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## Directorate of Distance Education

### B.Sc. (Psychology)

VI - Semester

119 62

## GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

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## Guidance and Counselling

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## INTRODUCTION

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### NOTES

Guidance and counselling have come to play a significant role in the field of education. Guidance, in simple terms means, to direct or provide assistance to someone who needs help. Counselling refers to professional services provided to an individual who is facing a problem and needs help to overcome the problem. Counselling is considered to be an integral and central part of guidance. With the increased advancement in technology and globalization, several techniques have been developed to impart guidance and counselling in education. These techniques are divided into two—testing and non-testing techniques. The testing techniques include intelligence test, achievement test, interest test, aptitude test and so on. The non-testing techniques include case study, interview, observation, and so on.

Guidance and counselling is oriented towards helping people understand themselves, become self-sufficient in making realistic and positive selections and grow in human relationships and concerns. Guidance, hence, should prepare people for life as well as help them acquire appropriate attitudes and values that facilitate them to become productive and dynamic members of their communities. Primarily, the guidance programme should help young people and children to develop a positive self-image and a sense of identity, create a set of beliefs and a value system that will guide their behaviour and actions.

This book, *Guidance and Counselling*, is divided into fourteen units that follow the self-instruction mode with each unit beginning with an Introduction to the unit, followed by an outline of the Objectives. The detailed content is then presented in a simple but structured manner interspersed with Check Your Progress Questions to test the student's understanding of the topic. A Summary along with a list of Key Words and a set of Self Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit for recapitulation.

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**BLOCK - I**  
**PERSPECTIVES OF CAUSE AND EFFECTS**

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*Perspectives of Peace  
Psychology*

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**UNIT 1 PERSPECTIVES OF PEACE  
PSYCHOLOGY**

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**NOTES**

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  - 1.2.1 Scope and Relevance of Peace Psychology
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**1.0 INTRODUCTION**

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Peace psychology is a field of specialisation in the study of psychology that aims to establish hypotheses and practises that avoid and reduce the impact of aggression and conflict on society. It also aims to research and improve viable peace-promoting strategies. In this context, we will study the nature and relevance of peace psychology, along with the psychological causes and effects of violence and non-violence. We will also focus on the concept of non-violence through the Indian perspective, especially philosophers like Gandhi, Ambedkar, and Phule.

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**1.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the nature and relevance of peace psychology
- Describe the psychological causes and effects of violence and non-violence
- Analyze the concept of non-violence through the Indian perspective

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## 1.2 PEACE PSYCHOLOGY: MEANING AND NATURE

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### NOTES

Peace psychology is the area of study of psychology that tries to understand peace and create practical methods for preserving and promoting peace. Peace psychology has deep roots in philosophy and started to become an articulate area of interest in the latter half of the 20th century. It works towards developing theories and practices designed to prevent and mitigate direct and structural violence. It widens humanity's base of understanding of peace and create methods for prevention of violence and conflict thereby alleviating its effects society. In a nutshell, peace psychology advances the knowledge to promote non-violent management of clash, conflicts and engage in the pursuit of social justice, what in peace psychology is referred to as peace-making and peace-building, respectively. According to MacNair (2003), peace psychology is the study of mental processes that lead to violent behaviour, prevent hostility, and assist in creating nonviolent society as well as promote respect, dignity, and fairness for all, for the purpose of making violence a less likely incidence and helping to heal its psychological and socio-economic effects.

The origins of peace psychology can be traced back to William James and his speech at Stanford University in 1906. With the World War I on the horizon, James explained his believes about war and that it satisfies a deeply felt human wants of virtues such as conformity, discipline, loyalty, group cohesiveness, discipline, and sense of duty. He also observed that folks who belong to a faction, whether military or any other experienced a boost in their self-pride when they feel proud of their group. Most importantly, he stated that war is not going to be eradicated until humans have fashioned a 'moral equivalent of war', such as some public service that lead to people experiencing the same virtues that are associated with war and tribal groupism.

Many other philosophers and psychologists wrote about the psychology of peace. A shortened list includes Edward Tolman, Jeremy Bentham, Gordon Allport, Sigmund Freud, Alfred Adler, Mary Whiton Calkins, James McKeen Cattell, William McDougall, Charles Osgood, and Ivan Pavlov. Even Pythagoras qualifies, as he has written on non-violence and more subtle forms of violence called structural violence, which kills people slowly by depriving them of their basic need not letting them satisfy the bare minimum for survival (e.g., poverty). A recurring theme in the midst of peace psychologists has been that war is a construct of humans, not inborn to our nature and that the related idea that violence is biologically possible but not unavoidable. These and other ideas are penned down in a number of papers and proclamations issued by psychologists. One of those statements was signed by more than 4,000 psychologists after WWII. Another, the Seville Statement, issued in 1986 by 20 highly esteemed scientists in the United Nations International Year of Peace. Because war is put

together and constructed by humans, an immense amount of research in peace psychology has hunted to identify the source of violence and peaceful behaviour and environmental conditions that are linked to it.

Peace psychology got a considerable boost during the Cold War (Mid-1940s through the early 1990s), when the clash between the United States and Soviet Union intensified up to the point that the danger of nuclear annihilation appeared imminent. The leading psychologists were tasked to create concepts to better comprehend intergroup divergence, conflicts and its resolution. There was also the establishment of the 48th division of the American Psychological Association called Peace Psychology being one of the milestones in the growth of Peace Psychology in 1990. Shortly afterwards, a journal was established, *Peace and Conflict: Journal of Peace Psychology*. Since then, doctoral-level teaching programmes in peace psychology have been recognized around the world.

Peace psychology is now of a global scope with vast implications especially in today's scenario of vastly interconnected globe and various conflicts. It identifies that violence can be cultural, which happens when beliefs and ideologies are used to validate either direct or structural violence. Direct violence hurts and injures or even kills people in vast numbers swiftly and dramatically, whereas structural violence is much more prevalent and kills far more people by depriving them of their basic needs and necessities for survival. For example, when people go hungry even though there's more than enough food for everybody, the supply chains and distribution systems are responsible for structural violence. If a person puts blame on the situation and victim for their deaths due to starvation, (called victim blaming), then that person engages in cultural violence, by ignoring the systemic issues and leaving the victim in the jaws of death. Direct violence is sustained by the culturally violent idea of just war theory, which argues that under certain conditions, it is tolerable to have blood of others on your hands (e.g., defence of the homeland, using war as a last option, etc.). One of the major challenges for peace psychology is to get a deeper understanding of the structural and cultural roots of violence, a predicament that is particularly important when security concerns revolve around the prevention and deterrence of terrorism and increase of isolationist and separative sentiment among the general public.

### **1.2.1 Scope and Relevance of Peace Psychology**

The description of peace psychology documented the actuality of the post-Cold War era in which the obstruction of nuclear war between the two superpowers was not the primary concern or the focal point of peace studies. Instead, it became the problem of structural violence in our daily lives which ends up killing more people slowly through the deficit of basic human needs like food and shelter. These studies assumed much more critical role in the world of peace psychology. Greater number of peace psychologists has begun to express their interests in structural

## **NOTES**

violence. Consequently, a  $2 \times 2$  matrix was proposed that structured these topics and captured some of the intellectual currents in peace psychology:

**NOTES**

	Violence	Peace
Direct	Direct violence	Direct peace (Peacemaking)
Structural	Structural violence	Structural peace (Peacebuilding)

Furthermore, after the end of the cold war, three major premises could be recognized in peace psychology and activism around the world: (1) a more diverse perspective on the meaning and kinds of violence (i.e. episodic, structural, cultural); (2) a systems view that appreciated the shared links between structurally violent circumstances and occurrences of violence; and (3) greater sensitivity to the effect of geo historical framework on the materialization of peace psychology around the world (Christie, 2006). In short, at the end of the cold war, it became progressively clearer that geo-historical context had a great influence on the meanings and kinds of peace that were most important.

Peace psychology is categorized by four interconnected pillars: (1) research, (2) education, (3) advocacy, and (4) practice. Peace psychological theories are based on psychological models and means; they are usually normatively limited in their means and agendas by working in the direction of the ideal of sustainable peace by means of nonviolent methods. Peace and violence can be defined in terms of Johan Galtung's comprehensive conceptualization of peace, according to which peace is not just the lack of personal (direct) violence and war (= negative peace), but also the no structural (indirect) and cultural violence (= positive peace). The model of peace can also be conceptualized as the complete and inclusive implementation of human rights be it basic civil, socio-economic, political, or cultural rights this should, among the various other purposes, ensure that all the basic human needs are satisfied, such as well-being, control, sense of security, (social) justice, access to adequate food and shelter, positive personal and social identity and a safe environment.

**Check Your Progress**

1. Who is said to have come up with the concept of peace psychology?
2. What are the interconnected pillars through which peace psychology is categorized?

**1.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF VIOLENCE AND NON-VIOLENCE**

The Encyclopaedia of Psychology defines violence as 'an extreme form of aggression, such as assault, rape or murder'. There are numerous sources of

violence inside a person's own psyche including frustration, experience of violence at home, violence in media or vicinity and a propensity to see other person's actions as aggressive even when they're really not. Traditionally, violence is often thought to be driven by negative emotions, such as fear or anger. For example, in a confrontation a person might become violent if he senses any hostile intentions from other party and fear for their own safety or they might become aggressive when angered by someone else.

Psychological violence can acquire the form of verbal insult, coercion, harassment or defamation or any other act which causes psychological injury to a person. Non-violence or peacefulness on the other hand is the condition where people engage in harmonious relationships with family, friends, groups, communities or nations. Corporation and kindness are great examples of peaceful behaviour. Thus, a peaceful person displays attitudes and behaviours which facilitate the creation of peaceful relationships

Violence is a rather common type of human action that occurs all over the world. People of any age group is susceptible to become violent, although young adults and older adolescents are most likely to indulge their violent urges. Violence has numerous negative effects for those who is in contact with it or merely observes it; children are however the most vulnerable to its ill effects. Fortunately, vast arrays of programmes have been doing well in reducing violence and violent tendencies. Peacefulness can be instilled through a lot of these programmes making them a way to connect with oneself, understanding it, and thereby understanding and eliminating the causes of violence.

### **1.3.1 Types of Violence**

Violent crimes are in general divided into four major groups, based on the nature of the behaviour: homicide (the murder of one human being by other, sometimes legally justifiable), assault (physically attacking the other person with the intention of causing harm), robbery (taking things from other person by force), and rape (forcible sexual intercourse with the other person). Other forms of hostility have common characteristics with these group, such as child sexual abuse (being a part in sexual acts with a minor) and domestic violence (violent acts between their own flesh and blood for e.g. spouses)

Violence can furthermore be characterized according to its motivation. Emotional violence also known as reactive violence usually involves the expression of anger—an antagonistic yearning to hurt someone—that happens in response to a perceived aggravation. Instrumental violence also known as proactive violence is more planned and thought through. It is often linked to an expectation of some reward. The renowned psychologist, Dodge, established that these two types of violence involve different physiological states: first a person who engages in reactive violence has increased levels of arousal and activity in the autonomic nervous system (for e.g. increase in the heart rate higher breathing rate and increased

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perspiration), whereas second a person engaged in an act of proactive hostility has lower arousal in their autonomic nervous system. Another way of classifying violent behaviour entails differences between affective and predatory violence. Predatory violence involves premeditated acts of hostile force. Affective violence is spontaneous and unexpected. Over the years other categories of hostility have been created, including irritable violence (due to aggravation) and territorial aggression (due to the intrusion of someone else into one's perceived space).

### **1.3.2 Causes of Violence and Non-Violence**

One point on which most of the researchers agree upon is that violence is multi-causal, meaning that no sole factor is accountable for violent behaviour. Instead, violence is a result of a variety of factors, together with those created in the violent person's cultural or social environment and those representing situational forces in the vicinity. Researchers have observed various factors inside any person that may chip in to violence, neurochemical abnormalities, including genetic predisposition (e.g., high levels of hormones such as testosterone), personality traits (e.g., lack of empathy for others), information-processing discrepancies (e.g., the predisposition to view other people actions as aggressive), and the experiences of cruelty or desertion as a child.

In similar ways non-violence is also a trait that comes from the environment but its existence in a person is highly dependent on being either pragmatic or principled, therefore it depends on personality traits such as agreeableness, empathy, self-acceptance and compassion. These traits can be measured to know the likelihood of a person being non-violent. These psychological dispositions promote the non-violent behaviour in a person.

### **1.3.3 Effects of Violence and Peacefulness**

Irrespective of its cause of its occurrence, violence has severe negative impact on the victims as well as those who witness it. Violence causes physical damage as well as emotional injury. Several psychological disorders, including dissociative identity disorder, borderline personality disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder have been linked to experiencing or observing violence. Other mental illness symptoms such as depression, anxiety, and mood swings are ordinary in victims of hostility. Promotion of non-violence provides acceptance of one's self and creates harmony in the person's personality. Self-worth is important as without accepting oneself a person becomes more vulnerable to be violent. Humans have social interactions and these interactions have a great deal of say in the path our life takes, therefore peacefulness prevents the individual from having a bad quality of life ridden with mental illnesses as mentioned above.

Children are the most vulnerable group when it comes to the effects of violence. Those who experience or observe violence may develop a variety of problems, including poor anger management, anxiety, insecurity, pathological lying, depression, poor social skills, manipulative behaviour, lack of empathy, and



impulsiveness. As such some instances have shown, some kids may act in response to violence by internalizing it, leading to psychological issues such as developing feelings of fear, insecurity, depression and anxiety, whereas others may have an external reaction such as a constant feeling of anger and antisocial behaviour. These effects of violence are manifested in adulthood as well. For example, children who have been abused are more likely to develop substance-abuse problems when they grow up than the children who have not faced abuse.

Moreover, prolonged exposure to violent behaviour can increase the same tendency in children. Albert Bandura, an American psychologist showed that children more often than not imitate violent behaviours, particularly when those acts are committed by trustworthy adults (e.g., parents). Children also emulate violence shown in media; this has become especially prevalent with the advent of the Internet and social media. Children who have been exposed to large amounts of media and social media violence are far more likely than others to show violent actions as adults. This is predominantly true when a child can identify with the violent movie and television characters and they consider that violence to be the objective reality. Therefore, it is important to focus on programmes, which can identify these kinds of patterns in an individual's behaviour and prevent violent tendencies from taking over their psyche.

#### **1.3.4 Prevention of Violence and Promotion of Non-Violence**

Since the propensity to behave aggressively grows and develops during childhood, most prevention curriculum programmes are targeted at adolescents. Most of these curriculum programmes are school-based, but some also involve the kin or community. Most of the successful violence deterrence curriculum programmes are those that are meant to target all children, and not just those who are thought to be at danger for aggression. In addition, the most success has been found in school-based curriculum programmes with committed and concerned teachers and comprising of parent training.

Vast arrays of programmes have been developed to lessen or prevent violence in folks who have previously shown a propensity towards violence. For example, a number of prison-based curriculum programmes endeavour to reduce the likelihood of repeat offences among violent and non-violent criminals. Such programmes frequently involve an assortment of apparatus. Violent offenders may obtain training that helps improve parenting and other relationship skills. A mental-health component, such as substance abuse treatment, may be included. Job training is another common component of prison-based prevention programmes. Occasionally, drugs such as beta blockers, anti-depressants or benzodiazepines may be used in addition to other methods. Overall, the most successful curriculum programmes to thwart such hostility are those that have large effect on behavioural changes promoting things like agreeableness and teaching techniques like negotiations to achieve the required goal instead of resorting to violence.

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### Check Your Progress

3. What do you mean by psychological violence?
4. At what age are people most likely to be violent?
5. Mention the different types of violent crimes.
6. What are the components of programmes aimed at preventing violence?

## 1.4 NON-VIOLENCE THROUGH THE INDIAN PERSPECTIVE

Peace is mostly conceived as the absence of war or at the most the absence of overt violence. Most efforts to secure peace were thus focused on preventing the outbreak of wars or trying to get a ceasefire in place so as to stop the war as soon as possible. But religious and philosophical traditions have elaborated on peace at length. Most of these are focused on equality, harmony and non-violence. These religious and philosophical ideas continue to shape the ideas about peace. However, in contemporary times peace is not seen as just an idea, 'it is a goal that can be obtained by conscious efforts to build a harmonious social order'.

### 1.4.1 Indian Perspective

We can grasp the description of non-violence through the various classic texts of India and its eminent thinkers.

#### Mahabharata and Gita

The Mahabharata, a Hindu epic, describes a civil war that took place between cousins belonging to a royal family—the Kauravas and the Pandavas. Arjuna, one of the Pandava warriors, refuses to fight his own family members and relatives who belong to the opposing camp as it would entail killings among brothers. However, Krishna manages to convince him to fight by telling him that it is his duty to do so.

The most important part of the Mahabharata is the *Bhagwad Gita* popularly known as the *Gita*. The *Gita* explains human beings how to lead a happy and peaceful life in a world that is full of dualities and dilemmas. Its central teaching is that human beings can attain happiness and peace by performing one's duty. One should perform one's duty efficiently irrespective of the outcome and without being attached to the result. *Ahimsa* should be the norm but if duty requires violence as in the case of Arjuna, then it is unavoidable. The *Gita* inspired Gandhi for it de-emphasized the 'individual self in the pursuit of higher goals.'

## Jainism

In Jainism, peace is not just an idea, it is practically possible to attain and establish peace. For this one needs to be moral. The trinity of values that are stressed in Jainism are *maitri* (friendliness), *kshama* (forgiveness) and *abhaya* (fearlessness). Establishing universal friendliness was the main concern of Mahavira, the last of the twenty-four *tirthankaras* of Jainism. This would require purification; the more one purifies oneself, better one can do for others. *Ahimsa* or non-violence and *anekanta* are the two basic tenets of Jainism. Non-violence is a way of life and includes harmlessness, tolerance and non-hatred towards others. *Anekanta* means that there are many shades of the truth or reality; there is no one truth. *Ahimsa* and *anekanta* put together are principles of peaceful coexistence.

## Buddhism

Buddhism believes in the interconnectedness of all things. It lays emphasis on non-violence and compassion and thus is anti-war. The Four Noble Truths as enunciated by Gautama Buddha are central to the Buddhist thought:

- Life is about suffering or *dukkha* which includes mental and physical suffering such as anxiety, fear, frustration, sadness, injury, old age and death. Human beings want to hold on to things but nothing is permanent in this imperfect and constantly changing world. As a result we are all dissatisfied.
- The origin of suffering is attachment or 'craving' and 'clinging'. Human beings not only crave for desire, fame, wealth, etc., but are also ignorant about this craving. We are ignorant about the transient nature of all things around us.
- Suffering can be ended through *nirodha* or dispassion. Through *nirodha* all attachments can be extinguished. The ultimate level of dispassion is *Nirvana* wherein people become free from all worries.
- The Eight-fold Path, a gradual middle way of self-improvement, can end suffering by ending the cycle of rebirth.

The fourteenth Dalai Lama, a Tibetan Buddhist monk and the spiritual leader of the Tibetan people, emphasizes that peace can be attained through compassion and love. This compassion and love is based on selflessness and not selfishness. Promotion of humanitarian values is essential to secure happiness and world peace. This can be done by developing universal responsibility where all human beings show concern and compassion for one and all, irrespective of any discrimination. The basis of universal responsibility is interconnectedness and the fact that all beings have the same desires; all want happiness rather than suffering.

## Ashoka's policy of Dhamma

After the battle of Kalinga, where the Kalingans lost, Ashoka gave up military campaigns being moved by the pain, destruction and violence caused by the war. He converted to Buddhism and dedicated the latter part of his life to non-violence.

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He enunciated the ideology of the *Dhamma* which was inspired by Buddhism. In order to propagate the *Dhamma*, Ashoka issued proclamations which were engraved on rocks and pillars in different parts of the Indian subcontinent. These were addressed to the public at large and explained his ideas on the *Dhamma*. Ashoka's *Dhamma*, in the words of Romila Thapar (an Indian historian) 'aimed at creating an attitude of mind among his subjects in which social behaviour had the highest relevance'.

In the fourth major rock edict, Ashoka proclaimed his interest in *Dhamma*—abstention from killing and non-injury to living beings so as to foster goodwill rather than the militarist spirit. *Dhamma* focused on tolerance, non-violence, respect, kindness towards the weak and inferior, and other such values that are favourable to human dignity. Tolerance referred to two things: 'toleration of people themselves and also of their beliefs and ideas'. Non-violence was fundamental to the *Dhamma*. It 'implied both a renunciation of war and conquest by violence and a restraint on the killing of animals'. Ashoka however realized that a complete or absolute non-violence was not practical as in some situations violence may be unavoidable. The thirteenth edict was left out because Ashoka believed that it would remind people of his attack, the consequent violence, and stir their emotions.

### **Sufism and the Bhakti Movement**

The Sufis were non-conformist in their belief and emphasized on equality in society. They stressed on rational thinking and pursuing knowledge by employing empirical observation. Islam and particularly the teachings of the Sufis had been a major source of influence on the Bhakti movement, though the devotional Bhakti cults were a pre-Islam phenomenon. The leaders of the Bhakti movement were critical of institutionalized religion, rituals and the caste system and were opposed to violence. They treated women equally and encouraged them to join the movement.

The two Bhakti leaders who contributed the most through their teachings were Kabir and Nanak. 'Kabir either denied the Hindu and Muslim ideas of God or else equated them by stating that they were identical...Nanak went a step further and described God without reference to either Hindu or Muslim conception'. Both emphasized on living simply and leading a normal balanced life; they were critical of extreme ways and methods of living. Kabir and Nanak both wanted to reorganize the society on egalitarian patterns. Sufi and Bhakti conceptions of peace were liberal traditions opposed to orthodoxy. Both believed in union with God and 'love' was to be their basis of relationship with God. Both Sufi and Bhakti traditions were instrumental in producing a culture of inclusiveness and coexistence within the Indian subcontinent.

### **Sikhism**

Sikhism stresses on a prescribed code of conduct. Its teachings are based on the *Guru Granth Sahib* and the ten Gurus. Sikhism believes in human liberty, equality and fraternity. It emphasizes on universal brotherhood and universal peace and

prosperity. It is committed to providing selfless service to entire humanity. Sikhism attaches importance to an optimistic and happy life. It focuses more on *sukh* (happiness) rather than *shanti* (peace). It believes that happiness is an active state where justice based on truth is present. On the other hand, peace is seen as the absence of conflict and therefore a passive state. Besides, force and oppression may be employed to achieve peace. Sikhism does not believe in total pacifism. Sometimes military action may have to be undertaken so as to promote justice. Guru Gobind Singh was in favour of military action but only if it was necessary. Moreover it had to be taken up only as the last resort.

### **Akbar and the concept of *Sulh-i-kul***

Akbar had discussions and debates on religious issues with the representatives of various religions wherein he tried to understand things from the perspective of different religions. These debates 'convinced Akbar that all religions had elements of truth, and that all of them led to the same Supreme Reality'. This belief led to the evolution of *Sulh-i-kul* (Absolute Peace) which referred to peace between all religions. *Sulh-i-kul* was an attempt by Akbar to reconcile the differences between different religions and their factions, which were a source of conflict between them. Moreover, from the administrative point of view, these conflicts prevented the Mughal state from taking a neutral stance towards the various communities. Thus it was concluded that 'all religions were to be tolerated, but did not need to be followed'.

### **1.4.2 Thoughts of Gandhi**

Education for peace seeks to nurture the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that comprise a culture of peace. It is a long-term proactive strategy to nurture peaceful persons who resolve conflicts non-violently. Education for peace is holistic. It embraces the physical, emotional, intellectual, and social growth of children within a framework of human values. Recognising peace as holistic carries two major implications for education for peace.

- Peace involves all aspects and dimensions of human existence in an inter-dependent way. Only those who are at peace with themselves can be at peace with others and develop the sensitivity it takes to be just and caring towards nature. Spiritual and psychological peace is neither stable nor viable without social, economic, and ecological peace.
- Peace implies reciprocity. Values like love, freedom, and peace can be had only by giving them to others. Peace for oneself that excludes peace for others is a dangerous illusion. Education for peace, hence, has a two-fold purpose:
  - o To empower individuals to choose the path of peace rather than the path of violence; and
  - o To enable them to be peacemakers rather than the consumers of peace. Education for peace is, in this sense, an essential component of holistic basic education that aims at the comprehensive development of persons.

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Peace is often equated with the absence of violence. To Gandhi, exploitation was the most familiar and practical form of violence on an individual by the state, a group, another individual, or by machines; on women by men; and on one nation by another. Peace mandates the practice of values such as love, truth, justice, equality, tolerance, harmony, humility, togetherness, and self-control. Self-suffering, if need be, is to be preferred to inflicting violence on others. Gandhi's concept of peace includes:

- The absence of tensions, conflicts, and all forms of violence including terrorism and war. Peace implies the capacity to live together in harmony. This calls for non-violent ways of resolving conflicts. Diversity occasions conflicts but conflicts do not have to eventuate into violence.
- The creation of non-violent social systems, i.e., a society free from structural violence. The duty to practice justice: social, economic, cultural, and political. Hunger is systemic violence.
- The absence of exploitation and injustice of every kind.
- International cooperation and understanding. This involves the creation of a just world order, marked by a willingness to share the earth's resources to meet the needs of all. That is, the need to shift from greed to need.
- Ecological balance and conservation. The adoption of lifestyles conducive to the wholeness of creation.
- Peace of mind, or the psycho-spiritual dimension of peace. Peace begins with the individual and spreads to the family, to the community, to the nation, and to the global village. Promoting a culture of peace, hence, involves a two-pronged strategy. The members of a society need to be oriented toward peace rather than toward violence. At the same time, social, economic, and political systems have to be reoriented to peace. The discipline of peace must shape our way of life. Education is vital for the effectiveness of both strategies. For this to happen education has to go beyond the warehousing of information to a celebration of awareness, which is best facilitated through education for peace.

### **Gandhism: Ideas and ideals**

Gandhi was a man of action, a realist and a pragmatist. Even though he was an ordinary man like any other, he was able to achieve that realization, which made him the 'Mahatma'. He was essentially a religious man. He was not a politician. In his own words, he was not a politician masquerading as a religious man, but a religious man, who had been dragged into politics because of his great concern for his fellow human beings. He, therefore, practiced whatever he professed and never asked to follow anything that he had not practised in his own life. He did not believe in armchair theorizing or system-building. Thus, it was intuition and action rather than logic and system-building, which characterized the political philosophy of Gandhi. He entered the hot-bed of

politics to emancipate the people from the yoke of foreign domination. *Swaraj*, therefore, was the most important thing, which he kept in the forefront of his political programme. To achieve *Swaraj*, Gandhi adopted certain means and worked out his programme with the help of these means. The principles, which were followed by Mahatma Gandhi, were woven into a political philosophy by his followers. Gandhi did not differentiate between thought and action; for him, to think was to act.

With his novel method of non-violent struggle against the British imperialists, Gandhi became a dynamic force in the political and spiritual life of India. The Indians could have never fought the British with force, because it would have been suppressed by still greater force, which the British commanded. The symbolic use of the weapons of non-violence and Satyagraha were responsible for spreading patriotic fervour throughout the country. The British were not prepared for such an attack and had to surrender. During this period, Gandhi became the most vital force and his life and activities were identified with the Indians' struggle for national independence. His spiritual and moral impact was so great that after his assassination the *Manchester Guardian* rightly commented that 'he was a saint among politicians and a politician among saints'. Gandhi's sincerity of purpose, his devotion to duty and the noble principles that he practiced, made him the ideal of many national leaders in India.

### **Influence on the thought of Gandhi**

Gandhi read little in the realm of political theory or political thought. But whatever he read, he assimilated perfectly. He read the Bhagavad Gita and gave it a novel interpretation. He read it several times and considered it as the book of spiritual reference. He learnt about truth and non-violence from the Bhagavad Gita. He was also influenced by Patanjali's *Yogasutra*, the Ramayana and Mahabharata. He read some of the Jain and Buddhist writings and was deeply influenced by the principles of truth and non-violence. From the Upanishads, he got the inspiration for his faith in non-possession. He read the *New Testament* of the *Bible* and was greatly influenced by the 'Sermon on the Mount'. The dying words of Jesus: 'Father forgive them for they know not what they do', awakened Gandhi's faith in the rightness and value of Satyagraha.

The teachings of Lao-Tse and Confucius also influenced Gandhi's thought to some extent. Lao-Tse had taught the philosophy of non-assertiveness of ideal life. From the writings of Confucius, Gandhi learnt the principles of reciprocity. The principle means that men should not do to others what they would not do to themselves. Secular writers like Thoreau, Ruskin and Tolstoy also influenced the moral and political philosophy of Gandhi. He learnt the principle of civil disobedience from Thoreau. Ruskin instilled in Gandhi, respect for manual labour. Tolstoy inspired him to think in terms of philosophical anarchism.

Comparing Thoreau and Gandhi, Pyarelal Nayyar says: 'Neither of these thinkers was a system-builder but both were profound thinkers, truth-seekers and

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truth-speakers. Both had a passion for truth and both represented a philosophy in action. Both also believed in the ideal of voluntary poverty.’

### 1.4.3 Thoughts of Ambedkar

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Bhim Rao Ambedkar was born on 14th of April, 1891 in the military cantonment of Mhow in Madhya Pradesh. He was the 14th and final child of Ramji Maloji Sakpal, and Bhimabai Sakpal. His family was Marathi by birth from the city of Ratnagiri (locality of modern-day Maharashtra). Ambedkar was born in an underprivileged lower class Mahar (Dalit) caste, who were considered untouchables in the society then, making them subject to harsh socio-economic injustices. He was a reformist politician and lawyer, who inspired the Dalit Buddhist movement and campaigned against untouchability and social discrimination.

Often Buddhism is reduced to a religion that spreads non-violence, however, it should be made plain and clear at the onset that it is not the straitlaced non-violent tenets of Buddhism that fascinated B. R. Ambedkar. Rather, the point of view put forth by Ambedkar for his switch to Buddhism was much more nuanced. If we consider these nuances and endow with room for an imaginative reading of his want to embrace Buddhism, it opens up some appealing questions for our study of political hypothesis, particularly concerning our thoughts on violence and non-violence in politics. Here we will specifically focus on Ambedkar’s arguments concerning his liking for Buddhism over other religions and philosophies as outlined in his text *Buddha or Karl Marx*.

Ambedkar believed that religion change is a mode of collective political act. In a speech in May 1936, he elaborated his choice to denounce his Hindu religion; Ambedkar stated that the question of conversion is intertwined with questions of liberation and progression for a large section of population in India, referring to the Dalits. Ambedkar told the assembled people that the substance of conversion needs to be observed through both the spiritual lens and material. Ambedkar discovered the concept of non-violence with Gandhi. If aggression is about belittling the available possibilities, and if non-violence can be interpreted as preserving these possibilities, Ambedkar would have sensed violence in Gandhi’s non-violence. By his reading of Gandhi’s concept of non-violence, diplomacies require some form of psychological coercion, the best instance being Gandhi’s fast until death that had led to the signing of the 1932 Poona Pact; the outcome of such psychological duress is that it consequently leads to minimizing the accessible possibilities, just like aggression would have.

With this layer of understanding, Ambedkar had argued that Gandhi’s techniques destroyed the good ends by taking the route of psychological coercion. This is for the reason that in Gandhi’s non-violence, there is less of a separation between means and ends, which is dissimilar to that in Ambedkar’s. For Gandhi, means justify the ends. Non-violence, stems from ‘a bravery not to convert the practice of the deepest forms of abuse in to a call for liberating violence’, and thus, setting up the possibility of establishing all modes of political action or revolution in



modern India to legitimate constitutional ways of engagement. Thus, for Ambedkar, non-violent unbiased action should be grounded in constitutional morality, not in personal uprightness. This is for the reason that, Ambedkar understood that political behaviour should acknowledge the plurality of opinions. Non-violent political conduct is, then, about working together in spite of basic differences, negotiating and coming to a conclusion that requires cooperation from all parties, and participating and nurturing in institutions and society that will create an enabling structure for creation of new possibilities.

#### **1.4.4 Thoughts of Phule**

Jyotirao Govindrao Phule was born on 11th April 1827 was an Indian, anti-casteism social reformer writer, social activist and thinker from Maharashtra. His work was extensive encompassing various fields, including the eradication of untouchability and the caste structure from our society, and education of women and Dalits. He was married to Savitribai Phule and together they were pioneers of female education programmes in India. Phule opened the first school for women in 1848 in Pune at Tatyasaheb Bhide's house.

Discrimination against Dalits was the consequence of casteism. Dalits were often deprived of the basic rights of property rights, choice of employment, equal treatment, education, and freedom of religion back then. Phule's social views were based on humanism. It was based on the principles like justice, peace, and equality. He spread moral principle-based system through his thought and work. Our country having just gained independence still didn't have independent values in the society, the reason being the caste system. Phule's humanism was modern for its time. Phule was swift to see and express disapproval of the failings of business enterprise; the largest space is taken up in his writings telling about the wicked businessmen. But he knew that there are honest and ethical businessmen as well. What he wished for in his followers was to learn that it requires a commanding social morality at the helm and state regulation to create well-run and honest businesses. This was his way of creating and instilling peace by meeting the needs of those who were oppressed and allowing them to have a fair chance as well. Morality is possible in businesses and here he thought Buddhism particularly contrasted with Brahmanism, which condone all kinds of immoral activities of businesses at the time and treated other castes beneath them. Buddhism gives order for creation of honest enterprise and considers this activity to be completely moral.

He thought true nationalism required equality, and thus, breaking the caste hierarchy of society at the time was necessary to build an inclusive nation in India. He and his wife together stood firmly for these rights. They also championed the need for education as a means for creation of a learned and fulfilled society which in turn is a peaceful one to live in for its members. The mission of bringing concerning social and religious reforms in 19th century was not so straightforward. Social reformers had to face huge complications and barriers, which were overcome by tremendous effort. Phule played an extraordinary role in this field.

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### Check Your Progress

7. What was the aim of Ashoka's Dhamma?
8. What is *Sulh-i-kul*?
9. State the two-pronged strategy of promoting peace.
10. How did Nayyar compare Thoreau and Gandhi?
11. Who were the parents of Bhim Rao Ambedkar?
12. What was the outcome of Gandhi's fast until death?

## 1.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The origins of peace psychology can be traced back to William James and his speech at Stanford University in 1906.
2. Peace psychology is categorized by four interconnected pillars: (1) research, (2) education, (3) advocacy, and (4) practice.
3. Psychological violence can acquire the form of verbal insult, coercion, harassment or defamation or any other act which causes psychological injury to a person.
4. Young adults and older adolescents are most likely to be violent.
5. Violent crimes are in general divided into four major groups, based on the nature of the behaviour: homicide, assault, robbery, and rape.
6. The components of programmes aimed at preventing violence include training that helps improve parenting and other relationship skills, a mental-health component, job training, and occasionally, drugs such as beta blockers, anti-depressants or benzodiazepines may be used in addition to other methods.
7. Ashoka's *Dhamma*, in the words of Romila Thapar (an Indian historian) 'aimed at creating an attitude of mind among his subjects in which social behaviour had the highest relevance'.
8. *Sulh-i-kul* referred to peace between all religions. It was an attempt by Akbar to reconcile the differences between different religions and their factions, which were a source of conflict between them.
9. Promoting a culture of peace involves a two-pronged strategy. The members of a society need to be oriented toward peace rather than toward violence. At the same time, social, economic, and political systems have to be reoriented to peace. The discipline of peace must shape our way of life.

10. Comparing Thoreau and Gandhi, Pyarelal Nayyar says: 'Neither of these thinkers was a system-builder but both were profound thinkers, truth-seekers and truth-speakers. Both had a passion for truth and both represented a philosophy in action. Both also believed in the ideal of voluntary poverty.'
11. Bhim Rao Ambedkar was born to Ramji Maloji Sakpal, and Bhimabai Sakpal.
12. Gandhi's fast until death led to the signing of the 1932 Poona Pact.

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### 1.6 SUMMARY

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- Peace psychology is the area of study of psychology that tries to understand peace and create practical methods for preserving and promoting peace.
- Peace psychology has deep roots in philosophy and started to become an articulate area of interest in the latter half of 20th century.
- In a nutshell, peace psychology advances the knowledge to promote non-violent management of clash, conflicts and engage in the pursuit of social justice, what in peace psychology is referred to as peace-making and peace-building, respectively.
- The origins of peace psychology can be traced back to William James and his speech at Stanford University in 1906.
- Many other philosophers and psychologists wrote about the psychology of peace. A shortened list includes Edward Tolman, Jeremy Bentham, Gordon Allport, Sigmund Freud, Alfred Adler, Mary Whiton Calkins, James McKeen Cattell, William McDougall, Charles Osgood, and Ivan Pavlov.
- Peace psychology is now of a global scope with vast implications especially in today's scenario of vastly interconnected globe and various conflicts.
- The Encyclopaedia of Psychology defines violence as 'an extreme form of aggression, such as assault, rape or murder'.
- Psychological violence can acquire the form of verbal insult, coercion, harassment or defamation or any other act which causes psychological injury to a person.
- Violence is a rather common type of human action that occurs all over the world. People of any age group is susceptible to become violent, although young adults and older adolescents are most likely to indulge their violent urges.
- Violent crimes are in general divided into four major groups, based on the nature of the behaviour.
- Violence can furthermore be characterized according to its motivation. Emotional violence also known as reactive violence usually involves the

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expression of anger—an antagonistic yearning to hurt someone—that happens in response to a perceived aggravation.

