, they neither generate revenue nor pay income taxes. However, many have argued that their contribution to the home can be quantified and assessed for productivity and societal development. The home is considered a fragment of the society, therefore if the home is not in order, the entire members would be considered to be living in chaos. The chaotic living conditions are not favorable to the mental health of those members of the family who contribute to public development. And as migrant families, they will be inconsistent at work, which may lead to losing their jobs (Abdi, 2014).

Housing:

Housing is usually a major concern for migrants in terms of finding the right neighborhood that is safe for their families, affordable with good transport links. Major cities which are primarily destinations for internal and international migrants offer different types of housing depending on affordability. Those migrants that are financially constrained, often seek informal accommodation in congested areas, such as slums, which are

mostly affordable. The increased slum population impacts on available infrastructure, such as sewage, water supply, medical services and sanitation services. These services are in short supply to informal settlements, due to the unplanned and unstructured living situations within informal settlements that do not meet required standards of the city council (Mberu, Ezech, Chepngeno- Langat, Kimani, & Oti, 2013). Refugees are not privileged to enjoy similar benefits as other migrants, who have a choice to where they reside. Refugees are settled in host communities determined by the government where they have access to social services provided by a number of international agencies such as UNHCR, World Health Organisation and UNICEF. Their movement is managed by the government and UNHCR and in some countries. Refugees who integrate with their families who reside legally in Kenya, find it much easier to socialize with host communities and assimilate Kenya cultures faster than those who have no relatives in the country. Those with families residing in Kenya, assist in domestic chores, and by so doing, contribute to refreshing their kin of their native cultures by cooking native foods and speaking native language around the house. Children in such situations, learn their cultures and adopt their traditional values in their lifestyle (Gilhooly & Lee, 2014).

6.4 DIVERSITY OF MIGRANTS AND HOST COMMUNITY(POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE)

Migration ensures the transfer of different cultural norms and values to the host communities, which is sometimes rejected, especially if the cultures seem to be extreme to the belief system of the host community. Therefore, migrants with similar cultural practices are often segregated from social and economic activities in host communities.

Migrants who are easily assimilated into host communities, are those whose cultures are already being adopted by members of the host communities or those that have historical relations with the host country through colonial or other ties. As such their contribution to the development of the social and economic milieu is mostly accepted, with the hope that they may sustain those contributions. This is the usual practice, when the migrants are from a more developed nation, such as countries in Europe or the United States of America. These migrants enjoy rare and esteemed privileges amongst host communities, and usually settle for longer periods until they become citizens. (Carboni & Soi, 2016).

6.5 SOCIAL COHESION BETWEEN MIGRANTS AND HOST COMMUNITY

Social cohesion between migrants and host communities occurs when they are in agreement over shared resources, such as land, infrastructure and economic activities (Spoonley, Peace,, Butcher, & O'Neill, 2005). The growth of the migrant population is also dependent on the sustained

friendliness and compromises between migrants and host communities (Kawachi & Berkman, 2000). Social cohesion may occur from social and economic relations. For example, when migrants provide services that are in high demand or of significant importance to the host community, the host community lacks the capacity to provide similar services (Friedberg & Hunt, 1995). These services may range from household requirements to public utilities. The host communities may also be in admiration of the migrants' culture, which would enable ease of integration and assimilation between the migrants and the hosts. Social cohesion between migrants and host communities occurs when the migrants are at peace with the host communities, whereby assimilation is dependent on the ability of the migrant to adopt or accept host cultures. Host communities often appreciate when migrants learn their cultures and are tolerant of their religions and traditional values.

6.6 STRATEGIC INTERVENTIONS TO SOCIAL COHESION AND MIGRANT INTEGRATION

While the process of integrating can be a shock to migrants and establishing a fair balance of social cohesion between the migrant and host community may appear daunting, there are a few strategic approaches that can be adopted to improve relations between migrant and host communities. First, sensitization of host communities and migrants is necessary to reduce any negative perceptions and challenges that may emerge between the two communities. The peaceful coexistence of migrants and host communities have been of concern to the international community, especially if the migrants are refugees from a neighboring country. Refugees from war torn nations sometimes resume conflict at host nations, when they migrate with their enemies. When the conflict resumes, it affects the host communities more than the opposing ethnic groups they are in primary conflict with. The resolve to maintain peace in the host community is an intervention to redress the differences through various means of communication, both in domestic and public domain. Such as through the radios, posters, television and other means that are often used to communicate to the members of the society.

Second, adopting a sustainable relationship between migrant and host community is also needed especially in the long run to ensure peaceful co-existence. Both communities will have to learn to understand cultural norms and values bearing in mind the differences in the event conflict arises due to these differences. For those communities hosting refugees, they would have to be sensitive to the needs of the refugee population bearing in mind that they have undergone a traumatic experience. This will help the host community better understand and accept migrant populations knowing that they have different value systems. Most economic migrants chose to reside in locations where they can improve their domestic income and sustain their household, inclusive of the families left behind. Refugees, however, do not have such privileges of choice in residing in another country. They are forced to reside there

without any consideration to their welfare or coping strategies to endemic issues in host communities. Some migrants do not consider the cultures of the host communities before making a choice to where they shall reside, hence the conflict that arises from rejection, disrespect to cultural values and disobedience to traditional laws. An example is the Ramadan period in Abu Dhabi, where migrants are not allowed to drink liquids in public domain due to the fasting of Muslims. Most migrants may not feel comfortable with such rules, especially in a highly humid city, where migrants who are not accustomed to the weather are mostly dehydrated.

Third, there is a need to develop safer migration practices at a national, regional and global level. Through the UN Global Compact on Migration, steps are being taken to assess safer ways of migrating and to ensure regular migration takes place. The international frameworks and guiding principles exist as useful tools for governments and regional economic communities to use to mainstream migration into their laws and policies but also outline practices that can be used to effectively manage migration. Without laws governing migration, border conflicts alone will account for the majority of global conflicts. According to the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs 2015, 244 million people resided outside their countries of origin in 2015. The huge numbers of migrants and refugees was a focus of attention at the UN Summit for Refugees in 2016, as the delegates stressed on the fundamental human rights and fundamental freedom of migrants. Although, states possess the sovereign right to determine admission and residence of non-nationals on their territory, but also have the responsibility under international law to protect persons who have entered their territory or come under their jurisdiction. Key international frameworks and conventions that should be considered when shaping the policy or approach to safe and regular migration include the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR). Article 2 states that "Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty." Other Treaties protecting the rights of migrants include; International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). Other conventions that could give shape to safer migration include but not limited to:

- The International Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (ICERD),
- The International Convention on the Rights of Migrant Workers (ICRMW), and
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)

- Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).
- The International Labour Organization Convention Concerning Migrations in Abusive Conditions and Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (No 143, 1975);
- 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees;
- UNGA resolutions on Protection of migrants and Violence against women migrant workers;
- HRC resolutions on Human rights of migrants;
- 2000 Protocols against Trafficking and Smuggling;
- 2011 ILO Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (No. 189);
- ILO Forced Labour Protocol and Recommendation (2014); and
- 1997 Private Employment Agencies Convention (No. 181) and its Recommendation.

6.7 PSYCHOSOCIAL CHALLENGES AND INTERVENTION STRATEGIES FOR ORPHANS AND STREET CHILDREN

De Brito (2014) describes street children as a major social problem in some countries and the importance of acknowledging the issue. To change global development of the problems with street children, the problem must first be highlighted. According to UNICEF (De Brito, 2014) there are tens of millions of street children all around the world. In South Africa, many children made the street their home or at least spent most time outside their homes. Giddens (2014) describes that most people in today's society see childhood in the process of becoming an adult. Childhood includes a content of social and structural positions in different communities depending on where a child is growing up. Childhood is nowadays no longer a universal social construction; it depends on the experiences a child gets in the society. Sociology has left the functional perspective of childhood and has begun to see children as active participants in constructing their own lives in society.

Giddens (2014) writes that children who are exposed to physical and physical violence at home do not have the luxury of a caretaking family. The life of a street child is a life of constantly trying to survive on the street.

UNICEF (2001) defined a street child as any boy or girl who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street has become her or his habitual sources of livelihood, one who is inadequately protected, supervised or directed by responsible adults. What is clear from the above definition of a street child is that such a child leaves home to stay on the street and the street not only becomes the child's home but also the source of a living. Such a child assumes full responsibilities in his or her own life. Street children are further defined as either 'on the street' or 'of the street'. Children 'of the street' live and sleep on the streets in urban areas and streets are their homes whereas children 'on the street' have their homes and only come to the streets to beg for money during the day and return home in the evening. The former group has no contact with family while the latter lives with family (Chireshe, Jadezweni, Cekiso, et al, 2014).

Problems faced by Street Children:

Local Context:

In conversation with the social workers, we talked about street children and how they perceive the issue of the phenomenon. It also appeared how the locals view street children. These children are not any different from any other child. Research stated that there are usually two different types of street children; there is the "manipulative" one and the "naïve" one. The naive child is basically new to the street and does not have the experiences of the street yet. The naive one is the one who is mostly beaten up by the other street children, just because they don't just yet have the same skills and experience as the other children. The manipulative type is referring to the child who has been on the street for a while and knows how to adapt to the surroundings in order to get what they want. By using clever skills, they have learned from others on the street: "Street children are good at manipulation, they know what social workers want to hear in order to get what they want".

Another expressed type of street children was so called "strollers", which means children who have a family and do not sleep on the streets. To describe this concept of a street child the social worker discloses that the family of the specific child knows that he or she is begging on the street, these children are 'on the street' and the begging is usually the entire family's biggest income.

According to one volunteer worker, urbanization creates the issue of street children. The volunteer explains that there are a variety of reasons for being on the street. The privileges that children regularly have are taken away. The volunteer further explains that the perception of street children in the community is that they are dangerous; it brings fear to people which also indirectly gives the children power. Several social workers follow the reasoning above and explain that these children come from families or situations that eventually forces them to leave, there is nowhere else to go but the street. There is an illusion of freedom that these children get by living on the street. It is not a choice to leave their homes for the street but

there is a conscious choice to stay on the street. One social worker described how a lot of children live under bridges by the water and canals to feel safer. These places become warm because of heat from the sun. This became a shelter for the cold winters and rainy days. The social workers in one study said that the age of street children is various however it mostly begins in the early teens and continues up until the year of 20. The teens mostly get in trouble with their families, therefore, the small or youngest children are less common living on the streets. These children can take care of themselves in very bad circumstances. They have people skills and know exactly how to read you to get them to do what they want you to do. They are excellent readers, in a negative way, but also in a good way when they protect each other.

Social workers conveyed that they have seen that mainly boys live on the street and tend to be more violent and easily get into criminal activities. When it comes to girls, these children tend to get involved with human trafficking or use their bodies in prostitution. It all depends on what pursuit the society has. Some parts are more conservative and other places have a lot of prostitution of boys. Girls tend to be more subjected to violence as a consequence of trafficking and prostitution. Street children create their own family on the street. It becomes a community. There is another set of rules when it comes to morality and these rules are free from the pressure of the laws of society. The tough part of being a street child is to survive by yourself without any support except from the other street children. The community is created in order to protect every member of the group and it is one of the important survival strategies they use.

They slept, walked or begged, always nearby or together with other street children. The children have a rule that they must share everything; money, food or other things they collect during the day out on the street.

The Quick Fix:

The circumstances and environment at home could make it difficult for children to stay. It is when a child leaves home for the street, that it shows their determination and belief for this only solution. Therefore, it is extremely important to make them realize that there are rights for children that they could turn to, to gain support and eventually create a better life. From an interview with one volunteer, it was revealed that street children are perceived as an issue that people feel guilty about as well as a failure from the community. The people of the community look at the issue and believe in a “quick fix”. The problem with the thought about the so-called “quick fix” is that: ...it’s like taking a fish out of the water and expecting it to survive. To take the street away from the children for good requires an approach of preparation. These children are humans and not objects, they are still children of the street, no matter how society shows to perceive them.

Many people donate to different organizations to help the work with the children. It was explained that the most beneficial way for the

organizations to get money is via volunteers or interest from departments and businesses. But there are also people that give money directly to the children. In fact, several interviewees mentioned that this contributes to the children staying on the street because they collect money themselves and use it to buy glue or other drugs according to the social workers. In that way they do not need the organizations and the problem remains. Think before you give a child on the street money or food or something else; think of what you are supporting. People can give the child money to feel better about themselves, they give the money because of the guilt.

It is the habit of giving, that makes children stay on the street and find it harder to get out of the bad situation that they are in. The most common reason to give street children money is that people want to feel good about themselves: "The children are visible and saying to the community that "you failed me" and the society don't want to see it that way." . It was described as; people do not want to see the problem that is in front of them. It feels better to give street children money since it creates a satisfactory feeling of an action of a good deed. One problem with this way of viewing the issue of street children is that: "The money does not go to food, instead it goes to drugs"

Family Relationships:

Almost all interviewees had similar answers when it came to family conditions; almost every street child has a family. Reasons that children leave their homes was exemplified as abuse, poverty, lack of resources and education: Most parents have not been taught the right way to take care of a child and do not make good role models. The fathers are usually absent, which creates a loss of a male role model for the boys. It was also described that, in an environment where abuse or neglect are present in different terms it eventually becomes normal for a child. This description confirms a certain fundamental mindset of the parents of these children. To state this it was expressed that the parent-child relationship is usually bad: The children could be cold, hungry or have physical needs, but won't go back home to their family. The bad habitat of the home could be worse than the street, it is mostly poverty or abuse that goes hand in hand for a child to become a street child. The things that children experience during childhood form them in the future. As this quote points out, these children have individual requirements and a need to be seen.

Streetwise:

These children mobilize themselves to places where there are a lot of tourists, for example around the coast. Street children can show feelings of anger when they are offered food instead of money: "Some are aggressive. If people don't give in, they could attack them by spitting on them or fighting."

There are children who have been directly exposed to violence, have been subjected to violence on different levels or witnessed violence in their communities or within the family. Violence could be experienced on both a psychological and physical level. It affects each child differently: People take advantage of them violently or sexually - because they know they are vulnerable and the child doesn't care anymore because he gets money. They have already been subjected to violence before and therefore it doesn't matter anymore. It was further described that these children cope and take care of themselves at a young age, they are in other words skilled and know how to read people. These children are small but yet so tough. These children grew up too fast and skipped important parts of childhood: "They would kill for a blanket. They create little communities to protect each other - its survival strategies".

Solutions:

The second main theme that revealed itself through analysis was Solutions. This part of the result is exploring this theme and dealing with methods and strategies that the social workers said that they used in order to get the children away from the streets. The following sub-themes will be discussed; The Organizations, Preventive Work as an Effort, The Possibility of Making a Difference, Gender Methods, Family-based Work and Strategies in Working with Street Children.

The Organizations:

There are several organizations working with the issue. There are many organizations who work with street children but they are often not specialized on this issue. It was further on described that, there are among others, a specialized non-governmental organization that mainly focuses on crime prevention. The NGO makes a variety of programs that are preventative in increasing crimes at schools

It was mentioned that the cooperation between the organizations often organize programs that are concerning activities such as Child Protection week, creating awareness of the issue and cooperation with the police about crime prevention in schools and programs for challenging bad behavior. Some activities allow the children to cooperate and play together in events such as soccer tournaments and workshops in order to make people in the society change the perception of street children. It is a chance for the children to be like an ordinary child.

One organization is responsible for the food while another is responsible for the shelter. Organizations also cooperate with the church and volunteers. Volunteers are hard to find. Since volunteers work for free they do not work for long as they also have a need to work for money to provide for themselves. It is easy to steer the children forward to the organization that can help the particular child to reach a change in behavior and find their role in society". It is about the needs of the

children and these facts are what determines the cooperation ``.Further it was described that: "Community work at its best is when everyone starts to stand up for each other" It could also be challenging because the whole community must get involved with the prevention work to help the children: Beneficial work is when people are working in a group. That is cost-effective - it's more helpful than individual work. It's better to work in groups or teams in order to provide prevention work. That's why the community work is one of the most important work with these children.

The biggest challenges are the lack of support from the government. When the support is absent, the preventive work also decreases. One important law is that people working with street children do not do follow-ups on cases: "There is mostly no time for it but also lack of resources". This fact is one of the biggest problems with community work.

The Possibility of Making a Difference:

Working with children, the most meaningful part in their work is the possibility of making a difference in the street children's lives: It's not always a difference as in changing everything for the better in time, it's about the ability to have an impact on the process of the system and on the political level. Every child in the world has a need for love, attention and care in order to change behavior. Street children have a tendency to respond negatively to generosity and actions of love due to the lack of love in their earlier experiences. Later on when these children become a mother, they can give that attention that their children need, just because of their own childhood. Several social workers described these children as humans in need of contact with someone that cares for each of them without being aware of it. These children will not ask for help from the social services however the creation of relationships with social workers is very important. It is the first step in restoring the trust in order to get to the turning point of the child's life. child protections systems must be exercised and that children need a support system: The most meaningful thing about working with street children is the part of making a difference - not in a direct way but in a process such as influence the system and political levels, and to see the work you do make a difference in the long run.

Genders Methods:

The methods and processes differ for boys and girls. Firstly, boys are usually easier to find on the street and are more openly selling items or begging for money. Specific actions on how to reach out to the girls were outlined. It was also emphasized the importance of creating a trustworthy contact with the leaders (often males) of the group. Various situations were described by social workers where boys from the street introduced girls to the social workers with the goal of taking the girls off the street. Girls are often more vulnerable. As soon as you find a girl, it is important to take her off the street right away. Usually, girls use their bodies to make

money and therefore have a different strategy than boys but are also more exposed.

Family-based Work:

Street children usually have done everything that could have been done at home in order to save themselves without any success and this leads to feelings of not being loved. It is a child that takes charge of their own life and when they decide to leave their families, there is usually nothing that can make them return home. It was further explained that the conferences are about informing family members about the situation as well as how the family can create a more beneficial environment at home. There is also an intervention of therapy for the whole family, the reason is basically to involve the parents and educate them in how to create a better environment for the child: The street is more of a home than their real home. It is important to establish a better relationship between the child and the parents; aim is for the child to leave the streets and go back home to a healthy environment. It was also mentioned that family-based work is about reuniting the family and keeping the children away from the street, as a preventive method.

6.8 APPROACHES IN DEALING WITH STREET CHILDREN

There are differences in working with street children compared to other children. the importance of individuality, that everyone has their own method that works for them when it comes to destructive behavior: there is not only the visible requirement that needs to be cared for, but also the psychological needs. Such as unconditional love and sustainability. Furthermore, there must be a will from the child to change and a readiness to move forward in the work for leaving the street: Some children cope faster than others. Meet each child where they are and consult them” these children live like one unit rather than showing their different personalities. That a group of children can look the same on the outside however each child in order to identify what their particular needs are” These individuals are used to living by their own rules and these do not always go together with the rules that society has made. Everyone has their own baggage that has not been dealt with and the level of skills they carry from the street is not functional in the shelter.

Out-reach Work:

In the out-reach work the children are allowed to visit the drop-in center. At the drop-in center certain rules are created. The rules are about to create trust: “The glue that they possess is not allowed at the center, but will be brought back to the child as soon as they leave the center”. After a few attempts it eventually will come to a point where the professionals invite them to the shelter. At the drop-in center, there is an arrangement of new clothes, provision of food and laundry services and assistance with

personal hygiene: The activities are very informal, much about trusting and getting them to want to change. They must do things voluntarily. Furthermore, it was brought to our attention, the importance of creating a positive picture for these children. To see each child as an individual and make them see themselves as something more than a child on the street. If you view yourself as positive and have dreams to reach for it's easier for the surroundings to look and meet you in a positive way.

Restored Trust:

The most important thing is to build and to restore trust, otherwise it is hard to work with these children. Further, it is explained that instead of bringing the children the things that they need, social workers need to spend time with the child in order to make them change through free will: "There is a need of understanding the dynamics of the street children in order to restore their trust. Time needs to be invested in the child otherwise they will get lost and run away again". Another social worker described that negotiation is often the key: "There are children that are at different stages emotionally and physically that require in-the-moment work". It is important to allow the children to be in the street in order to make them leave and it is important to take advantage of their knowledge. To gain the children's trust, they usually do fun things together with the children. Eventually, the children get comfortable and start to open up. For example, activities create distraction and distance children from the street and so the children have fun together and develop together.

The Shelter:

After visiting the drop-in centers, additional rules are implemented, such as refraining from fighting and using inappropriate language. The children are taught the essential norms of living with others. Upon becoming part of the shelter, diverse reactions are observed. Some children may sit in a corner or question the purpose of being there, as they no longer rely on their street smarts, which is all they know. Others undergo behavioral and pattern changes upon entering the shelter, expressing reactions like separation anxiety or acting out due to an inability to cope with the new situation. Some children become more warmhearted and caring as efforts are made to build trust.

Once these children become part of the shelter or a safer environment, they develop skills and interests in activities like playing with toys, revealing a range of emotions. Older children may engage in playing with toys, demonstrating that emotionally and mentally, they are at a younger age. The shelter provides social work services, including therapeutic and developmental work, to help these children envision a better life for themselves. The shelter also grants access to informal and formal education, ensuring consistency. However, sometimes working with families proves challenging due to unfavorable environments. The most common difficulty cited is convincing street children to leave the streets. The challenge lies in persuading them that there is a way to create better

lives for themselves, even if they have not yet socially adapted. Essentially, the goal with street children is to instigate change and, hopefully, create more success stories of street children with improved outcomes.

6.9 ORPHAN CHILDREN

India is home to the largest population of orphan children (31 million) in South Asia. These children are at increased risk of psychosocial distress. Majority of children yearned for their parents and longed for love and affection. Apart from low self-concept and lack purpose in life, long term bereavement had resulted in depression and anxiety issues among these children. Trying to forget parents, avoiding crowded places, making new friends and finding their family among inmates of orphanages were the coping mechanisms adopted by orphan children. Following are the problems faced by orphan children :

Psychological problems:

i. Depression and stress:

Study revealed that the majority of children felt sad and depressed due to their stay in the orphanage and also due to parental bereavement.

ii. Low self-esteem and purpose:

Children reported low levels of self-esteem and lacked purpose in life. The majority of children felt they were worthless and good for nothing. They believed that the education provided at schools would help them earn a better life and future. They assumed that experiences of orphanage would help them become a strong and better person once they age out of the orphanage.

iii. Loneliness and helplessness:

In-depth interviews of participants reflected that most of them were lonely and often felt helpless. On the contrary, there were children who enjoyed being with other inmates and poured their heart out to them.

iv. Love and affection:

Results also indicated that due to parental bereavement children were longing for love and affection especially the younger ones; they would not understand why they ended up living in an orphanage. On the other hand, older children were still a little satisfied because other inmates had become their family and they cared for each other. The majority of children stated that they still miss their parents and often have a problem falling asleep due to their memories. Seeing other kids with parents often reminded them of their families.

Social issues

i. Behavioral disorders:

Most of the children reported problems with behavior and detachment. They were shy and were less interactive and expressive outside the orphanage. Attachment disorders were also reported among participants. Although most of the children reported that they were comfortable with inmates of the orphanage but due to the provision of transfer of kids from one orphanage to other children avoided mingling with newcomers.

ii. Lack of guidance:

The majority of OVC reported that they lack adult guidance and advocacy. Although children were going to school, they didn't know what to do afterward or what they would do once they left the orphanage.

iii. Rejection:

Children staying in orphanages often feel rejected and disowned by their own people. These dejected children enter children's homes which in no way can replace familial love and affection.

iv. Recognition and approval:

Most of the times OVC have to experience stigmatization by society. Many children reported their concern about whether they will be able to fit in the society or more so be accepted by the society. Other children were afraid to voice out their opinions fearing embarrassment.

v. Security:

These children lead a stressful life, and once they go out of orphanage they are likely to slip into poverty. They don't have any special training or any assurance of a job. Children believe that their future is quite insecure and dark. They often felt there was no one to advocate for them if something went wrong.

vi. Isolation:

This was the most common problem of children living in institutional care. Most of them felt that they were free enough to interact with people outside the orphanage. Children's responses showed that they felt left out and isolated from in the orphanage.