- Another way of classifying violent behaviour entails differences between affective and predatory violence.
- One point on which most of the researchers agree upon is that violence is multi-causal, meaning that no sole factor is accountable for violent behaviour.
- Irrespective of its cause or its occurrence, violence has severe negative impact on the victims as well as those who witness it. Violence causes physical damage as well as emotional injury.
- Children are the most vulnerable group when it comes to the effects of violence. Those who experience or observe violence may develop a variety of problems, including poor anger management, anxiety, insecurity, pathological lying, depression, poor social skills, manipulative behaviour, lack of empathy, and impulsiveness.
- Since propensity to behave aggressively grows and develops during childhood, most prevention curriculum programmes are targeted at adolescents.
- *Ahimsa* or nonviolence and *anekanta* are the two basic tenets of Jainism. Non-violence is a way of life and includes harmlessness, tolerance and non-hatred towards others.
- Buddhism believes in the interconnectedness of all things. It lays emphasis on non-violence and compassion. The Four Noble Truths are central to the Buddhist thought.
- Sufi and Bhakti conceptions of peace were liberal traditions opposed to orthodoxy. Both believed in union with God and ‘love’ was to be their basis of relationship with god.
- Sikhism believes that happiness is an active state where justice based on truth is present. On the other hand, peace is seen as the absence of conflict and therefore a passive state. Military action may have to be undertaken sometime so as to promote justice but that was to be the last resort.
- Akbar believed that all religions had elements of truth. This belief led to the evolution of *Sulh-i-kul*.
- Education for peace seeks to nurture the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that comprise a culture of peace. It is a long-term proactive strategy to nurture peaceful persons who resolve conflicts non-violently.
- Peace involves all aspects and dimensions of human existence in an interdependent way. Only those who are at peace with themselves can be at peace with others and develop the sensitivity it takes to be just and caring towards nature.

- Peace is often equated with the absence of violence. To Gandhi, exploitation was the most familiar and practical form of violence on an individual by the state, a group, another individual, or by machines; on women by men; and on one nation by another.
- Peace begins with the individual and spreads to the family, to the community, to the nation, and to the global village. Promoting a culture of peace, hence, involves a two-pronged strategy.
- Gandhi was a man of action, a realist and a pragmatist. Even though he was an ordinary man like any other, he was able to achieve that realization, which made him the 'Mahatma'. He was essentially a religious man. He was not a politician.
- Gandhi read little in the realm of political theory or political thought. But whatever he read, he assimilated perfectly. He read the Bhagavad Gita and gave it a novel interpretation. He read it several times and considered it as the book of spiritual reference.
- Bhim Rao Ambedkar was born on 14th of April, 1891 in the military cantonment of Mhow in Madhya Pradesh. He was the 14th and final child of Ramji Maloji Sakpal, and Bhimabai Sakpal.
- Often Buddhism is reduced to a religion that spreads non-violence, however, it should be made plain and clear at the onset that it is not the straitlaced non-violent tenets of Buddhism that fascinated B. R. Ambedkar.
- Ambedkar believed that religion change is a mode of collective political act. In a speech in May 1936, he elaborated his choice to denounce his Hindu religion.
- Ambedkar had argued that Gandhi's techniques destroyed the good ends by taking the route of psychological coercion.
- Jyotirao Govindrao Phule was born on 11th April 1827 was an Indian, anti-casteism social reformer writer, social activist and thinker from Maharashtra.
- Phule's social views were based on humanism. It was based on the principles like justice, peace, and equality. He spread moral principle-based system through his thought and work.

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### 1.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Groupism:** It is a theoretical approach in sociology that posits that conformity to the laws/norms of a group such as family, kinship, race, ethnicity, religion and nationality brings reciprocal benefits such as recognition, right, power and security.
- **Satyagraha:** It is a very broad concept, which is not just about non-violence, instead it is a way of life based on love and compassion, insisting the opponent to re think and change his heart.

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## 1.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the major premises that could be recognized in peace psychology and activism?
2. What are the causes and effects of violence?
3. How can violence be prevented and non-violence be promoted?
4. Write a short note on Phule's concept of non-violence.

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the concept of peace psychology in detail.
2. Describe the different Indian approaches to peace.
3. Analyse Gandhi's concept of peace and non-violence.
4. Explain the concept of non-violence through the eyes of Ambedkar.

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## 1.9 FURTHER READINGS

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- James, S. 2008. *Peace Education: Exploring Ethical and Philosophical Foundations*. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing.
- Barash, David P. (ed.). 2000. *Approaches to Peace: A Reader in Peace Studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
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# UNIT 2 UNDERSTANDING VIOLENCE

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### Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Genocide and Mass Killings: Roots and Preventions
  - 2.2.1 Case Study of 1984 Sikh Riots
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  - 2.2.3 Case Study of Gujrat Riots
  - 2.2.4 Caste Discrimination and Anti-Dalit Violence
- 2.3 Psychological Approaches to Understanding Terrorism
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- 2.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
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- 2.7 Key Words
- 2.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 2.9 Further Readings

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## 2.0 INTRODUCTION

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The World Health Organization defines violence as ‘the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, which either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment, or deprivation’. In simple words, the use of physical force to injure, threaten, harm, or kill is violence. In 2013, violence caused the deaths of an estimated 1.28 million people worldwide, up from 1.13 million in 1990. About 842,000 of the deaths in 2013 were due to self-harm (suicide), 405,000 to interpersonal abuse, and 31,000 to community violence (war) and legal interference. There are scores of hospitalizations, hundreds of emergency room visits, and thousands of medical appointments for every single death due to violence. Additionally, violence also has lifelong effects for physical and mental wellbeing and social functioning, and can delay economic and social growth. In this unit, we will discuss the concepts of genocide and mass killings with the help of various case studies. We will also focus on psychological approaches to terrorism, along with the intimate and structural violence against women and children.

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## 2.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the concepts of genocide and mass killings
- Describe the psychological approaches to terrorism
- Analyze the intimate and structural violence against women and children

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## 2.2 GENOCIDE AND MASS KILLINGS: ROOTS AND PREVENTIONS

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Genocide is usually defined as the killing of members from a specific group, causing serious bodily or mental harm, imposing measures with the intent to create miserable conditions of life for the group, preventing birth and converting children to a different group on the basis of race, ethnicity, religious sentiment and nationality. Genocide occurs with the intent to destroy existence of a certain group. According to Lemkin, genocide is a coordinated strategy to destroy a group of people, a procedure that could be accomplished through complete annihilation as well as tactics that eliminate key elements of the group's vital existence, including culture, economic infrastructure, and language. Before the holocaust, it was considered the right of a nation to commit such atrocities but post-World War II, Lemkin successfully campaigned for the universal acceptance of laws which forbade genocide and treated it as a crime against humanity under the international law.

United Nations in 1946 declared genocide as a denial of the right of subsistence to entire groups of humans, as homicide is said to be stripping away of the right to live of an individual; such denial of the right of subsistence shocks the mankind to its core thereby resulting in enormous losses to humanity in the form of either culture or religion and other contributions of these groups, and is divergent to the morality, ethics and the fortitude that United Nations aims for. Many occurrences of such crimes of genocide have cropped up on the basis of religious, racial, and political intolerance.

In this unit, we will learn about the roots of violence and its cataclysmic consequences and find out how such violence can be prevented and how peace can be established. First of all, things begin with the marginalization and growth of other psychological processes such as scapegoating and antagonistic ideologies leading to instigation of communal violence, due to group conflict and difficult life conditions. These evolve into increasing violence leading to genocide. There are certain characteristics of cultures that make these courses of action more or less probable. The need for bystanders to mediate and halt violence once it has broken out can mean the difference between life and death of a whole group.



### 2.2.1 Case Study of 1984 Sikh Riots

Hatred and violence have been a feature of human history for a fairly long time. Even our country had its dark days. 1984 remains one of the worst years in Indian history. In June 1984, our then PM Indira Gandhi ordered a military strike on terrorists at one of the most important religious centres of the Sikh religion, the Golden Temple in Amritsar, Punjab. The assault killed over a thousand civilians. On 31st October of the same year, PM Gandhi was killed by two of her Sikh bodyguards. Her assassination prompted genocidal killings all over the country, predominantly in the capital, New Delhi. Furious mobs of young hooligans thirsty for vengeance, burned stores owned by Sikhs, pulling them out of their houses, cars and trains, then beating them to death or setting them on fire and raging off finding the next victim.

Bystanders watched with horror and shock as the mobs walked the streets of New Delhi, gang-raping Sikh women, murdering Sikh men and burning down Sikh homes, businesses and Gurudwaras (Sikh houses of worship). Eyewitness accounts describe how law enforcement and government officials participated in the massacres by engaging in the violence, inciting civilians to seek vengeance and providing the mobs with weapons. The massacres continued unabated, and according to official reports, within three days nearly 3,000 Sikhs had been murdered, at a rate of one per minute at the peak of the violence. Unofficial death estimates are far higher, and human rights activists have identified specific individuals complicit in organizing and perpetrating the massacres. The anti-Sikh violence of 1984 wasn't a riot. The massacres didn't happen spontaneously. It was violence deliberately the Sikh Community.

### 2.2.2 Case Study of Kandhamal Riots

Another example is that of the 2008 Kandhamal violence, which refers to the violence between factions led by Hindu extremists, and Christians within the Kandhamal district in Odisha, India in August 2008, which was caused due to the murder of the Hindu monk, Lakshmanananda Saraswati. According to the government reports, the violence resulted in a death of 39 individuals, all Christians and vandalization of 395 churches, while over 5,600 houses were pillaged or burnt down, with over 60 villages looted, leaving over 60,000 individuals homeless. Reports place the number of people killed to be at least a hundred and forty women were also sexually abused.

#### **Unofficial reports place number of the deceased to five hundred**

Tensions reportedly started with violent incidents over Christmas 2007 that resulted in the burning of over a hundred churches and church establishments, together with hostels, convents, and over 700 homes. Three individuals were additionally killed throughout the three days leading to Christmas. The violence began with the murder of the Vishwa Hindu Parishad (VHP) leader, Lakshmanananda Saraswati on 23 August by Maoists. From 25–28 August, Hindu mobs, angry with the multiple

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murders of Saraswati and four others, allegedly incited by local politicians, set fire to several Christian settlements.

The violence destroyed 400 Christian homes and around eighty places of worship. Additionally, 500 Christians were forced to escape their villages to expatriate camps 'after their homes were attacked by rampaging mobs'. The military and paramilitary forces deployed within the state didn't respond with efficiency or fittingly.

On the same day, rioters attacked a Christian orphanage at Khuntpalli village in Bargarh district. A neighbouring Hindu girl worker in her 20s was sexually assaulted by several men and burnt alive by the mob when she was mistaken for a Christian.

### 2.2.3 Case Study of Gujrat Riots

The 2002 Gujarat riots, aka the 2002 Gujarat violence was a 3 day period of inter-communal violence in the Western Indian state of Gujarat. The burning of a train in Godhra on 27th February 2002, which killed 58 Hindu pilgrims who were returning from Ayodhya, is cited as having instigated the violence. Following the preliminary riot incidents, there were additional outbreaks of brutality in Ahmadabad for 3 months. State-wide, there were additional outbreaks of violence against the marginal Muslim population of Gujarat for the subsequent one year.

According to official figures, the violence ended with 2,500 injured, 223 missing, and 1,044 dead. Of the deceased, 254 were Hindu and 790 were Muslim. The Concerned Citizens Tribunal Report projected that a lot of people as many as 1,926 may have been slaughtered. Other sources projected death tolls to be 2,000. Many atrocious killings and sexual assaults were reported as well as extensive looting and annihilation of property took place. Narendra Modi, then CM of Gujarat and later PM of India, was blamed on for initiating and closing the eyes to the violence, as were government officials and law enforcement, who allegedly directed the insurgents and gave lists of Muslim-owned assets to them.

In 2012, Mr Modi was cleared of complicity in the violence by Special Investigation Team (SIT) chosen by the Supreme Court of India. The SIT also discarded claims that the state government had not done an adequate amount of things to put off the riots. The Muslim community reacted with anger and disbelief. In July 2013, accusation were made that the SIT had concealed evidence. In December 2013, an Indian court supported the former SIT report and rejected a petition looking for Modi's prosecution. In April 2014, the Supreme Court articulated satisfaction over the SIT's investigations in 9 cases related to the violence, and discarded a plea contesting the SIT report as 'baseless'.

Though officially classified as a communal riot, the proceedings of 2002 have been seen by many scholars as problematic, with some observers alleging

that the assaults had been planned, with the attack on the train as a ‘staged trigger’ for what was actually premeditated violence. Other spectators have stated that these events meet the ‘legal definition of genocide’, state terrorism, or ethnic cleansing. Examples of mass violence include the Naroda Patiya massacre that took place directly adjacent to a police training camp; the Gulbarg Society slaughter where Ehsan Jafri, a former parliamentarian, was amongst those killed; and quite a lot of incidents in Vadodara city. Scholars reading on the 2002 riots state that they were premeditated and comprised a form of ethnic cleansing, and that the state government and law enforcement were complicit in the violence that occurred.

It is estimated that 230 mosques and 274 *dargahs* were destroyed during the violence. For the first time in the history of communal riots, Hindu women participated in the looting of Muslim shops. It is predicted that up to 150,000 people were left homeless during the violence. It is estimated that 200 law enforcement officers died while trying to manage the violence, and Human Rights Watch detailed that acts of excellent heroism were committed by tribals, Hindus, and Dalits who tried to guard Muslims from the violence

#### 2.2.4 Caste Discrimination and Anti-Dalit Violence

Caste-associated violence happens in India in wide ranging forms. Consistent with an account by Human Rights Watch:

Discriminatory and cruel, inhuman, and degrading treatment of over 165 million people in India has been justified on the basis of caste....Caste divisions in India dominate in housing, marriage, employment, and general social interaction-divisions that are reinforced through the practice and threat of social ostracism, economic boycotts, and physical violence.

The upper caste’s crimes against the traditionally oppressed Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are a manifestation of intense prejudice and discrimination. These communities have remained the victim of crimes and atrocities at the hands of upper caste people, similar to hate crimes in other parts of the world, mainly because of their low caste status in the form of rape, violence by police personnel, intimidation, unlawful invasions of property, forced evictions, and so on. In 2019, a crime against Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribe has observed an increase of over 7% and 26% respectively in the year 2019 as reported by the Annual Crime in India Report.

Some of the examples of caste-based violence in India includes: Anti-Brahmin riots in 1948 in Maharashtra, Dalelchak-Bhagaura Massacre in 1987, Kilvenmani massacre in 1968, Behmai massacre in 1981, Karamchedu massacre in 1985, Tsundur massacre in 1991, Laxmanpur Bathe massacre in 1997, etc.

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**Check Your Progress**

1. What is genocide according to Lemkin?
2. When did the United Nations declare genocide as a denial of the right of subsistence?
3. How did the 1984 Sikh riots started?
4. Give some of the examples of caste-based violence in India?

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**2.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO UNDERSTANDING TERRORISM**

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Research on the psychology of terrorism has disputed the idea that most terrorist actions are caused by mental disease or by terrorist's certain character traits. An individual psychology of terrorism explores how otherwise normal mental states and processes, built on characteristic attitudes, intentions, inclinations, and dispositions, might affect a person's tendency for involvement with aggressive extremist actions and groups. It uses the conception of 'mindset'—a relatively enduring set of dispositions, inclinations, and attitudes—and worldview as the origin of a psychological 'climate', within which a variety of propensities and vulnerabilities shape ideas and behaviours in ways that can raise the person's risk or likelihood of connection in violent extremism.

**2.3.1 Physiological Approach**

The physiological approach to act of terrorism put forward the theory that the responsibility of the media as the cause of terrorism cannot be ignored. Due to media coverage, the approaches, demands, and goals of terrorists quickly reach the potential terrorists. In an overview of the causes of terrorism, David G. Hubbard (1983) takes a physiological approach. It addresses three substances generated under stress in the body: norepinephrine, a compound produced by the adrenal gland and sympathetic nerve endings and is associated with individuals' 'fight or flight' physiological response in stressful situations; acetylcholine produced by parasympathetic nerve endings, which acts to dampen the accelerated norepinephrine response; and endorphin choline produced by the parasympathetic nerve endings. Hubbard believes that most terrorist violence is rooted not in the psychology but in the physiology of the terrorist, partly as a result of the 'stereotyped, agitated tissue response' to stress, since these substances exist in the terrorist. Hubbard's conclusion suggests a potential cause, the so-called contagion effect, for the spread of terrorism.

Kent Layne Oots and Thomas C. Wiegele (1985) came up with a model of terrorist contagion based on physiology. According to their model, the

psychological state of the potential terrorist matters when it comes to the stability of society. Since potential terrorists are roused by the violence-accepting media presentations of terrorism, terrorists ‘must, by the nature of their actions, have an attitude which allows violence’. Machiavellianism is probably one of those attitudes because terrorists are often observed manipulating press, people, victims as well as the authority. They observed that the potential terrorist ‘need only see that terrorism has worked for others in order to become aggressively aroused’.

Oots and Wiegele, have also presented their thoughts on this topic, according to which, a person transforms from a possible terrorist into an actual terrorist through political, psychological, and physiological processes. As Oots and Wiegele assert: ‘If the neurophysiological model of aggression is realistic, there is no basis for the argument that terrorism could be eliminated if its socio-political causes were eliminated’. According to them, the terrorists are those people who are frustrated and have repeatedly undergone flight or fight syndrome. The repeated arousal makes them seek relief by expressing their aggression ‘and also seeks, in part, to remove the initial cause of his frustration by achieving the political goal which he has hitherto been denied’.

Likewise D. Guttman (1979) considers terrorism to be aimed at audience rather than victims, which makes sense as it is the audience that is supposed to meet terrorists’ demands. Guttman in his analysis, also pointed out that a terrorist needs a liberal instead of a right-wing audience for success. This is because liberals justifies the terrorist’s motivation, making it respectable. The liberal media also helps terrorists in the transmission of his or her ideology.

### 2.3.2 General Psychological Theories of Terrorism

If one acknowledges the proposition that the terrorists are created, not born, then the problem is what makes a terrorist. Though the scholars on the psychology of terrorism are lacking in inclusive, quantitative studies to fully develop general theories of an act of terrorism, it still is able to propound several theories. Among these, according to the Olson hypothesis, members in revolutionary violence base their actions on a ‘rational cost-benefit calculus’ and the inference that violence is the best available course of action given the social circumstances. However, this idea that a group is using logic to opt for an act of terrorism is doubtful. In fact, resorting to violence or rather terrorism often means division in the group, leading to factionalization.

The frustration-aggression theory of violence is based on the relative-deprivation hypothesis, as designed by Ted Robert Gurr (1970) and reformulated by J. C. Davies (1973) to include ‘a gap between rising expectations and need satisfaction’. Joseph Margolin (1977), another supporter of this hypothesis, has stated that ‘much terrorist behaviour is a response to the frustration of various political, economic, and personal needs or objectives’. Several scholars have

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however, rejected this theory claiming that it is too simplistic to think that aggression is always the result of frustration.

According to Jerrold M. Post, one of the many supporters of Narcissistic Rage hypothesis, the theory propounds that a potential terrorist depends on the psychological mechanisms of 'splitting' and 'externalization'. Splitting, he explains, is a characteristic of people whose personality development is wrought by a particular type of psychological damage (narcissistic injury) during childhood. With a damaged self-concept, these people have failed to unite the good and bad sides of their self, which are instead split into the 'me' and the 'not me'. For instance, Hitler needed an external enemy to blame for his own weaknesses and inadequacies. The data examined by Post, including a 1982 West German study, points out that many terrorists have not been successful in their personal, educational, and professional lives. Thus, they are tempted to join terrorist groups, following an 'us' versus 'them' outlook. This premise, however, appears to be challenged as the increasing number of terrorists are well-informed and educated professionals. The psychology of the self is obviously very significant in learning about and dealing with terrorist behaviour, as in the case of hostage barricade terrorism. John W. Crayton points out that embarrassing the terrorists in such state of affairs by withholding food, for example, would be counterproductive because 'the very basis for their activity stems from their sense of low self-esteem and humiliation'.

A lot of scholars have attributed the act of terrorism to be the result of mental illness or fanaticism. However, Maxwell Taylor (1984) considers the notion of psychological illness to be of little utility with respect to most terrorist dealings. Placing the terrorist among the ranks of the mentally ill makes suppositions about their motivations and places their deeds outside the dominion of both the normal rules of behaviour and the normal procedure of law. In fact, the terrorist groups' selection process carefully filter out mentally unstable individuals as uncontrollable behaviour could prove detrimental to their goals.

Many witnesses have observed depressive traits in the personality of a terrorist, as reflected by their death-confronting or death-seeking behaviour. The terrorist has frequently been described by psychologists as incapable of enjoying anything or forming any significant interpersonal relationship. Psychologist, Risto Fried, claims that a terrorist's interpersonal world typically consists of three categories of people: 'the terrorist's idealized heroes; the terrorist's enemies; and people one encounters in everyday life, whom the terrorist regards as shadow figures of no consequence'.

Several theories like the ones mentioned above are helpful in studying a terrorist's psyche. Through a psychological lens, scholars hope to anticipate and prevent terrorist attacks, catch terrorists, and perhaps even take measures towards helping potential terrorists.

### Check Your Progress

5. What does an individual psychology of terrorism explore?
6. What is David G. Hubbard's belief regarding terrorism?
7. What is the basic premise of the frustration-aggression theory?

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## 2.4 INTIMATE VIOLENCE AND STRUCTURAL VIOLENCE

Intimate violence or Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) refers to domestic violence by current or ex partners. It often involves emotional, sexual, and physical violence. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), IPV is basically '... any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship, including acts of physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours'. The extreme form of IPV is called intimate terrorism or coercive control. Although women are more likely to be the victims of IPV, men too suffer violence by their partners.

### Structural violence

Since the 1960s, structural violence has been defined and understood in a variety of ways across different contexts and disciplines. While various definitions exist, certain core elements of structural violence recur:

- A complex interplay of economic, political and social factors embedded in the way society is organized. This results in inequality for, or exploitation of, certain groups of people, which creates unequal life chances for them.
- Inequality as a manifestation of unequal power dynamics inherent in the 'structures' of society (e.g. unequal access to resources between children in poverty and children from wealthy backgrounds). Structures themselves are not neutral and can be understood as a pattern of collective social action that has achieved a degree of permanence.
- Reinforcement and maintenance of structural violence via intergenerational acceptance of traditions and social norms (e.g. gender socialization of children by their parents/relatives).

'Structural violence' can therefore be understood as patterns of differences within large-scale social structures – differences of power, wealth, privilege, education and health – that are unjust and unequal. It can also occur in a society if institutions and policies are designed in such a way that they create barriers or inequitable access to a range of goods and services for some people and not for others.

### 2.4.1 Structural Violence against Women

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All around the world, it is sad but a bitter truth that, women more often than not become the victims of violence. It is a deeply embedded structural problem of our society. It has been noted that a large number of the men committing these crimes against women are known to them. This gives the impression that a good number of men want to be in complete control under all circumstances and if they are put in a circumstance where they aren't entirely in control, then they become violent against the females around them.

Domestic violence is increasing day by day in many households all around the world. In fact, the 2020 pandemic, which forced us to stay quarantined in our homes, saw an exponential increase in domestic violence cases. Women are also less likely to report this kind of behaviour out of fear of getting their partners in trouble or their complete dependence on their partners. So, they end up ignoring or rather tolerating the violence they are facing. Domestic violence in some places is not taken as seriously as in some other places, especially among uneducated people. Some think of it as a 'private' matter that should be talked over within the privacy of their homes. Inequality is often maintained via acceptance of violence. For domestic violence, Jewkes (2002) theorizes that gender-inequitable societies are most likely to normalize violence against women. Dowry also contributes to violence against women, particularly in rural settings. Dowry is now being practised even in communities where it was not traditionally. The National Crime Records Bureau in India found in 2015 that there were more than 7,500 women dowry-related deaths.

The long-term effects of such constant violence against women are horrible. The distress it can bring is often followed by a long-lasting sense of shame and fear. Risk factors include but are not limited to the distraught relationship of cultural, social, situational, intrapersonal, and intrapersonal kinds. Additionally, it has been noted that most women who are exposed to violence before the age of eighteen are prone to be exploited again as an adult just because their self-worth has taken a serious injury.

Apart from domestic violence, rapes are another kind of heinous violence against women. As you must have observed, in the above cases of riots women are more likely to get raped, sexually assaulted, or murdered during such violent acts. They end up becoming victims, no matter the situation. Whether it is enmity between two families, violence based on caste or race, cases of stalking or any other such situation, women often end up bearing the brunt of the situation. This is all because of the inherent patriarchy in the structure of society, which still considers the birth of a boy to be a blessing and that of a girl to be a burden.

Another issue is found in the ideal girl model and the need to protect the family's honour, which is found in cultural rules that place a high value on pre-marital chastity for girls. This may be a reason for girls' betrothal and marriage at



a young age: to protect their virtue and the family's *ijjat/izzat*. Fear of the consequences of delayed marriage ensures girls are married early, before they can engage in any premarital sexual activity that may bring shame to the family. Structural violence therefore functions via forced choice.

In India, strong kinship rules may be exploited and used as a medium through which violence occurs. Kinship rules in the region reflect a pattern of hierarchies, defined by age and gender. In other words, hierarchies exist such that fathers are placed at the head of the household, followed by mothers and then children. Men (i.e. husbands and fathers) hold the economic power and decision-making power. Hierarchies also exist between families, whereby a bride's family is inferior to a groom's family, creating a context where the bride is expected to move into her husband's home, take on her husband's family name and ensure the children also take on the husband's name.

#### 2.4.2 Structural Violence against Children

Apart from women, another group that is most prone to violence is children. Maltreatment (including violent punishment) involves sexual and physical violence or neglect of infants. Bullying (including cyber-bullying) is an unwanted aggressive behaviour by another child or by a group of children, who are neither siblings nor in a romantic relationship with the victim. It involves repeated psychological or physical harm. Acceptability of violence also plays a role in perpetuating child maltreatment. Parents and teachers justify and validate using violence. Adults justify violence by evoking societies' approval of disciplining children and 'the hierarchical structure of the Indian family' (Segal, 1995). The transfer of rules, knowledge and learning through violent means is also validated through intergenerational violence: parents turn to their own upbringing to justify their violence. Violence against children has lifelong impacts on health and well-being of children, families, communities, and nations. It can also impair brain and nervous system development. This results in negative coping and health risk behaviours. Such children tend to grow up to become a violent person themselves.

One of the norms that has emerged as underlying structural violence is the belief that it is easy to exploit children and adolescents. For example, ageism functions in several ways as a driving force of both sexual abuse and sexual exploitation in the region. Perpetrators of sexual violence against children believe children are unable to resist, more easily deceived, less likely to report the abuse and more willing to go along with it than adults. This is reported across a number of studies in all countries.

Another form of violence where inequality persists is child labour. Ageism also functions via inequality: children are paid less and can be abused and exploited more easily. Living in challenging socio-economic contexts also increases the likelihood of child marriage. Studies do suggest this takes place across economic

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groupings, suggesting it is the perceived or predicted economic situation that may influence the probability of child marriage. Nevertheless, findings across all countries suggest those in poverty are more likely than those who are not in poverty to marry their daughters early.

Though the literature on the structural inequalities facing children with disabilities is limited, Ho (2007) argues that a person with a disability ‘may require more or a different set of primary goods to have the same capabilities as an able-bodied person’. These capabilities include basic freedoms such as education and health. Structural violence operates against children with disability given their higher need for resources and goods but unequal access to such resources.

### 2.4.3 Human Rights Violation as Structural Violence

The concept of ‘structural violation of human rights’ is gradually gaining traction in international human rights scene. There are two outstanding and unforgivable aspects of our world to which this process is responding: severe global disparity and a huge difference between the rights allowed to all human beings despite the establishment of international human rights organization. While human rights infringement may bring up images of torture at Guantanamo, or riots at Tiananmen Square or the dislodgment of millions of refugees, structural violations correspond with images of starving children, malnutrition bodies, and hopeless poverty. One of the striking differences to note between the two is that with the former, one can easily isolate the violators but in the latter, you cannot point a finger at anyone. Human rights are declared universal, but the risk of having these rights violated is not same for everyone. This discrepancy is at the centre of structural violations of human rights. There are structural and systemic causes that place some sections of the populations at a greater risk of human rights abuse than others.

Structural violence, exists when there is an avoidable gap between actual and potential abilities to meet human needs. This framework is applicable to human rights violations in that restricted agency plays a key role in how individuals face this gap between the actual and the potential. When economic and social structure conspires to limit one’s agency to the extent that primary human needs cannot be met then structural violence becomes a structural violation of human rights.

#### Check Your Progress

8. Define IPV according to the WHO.
9. Mention any one element of structural violence.
10. How does structural violence become a structural violation of human rights?

## 2.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. According to Lemkin, genocide is a coordinated strategy to destroy a group of people, a procedure that could be accomplished through complete annihilation as well as tactics that eliminate key elements of the group's vital existence, including culture, economic infrastructure, and language.
2. United Nations, in 1946, declared genocide as a denial of the right of subsistence to entire groups of humans.
3. On 31st October 1984, PM Gandhi was killed by two of her Sikh bodyguards. Her assassination prompted genocidal killings or 1984 Sikh riots all over the country, predominantly in the capital, New Delhi.
4. The caste-based violence in India includes: Anti-Brahmin riots in 1948 in Maharashtra, Dalelchak-Bhagaura Massacre in 1987, Kilvenmani massacre in 1968, Behmai massacre in 1981, Karamchedu massacre in 1985, Tsundur massacre in 1991, Laxmanpur Bathe massacre in 1997, etc.
5. The individual psychology of terrorism explores how otherwise normal mental states and processes, built on characteristic attitudes, intentions, inclinations, and dispositions, might affect a person's tendency for involvement with aggressive extremist actions and groups.
6. David G. Hubbard believes that most terrorist violence is rooted not in the psychology but in the physiology of the terrorist, partly as a result of the 'stereotyped, agitated tissue response' to stress, since these substances exist in the terrorist.
7. The frustration-aggression theory of violence is based on the relative-deprivation hypothesis, as designed by Ted Robert Gurr (1970) and reformulated by J. C. Davies (1973) to include 'a gap between rising expectations and need satisfaction'. Joseph Margolin (1977), another supporter of this hypothesis, has stated that 'much terrorist behaviour is a response to the frustration of various political, economic, and personal needs or objectives'.
8. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), IPV is basically '... any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship, including acts of physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours'.
9. The elements of structural violence include: Reinforcement and maintenance of structural violence via intergenerational acceptance of traditions and social norms (e.g. gender socialization of children by their parents/relatives).
10. When economic and social structure conspires to limit one's agency to the extent that primary human needs cannot be met then structural violence becomes a structural violation of human rights.

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## 2.6 SUMMARY

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### NOTES

- Genocide is usually defined as the killing of members from a specific group, causing serious bodily or mental harm, imposing measures with the intent to create miserable conditions of life for the group.
- United Nations in 1946 declared genocide as a denial of the right of subsistence to entire groups of humans, as homicide is said to be stripping away of the right to live of an individual.
- Hatred and violence have been a feature of human history for a fairly long time. Even our country had its dark days.
- In June 1984, our then PM Indira Gandhi ordered a military strike on terrorists at one of the most important religious centres of Sikh, the Golden Temple in Amritsar, Punjab. The assault killed over a thousand of civilians.
- On 31st October 1984, PM Gandhi was killed by two of her Sikh bodyguards. Her assassination prompted genocidal killings all over the country, predominantly in the capital, New Delhi.
- Another example is that of the 2008 Kandhamal violence, which refers to the violence between factions led by Hindu extremists, and Christians within the Kandhamal district in Odisha, India in August 2008, which was caused due to the murder of the Hindu monk, Lakshmanananda Saraswati.
- The burning of a train in Godhra on 27th February 2002, which killed 58 Hindu pilgrims who were returning from Ayodhya, is cited as having instigated the violence of 2002 Gujarat riots.
- The upper caste's crimes against the traditionally oppressed Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are a manifestation of intense prejudice and discrimination.
- Research on the psychology of terrorism has disputed the idea that most terrorist actions are caused by mental disease or by terrorist's certain character traits.
- The physiological approach to act of terrorism put forward the theory that the responsibility of the media as the cause of terrorism cannot be ignored.
- In an overview of the causes of terrorism, David G. Hubbard (1983) takes a physiological approach. It addresses three substances generated under stress in the body.
- Kent Layne Oots and Thomas C. Wiegele (1985) came up with a model of terrorist contagion based on physiology. According to their model, the psychological state of the potential terrorist matters when it comes to the stability of society.
- Oots and Wiegele, have also presented their thoughts on this topic, according to which, a person transforms from a possible terrorist into

an actual terrorist through political, psychological, and physiological processes.

- D. Guttman (1979) considers terrorism to be aimed at audience rather than victims, which makes sense as it is the audience that is supposed to meet terrorists' demands.
- If one acknowledges the proposition that the terrorists are created, not born, then the problem is what makes a terrorist.
- According to the Olson hypothesis, members in revolutionary violence base their actions on a 'rational cost-benefit calculus' and the inference that violence is the best available course of action given the social circumstances.
- Many witnesses have observed depressive traits in the personality of a terrorist, as reflected by their death-confronting or death-seeking behaviour.
- The terrorist has frequently been described by psychologists as incapable of enjoying anything or forming any significant interpersonal relationship.
- Intimate violence or Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) refers to domestic violence by current or ex partners. It often involves emotional, sexual, and physical violence.
- All around the world, it is sad but a bitter truth that, women more often than not become the victims of violence. It is a deeply embedded structural problem of our society.
- Domestic violence is increasing day by day in many households all around the world. In fact, the 2020 pandemic, which forced us to stay quarantined in our homes, saw an exponential increase in domestic violence cases.
- Another issue is found in the ideal girl model and the need to protect the family's honour, which is found in cultural rules that place a high value on pre-marital chastity for girls.
- Apart from women, another group that is most prone to violence is children. Maltreatment (including violent punishment) involves sexual and physical violence or neglect of infants.
- One of the norms that has emerged as underlying structural violence is the belief that it is easy to exploit children and adolescents. For example, ageism functions in several ways as a driving force of both sexual abuse and sexual exploitation in the region.
- The concept of 'structural violation of human rights' is gradually gaining traction in international human rights scene.
- Human rights are declared universal, but the risk of having these rights violated is not same for everyone. This discrepancy is at the centre of structural violations of human rights.

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## 2.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Maldevelopment:** It is the state of an organism or an organisation that did not develop in the 'normal' way. It was introduced as a human and social development term in France in the 1990s by Samir Amin to challenge the concept of 'underdevelopment'.
- **Relative-Deprivation Hypothesis:** It suggests that people who feel they are being deprived of something considered essential in their society will organize or join social movements dedicated to obtaining the things of which they feel deprived.

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## 2.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the concept of genocide.
2. Briefly explain the physiological approach to understanding terrorism.
3. How are children more prone to different kinds of violence?

### Long-Answer Questions

1. Evaluate the violence of 1984 Sikh and Gujarat riots. What are the common elements in both?
2. Discuss some of the general psychological theories of terrorism.
3. Explain the ways in which structural violence against women exist in India.

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## 2.9 FURTHER READINGS

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James, S. 2008. *Peace Education: Exploring Ethical and Philosophical Foundations*. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing.

Barash, David P. (ed.). 2000. *Approaches to Peace: A Reader in Peace Studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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### Websites

<https://www.unicef.org>

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## **UNIT 3 INTRAPERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL PERSPECTIVES OF NON- VIOLENCE**

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### **NOTES**

#### **Structure**

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Intrapersonal Non Violence from the Individualistic and a Collectivistic Perspective
- 3.3 Personality and Behavioural Tendencies of Peaceful Persons
- 3.4 Nonviolent Communication Approaches
- 3.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 3.6 Summary
- 3.7 Key Words
- 3.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 3.9 Further Readings

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### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

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This unit will discuss in detail intrapersonal and interpersonal perspective of non-violence. Intrapersonal non-violence is usually studied from collectivist and individualist standpoints. While individualist perspective is predominant in Western countries like Australia, Canada, etc., collectivist perspective is seen in a lot of eastern countries. This unit will also delve into the behavioural tendencies of peaceful people as well the concept of non-violence communication developed by Marshall Rosenberg.

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### **3.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss intrapersonal non-violence from an individualist and collectivist standpoint
- Describe the behavioural tendencies of peaceful persons
- Analyze the non-violence communication approaches

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### 3.2 INTRAPERSONAL NON VIOLENCE FROM THE INDIVIDUALISTIC AND A COLLECTIVISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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Intrapersonal nonviolence is talked about from both collectivist and individualist perspectives. This difference between collectivist cultures and individualist cultures is found in the work of a lot of cross-cultural social scientists counting experts such as Triandis (1995), Smith and Bond (1993), and Hofstede (1980, 2001). Hofstede (2001) defines individualist community norms as unfastened ties between all the individuals where 'everyone is expected to look after themselves and their family only.' He goes on to describe collectivism communal norms as pre-existing in 'the social order in which people from their birth itself get integrated into strong, consistent in-faction of the groups, which all through people's lifetime keep on protecting them in exchange for undying fidelity'. The countries of the west such as Australia, Canada, United States, Western European countries, and other such regions have strong individualist communal norms while a lot of eastern countries such as countries in East Asia, Africa, and South America favour strong collectivist communal norms. The individualist focal point has a fairly strong Western influence and therefore a careful look at the research and theory on the autonomous self and associated concepts is required. The psychological ideas such as requirements, anxiety, anger, happiness, positive psychology, and contentment come under the individualistic discussion. The personality traits associated to nonviolent behavior and the character traits of a nonviolent or peaceful person should be considered under the same umbrella. The collectivist focal point which has a strong Eastern influence stresses on interdependent self. This is indicated in Buddhist traditions through the works and the writings of Buddhist peace advocates, the Dalai Lama (Thich Nhat Hahn), and Joanna Macy. The Hindu and Jain concept of inner peace are examples of collectivist discussion of intrapersonal nonviolence among many other philosophies.

With regards to research on intrapersonal nonviolence, researchers have established evidence for substantial uniformity in emotions, especially in terms of experiencing negative vs positive emotions, across a broad variety of circumstances (Kojusznik et al., 2018; Elfenbein and Eisenkraft, 2010). Therefore, intrapersonal non-violence, when defined as a temperament to experience non-violent emotions, have a propensity to be consistent across situations and across time, which is why it could be conceptualized as a universal trait.

Galtung's philosophy on non-violence includes a few nonviolence-related notions, including nature, culture, person and social (Fischer and Galtung, 2013). Defining and understanding non-violence in the bigger picture (i.e. a personality trait) is in several ways associated with learning other concepts that come between non-violence and psychological elements. One method of understanding the indirect association between non-violence associated items and a violent personality is to



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learn the mediating role of prevailing variables. Thus, the broad purpose of most studies is to learn further about mediational models. The three groups of variables are relational (self-compassion, non-violence with nature, conflict resolution and sense of humor), emotional (hope and aggression) and cognitive (inhibitory control). In Galtung's study these were measured by means of questionnaires. This involves measuring non-violence in interpersonal and intrapersonal areas and finding how they are interconnected. This will find out the degree to which populace are consistent in their peacefulness across those areas.