Coping strategies:

Children used different coping strategies to deal with psychosocial issues they faced on a day-to-day basis as discussed below.

i. Spiritual approach:

Most of the children reported that whenever they are worried or upset about something they pray to God. They said that they often complained to God about the hardships of life and felt better.

ii. Supporting inmates:

The majority of children said that whenever some children have a problem, especially younger ones, we try to solve it and support them. Though they didn't have a family, most of them considered all the inmates as their family, and some were even close to their caregivers.

iii. Suppressing feelings:

It was found that while most of the children yearned for their parents, some considered that actively suppressing feelings and forgetting about problems associated with parents is the key to psychological recovery and happiness.

iv. Shifting focus to other activities:

Many children reported that whenever they felt down, they tried to focus on something else like any activity which made them happy like playing with other inmates, studying, watching television or simply by going to sleep.

v. Substance abuse:

Some older children accepted that many times they smoked and chewed tobacco to avoid tension and be carefree. Some others reported that they often used pain relieving balms as inhalants to relieve tension and anxiety.

vi. Self-discrimination:

These practices were more common among younger children or those who were new to the atmosphere of the orphanage. They often sit alone, cry a lot, skip meals and isolate themselves which is harmful to their wellbeing.

vii. Misbehavior:

Some children accept that whenever they are stressed, they get irritated very easily on small things and feel agitated and therefore, take out their anger on fellow children and sometimes even on the caregivers.

viii. Detachment:

Some children also reported that to keep the emotions at bay they try not to be sentimental or emotionally attached to people around them. They

feel that detachment from others would save and secure them from getting hurt.

It is important for children to understand the difference between healthy and unhealthy coping strategies and how to use healthy ones in their life. With proper guidance and support children can use professional interventions as per their problems. With therapeutic session children can achieve excellence in their life.

6.10 DISABILITY - UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT AND REHABILITATION

Disability is much more complex and often not so very clearly visible at all times. It is a fact that almost all of us at some point in our lives may temporarily or permanently experience disability. It could be a fractured limb or chronic migraines, which makes it difficult to even talk. But it is equally important to remember that even if this is the case, the needs, rights and provisions that focus around disabilities should not become a secondary priority in the name of providing 'equal access to all'.

In its simpler form according to the World Health Organisation (WHO), "[a] disability is any condition of the body or mind (impairment) that makes it more difficult for the person with the condition to do certain activities (activity limitation) and interact with the world around them (participation restrictions)".

In the statement above there are three key points that are important for us to pay attention to. According to the World Health Organization, disability has three components:

1. Impairment in a person's body structure or function, or mental functioning; examples of impairments include loss of a limb, loss of vision or memory loss.
2. Activity limitation, such as difficulty in seeing, hearing, walking, or problem solving.
3. Participation restrictions in normal daily activities, such as working, engaging in social and recreational activities, and obtaining health care and preventive services.

There is also a debate about the terminology. Some individuals as well as activists prefer the term 'differently abled,' while others prefer to use 'disabled'. Earlier the term 'handicap' was used and some people still use it. But the use of the term 'handicap' is problematic. Handicap began to be applied to physical and mental differences in the early 1900s, when the new fields of sociology and social work started looking at people in terms of their place in society as a whole. More derogatory terms were also used like crippled, lame, imbecile, invalid etc. However, things started to

change with the birth of the disability rights movement. 'Disable' was adopted as part of the self-determination process. This evolution in terminology also reflects the struggle for asserting rights. Causes of disability are also very diverse. It can be due to conditions present at birth that may later affect life, or genetic or environmental factors or on account of injury or caused by long standing health conditions like diabetes. One can be born with a disability. It could also be learning disabilities like dyslexia, which is a reading disability that involves difficulty reading due to problems identifying speech sounds and learning how they relate to letters and words. People when they grow old can get various forms of disabilities, for example memory loss, limited mobility and could require assistance in routine functions.

Cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy (MD), Down's syndrome, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), blindness, learning difficulties, and gross motor delay are common and many of the children, now young adults, have multiple conditions." Accessibility and inclusivity are other two terms that will be used in this Unit.

Accessibility:

Accessibility means that websites, tools, facilities, and technologies designed and developed so that people with disabilities can use them. More specifically, people can perceive, understand, navigate, interact with the Web and contribute to the Web.

Inclusivity:

It is the practice or policy of providing access to opportunities and resources for people who might otherwise be excluded. It is clear that disability is far more common than we would like to believe and that a common man's understanding of disability is very limited. We often consider people who cannot see completely or hear completely or walk with the use of visible aids like wheelchairs or crutches as individuals with disabilities. But in fact, this is a very traditional or limited understanding of disability.

A common person's perception of the things that an individual with disability can achieve is also very limited. We will start our journey of understanding disability by looking first at examples of individuals with different types of disabilities who have inspired millions and have made significant contributions. This is done for three main reasons. These examples will hopefully encourage the readers (a) to change the ways they see individuals with disabilities; (b) highlight the importance of creating inclusive designs for all; and (c) highlight the importance of providing access to technological and medical advances to individuals.

What are disability rights?:

The definition of disability is not as simplistic as it has appeared thus far in this unit. The WHO's reframed definition has evolved over time, and yet many feel that even this definition is too medical and centered on individuals and "does not adequately clarify the interaction between societal conditions or expectations and the unique circumstances of a disabled individual." The British Council defines it as follows: Disability is the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by a society that takes little or no account of people who have impairments and thus excludes them from mainstream activity. This is important as it connects disability as a consequence of discrimination and disregards the unique circumstances of people with disabilities.

Words like 'bechara' or 'bechari' or 'lachar' or 'lachari' in Hindi and their equivalents in other languages are often used for individuals with disabilities. Most people cannot see beyond the disability to note the 'humanness,' their aspirations, desires, and abilities, among other features. In fact, in many cultures, children born with disabilities or those who become disabled later on are considered a curse or even confined to the house. Sometimes, parents or family members go as far as committing individuals with disabilities to special homes. This is why the intervention of disability rights, as well as the activism of members from the community, has been of utmost importance. Various Acts, policies, and schemes have been implemented, and more need to be implemented for the security, enrichment, and empowerment of individuals with disabilities.

6.10.1 Rehabilitation:

Rehabilitation is defined as "a set of interventions designed to optimize functioning and reduce disability in individuals with health conditions in interaction with their environment".

The distinction between treatment of impairment and treatment of disability is not always clear. Providing eyeglasses for visual impairment may restore normal vision, thus eliminating the disability. Providing braces to support legs with impaired muscle function will decrease the restriction on walking, but will not provide a normal gait. Hence the disability is decreased, but is still present. Rehabilitation is generally considered to be the process by which disability is minimized, but not eliminated. For individuals with impairments and disabilities, the rehabilitation process may include measures to reduce both.

Need for rehabilitation:

The number of disabled people in developing countries is not known. WHO has estimated that disabled people from 7 % to 10% of the population in any country. This figure includes individuals with

locomotor, mental, seeing and hearing disabilities. The United Nations Statistics Office has published a compendium, which presents statistics for disability from 55 nations. The percentage of disability that was found ranges from 0.2% to 20%. The compendium emphasizes the need for a uniform method for collection of data on disability. The overall percentage of disabled people who need rehabilitation is also unknown, although some figures are available. The number of disabled people who are receiving services is uncertain. Some developing countries have estimated that services in urban areas may reach 15% of the disabled who need them, but only 1% of those in rural areas. Coverage in developing countries is difficult to estimate because many rehabilitation projects are managed by nongovernmental organizations and there is no central coordination unit. However, there is little evidence to indicate an increase in rehabilitation services in rural areas during the past ten years.

The wars and natural disasters of the past decade have focused attention on the need for rehabilitation services. Efforts have been made in cooperation with WHO's Emergency relief programme to find ways of providing rehabilitation services to disabled people in refugee or displaced populations. WHO was represented on the interagency Committee on Assistance to Disabled Afghans established by Operation Salam. That body has prepared guidelines for including preventive and rehabilitative care in the health, education and vocational services to be set up for Afghans.

When war or natural disaster occurs in a developing country, the absence of staff or a system for the delivery of rehabilitation makes it extremely difficult to establish new services under the emergency conditions. The services most likely to be set up are those for the provision of prosthetic and orthotic appliances; and this is done by international agencies using expatriate staff. To the extent possible, emergency services should be developed into a permanent system for rehabilitation with personnel from within the affected country. However, efforts to do this have had very limited success.

Community Based Rehabilitation:

When community-based rehabilitation was developed as a strategy for integrating rehabilitation services into primary health care, work was started on a manual for the transfer of rehabilitation technology to disabled people, their families and communities. After several revisions based on field tests, this manual was published, and has since been translated into more than a dozen languages.

In community-based rehabilitation, community members or organizations take responsibility for assisting disabled people or their families, for arranging for disabled children to attend the local school, for providing job training and work for people with disabilities, and for ensuring that disabled members of the community are included in all social activities. The work of the community is supported by referral services for

rehabilitation. When community-based rehabilitation is integrated into primary health care, the community health worker is the person responsible for identifying people with disabilities and initiating the rehabilitation process. Rehabilitation services are also available within the medical referral system. Because the rehabilitation process requires more than medical care, intersectoral cooperation is needed among health, education, vocational and social services.

Rehabilitation referral services:

Medical rehabilitation referral services are essential for the development and expansion of community level services. Families of disabled people and communities can take responsibility for much of the training in daily activities and the social integration of disabled people, but referral services are needed to guide the training, and provide appropriate appliances and equipment. To develop rehabilitation referral services, it is necessary to have both staff with knowledge of rehabilitation technology, and appropriate appliances and aids.

Training of rehabilitation staff:

To promote staff development for rehabilitation, two interregional consultations on the training of personnel have been held. The first (Alexandria, June 1990) considered the need for different levels of personnel who prepare artificial limbs and braces, and produced guidelines for the training of personnel in developing countries for prosthetic and orthotic services. The second (New Delhi, September 1991) reviewed country experience in the use of mid-level rehabilitation workers, who provide medical rehabilitation services at the first referral level and also work with the community for the development of community-based rehabilitation. With funds from the Swedish International Development Authority, the WHO rehabilitation programme has cooperated with individual countries in setting up short-term training courses for personnel in community based rehabilitation. International nongovernmental organizations have also been mobilized to support countries in the provision of rehabilitation services, with emphasis on staff training.

6.10.2 Provision of aids and appliances:

WHO has collaborated with other United Nations bodies and nongovernmental organizations in the development of aids and appliances that are appropriate technically, socially and economically. The three types of disabilities which require aids are visual, hearing and locomotor

- The provision of "low-vision care", with emphasis on training in the use of residual vision and the supply of optical appliances, is being addressed by the WHO programme for prevention of blindness, in collaboration with other interested agencies and nongovernmental organizations, notably the International Council for Education of the

Visually Handicapped. The limited resources available to the WHO programme have so far not allowed large-scale action, but it is hoped that extrabudgetary resources will become increasingly available for this purpose. Emphasis will have to be placed on training, as there are very limited possibilities for sophisticated technology in developing countries.

6.11 SUMMARY

The state of migration at present has been as a result of lack of sustainable development or lack of access to much needed resources for development. Many people are displaced due to conflict, as such are forced to migrate to neighboring countries, hence, their movements are not usually a voluntary decision. Others migrate due to lack of opportunities or for economic reasons, where they assume that the more developed economy will provide the opportunities they desire. Migrants select a destination based on access to opportunities, providing a more favorable environment, which provides better security and economic advantage over the country of origin. The ability to accept migrants is accompanied by compromises between them, as such they must agree on certain issues and come to terms with each other's lifestyle choices.

Diversity is the established differences between the migrants and the host communities. The establishment of these differences are revealed through mutual communication carried out on friendly terms and courtesies, which also begins through exchange of compliments. Diversity creates the condition for accruing additional benefits to a community. Social cohesion is achieved when there is mutual agreement between migrant and host communities. The strength of understanding between them determines the cohesiveness and the sustainability of their mutual agreement. The duration of the mutual understanding is also determined by the compromises and sacrifices they both contribute to the relationship.

About Street children the problems that are highlighted are the local context, family relationships, streetwise children and the belief of a quick fix of the issue. The solutions are categorized in many ways such as, family-based work, the organizations, preventive work and different methods concerning genders. Gaining the children's trust as a social worker was also significant for the relationship to develop and move forward.

After that we discussed Disability and rehabilitation, it is clear that understanding disability is a complex and challenging subject. Yet it is equally important to engage with the topic and also understand it better. We must be aware of the efforts of activists from the disability community who have pushed and continue to push for adopting a human-rights approach to disability in order to make our world more inclusive and accessible. Providing technology, facilities, accepting it and supporting,

enabling training and access to medical facilities are some of the important ways to empower and enable individuals with disabilities.

6.12 QUESTIONS

A) Write Short Notes

- Assimilation
- Housing
- Family Relationships
- Restored Trust in street children

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APPLYING SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY TO HEALTH, FAMILIES, MEDIA AND ENVIRONMENT-I

Unit structure

- 7.0 Objectives
- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Mental health: Models of causation and types of interventions
 - 7.2.1 Types of interventions
- 7.3 Physical health (HIV AIDS, Cancer): Risks and prevention
- 7.4 Summary
- 7.5 Questions
- 7.6 References

7.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to understand

- Various models that explain the origins of mental health issues and identify intervention techniques for their treatment.
- Examine the factors contributing to specific physical health problems and explore preventive measures to mitigate or avoid these risks.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The topic of mental illnesses and their treatment has perplexed mental health professionals for a long time. There is no agreement on the definition and scope of mental illness. Some professionals consider mental illness to be a personal matter, having a subjective aspect. For example, an individual's personal distressing experiences, as well as his family's despair and hopelessness based on the cultural belief that mental illness is caused by unexplained factors and there is no hope for complete recovery.

On the other hand, there are professionals who think of it as objective and scientific. Since the 20th century, efforts have been made to develop an objective diagnostic system and classify all mental disorders. There is an emphasis on looking at the social aspect as well. The behavior of a mentally ill person is contradictory to prevailing sociocultural norms and causes a lot of anxiety, embarrassment, and sometimes fear in people around them.

Some emphasize that mental illness is more in the public domain, as factors such as economic class, gender, race, religion, culture, and social norms can influence the occurrence of mental illness. One assumption

about mental illness was that, just like physical illness is an imbalance of equilibrium in our physical functioning, similarly, mental ill health is also a disturbance in our emotions, thoughts, behavior, or psychological state. The second assumption was that the concept of mental health pertains to individuals and not to families or societies. There can be only mentally sick individuals and not mentally sick families and societies.

Over the years, many theories have been developed to explain mental illnesses, and these theories determine the kinds of interventions that will be used to cure them. In our present physical health history too, some diseases, such as HIV/AIDS and Cancer, have spread like epidemics. To control them through prevention measures, psychologists have been studying the risk factors for these diseases. In this unit, we will look at some models of the causation of mental illness and possible risk factors for epidemic diseases such as HIV/AIDS and cancer.

7.2 MENTAL HEALTH: MODELS OF CAUSATION

Individual explanations

It is a foregone conclusion that to make an accurate and scientific diagnose of the mental disorders, psychiatrists must refer to an objective well described and categorized system that details the symptoms of various mental disorders. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders has been a well-accepted classification system of mental disorders that is considered objective. First DSM was published in 1952 and after that it has been going through regular modifications as the need arises. However, this classification inherently refers to symptoms suffered by an individual and not by a group. The mental illness takes place in a person due to some susceptibility or internal weakness as well as due to some environmental factors. Moreover, sociocultural norms too determine the type of mental disorder that a person may suffer and the behavior he will show. Whether that behavior will be judged abnormal or no depends upon the sociocultural norms of that era.

Environment: vulnerability and stress

Many longitudinal research studies have demonstrated that mental disorders take place due to adverse emotional experiences and deprivations experienced in childhood by a person. In fact, even positive but drastic changes can also trigger mental disorders in a vulnerable person. Some of the factors that may contribute to mental disorder of children are -

- Having anyone or both parents also suffering from any severe mental illness
- Loss of one or both parents in childhood
- Complications arising out of birth delivery
- Having ADHD or learning disabilities right from young days.

Public concerns: class, gender and ethnic differences:

It has been argued that anyone can suffer from mental disorders such as schizophrenia and depression, as they are caused by inherent factors within an individual. There is an equal chance of them occurring in any individual irrespective of class, gender or race of the individual. But research studies have refuted this argument and reported that there is a close link between social class (determined by occupations) and mental disorders. For instance, Hollingshead and Redlich (1958) reported that people belonging to low paid, menial unskilled jobs have higher rate of mental disorder than skilled people belonging to professional and managerial class.

Furthermore, people belonging to lowest socio-economic class are likely to suffer more severe type of mental disorders and people belonging to upper classes are likely to suffer fairly moderate levels of disorder and psychosomatic complaints such as ulcers, anxiety, etc. However, research has not been able to establish a causal relationship between poverty and mental illness. At best, it can be said that the relationship is circular, where poverty creates more stress for a person and that may result in mental illness, and mental illness may lead to loss of income and problems in relationships and that further impoverishes a person.

Further research in UK has pointed out that while there are no gender differences in the people suffering from schizophrenia, it was reported that compared to men, females are more likely to suffer from depression and neuroses, while men are more likely to suffer from alcoholism than women.

Similarly, it was observed that immigrants in UK are more likely to suffer from schizophrenia than the English people. Among immigrants too, Caribbeans were five times more likely to suffer from schizophrenia. Compared to Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi immigrants, Scottish and Irish immigrants were more likely to suffer from alcoholism. These conclusions cannot be taken as a whole truth as they were based on the data collected from patients admitted to the English hospitals. It might be that the rate of English people suffering from schizophrenia may be as high as the immigrants but they use alternative methods of treatment instead of getting admitted to the hospitals. Orford (1992) reported that in America too, hospitals are used like a dumping ground for most disadvantaged people.

Cultural Psychiatry and a multi-ethnic population:

Migrant population in any country becomes like the host population of that country, over many generations. McGovern and Cope (1991) compared the rate of occurrence of schizophrenia, admission in the hospital and the duration of the stay in hospital of second-generation Afro-Caribbeans with white English men of the same age.

They observed that second generation Afro-Caribbeans had higher rate of occurrence of schizophrenia and admission to the hospitals than white men

of the same age. It was also reported that these second-generation Afro-Caribbeans had similar rate of schizophrenia, highly pronounced symptoms of schizophrenia, similar rate of admission to the hospital. Compared to white men, they had prolonged stay in hospitals, they were more isolated, had to deal more with police and forensic services, avoid voluntary treatment and were more likely to be readmitted in future.

Littlewood and Lipsedge (1989) pointed out that while treating migrant or minority community patients, one of the challenges faced by Western Psychiatry is to understand and deal with their symptoms expressed in the symbolic language of religious beliefs. For example, some patients may complain of hearing God's voices or being possessed by spirits. Psychiatrists find it challenging to fit the meaning of such expressions in their own system of classifications of mental disorders.

Moreover, they argued that there is a strong possibility that such expressions are plainly an extreme psychotic reaction to adverse experience of institutionalized racism, poor living standards, deprivation, alienation (if host society is hostile and does not integrate migrants in main stream). Moreover, as most of the psychiatrists belong to White race, there is always a possibility of such patients getting misdiagnosed and compulsory admitted in hospitals. While milder forms of institutionalized treatments and family therapy are used for White patients, migrants and patients from minority community are administered stronger drugs and prolonged hospitalizations. Migrants, minority community patients, female patients and patients belonging to lower socioeconomic class receive differential diagnoses and treatments than Whites due to the typical racial stereotype and cultural insensitivity that White psychiatrists have about them. These psychiatrists do not work in cultural vacuum and assign meanings to the symptoms based on their own prejudices, values and biases that they bring to the job. For example, in one study, it was found that male psychiatrists in USA routinely attributed women suffering from depression and emotional problems, Black men being more violent by nature and black men and women having paranoid personalities, even when there was no concrete evidence for such diagnoses. The surprising part was that even Black psychiatrists tended to assign heavier diagnoses and treatment to black patients and milder degree of diagnoses and treatments to White patients.

These differential diagnoses and treatments are a clear example of how private problems of individuals are entwined into general public phenomena of social discrimination.

Models of family dynamics:

The family models of causation of mental ill health underline that disturbed family relationships, especially the mother-child relationship, leads to distorted view of reality. In such disturbed relationship, mother is considered as victimizer and child is considered as a victim. Dallos (1991) stated that a child suffers from schizophrenia if his mother has used conflicting and confusing communication with him in the childhood. Later

on, it was believed that children suffer from the symptoms of schizophrenia due to parent's marital and other family conflicts. Thus, the blame for mental ill health of a patient was shifted from the individual to the family, without considering that the family may be suffering from low income, low socio-economic status, gender and racial discrimination, etc.

However, from 1970s onwards, family therapists started taking into consideration the extended families, gender, class, race and workplace interactions into consideration while determining the causes of mental illness and intervention plan for managing that mental illness. It was recognized that usually women in a family have very little or no power and yet sociocultural norms expect them to perform the function of child-rearing and nurturing. With almost no power these ladies experience frustration and mixed emotions.

Families: vulnerability and stress:

Though family model proposes that mental illness is the result of social factors, but it is extremely difficult to verify this claim. It is practically unfeasible to find out objectively how a child feels being a particular child in the family, or getting embroiled in the family conflicts, alliances and having divided loyalties to different family members. Due to this difficulty of verifying subjective experiences and emotions, researchers have now agreed that mental illness is caused by both factors- organic vulnerability and the distress experienced within the family. Mentally ill patients have higher chance of having relapse and getting readmitted to hospitals if their families have patterns of high conflict, over involvement and communication of negative emotions. It does not mean that there is no hope for such patients. It has been observed that families with such negative patterns of emotions do change their patterns after they go through family therapy and psychoeducation.

Brown and Harris(1978) suggested that though families having low socioeconomic status, belonging to minority communities or being a single parent family are more vulnerable to experience high stress and have negative patterns of emotions. This potential stress gets further ignited by the nature of the family and the timing of the event. For example, such families become further vulnerable to stress after they experience some losses, or some crisis, such as an illness or unusual behavior of a growing child or swift changes in family life cycle stages. In such situations, such vulnerable family further falls down in the darkness of distress and illness.

7.2.1 Types of intervention:

Psychiatry and anti-psychiatry:

Since mental disorders are categorized as mental illness, it is natural that right from beginning their treatment has fallen under the preview of psychiatrists. This responsibility of treating the mental illness, gives legal authority to psychiatrists to confine patients against their will in hospitals. Psychiatrists enjoy the same advisory power as doctors treating physical

ailments to decide how long to keep a patient in the hospital and when to discharge them.

Patients suffering from mental illnesses may get admitted in the hospital for short duration due to detention sections (court orders for admitting and treating the patient) or they might be brought to hospital by their relatives. The court passes detention sections if it is convinced that patient can be dangerous either to himself or to others. Patients who are admitted under detention sections become informal patients, if they continue to be in hospital even after their detention period is over. These detention sections can last for few hours to few months and can be renewed if there is need for that. Though patients have a right to appeal against such detention sections but very few exercises that right.

However, the criteria for deciding whether a person is dangerous to himself or to others and therefore to put him in hospital under detention sections has got ethical implications as it is marred with ethnic bias.

Till recently, the most popular intervention method used by the psychiatrists was to place a patient in 'asylum' or a psychiatric hospital, separating him from his family and community. The treatment given in these asylums included different types of medicines such as psychotropic drugs, individual/group therapy, art therapy, occupational therapy, behavior therapy, etc.

However, in 1960s and 1970s, researchers started talking about the adverse effect of keeping patients in hospital for a prolonged period of time and using medication for a prolonged period of time. This era is known as anti-psychiatry movement period. Szasz (1971) went on to say that asylums and public psychiatric hospitals are nothing but unofficial prisons from which the patient has no hope of coming out. Some psychologists in Britain started questioning the basic causal factors leading to mental illness. They rejected the medical diagnose of mental illness based on biological theories and believed that ecological analysis must be done to do the medical diagnoses of these illnesses. For example, they argued that schizophrenia does not take place only due to biological reasons, instead, faulty, destructive family relationships are responsible for this medical condition. The changes started taking place in intervention as this argument became stronger.

The first change was that mental health professionals started treating the family as a whole instead of just treating the individual patient only.