Galtung, then found out that the derivation of violence is not only set up in the human mind but also in the construction of society. Thus, non-violence has to include cultural non-violence, structural non-violence, direct non-violence, and non-violence towards nature, which might be summarized in external and internal fields. The three-variable mediational model developed by Galtung in his study was developed from earlier theories and research, and it brought the knowledge forward by illustrating the relationships between emotional, relational and cognitive groups of variables. These three classes for non-violence related variables are derived from the investigative study by Khayyer. Non-violence is assumed to be an integrated whole consisting of both external and internal aspects that persevere in people's attitudes over time.

Intrapersonal peace is measured as an additional dimension of a peaceful personality. Various measures have been developed to evaluate inner peace, such as self-compassion, negative emotional states and internal conflicts, intrapersonal non-violence, self-acceptance and inner harmony. Internal peace symbolizes a type of outlook to experience more positive feelings and fewer cases of violence in the direction of oneself. At this level, the formation of self is significant for learning about inner peace. Consequently, self-perception is used to measure intrapersonal passivity. Individual beliefs concerning our own personality together with our attitudes that we have towards others, deserves more attention in terms of creating an outline for intrapersonal peacefulness. The mutually dependent self is intimately aligned with the traits of the groups to which one feels allegiance towards and this reliance creates boundaries between those groups and the self. The safeguarding of harmony within groups is a main focus for the interdependent self. The interdependent self is entangled in a lot of different roles and groups that one is connected into. It is also seen that women from most societies are more likely to display an interdependent self-concept than men from the same group. An individual with a mutually dependent self-concept eagerly sees likeness and similarities with others and consequently may be more predisposed to be forgiving and empathic. Seeing one's personal role as less significant in relation to other constituents of the same group results in fewer selfish self-serving biases and allow those with interdependent self-concepts to interpret their own actions more accurately. The interdependent self-concept should enable an individual to focus on the state of affairs at hand more clearly. This would result in an improved understanding of other people and their perspective irrespective of whether they belong to same

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group or not. In this way, individual grudges and vengeance will be reduced while the thrust to save face for one's group would be greater than before.

Intrapersonal nonviolence being can be described from both collectivist and individualist point of views of the self. From the collectivist viewpoint of intrapersonal nonviolence, analysis of eastern religions of Jainism, Buddhism, and Hinduism were done to understand nonviolence. From the individualist viewpoint, intrapersonal nonviolence was dealt with a variety of individual values, value types, and personality constructs. The concept of a peaceful person is used to pull these characteristics together. Many personality traits and principles described as aspects of a peaceful individual are aligned with the teachings and beliefs of the Eastern religions. The self-transcendence principles (universalism and benevolence) of peaceful persons are in line with the Buddhist, Jain and Hindu views that unity with others is vital, as is the call for unselfish behaviour and having an open-mind. The practice of relieving of human suffering and charity is an element of these Eastern religious beliefs and self-transcendent values. Happy people do tend to be agreeable, in individualistic cultures and have a greater self-esteem. Forgiveness entails 'giving up the want to punish those who have injured us, and seeking in its place to act in kind, helpful ways toward them.' Forgiveness is a pro social behavior that entails giving up revenge as a reply when someone has harmed you. Peace psychologists have addressed the subject of empathy from several viewpoints. They have used the term practical empathy to describe the point of reference required to know and deal with one's enemy in a nonviolent fashion.

### Check Your Progress

1. How does Hofstede define individualist community norms?
2. Name the countries that have strong individualist communal norms.

## 3.3 PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOURAL TENDENCIES OF PEACEFUL PERSONS

In order to examine the usefulness of the general trait approach for learning about peaceful personality, it is essential to measure peacefulness in each of the relevant areas for a group of people and then to inspect the correlations between actions of peacefulness in the various areas. This would permit us to settle on the degree to which the public is consistent in peacefulness. Measuring peacefulness is also essential when investigating the characteristic trait approach in order to spot a subgroup of people who show signs of peacefulness across various fields.

Regardless of whether we use an ordinary trait or idiosyncratic trait conception, it is necessary to gauge peacefulness in order to perform scientific studies on the determinants, development, and dynamics of peaceful personality.

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Although it would be advantageous to study and measure peacefulness in all of the applicable domains that have been mentioned here, there have been rather few studies of peaceful personality. The apparatus and tools for assessing peacefulness in some of the areas are yet to be developed. Therefore, the focus is on peacefulness in three of the relevant areas for which measurement tools are available and studies have been conducted. The relevant areas include peaceful behavior, emotions, and attitudes in the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and international domains. Instruments that could be used to assess peacefulness in the social, civil, ecological, and existential domains may exist, but they have rarely been identified by researchers as measures of peacefulness or used for studies of peaceful personality.

As a personality characteristic, intrapersonal non-violence may be defined as:

- a temperament for emotional states that support peaceful relationships and/or are associated with experiencing harmony,
- a temperament for self-compassion, self-acceptance, and nonviolence to oneself and
- relatively enduring state of accord and harmony (i.e., congruence) between aspects of self

Of course, each definition contains the characteristic of constancy across relevant circumstances and over time. Ideally, the evaluation of intrapersonal peacefulness would sample the attitudes and psychological position of an individual included in all three of these definitions. Though few studies have measured intrapersonal peacefulness in a broad manner, research involving one or two features of intrapersonal peacefulness is still available.

Researchers have established that measures depending on these three definitions of intrapersonal peacefulness correlate with each other. One research study found that a temperament for positive emotional situations correlated positively with measures of personality coherence and congruence. Studies have also shown that intrapersonal conflict is linked with violent and non-peaceful emotional states. Intrapersonal disagreement may entail conflict within or between any of the various facets of self such as behaviors, perceptions, goals, self-beliefs, values and wishes. It was found that both disagreement between ambivalence about particular strivings and personal strivings correlated positively with negative affect, neuroticism, and depression. Instruments that can be used to evaluate the three types of intrapersonal peacefulness discretely are described below.

### **Self-acceptance, Self-compassion, and Inner Harmony**

Instruments that compute self-compassion and self-acceptance can be used for evaluating the first type of intrapersonal peacefulness (i.e., nonviolence toward self, self-compassion, and disposition for self-acceptance). Instruments that gauge personality congruence and coherence can be used for evaluating the second type of interpersonal peacefulness (i.e., harmony between aspects of self).

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### **Emotional Dispositions**

There are a lot of instruments that assess emotional characteristics. These could be functional for evaluating the third type of intrapersonal peacefulness, i.e., a temperament for experiencing the emotional states related with harmonious relationships. For example, tools that assess feelings of security fulfillment, satisfaction, harmony and calmness seem applicable for assessing peaceful emotional characters, and tools that assess dispositions for hostility and anger, insecurity, discontentment, irritability, and anxiety seem relevant for evaluating unpeaceful emotional behavior. The trait of neuroticism may be practical for describing a very general disposition for experiencing peaceful vs. unpeaceful emotional conditions.

### **Agreeableness**

The attribute of agreeableness takes into account the character of interpersonal peacefulness. The aspects that add to agreeableness scores in the NEO PI-R are as follows: altruism (warm), straightforwardness (not demanding), tender-mindedness (sympathetic), modesty (not show-off), compliance (not stubborn), and trust (forgiving). The label shown in parentheses are from the Adjective List and are highly associated with the facet scores

The IPIP NEO Agreeableness Scale comprises 20 items for agreeableness; among them ten are marked as positive and ten are marked as negative. The 10 items that are marked as positive are as follows: Accept people as they are, Have a good word for everyone, Trust what people say, Respect others, Make people feel at ease, Sympathize with other's feelings, Be concerned about others, Believe that others have good intentions, and Treat all people equally. The items marked negative are: Contradict others, Believe that I am better than others, Suspect hidden motives in others, Get back at others, Insult people, I am out for my own personal gain Cut others to pieces, Make demands on others, Hold a grudge, and Have a sharp tongue.

According to this model, the characteristic of interpersonal peacefulness comprises two correlated dimensions: disharmonious vs. harmonious and nonviolent vs. violent. Given the data for a positive correlation between these aspects, studies that evaluate either of them are appropriate for understanding interpersonal peacefulness and its association to other areas of personal peacefulness.

Considerable evidence suggests that people who achieve high score on agreeableness test are committed to uphold peaceful relationships with other people. They have been found to be more constructive when it comes to fighting with conflict in a variety of experimental state of affairs and have been set up to be less prejudiced, empathic, cooperative and helpful than people who achieve small score on agreeableness score.

### **Check Your Progress**

3. What can instruments that compute self-compassion and self-acceptance be used for?
4. What are the two correlated dimensions of interpersonal peacefulness as per the IPIP NEO Agreeableness Scale?

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## **3.4 NONVIOLENT COMMUNICATION APPROACHES**

The concept of Nonviolent Communication (NVC), developed by Marshall Rosenberg, guides us to reimagine how we convey our ideas, how we hear what others have to say and work out conflicts by having a focal point on our consciousness. It also takes into account what an individual needs, requests, observes, and feels. It is an apparatus that guides an individual towards a connection among people where everyone's requirement is appreciated, valued and met with compassion.

In the current polarized world, violence has been accepted as normal. From conflict between country to transgression on the boulevard, violence has become evident both implicitly and explicitly. Yet for many groups, the very notion of violence seems distant. They are not concerned in abuses or physical confrontations, and therefore they deem that violence is not present. But the actuality is that whenever an individual becomes disconnected from their empathetic nature, they have a propensity to act with a behavior that can become grounds for pain and violence. Nonviolence, then, doesn't refer to the meager absence of bodily harm. Mahatma Gandhi said, 'Nonviolence is not an item of clothing to be put on and off when you want.' Marshall Rosenberg realized the significance of nonviolence in daily life throughout childhood and on into adulthood and professional life. He wrote how nonviolence could affect the humankind through the individual and through cultivation of relationships on an individual level. The Nonviolent Communication (NVC) was used as a very straightforward model for changing everyday existence and for practicing nonviolence.

### **What is NVC?**

NVC or Non-violent Communication is a 'language of life' that helps an individual to transform old outlines of aggressiveness and defensiveness into empathy and compassion, thereby improving the quality of life and creating meaningful relationships. Studying and applying NVC creates a basis for learning about the individual, their relationships in every instance, and helps them to remain focused on what is occurring right here, at the moment now. Although it is a model for communication, NVC is used to realize just how essential connection is part of

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everyone's life. In fact, having the intention to bond with one's self and other people as well is one of the most imperative goals of practicing and following NVC. We subsist in our lives from one moment to another; yet most of it is spent on autopilot, reacting out of routine rather than because of presence of mind and awareness. By creating a breathing space for attention and respect in every instant, NVC helps make a pathway that is approachable and accessible. The basic model for NVC is very simple. It is a practice that combines four components with two parts. While the four components are precise ideas and actions that fit into the form and the model of NVC, the two parts provide a solid groundwork for NVC as well as for existing peacefully. The bases for Marshall's ideas are made of giving and receiving from the heart. These short definitions will be explained further below:

- **Request:** To make plain and clear requests is crucial to NVC's mission. When we request tangible actions that can be approved instantly, we begin to find ways to creatively and cooperatively ensure that everyone's requirements are met.
- **Requirements:** All individuals have values that sustain and enrich their lives; these requirements should be satisfied. When those requirements are met, an individual gets experiences feelings of peacefulness and happiness, and when they are not, they experience feelings of anxiety or frustration.
- **Feeling:** When we become aware of things in our surroundings, we unavoidably experience varying physical sensations and emotions in each particular moment. Here, distinguishing thoughts from feelings is an indispensable step to the NVC process.
- **Observation:** Observation without assessment consists of becoming aware of concrete actions and things around us. We learn to differentiate between judgment and what we sense in the present instant, and to simply detect what is there.

### Two Parts:

- **Honesty:** Honesty commences with being truly considerate with ourselves and our own requirements. When we learn to give ourselves understanding, we can start to break down the blockades to communication. From these four components and two parts, Marshall has shaped a model for life enriching communication that can be highly efficient in solving conflict with ourselves, with our friends, with our family members, and with our coworkers.
- **Empathy:** Empathy goes further than compassion, allowing us to situate ourselves into someone else's shoes to sense their feelings and understand their requirements; in essence, it means being available and open to what others feel and want. It also gives us the means to remain in attendance to and aware of our own wants and the requirements of other people even in tremendous situations that are frequently difficult to handle.

The basic outline of the model is the following:

When I see that _____ I feel _____ because my requirement for _____ is/is not met. Would you be willing to _____?
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Keep in mind that it is just a model, and that the language and the form is not the most significant aspect of NVC. In fact, as an individual puts more into practice and gets to know more, he/she will begin to become aware of all four of these components. The strong point of NVC is in its practical simplicity. In any instant, there are two ways to enhance connection and understanding. It can be done by (1) vulnerably expressing our own feelings and requirements, or by (2) empathically listening to the feelings and requirements of the other. These are radically different choices than what we are used to experiencing when we are in conflict: namely, fight, submit or flee the fight.

It is to be noted NVC is a lot challenging to exemplify because an individual is so intensely conditioned to recognize each other by judging them. However, when it is put into practice, the instrument of NVC helps us find the way within the person to transform judgment and blame -where neither our own necessities nor those of the other person are expected to be met. Learning NVC involves a different kind of 'understanding' or 'learning'. It involves very little learning from the head or making sense of concepts and more learning from the heart, learning with whole being, and expanding the awareness. It is not a linear progression, but one that spirals more deeply and more expansively.

It has been observed that this kind of learning does not happen very meaningfully by talking about NVC. It comes to pass most powerfully when we search for connection with one another and with ourselves. Learning happens in the struggle and the longing to connect. Amidst these practices, each one of us is learning what we are ready for. In the same exercise or experience, we may each learn something very different from NVC. In NVC, the person tries to recognize the 'universal human requirements' that are common to all human beings. The person distinguishes these fundamental requirements from more specific (action-place-time-person) requirements and desires which replicate strategies to fulfill these requirements.

### Conclusion

Although non-violence research related to personality traits is fairly new, the mountain of evidence described above points out the relationship between intrapersonal peacefulness and psyche of an person and shows various variables that correlate to form the sum total of someone's personality, which could turn out to be peaceful or non peaceful. Discovering the manner of influence on each other may help to build some forms of non-violence based education meant to improve the quality of relationships. This implies that involvements that enhance peacefulness in any of

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these areas are likely to increase peacefulness in the other area. For example, intrapersonal peacefulness could serve as a cushion for people with observation to negative self emotion when facing upsetting social events without getting overwhelmed with negative feelings. These studies stress on the potential utility of peace based interference for teachers, psychotherapists, employers and parents in order to advance quality of life by focusing on mental wellness and not on mental illness.

### Check Your Progress

5. Who developed the concept of Nonviolent Communication (NVC)?
6. Why is it important to make plain and clear requests for non-violent communication?

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## 3.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. Hofstede defines individualist community norms as unfastened ties between all the individuals where ‘everyone is expected to look after themselves and their family only.’
2. The countries of the West such as Australia, Canada, United States, Western European countries, and other such regions have strong individualist communal norms.
3. Instruments that compute self-compassion and self-acceptance can be used for evaluating the first type of intrapersonal peacefulness (i.e., nonviolence toward self, self-compassion, and disposition for self-acceptance).
4. According to the IPIP NEO Agreeableness Scale, the characteristic of interpersonal peacefulness comprises two correlated dimensions: disharmonious vs. harmonious and nonviolent vs. violent.
5. The concept of Nonviolent Communication (NVC) was developed by Marshall Rosenberg.
6. It is important to make plain and clear requests for non-violent communication. This is because when we request tangible actions that can be approved instantly, we begin to find ways to creatively and cooperatively ensure that everyone’s requirements are met.

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## 3.6 SUMMARY

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- Intrapersonal nonviolence is talked about from both collectivist and individualist perspectives. This difference between collectivist cultures and individualist cultures is found in the work of a lot of cross-cultural social



scientists counting experts such as Triandis (1995), Smith and Bond (1993), and Hofstede (1980, 2001).

- The individualist focal point has a fairly strong Western influence and therefore a careful look at the research and theory on the autonomous self and associated concepts is required. The collectivist focal point which has a strong Eastern influence stresses on interdependent self.
- Intrapersonal non-violence, when defined as a temperament to experience non-violent emotions, have a propensity to be consistent across situations and across time, which is why it could be conceptualized as a universal trait.
- Galtung's philosophy on non-violence includes a few non-violence-related notions, including nature, culture, person and social (Fischer and Galtung, 2013). Galtung found out that the derivation of violence is not only set up in the human mind but also in the construction of society. Thus, non-violence has to include cultural non-violence, structural non-violence, direct non-violence, and non-violence towards nature, which might be summarized in external and internal fields.
- The three-variable mediational model developed by Galtung in his study was developed from earlier theories and research, and it brought the knowledge forward by illustrating the relationships between emotional, relational and cognitive groups of variables.
- Intrapersonal nonviolence being can be described from both collectivist and individualist point of views of the self. From the collectivist viewpoint of intrapersonal nonviolence, analysis of eastern religions of Jainism, Buddhism, and Hinduism were analyzed to understand nonviolence. From the individualist viewpoint, intrapersonal nonviolence was dealt with a variety of individual values, value types, and personality constructs.
- Although it would be advantageous to study and measure peacefulness in all of the applicable domains, there have been rather few studies of peaceful personality. The apparatus and tools for assessing peacefulness in some of the areas are yet to be developed.
- As a personality characteristic, intrapersonal non-violence may be defined in several ways:
  1. a temperament for emotional states that support peaceful relationships and/or are associated with experiencing harmony,
  2. a temperament for self-compassion, self-acceptance, and nonviolence to oneself and
  3. relatively enduring state of accord and harmony(i.e., congruence) between aspects of self

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- Instruments that compute self-compassion and self-acceptance can be used for evaluating the first type of intrapersonal peacefulness (i.e., nonviolence toward self, self-compassion, and disposition for self-acceptance). Instruments that gauge personality congruence and coherence can be used for evaluating the second type of interpersonal peacefulness (i.e., harmony between aspects of self).
- There are a lot of instruments that assess emotional characteristics. These could be functional for evaluating the third type of intrapersonal peacefulness, i.e., a temperament for experiencing the emotional states related with harmonious relationships.
- The attribute of agreeableness takes into account the character of interpersonal peacefulness. The aspects that add to agreeableness scores in the NEO PI-R are as follows: altruism (warm), straightforwardness (not demanding), tender-mindedness (sympathetic), modesty (not show-off), compliance (not stubborn), and trust (forgiving).
- The concept of Nonviolent Communication (NVC), developed by Marshall Rosenberg, guides us to reimagine how we convey our ideas, how we hear what others have to say and work out conflicts by having a focal point on our consciousness. It also takes into account what an individual needs, requests, observes, and feels.
- To make plain and clear requests is crucial to NVC's mission. When we request tangible actions that can be approved out in the present instant, we begin to find ways to creatively and cooperatively ensure that everyone's requirements are met.
- All individuals have values that sustain and enrich their lives; these requirements should be satisfied. When those requirements are met, an individual gets experiences feelings of peacefulness and happiness, and when they are not, they experience feelings of anxiety or frustration.
- When we become aware of things in our surroundings, we unavoidably experience varying physical sensations and emotions in each particular moment. Here, distinguishing thoughts from feelings is an indispensable step to the NVC process.
- Observation without assessment consists of becoming aware of concrete actions and things around us.
- Honesty commences with being truly considerate with ourselves and our own requirements. When we learn to give ourselves understanding, we can start to break down the blockades to communication.
- Empathy goes further than compassion, allowing us to situate ourselves into someone else's shoes to sense their feelings and understand their

requirements; in essence, it means being available and open to what others feel and want.

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### 3.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Neuroticism:** It is a broad personality trait dimension that represents the degree to which a person experiences the world as distressing, threatening, and unsafe.
- **Altruism:** It is an intentional and voluntary action that attempts to enhance the welfare of another person in the absence of any external rewards.
- **Empathy:** It is the capacity to understand or feel what another person is experiencing from within their frame of reference.

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### 3.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on Galtung's three-variable mediational model.
2. Define intrapersonal non-violence as a personality characteristic.
3. Why is agreeableness important for interpersonal peacefulness?

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss in detail intrapersonal nonviolence from a collectivist and individualist perspective.
2. Explain the non-violent communication process.

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### 3.9 FURTHER READINGS

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**BLOCK - II**  
**COUNSELLING MEDIATION**

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**UNIT 4 PEACE BUILDING AND  
PEACE-MAKING  
INTERVENTIONS**

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**Structure**

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Mediation
  - 4.2.1 Peacemaking
  - 4.2.2 Peace Building
  - 4.2.3 Peace Keeping
- 4.3 Assessing Conflict: Understanding and Dealing with Conflict Escalation
  - 4.3.1 Types of Conflict
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  - 4.3.4 Conflict Styles
  - 4.3.5 Stages of Conflict
- 4.4 Specific Conflict Resolution Approaches: Negotiation, Mediation, Conciliation, Arbitration and Adjudication
  - 4.4.1 Conflict Prevention
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- 4.6 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
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- 4.8 Key Words
- 4.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 4.10 Further Readings

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**4.0 INTRODUCTION**

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The word ‘conflict’ can be applied to an array of situations. It could include: an individual fighting for limited resources such as land; and individuals and groups competing for goals, needs and values; and countries pursuing the same resources and interests. Therefore, in light of various conflicts, peacemaking, peace keeping and peace building activities assume importance. Conflicts can be addressed through different processes depending on the nature and sources of conflict. Such processes are: conflict prevention, conflict management, conflict settlement, and conflict resolution. These methods mostly centre on problem-solving approaches to resolve incompatibilities in goals, interests and needs, and incorporate overlapping

processes and activities. Additionally, the importance of forgiveness should also be highlighted.

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## 4.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the process of mediation, peacemaking, peace keeping and peace building
- Understand the ways to deal with conflict escalation
- Analyze the different conflict resolution approaches
- Describe the importance of forgiveness

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## 4.2 MEDIATION

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**Mediation** is a process where a ‘neutral’ third-party assists the parties in reaching a settlement or in bringing about mutually acceptable solutions. On many occasions, these settlements or solutions are worked out through compromises and the mediator tries to make the parties accept these ‘compromised solutions’.

Theoretically, mediators are not supposed to impose agreements as manipulation cannot lead to a genuine settlement or agreement. Parties do not need to make any commitments in advance as they have the option of rejecting a mediator’s proposal. ‘Being motivated for settlement is essential to any successful mediation not only because consent to a mediation process is voluntary but also because the disputants make final decisions on the issue.’ Apart from the final decision being made by the parties themselves, the willingness of the parties to go in for a settlement or agreement is also a crucial aspect in mediation.

It is crucial that the parties trust the mediator; the mediator can gain the trust of the parties by being impartial. Impartiality here ‘means that the mediator correctly appreciates their interests and correctly transfers information and evaluations between sides. It does not, however, require the mediator to hold an entirely neutral position. The fact that a mediator is close to one side can satisfy the other, as it then hopes that this will bring more pressure to bear on that particular side.’ Moreover, the mediator should always try for ‘a fair and equitable outcome’ and more so in situations where ‘one party has a lower status, less bargaining power and poor negotiation skills.’

When a mediator comes into the picture, a bilateral conflict becomes a ‘triadic interaction’. For the parties, it is easier to make ‘necessary concessions’ to a third party, i.e., the mediator, than to be seen giving in to the ‘opponent’s pressure’. In the event of an agreement being reached between the parties, they present it ‘as an outcome of mutual concessions granted to a mediator’; this is

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helpful for the parties in 'face saving'. In mediation, the parties get privacy. This privacy gives flexibility and the parties do not feel any outside pressure.

Human beings have utilized mediation as a conflict resolution mechanism for quite some time but in the post-Cold War phase 'third parties have been involved in conflict resolution as a normal state of affairs.' Mediation is more applicable to situations and cases where interests are involved rather than to 'issues related to values or fundamental principles. However, mediation has been growingly utilized to end civil wars (e.g., Burundi, Sudan, Bosnia-Herzegovina) and other protracted violent conflicts (e.g., Northern Ireland) over the last two decades. Thus, it has developed a new adaptation to different conflict situations which entail such issues as self-determination, sovereignty, and territorial disputes.'

Two things are important in the case of third parties or mediators: their 'appointment and mandate' and 'the approach taken by the third party when dealing with primary and secondary parties.' Who appoints the mediator is an important aspect. In international conflicts, the mediator can be either an international organization, or a national government or a private individual. The United Nations (UN) 'can make a stronger claim to neutrality and impartiality than governmental actors can.' The UN Secretary-General may himself play the role of a mediator in bringing the parties together and making them agree to a settlement. As a third party, the UN Secretary-General does 'have a more uncontested status'. UN Secretary-General Perez de Cuellar mediated in the 1986 dispute between France and New Zealand wherein French agents had secretly bombed a Greenpeace ship. As per the agreement, France had to pay compensation to Greenpeace. Mediation efforts by the UN Secretary-General led to the end of the Iran-Iraq war in the late 1980s. The UN Secretary-General was also 'instrumental' in making the parties agree to a referendum in East Timor in 1999.

The UN Secretary-General can appoint Special and Personal Representatives for mediating in conflicts or performing other such related roles. Besides, there are Groups of 'Friends of the Secretary-General' for mediating in conflicts. When the mediator is appointed by the UN Secretary-General, the parties are more likely to be ready to speak to him/her. However, whenever this arrangement is made, the parties need to have, if not say at least 'a chance to express their opinion on the selection.' The UN does give the parties the opportunity to 'influence who is chosen'.

When a mediator is appointed by the Security Council, things are not the same as in the case of the mediator being appointed by the UN Secretary-General, for the former is generally not perceived to be impartial and has 'its own view on how a particular conflict should be solved.' In such cases, the actual mediation may not even take place.

In several cases, 'the mediator is appointed by an outside party, with or without consultation.' The US has on several occasions appointed the 'President, the Secretary of State or high-ranking officials of the administration' as mediators.

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The US Secretary of State Henry Kissinger undertook shuttle diplomacy to convince Israel and its adversaries to agree to militarily disengage after the Yom Kippur War of 1973. US President Jimmy Carter's efforts led to the Egyptian-Israeli Peace Accord of 1979. The US President or the US Secretary of State are however not 'mediators' in the strict sense of the term for they are appointed by the US administration and secondly the US 'often has its own interest in the outcomes.' As a result, 'it may give priority to issues that other parties may not. It may be prepared to exert pressure on some parties, but not others.' It may also take recourse to military power, for instance, the United States got involved in the Middle East peace process because of the 'influence of domestic constituencies and geo-strategic interests.' At other times, national governments get involved as mediators between two opposing countries in a conflict as both of them are their allies. However, there are countries like Switzerland and Norway, who enjoy 'reputation as international peacemakers'.

Parties can themselves arrange for a mediator without involving any country or any international organization. Sometimes, the third party can be from within the country. People enjoying some prestige and 'with particular status who can transcend the conflict divides, such as individuals with religious roles, retired statesmen or even businessmen' can take up mediation assignments. For instance, the Vatican and Pope John Paul II mediated for six years (1978-1984) in the century-long territorial dispute between Chile and Argentina and successfully ended the same in 1984. Religious groups too can be involved in mediation. The World Council of Churches in collaboration with the All-African Council of Churches successfully mediated in 1972 in the civil war in Sudan. 'Unlike state mediators who are concerned with their own national interests, mediation efforts made by religious groups are made for humanitarian reasons.' Additionally, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), 'with a reputation of peacemaking' can play the role of a mediator. NGOs are perceived to be much more impartial compared to national governments. Being a non-political actor, having 'non-threatening presence' and virtually no power to impose an agreement, NGOs can effectively mediate between adversaries.

In majority of cases, countries who are parties to a conflict accept the offer of mediation from international organizations or national governments but in some cases they refuse such help as well. In this regard Peter Wallensteen says: 'It is increasingly difficult for countries to refuse access to the outside community when it wants to help resolve particular conflicts. However, it is still common for countries to decline offers to use the good offices of international secretariats, other government or even non-government organizations. Thus, Russia has not been prepared to invite outsiders to assist with settling the conflict in Chechnya.'

Mediator's influence depends on his prestige and the resources at his/her disposal. 'The degree of a mediator's power is often affected by his/her control of the means of inducing cooperation through rewards.' The World Bank provided

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resources to Pakistan to control its water supply, so as to satisfy it to settle the Indus water dispute in 1960. Mediators can also offer ‘inducements to both sides. Military and economic aid can be utilized as a necessary guarantee against non-compliance...After Israel and Egypt reached their initial settlement in 1978, President Jimmy Carter promised foreign aid of up to four billion dollars a year to each side.’ Apart from rewards, mediators sometimes do apply explicit and implicit threats and pressures on the parties to settle a conflict.

In mediation, both tangible and intangible goals of parties need to be recognized. If one party is not willing to change its position or is stuck to its position, a breakthrough or compromise is difficult.

Mediation can be termed as successful if it is able to contain a conflict and prevent further violence. It can be ‘assessed in terms of either reaching an agreement or improvement in relationships that can pave a road for bilateral negotiations.’ Elaborating on the role of mediation in peacemaking, Peter Wallensteen says, ‘In many cases of peace agreements, there is a record of mediation in the process leading to the settlement. Often the parties express their satisfaction with such efforts.’ Both internal and external variables are a factor in the success or failure of mediations.

### 4.2.1 Peacemaking

The term peacemaking has different connotations. Former United Nations (UN) Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali in *An Agenda for Peace* defines peacemaking as ‘action to bring hostile parties to agreement, essentially through such peaceful means as those foreseen in Chapter VI of the Charter of the United Nations; Pacific Settlement of Disputes.’ Peacemaking thus refers to the ‘diplomatic effort intended to move a violent conflict into nonviolent dialogue, where differences are settled through representative political institutions.’ It aims to end violence and conflict between disputing parties through the means of mediation, negotiation, conciliation and arbitration and reach a peace agreement.

Parties can also approach the international courts to get disputes settled, which decide cases in accordance with the provisions of international law. Peacemaking efforts can be carried out in the case of violent as well as latent conflict. A successful example of diplomatic peacemaking efforts bearing fruit is Mozambique wherein a negotiated peace agreement in 1992 led to the end of the 16 year civil war in the country. Yet another successful peacemaking initiative was George Mitchell’s mediation in Northern Ireland which led to the Good Friday Agreement in 1998.

**Peacemaking** also refers ‘to a stage of conflict, which occurs during a crisis or a prolonged conflict after diplomatic intervention has failed and before peacekeeping forces have had a chance to intervene.’ Here peacemaking refers to ‘intervention during armed combat’. Such interventions take place in situations of ‘protracted violence’ where crimes against humanity and war crimes lead to



heavy losses of life and require some sort of an intervention by external forces. Yet another meaning of peacemaking is 'making peace'. The latter two connotations of peacemaking may involve usage of force. However, this is to be used as the 'last resort'.

The Preamble of the Charter of the United Nations lays down the main aim behind the establishment of the organization: 'To save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind.' Maintenance of international peace and security is thus foremost on the agenda of the United Nations. 'The UN has been involved in a wide array of armed disputes, and its roles have varied from brokering peace, to active peacemaking (which has sometimes been distressingly close to war fighting) to peacekeeping.'

Peacemaking efforts have been undertaken under the aegis of the United Nations by the Secretary General. The Secretary General may undertake a peacemaking initiative on his own or may be called upon by the Security Council or the General Assembly to make use of his 'good offices' with the objective of resolving a conflict. Normally, the usage of force is not a part of the United Nations peacemaking efforts but the same may be imposed by the Security Council.

The United Nations has undertaken several peacemaking initiatives in the past. It 'arranged for several cease-fires during wars between India and Pakistan over Kashmir, in the late 1940s and mid-1960s... The UN has also been involved as an armed intermediary, supervising cease-fires on Cyprus, Angola, Namibia and Mozambique, among other trouble spots, and monitoring democratic elections in numerous countries, including El Salvador and Cambodia.' It was also called in to 'monitor cease-fires' during the Gulf War and in Bosnia and Kosovo. However, the UN's role of peacemaker has been a limited one as member countries have not agreed on the maintenance of 'an independent UN force'. Big power rivalry between the communist and capitalist block has also constrained UN efforts.

Political and economic factors pose limitations to peacemaking when it involves outside intervention. Military intervention will involve commitment to send troops to that particular area which will entail expenses. Who will send these troops and who will bear the expenses of the troops are crucial aspects? Secondly, the defence personnel who are dispatched to the conflict zone may end up losing their lives. Who would want to sacrifice their troops for the sake of peacemaking? All this requires, 'collective willpower' of the international community.

Since economic and political costs constrain peacemaking efforts through force, the emphasis is on the usage of, as far as possible, mechanisms of mediation and negotiation. The UN Charter too stresses on this. Even Chapter VII of the Charter which allows military intervention, 'favours negotiation as a first step.' Such negotiations are held at the highest or Track I level and involve 'multinational diplomacy'. When a group of powerful states put pressure on an individual state, it is difficult to resist the same. Such efforts are likely to bear fruits. In any case,

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states that are party to the Geneva Convention and UN Charter also have a moral obligation ‘to intervene in cases of genocide, disturbances to international peace, and other cases of human devastation.’

### Methods of Peacemaking

The methods of peaceful peacemaking have been mentioned in Article 33 of the UN Charter, which are ‘negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, [and] resort to regional agencies of arrangements.’ Apart from these, as per Articles 41 and 42, the international community can take recourse to sanctions, blockade, and violent interventions with the aim of stopping violence between two warring countries. From these articles and the Charter, it can be interpreted that the international community can intervene only in those violent affairs which are between states and not in civil wars as sovereignty of states were considered to be inviolable. Intervening in a civil war situation would essentially mean overriding the principle of sovereignty. However, things changed after Boutros Boutros-Ghali’s *An Agenda for Peace* as this allowed intervention in civil wars.

The International Court of Justice (ICJ) provides a forum to settle inter-state disputes peacefully. Though the ICJ adjudicates disputes, it can do so only when states are party to it (so adjudicating in civil war cases is not an option at all) and secondly, it has no enforcement mechanism. Thus though the forum of ICJ is available to states, it is limited in its scope and effectiveness. There are other international courts such as the European Court of Human Rights and the European Court of Justice. However, these are ‘more limited’ in their jurisdiction compared to the ICJ.

### Peace enforcement

Peace enforcement is a ‘subsidiary concept’ within the broad field of peacemaking. It entails the threat of usage of force or the ‘active use of force’. ‘Sanctions, blockade, and military intervention’ are the tools of peace enforcement. The ‘mildest’ of the tools is sanctions. However, the consequences of the imposition of sanctions may be ‘devastating’ as it limits exports and imports from the particular country on which sanctions are imposed. Blockade, on the other hand, entails ‘active prohibition of all material trying to enter or leave a country or region.’ The distinction between blockade and sanctions is a minor one. Blockades are ‘considered an act of war’ (*casus belli* – reason to go to war) for it intervenes in a state’s trade while sanctions are not. Military intervention is not ‘unilateral’; usually a group of countries are involved in it. An example of military intervention was Operation Deliberate Force undertaken by NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) Implementation Force (IFOR) and Stabilizing Force (SFOR) in Bosnia-Herzegovina in the latter half of 1995. This intervention forced Serbia to come to the negotiating table.

Peacemaking initiatives may involve all the tools and ‘shift fluidly’ between threat to use force or the actual use of force, Track I diplomacy and peacekeeping

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as was the case in Bosnia-Herzegovina. This also highlights the difference between first-generation and second-generation peacekeeping. First-generation peacekeeping largely involved ‘ceasefires with neutral interposition forces’ while second-generation peacekeeping ‘evolved to allow flexibility of function and mission, from guaranteeing ceasefires to election monitoring to subsequent peace enforcement.’

To conclude, peacemaking in the post-Cold war era poses several challenges as conflicts are increasingly being fought within the borders of a state rather than between states. Thus on its own, peacemaking proves to be ‘insufficient’ in dealing with contemporary intractable violent conflicts. As a result, it has to be used in conjunction with other tools such as preventive diplomacy, peacekeeping and peacebuilding.

### **4.2.2 Peace Building**

The concept of peacebuilding was introduced by Johan Galtung (1976). However, it came into the public lexicon only after Boutros Ghali’s *An Agenda for Peace*. Peacebuilding is a long-term process that comes after peacemaking and peacekeeping. It has two connotations. As per the document *An Agenda for Peace*, Peacebuilding ‘consists of a wide range of activities associated with capacity building, reconciliation and societal transformation.’ For Ghali, ‘post-conflict recovery involves far more than simply repairing physical damage and shattered infrastructure.’ In the post-conflict phase, peace has to be built in such a way that that there is no chance of ‘relapse into conflict’ and the ‘well-being’ of the people is advanced. It seeks to empower individuals and build their capacities so that they can respond positively to future conflicts and resolve them on their own. Peacebuilding thus aims to create durable and positive peace by preventing the recurrence of violent conflict. This can be done by addressing the root causes of conflict and removing its negative effects by working on reconciliation and political, social and economic transformation.

On the other hand, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) view peacebuilding ‘as an umbrella concept that encompasses not only long-term transformative efforts, but also peacemaking and peacekeeping. In this view, peacebuilding includes early warning and response efforts, violence prevention, advocacy work, civilian and military peacekeeping, military intervention, humanitarian assistance, ceasefire agreements, and the establishment of peace zones.’ This is a much broader conception of peacebuilding. In either case, peacebuilding is a slow and long process. Compared to peacemaking and peacekeeping, it is also low-profile work.

### **Reconstruction**

Post-conflict peacebuilding, undertaken after the end of violence, includes processes such as demobilization, reintegration and looking at immediate reconstruction needs. Post-conflict reconstruction needs to address the underlying causes of conflict

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which will lead to sustainable peace. It ‘has to address the issues of high levels of poverty, landlessness and unemployment.’