Secondly, many social support groups or therapeutic communities as well as various voluntary organizations sprang up to mitigate the wrecking experiences of such individuals and families.

Thirdly, there was power imbalance under medical and psychiatry model, where doctor had all the powers and the patient was a helpless creature. Anti-psychiatrist movement questioned this imbalance and it was believed that patient as well as his family too have some rights, if not all, to make certain decisions about the treatment of the patient/family.

Fourth, the most important change that anti-psychiatrist movement brought was that people started debating on mental disorders and the prevailing oppressive systems to treat them in prison like hospitals where patients had no rights.

Though this liberalization from institutionalized care to community care seems to be a positive development, but in reality, very often, patients suffering from severe mental illness did not get the care and attention that they required. To that extent nothing much had changed in their woes.

Family Modes of Intervention:

Family based intervention materialised as a consequence of anti-psychiatry movement. Some mental health professionals supported it as a new intervention while others saw it as a danger to psychiatry and resisted it.

There are two types of family mode intervention - (a.) family therapy and (b.) psycho-education. As the name suggests, in family therapy, the patient and all his immediate family members are asked to attend one hour session at the family therapist's clinic or at the hospital. Generally family therapy sessions are conducted once or twice a week, for an hour or so and these are conducted for a fixed period of time, e.g., three months or so, as required based on the severity and complexity of the problem of the patient. The therapist is supposed to be neutral and do not take any family member's side and should not blame the family for the presented problem. This will ensure that family will not feel guilty of intimidated and will not go on being defensive.

However, in reality, sooner or later, families do start feeling that they are to be blamed for the mental illness of one of their own members and they find it very difficult to change this view.

It has been observed that sometimes a child becomes a psychotic child because families believe that a family should remain as one unit under any circumstances and should not get disintegrated. Consequently, the family members do not acknowledge and accept a child's need to have independence as he leaves childhood and enters his teenage. As a normal course of development in life, as the child grows, he craves for independence. This results in simmering conflict and tensions within the family. The parents want to maintain the usual pattern of behavior irrespective of the fact that the child is growing. To avoid any conflict, the psychotic child maintains his dependence on the family and thus harmony is maintained in the family. The parents of a psychotic child feel extremely sad about their absolutely healthy child turning to be psychotic child and thus their dreams of their child having bright future crashing down. To cope up with their own grief, they use coping mechanisms such as denial (they believe there is nothing wrong with their child), they become more and more intrusive controlling of the child and can not maintain a healthy parental distance from the child. This results in further problems of adversely impacting their marital relationship, work and social life. In such cases, family therapy has been effective to bring the

changes in the attitudes and beliefs of the parents and help them to realize that allowing the child to have his independence and separate identity will not disintegrate the family. Once the family therapist is able to convince the family to give independence to the child, the child not only becomes independent but also forms normal relationship with others.

Though family therapy has proved to be very effective, but there is a potential danger lurking in its use. Based on family therapy results, government may form social policies that indirectly or directly lay blame for the mental illness of the patients squarely on their families. There is a chance that other family members of the patients may refuse to join family therapy sessions as a defence mechanism. Family members want to have an intervention for the patient that requires their minimal support or contact with the patient. The family members of the patient find it stressful and burdensome to look after the patient. And yet, there is a high possibility of patient's mental health deteriorating more and more if professional help is not given by a therapist.

Privatizing Care, Alternatives to Hospital and Family Support:

Surveys carried out in U.K. in 1960s showed that majority of the people having symptoms of mental illness had no access to psychiatrists. At best they had access to their general practitioners, and most likely these GPs had no the ability to recognize and treat these psychiatric symptoms.

The community care policies of 1960s in UK were focused on making sure that psychiatric patients needing prolonged hospital stay are relieved that shunted to other facilities such as hostels, community homes or day care centers, etc. Those who were not accommodated in these alternative facilities were left to fend for themselves or it was the responsibility of their families to take care of them. Psychiatric hospitals were ready to give barer minimum support to those patients who were already discharged from the hospital. Due to this community-based model, many psychiatric hospitals were closed down between 1960s to 1980s. Instead, crisis management teams were set up comprising of general practitioners and local authorities from social work department. These crisis management teams used to visit the families at their homes, do home consultations and provide domiciliary support later on. In 1980s, this Community based program included services like providing group therapy, shifting chronically ill patients from old hospitals to rehabilitative and supported lodging facilities, giving support to voluntary social centres, arranging a psychiatric unit in every general hospital and developing many small nursing homes where very old people having psychiatric problems at the fag end of their lives get admitted for psychiatric interventions.

This community model in UK was mainly concerned about avoiding any legal problems and catered to a miniscule population that had to be compulsory given admission and treatment at the hospitals. At the same time, in Italy too legal reforms related to mental illness and services provided were carried out. These reforms also specified the procedures to gradually close down existing mental hospitals and setting up new

localized health facilities under NHS. However, the implementation of these legal reforms has been uneven. On one side, these programs give chance to go for group therapy and freedom, on the other hand, the patients having severe mental illness and disrupting the family life are admitted in traditional hospitals, prisons, or deserted by the family and live on streets.

In short, we can say that the essential characteristics of community based mental health model are -

- a) Availability of multidisciplinary service team in local areas, for twenty-four by seven days.
- b) Domiciliary support during crisis period
- c) Open referral of the patients either by themselves or through some other source
- d) Active treatment after stabilizing the acute patient
- e) To ensure no further deterioration takes place in the patient's condition

Family therapy emphasizes educating the family members about how to manage the mental illness of the patient. Studies have shown that patients in families that were empowered with psychoeducation had significantly lower rate of relapse than patients whose families were not given any psychoeducation. Another problem in using family therapy is that in acute cases, family therapy takes a back seat and psychiatrist puts in efforts to first stabilize the patient with the help of medication and individual counselling. In such cases, the mental illness of a patient already carries a label and later it becomes difficult to change hypothesis and label the problem as interpersonal problem. Studies have further shown that stress levels of family members of a patient who was admitted in a hospital, were much more than the family members of a patient who was getting treatment at home. Home treatment was especially beneficial for patients belonging to ethnic minority groups or those who were immigrants.

7.3 PHYSICAL HEALTH (HIV AIDS, CANCER): RISKS AND PREVENTION

HIV/AIDS is basically a behaviorally generated disease. It spreads from one person to another person through the exchange of body fluids and blood. Body fluids or blood may get passed from one person to another through unprotected sexual intercourse, contaminated needle, etc. The government surveys have shown that groups that are more susceptible to this disease are gay men, minorities, drug addicts who take drugs through injections, infected persons' sexual partners and children, and hemophiliacs.

People succumb to this disease either because they are unaware of risk factors or they are unwilling or incapable of taking safety measures.

Looking at the wide spread AID risk behavior all over the world, it is important to develop programs to motivate and enable people to modify their AIDS risk behavior.

Risks:

Adolescents:

Many adolescents are at the risk of HIV due to their unsafe sexual activities and use of drugs. Teenage is characterized with risk taking behavior and impulsive behavior. Teenagers have a false belief that nothing can go wrong with them, have a tendency to take unnecessary risks due to peer pressure or to project themselves as macho.

- **Homeless and runaway youth** are at a higher risk to contract HIV.
- **Polygamy:** People in sexual relationship with more than one partner at the same time are at higher risk of HIV.
- **Sexual orientation:** Homosexuals and lesbians are more susceptible to HIV risk.
- **Drug abuse:** Especially those who consume drugs through shared needles are at higher risk of HIV.

Cognitive Disengagement:

[D. J. McKirnan](#), [D. G. Ostrow](#), & [B. Hope](#) (2010) were of the opinion that in spite of having information about HIV, social norms supporting safe behavior, knowing fully well that they are vulnerable to infection and having intentions to use risk reduction behavior, still some groups such as gays continue with risky behavior because information about risk sources causes anxiety and prevents them from indulging in highly desirable activity. They get tired of such anxiety causing information and other negative emotions and this leads to 'cognitive disengagement' when they are in highly stimulated situation such as sexual situation and ignore all precaution.

Negative Emotions:

Information about risk related to HIV generates intense negative emotions such as fear and has reverse effect on attitude change. They tend to either ignore such information or distort it. As there is no cure for HIV and no preventive vaccine is developed so far, makes people pessimistic. They get tired of practicing safe sex and develop a fatalistic attitude. Especially gay people become averse to safety measures to be taken as they find that there are already many HIV positive men in their social circle. A sense of helplessness and fatalism develops in them and they ignore risk reduction information.

Poverty, Minority status, Disenfranchised:

Sanders-Phillips K. (2002) stated women of color are more at risk of HIV due to their use of intravenous drugs and prostitution. Furthermore, women who are powerless in relationship due to having secondary status, racism, poor economic condition, violence, cannot negotiate safe sex relationship and are more susceptible to HIV risk.

Prevention:

The Information-Motivation-Behavioral Skills Model (Imb) Of Aids Risk-Behavior Change:

Fisher and Fisher (1992) suggested a social psychological model of changing AIDS risk behavior. They believed that there are three antecedents to change AIDS risk behavior into risk reduction behavior. These are -

Information: A person should be aware of the potential risks before he can take measures to avoid those risks. Therefore, it is important to impart full information about the causation and effects and preventive measures of the disease. It is also imperative for risk reduction information to be effective that it should be -

- a) Connected to preventive behavioural measures
- b) Should be available to the targeted person
- c) Should be instantly available or offhand to recall from memory. If it is not instantly recalled, it will not be used.

Motivation: Even if a person has the information, there is no assurance that he/ she will act on it. So, it is important to increase the willingness of a person to act on the risk reduction information given to him. IMB model specifies two types of motivation that work to reduce risk.

- a) **Personal motivation of an individual:** this includes his positive attitudes towards risk reduction behavior
- b) **social motivation:** this includes his perception of social support for practicing risk reduction behavior.

Behavioral skills:

Even if a person has the information and is willing to act on risk reduction information, there are chances that he is not capable of acting upon it or circumstances do not permit him to act on it. According to IMB model the behavior skills include the ability to use a sequence of preventive behaviors such as -

- a) A person must recognize and believe that he/she has sexual urges and need to take preventive measures while indulging in sexual activities

- b) He/she must have ability to collect factual and latest information about how AIDS is transmitted and what can be done to prevent it. He must keep himself updated on this information from time to time.
- c) He/she must develop a Personal AIDS Prevention agenda
- d) He/she should be skilled enough to have pre-sex discussions and negotiations with potential partner about his/her AIDS Prevention agenda. If the potential partner is unwilling to accept his/her AIDS Prevention agenda, then this person should be capable enough to move away from that situation/relationship.
- e) He/she should be willing to participate in “public” AIDS prevention activities such as buying condoms or getting tested for HIV.
- f) The person should ensure that he/she himself adheres to AIDS prevention behavior consistently as well as ensures that partner also sticks to this agenda
- g) To maintain this prevention agenda in long run, the person should be able to reinforce himself/herself as well as his/her partner for practicing preventive behavior.
- h) He should constantly keep a check on the quality of his preventive behavior and if need be change it to alternative preventive behaviors that are less stressful and more safe.

Self-efficacy: It is obvious that to carry out Personal AIDS Prevention agenda, a person must have high self-efficacy.

This is a general frame work of IMB. The specific information to be given, motivational techniques to be used and behavioral skills to be imparted is determined by the needs and sociocultural factors of the target group. For example, needs of the group differ on the basis of ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, power balance between partners, chemical use status, etc.

Theory of Reasoned Action:

According to this theory AIDS preventive behavior takes place only through an individual's intention to use preventive behavior under specific conditions. Under which specific conditions preventive behavior should be used is determined by the subjective evaluation of the situation by a person in the light of his/her information-based beliefs and norms.

The AIDS Risk Reduction Model (ARRM):

This model is developed on the basis of the Health Belief Model, the Theory of Reasoned Action, The theory of Planned behavior, Self-efficacy theory, emotional influences and interpersonal processes. ARRM was developed especially to give information about sexual risk behavior of adults.

According to this model, high risk behavior can be changed through three stages-

a) Stage 1: Identifying and labeling one's activities as risky:

It is a forgone conclusion that to change any behavior, first of all a person has to recognize and label the specific behavior as risky and needs to be changed. Same is true for risky sexual behavior. There are many factors contributing to this process of labeling a behavior as risky. For instance, the person should have the information about how HIV is transmitted. Any myth people have about HIV transmission should be removed through widely spread factual knowledge. For example, there is a myth that HIV can be contracted by handshake, which is not true.

Many people also carry a false belief that they are not susceptible to AIDS as they belong to a particular ethnic group or sexual orientation. Many young adults believe that their risk of HIV is almost negligible since they are heterosexual and belong to White race. Egocentrism prevents them from realizing that everyone is susceptible to HIV. Social norms too influence their decision to label their behavior as risk or not risky.

b) Stage 2: Commitment to engaging in low risk activities:

Apart from knowing which behaviors are risky or safe, the step is that a person should feel committed to risk reduction behaviors. There should be consistency in his/her behavior. The person should be able to judge the pros and cons as well as cost-benefit analysis of his risky behavior. This judgement will impact his commitment to adhere to safe behavior practices. Commitment also gets impacted by the social norms or the prevalence of safe behavior patterns in the peer group as well as self efficacy of a person. If a person feels that he/she can practice safe behavior easily, the chances are higher that he/she will practice it, but if the person finds it too cumbersome, effortful and does not think that he can follow it, then he/she will not adhere to it. .

c) Stage 3: Enacting the commitment to reduce risky activities:

Commitment to safe behavior will become stronger if the person can overcome financial, environmental and psychological hurdles. This will require high communication skills, ability to seek help if necessary,

The ARRM model proposes that to go through these three stages successfully, it is important that a person has an optimum amount of anxiety about AIDS. That anxiety will propel a person to label his behaviors as risky or non-risky, motivate him to make a strong commitment to change his risky sexual behavior to safe behavior.

Finally to be effective, an intervention program:

- Must have latest information about the causes, symptoms, transmission and prevention of HIV.

- Information should be given not only related to HIV but of human sexuality in general also, especially for teenagers.
- Information can be passed on through various means such as group discussions, role play, videos, music and being sensitive to sociocultural factors of the target group.

Using Festinger and Carlsmith's (1959) theory of cognitive dissonance, risk reduction behavior can be induced through counter attitudinal advocacy technique and public commitment technique. Similarly, attitude towards risky behavior can be changed by presenting information that weakens their beliefs and evaluations of the risk. The new arguments can be presented in a subtle manner by a significant referent from their social world. Efforts can be made to present the idea through peers and other referents that risk reduction behavior is the norm.

Cancer: Risk & Prevention:

There are not many scientific studies linking psychological factors and cancer. There are many psychological, social and environmental factors that can cause the initiation and progress of cancer. Various studies have been conducted to link psychosocial variables with cancer, such as stress, anxiety, hostility, bereavement, overall low quality of life, depressed mood; psychosis, especially schizophrenia; suppression of emotions—especially anger, especially anger, trauma, grief, helplessness and hopelessness, defensiveness, poor social support, poor family and romantic relationships. However, these studies have thrown up mixed results. Some studies found relationship between psychological variable and cancer and some did not find any conclusive relationship.

Other factors that are identified, though not conclusively, as cancer causing are age, hereditary factors, obesity, sedentary life style, diet, immunosuppression, alcohol, smoking, chronic inflammation, radiation, etc.

Prevention:

Based on risk factors some various obvious preventive measures are to maintain healthy weight, physically active life style, including greens in the diet and junking the junk food, quitting smoking and alcohol, getting regular screening done as one ages, getting vaccinated against human papillomavirus to prevent cervical, vaginal, vulvar, anal, rectal, oropharyngeal (throat), and penile cancers.

Apart from these measures, Kreuter et.al. (2007) pointed out that narrative forms of communication—including entertainment education, journalism, literature, testimonials, and storytelling—have emerged as important tools for cancer prevention and control

7.4 SUMMARY

For centuries together, thinkers and psychologists have been interested to determine what can be labelled as mental illness, what are its causes and treatments. The understanding of mental illness has been influenced by the prevailing social norms and culture of that time and geographical location. Till today there is no universal definition of mental illness. Psychologists have been trying to bring it from the realm of subjectivity to objectivity so that there can be uniformity in diagnose and treatment of these mental illnesses. Initially while designing an intervention plan, the psychiatrists used to emphasis on an individual, the patient, but gradually it has dawned on them that patient and his present problem are not only due to individual factors but also influenced by his social world. It is important to pay attention to his family, workplace, relatives and friends as well as to social norms and culture of that society from where this patient comes. The research also pointed out that very often diagnoses and intervention is coloured by psychiatrists' own biases. This was very evident in the discrimination of availability and quality of health care given to people from minorities, migrants, gender and poor socio-economic status compared to White men. Apart from mental health, risk factors and prevention of some of the physical diseases, such as, HIV/AIDS and cancer is also discussed

7.5 QUESTIONS

- a) Discuss various models of causation of mental health.
- b) Describe various risk factors to HIV/AIDS.
- c) How can we reduce risk behavior related to HIV/AIDS?

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APPLYING SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY TO HEALTH, FAMILIES, MEDIA AND ENVIRONMENT-II

Unit structure

- 8.0 Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Marital and family problems: Divorce, separation, and domestic violence
- 8.3 Media (violence, pornography, political news coverage) and environment (urbanization, crowding, personal space): Challenges and protective measures
 - 8.3.1 Violence
 - 8.3.2 Pornography
 - 8.3.3 Political news coverage
 - 8.3.4 Environment: urbanization, crowding, personal space
- 8.4 Summary
- 8.5 Questions
- 8.6 References

8.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you will be able to understand

- Various problems associated with domestic violence and separation.
- The influence of media on behavior, especially the influence of violent content, pornography and political news coverage on behavior.
- The influence of environmental factors such as urbanization, crowding and personal space on human behavior.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Domestic violence has been there from time immemorial. Feminist movement highlighted the adverse effects of domestic violence. Research has been carried out to find the causes and intervention of domestic violence. Since it is such a common and persistent phenomenon, there is a need to look at this social malice.

With advancement of communication technology, media has become an integral part of our daily lives and has a significant influence on everyone's lives. It is increasingly consumed by people irrespective of their age, socioeconomic status, race, caste, color, creed, etc. It is also very

evident, especially in case of TV programs running 24 hours, that over the years the violent content, sexual content and political coverage has increased tremendously. It is important to see how this nature of media content influences people. Media has a significant influence on what kind of information people get exposed to and on the fate of political candidates.

The term urbanization can be explained in two ways, one on the basis of size and density of population and other is on the basis of social psychological aspects such as heterogeneity of the population and the social fabric of such population. Another way of defining urbanization is in terms of movement of population from rural area to urban area, i.e., from villages to cities. Urbanization encompassing the problems of crowding and lack of personal space and has tremendous impact on the environment - behavior relationship. In this unit we will be looking at some of the influences of media and environment on human behavior.

8.2 MARITAL AND FAMILY PROBLEMS: DIVORCE, SEPARATION, AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

8.2.1 Divorce, separation:

Family disorganization gets reflected in desertion, separation, physical and verbal violence and finally into divorce. Such disintegration takes place when the intimate relationships within the family break down. Intimate relationships break down when both husband and wife's individual needs, desires, aspirations are not met or there is clash of attitudes and personalities. Both husband and wife's needs, desires and attitudes are rapidly changing as their life styles are changing, their set gender roles and status within the family are changing, but the social norms are too rigid and are not changing accordingly. The societal norms, work organizations and family put different demands on the couple and stress them both.

Apart from social demands, other factors that contribute to disintegration of modern families are personal factors such as myths or unrealistic expectations about romance, different temperaments and life values, certain behavior patterns, economic viability of surviving separately, fading of stigma attached to divorce, etc. Other personal factors can be that either of the partners feels that he/she is not loved, respected, appreciated, and trusted by the other partner. There might be domestic violence in terms of physical and/or psychological abuse, and miscommunication in the family. One partner might perceive the other partner as selfish in terms of time, money and caring. One partner may be addicted to alcohol or drugs, or there might be religious differences where no partner is willing to make any adjustments.

8.2.2 Domestic violence:

Domestic violence has become the focal point of public debates after it was highlighted by the feminist movement. These discussions pointed out

that there are two assumptions prevailing about the family in traditional social norms -

- a) Family is a private entity and family members have absolute right to say or do anything within the confines of their own home. Outsiders are not expected to interfere in any way.
- b) No matter what the problems are or how serious the problems are, family members are not expected to seek help from outside or even to confide to any body outside the family.

In case of first assumption, Feminists have rightly asked that whose rights in the family are being protected? In 18th and 19th century, husbands had total rights over their wives. They were dominant and used any means, including violence, to control their wives. Though in modern times, social norms are modified and husbands are not supposed to dominate or use violence against their wives, yet the ground reality has not changed much. Though in present times, the law has become quite favorable to women, yet women often find it difficult to seek help from police due to the assumption that husband is superior than wife and family is a private entity.

Domestic violence here refers to harm being caused by husband to wife with the intention of controlling her and keep her fearful and subordinate to him. This violence can be of different types, such as, physical, emotional, sexual, spiritual, cultural, financial violence, verbal abuse and neglect.

Causes of violence:

The arguments given for causes of domestic violence can be categorized into two parts :

1. Private or within family factors:

In this category, arguments include individual pathology and faulty interactions within the family.

Private: Instincts and Pathology:

This argument emphasizes that man is inherently or instinctly a violent creature, and his aggressive nature comes out when he is under threat or frustration. Women are considered to be high on nurturing instinct, so there are gender differences in violent behavior. This argument discounts the fact that human beings are capable of thinking, planning and reflecting on their own thoughts, emotions and behaviors and communicate them to others. However, in reality, there are men who are not aggressive and there are women who aggress substantially.

Psychodynamic theories also suggest that frustration of other basic instincts leads to aggression. It is believed that in childhood boys are encouraged to be afraid of any kind of dependency or showing their emotions except anger. This fear of dependency later on shows up as a

fear of losing wife and becomes a trigger for domestic violence. However, these theories do not state that aggression is an ineffective of satisfying other basic instincts.

Another line of argument proposes that women are masochistic and like to be dominated, violently raped and pain. This theory is extremely harmful for women. If they internalize this argument then they will accept the violence caused to them as a normal thing.

The Pathological discourse

Psychologists have tried to unravel the differences between men who beat their wives and those who don't. Similarly, they have also tried to find out the difference in women are beaten up and those who are not, as well as those who leave abusive relationship and those who don't. It is assumed that these differences will show the causes of violence.

The Men:

On one hand it was believed that men are inherently aggressive and on the other hand it was believed that batterers are pathological. In both cases, men were not accountable for their behavior. In first case, they can't help it since aggression is a natural tendency they are born with and in second case, since they are suffering from some abnormality, so they can't be held responsible for their behavior.

Dobash and Dobash (1992) said that theorists believe that abusive men have had an abnormal, insecure, rejecting or depriving childhood. Their needs for attachment and dependency has been not satisfied and they have unresolved conflicts with their parents, especially mothers. They were angry as well as fearful of their mothers' power to deprive them of their needs. The anger or aggression they felt due to these unresolved conflicts is displaced and taken out on wives. They are actually frightened victimized bullies who experience pain, anger and mood swings due to these unmet needs in childhood and that is expressed as violence in later life.

Another argument is that men have learnt to be violent either through observation or their own experiences. Either they have seen in their childhood, their mothers getting thrashed by their fathers or they themselves have been thrashed by their fathers. This is often known as the 'cycle of deprivation' or the intergenerational hypothesis. However, this hypothesis is not fully supported by other studies. There are men who have not witnessed violence at home or never got beaten but turn out to be violent husbands, and there are men who have been victim of violence in their childhood and yet never beaten their wives. So, this hypothesis mainly serves the purpose of letting off men from taking responsibility for their behavior.

The Women:

Psychologists have attributed faulty/abnormal childhood as a reason for women who tolerate abusive behavior of their husbands and keep coming back to them in spite of violence. Some theorists justify husbands' violent behavior by saying that wives have personality traits (such as nagging or being manipulative) that provoke men to be violent. Edwards(1989) explained that battered women are unable or unwilling to leave abusive marriage or seek help due to learned helplessness and powerlessness. They believe their batterers to be very powerful and are scared of them. But Dobash and Dobash (1980) disagreed with this argument and said that women do not feel helpless in other areas of their lives. They argued that women do not approach police and seek help because domestic violence is shrouded in secrecy and shame.