Physical infrastructure is destroyed during the course of a violent conflict and thus the need for reconstruction. Rebuilding all the damaged infrastructure is not an easy task. This will require huge amounts of money. Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) are crucial parts of the reconstruction process. The former militias need to be disarmed—their arms and ammunitions are taken away from them—so that they do not go back to fighting. Demobilization entails dissolution of the armed groups. It is important to reintegrate the former militias and ex-combatants into the mainstream of the society by providing them civilian jobs and giving them incentives so that they do not find it attractive to go back to fighting.

Moreover, refugees and IDPs start returning to their original habitats; it is essential to provide for their immediate needs and resettle them. Issues such as multiple claims to houses, land and other such assets may arise while resettling them. These need to be handled with care through institutional mechanisms and procedures.

### **Transformation**

Long-term peacebuilding, however, goes beyond post-conflict peacebuilding and aims to build sustainable peace through the usage of various transformation techniques. According to A.B. Fetherston, transformative peacebuilding is ‘distinctly counter hegemonic – counter, ... to the culture of violence...’ It is focused on ‘resistance and transformation’. In the long-term, the context, the incompatibilities, the attitudes and the behaviour, all need to be transformed. Overall, the ‘culture of violence’ has to be replaced with a ‘culture of peace’ which is built on ‘strong equitable relations’. However, transforming relationships in civil war situations is challenging as the social capital is ‘irreparably damaged’ during such conflicts.

### **Dimensions of Sustainable Peace**

According to Martina Fischer, peacebuilding requires ‘multidimensional approaches’—creation of ‘public and legal institutions’, ‘physical construction’ of infrastructure, ‘social renewal’ by focusing on civil society and ‘social reintegration’, psychosocial dimensions such as ‘overcoming trauma and achieving reconciliation’, and ‘economic renewal’ which will remove and replace the war economy.

Manuela Mesa Peinado identifies five major dimensions of the peacebuilding process: political and institutional; military and security; social; economic and environmental. Democratization, reforms of the state institutions, governance, respect for human rights and national reconciliation are aspects of the political and institutional dimension. The military and security dimension includes demobilization, demilitarization, disarmament and de-mining. It also includes the reintegration of ex-combatants. The reintegration of refugees and internally displaced people, rehabilitation of people and the recreation of the broken social fabric are central

to the social dimensions. The economic dimension focuses on the removal of the war economy and renewal of economic activities like agriculture and food security, etc. The environmental dimension consists of proper management of natural resources and ensuring that it is equally accessible to all.

According to Michelle Maiese, the creation of sustainable peace ‘has three central dimensions—addressing the underlying causes of conflict, repairing damaged relationships and dealing with psychological trauma at the individual level.’ These dimensions correspond to the ‘structural dimension, relational dimension and personal dimension’ respectively.

### **Structural Dimension**

Addressing the root or structural causes of the conflict requires the analysis and redressal of political, social and economic problems and grievances which give rise to conflicts. These problems can be redressed by initiating structural changes, which will address various forms of injustice, whether economic, social or political. Restorative justice systems should be put in place to address these injustices.

The key branches of the government—the executive, legislature and judiciary need not only function properly but in a democratic and transparent manner as well. The process of democratization would lead to the establishment of ‘legitimate and stable political institutions’, would ensure respect for civil liberties and lead to ‘broad participation’. Structural changes in the political arena require state reforms, state building, good governance, establishing government institutions that are effective, working out power-sharing mechanisms and initiating judicial, constitutional and electoral reforms. It is also essential to create institutions that will respect, uphold and protect human rights. Corruption and discrimination are major causes of grievance, which must be looked into. The rule of law must prevail and institutions and functionaries must be held accountable for their omissions and commissions. The police need to be properly trained so that they are respectful of the rights of the citizens. The legal safeguards for the protection of minorities and ensuring gender equality must be put into place.

Structural changes in the economic field would entail working on economic development and providing job opportunities, strengthening food security and equal access to natural resources so that the basic needs of the people are met. Land reforms and fiscal reforms need to be initiated. Efforts must be made to boost agricultural production. The ‘war economy’ would have to be dismantled and replaced with a peace economy. Economic peacebuilding would thus aim to work at both the micro and macro level. The latter would require the building and creation of infrastructure that would assist in a peaceful transition. Reforms in the social area would consist of providing health facilities to people and ensuring social security.

### **Relational Dimension**

Repairing the damaged social fabric and getting rid of the ‘war-related hostility’, so as to transform relationships between the erstwhile conflicting parties is ‘integral’

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to peacebuilding. 'The relational dimension of peacebuilding centers on reconciliation, forgiveness, trust building, and future imaging.' Poor communication between the parties is a major cause of conflict. The relational dimension thus aims to enhance 'mutual understanding' between them and reduce poor communication.

### **Reconciliation**

After the resolution of the conflict, it is essential to create an environment wherein negative feelings between the erstwhile parties are removed and peaceful relations are built between them. This is however a challenging task. Reconciliation has a backward-looking and forward-looking dimension. As a backward-looking concept, it deals with the past injuries, heals survivors, helps create some understanding about the past and rebuilds relationships. The forward-looking perspective of reconciliation concentrates on the future. It seeks to develop at least a minimum amount of cooperation between adversaries so as to be able to run the affairs of the society especially in cases where they have a shared future.

Reconciliation means different things to different people – 'coexistence', 'respect', 'mutual forgiveness'. It is thus a 'highly contested term'. According to Ho-Won Jeong, '**Reconciliation** means coming to terms with one's old adversaries and creating new partnership.' It includes changes in the attitude and behaviour of the former adversaries. Louis Kriesberg discusses four aspects of reconciliation: truth, justice, regard and security. In this context, truth means acknowledging at least partly the worth of the 'other side's interpretation of events', justice consists of some sort of redressal to put the past behind, regard refers to forgiveness by the victims, and security involves 'peaceful coexistence'. Erstwhile enemies who have a shared future need to have some sort of a reconciliation process, for without the same, the conflict is likely to happen again even if the main issues have been settled.

For John Paul Lederach, reconciliation is the place where the elements of truth, mercy, justice and peace converge. These four elements are interrelated for without the acknowledgement of truth there can be no mercy or forgiveness. Mere acknowledgement of truth will not heal the victims if it is not accompanied with justice. Additionally, without justice peace cannot be sustainable. Here, truth refers to the acknowledgement of the wrong and the recognition of the pain and suffering, mercy means acceptance of the truth and forgiveness, justice consists of making right as far as possible the past wrongs, and peace is linked to respect, security and well-being. Lederach is of the opinion that reconciliation is a focus as well as a locus. It focuses on relational dimensions and it is located in a social space where the conflicting parties can come forward to express their loss and grief.

Remembering and mourning are important parts of the process of reconciliation. If the parties forgive their former enemies, it may help to re-humanize the enemy. Most of all reconciliation cannot come about without addressing the real grievances, the injustices and inequities which gave rise to the violent conflict

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in the first place. The past wrongdoing especially human rights violations and grave crimes thus needs to be addressed in real terms. For this, truth commissions (e.g. the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of South Africa), war crime tribunals and fact-finding missions can be set up. These will help fix individual guilt and punish the perpetrators. The retributive justice system however is not equipped to deal with the needs of the victims for they have very little say in the process. Instead here community-based restorative justice processes can be used for reconciliation – this will include acceptance of guilt by the perpetrators and seeking apology from the victims or survivors. **Restorative** justice aims to ‘restore’ the broken relationships and does so by taking care of the needs of both the victims and the perpetrators but primarily the victim. Here healing is the central aspect so that people can move on in their lives. In cases where mass crimes have been committed, the retributive justice system (if it is still in a good shape) in any case is unable to cope with the onslaught of huge number of cases, something that was witnessed in Rwanda.

There needs to be some sort of a consensus between the parties on the main events (the parties may not agree on all aspects) of the conflict for purposes of describing it for posterity. Listening to each other’s stories and narratives can help create empathy and remove stereotypes, etc. The mass media mediums such as radio and television and the education system especially peace education projects can contribute to the reduction of prejudices and discrimination. During the course of the peacebuilding process the erstwhile adversaries need to be engaged jointly in all social, economic and political processes so that they can realize their mutual co-existence. Joint projects and programmes can consciously be created and conceived for such purposes.

Dialogues and problem-solving workshops can lead to effective communication between the enemies which in turn will facilitate trust building and the creation of empathy. An important aspect of the dialogues is future imaging. This refers to the formation of a vision of the future which will be commonly shared between the erstwhile adversaries. This is crucial as the parties have had a ‘shared and violent past’ but they can now imagine a peaceful future together. Moreover, ‘if they know where they are trying to go, it will be easier to get there.’

### **Personal Dimension**

This is focused on the individual and the changes that are desired at the individual level. Violence is the most destructive aspect of conflict for it leaves behind individuals suffering from pain, trauma and a sense of loss. These result in depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, feelings of insecurity and helplessness, etc., which affects the psychological and emotional well-being of individuals. It is essential for such individuals to heal otherwise it will have a negative effect on peacebuilding for firstly, these people will not be able to contribute effectively to the process and secondly, it is highly likely that such victims may themselves end up perpetrating violence on others. One-on-one counselling will not be of much help in these

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circumstances for the number of affected people would be large and the number of counsellors available would be insufficient to cope with such large numbers. Therefore, trauma healing and treatment of mental health must be given priority in the peacebuilding process. Efforts must be made to rehabilitate the trauma victims, empower them and help them rebuild trust and a sense of security.

Healing must be undertaken at the individual, community and national level. Communities have cultural and traditional resources, customs and mechanisms to deal with emotional and psychological problems. These resources should be used for healing purposes. Rituals and ceremonies could be utilized for communal healing. A day may be set aside to remember the loss, for example, the South African government has agreed to the recommendation given by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, to declare a national day of prayer and traditional sacrifice, so as to pay tribute to the lives lost and the suffering undergone by the people during the apartheid rule; this will help in healing. Communities can also build memorials to commemorate the painful events. Truth and reconciliation commissions can be established to help the process of healing at the national level. Such commissions will help establish the truth about scarring and painful incidents and deal with offenders and perpetrators. Healing at the various levels will help repair the damaged fabric of the society.

### **Actors in Peacebuilding**

Since peacebuilding is a comprehensive process involving all levels of the society, it requires the contribution of a range of actors. Government officials, conflict resolution professionals, nonviolence trainers, journalists, NGOs, academia, businesses, lawyers, educators, religious leaders, trauma healers, justice advocates, all have a role to play in the peacebuilding process. The international community provides aid, relief and the much-required funds while the process of building peace is carried out at the grassroots level by the NGOs. The United Nations and its specialized agencies play a very active role in the process. Other international organizations too may be engaged in the peacebuilding process. However, the process is majorly carried out under the coordination of the national authorities (if there is one and it has the capacity and the ability to carry out such work, otherwise the same may be initiated by the international community in the transitional phase). The civil society needs to be a major stakeholder in peacebuilding as this makes the process sustainable. Since peacebuilding entails a range of tasks, public-private partnership would be necessary.

The presence of a range of actors may lead to duplication of efforts and wastage of resources. It is therefore very essential to coordinate between the various actors. Coordination will be effective when there is proper planning. Planning can be undertaken with the help of a vision document which lays out the main aims, purposes and objectives of peacebuilding.

Getting funds to work on relationship building and preventive action is difficult. Donors are not interested in funding the same as these are low-profile and time



taking work. However, the reality is that such initiatives are necessary to transform the conflict and prevent the outbreak of violent conflicts in the future.

During peacebuilding, attention must be paid to bottom-up approaches of building peace. Mostly, it is the top-down approach that is utilized. Top-down approaches may not work in several scenarios as the people at the grassroots level may reject the agreements reached at the top-level.

In order to make the peace process sustainable, it is crucial to create a peace constituency. The middle-range actors are most suitably located and positioned to be part of the peace constituency and sustain the process. They are connected to both the top-level and the grassroots. They have access to the top-level but compared to the latter they are flexible in their approach and outlook. In comparison to the grassroots, the middle-range is less vulnerable, for the former suffers from survival mentality.

All communities and cultures have devised their own mechanism and methods of dealing with conflicts. These mechanisms are rooted in their culture. It is essential to recognize the cultural dimension of peacebuilding and make use of the same for the locals would identify with them and relate to them. Western or external notions of peacebuilding may on the other hand sound alien to the locals; they may view the same as imposition as well.

### **NGOs in peacebuilding**

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) 'are generally accepted to be organizations which have not been established by governments or agreements among governments.' NGOs can function in various areas – conflict resolution, human rights, development, gender issues, humanitarian assistance, environment, disarmament, etc. They can be local, national or international. The last one is popularly referred to as INGOs (international NGOs). It is generally believed that NGOs represent the people's voice as their work is people-centric. However, others do not agree with this view and believe that NGOs 'reinforce...existing power structures'.

Since the 1990s, the importance of NGOs increasingly began to be recognized as they delivered development assistance to the people at the grassroots level in comparison to governments of developing countries. Their work in different areas started showing its impact on the lives of the common people. Moreover, they started playing a role in delivering humanitarian assistance too. Compared to the early part of the 20th century, the latter half saw a tremendous jump in the number of NGOs.

Besides, the UN realized their importance and referred to them frequently in its resolutions. Increasingly, they have also become a part of policy-making at both the national and international level. They have actively participated and contributed to several UN conferences on critical issues such as environment, disarmament, gender, human rights, development, etc. They contributed to the

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development of several treaties such as the 1997 Land Mines Ban Treaty and also institutions within the UN like the International Criminal Court. Thus by the end of the 1990s, the contribution of the NGOs was recognized the world over mainly for their role in ‘influencing public policy.’

NGOs can play both positive and negative roles in conflict situations. Positively, they can help reduce conflict through their intervention while in negative terms their work can aggravate conflict further. Mary B. Anderson thus recommended that as far as possible NGOs should follow the approach of ‘Do No Harm’.

‘The roles of NGOs in intractable conflict are multiple, from direct conflict resolution, Track Two diplomacy, and mediation in crisis and long-term conflict areas, to assistance in monitoring elections, to delivery of humanitarian assistance and development aid, to advocacy of human rights and justice, to lobbying governments to develop the long-term conditions which promote international peace and security. Their roles are often, but not always, positive, but they are not usually the primary players in any of these arenas. But without these NGOs, many of the accomplishments of states and international organizations would not have been possible.’ Several NGOs have been working directly on conflict resolution and peacebuilding issues. They also work in the area of early warning and exchange information so as to prevent conflict. The International Crisis Group (ICG) does conflict analysis of both real and potential conflicts, which helps in prevention. The Pugwash Conferences has been actively working on arms control. International Alert and the Forum on Early Warning and Early Response (FEWER) helped develop early warning mechanisms. Search for Common Ground helped start a radio station in Burundi with the aim of promoting peace media. The Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom worked closely with the Security Council to help develop Resolution 1325 in 2000. Resolution 1325 stresses on the inclusion of women in the peacemaking and peacebuilding process.

In peacebuilding, NGOs help actively in the process of rehabilitation and reconstruction by strengthening political, social and economic structures and institutions and also working on the psychological well-being of the people. However, while undertaking these activities, NGOs must as far as possible try and increase the capacities of the people so that they can become ‘self-sufficient’ and ‘get on by themselves’. The process of empowerment is very crucial in the overall framework of peacebuilding. This will entail strengthening the abilities of people, institutions and communities and making them more resilient so that they can withstand the pressures of conflicts that may arise in the future and be able to manage and resolve them on their own. Building social networks and bridges will help societies and communities to become more stable.

NGOs must ensure the usage of local resources, local capacities and local ‘wisdom and aptitude’. They should take into account and make use of traditional

means and mechanisms of conflict resolution and peacebuilding. Also the work of the NGOs should be part and parcel of the larger framework of peacebuilding and be geared towards sustainability. They should coordinate their work with national authorities as well as international initiatives and network with other NGOs, so as to avoid duplication.

NGOs mostly tend to work at the grassroots level. They undertake rehabilitation, reconstruction and reintegration work – reintegrating the refugees and internally displaced people (IDPs) and the ex-combatants. They also contribute to reconciliation by engaging people in dialogues. Overall, their work aims to contribute to democratization and good governance.

The contribution of NGOs in peacebuilding is important but there are certain problems and risks involved in their work. Several NGOs lack trained and qualified personnel to undertake specialized peacebuilding related work. Moreover, the work of NGOs may absolve the government and its institutions and authorities of its responsibilities, most of the works being undertaken by the former are in because works reality the tasks of the latter. Besides, NGOs should not be seen as just implementing partners of the international and national agencies. NGOs are dependent on international and national donors for financial resources which may make them vulnerable to their pressures. Additionally, since the funds for the work of NGOs come from the international and national donors, it gives the impression that they are ‘mere agents of government policies.’

### **Role of Media**

Media includes the print media, the electronic media and the social media (Internet-based application that helps in communication and exchange of content). Among the various kinds of media, the reach of the radio is the farthest and widest. It can quickly reach out to both formally educated as well as uneducated people. The reliability of the media is a crucial factor. This reliability comes from being ‘accurate, impartial and socially responsible’.

The media plays an important role in modern societies and more so in democracies by giving information and building public opinion. An independent media provides a forum and a platform for debate, discussion and analysis of perspectives, news and information. This can help the citizens to make informed choices.

Media can also be used negatively to spread rumour and propagate fear, hatred and ill-will, which can provoke and escalate conflict. It can ‘support political objectives, often at the expense of professional credibility.’ When there is a dearth of reliable news, people believe in rumours. This leads to the building of distrust and the propagation of stereotypes, which fuels the conflict. In the former Yugoslavia, media used hate speech to spread propaganda resulting in ethnic cleansing. *Radio-Television Libre de Mille Collines*, (RTL) a radio station in Rwanda, played a negative role in starting the genocide by broadcasting

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inflammatory statements and hate speeches, which heightened the tension between the Hutu and Tutsi ethnic groups leading to a massacre in 1994.

The general belief is that ‘good news is no news, but conflict sells.’ The market factors thus have a role to play in how media approaches issues and matters. However, media can play a critical role in all stages of the conflict and the peace process. It can provide impartial and balanced information to the communities and groups affected by conflicts. By doing so, it can also counter hate-speech. It can also contribute to social education by relaying important information pertaining to health, environment, awareness regarding rights and laws, etc.

Local media would be aware and in the knowhow of the history, dynamics and complexities of the conflict. It can influence the society and its opinion by bringing in analytical programmes about the conflict, bringing forth the problems faced by the people in the wake of the conflict, and having discussions on possible ways of getting out of the conflict. The media can help educate both the parties as well as the general public about the interests, needs and goals of those involved in the conflict. It can play a useful role in re-humanizing the parties by clearing misperceptions and stereotypes and deflating the rumours and misinformation.

The media can play an effective role in monitoring and evaluating the peace process. It can create conducive atmosphere for the peace talks by engaging in confidence-building. It can help allay and reduce the fears and concerns of the locals with regard to the peace process. It can educate the people about conflict resolution and reframe the issues of the conflict, so as to facilitate resolution. When the negotiation process is on, the media can help in the process by respecting its confidentiality. This process is a fragile one and there are always chances that any small issue can endanger it. So secrecy is important. Once the agreement is reached, it can encourage the implementation of the same.

The media can play an active role in the post-conflict phase by promoting healing and reconciliation and reflecting on the transition from conflict to peace. It can provide space for the expression of grievances which can ‘encourage’ the process of healing. ‘During the period of reconciliation and rehabilitation, the media can also serve to empower groups that had previously been voiceless. Television, radio and print material can provide specific support for categories of people who have become disenfranchised during the war.’

Journalists have played the role of mediators in some situations, though most ‘feel that it is outside the bounds of their professions.’ One example of this was a case in South Africa. A ‘video dialogue’ was broadcast on *Peace Cafe*. The ‘video dialogue’ was undertaken between the members of a community wherein a communal conflict had taken place. The members were unwilling to talk to each other. So they spoke to the camera independently. These were edited and then shown to the other group. Due to this intervention by the media, the two groups later engaged in direct talks.

## **Peace Media and Peace Journalism**

'Peace media could be defined as promoting peaceful conditions of life and resolution of conflict, or countering hate media by presenting issues fairly, offering alternative sources of information and broadcasts nullifying or mitigating messages of hate media.' The peace media can seek 'alternative viewpoints' and influence public opinion so that the 'public sentiment' could be turned towards the resolution of a conflict.

The concept of peace journalism was propounded by Johan Galtung. It seeks to 'influence and transform the way news is reported.' Peace journalism can be a parameter for evaluating peace-building. **Peace journalism** lays stress on understanding the root causes of the conflict; it engages in accurate, balanced, fair and ethical reporting; it reports about the suffering and loss of all the parties to the conflict; it speaks out against war and violence and in favour of peace. It does not get caught in the 'us versus them' syndrome by talking about the differences between the parties; instead it emphasizes on tolerance between them. It helps in the de-escalation of the conflict by enabling and contributing to the peaceful resolution of the conflict by formulating possible solutions and emphasizing on its transformation. Peace journalism is thus sensitive about conflict and promotes peace.

In contrast to war reporting, peace journalism according to Johan Galtung has the following features:

- It is peace/conflict-oriented;
- It is truth-oriented;
- It is people-oriented; and
- It is solution-oriented.

Peace journalism has been subject to criticism as well for several people believe that by engaging in peace journalism the media compromises its objectivity and neutrality. But on the other hand, it is also true that the media cannot remain a silent spectator to the events around it.

There are several examples of peace media. One such example is *Studio Ijambo* ('wise words' in Kirundi), an independent production studio and radio station in Burundi. This was created in 1995 with the help of Search for Common Ground and Common Ground Productions in the wake of the genocide that took place in neighbouring Rwanda. It employs both Hutu and Tutsi staff. It has been promoting reconciliation between the ethnic groups through its programmes and radio dramas such as 'Our Neighbours, Ourselves'. The latter emphasized on common problems faced by both the ethnic groups and how these were overcome by them. They were awarded the prestigious ECHO (European Community Humanitarian Office) radio awards for their positive and constructive efforts.

In the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, an 'Inter Ethnic Team Project' 'brought together journalists from different ethnic news organizations to

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work together on stories concerning the country as a whole that were then published in identical form in each of the newspapers.' In Cambodia, the United Nations set up UNTAC (United Nations Transitional Authority) Radio to inform the people about the forthcoming elections. This initiative later broadened and included news, educational and entertainment programmes that were geared towards reconciliation.

Media can thus play a very constructive and positive role in peacemaking and peacebuilding by reporting and reflecting on critical issues. It is a useful tool but it does not have the power to bring about direct changes. It can only play the role of the catalyst. However, this role too has largely remained unutilized. But the recognition that media can help in the prevention and resolution of conflict is spreading.

### 4.2.3 Peace Keeping

Peacekeeping encompasses all the activities, which are intended to generate circumstances that favour long-lasting peace. Research in general finds that peacekeeping activities have reduced battlefield and civilian deaths, as well as decreased the chance of renewing active warfare.

When there has been a ceasefire and there are still instances of conflict, peacekeeping forces can play a role in reducing tension between conflicting parties and prevent violations of the ceasefire.

Peacekeeping forces, generally within the United Nations (UN), keep an eye on and examine peace processes in areas where there has been a recently negotiated ceasefire agreement. They also maintain contact with ex-combatants in execution of peace accord commitments that both sides have agreed upon. Accordingly, the UN peacekeepers (often known as Blue Berets) can include police officers, civilian personnel and soldiers.

By the decree of international law, peacekeepers are considered non-combatants due to their neutral position in the fight between two or more confrontational parties. Therefore, they are to be sheltered from attacks at all the time.

Peacekeeping forces have six characteristics:

- There needs to be an existing ceasefire agreement.
- Only light military equipment is allowed. Force can be used only for self-defence.
- troops and other peacekeepers should voluntarily contribute to the force.
- There needs to be consent from all the sides involved in the conflict.
- Neutrality should be maintained while dealing with the conflict.

Peacekeeping operations (PKO) usually perform the following missions:

- Verification of the cease-fire agreements, troop withdrawal, and formations of safe areas.

- Preventive deployment to conflict zones
- To Provide security to peace building efforts and humanitarian aid
- Demobilizing and disarming combatants

Violent clashes that necessitate U.N. intervention usually have three stages. First, when a violent clash occurs between the parties, peacemakers try to end the dispute. In the second stage, a ceasefire agreement is agreed upon, but peace keepers are required to effectuate it. In third stage, peace building efforts try to rebuild political institutions, infrastructure, and trust in order to avoid future conflict.

Peacekeeping has been extensively utilized in the international space after the signing of the peace agreement to deal with conflict situations. But as it has a fairly large cost attached to it since these costs are usually borne by other countries which don't stand to gain directly from the peace, it can be tough to raise these necessary forces. The lack of obvious success of PKOs also makes their establishment and maintenance a challenge. The ideal peacekeeping mission would have a clear entry plan; it would ensure that peace is maintained and then depart leaving behind a set of stable institutions established at the ground.

Peacekeeping, even from a psychological stand point is a fairly complex concept because peace can be defined in so many diverse ways. For our point of view, peacemaking is not a method of passive approval of mistreatment, a turning of the other cheek in front of clear abuse or injustice. Instead, peacemaking is a vivacious, powerful concept. At its best, peacemaking generates structural and relational justice that allows for personal and social well-being. This is an ideal purpose, maybe not attainable in all divergences. Nevertheless, peacekeeping is generally better to what would have occurred without such efforts.

### **Check Your Progress**

1. What are the tools of peace enforcement?
2. Who introduced the concept of peacebuilding?
3. What are the five major dimensions of the peacebuilding process?
4. What, according to Johan Galtung, are the features of peace journalism?

## **4.3 ASSESSING CONFLICT: UNDERSTANDING AND DEALING WITH CONFLICT ESCALATION**

The term *conflict* originated from the Latin word '*confligere*', which is a combination of 'con' and 'fligere'. 'Con' implies 'together' and 'fligere' indicates 'to strike'. The two words taken jointly mean 'to strike, collide or to clash together'. The aspect of 'togetherness' is thus critical in conflict—we get into conflict always 'with' somebody—or in some relationships.

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Conflict occurs in relationships either between individuals or between groups and communities. It occurs over incompatible goals, needs, values or aspirations. Incompatibility is indicative of a serious disagreement which cannot be resolved through the same resources at the same time. This incompatibility can be either real or perceived. Sometimes people feel or think that they have incompatible goals but that may not be the case in reality; it may only be a perception. In other situations, the incompatibility may be real. The incompatibility may be over material and/or symbolic resources.

Taking all the above characteristics into account, conflict can be defined as a relationship between two or more individuals or groups who have or think they have incompatible goals. Some people tend to use the terms 'conflict' and 'dispute' interchangeably. However, these are not the same. According to John Burton, a dispute arises out of conflicting interests and can be settled through negotiations and arbitration while conflicts are a result of unfulfilled basic human needs that are non-negotiable.

Conflicts can be overt or latent. An **overt conflict** is one that is visible and is expressed in action or words while conflicts that are not visible and are not expressed are termed as latent. However, just because a conflict is not expressed, does not mean that it does not exist. A latent conflict is like an iceberg in the ocean, which may not be visible to others but is very much there and can cause damage to ships passing by it.

People generally perceive conflict as something negative that needs to be avoided. But conflicts have certain positive aspects as well. When a conflict is expressed (becomes overt), our attention shifts toward the prevailing social injustices like community conflicts, caste conflicts, religious conflicts, gender conflicts, class conflict etc. Unless we have major problems and disruptions, we do not pay much attention to the conflicts around us. But the fact remains that without tackling the justice issue, it is not possible to move towards peace. Secondly, most of the time, we are happy with the status quo and see changes as abnormal and therefore resist them. But when a conflict occurs, we try to take care of it by bringing in, initiating or instituting changes. Conflicts can thus promote the much needed change in social political economic cultural educational institutions or systems. Additionally, we try to come up with creative, constructive and innovative solutions to resolve conflicts so that the needs of the conflicting parties, whether individuals or groups can be met. Conflict can thus lead to creative problem solving.

Destructive behaviour is the most notable negative aspect of conflict. Conflict can lead to destructive behavior like hurting and harming others or even killing. We might choose to react aggressively and violently—use abusive words or hit others with the intention of harming them—with hands or legs or by using guns or other weapons. Next, we tend to invest and use all our energy and resources in trying to win the conflict; these resources could be better spent on creating something constructive and positive. And then worst of all, violent conflict leads to loss of life and property and results in pain, hurt and trauma.



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Conflict is neither inherently negative nor positive. Some aspects of conflict are either negative or positive. The negative aspects of conflict should be avoided as far as possible. But conflict by itself is unavoidable, inevitable, natural, normal, common and a fact of life. The way we express conflict could be either positive or negative and that is a *choice* that all of us have as human beings. Reacting to a conflict violently is negative while expressing it non-violently is positive. Since conflicts are a part of human life, it is better to understand and analyze them so as to facilitate a resolution.

We act out conflicts in various ways. Conflicts are acted out through words which includes the use of silence. We use silence to express our displeasure. We can also choose to respond to conflict through actions such as avoiding, competing, or collaborating. Creating social institutions to protect the interests of a group and resisting such institutions that deny the needs or interests of certain groups are other ways of responding to conflict.

### 4.3.1 Types of Conflict

There is no specific typology of conflicts in the field of peace and conflict studies. Analysts have employed different criterion to explain the types of conflict. A simplified typology of conflicts – interstate, non-interstate and conflicts over resources are discussed here. It is however difficult to put conflicts into neat compartments of the types explained below as they change character over a period of time. Moreover, the root cause of a conflict may be completely overshadowed after some time and other issues may gain prominence.

**Interstate conflicts** are those that take place between two or more states. The roots of several major conflicts go back several centuries into history. The break-up of the Russian, Astro-Hungarian and Ottoman empires gave rise to several conflicts. After the end of the Second World War, political settlements between the Allied powers gave rise to conflicts later on, for example, the partition of Korea. Several states in Asia and Africa achieved independence or autonomy as a result of decolonization in the 1950s and 1960s. In most cases, the process of decolonization was not a smooth one but was achieved as a consequence of protracted revolution. Post decolonization, in the 1970s and 1980s, civil wars took place and power came into the hands of dictators or military junta. Then in the 1990s, the USSR disintegrated, leading to conflicts between the constituent units of the former republic, for example, war over Chechnya.

We no longer see wars taking place between states but experts believe that countries would continue to be at loggerheads with others in the future and the tension would mainly be over issues like environmental degradation, weapons proliferation, weak states crumbling under the dual pressures of globalization and disintegration, and the divide between the north and the south.

Non-interstate conflicts include ideological, identity-based and factional conflicts. **Ideological conflicts** aim at changing the nature of the state, e.g., from

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capitalist system to socialist system, from dictatorship to democracy, or the religious orientation of the state, e.g., from secular to Islamic. In the post-Cold War phase, such conflicts have declined. Identity or secessionist or ethnic conflicts consist of communities or ethnic groups fighting for autonomy or separation from the state or aim at controlling state power. These thus tend to pose a threat to the integrity of the state. Such conflicts have a strong element of identity markers viz. religion, ethnicity, language etc. Factional conflicts include *coup d'etat*, warlordism, intra-elite power-struggles, etc. Here the aim is to take over or seize the state or part of the state to promote particular interests.

Conflicts over resources such as land, water and forests have gained an alarming proportion in contemporary times. In the Indian context, there is conflict between Tamil Nadu and Karnataka over the sharing of the water of the river Cauvery. Privatization of the supply of water at the local level is a hotly contested issue not only in India but in other parts of the world as well for it raises the fear that the poor will be denied access to this valuable resource. At the South Asian level, Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh are involved in water sharing conflicts with India.

### 4.3.2 Theories about Causes of Conflict

Conflicts arise from multiple set of factors and causes. Causes of conflict could be divided into two – proximate and underlying. Proximate causes are the immediate trigger of a conflict while underlying causes are the long-term and root causes of a conflict. The proximate and underlying causes are related to each other for one cannot occur without the other. For building sustainable peace, it is critical to address the underlying causes of the conflict.

There are three main underlying causes of conflict which revolve around the fulfilment of needs. These needs when unfulfilled give rise to conflict:

- Firstly, the need for economic resources is not met in reality. Then there is the perception that economic resources are not fairly distributed. Millions of people in India have not been able to enjoy the benefits of globalization; they do not have access to economic resources.
- Secondly, the need for safety (security), respect (no humiliation) and participation in social and political life, when violated can lead to conflicts.
- The needs for identity, culture and religious values are the other important set of needs for human beings. In cases where these needs remain unfulfilled in reality or when people perceive that these needs are threatened, it may lead to conflicts. In contemporary India, we see several identity-based conflicts: caste conflicts, linguistic conflicts, religious conflicts, ethnic conflicts, etc.

Theoretical explanations of the underlying causes of conflict focus on the ‘nature versus nurture’ debate, which are essentially about whether conflict and

violence is located in the genes of human beings or is it a product of the socio-structural conditions.

### **Human Nature and Conflict**

Theories relating to human nature seek to understand if conflict and violence are inherent in human beings. Theories of this category situate the causes of conflict either at the level of the individual or at the level of the collective agency.

- (i) Aggressive behaviour is natural to human beings; they are biologically programmed to behave in an aggressive manner. Theorists who believe in this paradigm are Thomas Hobbes, Edmund Burke, Sigmund Freud etc. Hobbes believed that human beings are selfish by nature and that humanity is constantly thirsty for power. Burke saw conflict being inherent in human beings. Freud too argued that aggression is inherent in humans. It is aggression that has helped human beings to protect themselves and increase their existence.
- (ii) The agency-based psychoanalytical theory argues that we start differentiating among human beings from an early age. This differentiation between the 'self' and 'other' manifests itself in the need for enemies. So as human beings we always need the 'other' so that we can distinguish ourselves from them.
- (iii) The socio-psychological approach is of the view that group formation and differentiating between groups, plays a role in decision-making especially, the role of images, stereotyping, prejudices, misperceptions and dehumanization.
- (iv) The psycho-cultural approaches see conflict behaviour in terms of perceptions and images of the external world shared by cultures.

#### **Society and Conflict**

Conflict occurs in human interactions. It takes place within the context of the family, the community and the society. When the interests and needs of individuals or groups are not met by the family society, they use force to change the social and familial norms, thus leading to violent conflict. Therefore, socio-structural theories argue that the expression of conflict is dependent on factors outside the individual (external reasons) and not inside (aggression is not inherent). Societies are organized in hierarchies. Structural theories emphasize that the way society is organized creates the conditions for conflict. Unjust social structures play an important role in the creation and perpetuation of social conflicts for they favour some groups of people/communities over others. This leads to violent conflict.

- i. Albert Bandura opined that familial settings, sub-cultural context and symbolic modeling are three primary sources of human aggression.
  - (a) Social learning for human beings takes place initially within the family. If constant infighting is a feature in a family setting then children learn

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that behaviour. Children from such families are most likely to get into conflicts all the time. Thus violent offspring are a product of violent families. American psychiatrist, James Gilligan, too is of the opinion that childhood abuse creates violent personalities. Gilligan researched on 'criminals' living in American prisons and found out that most of them had had a brutal childhood; they had been either sexually assaulted or prostituted or beaten or neglected to a life-threatening degree by their parents or had faced a combination of these.

- (b) Sub-cultures are an important source of social learning. Bandura contends that sub-cultures where aggressiveness is valued as an attribute are likely to produce high rates of aggressive behaviour. However, he also believes that all people raised in a violent sub-culture may not necessarily end up being violent.
- (c) Symbolic resources such as television are also a major source of social learning especially for the youth. Visuals from the television mainly those pertaining to violence have a powerful impact on them.
- (ii) The non-fulfillment of basic human needs is yet another cause of conflict. John Burton propounded the basic human needs theory. Needs in this context mainly refer to basic human requirements needed for the continuation and propagation of life—material (food, shelter, health care, employment leading to freedom from want), cultural (right to religion, language) and social needs (respect and dignity leading to freedom from fear). Moreover, the need for safety and security is also extremely important. These are non-negotiable and universal needs and their fulfillment is critical for the development of humans and for social stability. Protracted social conflicts thus can be resolved only by satisfying these basic human needs. But these needs have to be satisfied within the social context and not outside it. When these basic needs are not met in socially accepted ways, individuals and communities take recourse to violence.
- (iii) Gandhi was of the opinion that conflict is the result of structural denial of human needs. Human needs could be satisfied by creating new structures.
- (iv) Critical social theorists mainly feminists and post-structuralists give importance to social discourse. Our language and social practices give rise to exclusive identities (us versus them, insider versus outsider).
- (v) Karl Marx situated conflict in the way the economic structure was organized in the society. In his class conflict theory, he maintains that social structures reflect the material reality of society. Economic determinism dominates over politics in the development of historical materialism. Marx believes that those who control the means of production, also control the social structure. Since capitalists control the means of production, they also wield power over

social structures. These capitalists are always unjust towards the working class. This gives rise to conflicts between the capitalists and the working class.

- (vi) Antonio Gramsci, a neo-Marxist, rejected the excessive emphasis on economic determinism and replaced it with 'ideological hegemony'. Control over the means of production coupled with the ideas that are propagated by the ruling class serve their interests. 'Ideological hegemony' encompasses values, attitudes, beliefs, cultural norms and legal precepts. When this ideological hegemony of the ruling class is challenged by the masses, it gives rise to conflict.
- (vii) Violence is in-built into structures. In his structural violence theory, Johan Galtung emphasizes that violence is built into unjust, unrepresentative and unequal social structures. Social systems, institutions and structures deprive some people of their rights and freedoms and deny them the ability to satisfy their basic human needs. This leads to discrimination between groups, communities and nations. In extreme cases, the discrimination can threaten the lives and livelihoods of people and prevent them from realizing their full potential.

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### 4.3.3 Sources of Conflict

Having taken a look at the causes of conflicts and theoretical explanations for the same, we will now explore the specific sources of conflict. Conflicts arise from one or several of the following sources:

#### **Information**

Lack of information, having only part of the information, or not having the same information or being misinformed can lead to conflicts. Rumours or misinformation play a major role in instigating communal riots. Even if parties have the same information, they may interpret it very differently or may attach differing levels of importance to it. This could give rise to conflicts.