Dobash and Dobash (1992) identified some personality traits that differentiate battered women from nonbattered women. Some of these traits were inability to cope, a tendency to withdraw, introspection, shyness, manipulateness, masochism to 'dissatisfaction with current status'.

Some of the irritating traits were woman's dowdiness, inability to manage the family and home, intelligence, sullen silence, nagging, depression, frigidity and incapacity for deep emotional warmth (Gayford,1978). Theorists pointed out that some of the personality traits such as nagging and silence were seen as cause of provoking violence in men. In any case, wife was always blamed for instigating violent reactions from her poor husband.

Studies have shown that women who are financially dependent on husbands and have small children to look after are more likely to remain in abusive relationship, as they don't want to cause any financial or emotional suffering for their children.

Though men get angry, frustrated and resent it if their wives are too independent and try to bring the balance back in their favor by being violent and thus showing their physical superiority, yet, women who are financially independent are less likely to be abused because they have higher opportunity to escape violence and men too will think about the cost of using violence.

2. Public or socio-economic and ideological factors

Abusive relationships exemplify, in extremis, the stereotypical gender arrangements that structure intimacy between men and women generally. Goldner et al. (1990) posited that family relationships are influenced by social norms within a given society. Generally, families with abusive relationships tend to have rigidly specified gender roles that are exaggerated. These gender roles, either directly or indirectly, are transmitted to children. Children witness a repetitive pattern of arguments, violent interactions, and conflicts in which their parents are ensnared. From these experiences, children learn about gender roles and what

constitutes appropriate ways of thinking and feeling for men and women within their own families.

Most women feel that it is crucial for them to faithfully play their gender roles, even at the cost of ignoring their own needs, thoughts, and feelings; therefore, they endure violence.

8.3 MEDIA: CHALLENGES AND PROTECTIVE MEASURES

8.3.1 Violence:

Since TV has become an integral part of every family's life all over the world and TV programs are available for 24 hours through out the year, many studies have been carried out to study the impact of TV programs on people. Especially, studies have been carried out to understand whether watching violent programs has any impact on the behavior of the people. Many surveys conducted in America reported that the percentage of intentional physical violence has increased tremendously in films and dramas and even in comedy shows, shows for children, music videos and video games.

The Consequences of viewing media violence:

There are many myths about the violence. For instance, one myth is that only violent people watch violent TV programs. This is not supported with empirical evidence, but Huesmann, Moise-Titus, Podolski, & Eron, (2003) did report from their longitudinal study that more aggressive behavior is displayed by those young adults who have been watching violent TV programs right from their childhood. They tend to identify with aggressive TV characters and believe those violent TV programs to be a reality. This accumulated aggression from childhood to adulthood was found irrespective of socioeconomic status, intellectual ability, and a variety of parenting factors.

Another false belief is that watching violent content on TV generates cathartic effect, i.e., it lets out safely all the violence stored within a person. However, the truth is that watching violent TV programs do effect people as corroborated by numerous scientific studies in social psychology. For instance, Hennigan et.al. (1982) conducted a quasi-experiment in America to find out the impact of television viewing in general on instrumental aggression and violent criminal behavior. They compared two sets of cities and states - one who started telecast of TV programs from 1950 and those who started from 1952 or after that. They correlated the data of TV viewership with crime rates in those cities. They found that in both cities and states crime rate did increase initially even though the percentage of violent content in programs was not very high. The crime rate went up for non-violent crimes such as theft, robbery, pilfering, etc. because there were too many advertisements showing upper class lifestyles and thus igniting the aspirations of the people. This study

did not conclusively show a direct link between violent behavior and TV viewing but nonviolent crimes are also indirect way of harming others.

In another quasi-experiment conducted in Canada, three types of cities were compared - a.) Notel - a city with no television station, b.) Unitel - a city with one television station, c.) Multitel - a city with many TV stations. The results showed that higher viewing of television was related to increased physical and verbal aggression in children, more rigid traditional sex roles are formed and participation in community activities decreased.

Higher TV viewing makes adolescents more reckless, they tend to drive at very high speed, experiment with drugs, practice unprotected sex that may lead to higher probability of contracting AIDS or unwanted pregnancies. Playing video games or watching video games and exposure to comic books meant for adolescents also leads to same results as watching violent TV programs.

These studies may give an impression that there is a causal relationship between violence and exposure to violent media content. But the relationship is not that simple. There can be many other causes for violent behavior, e.g., gender (generally males are more aggressive than females), aggressive personalities, past experience of being abused in childhood, cultural factors, frustration, anger, environmental factors triggering the aggression such as loud noise, high temperature, crowding, etc.

Imitation of Violence: Bandura explained violent behavior in the light of social cognitive theory. According to him, violent behavior is learnt through imitation. There are four stages of this learning -

a) Paying attention:

We tend to pay more attention to most noticeable and attractive behavior of others. Media violence is most noticeable and attractive act happening more frequently and naturally catches the attention of the viewers.

b) The Representational Process:

The viewers not only watch the modeled behavior, they also tend to rehearse it in their mind, thus increasing the chances of recalling it easily later on.

c) Behavioral Production Process:

The viewers can generalize the observed learnt behavior to related situations as well as to new settings.

d) The Motivational Process:

Though viewers are exposed to various types of acts, they do not reproduce each and every act that they have observed. Their motivation determines which acts will be performed by them. If they watch violent behavior getting rewarded or if they find such behavior as justified, they are likely to reproduce it in the hope of getting rewarded similarly or

justifying it similarly. For example, they may justify their violent behavior due to the need for self-defense, or paying back in the same coin to unjust behavior of others. They might be motivated to indulge in violent behavior because they identify the violent models in the TV programs or they may be desensitized to violence and feel that there is nothing wrong in behaving in violent way. Empirical studies have shown that children who are desensitized to violence are less likely to indulge in prosocial behavior.

Media violence and aggressive thoughts

Berkowitz's (1984) explained the prevalence of violent behavior through neoassociationistic model of media priming. He explained that mere presence of a weapon can trigger aggressive thoughts and lead to aggression. Of course, it also depends on the frequency and duration of the priming. A TV program having many instances of violence and having graphic details of the violence will act as powerful prime.

Cultivation theory:

According to cultivation theory, higher the amount of watching TV programs, more the viewers believe that the world is a dangerous and mean place. Especially, the local news shows lots of realistic violence and that causes anxiety among viewers as this violence seems to be closer to their homes. However, this relationship is more of a circular relationship and not a causal one.

Countering the effects of violence in the media:

To safe guard children and adolescents from watching violent content on TV, rating system was developed that indicates which films or programs are inappropriate for children to watch. However, the rating system has not proved to be very effective as prohibition generates psychological reactance, extra curiosity and interest among children and adolescents to watch those programs.

Based on Bandura's social cognitive theory, it was suggested that if Tv programs show that violence does not fetch reward, rather it leads to punishment or if these programs also show what the victim of violence thinks and feels, thus generating empathy among viewers, the chances of violent behavior occurring will be less. Research studies have supported this argument of social cognitive theory.

8.3.2 Pornography:

Any sexually explicit material that openly shows sexual activities with close up of aroused genitals and oral, anal or vaginal penetration can be defined as pornography. Such material is available online as well as offline and is capable of sexually arousing a viewer.

Pornography is different from simulated sex or embedded sex material shown in films or TV shows. Embedded sexual material is encased within a story and is not the main part of the story, while pornography is exhibiting purely sexual activity without any storyline or very thin story

line. Research on pornography has studied three types of pornography - erotica, nonviolent pornography and violent pornography. To investigate the harmful effects of any of these three types of pornography, researchers have conducted correlational studies. They correlated the availability of pornography and the number of sex- crime, such as rape, exhibitionism, and voyeurism, in various countries. These correlational studies across various countries found mixed results, some found high correlation between availability of pornography and sex related crime rate while other studies found very low correlation. Allen, D'Alessio, & Brezgel, (1995) conducted a meta-analysis of 30 experimental studies conducted in laboratory conditions on pornography and its impact on violent behavior. These studies had various moderating variables such as different types of pornography, gender of the target of violence, level of prior anger, level of arousal, etc. They concluded from these studies that though nude pictures and nonviolent pornography do generate more aggressive behavior post viewing, but watching violent pornography produces much more aggression than watching nonviolent pornography. Mulac, Jansma, & Linz,(2002) reported that men tend to become more callous and dominant, in a subtle manner, towards women after watching nonviolent pornography, even for a short duration.

Effects of Long-term exposure to nonviolent pornography:

Hald et.al.(2010) conducted a meta-analysis of correlational studies to find out the relationship between men's long term consumption of pornography and their attitudes of approving violence against women. They found small but statistically significant positive correlation between viewing pornography and negative attitudes towards women. Long term exposure here refers to watching five hours of pornographic content over 6 weeks' time. Since these were correlational studies, one cannot say that pornography watching causes negative attitude towards women, it can be other way round that people having negative attitude tend to watch pornography more. However, Allen et.al. (1995) conducted meta-analysis of both experimental and non-experimental studies relating the acceptance of rape myth (as "In the majority of rapes, the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation," "Any healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really wants to") and watching pornography. In their meta-analysis too, non-experimental studies did not show much effect of pornography watching on negative attitude towards women but experimental studies did show a positive significant link between the two variables. Experimental studies further indicated that men who had anger issue or were having hostile attitude towards women developed more negative attitude towards women after watching non-violent pornography.

Zillmann and Bryant (1988) reported the empirical findings that prolonged viewing of pornography affects the family values. Those who viewed pornography for a longer period showed higher tolerance for extramarital sex, increased belief in natural promiscuity of male and female and repression of sexual needs as unhealthy, and considered being faithful to one partner as less important. They did not consider marriage as an important institution, had low desire to have children and believed in the

dominance of males and servitude of females. Not only men, even women showed similar attitudes after watching pornography for a long time. In another experiment, Zillmann and Bryant (1986) showed that people exposed to prolonged non-violent pornography shift their preference in watching non-conventional or different types of pornography such as bondage, sadomasochism, bestiality tapes, etc. These results are in tandem with cultivation theory and show that prolonged exposure to even non-violent pornography changes the social reality, especially reality about the sex and sexual relationships, for its viewers.

Effects of Exposure to Sexual Violence:

Empirical studies carried on men show that even a very short exposure to embedded sexually violent material has many negative effects, such as -

- a) Heightened sexual arousal
- b) Increased rape fantasies and acceptance of rape myths
- c) Increased desensitization to embedded violent sexual acts
- d) Increased acceptance of violence towards women and increased tolerance towards rapists.

Reducing the Harmful Effects of Exposure to Violent Sexual Material:

Harmful effects of either embedded or explicit pornography can be reduced by following these given steps -

1. To put a legal ban:

On the distribution or sale of such material. However, in practical terms it is not a very effective method. People find ways to circumvent the law and such a law will be in clash with the right to free exercise of speech.

2. To give critical viewing training:

Another way to control the harmful effects of viewing pornography is to educate people about its harmful effects. This will people's astuteness and they will make wise choices. Research studies have shown the effectiveness of such training in reducing the aggressive behavior of children and the positive effects were long lasting.

3. To debrief the people after they watch the violent sexuality:

Debriefing is similar to critical viewing training, except that it is for much shorter duration and written at the end of the video. Debriefing basically means giving information to the participants about the negative effects of such exposure as well as countering the myths about rape. Allen et.al.(1996) reported that educational briefings do reduce the negative impact of exposure to embedded sexual material. The problem is that first of all producers of such video will be reluctant to put debriefing as a warning sign. Secondly, many people may not have the patience to read

debriefing at the end of the movie, as we have seen it for other behaviors. For example, there is a statutory warning given on every cigarette box but smokers don't read it or see through it.

4. Give Prebriefing:

To avoid the problems of post briefing, one can warn people before they view the pornography. These prebriefings should openly and directly warn people about the negative effects, such as, desensitization and callousness that may occur, of people.

Alternatively, sex education can be imparted to people detailing the gender differences in the sexual signals, communication skills and sensitivity and consideration for one's partner. It should also counter the myths related to sexual behavior of both genders.