#### **Miscommunication**

Keeping the channels of communication open and using good communication skills is essential for conflict resolution. However, the lack of communication or ineffective communication or miscommunication could be a source of conflict, even if there are no real incompatibilities between the parties. If one is unable to communicate one's viewpoint respectfully, it gives rise to anger and hurt, which further fuels the conflict. In situations of miscommunication, the clarification of facts and the differing perceptions about the facts are important for conflict resolution. Prejudices, stereotypes and biases may be the sources for differing perceptions. Even if the conflict is a result of differing perceptions, people involved in it experience it as real.

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### **Resources**

Material resources such as money, land, jewellery and other such identifiable and visible objects are sources of conflict. Many times it seems that the parties are fighting over a resource but the real cause of the conflict may lie elsewhere like in the need for respect.

Resource conflicts could take place not just between individuals and groups but also between states. During the 19th and 20th centuries, colonial powers competed with each other for resources. Gaining access to territories and maintaining control over them is another source of conflict between states. For this, states do take recourse to even military action, for example, the developed western powers undertaking extreme measures to maintain their access to oil supplies from the Middle Eastern region.

In contemporary times, there is a rapid rise in the demands for natural resources like land and water, owing to the increase in population and industrialization. Environmental degradation has further put pressures on land and water resources. However, resources are limited. Gandhi had rightly said that there are enough resources to satisfy the needs of human beings but not enough to satisfy their greed.

### **Relationships**

Relationships are a fact of human life. We share different kinds of relationships like family relationships, professional or organizational relationships, community relationships, etc. Relationships become a source of conflict when there are disagreements over various factors within them. Having disagreements are normal and unavoidable, for no two human beings see and do things entirely the same way. But when these disagreements occur frequently and get further complicated with other issues they could lead to serious conflicts.

Interdependence adds another destructive dimension to relationships, for instance, a child may suffer all sorts of physical and emotional abuse by his/her parents but cannot do anything about it as s/he is entirely dependent on them for the fulfilment of his/her basic human needs. As a result, s/he continues to suffer abuse.

### **Interests and Needs**

Non-fulfilment of interests and needs of individuals, groups and communities can lead to conflicts. This may happen either in reality or may just be a perception. Conflicts usually take place when certain needs are not met including that of safety, security, respect and participation in social life, identity, culture and religion. When these needs are violated, it leads to structural violence. The needs for identity, respect and participation are at the root of conflicts that apparently seem to be a contest for material resources.

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### **Structures**

Structures refer to both social and organizational structures. They often determine who will have access to power and resources, who will be accorded respect and who will have the authority to take decisions. These factors result in conflict about structures or within structures, which mostly pertain to issues of justice and competing goals.

Some organizational structural conflicts can be resolved by making minor adjustments in the structure of the organization but most such conflicts have certain individuals, groups and communities benefitting out of it. These individuals, groups and communities would not like to change the status quo as it would harm them.

### **Power**

Power indicates authority, force, legitimacy or the ability to coerce. Power is related to conflict in the sense that conflict either is a result of search for power or the fear that it will be lost. However, it is difficult to count or quantify power. Power is based on relationships in a particular context. It does not exist in a vacuum. Besides, the location or the need for power is determined by the resources. Power is thus related to resources as well.

Individuals, groups or nations could get into power conflicts when they want to maintain or maximise their power either in a relationship or in a social setting. Here the assumption is that one side is more powerful than the other 'power over' the other. This could lead to a power struggle wherein only one side would be victorious. The other perspective of power is – 'power with'. In this approach, both sides see themselves in an interdependent relationship – one cannot do things without the other. So power need not be a bad thing after all.

Power could be hard or soft. Hard power indicates the ability to enforce decisions while soft power is seen as the power to persuade, to cooperate, to inspire. One could thus relate hard power to 'power over' while soft power to 'power with'. Hard power dominates in violent conflict situations while peacemaking and peace-building requires soft power. In order to check the rise of conflicts, power must be tied up with accountability as then one would have to report to others and be prepared to be questioned by others.

### **Governance**

Governance relates to the way in which a society is governed, the way it distributes authority and resources and whether or not it is seen as legitimate by the society. It consists of the process to take decisions and implement them. In lay man's term, governance is what a 'government' does. Politics is the operative part of governance. Governance could be good or bad.

'Good governance' indicates the functioning of public institutions to manage resources and conduct public affairs that are necessary for the realization of human

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rights. Good governance has eight characteristics as per the United Nations—consensus-oriented, participatory, following Rule of Law, effective and efficient, accountable, transparent, responsive, equitable and inclusive. The eradication of poverty and hunger and working towards sustainable development require good governance. Good governance reduces the chances of violent conflict taking place.

Bad governance or governance where the legitimacy of the government is questioned and where the needs of the citizens are not fulfilled, may lead to social and political turmoil. If the demands continue to be ignored or such voices silenced, it can lead to violent conflict. In current times, most governance issues relate to political, economic and/or cultural autonomy, or representative forms of government or to the equitable distribution of resources.

### **Rights**

Human rights are a necessary precondition for individuals to lead a dignified and respectful life. The rights discourse has led to the development of three generations of rights. Civil and political rights consist of the right to life, liberty and freedom of opinion and expression. These are referred to as ‘first generation rights’. Economic, social and cultural rights entail right to basic necessities or human needs like food, shelter, health and education. These are known as ‘second generation rights’. The ‘third generation of rights pertain to the collective rights of minorities and marginalized groups.

Violation of rights is at the root of several conflicts. All citizens of a state may have been granted different rights by the constitution of their country but in reality they may not be accessible to the minorities, the marginalized and those that live on the periphery. This may give rise to violent conflict. In situations of structural violence, one must analyze the position of the various stakeholders and their perception with regard to rights and freedoms.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948; Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966; Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966; Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), 1979; Convention Against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1984; Convention on Rights of the Child, 1989 are some of the major human rights conventions. These have been instituted by the international community for the benefit and protection of social and other groups. States who signed on these conventions need to implement them in their respective countries.

### **Ideology**

Ideology is generally used in reference to the world of politics. Fascism, Nazism, and Marxism are a few examples of political ideologies. Political ideologies are based on fundamental beliefs about how society needs to be governed or how economy needs to be organized. The divide between the capitalist bloc and the communist bloc, popularly known as the Cold War, was one of the famous



ideological conflicts of the 20th century. The Cold War between the two blocs was played out by creating economic and military blocs and pursuing proxy wars against each other at the regional and global level. In 1991, the Cold War ended with the fragmentation of the former Soviet Union into smaller states. As a result, the communist bloc withered away.

## **Identity**

**Identity** is the sense of self and how one sees the self in relation to the world. It is one of the basic human needs as it provides meaning, a sense of security and predictability to individuals and groups within a particular social context. When people's notion of 'who they are' is challenged, they feel threatened. In the post-Cold War era, people are more likely to be asked about 'who they are' rather than 'what is their ideology'. Increasingly, people are becoming conscious about their socio-cultural identity. They are aligning themselves around identity markers like religion, language and ethnicity and are asserting themselves. In doing so, they are also rejecting alien, distant and majoritarian rule and demanding to be ruled by their own kind. Thus with the rise in identity consciousness, markers of identity are increasingly becoming the fault lines for conflict.

As human beings we possess multiple identities. We have gender, ethnic, religious, or racial identities. We can also have narrow identities like belonging to a single family. Identities can be inclusive as well as exclusive in their composition. Depending on the context and situation, we can change our identity or take up new identities. Also there can be compatibility between two identities, for example, one can identify simultaneously with both Assam (one's state) and India (one's country).

Identities can also compete with each other. In the case of former Yugoslavia, people felt pride in standing up to the Soviet Union in 1948 and crafting a new economic system on their own. This sense of pride and of Yugoslav identity continued in the 1950s and 1960s. But by the 1990s, people started giving more credence to their Serb, Croat, Slovene, Muslim and Bosnian identity in comparison to their Yugoslav identity. This sense of separation and being different from other ethnicities was exploited by certain leaders who instigated their ethnic groups against their rivals. This led to large-scale killings and ethnic cleansing. A process of disintegration started and Yugoslavia was divided into smaller states: Serbia and Montenegro, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Presently, ethnicity is seen as one of the critical underlying causes of most ongoing conflicts in the world. This seems to suggest that ethnicity is the main cause of the conflict. However, it must be emphasized here that in these so called 'ethnic conflicts', ethnicity has been used by leaders and movements as a point to rally people or to mobilize their support. These ethnic groups first feel some sort of a threat or fear or insecurity or all of them together. Leaders, groups and movements then offer them safety. This is how they manage to get the support of the general people.

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### **Culture**

Culture is a cultivated aspect of human life. It is not something we are born with. We learn and imbibe it from our family, community, school and media. Culture shapes our thought process and our perception of events around us; it determines our worldview, influences the way we act, and has an effect on our relationships with others. Given this background, it is imperative to understand the cultural contexts of contending parties especially when they belong to different cultures.

Some cultures propagate a culture of violence, wherein disputes and conflicts are resolved by taking recourse to violence. This culture of violence has to be replaced by a culture of peace. People need to be trained in it right from their childhood. Education for peace can play an important role in this context.

### **Religion**

The private and personal world of spirituality is referred to as religion. It is one of the markers of identity that claims distinct and exclusive groups for those who believe in that faith, thus becoming one of the potential sources of conflict. Religious beliefs could also become an inspiration for political action; these could be used by selfish leaders for narrow political ends. Besides, religious scriptures have been interpreted and misinterpreted at various points in history to justify cultural violence such as subordination of women, war, racism, slavery etc.

The post-Cold War phase has been witness to a surge in fundamentalist elements although conflict between religions is not new; it has occurred throughout human history. Fundamentalists are no longer confined to their places of worship; they have tried to widen their sphere of influence and have moved into the domain of the state and the society. This has led to the escalation of conflicts at four different levels: between religions, between moderate and radical elements within the religion, between religion and the state, and between religion and the society at large. Nevertheless, it is pertinent to point out here that religion is not always a source of conflict; it can also be a resource of conflict resolution and building peace.

### **Values**

Values are beliefs that are dear to people, shape their identity and faith perspectives and also give meaning to their lives. Values like honesty are often perceived as part of one's identity. When these values are challenged or when there is incompatibility in principles and practices that people believe in, it feels as if their identity itself has been challenged. This can lead to value conflicts. This complexity makes value conflicts the most difficult to resolve as people presume that resolving it would entail changing their value system.

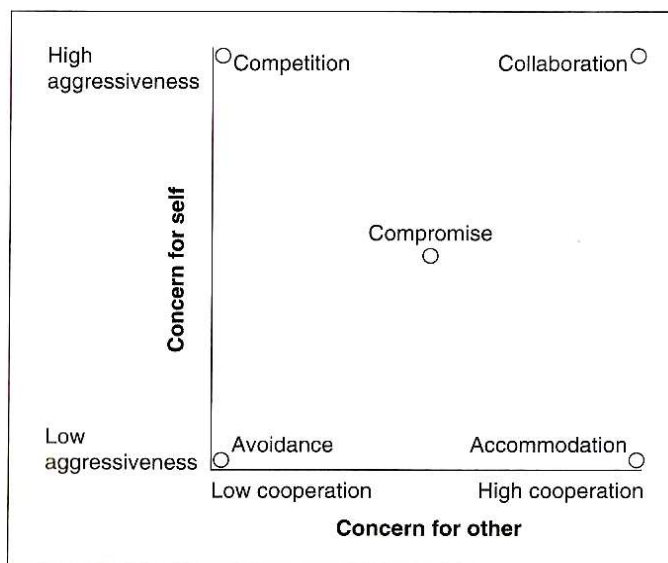
#### **4.3.4 Conflict Styles**

When faced with conflict, we have the *choice* of either avoiding it or engaging with it. This choice leads to five styles of responding to conflict—avoidance,

accommodation, competition, compromise and collaboration (Figure 4.1). Styles are patterned responses. All of us have a style or way of doing or responding to conflict.

When we *avoid* a conflict, we have low concern for our needs as well as that of the others. When we *accommodate*, we have a low level of concern for ourselves but a high level of concern for others (we give them what they want.). Competition is the opposite of accommodation – we are highly concerned for ourselves but have a low level of concern for the others. When we compromise, we opt for the middle ground, wherein we have moderate degrees of concern for self and concern for other. When we factor in both our concerns as well as the concern of others, it leads to collaboration. By cooperating with each other, it is possible to negotiate constructive outcomes wherein one can attain personal goals as well as maintain positive relationships. Except for the last one, the other four options rarely benefit individuals who are in long-term relationships with each other, such as in families, in schools, or at work situations.

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**Fig. 4.1** Means of Responding to Conflict

**Source:** Wilmot, William. W. & Hocker, Joyce L., *Interpersonal Conflict*, New York: McGraw Hill, New York, 2001, p. 131.

Each of the above mentioned styles of responding to conflict has advantages as well as disadvantages but these are not measures of one's personality. We need to be cautious about over-interpreting these styles—we might change our style according to the situation, or according to the person we are in conflict with, or to appear socially acceptable—we are thus capable of choosing a different style when it is appropriate. So while one might have a competitive style, one can choose to compromise in a conflict situation.

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### 4.3.5 Stages of Conflict

Conflicts pass through different stages and also change over a period of time. They pass through five different stages – pre-conflict, confrontation, crisis, outcome and post-conflict. The first stage is pre-conflict wherein there is incompatibility and tension between the parties but the conflict is latent. The next stage is that of confrontation where relations between the parties become strained, leading to divisions and polarization. The conflict is no longer hidden. This stage may witness low levels of violence. Besides, here parties are likely to start collecting resources and finding and getting in touch with allies. The stage of crisis is reached when the conflict reaches its peak point. There is tension all round, violence is all pervasive, there is no communication between the parties and accusations are hurled at each other. The crisis will lead to some sort of an outcome – one side emerging victorious and the other losing, or one side surrendering or there might be a cessation of hostilities or the parties agreeing to negotiate or a third party forcing the parties to end the violence. Consequent to one of these outcomes, the levels of tension and violence go down as some sort of a settlement is in sight. Post-conflict there would be further reduction in tensions, the violent situation is likely to end and normal relationships are likely to begin. However, if the core issues of the conflict are not adequately addressed, another cycle of conflict could begin or it could lead to another pre-conflict stage.

The above mentioned stages generally occur in the linear order but there may be variations as each conflict is unique and has its own dynamics. However, some conflicts are likely to get caught in a cycle of confrontation and outcome and never reach the outcome stage. In such scenarios, negotiations between the parties constantly breaks down and violence resumes. Here, the challenge for conflict resolution personnel is to support the peace process in a way that it reaches the peaceful stage; they should not let the negotiations lapse into open confrontation.

#### Check Your Progress

5. What do you mean by overt conflict and latent conflict?
6. Mention the five styles of responding to conflict.

### 4.4 SPECIFIC CONFLICT RESOLUTION APPROACHES: NEGOTIATION, MEDIATION, CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION AND ADJUDICATION

In conflict management, it is assumed that conflict follows patterns and evolves in ways that can be anticipated. Based on this anticipation, strategies can be designed and interventions made. Thus simply speaking, **conflict management** consists of efforts and approaches to limit, lessen and contain violent conflict. Conflict

management includes strategies to prevent conflicts from escalating into full-blown violence. Violence can be limited and avoided in the future by initiating and promoting positive behavioural changes among individuals and groups.

Conflict management strategies can be official or unofficial. Its methods range from passively avoiding conflict to actively engaging with it through ‘inaction, informal discussion, negotiation, mediation, arbitration, administrative rules, judicial decision, legislative vote, nonviolent protest, and other direct action.’ The official or formal processes have the backing of the administration and the prevailing laws while the unofficial or informal methods center on trust, cooperation and goodwill between the disputants. Inaction indicates avoidance; while on the one hand it shows less assertiveness, it also indicates low cooperation. Unofficial management strategies cover ‘informal meetings through back channels of communication as well as unofficial contacts through intermediaries.’ As part of official diplomacy, governments could dispatch special envoys for purposes of engaging the other party in negotiations. Fact-finding missions, a formal mechanism, could be sent to investigate human rights violations and to examine contravention of ceasefire agreements.

Good offices, conciliation and mediation are some of the other formal management strategies. When parties want to avoid direct contact with their adversaries but are interested in resolving the dispute between them, good offices can be used. In some situations, the parties do not even recognize the legitimacy of the other. Here the services of a third party are undertaken, who helps the parties to communicate with each other but does not discuss the substantive issues nor do they suggest any compromise. Communication between the parties is done through shuttle diplomacy. The third party meets each side separately and carries messages back and forth between them.

Conciliation involves the services of an intermediary who helps the parties have a dialogue between them. It is mostly used for settling legal issues which require an equitable outcome. However, parties exercise some control over the outcome as they are under no obligation to accept the formal proposals given by the conciliator. The conciliator can collect information from the parties as well as conduct its own investigation for framing the proposals. Conciliation is much more institutionalized and has a formal base in comparison to mediation, e.g., it is referred to in the European Convention for the Peaceful Settlement of Disputes (1957), the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) Convention on Conciliation and Arbitration (1992). Moreover, it is generally used in tandem with other settlement mechanisms such as fact-finding and arbitration.

Legislative votes and decisions often depend on the balance or imbalance of power between the various interest groups in a given context. When administrative rules, decisions and mechanisms fail to take care of the needs of the parties involved in a conflict, they could take recourse to nonviolent or violent protests. The strategies of discussion, negotiation and mediation mostly rely on establishing communication between the disputing parties, which helps in easing

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tensions and improving relationships. This helps in preparing a favourable environment for negotiations to take place.

The processes of negotiation, mediation, arbitration and adjudication are being briefly dealt with here in the context of management. The same will also be elaborated upon in the section on conflict resolution.

Negotiations can take place directly between the parties, or it could be held between representatives of the adversaries or it could be a facilitated process. In negotiations, adversaries arrive at an agreement on contentious issues through some sort of a compromise formula. Here parties make trade-offs or bargain on the basis of their priorities. Going for a compromise is a better deal in adversarial relationships in comparison to using economic sanctions or going in for a military solution. The parties need to feel that the compromise reached was the best result they could have achieved under the circumstances. In adversarial negotiations, parties emphasize on maximizing their gains, which leads to win-lose kind of solution – one party wins while the other loses. Here the involvement of a third party is often beneficial as it helps the parties to explore their common interests and come up with mutually satisfying solutions (win-win) by exchanging ideas and information. The third party's role is dependent on the kind of relationship it shares with the adversaries, how much of decision-making power it has in that particular situation, and the kind of responsibility it has been entrusted with.

The kind of communication required between adversaries would depend first on the nature of relationship between them and secondly on the source of conflict. In situations of simple disagreements between friends and allies, clarifying misperceptions and clearing out factual differences could lead to resolution. However, if the situation is that of hostage negotiation, direct communication cannot help as there is mistrust between the adversaries. Here confidential and indirect channel of communication would be more suitable.

The quality of communication plays a significant role in mediation as well. The mediator's 'capacity to convince, cajole, or induce a reluctant party' and change the perceptions of the adversaries helps in managing the conflict. The mediator explores mutually acceptable solutions but the ultimate decision rests with the parties. Mediation concentrates on the immediate problems but fails to look at the deeper sources of conflict.

Conflict management strategies such as arbitration and adjudication operate within the framework of laws and norms. The judicial system is a formal type of adjudication. Disputes between countries such as over territorial issues can be referred to the International Court of Justice. In arbitration and adjudication, there need not be direct communication between the contending parties. Verdicts of the third party, i.e., arbitrator or adjudicator are final and binding on the parties. If their verdict is not acceptable to one of the disputing parties, tension may keep on simmering. The outcomes here are again in the form of win-lose. These management strategies are suitable for fact-based disputes or issues where

legal rights are involved; they are not appropriate for value conflicts or socio-psychological issues.

When official channels of communication and negotiation are not functioning properly or are closed because of unavoidable reasons, unofficial or non-official channels such as citizens groups or prominent and respectable individuals can take initiative and help restore trust by talking to the other side. Through discussions, they can even come up with suggestions for resolving the issue and can forward the same to their respective governments. 'In 2006, unofficial contacts between Israeli and Syrian advocacy groups yielded an informal agreement on the conditions for the Israeli return of the Golan Heights to Syria.'

While traditional conflict management offers insights into the control and prevention of violence, it does not bring to the fore long-term concerns of justice, reconciliation and the need for social change. It fails to pay attention to the structural causes of conflict, believes in maintaining existing structures, systems and institutions, conforms to dominant social norms and preserves the status quo. 'Because those in power tend to interpret challenges to their authority in terms of enforcement of order, conflict management is largely seen in terms of social control designed to minimize the challenges to the core values of the system.'

Conflict management works on reducing tension and making the conflict bearable in the short term but since the structural causes remain unaddressed, it can take a serious turn later on and become protracted. Most of all, it includes the possibility of usage of force and other coercive measures and deterrent strategies such as threat and punishment. Nonviolent exponents criticize this aspect for they say that when force is employed to manage violent conflict, the cycle of violence continues unabated; the need is to check and stop the cycle of violence which cannot be done by using force.

With the development of the field of peace and conflict studies, some experts started using the term 'conflict management' as an umbrella term which suggested strategies for not just reducing but also eliminating violent conflict. As a broad umbrella term, it included two key ideas: conflict settlement and conflict resolution.

#### **4.4.1 Conflict Prevention**

The concept of prevention is inherent in conflict management. **Conflict prevention** means preemption and aversion of conflict escalation and violence. Instead of trying to mitigate conflicts when they become unmanageable, deliberate efforts need to be made and proactive measures taken to stop them from erupting at all. Getting involved in the conflict in earlier stages would not just help save human lives but also save money that is spent on distributing humanitarian aid, conducting humanitarian rescue operations and undertaking dangerous and politically sensitive peacekeeping missions.

Conflicts can be prevented at three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. The primary level is concerned with early warning, the secondary level deals with

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containment and mitigation and the tertiary level emphasizes on prevention of a recurrence of violent conflict. Early warning is about minimizing the possibility of the occurrence of a violent conflict. So before a dispute or a minor conflict turns into a full-blown violent conflict, proactive steps need to be undertaken. For this an understanding about the sources of conflict is imperative. Sources of the conflict can be understood by collecting information about the factors that give rise to conflict in a particular context. On the basis of the information collected, indicators, depending on the type of conflict, such as social, economic, political, environmental can be developed. These indicators need to be constantly monitored in order to give early warning about a dispute turning into a violent conflict. Some of the factors that could be monitored to give early warning are flow of refugees, sudden change in leadership, enactment of discriminatory laws, human rights violations, mobilizing non-state actors or rebel or insurgent groups, etc.

United Nations Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali advocated 'preventive diplomacy' in his famous 1992 report *An Agenda for Peace* defining it as 'action to prevent disputes from arising between parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflicts, and to limit the spread of the latter when they occur.' Preventive diplomacy thus includes three aspects: dispute prevention, violence avoidance and violence containment. Boutros-Ghali urged the international community to get involved in conflicts in the early stage and to initiate early warning systems and fact-finding missions, deploy peacekeeping forces, establish demilitarized zones and undertake confidence-building measures between the disputing parties.

Since the end of the Cold War, conflict prevention mechanisms and early warning systems have been developed by several multilateral organizations, for example, preventive diplomacy is one of the functions of the Peace and Security Council (PSC) of the African Union (AU). However, it's not that just governments, multilateral organizations and international organizations are now engaged in conflict prevention; non-governmental organizations (NGOs), civil society organizations (CSOs), community-based organizations, think tanks, and networks (of international and regional organizations, civil society and the private sector) too are working on early warning. The International Crisis Group, a non-governmental organization focuses on prevention and resolution of violent conflict. Its monthly *Crisis Watch* bulletin gives regular updates on potential conflict around the world as well as reports changes taking place in situations of conflict or in countries witnessing conflict. The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) works like a network in contributing towards warning about conflicts.

At the primary level, prevention strategies should concentrate on controlling the destructive behaviour and allaying fears and mistrust. Prevention at the secondary level should focus first on containing and limiting the spread of violence to other areas and then on lessening and decreasing the levels of violence in the particular area. Once the conflict starts, prevention may involve resorting to force to check the spread of violence. Peacekeeping forces can be deployed as a preventive



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mechanism. Then political intervention such as negotiation should be undertaken. Civilian peace monitors can be sent to the field to monitor the situation and report human rights violations. Humanitarian aid is another necessary step at this stage to alleviate the sufferings of the civilian population. At the tertiary level, prevention strategies should focus on problem-solving and alleviating the grievances of the masses. Thus on a continuum, approaches to conflict prevention can range from 'short term intervention such as peacekeeping or enforcement' to 'long-term security promotion (oriented toward the protection of human rights and economic well-being) and institutional change.'

Conflict prevention has been criticized for forestalling some of the good things that may emerge from conflicts such as addressing issues of injustice or bringing about much-needed social change in the socio-political realm. For instance, the Black leaders of South Africa did not want to prevent conflict during the apartheid era. They wanted to confront the discriminatory system by using violent and nonviolent means so that the injustices perpetrated by the apartheid regime could be highlighted, addressed and overcome.

Conflict should be expressed but in non-violent and constructive ways. So while conflict is inevitable, violence is avoidable and needs to be prevented. But the question is – do we human beings have the capacity to see the future? If we cannot foresee it, how can we prevent it? It is not humanly possible to predict actions of an individual, let alone predicting entire events. That is why governments and international organizations are reluctant to react to early warning for the fear that it may be a false alarm. Moreover, early warning predictions have not gone beyond predicting obvious trends. Also, in reality, early warning predictions need not always be objective; they can be biased as well.

The next problem is that giving early warning about a forthcoming situation can end up exacerbating it, instead of preventing the damage. These are unintended consequences but they will defeat the whole purpose of early warning. Moreover, early warning by itself does not mean much; one needs to respond to those warnings or act on those warnings. So who will be involved in these efforts and how resources will be pooled are critical questions? Political will and resources, both are necessary for responding to early warning signals. Critics are of the view that early warning and conflict prevention involves a lot of money; it is a costly affair. But the counter-argument is that if the huge amount of money and efforts that go into conducting humanitarian operations is taken into account, not to count the loss of human lives, pain, trauma and suffering that human beings have to go through in the wake of a violent conflict, conflict prevention would be less costly. Early warning and conflict prevention thus is no doubt necessary but there is a debate on the best ways and means of implementing it or making it operational – how to collect reliable information, how best to assess and analyse it, how to give out timely early warning, how to develop specific and actionable policy recommendations and how best to respond to it.

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### 4.4.2 Conflict Settlement

In cases of miscommunication, removing the misperceptions and factual differences between the disputing parties may be helpful in ending the dispute and disagreement between them. However, when social relations between them get soured and they are involved in direct hostilities, then mere clarification of misperceptions will not help solve the issue. This is where conflict settlement comes into the picture. It has a narrow focus and aims to end violent behaviour by reaching a ceasefire agreement or a peace agreement. It thus concentrates on diffusing the immediate crisis. **Conflict settlement** is a way of managing violent conflict, which emphasizes power and interests. Several of the strategies used in conflict management may thus be applied here as well.

Conflict settlement approach views conflict as an objective phenomenon, something that can be known and measured and are separate from the subject. Settlement here involves bargaining over objective issues such as resource scarcity. Thus the focus here is on substantive issues of conflict such as power-sharing, territorial sovereignty and economic control. Emphasis is placed on getting parties to the negotiating table, setting the agenda, strategies and tactics of mediators and negotiators, and reaching agreement which decides the future distribution of resources and power between parties. Settlement approaches can range from highly coercive such as use of threats, sanctions and arbitration to less coercive such as use of inducements and persuasion. Hence, in an inter-state conflict, the process of settlement ‘may combine threats and coercion with persuasion to break each other’s intransigent positions.’

Conflict settlement is a temporary solution achieved mostly via compromise. It, therefore, centers on maintaining the status quo in the political, social and economic realm. Ho-Won Jeong says, ‘The imposition of settlement terms by coercive bargaining may lead to short-term acceptance of the outcome. One of the protagonists may be forced to change its behaviour and strategies under favourable circumstances. Temporary behavioural change may not last long in the absence of the modification of an adversarial relationship. When fundamental goals (such as a quest for self-rule) remain unsatisfied, antagonistic relations may submerge but can eventually resurface.’ Owing to coercive measures such as threats, the less powerful party may concede its ground and agree to the other party’s demands, but this will not lead to changes in the attitude and the conflict will keep on festering. The aggrieved party will look for opportunities in the future to strike back or to get its grievances redressed when there is a shift in the power situation.

Conflict settlement approaches are critiqued for being embedded in power structures and being tied to maintaining those power structures. It is assumed here that conflicts are win-lose zero sum games where one side wins and the other loses. For John Burton, settlement involves the suppression of conflict ‘by coercive means, or by bargaining and negotiation in which relative power determines the

outcome.' It involves dealing with the symptoms of the problem, coping with them in a reactive, *ad hoc* way.

#### 4.4.3 Conflict Resolution

On a continuum of responses to conflict, avoidance is on one end and responding to it with violence is the other extreme. Instead of veering towards the two extremes, cultures, societies and communities have developed structured conflict resolution approaches to address actual and potential conflicts between individuals and groups.

**Conflict resolution** seeks to build new and lasting relationships by promoting mutually acceptable agreements between hostile groups through the usage of non-violent processes, approaches and tools, such as negotiation, mediation, dialogue, facilitation, and reconciliation. It aims at the satisfaction of basic human needs for it sees the non-fulfilment of basic human needs as the root cause of violent conflicts. Conflict resolution 'refers to a process of not only modifying and eventually ending a contentious struggle but also removing its sources. ....' Resolution thus seeks to address the deep-rooted causes of conflict and opens up space for facilitated non-violent solutions but the decision-making process here is not based on power. It is based on the satisfaction of basic human needs.

The normative framework of conflict resolution envisages conflict as a normal part of human interactions. A successful conflict resolution process is one that is productive and maximizes the potential for positive change at both the personal and structural level. The resolution strand perceives conflict as essentially a subjective phenomenon. Its resolution therefore must focus on subjective relationship between the parties and emphasize the improvement of communication and development of trust and cooperation between the hostile groups and individuals. It should involve analysis and reconstruction of perceptions of beliefs about, and attitudes towards, the other side.

Conflict resolution emphasizes on participatory processes and integrative solutions that will be within the control of the parties and which can be self-enforced. Normally this process would include but not be limited to getting both sides to listen to each other, providing opportunities for parties to understand and fulfill each side's needs, and finding the means to address both sides' interests to reach a mutually satisfactory outcome. 'Parties' here is a broad category and refers to all the stakeholders. It includes those directly involved in the conflict, those directly impacted by it and those who could be potentially impacted by it in the future as a result of the decisions taken regarding it. Narrow definitions of parties, limited to the ones directly involved or decision makers or power brokers, are insufficient because they ignore other parties who are powerful gatekeepers and who could block decisions or who, if excluded, may choose to start a conflict of their own.

Resolution requires the usage of participatory processes in which parties have both voice and vote. Third parties or intermediaries facilitate the process but

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the parties exercise control over both the development as well as selection of viable solutions. When powerful third parties impose and dictate solutions, conflict may be managed or even get settled but it rarely leads to the elimination of the root causes. Also it is possible to manage a conflict for the time being by addressing the symptoms but when attention is not paid to the underlying causes, there is no resolution. One can bargain over positions during the course of finalizing the agreement but there can be no bargaining over needs and these cannot and should not be sacrificed. The main factor in conflict resolution is coming up with creative and constructive integrative solutions. The parties directly involved in the conflict must have some, if not all, their needs met and interests satisfied.

Conflict resolution in John Paul Lederach's view gives the impression that conflict is bad and thus needs to be ended. It is not concerned with the deeply-embedded issues of structure, culture, and long-term relational aspects. Lederach says, '*...resolution* carried with it a danger of co-optation, an attempt to get rid of conflict when people were raising important and legitimate issues. It was not clear that *resolution* left room for advocacy....quick solutions to deep social-political problems usually meant lots of good words but no real change.'

Resolution processes tend to be embedded in power structures. They have failed to recognize how power can be used to silence individuals and groups. Besides, some people opine that conflict should not be resolved but rather escalated if structural injustices are to be highlighted. These should subsequently be transformed. Also, in a protracted conflict, 'it is not always clear how to predict when resolution can be achieved. In addition, questions linger as to whether agreement on contentious issues at hand is sufficient to prevent future hostilities.' Both settlement and resolution approaches have been criticized for ignoring the voices of the masses and focusing on the elites, either intellectual or political or both. They are also perceived to be culturally bound and more appropriate for dealing with conflicts in the western societies rather than those of the oriental societies. Moreover, both settlement and resolution have limited understandings of success.

Conflict resolution does not necessarily mean the presence and inclusion of peace values such as justice and integration. Depending on the situation, these values may or may not be a part of resolution. Also resolution does not denote complete disarmament. Yet another danger is that conflict resolution processes may grant certain privileges to armed parties, who caused pain and destruction during the course of the conflict, while overlooking the interests of others. This is likely to lead to another conflict in the future. An additional problem is how to best address the issues of war crimes, committed during the course of the conflict? Conflict resolution processes in the post-Cold War era have started paying heed to this concern in peace agreements but it is generally in the form of amnesty for the leaders and administrative, police and military personnel, who may have committed war crimes. However, this is generally not acceptable to the international community. There is thus a dilemma with regard to punishing people responsible

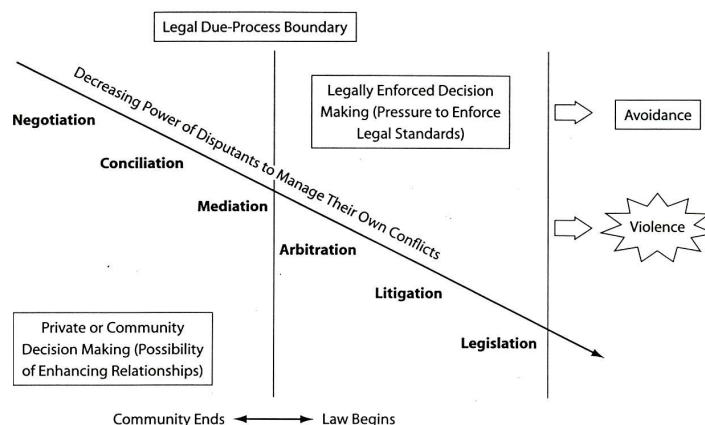
for war crimes, for if there is a lurking fear of punishment, parties may not want be willing to go in for agreements that endanger their lives, thus prolonging the conflict. Conflict resolution still needs to find a way out to this debatable issue.

## I. Western Approaches

Western approaches to conflict resolution involve an intermediary or a third party. Individuals, organizations or nations, any of those could play the role of an intermediary. Heidi Burgess delineates intermediaries as those who enter a conflict with the purpose of helping disputing parties to de-escalate or resolve it. The roles of the intermediaries could range from active to passive depending on the conflict situation and the kind of help required by the contending parties. Initially, the parties may choose to have a *discussion* between them on the core issues without involving or seeking the help of an intermediary. They may choose to opt for one-on-one *negotiation* if simple discussion does not yield results. In case the parties are unable to resolve the issues between them, the next option is take the help of an intermediary.

The intermediary or third party can play different roles depending on the context of the conflict, the stage it is in and the role it is expected to play. In *conciliation*, the intermediary needs to focus on the limited role of reducing hostilities. Compared to conciliation, the role of the third party is much more active in *mediation*. The mediator explores options and negotiates a settlement but the responsibility for making the decisions ultimately rests with the contending parties. Here the parties exercise control over the outcome. But in the processes of *adjudication* and *arbitration*, decisions are imposed. The arbitrator decides right and wrong and enforces the decision. Adjudication is a kind of arbitration, where issues are settled by the judiciary as per the laws of the land. If none of these processes are able to address the grievances of the contending parties, they can go in for litigation.

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**Fig. 4.2** Various Stages of Dispute Management

**Source:** Fisher, Simon *et al.*: *Working with Conflict - Skills and Strategies for Action*, Zed Books & Responding to Conflict, New York, 2000, p.18.

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Figure 4.2 above explains how the power of the contending parties to manage their own conflict and have a say in its outcome decreases as they move from negotiation towards litigation. Negotiation and mediation focus on individual and community decision making, which is likely to enhance relationship between the parties. Decisions are legally-enforced in arbitration, adjudication and litigation. In the latter three processes, the law takes over and the decision-making role of the individual and the community becomes negligible. Thus, the conflicting groups and individuals have less control over the solutions in arbitration, adjudication and litigation in comparison to the processes of negotiation, and mediation.

There are various approaches to negotiation and mediation. In Western societies, the mechanisms of negotiation and mediation have been in existence since early history. However, these were institutionalized as means of resolving inter-state conflicts only in the 20th century. The Western approaches to negotiation and mediation distinguish between formal and informal actors. The formal actors work at the state level and comprise of governments or international or regional organizations. The informal actors work at the civil society level and consist of international or local non-governmental organizations such as research institutes, religious institutions, academics, think tanks, former government officers, and individuals. The state level negotiators and mediators are also referred to as Track I while the civil society actors are known as Track II. Track I mostly utilizes traditional diplomacy while the Track II people use a variety of approaches for mediation and negotiation.

When states employ traditional diplomacy, they have an outcome-oriented approach. In this approach, emphasis is laid on identifying the representative leaders of the conflicting parties and bringing them to the negotiation table or mediating a ceasefire or a peace accord, as the case may be. The outcome-oriented approach has been instrumental in bringing several wars to an end. However, it focuses only on the top leadership and fails to pay attention to the structural causes of conflict.

Power mediation is a form of outcome-oriented approach but there is a likelihood of power being used here; the usage of force is an option as well. The concept of ripeness developed by William Zartman is associated with power mediation. 'Ripeness' is basically seen in terms of the timing of the negotiation. When parties feel that there is no way they can get their demands fulfilled and that the continuance of the conflict is proving to be costly, they agree to negotiate in order to get out of the sticky situation. This is the 'ripe' moment. A conflict is ripe for resolution when a mutually hurting stalemate is reached, so third parties should wait for this stalemate to emerge. In a hurting stalemate situation, neither of the two parties is in a position to win the conflict, nor are they in a position to continue it; continuing the conflict will prove to be a costly and harmful affair. They are thus in mutual pain and there is 'no end in sight'. In such a situation, parties are willing to consider alternatives and are agreeable to go in for negotiated and mediated solutions. In power mediation, intermediaries can use 'carrots' and sticks', which are a combination of rewards or incentives and threat of punishment. Rewards

could be in the form of financial aid while military or financial threat could be used as punishment.

In informal or non-official mediation, the intermediaries are non-directive; they do not dictate terms and conditions to the disputing parties. Track II mediators in fact try to empower the contending parties so that they can find their own solutions to the conflict and rebuild their damaged relationships. Informal approaches thus tend to be long-term.

Problem-solving workshop is one of the popular approaches used at the Track II level. These are also known as analytical problem-solving approach or interactive problem-solving approach. This approach uses socio-psychological analysis to identify the unmet basic human needs such as identity or security that undergird conflict. Once the needs are identified, participants try to develop approaches for restructuring their societies in a way that meets the needs of all the parties simultaneously. The problem-solving workshops thus endeavor to improve the relationship between the contending parties by getting to the fundamental sources of conflict. This is done by having a series of workshops with the same participants and facilitators cum mediators. The participants usually comprise of unofficial representatives of the conflicting parties who have access to the top leadership of their respective countries. Track II people can afford to take risks and also think creatively in comparison to Track I actors who are locked in positions and are always under pressure to maintain their publicly stated stance. The mediators here are usually a team of academic professionals with conflict resolution expertise or regional or technical expertise. These Track II discussions can pave the way for future negotiations. State actors are critical of the problem-solving approach for they are too long-term oriented and thus unable to end wars.

Track I and Track II both make significant contributions to conflict resolution. Thus an effort was made to integrate the positive aspects of both these approaches. This led to the complementary approach which tries to identify appropriate actors and approaches for different stages of the conflict. Ronald Fisher and Loreleigh Keashly developed a contingency model which focuses on the need to adopt right approaches at the right time so as to positively impact conflict – relationship-oriented approach in the pre-negotiation stage, power mediation in the escalation phase and then again relationship-oriented approaches in the post-peace accord phase. Jacob Bercovitch and Jeffrey Rubin developed an approach similar to that of Fisher and Keashly but they emphasized on actors rather than approaches. Different kinds of actors need to intervene during different stages of the conflict, for instance a powerful third party is needed when the conflict escalates.

Transformation-oriented approaches aim to transform destructive conflicts into constructive and peaceful conflicts. A comprehensive transformation-oriented approach was developed by John Paul Lederach who divided the society into three levels – the top leadership, the middle-range and the grassroots. Different kinds of strategies need to be applied at different levels. Single mediators and outcome-oriented approach are used at the top level. Problem-solving workshops,

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peace commissions and ‘insider partial’ teams can be employed at the middle level and various kinds of mediation strategies such as local peace commissions can be utilized at the grassroots level. An insider partial is an intermediary from the conflict setting who as a prominent individual is trusted by one of the contending parties but who provides balance to the mediation effort when teamed up with another mediator.

### **Negotiation**

‘Negotiation can be defined as a process to resolve difference in goals that arise from dissimilar interests and perspectives’. Here parties try to come to an agreement by sharing information, establishing common ground and exchanging concessions. There are two perspectives in negotiation – adversarial or distributive and problem-solving or integrative. The adversarial perspective leads to a win-lose outcome (one party loses while the other wins) as parties see each other as ‘adversaries’ and try to maximize their gains. In the integrative approach, parties try to solve the problem jointly and come up with a creative solution wherein both the sides will gain something – a win-win situation. The collaborative problem-solving perspective is comparatively a better choice especially for those situations where parties are interested in maintaining their relationship in the future or have a shared future.

Negotiation comprises several steps. Before the formal negotiation, some initial planning and preparation is required. This would involve showing some commitment to the process of negotiation and finding out about the facts or information relating to the particular conflict. A pre-negotiation discussion could take place – this would be an informal talk for assessing the issues of the conflict and prioritizing them (which issue should be discussed first and what will come after that), framing the agenda for the formal negotiation (what will be discussed and what will not be discussed), getting some sense of the common interests and the real or perceived differences in goals and identifying a ‘minimally acceptable agreement’. Here the venue, the time and the structure of the negotiation as well as the size and composition of the negotiating teams is also finalized.

In formal negotiations, a favourable and amiable environment where the participants can feel safe, physically and psychologically, is necessary. Initially, the participants share information about the conflict and clarify the issues. They may also choose to express their feelings and their grievances. Then the parties make their positions (what they want) known and collectively analyse the conflict. The analysis includes the exploration of each party’s interests (what we really want) and needs (what we must have). In the initial stages, the parties stick to their stated positions and also attack each other’s positions but as the negotiation moves ahead, they shift from position to interests and finally to the needs. While moving from the problem to the solution stage, they parties invent a range of viable options and try to find a common ground that will be acceptable to both the sides and will be mutually beneficial. But if the issues are complicated, finding one agreeable solution may not be easy. ‘In a tumultuous bargaining process, parties grudgingly



make concessions before turning to compromise.' Finally, the parties may choose to come up with a formal agreement which defines the specifics of the settlement agreed upon and their respective commitments.

Roger Fisher and William Ury in their book *Getting to Yes* recommend 'principled negotiation' instead of 'positional bargaining'. In 'positional bargaining' opponent's attack each other's positions while in 'principled negotiation', parties focus on mutual gains and on generating options; in doing so they shift from position to interest and interest to needs. 'Principled negotiation' is based on seven elements: relationship, communication, interests, options, legitimacy, alternatives and commitment.

Negotiation should focus on maintaining long-term positive relationship between the parties. For this, it is essential to separate the people from the problem and be hard on the problem but soft on the people. This would mean attacking the problem but treating the parties as humanely. Effective communication is vital for successful negotiations. This would involve listening closely and carefully, listening to the views as well as the feelings, and speaking respectfully and for oneself. In negotiation, parties should focus on interests and not positions. Parties can have rigid positions which can lead to deadlocks in negotiation but interests are less conflicted. In order to resolve the problem, parties should try to generate as many options as possible. However, the options should not be evaluated during the course of brainstorming.

Once the process of generating possible options is over, then each option should be carefully evaluated for pros and cons and whether they would lead to mutual gains. The option chosen by the parties or the solution must be based on some legitimate and objective criteria; it should be respectful of both the parties and not be tilted in favour of one and against the other. Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement (BATNA) is the next critical element of negotiation. This is the standard against which the proposed agreement should be measured. In case the negotiation fails and no agreement is reached between the parties, BATNA is the course of action or alternative strategy that the respective parties would adopt or have at their disposal. Parties can better their BATNA by increasing the number of alternatives and improving them. Simultaneously, they can consider the other party's BATNA and make it less attractive. The final element in negotiation is the commitments made by the parties. These commitments need to be realistic and there should be some sort of a monitoring mechanism in place to see that they are being executed.

## **Mediation**

Negotiations especially one-on-one can be complex and fragile and as a result may break down frequently. Here the parties can seek help from a third party or a mediator to resolve the conflict. According to Ho-Won Jeong, '....**mediation** is regarded as a process whereby a neutral third party, acceptable to all disputants, facilitates communication that enables parties to reach a negotiated settlement.' In

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some ways thus, mediation is the extension of negotiation by means of involving a third party.

In mediation, the impartial intermediary does not enjoy the power to make decisions on behalf of the parties. Mediation is a voluntary process and based on the consent of the parties; therefore, the process as well as the final decision needs to be acceptable to the parties. The presence of third parties however brings certain advantages to the process of mediation as they utilize 'their experience and expertise in controlling fear and reducing the stereotypes and prejudices of the disputants in tandem with the supply of alternative and additional information.'

Mediators may or may not be known to the parties. In western settings, mediators are generally unknown to the parties but in oriental settings a mediator may be known to both or one of the parties. The role of the mediator can vary depending on the conflict and what function they are supposed to perform. It can range from being very narrow wherein their task is limited to just supporting the communication between the parties by maintaining the ground rules to a slightly extended role where they suggest alternatives and also engage with the issues or content of the conflict to the more active role of guaranteeing 'the implementation of the agreement. . . by putting their own resources on the table.'

Mediation is not an institutionalized formal process and therefore there are no set rules regarding it; it differs from one setting and culture to another. However, it generally comprises of some groundwork and making the parties agree to come to the negotiating table. In terms of advance preparation, mediators need to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses and the positive and negative attributes of the co-mediator, in case there is one. They need to be aware of the power differences between the parties and also pay attention to the latent as well as overt issues. Generally, mediators should focus on mending the damaged relationships between the parties and transforming their adversarial relationship but if the disputants have no shared future then they need to direct their efforts towards managing the issues at hand and ending the conflict.

Mediation normally entails the following stages: creating conducive atmosphere for negotiation, facilitating communication between the parties which would involve giving them a chance to express their concerns and feelings, identifying the main issues between the parties, defining the problems between them, exploring possible solutions (if parties are unable to suggest options for resolution, mediator can make recommendations for the same), evaluating the options for solution, and formulating and finalizing mutually acceptable solutions. If the final solution is not acceptable to either or one of the parties, the mediator can propose a compromise formula.

### **Dialogue**

**Dialogue** is a medium through which differences between individuals and groups can be overcome. It is different from negotiation as it neither involves bargaining

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nor is it based on compromise. The main objective of dialogue ‘is to develop a framework to arrive at shared meaning and understanding along with the group ownership of the facilitative process and outcome.’ Dialogue thus entails learning from each other and discovering each other’s perspectives. The process of discovery may lead to the surfacing of fears, prejudices and stereotypes. These latent things need to be brought out into the open and discussed.

Participants in a dialogue need to feel safe – psychologically as well as physically. People will voice their opinions freely only when they feel safe. Appropriate communication skills need to be used during a dialogue – listening without prejudices and listening carefully, empathetically and respectfully. A dialogue is likely to go through several ups and downs; participants need to see them as part of the process rather than get frustrated and leave the process altogether. Additionally, participants in a dialogue need to approach it with an open mind and be prepared for and willing to accept the changes that will come about as a result of the experiences therein.

### **Facilitation**

**Facilitation** is a process whereby a group is helped by a third party to do one or a combination of these functions to the mutual satisfaction of the participants: complete a task, do problem-solving, arrive at an agreement, build an understanding about each other’s concerns, build solidarity and develop empathy. Here ‘group discussion is designed for a collective search for problem solving based on mutual understanding of the issues and sources of problems.’ Holding negotiations in situations of intractable conflict where parties refuse to talk to each other and are stuck in their positions is neither easy nor practical. Facilitated dialogues can help to break the ice in such settings.

Facilitation can be used for guiding different processes: problem-solving workshops, dialogues, forums, informal conferences etc. In its search for acceptable solutions and building and sustaining relationships, facilitation relies on the analysis of deep rooted causes that give rise to hostile relationships. This requires a lot of time and commitment on the part of the facilitator and the parties. Compared to an arbitrator or a mediator, a pure facilitator is responsible for conducting the process and not for the outcome.

To arrive at some sort of an understanding about a problem or a concern entails decision-making. Decision-making is at the heart of helping groups, communities and organizations to arrive at some understanding about an issue and resolve conflicts. People are more concerned about ‘how’ decisions are made rather than ‘what’ decision was made. The ‘how’ entails the process of decision-making. Decisions are generally made by voting. But people have different notions of voting, therefore it is pertinent to delineate and agree beforehand as to what percentage of vote will be necessary to pass a certain proposal. Groups could choose to decide things by simple majority or two-third majority or by consensus or unanimously. A decision reached by consensus is one which all the participants

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may not prefer but still agree to support. In conflict situations, a decision made by consensus would be ideal as people are not willing to be bound by a single decision. Collaborative decision-making is required to reach a consensus.

### **Skills for Negotiation, Mediation and Facilitation**

The intermediaries involved in the conflict resolution processes of negotiation, mediation and facilitation need to possess some critical skills. Effective communication is one of the most important skills needed for third parties. This would consist of active listening which includes listening empathetically, carefully and not just the spoken word but also the feelings. Active listening helps in building trust and rapport between the third parties and the disputants as well as among the disputants. Intermediaries need to be good at monitoring body language or the non-verbal behaviour, for people communicate a lot of things through it. Looking out for contradictions between the verbal and the non-verbal behaviour helps the third party to understand the responses of the disputing parties. Body language differs from one culture to another therefore, intermediaries should be aware of the culture of the participants and the body language of that particular culture.

Intermediaries also need to have the skill of paraphrasing and summarizing. They need to paraphrase after the speaker in order to communicate understanding of what was said. This helps to slow down the conversation and gives parties the time to think which is critical in a highly charged atmosphere. Summarizing the content of the discussion in between the sessions and after critical junctures helps to review the key points. It also keeps the process focused.

Problem-solving is a skill that all third parties need to have in their repertoire. They should know how to define a problem, how to help the parties analyse the problem, how to brainstorm and generate options for resolution, how to evaluate each option, how to narrow down options, how to help the parties choose the best course of action and finally how to develop an implementation mechanism. Apart from these, intermediaries need to be prepared to handle the difficulties and hurdles. These would include how to deal with deadlocks, how to deal with difficult people and how to handle emotional outbursts. Having a flexible approach and being able to move between problem-oriented activities to people-oriented activities (relationship aspect i.e. relationship between the parties) to process-oriented activities (how to go about the discussion e.g what agenda item should be taken up first and then what will come after that and so on) helps third parties deal with these hurdles. If there is a deadlock with regard to the problem then the third party should steer the discussion towards either the people or the process. Most of all, third parties need to be positive in their outlook and objective and fair in their dealings.

### **Arbitration**

Arbitration is a process where the arbitrator, an impartial intermediary, provides a decision to the contending parties. It can take different forms depending on the

nature of the case (public or private), the seriousness of the case (formal or informal), the will of the parties to go in for this kind of a settlement (did the parties willingly and freely chose to go in for arbitration or was it forced) and whether its decision is going to be binding (have the parties agreed to be bound by the arbitrator's decision or not).

As processes, arbitration and mediation may seem alike but there are certain distinguishing features between them. Both the processes involve an intermediary, are flexible and private but in mediation the ultimate responsibility of making decisions with regard to the solutions lie with the parties while in arbitration decisions are made by the arbitrator. Moreover, the decisions of the latter are generally authoritative.

### **Adjudication**

In adjudication, the judge is the arbitrator and issues are settled here via the court system. It operates within the formal framework of laws and rules and involves lawyers. This is an adversarial process that leaves the root causes unaddressed. Moreover, the parties have no role in choosing the adjudicator. Besides, this entails hiring lawyers which is expensive. However, if there is a power imbalance in negotiation, adjudication can be a better option as it 'can sometimes provide better opportunities for guaranteeing fairness.'

### **Reconciliation**

In simple terms, reconciliation means being able to overcome hatred and live alongside and coexist with former enemies so as to develop a minimum amount of cooperation and understanding that is necessary for a shared future. This would involve acknowledgement of guilt (the truth about the incident needs to be brought out in the open and offenders need to accept responsibilities for the wrongs committed), undoing the wrong as far as possible (providing justice to the victims through restitution and reparation of past injuries), forgiveness (sincere and genuine apology by offenders) and healing (empowering the survivors to overcome the psychological scars of loss, pain and trauma so that they can get on with life). Thus reconciliation helps societies to move from a divided past to a shared future by bringing about change in the relationship between the former adversaries. However, in practice, reconciliation is not an easy task as it takes time, is a long-drawn and sensitive process, requires balancing between the four main elements and involves complex questions such as who will be involved in this process, how to go about the process, when should it be undertaken and in what sequence, and what should be the pace of its proceedings.

## **II. Non-Western Approaches**

Traditional societies of Asia and Africa have evolved and developed their own conflict resolution mechanisms to deal with potential and real conflicts. Here we will briefly discuss some of those mechanisms.

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Rwanda has a *Gacaca* system, which is led by the elders, generally wise old men of the community. The elders lead discussions and put in place arrangements acceptable to the main protagonists. The Council of Notables or *Bushingantahe* is an important traditional system of resolving disputes in Burundi. The Council adjudicates local conflicts and helps families and individuals to reconcile. Several parts of India follow the *Panchayat* system or its variations. Here respected elders of the village help resolve community and inter-personal disputes. Several parts of Afghanistan and Pakistan follow the traditional *Jirga* system to deal with inter-personal and community conflicts. Here an assembly of elders takes decisions by consensus and enforces them.

The non-Western approaches to conflict resolution see conflict as a disruption of harmony in the society. Thus the aim of the conflict resolution mechanisms is to restore that harmony at any cost. For this, they can and usually do sacrifice individual rights and end up violating human rights of the citizens. These mechanisms are based on cultural traditions and insist on maintaining the same. However, these cultural norms may not be in harmony with the rules and laws of the state. Moreover, it may seem that they perform the resolution function in a dialogical manner but in reality most decisions are just imposed on the conflicting parties. Besides, the proceedings of these mechanisms are mostly controlled by socially and economically powerful people who end up marginalizing and victimizing the socially and economically weaker sections such as women and lower classes.

### **Satyagraha**

Satyagraha means ‘a relentless search for truth and a determination to reach the truth.’ This is a conflict resolution method conceived by Gandhi. It entails three basic approaches. The first one is cooperation with the opponent *as a person* (the actor) but noncooperation with his *role* (deed) in the social structure. Conflict is built into structures so these need to be systematically demolished but people need to be preserved. Secondly, cooperate with the opponents to that extent that it does not challenge the basic principles in any way. This would help in building relationships after the conflict is over. Finally, create new choices by synthesizing mutually agreeable aspects. These choices should be superior to the original positions of the parties and should aim at amending attitudes, reversing those behavioural patterns that result in polarization, and the removal of goal incompatibility. Gandhi opined that conflict was a result of structural denial of human needs and therefore conflict resolution or Satyagraha required the fulfilment of these needs by destroying need-denying structures, creating need-satisfying structures and respecting the needs of the disputants during the course of the struggle.

Gandhian Satyagraha does not intend to harm the opponent nor does it seek to impose a solution against their will; it aims to realize a creative and true relationship between the parties. Gandhi believed that appealing to the heart and

conscience of the opponent is far better than inflicting violence or pain on them. Thus Satyagraha is not to be used *against* someone but rather it is to be done *with* someone.

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## **4.5 COMMUNICATING AND PRACTICING FORGIVENESS**

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Forgiveness plays a very significant role in someone's life, especially within the most cherished relationships. Forgiveness offers both peace of mind and freedom; yet many choose to hold on to bitterness, resentment and pain. Lack of forgiveness lies at the centre of a lot of problems; learning to let go liberates one from the prison so that they can experience happiness. The well-being and health of a person is intimately connected to your contentment. Forgiveness is a gift to your own self, and not a present to someone else.

One of the reason why people hang on to a grudge is because they think that they are letting the other person off the hook without a punishment. However, in reality, they are actually letting go of the issue. Forgiveness is a present you give to yourself so that you no longer have to endure the suffering, so that you can discover peace and get a sense of closure. If you hold on to these grudges, you are more likely to have stressful, sleepless nights, and other get into unhealthy practices.

Going repeatedly over the same negative emotions will only prolong one's suffering. It is a waste of time and hampers productivity. By expressing yourself and specifying exactly how it affected you will help you to let go of the grudge, thereby relieving you of any negative view associated with it in your life.

A well-known model, put forward by psychologist Robert Enright, outlines four steps of forgiveness. The first step is to unearth your anger by finding out how you've avoided or tackled the emotion. The second step is to make the choice to forgive. Begin by acknowledging that coping with the offense hasn't worked, and hence forgiveness might offer a path forward. Next is to cultivate forgiveness by creating the feelings of compassion. Reflect on their intent. Finally, release the destructive emotions and see how you may have matured from forgiveness itself.

When something has happened to you because of someone else's actions, it is tough to amuse the notion of forgiving someone. One of the best methods to start the procedure is to identify your experience of the grudge. What are your authentic sensations, feelings, and thoughts around the circumstances? Most likely it will be heavy feelings and sadness, which you have fairly possibly played over and over in your head. It can help you to write it down, which will allow you to try to find out a new experience of the grievances so that you can liberate yourself once and for all.

Ask yourself, what part of your life it has had an impact? Has it stopped you from doing things from living the life you once had? How would your life

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change if you practiced forgiveness? Remember that what occurred in the past and the very fact people continue to hold on to these things will only be kept it with you in the future for as long as you let it.

### Check Your Progress

7. Define negotiation.
8. What is the main objective of dialogue?
9. What do you mean by facilitation?
10. What, according to psychologist Robert Enright, are the four steps of forgiveness?

## 4.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. ‘Sanctions, blockade, and military intervention’ are the tools of peace enforcement.
2. The concept of peacebuilding was introduced by Johan Galtung (1976).
3. Manuela Mesa Peinado identifies five major dimensions of the peacebuilding process: political and institutional; military and security; social; economic and environmental.
4. Peace journalism according to Johan Galtung has the following features:
  - It is peace/conflict-oriented;
  - It is truth-oriented;
  - It is people-oriented; and
  - It is solution-oriented.
5. An overt conflict is one that is visible and is expressed in action or words while conflicts that are not visible and are not expressed are termed as latent.
6. There are to five styles of responding to conflict—avoidance, accommodation, competition, compromise and collaboration.
7. ‘Negotiation can be defined as a process to resolve difference in goals that arise from dissimilar interests and perspectives’.
8. The main objective of dialogue ‘is to develop a framework to arrive at shared meaning and understanding along with the group ownership of the facilitative process and outcome.’
9. Facilitation is a process whereby a group is helped by a third party to do one or a combination of these functions to the mutual satisfaction of the



participants: complete a task, do problem-solving, arrive at an agreement, build an understanding about each other's concerns, build solidarity and develop empathy.

10. A well-known model, put forward by psychologist Robert Enright, outlines four steps of forgiveness. The first step is to unearth your anger by finding out how you've avoided or tackled the emotion. The second step is to make the choice to forgive. Begin by acknowledging that coping with the offense hasn't worked, and hence forgiveness might offer a path forward. Next is to cultivate forgiveness by creating the feelings of compassion. Reflect on their intent. Finally, release the destructive emotions and see how you may have matured from forgiveness itself.

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### 4.7 SUMMARY

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- Mediation is a process where a 'neutral' third-party assists the parties in reaching a settlement or in bringing about mutually acceptable solutions. On many occasions, these settlements or solutions are worked out through compromises and the mediator tries to make the parties accept these 'compromised solutions'.
- Human beings have utilized mediation as a conflict resolution mechanism for quite some time but in the post-Cold War phase 'third parties have been involved in conflict resolution as a normal state of affairs.'
- Parties can themselves arrange for a mediator without involving any country or any international organization. Sometimes, the third party can be from within the country. People enjoying some prestige and 'with particular status who can transcend the conflict divides, such as individuals with religious roles, retired statesmen or even businessmen' can take up mediation assignments.
- Mediator's influence depends on his prestige and the resources at his/her disposal. 'The degree of a mediator's power is often affected by his/her control of the means of inducing cooperation through rewards.' Both internal and external variables are a factor in the success or failure of mediations.
- Peacemaking refers to the 'diplomatic effort intended to move a violent conflict into nonviolent dialogue, where differences are settled through representative political institutions.'
- Peacemaking also refers 'to a stage of conflict, which occurs during a crisis or a prolonged conflict after diplomatic intervention has failed and before peacekeeping forces have had a chance to intervene.' Here peacemaking refers to 'intervention during armed combat'.
- Political and economic factors pose limitations to peacemaking when it involves outside intervention.

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- Peace enforcement is a ‘subsidiary concept’ within the broad field of peacemaking. It entails the threat of usage of force or the ‘active use of force’. ‘Sanctions, blockade, and military intervention’ are the tools of peace enforcement. The ‘mildest’ of the tools is sanctions.
- The concept of peacebuilding was introduced by Johan Galtung (1976). However, it came into the public lexicon only after Boutros Ghali’s *An Agenda for Peace*. Peacebuilding is a long-term process that comes after peacemaking and peacekeeping. As per the document *An Agenda for Peace*, Peacebuilding ‘consists of a wide range of activities associated with capacity building, reconciliation and societal transformation.’
- Post-conflict peacebuilding, undertaken after the end of violence, includes processes such as demobilization, reintegration and looking at immediate reconstruction needs. Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) are crucial parts of the reconstruction process. Manuela Mesa Peinado identifies five major dimensions of the peacebuilding process: political and institutional; military and security; social; economic and environmental.
- After the resolution of the conflict, it is essential to create an environment wherein negative feelings between the erstwhile parties are removed and peaceful relations are built between them. ‘Reconciliation means coming to terms with one’s old adversaries and creating new partnership.’ It includes changes in the attitude and behaviour of the former adversaries.
- Since peacebuilding is a comprehensive process involving all levels of the society, it requires the contribution of a range of actors. Government officials, conflict resolution professionals, nonviolence trainers, journalists, NGOs, academia, businesses, lawyers, educators, religious leaders, trauma healers, justice advocates, all have a role to play in the peacebuilding process.
- NGOs can play both positive and negative roles in conflict situations. Positively, they can help reduce conflict through their intervention while in negative terms their work can aggravate conflict further.
- The media can play an effective role in monitoring and evaluating the peace process. It can create conducive atmosphere for the peace talks by engaging in confidence-building. It can help allay and reduce the fears and concerns of the locals with regard to the peace process. It can educate the people about conflict resolution and reframe the issues of the conflict, so as to facilitate resolution.
- Conflicts can be overt or latent. An overt conflict is one that is visible and is expressed in action or words while conflicts that are not visible and are not expressed are termed as latent.
- People generally perceive conflict as something negative that needs to be avoided. But conflicts have certain positive aspects as well. When a conflict

is expressed (becomes overt), our attention shifts toward the prevailing social injustices like community conflicts, caste conflicts, religious conflicts, gender conflicts, class conflict etc.

- Interstate conflicts are those that take place between two or more states. Non-interstate conflicts include ideological, identity-based and factional conflicts. Ideological conflicts aim at changing the nature of the state, e.g., from capitalist system to socialist system, from dictatorship to democracy, or the religious orientation of the state, e.g., from secular to Islamic.
- Conflicts arise from multiple set of factors and causes. Causes of conflict could be divided into two – proximate and underlying. Proximate causes are the immediate trigger of a conflict while underlying causes are the long-term and root causes of a conflict.
- Conflicts arise from one or several of the following sources:
  - o Information
  - o Miscommunication
  - o Resources
  - o Relationships
  - o Interests and needs
  - o Power
  - o Rights
  - o Identity
  - o Culture
  - o Religion
- When faced with conflict, we have the *choice* of either avoiding it or engaging with it. This choice leads to five styles of responding to conflict—avoidance, accommodation, competition, compromise and collaboration.
- Conflicts pass through different stages and also change over a period of time. They pass through five different stages – pre-conflict, confrontation, crisis, outcome and post-conflict.
- Conflict management consists of efforts and approaches to limit, lessen and contain violent conflict. Conflict management includes strategies to prevent conflicts from escalating into full-blown violence.
- Negotiations can take place directly between the parties, or it could be held between representatives of the adversaries or it could be a facilitated process. In negotiations, adversaries arrive at an agreement on contentious issues through some sort of a compromise formula.
- The quality of communication plays a significant role in mediation as well. The mediator’s ‘capacity to convince, cajole, or induce a reluctant party’

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and change the perceptions of the adversaries helps in managing the conflict. The mediator explores mutually acceptable solutions but the ultimate decision rests with the parties. Mediation concentrates on the immediate problems but fails to look at the deeper sources of conflict.

- Conflict management strategies such as arbitration and adjudication operate within the framework of laws and norms. In arbitration and adjudication, there need not be direct communication between the contending parties. Verdicts of the third party, i.e., arbitrator or adjudicator are final and binding on the parties. If their verdict is not acceptable to one of the disputing parties, tension may keep on simmering.
- The concept of prevention is inherent in conflict management. Conflict prevention means preemption and aversion of conflict escalation and violence. Instead of trying to mitigate conflicts when they become unmanageable, deliberate efforts need to be made and proactive measures taken to stop them from erupting at all. Conflicts can be prevented at three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. Preventive diplomacy thus includes three aspects: dispute prevention, violence avoidance and violence containment.
- Conflict settlement is a way of managing violent conflict, which emphasizes power and interests. Conflict settlement approach views conflict as an objective phenomenon, something that can be known and measured and are separate from the subject.
- Conflict resolution seeks to build new and lasting relationships by promoting mutually acceptable agreements between hostile groups through the usage of non-violent processes, approaches and tools, such as negotiation, mediation, dialogue, facilitation, and reconciliation. It aims at the satisfaction of basic human needs for it sees the non-fulfilment of basic human needs as the root cause of violent conflicts.
- Western approaches to conflict resolution involve an intermediary or a third party. Individuals, organizations or nations, any of those could play the role of an intermediary. The roles of the intermediaries could range from active to passive depending on the conflict situation and the kind of help required by the contending parties.
- The Western approaches to negotiation and mediation distinguish between formal and informal actors. The formal actors work at the state level and comprise governments or international or regional organizations. The informal actors work at the civil society level and consist of international or local non-governmental organizations such as research institutes, religious institutions, academics, think tanks, former government officers, and individuals.
- ‘Negotiation can be defined as a process to resolve difference in goals that arise from dissimilar interests and perspectives’.

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- According to Ho-Won Jeong, ‘...mediation is regarded as a process whereby a neutral third party, acceptable to all disputants, facilitates communication that enables parties to reach a negotiated settlement.’
- Dialogue is a medium through which differences between individuals and groups can be overcome. It is different from negotiation as it neither involves bargaining nor is it based on compromise. The main objective of dialogue ‘is to develop a framework to arrive at shared meaning and understanding along with the group ownership of the facilitative process and outcome.’
- Facilitation is a process whereby a group is helped by a third party to do one or a combination of these functions to the mutual satisfaction of the participants: complete a task, do problem-solving, arrive at an agreement, build an understanding about each other’s concerns, build solidarity and develop empathy.
- Arbitration is a process where the arbitrator, an impartial intermediary, provides a decision to the contending parties. It can take different forms depending on the nature of the case (public or private), the seriousness of the case (formal or informal), the will of the parties to go in for this kind of a settlement (did the parties willingly and freely choose to go in for arbitration or was it forced) and whether its decision is going to be binding (have the parties agreed to be bound by the arbitrator’s decision or not).
- In adjudication, the judge is the arbitrator and issues are settled here via the court system. It operates within the formal framework of laws and rules and involves lawyers. This is an adversarial process that leaves the root causes unaddressed.
- The non-Western approaches to conflict resolution see conflict as a disruption of harmony in the society. Thus the aim of the conflict resolution mechanisms is to restore that harmony at any cost. For this, they can and usually do sacrifice individual rights and end up violating human rights of the citizens.
- Forgiveness plays a very significant role in someone’s life, especially within the most cherished relationships. Forgiveness offers both peace of mind and freedom; yet many choose to hold on to bitterness, resentment and pain. Lack of forgiveness lies at the centre of a lot of problems; learning to let go liberates one from the prison so that they can experience happiness.
- A well-known model, put forward by psychologist Robert Enright, outlines four steps of forgiveness. The first step is to unearth your anger by finding out how you’ve avoided or tackled the emotion. The second step is to make the choice to forgive. Begin by acknowledging that coping with the offense hasn’t worked, and hence forgiveness might offer a path forward. Next is to cultivate forgiveness by creating the feelings of compassion. Reflect on their intent. Finally, release the destructive emotions and see how you may have matured from forgiveness itself.

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### 4.8 KEY WORDS

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- **Mediation:** It is a process where a ‘neutral’ third-party assists the parties in reaching a settlement or in bringing about mutually acceptable solutions.
- **Peacemaking:** It refers to the ‘diplomatic effort intended to move a violent conflict into nonviolent dialogue, where differences are settled through representative political institutions.’
- **Conflict prevention:** It means preemption and aversion of conflict escalation and violence.
- **Dialogue:** It is a medium through which differences between individuals and groups can be overcome. The main objective of dialogue ‘is to develop a framework to arrive at shared meaning and understanding along with the group ownership of the facilitative process and outcome.’

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### 4.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by mediation?
2. Briefly mention the methods of peacemaking.
3. Write a short note on peace journalism.
4. What are the different types of conflict?
5. What do you mean by conflict prevention?
6. Write a short note on conflict settlement.

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss in detail the process of post-conflict peacemaking activity.
2. Explain the role of NGOs in peacebuilding.
3. Analyze the theories relating to the causes of conflict.
4. Examine the sources of conflict.
5. Discuss in detail the concept of conflict management.
6. Describe the process of conflict resolution.

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### 4.10 FURTHER READINGS

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*Intrapersonal and  
Interpersonal  
Perspectives of  
Non-Violence*

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## UNIT 5 ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

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### NOTES

#### Structure

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Objectives
- 5.2 Juvenile Delinquency: Meaning
  - 5.2.1 Causes and Factors
  - 5.2.2 Differences and Classification
  - 5.2.3 Prevention
- 5.3 Crime: Meaning
  - 5.3.1 Causes and Factors
  - 5.3.2 Differences and Classification
  - 5.3.3 Crime Prevention
- 5.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 Key Words
- 5.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 5.8 Further Readings

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### 5.0 INTRODUCTION

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Anti-social habits are behaviours that affect the well-being of others or lack empathy. It has also been described as any form of behaviour that violates another person's basic rights and is deemed detrimental to others in society. This can be achieved in many ways, including, but not limited to, deliberate provocation, as well as subtle and overt hostility. Anti-social behaviour also develops within the family and group through personal interaction. In this unit, we will study the meaning, causes, factors, classification, and prevention of juvenile delinquency and general crime.

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### 5.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning and causes of juvenile delinquency and general crime
- Describe the classification of juvenile delinquency and general crime
- Analyze the preventive measures for juvenile delinquency and general crime

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### 5.2 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY: MEANING

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Juvenile delinquency is the act of crime committed by a minor or any person younger than the legal age (18 years). It is the failure of these youths by exhibiting certain behaviour to not meet certain obligations expected of them from the society.



According to Walter Reckless (1957), delinquency means violation of the criminal code of conduct and pursuing certain patterns disapproved for the children. In India, juvenile delinquency is limited to the violation of the penal law of India under the jurisdiction of the juvenile court. Presently, Juvenile justice act 2015 is the law, which governs the standards for the juvenile who are at odds with the law and children who are in need of help from the law.

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### 5.2.1 Causes and Factors

Delinquency in children is caused due to various influencing factors of which the most influential factors tend to be a mixture of both genetic as well as environmental aspects. According to Laurence Steinberg's theory, the two most accurate predictor of juvenile delinquency happen to be parenting style and peer group interaction. Additionally, factors such as poor socioeconomic status, poor performance in schools, failure, and rejection from the peers might lead an adolescent on the path of juvenile delinquency like involvement in youth gangs. Desire for protection against violence and financial problems can also cause juvenile delinquency. These young offenders can view such activities as a way of gaining access to resources to guard against those threats.

#### Family environment

Family plays a huge role in a young adult's life shaping their views and beliefs, providing them support and comfort. This makes family quite important for the development of a child and consequently, their future choices. The family factors that may have an influence on delinquency include the level of supervision by the parents, the way parents instil discipline in their child, criminal activity by parents or siblings, parental neglect, abuse, parental conflict or separation and finally, the quality of the relationship between the child and the parent. Parenting style is one of the chief predictor of juvenile delinquency. There are four categories of parenting approaches, which describe the behaviours and attitudes that parents express while raising their children:

- First, there is the authoritative parenting, which is typically characterized by support and warmth for the children as well as discipline for the children.
- Secondly, there is the indulgent parenting, which is full of warmth and regard for their children, but there is a lack of discipline and structure.
- Thirdly, there is the authoritarian parenting, which is characterized by complete discipline and a general lack of warmth; it is often hostile with harsh punishment for the children when they do something wrong.
- Finally, there is the neglectful parenting, in which parents are non-responsive and make no demands from their children. The child does not get either affection from the parents or any disciplinary action.

Young adults with siblings who have committed a crime are more likely to get influenced by their siblings and become a delinquent, especially if the sibling is

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of the same gender, older, and preserves a good bond with the child. However, the vice-versa is quite rare. An aggressive more intimidating sibling is less likely to manipulate a younger sibling in the direction of delinquency, if anything, the more stressed the relationship between the siblings, the less they will wish for to be influenced by them. Children resulting from accidental pregnancies are more likely to display delinquent behaviour. They also experience mother-child relationship to be unfulfilling.

### **Peer influence**

Peer group, in which the child spends most time apart from their family, has a deep impact on their psyche. In fact, peer rejection in the childhood is a big predictor of juvenile delinquency. It is the rejection that can affect the child's ability to socialize properly and most often leads them into anti-social behaviour, along with a peer group whose members also have the same worldview. Association with that kind of peer group leads to promotion of violent, deviant and aggressive behaviour. Robert Vargas explains that the adolescents who have a choice between groups of friends are less likely to get into a peer group that could lead them to committing illegal acts. Hostile attribution bias, which is a bias that makes people interpret the actions of others as hostile, whether they be hostile or friendly, is more common in those adolescents who have been rejected by peers. Hence, they feel an impulse for aggression.

Conformity plays a fairly significant function in the vast impact that a peer group has on an individual. Once the juvenile becomes part of the group, they will be inclined to groupthink. It was ascertained in an experiment (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2013) in which participants were asked to be a part of a quiz and tell which of the following lines is closest in length to a given line. The researcher placed their own people among the participants, whose purpose was to first follow along and give all the right answers like the subject and then a few questions down the line they start to answer incorrectly and it was found that 76% of the participants conformed to the group and were influenced by their answers. Thus, such group thinking plays a significant role in making a child conform to the peer group, making them commit crimes.

### **School-to-Prison Pipeline**

Another common factor contributing to juvenile delinquency rates is School-to-Prison Pipeline (SPP). The School-to-Prison Pipeline is the process, in which juvenile from a disadvantaged background get pushed out of the schools and into prisons. No tolerance policies stress on harsh punishments for children with a history of deviant behaviour. The use of such punishments has often been linked to the rise in dropout from the schools. As Matthew Theriot opined increased severity of punishment and greater presence of law enforcement correlates to an increased number of students dropping out and ending up being delinquents.

## **Neurological factors**

Neurological indicators, which make it more likely for the adolescents to commit crimes and become delinquent are a general lack of intelligence, high impulsiveness, lack of empathy, lack of the ability to delay gratification, lack of emotional control, cruelty to animals, etc. These traits, if found in a child, can be significant predictors of delinquent behaviour in the future. Children with a fairly low intelligence are more likely to perform badly in schools leading to dropout. Impulsiveness in a child can be a great indicator of child's personality turning anti-social and more prone to delinquency. However, it cannot be said with certainty that these personality traits had developed due to social and environmental factors or due to deficits in the executive function of the brain. To ascertain that more research in the field is required.