For larger reach to audience, one can use movies, you tube videos, etc. to dispel the myths related to rape and violent pornography. Allen et.al.(1996) found prebriefings to be more effective than debriefings.

8.3.3. Political news coverage:

Since the era of first world war, it has become evident that media can change the way people look at the world and its reality. This was aptly brought out in a book "Public Opinion" written and published by Walter Lippmann in 1922. Yet till 1960s, people and especially politicians believed that media has no influence on the thoughts of the people as well as on their voting behavior. However, gradually the power of media in changing the perceptions and thought process of people was realized by social scientists, and by late 1980s, politicians too, were fully aware of media's power in influencing the public opinion.

The media can determine, through media coverage, which issues the public should think about or consider important is known as 'agenda setting'. For example, in 1989, media coverage of drug menace in America shaped public thinking, or set the public agenda, that drug issue is an important one. In such situation, the reality is not important but the public agenda set by the media coverage becomes important determinant in deciding how public will react. For instance, in 1989, when media coverage set the public agenda that drug problem is an important issue, in reality the drug problem was on decline.

There are basically three types of agenda:

The public agenda includes the issues that the public thinks are important.

The policy agenda includes the issues that government officials and policy makers think are important.

The media agenda includes the issues that the media are covering extensively. The media coverage of an issue makes it more noticeable. The issue becomes more salient and important if media presents it with

graphic pictures, covers it for a longer duration and it is covered by all of the media.

We already know that according to the availability heuristic people make decisions on the basis of whatever information they can easily access from their memory, the first thing that comes to their mind.

Research on these three types of agenda indicated that very often the media decides what should be the public's agenda and then public determines what should be the policy agenda. But the policy agenda too can determine the media agenda.

There is a debate going on whether internet can erode the agenda setting function of the media. It is argued that on internet people have the option of deciding on which topics they would like to receive the latest news instead of media deciding what news to give to the consumer. Gottfried and Shearer(2016) reported from a survey that more and more people are choosing to get news from social media. Social media can jeopardize the agenda setting function of other media agencies by sharing political information incidentally to even those who were not searching for it. Internet portals move the stories to prominent locations on the basis of how many times it has been clicked and how many responses it has garnered. Thus, internet can allow people to determine the importance and salience of a story. However, research indicates that in spite of threat from internet, traditional media still has more power to set the agenda (Shehata & Stromback, 2013). The reason is that internet portals are mainly news aggregators, they only collect published information from traditional news agencies, they are not the producers of information.

Political Priming:

Political priming indicates that media influences which information a person is likely to use to make his judgment about a political candidate. For instance, in 1991, American president Bush was very popular and was expected to win elections in 1992. But he lost elections in 1992. Analysis of the role of media in Bush's defeat indicated that in 1991 Bush was popular because media was focused (priming) on Bush's success on international issues and people judged his overall success on the basis of this priming, but in 1992 media highlighted (primed) his failure on domestic issues and that led to his decreasing popularity and he lost, because people judged his overall performance on the basis of his performance in domestic issues and not in international issues. Political Priming effect is long lasting while media priming of violence is short lived.

Framing the story:

A reporter can present a story from various different angles. Framing refers to the way a story was presented or the focus of the story was chosen. Frame of the story will determine which aspects of the story are highlighted and which issues are deemphasized. Framing also plays an important part in increasing or decreasing confidence in government.

Negative Political Campaign:

A political campaign is termed as negative campaign when it highlights the undesirable characteristics of the opponent, indicating that the opponent is loathsome. It does not talk about the stand taken by that opponent on certain issues. Empirical studies have highlighted that media, through negative coverage, can play a significant role in reducing the confidence in the government. It is also found that reduced trust in government correlates with growing cynicism about the effectiveness of any political reforms. Low confidence in government and negative campaign about opponent leads to low rate of voter turnout at the time of elections and ultimately this might reduce the country's ability to deal with any crisis. If both contests run negative campaign about each other, both contests are seen in poor light and voting is seen as a lose-lose situation.

8.3.4 Environment: urbanization, crowding, personal space

Urbanization:

Urbanization refers to people moving from rural area to urban areas, moving from agricultural, community-based activities to trade, manufacture, government jobs, etc. It also means change in the attitudes, beliefs, values and behavior pattern of people migrating from rural to urban areas.

Urbanism refers to life style. A society that is based on complex division of labour, higher technology, higher mobility, interdependence of its members in economic activities and yet high impersonality in social relations.

Louis Wirth(1938:49) identified four characteristics of urbanism -

1. **Transiency:** People in urban area keep forgetting his own friends and relatives and develops new relations. They do not have strong emotional ties with neighbors or others and do not feel bad when they leave and others come in their place.
2. **Superficiality:** They interact with very limited number of people and that too in a very formal and impersonal manner. They all have very segmented roles and depend on each other to satisfy their life needs.
3. **Anonymity:** They do not know each other intimately.
4. **Individualism:** People in urban areas give more importance to their own vested interests.

Apart from these four characteristics, Urbanism is characterized by more emphasis on materialism and less on interpersonal communication. There is social heterogeneity. Social heterogeneity reduces the informal control or social norms that regulate the social behavior of the people. People get exposed to new ideas and practices coming from different cultures and accordingly modify their own beliefs to adjust and suit the new lifestyles.

People are differentiated on the basis of their occupations, class, living standards and social beliefs.

Due to urbanization, joint families are replaced with nuclear families. The size of the family is reducing. Maximum number of women are also entering work force in urban areas, so gender roles are also changing. Power dynamics within families are changing. From 'husband dominated' families are becoming 'equalitarian' families. Equal emphasis is given to girl's and boy's education. Stigma attached to divorce and remarriage is evaporating. Parents are also not imposing their authority over their children and consulting their grown-up children over important family matters. Youngsters obey parents out of respect and not out of fear. Relations with one's distant relatives are breaking or weakening.

However, urbanization has its own specific problems such as house lessness and mushrooming of slums. Crowding and depersonalization, i.e., people's apathy to others' problems is a major problem. Other major problems are lack of or insufficient infrastructure and pollution.

Crowding:

When the number of people are more than the area available per person, it is considered as crowd. Crowding is having too many people at the same place at the same time. This can be defined as physical density too. But there is a difference in physical density and crowding. Physical density is an objective phenomenon while crowding is a subjective feeling of being cramped or being uncomfortable due to others' presence. In the same situation of physical density, one person may experience crowding while another person may not consider it as crowding. So, we can say crowding is a psychological phenomenon. the experience of crowding is not a function of objective (physical or social) conditions but of perception and evaluation of the situation.

Crowding can lead to emotional distress and need for behavioral adjustments to safe guard one's personal space. Stimulus overload model by Desor (1971) proposed crowding leads to too much of stimulation for an individual and this may cause cognitive confusion, fatigue at physical level and withdrawal at behavioral level. Behavioural Constraints Model given by Proshansky et.al. (1970) stated that crowding causes restrictions for behavioural freedom and that causes psychological reactance and infringement. This results in withdrawal and deterioration of interpersonal relationships. The lack of control model also explains that under high density situation people become more stressful because of inability to cope with the environment.

Stokols (1978) stated that the experience of crowding takes place due to the perception of lack of control over environment and desire to transform physically and psychologically to gain more control. Attribution model of crowding is based on the Schachter and Singer theory of emotion. The physiological measures of arousal such as high BP, skin conductance, cortisol level increase have been reported under high density conditions. Optimal level threshold of crowding is subjective and contextual and

hence crowding as a psychological state is experienced by the individual on the basis of population density as mediated by physical resources and coping mechanisms.

Effects of Long-Term crowding:

Karlin et.al. (1979) reported from a study carried out on students living in a hostel. If three students were living in rooms meant for two students, they found it overcrowded and this reduced their academic performance. Students living in dormitories wanted to avoid each other. Stress levels increased with passing time and a feeling of helplessness grew.

In another study, Misra and Tiwari(1987) too found that at homes, larger the number of siblings, these negatively related with the performance on cognitive measures and this relationship was stronger in urban rather than rural settings.

Other studies reported that crowding increased arousal level and distraction, therefore, decreased concentration, persistence and thereby inhibited the performance. It also caused delays and postponements of goal activity, increases aggression as well as the suicide rate, decreased prosocial behavior.

However, people do not get so stressed by crowding if they are ensured that their personal space would be protected by some formal rule.

Personal space:

Personal space refers to an invisible boundary around the body of a person in which intrusion is allowed at the discretion of the person. It is like a small protective bubble encasing a person. Any unwanted intrusion in this space by others is seen as a threat and the person whose personal space is invaded will be uncomfortable. He may withdraw or react violently. Personal space is dynamic. It changes based on with whom the person is interacting and under what context and circumstances.

Hall (1986) proposed that there are four types of personal spaces in social interactions. These are -

- 1. Intimate distance:** This ranges from 0 - 8 inches. At this distance of social interaction, both partners can get strong sensory inputs such as smell, body heat, breathing sound, etc. Generally only romantic partner is allowed to enter this space or a very close relative or friend, that too under certain circumstances.
- 2. Personal distance:** This is the distance of 1.5 feet to 4 feet between two people. This space is used for interaction by close friends, colleagues or classmates, etc.
- 3. Social distance:** This covers range of four feet to 12 feet and is used at work place or in formal relationships or between strangers.

4. **Public distance:** Public place refers to more than 12 feet distance between a public speaker and the audience. Very often it is used by politicians while addressing rallies.

These four types of personal spaces differ depending on the psychosocial and cultural factors as well as the situations. In social interaction, the personal space can differ based on gender, age, social status, personality, familiarity with the other person, for example, Wiggins (1979) reported that personality traits such as dominance, warmth, extroversion/introversion are associated with personal space.

8.4 SUMMARY

Disintegration of families, such as, divorce and separation has become very common prevalence as the stigma against family disintegration is fading, women are gaining economic independence and gender roles are changing. However, in spite of all the changes taking place in gender roles, domestic violence still remains an ugly reality as there is still assumption of husband being superior to women and family being a private entity where family members are free to do whatever they like without interference from outsiders. In fact, very often even law regulatory agencies, extended family members and friends, neighbors, etc. are also hesitant to interfere in complaints of domestic violence. Psychologists have been researching about the possible causes behind men being violent and aggressive towards their wives. Some theorists believe that men are inherently aggressive, while others postulated that may be adverse childhood experiences, unresolved conflicts result in frustration, aggression and finally violence against the easy target, i.e., wife. Still others believe that violent behavior is a learnt behavior and children learn them as gender roles while growing up in families where their mothers are battered by their fathers. Girls also internalize these gender roles and accept enduring the sufferings as part of their gender role.

Media has become an integral part of our lives in modern times. It is believed that children learn violent behavior through exposure to violent content in films, TV programs and cartoon magazines, right from their childhood and aggression has an accumulative property and such children turn out to be aggressive adolescents. It is a myth that watching violent programs has a cathartic effect. Similarly, it was found that violent pornography not only increases the desensitization towards aggression but also weakens the family values. Various methods have been used to restrict the viewing of violent pornography but only Prebriefing seems to be effective.

Few years back, the significant role of media in determining the fate of a political candidate became apparent when president Bush lost to Bill Clinton in spite of having popularity just few months before elections. The reason was that media had changed the agenda and political priming few months before the elections. Research further showed that framing of the story and negative campaign of political candidate also have significant influence on voting behavior of the people.

Environmental concerns, especially urbanization, crowding and personal space are attracting lot of attention of common man, politicians and researchers as well. Urbanization is changing the social fabric of the society. Joint families are breaking, people are becoming more individualistic, materialistic and flexible about the social norms. Urbanization has its own advantages as well as disadvantages. Similarly, it was emphasized that crowding is different from physical density and is a subjective or psychological phenomenon. The sense of crowding differs from person to person and from occasion to occasion. Personal space is an invisible bubble around a person's body. A person feels alarmed, uncomfortable or disgusted if an unwanted intruder enters this personal space. This personal space can be of four types- intimate, personal, social and public space.

8.5 QUESTIONS

1. Why does domestic violence take place?
2. Why do battered wives continue to stay in abusive marital relationships?
3. What are the consequences of viewing media violence?
4. How media can influence voting behavior of the people?
5. How the effect of media violence can be countered?
6. What is impact of viewing pornography on people?
7. How the negative impact of viewing pornography can be reduced?

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