## **Psychological factors**

Conduct Disorder (CD) is fairly common in juvenile delinquents, with about 16% young males and 9% young females affected from it. Conduct Disorder is basically when a certain pattern of behaviour shows up in teens and adolescents repeatedly in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate norms are violated. It can exist in various forms such as oppositional-defiant disorder or anti-social personality disorder. These disorders might not be necessarily aggressive, often might not lead to delinquent behaviour, but if a juvenile continues to display the same behavioural tendencies, then on growing up they are at a higher risk of being identified as having an anti-social personality disorder and a lot more are likely to become a severe serial criminal offender.

Career criminals start on by demonstrating anti-social behaviour prior to entering grade school and then they get into a range of destructive behaviours at exceptionally high rates. Quantitative research has demonstrated a trend among the habitual offenders. The trend pointed out that only 6% of the youth fits under the definition of a habitual offender and were responsible for 52% of the delinquency within the entire study. The same 6% of habitual offenders accounted for 71% of the homicides and 69% of the assaults. This occurrence was later researched among the adult population in 1977 and showed similar findings. S. A. Mednick did a birth cohort of 30,000 males and established that 1% of the males were to blame for more than a half of the illegal activity. The habitual crime behaviour found among juveniles is comparable to that of adults. As mentioned earlier most repeated offenders begin exhibiting anti-social and violent behaviour prior to adolescence. Therefore, while there is a high rate of juvenile delinquency, it is the small percentage of the criminals that are to be blamed for most of the violent crimes.

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## 5.2.2 Differences and Classification

The different categories of juvenile delinquency are discussed below:

- **Organized delinquency:** These delinquencies are committed by properly organized groups. The concept of ‘delinquent subculture’ was developed, which refers to the set of norms and values that guide the behaviour of group members encouraging the acts of delinquencies.
- **Individual delinquency:** The individual delinquency is simply when one individual is caught in committing a delinquent act and its reason lies with that individual only. Nearly all of the reasons of this delinquent behaviour is said to be caused by psychological problems primarily due to toxic family environment.
- **Situational delinquency:** Other delinquencies have been viewed as having deep roots. In individual delinquency (according to the psychogenic explanation), the source of delinquency lie chiefly within the individual, while in group-supported delinquencies, it is led by the support of the entire group. Situational delinquency offers a different perspective. Here, the hypothesis is that delinquency is not deeply rooted, and causes for delinquency and means for controlling it are often fairly simple. A young man commits delinquent acts without having a deep commitment to delinquency because of little to no impulse control, lesser family restraints, or because he/she has relatively little to lose even if caught.
- **Group-supported delinquency:** These delinquencies are committed in camaraderie with others and the reason is situated not in the traits of the individual or in the offender’s family but in the environment of the individual’s home and vicinity. The main concern is what the young delinquents learn and from whom they learn rather than the root of their motivation.

## 5.2.3 Prevention

Delinquency prevention is a fairly broad term for all the efforts aimed at helping youth avoid becoming involved in criminal, or other antisocial activities. Prevention may comprise of activities such as educational support, youth sheltering, substance abuse awareness and treatment, youth mentoring, parenting education, and family counselling. Promoting family services and increasing the ease of use of these services, including education and promoting the use of contraceptives helps to reduce unintended pregnancy, which are also among the risk factors for delinquency. Common preventative measures are given as follows:

- **Punishment:** One criminal justice approach to juvenile delinquency is through the juvenile court systems. These courts are specifically for minors

to be tried in. Sometimes, juvenile offenders are sent to adult prisons for serious crimes committed by them. As the focus of juvenile justice shifted to punishment, it affected the due procedure of law enforcement, court processes, probation, intervention programmes and correction programmes. There are special courts known as juvenile courts, they have a different approach than the regular courts, therefore, the degree of punishments and some law procedures also differ. Punishments are thought to curb repeat offences and allow people to improve. It tries to act as a deterrent, but their effectiveness as a deterrent has been debatable. Researchers compared kids who were sentenced to detention with those who didn't get sentenced for similar crimes. In these cases, the incarcerated youth were 13% less likely to graduate from high school and 22% more likely to return to prison than those who were sentenced to different punishments like home arrest.

- **Policies:** Education promotes economic growth, values of democracy, national productivity and innovation. Prevention through education has been seen to discourage delinquency in minors and help them in strengthening the connection and understanding with their peers, making them sympathetic to others. Feeling of empathy is one of the greatest factors in the prevention of delinquency in minors. Understanding other people leads to social cohesion. Policies by the government play a major role in this process of prevention. It is not just limited to educational policy, but also the School-to-Prison Pipeline as well as the actual punishment process is all just policies that can be tweaked to change the outcome for a child. As a reaction to the data related to the School-to-Prison Pipeline, some institutions have implemented restorative justice policies. The curative justice advances emphasize clash resolution and non-punitive interference. Interventions such as signing up more counsellors as opposed to defence professionals or focusing on discussing problems would be in-built in a restorative justice approach.
- **Juvenile reform:** Juvenile reform comprises of the educational programmes and vocational approach to reducing recidivism rates of juvenile delinquents. Most of the countries in the world legislate procedure for juvenile reform and re-entry to the society. In theory, juvenile re-entry into the education system is sensitive to the fact that juveniles are fairly young and thus, it assumes that they are capable of changing their ways; it moves towards a juvenile offender's situation and history holistically, assessing the earlier factors that could direct a juvenile to a life of crimes. In practice, this is fairly complicated since juvenile delinquents go back to home in varying and unpredictable conditions, including poverty, domestic violence, substance abuse, etc. These steps are crucial to creating an effective juvenile reform programme.

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- o **Early interference:** It refers to preventing juvenile youth from ever coming across the justice system by execution of conflict-resolution practices or administrative policies that aim to teach the child good actions to take in tricky situations. It is put into practice before any offense is committed and often entails a thorough discussion of what personality issues a child is dealing with.
- o **Diversion:** While it is recognized that some youth commit serious offenses and may need to be confined within a secure setting, research has shown that many youths in the juvenile justice system are there for relatively minor offenses. Diversion programs are alternatives to initial or continued formal processing of youth in the juvenile delinquency system. These curriculums are most frequently an attempt to defend juveniles from getting on record after they have already committed a minor offense. This can be led by school administration interference or by public service officers that have been trained in dealing with at-risk adolescent.
- o **Substitute to secure confinement:** It is a juvenile justice approach that doesn't entail the juvenile's admission in a 'jail-like' facility. It often involves the juvenile's continued participation in society, but in a modified manner. Such substitutes include home detention, community-based facilities, public service requirements, etc.
- o **Evidence-Based practices:** It emphasizes on encouraging youth contribution in programmes that have proof of working. The evaluation of 'success' for a plan is dependent on multiple factors, such as cost-effectiveness, reduction of recidivism rates, etc.
- o **Funding community-based options on a big scale:** It means to support all proposals in a community that have been put forward to help with juvenile betterment and improvement. This allows the community to assist on its own and does not rely on the judgment of the country concerning the needs of adolescent.

While juvenile improvement has proved to be a successful, humanizing, advance response to juvenile delinquency, it is a very intricate area that still has a lot of ongoing debates. Based on these deliberations, laws need to be time after time updated and measured as cultural, political, and social landscapes change.

### Check Your Progress

1. Define delinquency according to Walter Reckless?
2. What are the two most accurate predictors of juvenile delinquency according to Laurence Steinberg's theory?
3. What do you mean by Conduct Disorder?

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## 5.3 CRIME: MEANING, DIFFERENCE, CAUSES, CLASSIFICATION, FACTORS, PREVENTION

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Crime, in regular language, is an act considered unlawful bearing a punishment by a country or other authorities. The term, crime, doesn't, in modern criminal law, have any straightforward and universally accepted description, though statutory definitions are present for certain purposes. The most accepted view is that crime is a class created by law, in other words, something is a crime, if affirmed as such by the relevant and pertinent law. One such definition is that a crime or offence (or criminal offence) is an act detrimental not only to some person but also to a society, community, or the country ('a public wrongdoing'). Such acts are forbidden and liable to be punished by law. The Oxford Dictionary describes a crime as an action or omission which comprises an offence and is liable to be punished by the law. As society changes, some things which used to be criminal are no longer so. Similarly, some offences which were legal can turn into prohibited ones. An instance of this is the introduction of by-laws which allow local authorities to forbid drinking in chosen public places. Laws are prepared by the politicians we elect democratically; we might not agree with the law, but there are democratic prospects to change them.

The idea that acts such as murder, sexual assault, and burglary are to be prohibited exists universally. What exactly is a criminal offence is defined by the criminal code of each country. While many have a catalogue of offenses called the criminal code, in some common law countries no such complete statute exists. The country (government) has the authority to severely limit one's liberty for committing a crime. In contemporary societies, there are measures to which investigations and trials must adhere. If found guilty, an offender may be sentenced to a form of reparation such as a community sentence, or depending on the nature of their offence, undergo imprisonment, life sentence or in some jurisdictions, capital punishment.

Usually, to be classified as an offense, the 'act of doing something criminal' (*actus reus*) must—with definite exceptions—convey the 'intention to do something criminal' (*mens rea*). While every crime infringes the law, not every infringement of the law counts as a crime. Breaches of private law (torts and violation of contract) are not automatically penalized by the country, but can be imposed through civil procedure.

### 5.3.1 Causes and Factors

In a democratic society, someone charged with a crime has the chance to defend themselves. They shall be deemed innocent until proven guilty by the law of the land. Punishments conventionally reflect the gravity of the crime, the gravest are those which entail violence, loss of life, etc. The causes of crime are multifaceted. It usually includes

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drug abuse, poverty, alcohol, low self-esteem, and parental neglect. All these behaviours and circumstances can be linked to why people commit a crime. Some are at larger risk of becoming offenders just due to the circumstances they are born into.

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Individuals are held responsible for their own actions. A thoughtful consideration of root causes cannot and should not be seen as a way to absolve us from personal accountability. On the other hand, just as individuals have a duty to act sensibly and with respect to their fellow citizens, communities also have a responsibility to deal with those conditions, which get in the way of development and can become the breeding ground for crime. The root causes of crime are well-documented and researched. Crime is primarily the outcome of multiple adverse social, economic, cultural and family conditions. To prevent crime it is important to have an understanding of its roots. These are complex and interrelated, but can be summarized in three main categories:

- **Family structures:** The CSCPC believes that families are uniquely placed in contributing to raising healthy responsible members of society. But the task of putting children first goes well beyond the family to include communities and society. Dysfunctional family conditions contribute to future delinquency. These conditions include lack of respect and responsibility, abuse and neglect of children, parental conflict, parental criminality, parental inadequacy, lack of communication (both in quality and quantity), family violence, sexual abuse, etc.
- **Social environment:** The CSCPC believes that families are uniquely placed in contributing to raising healthy responsible members of society. But the task of putting children first goes well beyond the family; it should also incorporate communities and society. Our social organization mirrors citizens and communities, what we value, and the way we set priorities. Social root causes of crime are inequality, not sharing power, lack of support to struggling families and neighbourhoods, real or perceived inaccessibility to services, lack of leadership in communities, low value placed on children and individual well-being, the overexposure to television as a way of recreation, etc.
- **Economic factors:** In addition to lack of monetary resources, poverty manifests itself as lack of hope, poor housing, lack of meaningful employment options, lack of educational opportunities, etc.

### 5.3.2 Differences and Classification

The classification of crimes has been done on the basis of different parameters.

#### Categorization by type

Criminologists usually categorize crimes into several major categories:

- Crimes against persons
- Crimes against property



- Hate crimes
- Crimes against morality
- White-Collar Crime
- Organized Crime

For example, crimes against persons includes homicide, aggravated and simple assault, rape and sexual assault, and robbery, while crime against property includes burglary, larceny, motor vehicle theft, and arson.

### **Categorization by penalty**

The law consists of three basic classifications of criminal offenses including infractions, misdemeanours, and felonies. Each criminal offense is differentiated by the seriousness of the crime. State legislatures and Congress assign the factors and behaviours for every criminal offense; therefore, the classification and penalties vary by state for each. Thus, fines and non-custodial sentences may address the crimes seen as not serious, with lengthy imprisonment or (in some jurisdictions) capital punishment reserved for the most serious.

### **5.3.3 Crime Prevention**

Commissions, criminologists and research bodies such as the United National Research Council, World Health Organization, the UK Audit Commission, United Nations have analyzed their and others' research on what decreases rates of interpersonal crime. They all have the same opinion that governments need to act beyond criminal justice and law enforcement to deal with the risk factors that are the basis of crime, because it is more valuable in terms of cost and leads to superior social advantages than the typical ways of addressing crime. Numerous opinion polls also validate public support for more and more preventive measures. Irwin Waller uses these resources in his book, *Less Law, More Order: The Truth about Reducing Crime*, to put forward certain measures to cut down crime as well as a crime bill.

The World Health Organization Guide (2004) complements the World Report on Violence and Health (2002) and the 2003 World Health Assembly Resolution 56-24 for governments to put into practice nine measures, which were:

- Seek practical responses that are internationally agreed and act upon the global drugs and global arms trade.
- Encourage and endorse primary preventive measures.
- Specify priorities for and promote study on the causes, consequences, costs and prevention of violence.
- Enhance capacity for collecting data on violence
- Strengthen responses for victims of violence.

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

- Promote and monitor adherence to international treaties, laws and other mechanisms to protect human rights
- Increase collaboration and exchange of information on violence prevention.
- Integrate violence prevention into social and educational policies, and thereby promote gender and social equality.
- Create, implement and monitor a national action plan for violence prevention.

The commissions have the same opinion on the role of municipalities, because they are the best at their jobs to organize the strategies to deal with the risk factors that cause crime. To accomplish something, they need to establish a coalition of key agencies such as job creation, schools, social services, law enforcement and all-around diagnosis.

### **Effective crime prevention**

Various factors have to come together for any crime to be committed. There needs to be an individual or group with the desire and drive to participate in a prohibited or banned activity, then at least a few of the participants must have the tools and skills needed to do the crime and finally there needs to be an opportunity. This is how a person commits a crime.

Primary prevention methods address individual and family aspects which are correlated with former's criminal participation. Personal level factors such as contribution in pro-social behaviour and attachment to family and school decrease the likelihood of criminal participation. Family-related aspects such as steady parenting and support, similarly, greatly reduce individual level risk. The factors that increase risk are fairly addictive in nature. The greater the factors of risk are present it has a greater chance for involvement in crime. In addition there are initiatives which seek to alter rates of crime at the community or aggregate level. For instance, Larry Sherman of the Maryland University in Policing Domestic Violence (1993) demonstrated that changing the policy of how police respond to calls about domestic violence changes the likelihood of subsequent violence. Monitoring hotspots and areas of known criminal activity reduces the number of criminal incidents reported to the police in those areas, but that doesn't always mean a decrease in crime rates. Other proposals include community police efforts to catch known criminals. Organizations such as America's Most Wanted and Criminal Stopper help identify these criminals.

Secondary prevention employs intervention techniques that target adolescents at high risk of committing crime, particularly focusing on adolescents dropping out of school or getting themselves involved in gangs. Much of the crime in areas with high crime rates is related to social crime. The use of secondary crime prevention in cities like Birmingham and Bogotá has

resulted in significant reductions in crime and programmes such as general social services, educational institutions, and the police force target young people at risk and at risk. It has been shown to significantly reduce crime. Tertiary prevention is used after a crime has occurred to prevent successive incidents. Such measures can be seen in the implementation of new security guidelines following terrorist attacks such as the September 11, 2001 attacks. Situational crime prevention uses techniques that focus on reducing the opportunity to commit a crime.

## NOTES

### Check Your Progress

4. What are the different types of crimes according to their type?
5. Which book of Waller puts forward crime preventative measures?
6. What factors are required to commit a crime?

## 5.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. According to Walter Reckless, delinquency means violation of the criminal code of conduct and pursuing certain patterns disapproved for the children.
2. According to Laurence Steinberg's theory, the two most accurate predictor of juvenile delinquency happen to be parenting style and peer group interaction.
3. Conduct Disorder is basically when a certain pattern of behaviour shows up in teens and adolescents repeatedly in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate norms are violated. It can exist in various forms such as oppositional-defiant disorder or anti-social personality disorder.
4. The different types of crimes according to their type are:
  - (a) Crimes against persons
  - (b) Crimes against property
  - (c) Hate crimes
  - (d) Crimes against morality
  - (e) White-Collar Crime
  - (f) Organized Crime
5. The book, *Less Law, More Order: The Truth about Reducing Crime*, of Waller puts forward crime preventative measures.

## NOTES

6. Various factors have to come together for any crime to be committed. There needs to be an individual or group with the desire and drive to participate in a prohibited or banned activity, then at least a few of the participants must have the tools and skills needed to do the crime and finally there needs to be an opportunity.

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### 5.5 SUMMARY

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- Juvenile delinquency is the act of crime committed by a minor or any person younger than the legal age (18 years). It is the failure of these youths by exhibiting certain behaviour to not meet certain obligations expected of them from the society.
- Delinquency in children is caused due to various influencing factors of which the most influential factors tend to be a mixture of both genetic as well as environmental aspects.
- Family plays a huge role in a young adult's life shaping their views and beliefs, providing them support and comfort. This makes family quite important for the development of a child and consequently, their future choices.
- Peer group, in which the child spends most time apart from their family, has a deep impact on their psyche. In fact, peer rejection in the childhood is a big predictor of juvenile delinquency.
- Neurological indicators, which make it more likely for the adolescents to commit crimes and become delinquent are a general lack of intelligence, high impulsiveness, lack of empathy, lack of the ability to delay gratification, lack of emotional control, cruelty to animals, etc.
- Conduct Disorder is basically when a certain pattern of behaviour shows up in teens and adolescents repeatedly in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate norms are violated.
- Career criminals start on by demonstrating anti-social behaviour prior to entering grade school and then they get into a range of destructive behaviours at exceptionally high rates.
- Delinquency prevention is a fairly broad term for all the efforts aimed at helping youth avoid becoming involved in criminal, or other antisocial activities.
- The term, crime, doesn't, in modern criminal law, have any straightforward and universally accepted description, though statutory definitions are present for certain purposes.

- The Oxford Dictionary describes a crime as an action or omission which comprises an offence and is liable to be punished by the law.
- What exactly is a criminal offence is defined by the criminal code of each country. While many have a catalogue of offenses called the criminal code, in some common law countries no such complete statute exists.
- The causes of crime are multifaceted. It usually includes drug abuse, poverty, alcohol, low self-esteem, and parental neglect. All these behaviours and circumstances can be linked to why people commit a crime.
- Commissions, criminologists and research bodies all have the same opinion that governments need to act beyond criminal justice and law enforcement to deal with the risk factors that are the basis of crime.
- Various factors have to come together for any crime to be committed. There needs to be an individual or group with the desire and drive to participate in a prohibited or banned activity, then at least a few of the participants must have the tools and skills needed to do the crime and finally there needs to be an opportunity.

## NOTES

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### 5.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Groupthink:** It is a psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people in which the desire for harmony or conformity in the group results in an irrational or dysfunctional decision-making outcome.
- **Birth Cohort:** It is defined by a group of people born during a particular period or year.
- **Career criminals:** It refers to a habitual offender, repeat offender, or career criminal is a person convicted of a new crime who was previously convicted of crimes.
- **Recidivism:** It is the tendency of a convict to once again commit a crime after release from prison.

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### 5.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the different types of juvenile delinquency?
2. What are the causes of crimes?
3. How can crimes be classified?

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**Long-Answer Questions**

1. Explain the factors leading to juvenile delinquency.
2. Discuss some of the common preventive measures for juvenile delinquency.
3. Describe some of the prevention techniques that can be used to reduce crimes.

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**5.8 FURTHER READINGS**

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# UNIT 6 COUNSELLING

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## Structure

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Objectives
- 6.2 Counselling: Meaning and Definition, Importance and Merits
  - 6.2.1 Principles of Counselling
  - 6.2.2 Approaches to Counselling
- 6.3 Special Areas in Counselling
  - 6.3.1 Family Counselling
  - 6.3.2 Delinquents Counselling
- 6.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 6.5 Summary
- 6.6 Key Words
- 6.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 6.8 Further Readings

## NOTES

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### 6.0 INTRODUCTION

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Counselling includes encouraging individuals to make necessary improvements in ways of thinking, feeling, and actions, and is a collaborative mechanism focused on goals, involving a non-judgmental, compassionate counsellor who works with a person to share his or her story, set viable goals, and create strategies and objectives to achieve these goals. This process takes a limited period of time for certain persons, often as little as one or two sessions; for others, the process can last longer. Confidentiality is an incredibly important aspect of therapy, which ensures that only you and your counsellor, with a few exceptions, will be able to access the details shared in the session. In this unit, we will discuss the meaning, importance and merits of counselling, along with its approaches. We will also focus on the special areas in counselling like education, family, delinquents, and marriage counselling.

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### 6.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning and importance of counselling
- Describe the merits and approaches of counselling
- Analyze the special areas in counselling

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## 6.2 COUNSELLING: MEANING AND DEFINITION, IMPORTANCE AND MERITS

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### NOTES

Counselling refers to professional services provided to an individual who is facing a problem and needs help to overcome the problem. Counselling is considered to be an integral and central part of guidance. The process of counselling helps an individual find solution to a problem and also helps in the overall development of an individual. Counselling is a process that involves two people—one is the counsellor and the other is the person wanting help or counselling. Counsellor is the professional who offers counselling services. According to Willey and Andrew, ‘Counselling involves two individuals one seeking help and other a professionally trained person helped solved problems to orient and direct him to words a goals.’

Wren says, ‘Counselling is a dynamic and purposeful relationship between two people who approach a mutually defined problem with mutual consideration for each other to the end that the younger or less mature, or more troubled of the two is aided to a self- determined resolution of his problem.’

According to Arbuckle, ‘Counselling is helping a person to come to see who he really is, what he has and does not have, what he can do easily, what he can do with difficulty and what he cannot do at all. It is a close sharing of a human relationship with one who has for him a high regard; one who can offer him unconditional acceptance, but one who has no guarantees, no answers.’

According to authors Shertzer and Stone, ‘Counselling is an interaction process which facilitates meaningful understanding of self and environment and result in the establishment and or clarification of goals and values for future behaviour.’

Edwin C. Lewis, the author of *The Psychology of Counselling*, defines counselling as, ‘Counselling is a process by which a troubled person (client) is helped to tell and behave in a more personally satisfying manner through interaction with an uninvolved person (counsellor) who provides information and reactions which stimulate the client to develop behaviour which enable him to deal more effectively with himself and his environment.’

Thus, counselling has emerged as a two-way process that involves two individuals and mutual cooperation between them. Counselling enables an individual to gain self-understanding and develop self-acceptance. In this sense, the aim of counselling is same as guidance in that counselling also helps an individual adjust to his environment and conditions and lead a happier life. Counselling is, thus, a process that involves giving information, advice and counselling. This, however, does not mean that counselling is limited to a single activity. Hence, counselling cannot be considered as:

- Judgemental
- Restricted to giving advice
- Attempting to solve the problem



The three main activities that make up counselling include the following:

- **Informing:** Informing is an activity wherein the counsellor gives information to the client or the person needing help.
- **Advising:** Advising entails the counsellor suggesting the right course of action that must be taken to solve the problem.
- **Counselling:** Counselling involves helping the client understand his needs and providing the necessary help so that the client can take the right decision.

Therefore, counselling entails assisting a person so that the individual can face any challenging situation with a positive frame of mind. Counselling helps to alleviate negative responses to a problem and enables an individual to overcome the problem.

According to authors of *Therapeutic Psychology: Fundamentals of Actualization Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Lawrence M. Brammer and Everett L. Shostrom, 'Counselling is a purposeful reciprocal relationship between two people in which a trained person helps the other to change himself or his environment.'

According to author Wrenn, 'Counselling is a dynamic and purposeful relationship between the people in which procedures vary with the nature of the students' need, but in which there is always mutual participation by the counsellor and the student with the focus upon self-classification and self-determination by the students.'

Hence, the characteristics of counselling can be summarized as follows:

- Counselling is a mutual relationship between two people.
- It involves discussion.
- Counselling is a face-to-face relationship.
- It has a professional aspect to it.

### 6.2.1 Principles of Counselling

According to authors McDaniel and Shaftal, the following are the basic principles of counselling:

- **Principle of acceptance:** This principle says that every person seeking counselling must be treated as an individual who has unique needs. In other words, no two people in general seek counsel for the same reason and this fact must be accepted by the counsellor.
- **Principle of permissiveness:** According to this principle of counselling, the process of counselling must permit the environment to be developed as per the individual's needs. Also the process of counselling must develop optimism in the individual.

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- **Principle of respect:** This principle states that counselling must respect an individual's feelings. In other words, respecting the feelings of the person seeking a counsellor must be integral to the process of counselling.
- **Principle of thinking with the individual:** Counselling as a process emphasizes on thinking with the individual. In other words, a counsellor must be able to think in a manner that matches the thought process of the individual because only then can the counsellor work collectively with the individual to find a solution to the problem.
- **Principle of learning:** As per this principle, counselling as a process entails learning and is also based on learning and several elements associated with learning.
- **Principle of consistency with ideals of democracy:** Counselling and all its other principles are associated with the ideals of democracy. The ideals of democracy basically emphasize on accepting an individual and showing respect. In fact, respect is considered to be the right of an individual when it comes to the ideals of democracy. Counselling as has already been stated accepts and respects an individual and his unique needs and, thus, is based upon the ideals of democracy. Counselling also respects the different needs and behaviours of the various individuals who seek counselling.

Counselling has been stated as a professional service and, therefore, must be governed by certain ethical principles as well. The following are the ethical principles of counselling:

- **Being trustworthy:** According to this principle, a counsellor must be trustworthy in the sense that he must act in accordance with the client's trust shown in him. Since during counselling, a client reveals details to the counsellor, the counsellor must regard the confidentiality of the client as an obligation and, therefore, must not share any information about the client with anyone.
- **Autonomy:** This principle emphasizes the client's right to be self-governing. In other words, the principle of autonomy says that the client must be willing to participate in the counselling process. The client must voluntarily participate in the process and the counsellor has no right to manipulate his clients.
- **Beneficence:** This principle says that the counsellor must carry out counselling that promotes the well-being of the client. The counsellor must work in the best interests of the client and for this must make use of the available resources in the best possible manner.
- **Non-maleficence:** This principle states that the counsellor must ensure that the client is not harmed in any manner. Non-maleficence basically suggests that the client must not be exploited in any manner— financially, emotionally and sexually. This also implies the fact that the counsellor must avoid indulging in any kind of malpractices.

- **Justice:** The principle of justice says that the counsellor must provide the best services to the clients based on their different needs. The principle also emphasizes fair and impartial treatment of all clients in the most competent manner by the counsellor. It also entails the counsellor providing adequate services to all clients based on the different needs and reasons for counselling.
- **Self-respect:** According to this principle, the counsellor must foster self-respect by imbibing sufficient and significant knowledge about profession and also by caring for self. This is essential to boost the confidence of the counsellor and for enabling him to indulge in the profession in the best possible manner.

The aims of counselling can be summarized as follows:

- It aims to help clients manage their problems effectively.
- It enables clients to make efficient use of unused or underused opportunities.

### 6.2.2 Approaches to Counselling

Counselling can be categorized into the following three types based on the role of the counsellor and the nature of the counselling function.

- **Directive counselling:** The chief exponent of directive counselling is B.G. Williamson. Directive counselling is counsellor oriented as the counsellor plays a major role in solving the problem. The counsellor identifies, defines, diagnoses the problem and then provides a solution. The counsellor has a major role to play in directive counselling as he directs thinking by informing, explaining, interpreting and advising the client. The counsellor in directive counselling performs the following activities:

- o The counsellor conducts an analysis, which entails collecting data from various sources so that the problem of the client can be understood.
- o He puts together data which involves interpreting and organizing the data collected to know about the client's strengths, weaknesses and so on.
- o He identifies the nature of the problem and also what causes the problem.
- o He conducts a prognosis which involves predicting the development of the problem in the future.
- o Counselling which involves taking steps to help the client adjust to the problem and eventually overcoming it.
- o He conducts a follow-up which involves helping the client time and again or when the client faces the same type of problem again.

The merits of the directive counselling process are as follows:

- o It is economical and does not take much time.
- o The client gets a solution to the problem for sure.

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- o The method focuses on intellectual adjustment of the client rather than emotional adjustment.

The following are the demerits of this approach:

- o The process is counsellor oriented and, therefore, the client becomes dependent on the counsellor.
  - o The approach is undemocratic as it does not give any rights to the client.
  - o The client in most cases becomes helpless and waits for the counsellor to provide a solution.
- **Non-directive counselling:** Carl Rogers, an American psychologist, is the chief exponent of this type of counselling. Non-directive counselling is client-centred counselling where the client is allowed free expression and the counsellor only directs and guides. The counsellor asks a few questions to the client so that he can think of the possible solutions. The counselee is an active participant, who discusses his problem with the counsellor, and with the help of the counsellor arrives at a solution and takes a decision. The role of the counsellor is a passive one. The main role of the counsellor is to create an atmosphere where the client is able to work on his own and find solution to the problem. This approach focuses on the emotional aspect of the client rather than the intellectual one. The merits of the non-directive counselling approach are the following:
    - o This approach provides freedom to the person seeking counselling.
    - o It provides a tension free and stress free environment wherein the client can work at ease.
    - o The counsel seeker is not dependent on the counsellor for finding solution to the problem and, therefore, works towards self-acceptance.
    - o Since the counsel seeker gets a positive atmosphere, he can confront his weaknesses easily.

The demerits of non-directive counselling are the following:

- o It is a time-consuming process as the counselee is not a professional who can quickly find a solution.
  - o Since the process is client-centred, the solution to the problem may not be accurate because the judgment and wisdom of the client cannot be relied upon entirely. This is because the client is the one facing the problem and he may be under stress and tension and, therefore, may arrive at the wrong solution.
  - o Non-directive counselling relies on discussion of the problem with the counsellor and then finding a solution through discussion. However, all problems cannot be solved simply by discussion and may need other techniques and tools as well.
- **Eclectic counselling:** The chief exponent of eclectic counselling is F. C. Throne. Eclectic counselling revolves around the use of coordinative

methods. The client and the counsellor cooperate and work actively in finding a solution to the problem. The process focuses on the personality and the needs of the client and then finds techniques that can be used to find a solution to the problem faced by the counslee. Some techniques that can be used in this process may include reassurance, testing, case history and providing the essential information to the client so that the problem can be solved. The steps involved in eclectic counselling are the following:

- o The counsellor studies the needs and personality of the client.
- o The counsellor selects the appropriate techniques after consulting the client.
- o The techniques are applied to solve the problem.
- o The techniques and the counselling process are evaluated to know whether it has been effective or not.
- o Counselling is then done by the counsellor.
- o The counsellor seeks the opinion of the client on whether the technique and counselling provided have been of help or not.

The merits of eclectic counselling are as follows:

- o The counsellor as well as the counslee is active and so a more practical solution can be arrived at.
- o The approach is applicable practically in most cases.
- o The approach enables the counslee to get a better insight of his strengths and weaknesses.

The demerits of eclectic counselling are as follows:

- o The approach is considered to be vague and opportunistic.
- o There is no rule that states the extent of freedom that can be given to the client when it comes to finding a solution to the problem.
- o Many people are of the view that both the counslee and counsellor cannot be given equal rights and cannot be active at the same time in finding a solution to the problem.

### **Theory of self**

The 'theory of self', put forward by Carl Rogers, is a theory applied to counselling and revolves around the following concepts:

- The theory states that the counslee has the ability to determine the problem and the underlying cause of the problem. The counslee also has the ability to solve his own problem.
- The theory states that for counselling, a comfortable and acceptable atmosphere needs to be set so that the counslee is at ease in discussing his problem and working towards solving the problem.
- The theory also states that the counslee is mature enough to understand his personality and is also able to identify his strengths and weaknesses.

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- The theory states that the counsellor's intervention is minimal when it comes to finding a solution for the problem.

According to the theory of self, the role of the counsellor can be outlined in the following ways:

- The counsellor should present himself as an open, genuine and consistent person.
- He should respect the client.
- He should be able to understand the client's viewpoint and adapt to his process of thinking.

Carl Rogers's theory is based on nineteen propositions which are as follows:

- All individuals are the centre of a changing world and, therefore, continually keep evolving along with their environment.
- Every individual reacts to a field or stimulus as it is perceived and experienced. This field is what is called reality for the individuals.
- The individual or an organism reacts as an organized whole to the reality.
- When a person reacts to the reality, a part of the reality becomes a differentiated part of the person or the individual.
- An individual forms a structure of the self when he interacts with the reality and with others. This self, therefore, plays an important role in forming the pattern of relationships and interactions with others.
- Every individual or organism has the basic tendency to strive and actualize. The organism does this to maintain and enhance itself in the changing environment.
- The best manner in which the behaviour of an individual or an organism can be understood is by understanding the internal self of the individual.
- Behaviour is nothing but the goal-directed attempt of an individual or an organism to satisfy its needs.
- Behaviour is always accompanied by an emotion which further facilitates the maintenance and enhancement of the organism.
- Every individual experiences values. These values may be experienced directly or by taking over or observing the values of other organisms.
- Experiences are a part of the life of an individual and as these occur, they are symbolized, perceived and organized into some relation to the self, or ignored and denied symbolization because the experiences are considered inconsistent with the structure of the self.
- Organisms adopt a specific behaviour that becomes consistent with the concept of the self of an organism or individual.
- Sometimes, an individual may behave in a specific manner because of certain experiences and this behaviour is not consistent with the self.

- Every individual needs psychological adjustment especially when all experiences of an individual are consistent with the concept of the self of the individual.
- Psychological maladjustment may also take place when an individual denies all the experiences that take place around him as not being related to or consistent with the concept of self. This leads to psychological tensions which an individual may often experience.
- When an experience is not considered consistent with the concept of the self of an individual, it is considered to be a threat. These threats make it difficult for an individual to maintain his self-esteem.
- When threats are absent, certain experiences that were previously considered inconsistent with the concept of self can be revised and assimilated as an experience of the self.
- An individual after perceiving and accepting all consistent and inconsistent experiences as a part of the self-concept can understand the fact that he is different from other individuals and also understands the fact that all individuals are separate and unique.
- When an individual assimilates several experiences in his concept of being, he undergoes a change in the system of values acquired by him.

The theory was basically developed as the foundation of therapy which involved the emotional state of an individual. According to Carl Rogers, the attitude and the contribution of the counsellor plays an important role in making a therapy effective.

### **Example: Need of counselling for students**

Counselling services in schools and colleges need to be administered to meet the administrative and educational needs of the students. Counselling is needed by students for the following reasons:

- Counselling helps in the overall development of the student.
- It ensures that the students make proper choices of courses.
- It ensures that the students make proper career choices and do not go wrong.
- It facilitates the students in their vocational development.
- It motivates the fresh graduates to carve a niche for themselves in society.
- Guidance and counselling services are necessary to help students face the situations of life and adjust to their environment physically, mentally as well as emotionally.
- It motivates students from weaker sections of the society to perform well at the educational and vocational levels.
- It encourages the students to take the right decisions in case of confusion and turmoil.

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- To prevent wastage and stagnation of educational and vocational resources.
- To identify the students who need special help and assistance.
- Counselling ensures that students spend their leisure time and time spent outside the classroom in a productive manner.
- It helps to minimize indiscipline among students.

### **Example: School guidance and counselling in Manitoba**

The guidance and counselling of students is an integral component of the educational mission of the school in Manitoba (Canadian province). Guidance and counselling services and programmes promote the personal, social, educational and career development of all students.

#### *Information for schools, students and families*

In school, the school counsellors have specific duties and responsibilities and carry out several activities that address the needs of the following:

- Students
- Parents/guardians
- Colleagues and professional associates
- School and community

#### *Working with students*

The main responsibility of the school counsellor is towards the students in the school. The school counsellors offer their professional services to meet the educational, academic, career, personal and social needs of all students within the school setting, from kindergarten to class XII. The school counsellors develop and deliver a guidance and counselling programme. School counsellors need to address the diverse needs of the students for which they require specific expertise. Moreover, they need to work within their defined school and professional boundaries of competencies by providing only those services for which they are qualified by training or experience. When the school counsellor feels that he cannot meet the needs and demands of the students or come across students who need special services, they refer such students to the appropriate outside counsellors.

#### *Working with parents/guardians*

The role of parents/guardians is important in the life of their children. School counsellors, therefore, need to collaborate with the parents in the best interests of the students. However, the role of school counsellors is not to provide family counselling. The main motive of school counsellors is to help in the personal, social, educational and career development of the student. The school counsellors provide parents with the necessary information related to education and careers of their children. The school counsellor may, however, not share personal or confidential information of the student with the parents unless required.



*Working with colleagues and professional associates*

The main aim of guidance and counselling services is to enhance the success of all learners keeping the broader perspective of the society in mind. The school counsellor is responsible for maintaining and establishing relationships with school staff and several other service providers who work with students of the school. The school counsellors share student information with these professionals to promote the overall development of the students. The information shared, however, follows the principle of confidentiality and is for the betterment of the students. The school counsellors are required to work within the limits of the law and professionals ethics.

*Working with the school and community*

The school counsellors act as educators as well as counsellors. They help students in guidance activities and also offer counselling services. The counsellor must, however, keep the counselling services separate from those dealing with promoting education of the students. The school counsellor on one hand may offer personal counselling to the student and, on the other, may teach certain skills to the students that may help the students to face the educational challenges. The role of the school counsellor is, thus, also to integrate guidance and counselling services to address school and community needs.

The school counsellor coordinates with the school team to develop a comprehensive guidance and counselling programme so that the programme so developed is in alignment with the goals and mission of the school. During the development of the counselling and guidance plan, the school counsellor identifies needs, implements and monitors the programmes and adjusts the programme as per the developmental needs of the students. Regular evaluation of the plan is also carried out.

*Consultation support provided*

School counsellors are professional school staff members who work with other teachers and professionals to help learners succeed and adjust to their learning environment. School counsellors provide education, guidance and counselling to all students and carry out activities such as the following:

- Direct instruction
- Guidance education
- Team teaching
- Group and individual counselling
- Student support team planning

**Check Your Progress**

1. Define counselling.
2. State the characteristics of counselling.
3. What are the aims of counselling?

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## 6.3 SPECIAL AREAS IN COUNSELLING

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### NOTES

There are several spheres of life in which people need counselling. The following are the areas where counselling is needed the most:

- **Education:** Students during their school and college years may face several problems related to education, learning and teaching. Such problems are addressed by educational counselling and by counsellors who are experts and experienced in this specific area.
- **Marriage:** Marital counselling is often required by those who face problems in their married life. These problems may begin as soon as the question of spouse selection comes to the fore. Marriage counsellors handle such problems and provide the necessary solutions to the problem.
- **Personal:** Many people face several problems in their life which bring about changes in their attitude and are often considered a hindrance in leading a normal life. Personal counselling looks into the personal problems of an individual and enables an individual to overcome these problems.
- **Social:** Social problems may be faced by individuals wherein they are unable to maintain social relationships and fail to adjust to the society and its ways and norms. Social counselling is provided to such people so that they can develop the skills of social acceptance, tolerance towards others and are able to lead a life in tandem with the society.
- **Rehabilitation:** Sometimes, the life of an individual is disrupted because of accidents, mishaps and so on. Such people often develop depression, low self-esteem and in most cases are unable to get over the disruption of life. Rehabilitation counselling is provided to such people so that they can develop life skills that can enable them to lead a normal life.
- **Vocational:** Most people face problems in deciding about the right career option and are unable to adjust to their work area, the people around and also the work environment. Such people are not able to work productively. Vocational counselling is made available to such people so that they can make the right career choices and are able to adjust to their work environment so that they are able to work productively.

### 6.3.1 Family Counselling

Parents develop skills to manage and understand their children over time. They do this through an on-going process of learning and observing others around them. As children grow up, there are several changes that are observed by parents. There are different ways in which the children require their parents to interact with them. Parents, therefore, are always under pressure to modify their parenting techniques so that they can cope up with the needs of their children and are able to maintain a healthy relationship with the children.

The role of the parents is always changing in relation to how their children grow. Parental counselling is basically a method wherein the parents work with

counsellors to find out whether the changes that they bring about in themselves are beneficial for their children or not. Parental counselling, therefore, helps parents to cope up with the ever changing needs and demands of their children. Parental counselling offers a safe space to parents where they can talk about the problems they face in raising their children. Parental counselling, therefore, helps parents to bring up their children in the most effective manner.

Parental counselling may also be important when the parents and the children do not see eye-to-eye regarding a specific situation. Counselling can help parents to discuss how to bring the children to the right track. Many a times, parental counselling is also required when children move from school to college and the parents are over protective about their children and are afraid of sending their children to college. A typical parental counselling session involves the following steps:

- The counsellor obtains details about the current concerns regarding the child from the parents.
- The counsellor also obtains background information and family history.
- The counsellor discusses the goals for therapy with the parents.
- The counsellor discusses various counselling approaches and consequently, a plan of action is determined.

#### **Example: Counselling the parents of handicapped children**

Parents who have handicapped children have to adjust to several emotional and psychological problems that they face because their children are unable to meet their expectations. Parents of handicapped children often need counselling, so that they can deal with such problems. Counselling in this case, is formal process wherein the counsellor and the parents find a manner in which, the handicapped children can perform well and adjust to their physical limitation. Parents are often counselled on how to support the children in a manner wherein their inadequacies do not hamper their development. In such a case, counselling must be a continuous process that focuses on the overall growth and development of the children and adjustment of the children as well as the parents.

#### **Example: Indian Institute of Counselling: Counselling for parents and children**

Children and adolescents go through different behavioural, emotional and psychological stages as they grow. Each stage has its own needs and problems to be resolved. Parent-child relationship can face problems at any stage of life.

Some of the common problems encountered in child, adolescent and parenting counselling are as follows:

- Bullying and peer pressure in school/colleges
- Aggression and violence from adolescents and children
- Unhealthy habits like excessive viewing of television and phone usage
- Sibling rivalry and unhealthy competition

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- Eating and sleep problems
- Bed wetting and panic attacks
- Poor school performance and school phobia
- Speech problems
- Addictive behaviours and substance abuse
- Body image issues during adolescence
- Interpersonal relationship problems
- Low self- esteem and lack of assertiveness
- Poor study habits
- Poor concentration and anxiety
- Trauma, abuse and neglect
- Faulty parenting styles

This is just a list of a few problems and is not exhaustive. The counsellor helps the child by listening attentively, observing the child and assisting the child in opening up to share his experiences.

Child, adolescent and parenting counselling includes the following:

- It offers the child/adolescent an opportunity to discuss problems one-to-one with the counsellor and gain insight into his/her concerns in a safe and confidential environment. Discussions are based on the age groups, developmental levels and specific concerns of the children and adolescents.
- It ensure that the child/adolescent feel safe and secure during the counselling session.
- The counsellor listens attentively to the grievances of the parents.
- It ensures providing a healthy parent-child interaction and facilitating good communication between parent and child/adolescent.

### **Example: Case studies of parental counselling**

Kate is a thirty-two year old mother, who seeks the help of a counsellor to deal with her four-year old son Jack. Jack according to Kate is very aggressive towards his little sister. Jack does not listen to Kate and is usually upset. Kate also tells the counsellor that she has tried several things to make Jack adjust but everything has gone in vain as he does not respond to any form of discipline and does not accept the fact that he is wrong. Jack does not listen to Kate at all and when she sits with him to discuss the problem, he gets up and walks away. Kate says that she does not believe in hitting the child and the counsellor agrees with this statement. When asked, Kate says that Jack started behaving in this manner soon after the birth of his sister. Kate also says that though Jack was not jealous at first, he now refers to the baby as a stupid baby and throws pillows and soft toys at her. The counsellor also talks to Jack and finds out that he is often upset and cannot sleep properly because his sister wakes in the night. While his sister is out to sleep by the mother,

Jack has to sleep on his own which is difficult for him. Since Jack is tired of this, he is rude towards his sister as well as mother. According to the instructions of the counsellor, when Kate puts the baby to sleep, she also spends time with Jack to put him to sleep which makes him sleep almost immediately. With this, Jack's behaviour also improves to a great extent.

### **Example 1**

Parents of Anne who is thirteen years old have opted for counselling because of her anger problem. The counsellor discusses Anne's problem with her parents. According to her parents, Anne's behaviour changes from withdrawn and sullen to sarcastic and then talkative. While conducting the session with Anne alone, the counsellor realizes that Anne feels sad and lonely but she is clear about what she is discussing with the counsellor. While conducting the session with the parents, the counsellor observes the communication patterns of the family. In the session, the counsellor finds out that Anne behaves very sweetly and cares for her younger brother while the parents do not spend much time with Anne. The counsellor points this to the parents and begins counselling the parents. After two or three months of counselling, the family begins to live happily.

### **Example 2**

The parents of ten year old seek the help of a counsellor because the child has issues settling in school. The child feels scared to go to school and wants to go back to her home town. The child does not like the classmates and is a loving and caring child. She cries in the morning when she is woken up for school. At the same time, the sister of the child has adjusted well to the school. The child does not listen to the parents and has become stubborn. The counsellor offers the following action plan: The parents are advised to understand the situation of the child. The parents are also advised to give the child some time to settle in school. The parents also are advised to motivate the child to get up in the morning by indulging the child in some activity. The parents of the child according to the counsellor need to be positive and stop comparing the child with her sister and other children as well.

### **Parent update**

The parents felt that their session with the counsellor had been fruitful and it enables them to tackle the situation in a positive manner. The parents also said that they were following the advice of the counsellor and have accepted the child in her normal way. The parents also said that she is happier now and does not feel frustrated.

### **Marriage Counselling**

Marriage counselling is a type of psychotherapy that helps couples of different types recognize and resolve conflicts and improve their relationships. Through marriage counselling, couples can make thoughtful decisions about rebuilding and strengthening their relationship or going separate ways. This type of counselling is

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often provided by licensed therapists known as marriage and family therapists. Marriage counselling is often short term. It typically includes both partners, but sometimes one partner chooses to work with a therapist alone. The specific treatment plan depends on the situation.

### 6.3.2 Delinquents Counselling

As we have already discussed in detail in Unit 5, juvenile delinquency is the act of committing a crime at a very young age. A juvenile delinquent is a young person, particularly a teenager under the age of eighteen, who breaks a state or federal law by committing a crime. The cases with juvenile offenders are increasing every year, thus, states' spending has been increasing as well not only in terms of the amount of money, but also the manpower in professional services, and restructuring and amendment of the laws.

Counselling involves identification and then evaluation of factors responsible for the development of an anti-social character traits, who fail to follow the societal norms and rules without any understanding of good or bad, right or wrong, lack of empathy and sympathy not just for others, but also for their own family members and the most prominent fact being to exact pain on others for self-indulgence without any guilt. Counselling as a means can be very efficiently used to not only comprehend the cognitive characteristics surrounding the anti-social characteristics in a delinquent, but also to recognize the trajectory from being a normal individual to become an offender, who is willing to stay an offender without any issue or resistance to change to normalcy. Through counselling and guidance, these aspects can be brought to surface eventually, with the help of a variety of techniques; a fairly accomplished counsellor can get into the world of delinquents to discover the unexploited productive skills which can be focused on to prevent them from committing crimes. A counsellor can find out the sensitive areas that can be influenced and effectively help to ward off the situation and aid in designing intervention program. When the reason of the problem becomes clear, then the resolution to it also becomes visible. The affectations, emotions and internalized feelings, which become visible in behaviour are traced, while the influential causes are examined and for intervention programme and policy-making decisions. Counselling provides an insight of the constituents and causatives to mitigate the issue of delinquency.

Every child is unique and different and has varied abilities and talents. It is isolating and depriving circumstances that develop deviant behaviour in young people. Family is the whole world of a child and their development is very much a result of the way they are treated. The warmth, love, security, attention, affection, morals, principles, concern, and ethics—all are significant in shaping their future as adults. These foundations dictate how a person perceives difference between good and bad. In a dearth of all these qualities, how we can as a society expect normalcy in a person's life and behaviour. Family is the primary target for well-timed intervention programmes. After the family, it is the school where the child

spends most of their time, therefore it is accountable for breeding as well as cutting back delinquency. With qualified teachers and psychologists and counsellors, the problem can be uprooted by a carefully planned intervention with a well-designed network of adults around the child. These two foundation pillars give a very strong base for a lawful and a secure future of a child. These values must be instilled persistently and diligently in a child. Thus, family and school form the basis of any delinquent counselling process.

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### Check Your Progress

4. What is the role of parents in the implementation of guidance programmes?
5. Mention any five problems encountered in child, adolescent and parenting counselling.

## 6.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Counselling refers to professional services provided to individuals who face problems and need help to solve the problems.
2. The characteristics of counselling are as follows:
  - (a) Counselling is a mutual relationship between two people.
  - (b) It involves discussion.
  - (c) Counselling is a face-to-face relationship.
  - (d) It has a professional aspect to it.
3. The aims of counselling can be summarized as follows:
  - (a) It aims to help clients manage their problems effectively.
  - (b) It enables clients to make efficient use of unused or underused opportunities.
4. The main role of parents in the implementation of a guidance programme is that of cooperation. Parents need to be cooperative enough with the school so that the guidance programme can be implemented in an effective manner.
5. Some of the common problems encountered in child, adolescent and parenting counselling are as follows:
  - (a) Bullying and peer pressure in school/colleges
  - (b) Aggression and violence from adolescents and children
  - (c) Unhealthy habits like excessive viewing of television and phone usage
  - (d) Sibling rivalry and unhealthy competition
  - (e) Eating and sleep problems

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## 6.5 SUMMARY

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- Counselling refers to professional services provided to an individual who is facing a problem and needs help to overcome the problem. Counselling is considered to be an integral and central part of guidance.
- Guidance and counselling are both involved with the development of an individual. Both help an individual in facing and solving the problems and moving towards self-realization and self-empowerment.
- Despite the fact that both guidance and counselling are aimed at helping an individual in finding solution to his problems, there are some differences between the two, especially in terms of how the processes are carried out and implemented.
- While many people view guidance as an integral part of counselling, there are others who consider counselling to be a vital part of guidance. In fact, guidance and counselling often go hand-in-hand.
- Counselling as has been stated is a professional service and, therefore, must be governed by certain ethical principles as well.
- The ‘theory of self’ was basically developed as the foundation of therapy, which involved the emotional state of an individual. According to Carl Rogers, the attitude and the contribution of the counsellor plays an important role in making a therapy effective.
- There are several spheres of life in which people need counselling. The areas where counselling is needed the most are education, family, marriage, and delinquency.
- Parents develop skills to manage and understand their children over time. They do this through an on-going process of learning and observing others around them.
- Parental counselling may also be important when the parents and the children do not see eye-to-eye regarding a specific situation. Counselling can help parents to discuss how to bring the children to the right track.
- Counselling as a means can be very efficiently used to not only comprehend the cognitive characteristics surrounding the anti-social characteristics in a delinquent, but also to recognize the trajectory from being a normal individual to become an offender.

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## 6.6 KEY WORDS

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- **Eclectic counselling:** This process focuses on the personality and the needs of the client and then finds techniques that can be used to find a solution to the problem faced by the counselee.



- **Vocational counselling:** It is a set of services designed to develop the skills and ability to practice a vocation in a productive way.
- **Interpersonal:** This refers to something involving or taking place among several people.

**NOTES**


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## 6.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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**Short-Answer Questions**

1. State the different definitions of counselling.
2. What is the difference between directive and non-directive counselling?
3. Write a short note on parental counselling.

**Long-Answer Questions**

1. Discuss the general and ethical principles of counselling.
2. Describe the ‘theory of self’ as put forward by Carl Rogers in detail.
3. Explain the working of delinquent counselling.

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## 6.8 FURTHER READINGS

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# UNIT 7 COUNSELLING PROCESS

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## NOTES

### Structure

- 7.0 Introduction
- 7.1 Objectives
- 7.2 Steps in Counselling Process: Factors Affecting Counselling Process
  - 7.2.1 Preparation
  - 7.2.2 Beginning
  - 7.2.3 Developing
  - 7.2.4 Terminating and Follow-Up
  - 7.2.5 Holistic View of Counselling
- 7.3 Psychological Tests and Diagnosis
  - 7.3.1 Intelligence Tests
  - 7.3.2 Achievement Tests
  - 7.3.3 Interest Tests
  - 7.3.4 Aptitude Tests
  - 7.3.5 Attitude Tests
  - 7.3.6 Personality Tests
- 7.4 Qualities of Counsellors
- 7.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 7.6 Summary
- 7.7 Key Words
- 7.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 7.9 Further Readings

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## 7.0 INTRODUCTION

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The counselling process is a planned, structured dialogue between a counsellor and a client. It is a cooperative process in which a trained professional helps a person called the client to identify sources of difficulties or concerns that he or she is experiencing. In this unit, we will discuss the steps in counselling process and factors affecting it. It will also focus on psychological tests and diagnosis, along with qualities of counsellors.

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## 7.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the steps in the counselling process and factors affecting it
- Describe the psychological tests and diagnosis
- Analyze the qualities required by counsellors

## 7.2 STEPS IN COUNSELLING PROCESS: FACTORS AFFECTING COUNSELLING PROCESS

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Counselling is essentially an interviewing process in which the counsellor acts as a facilitator to enable the clients to explore a difficulty which they may be experiencing or aspects of their life they wish to change, guide the clients from feeling themselves to be a victim of circumstances to feeling that they have more control over life, and assist in considering and deciding possible approaches to change, and support implementation of plans for bringing about the change.

The entire process of counselling can be conceptualized as a series of stages with specific outcomes at the end of each stage. In each stage, the counsellor employs strategies and skills to be successful in getting the desired outcome. The process of counselling is divided into a number of stages by different analysts. To start with one, can say the process has a beginning, a middle and an end. Girard Egan (1986) has explained counselling as a four-stage activity, whereas Lawrence Brammer (1988) has divided the counselling process into six stages. We will use a four-stage model involving the following stages. Table 7.1 shows a comparison of these versions.

- Beginning
- Developing
- Terminating a counselling relationship
- Follow-up

*Table 7.1 Counselling Stages*

<b>Our Model</b>	<b>Girard Egan</b>	<b>Lawrence Brammer</b>
Beginning	Attending to the counselee and building a rapport	Clarifying the problem and goals for counselling
		Structuring the counselling relationship and procedures
Developing	Responding to the counselee and helping him to explore his feelings, experiences and behaviour	Building a deeper relationship
	Building a mutual understanding	Exploring feelings, behaviour or thoughts
	Stimulating action that subsequently is evaluated by the counsellor and the counselee together	Deciding on some plans of action, trying these out and evaluating them
Terminating		Terminating the relationship
Follow-up		

A close observation reveals that the essence of all classifications is the same. The interview starts with the aim of establishing a rapport between the client and counsellor. Once the rapport is established, the issue takes centre stage and is

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explored till a solution comes into focus. It is followed by plans and their implementation. However, it is to be remembered that a counselling model is only a snapshot of a dynamic activity, and it cannot be explained and applied prescriptively to all situations. The process, style and strategies vary from one situation to another. The purpose of presenting a conceptual model is to help understand the process elements and sequence and learn to apply the model in a flexible manner. We will now discuss in detail the four-stage model adopted in this book. Before we proceed to discuss the four stages, let us appreciate the importance of preparation.

### 7.2.1 Preparation

Counselling is initiated either by the manager or the counselee. In either case, it is important for both of them to be well prepared for the session. Therefore, the first step in counselling is preparing for the interview. To prepare for counselling, do the following:

- Identify the need.
- Choose a suitable place.
- Schedule the time of meeting.
- Notify the subordinate well in advance.
- Organize information.
- Evolve a counselling strategy.

We will now elaborate each of the preparatory steps.

- **Identify the need:** Try to identify the predictors to conduct developmental counselling for focused, two-way communication aimed at a counselee's development. Developing involves observing their performance in schools or jobs, comparing it to the standard, and then providing feedback to the counselee in the form of counselling.
- **Choose a suitable place:** Choose a place which is quiet and free from distractions. Pleasing interiors, comfortable seating and good ventilation and lighting are important features of good environment. In addition, if there is facility for recording the interview, it will be helpful to the counsellor.
- **Schedule the time of meeting:** The question of when to conduct counselling requires considering two factors: (i) Working time of the counselee and (ii) time required for counselling. If the counselee has day duty, counselling can be done either during duty hours or after duty hours. Counselling after duty hours may not be liked by the counselee as he or she may want to get home instead. The length of time required for counselling depends on the nature of the issue. Complex issues may require more than one hour. The optimal time period for counselling is less than an hour. If more time is necessary, counselling can be done in more than one session.

- **Notify the subordinate well in advance:** Effective counselling requires counselee's involvement and commitment. Two factors merit attention to stimulate interest in the counselee.
  - o Counselling should take place following the event causing counselling. For example, performance counselling should take place immediately after appraisal.
  - o Time to prepare for the interview should be adequate. In development counselling, counsees may need a week or more to collect information from forms and records.
- **Organize information:** Before counselling, the counsellor has to organize information and outline the following.
  - o Purpose of the counselling
  - o Facts and observations about the counselee
  - o Identification of possible problems
  - o Main points of discussion
  - o A plan of action
- **Evolve a counselling strategy:** Since the approach of counselee is not known the manager has to develop a strategy to conduct the interview successfully. Several approaches to counselling exist, ranging from directive to non-directive ones. The manager should use a strategy that suits his counselee and the situation.

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### 7.2.2 Beginning

The beginning session of counselling is critical as it paves the way for a constructive relationship between a counsellor and a counselee in problem-solving. The objectives of counselling in this phase are as follows:

- To establish rapport or working relationship
- To clarify and define the problem
- To gain an understanding of the terms of contract

### Receiving

Invite the counselee and offer him a seat and a cup of coffee. However, some situations may require a formal approach. For example, when counselling a counselee for his substandard performance, the manager may direct the subordinate to remain standing while he remains seated behind a desk. In this step, the counsellor has to greet and acknowledge a client.

- **Greeting:** Hello! Good morning! Please sit down.
- **Acknowledging previous contact:** We met last month and I have your record.

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- **Acknowledging phone call:** You called me in the morning and said you have a problem to discuss.
- **Acknowledge a referral:** Your manager suggested we meet. He informed me that you are experiencing anxiety.

### Prompting

Clients can be talkative and open as well as silent and closed. In between the polar points, we find hesitant, defensive, assertive and aggressive people. Those who cannot open up look for help from the counsellor. They mutter in a feeble voice, 'I don't know where to start or what to say'. Some may say: 'I don't know what all this is...perhaps you could ask me some questions...'. The counsellor has to make the client comfortable by extending help. Helpful statements vary by way of expression and content.

- **By expression:** A statement may take different forms such as the following:
  - o **Assertive statement:** I wonder how you imagined you would start.
  - o **Interrogative statement:** Open-ended question: What questions would you like me to ask you?
  - o **Directive statement:** Tell me what concerns you most at present.
  - o **Summary:** People in the office, like your boss, colleagues and others, do not care for you. Your boss... is the nagging type—and perhaps you could begin with that.
  - o **Paraphrase:** You said, your boss is the nagging type...can we start there?
- **By content:** A counsellor may use different types of messages as illustrated here.
  - o **On thoughts:** I wonder what was on your mind, as you came here today.
  - o **On expectations:** In your imagination, what did you hope would happen here today? Or I imagine you have some thoughts and expectations and I wonder what they are.
  - o **On help:** How did you decide to get some counselling for yourself or What information would you like from me that would help you to begin.
  - o **On the problem:** Will you tell me what the problem is as you see it?

### Relationship building

Consider how we develop rapport and create relationships with our clients. Tyler (1969) and Gilmore (1973) observed that acceptance and understanding are important requirements of a relationship. According to Rogers (1957), the core conditions for successful counselling are:

- **Unconditional positive regard:** Irrespective of all other attitudes and actions of a counselee, as a client he or she is to be treated as a person of worth.
- **Empathy:** Understanding others from their point of view. When a counsellor talks with empathy, the counselee responds positively. Empathy promotes rapport and relationships in a better way.
- **Congruence:** When the counsellor aligns his thinking with that of the counselee, similarity in interests can be established. Both the counsellor and the counselee consider the issue from the same perspectives and aim at the same goals.

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### Acceptance

Acceptance refers to valuing others because they are human. Clients may have different emotions like fear, anxiety, vexation, shame and anger. They may talk silly and do foolish things. A counsellor will have unconditional positive regard (Rogers, 1957) or respect (Egan, 1986) for the client, whatever his behaviour may be. To accept a client means accepting his emotions, experiences, expectations and giving credence to what he brings to the counselling session. The counsellor has to start things from a strengths-based perspective. By pointing out the positive ones, he removes inhibitions and fears in the mind of the counselee and encourages him to open up.

### Understanding

Understanding in this context means that the counsellor has almost the same views as the speaker has in his mind. Rogers emphasizes the need for empathetic understanding. Towards this end, the counsellor has to actively listen to the client and understand his verbal and non-verbal signs. A positive relationship can be created only when the counselee feels that the manager has concern for his welfare and understands him.

### Defining the problem

The right way to begin a counselling session is by stating the purpose in clear terms. For example, a purpose statement might be: 'The purpose of this counselling is to discuss your performance over the past month and to develop a plan to improve it to meet performance standards'. In case it is the second counselling session, you may begin by reviewing the status of the previous plan of action. Clients often come with confused feelings about their problems. Few are truly aware of their problems or declare them in clear terms. Sometimes, a client may have more than one problem and thus struggle hard in dealing with them. Therefore, clarifying and defining problems is an important step in the problem-solving process. Rogers (1957) emphasizes that congruence is a necessary condition in goal setting and problem definition. The counsellor has to understand the problem by helping the client to define it through his skilful interventions.

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Clients may make four types of statements. They are listed here with examples.

- Statements on facts and alternatives
- Statements on judgements, criteria, preferences, dislikes
- Statements on problem-solving behaviour and specific type of behaviour
- Statements on emotions, conflicts, pressure, fears and expectations

Here is a statement containing facts, emotions, judgement, and problem-solving behaviour: 'I am not successful in selling. I could not meet my targets during the last three months. I am gripped with fear of failure. I think I am not suitable for this selling job. I feel I should take up careers like teaching in educational institutes or training in corporate organizations. I am not sure whether I should take a course in training or join a PhD programme.'

Here is a confused statement of problems: 'I don't like my supervisor. He bothers me much. In fact every one, everyone in the office is like him. They say I am not a competent person. I don't get challenging assignments and when I ask, they say "You are not yet ripe for such projects". Why not? I have an MBA degree from a prestigious university. I think they don't like girls doing well.'

### **Establish a pattern**

Rowan (1983) suggests that a counsellor has to establish a pattern of interaction, which we call style. The style should enable the client to open up and explore the problem as well as the solution areas. Clients who are confident and communicative respond well to an asking style. On the other hand, those who are depressed and helpless will find comfort in the telling and advising style.

### **Counselling contract**

A counselling contract involves agreement for consideration. It is based on willingness of both the parties—counsellor and client—to go ahead with counselling. It is a tentative agreement on terms such as the issues that need to be explored, number of sittings and fee that help the counsellor and the client move to the next stage of counselling. The issues to be considered in a contract are:

- **Number of sessions:** A tentative decision on the number of sessions will be helpful to maintain the tempo of counselling. A planned and methodological progress is possible when we know the date of termination or completion. Planned activities will be more effective. However, depending on the progress in counselling, both client and counsellor may agree to cut short or increase the number of sessions.
- **Frequency of sessions:** In counselling, continuity is important. If the time interval between the sessions is too short, the client may experience the stress of counselling. If it is too long, both the client and the counsellor may have to spend time to establish a common ground. Therefore, depending



upon the problem and its importance, the frequency of sessions may be decided.

- **Timings:** A regular time in a week is ideal. It establishes a routine to the client. It is easy to remember and respond.
- **Length of sessions:** Ideally, the length of session is fifty minutes. It is long enough to examine issues with proper attention and concentration. It is short enough not to create feelings like ‘boring’, ‘tiresome’ and ‘taxing’.
- **Payment:** An important item in the contract is the fees of the counsellor and the terms of payment by the counsellee. If the fee is negotiable, decisions regarding the following should be made mutually:
  - o Amount to be paid by the client.
  - o When to be paid, weekly or monthly.
  - o Payment for cancelled sessions—whether cancelled sessions should be paid for? Is there exemption for sessions cancelled by advance intimation?

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### 7.2.3 Developing

Developing is the crucial part of the counselling. The counsellor encourages the client to explore a difficulty or distress which they may be experiencing, and facilitates the client to make his or her own decisions on how to proceed.

#### Assessment and diagnosis

A good assessment can provide an opportunity for the client to see how his behaviour or attitude might be contributing to an undesirable or unhealthy situation. Assessment is an ongoing process. Re-assessments enable a counsellor to ensure that the client is on the right track.

#### How do you gather information for assessment?

- **Client’s point of view—Articulation:** The client is asked to narrate in detail his problems and related experiences. Also, the client’s answers are filled in checklists to understand the client’s behaviour.
- **Others’ point of view—Inquiry:** Discussions with other people who are associated with the client, and reading any documented information on the client can help the counsellor to gain another perspective of the client’s behaviour.
- **Counsellor’s point of view:** A counsellor may use different techniques and tools such as simple observation to psychology constructs to assess the client’s behaviour and personality. Assessment tools include psychosocial tests and non-standardized (e.g., clinical interview) tools. Where appropriate, the counsellor may employ risk assessment inventories or checklists.

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## Organizing information

The information is organized to make a meaningful description. Counselling makes use of frameworks to provide direction and dimensions for assessing clients. For example, SWOT analysis helps assess one's strengths and weaknesses and also helps to identify the opportunities and threats. Transactional analysis (TA) is a model for understanding a personality in its three ego states—Parent, Adult and Child. It helps to know the games people play and the limits they impose on themselves. Gilmore (1973) offers a three-dimensional framework to gather information—Work, Relationships and Identity. Work is the primary pursuit of any person. It is a means of livelihood and symbol of accomplishment. What is a person's occupation and how does s/he feel about it? However, pursuits go beyond a job or occupation. People crave for relationships to receive and provide care, support, encouragement, love and concern. Who do they care for and who cares for them? Being social does not mean loss of identity. We develop self-image and identity and try to protect and enhance it. Who are you? Could you self-actualize while progressing in your life? Frameworks are not all inclusive. You cannot package all details in the framework chosen, but it serves as a guide to cover major issues.

## Exploration

Exploration means helping clients articulate their concerns. In this process, the counsellor guides the client to speak out his thoughts and emotions relating to his problem. The counsellor has to be skilful in keeping a focus—he has to encourage as well as monitor the process of exploration by the client. At the end of the guided exploration of individual personality and situations (both past and present), the client will gain clarity in the problem. In the place of negative feelings such as fears and doubts, he will find new energy and interest in problem-solving. Some problems may have chains and often unpacking one problem may reveal its connection to another.

Throughout the process, the counsellor offers support and facilitation based on what the client decides, based on his or her feelings. It aims at allowing the clients to experience the following:

- **Realizing what they are:** Recognition of their skills and experience, their achievements and failures.
- **Recalling response to a problem:** It involves knowing how they responded to a problem that has confronted them, how they fell from a caring to blaming position, and the ways they used to discount themselves and others.
- **Re-experiencing:** By talking about the past events, they will be able to visualize how they suffered and feel it all over once again. It helps release emotions that are deep-seated in their mind and which restrict their positive behaviour.

Emphasis is given to feelings and thoughts, as stimuli for action and change. Assessment should be factual and unbiased. Keep in mind the following guidelines:

- Be aware of your biases and those of others who furnished information.
- Use a variety of sources; do not rely on one single source to make an assessment.
- Do not label a behaviour that you do not understand or which is culturally different as dysfunctional.
- Be balanced. Make sure to point out strengths when addressing problematic behaviour.

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### What else to observe?

While making an assessment of the client, it is important to evaluate his behaviour and the effectiveness of the interaction. Some useful questions are:

- **Behaviour of client**
  - o Is this client able to make use of the counselling or would some other intervention be appropriate?
  - o Is the client talking about himself in a way he intends to and is he correctly conveying information about himself?
  - o What issue is the client avoiding or seeing as being less important or is overlooking?
- **Outcome of interaction**
  - o Can I identify some patterns or themes in the thinking and behaviour of the client?
  - o Am I too eager to jump to conclusions?
  - o Am I clear about the facts, fantasies, fears and hopes of the client?

### Re-assessment

Re-assessment is referred to as 're-framing' by Watzlawick (1974), 're-defining' by Reddy (1987) and 'New perspectives' by Egan (1986). Re-assessment aims at examining an issue from different perspectives. It implies changing from known, apparent views to less known, hidden dimensions. The counsellor changes the view of a client by challenging the understanding gained so far. When new insights are discovered, approaches to change can be evolved. Challenging is a difficult task as it involves re-directing the thought processes of clients and also dealing with the discomfort they experience when challenged. Different ways of challenging are:

- **Deeper exploration:** In-depth inquiry is necessary to discover what clients could not say because they are not aware of (blind spots) or are only dimly aware of something and could not articulate it, or are just avoiding or

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overlooking or ignoring. To understand such latent views or feelings, advanced empathy (Egan, 1986) is necessary. A counsellor can employ the questioning technique as a tool for in-depth interview.

- **Challenge:** There are different challenging strategies. They are: Confrontation (pointing out discrepancies, incongruities, or misty explanations and probing for clarity. It corrects faulty or distorted views that immobilize clients); Self-confrontation (talking to oneself critically, not blaming self); immediacy (focusing on the present), giving feedback (which may present a different picture to the client), self-disclosures (counsellor sharing his experiences with the client, which are similar to those of the client) and directives (asking for a different way of looking at the problem).

### Goal setting

After exploration, the next stage of counselling is the formulation of goals. The client should be helped in articulating and prioritizing concerns and focusing on appropriate goals. Generally, the client may not be in a position to deal with different concerns at a time. There is a need to prioritize. The following questions will be helpful to find the client's views on the concerns.

- Which concern is most important? Why? Is it the one causing the most distress?
- Which issue is related to most of the other issues?
- Which issue when solved would give greatest advantage?
- Which is easy to solve? Which requires support system and is difficult to handle now?

The client is encouraged to articulate the goals he considers appropriate to his future. By allowing a client to state the goals, the counsellor enhances the client's sense of ownership and motivation, which are important in the change process. The client should be supported in defining clear and attainable goals. Well-identified goals help create a roadmap for future actions and basis for evaluation of progress. It is important to view goals as flexible ones. As therapy/counselling progresses, goals may require re-definition. Some of the possible goals for counselling can be as given below (Nystul, 2003):

- To change an unwanted or unwelcome behaviour
- To cope better with a stressful situation
- To make and implement decisions that require change
- To enhance relationships that are good but sometimes conflicting
- To help a client grow and develop towards achieving high potential

The goals/objectives of the client should always be concrete and measurable should be tailored by himself. They should be derived from the following questions:

- What do you want to achieve?
- How are you going to achieve it?

- When do you want to achieve your stated goal?
- What obstacles do you anticipate?
- How will you address these obstacles?
- How will you measure and monitor progress?
- Are your goals realistic?

Some of the techniques helpful in goal setting are: multiple scenarios, brain storming, sentence completion and force field analysis. The role of counsellor is important in giving final shape to the goals for two reasons: (i) some clients do not like to set goals and (ii) the goals set are too ambitious in case of some clients.

### **Agreement on an action plan**

This phase involves change management. It begins as soon as goals are established for desired change. The focus in this phase is how to design a plan of action to achieve the selected goals. The implementation plan is a plan designed to prevent, intervene, or address unhealthy behaviour and practices. Implementation activities can include: counselling, crisis intervention, training and education, supportive services, concrete services and constructive use of free time. An effective implementation plan will outline the roles of counsellor and client in the implementation process.

The agreement on an action plan can be arrived in many ways—by bargaining, convincing and forced consent. Research suggests that collaboratively established plans work best. As such, the counsellor has to work with the client to make the plan. The counsellor plays an educator's role by offering the client new perspectives to think and information regarding options, and advantages/disadvantages for each. Techniques of self-reinforcement such as role play (swapping roles) and assigning homework for thinking at home may be employed to involve the client in the exercise. The action plan should clearly delineate the actions to be taken by the client and interventions to be utilized by the counsellor. For better understanding, we quote the case of 'Child with Anger Management Issues' (Knapp & Jongsma, 2000).

- **Problem:** Repeated angry outbursts out of proportion to precipitating event.
- **Goal:** Significantly reduce the intensity and frequency of angry outbursts.
- **Objectives:** Parents clearly define rules and boundaries and follow through with the child.
- **Intervention:** Assist parent in the process of identifying and presenting rules and consequences to the child.

The counsellor has to assess the possibilities of success and examine the need for support (to assist the client who feels helpless) and rewards for motivation (in light of possibility of reverting to old behaviour). In this phase, the counsellor has to employ good listening skills. He has to recognize non-verbal signs and listen for the underlying communication. The counsellor should not be judgemental and should not jump to conclusions.

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The plan of action should avoid vague expressions. In case of counselling for communication skills, a statement such as 'Next month, I want you to improve your communication skills' has no specific direction or destination. The expression must be clear, stating actions and desired end results. For example: 'Next week you'll attend the public speaking sessions to overcome stage fright. After the sessions, we will attend the conversation course. The classes will help you develop your speaking skills. Then I will talk to you again and determine if there is any need for additional training.' A specific and pragmatic plan of action sets the stage for successful development.

### 7.2.4 Terminating and Follow-Up

Termination is the final stage of counselling and marks the close of the relationship. Termination is the counsellor and the client ending the therapeutic alliance. The termination stage can be as important as the initial stage in that it is the last interaction many clients will have with the counsellor. If the termination leaves on a sour note, then the client may look back on the time as a waste of effort and resources. If the termination goes well, then this has a multiplying effect, as the former client sees that their time was well spent and this will be one more person who is helping reduce the stigma of mental health. We will discuss the proper way of terminating in detail in the Unit 13.

The counselling process does not end with the plan of action, but continues taking a different turn from this time onwards towards action. Follow-Up part of the counselling continues through implementation of the plan of action and evaluation of results. The role of the counsellor is one of evaluator and navigator.

#### Review progress

A sound basis for evaluation is the plan of action. It provides useful information for follow-up counselling sessions and indicates that support measures have to be provided for the implementation of the plan. Such support measures may include coaching or providing time and resources. From this point of view, the counsellor has to examine the progress of the client and provide constructive feedback.

#### Review the learning

Another aspect to be reviewed is the perspectives change in the client's. Ward (1984) suggested the following guidelines:

- Relate the present behaviour to the guidance given by the counsellor.
- Ask the present views of the client regarding a piece of information he had discussed in the counselling sessions. Notice the change in the view and provide feedback.
- Share the memories of counselling experience and observe the reactions of the client. Give feedback on his emotional response to those memories.
- Discuss how the new behaviour can help tackle other issues.

## 7.2.5 Holistic View of Counselling

We have so far discussed the different stages of counselling giving due consideration to the client's expectations and behaviour, the counsellor's attitude and behaviour and the interaction between them. Table 7.2 captures all the elements to put forward a holistic view of counselling.

*Table 7.2 Holistic View of Counselling*

Aspects	Beginning	Developing	Termination	Follow-up
Goal	To establish rapport; to become aware of problem	To define the problem and identify a solution	To develop a plan of action	To manage change in behaviour
Tasks	Create right climate for interaction and encourage client to articulate problems	Assess client's personality and behaviour, explore deep problem areas, prioritize concerns and goal setting	Develop an implementation plan for change, decide the follow-up measures and frequency	Review periodically and liberate the client to be an independent person
Client's expectations	Counsellor and process will solve problems; counsellor will take care; I can relax; nothing happens	Counsellor can assess me; he is expert. Counsellor sets goals for me; he is capable	Counsellor directs and prescribes; he is the best judge	Counsellor helps
Counsellor's role	Receptionist and analyst	Researcher, analyst and decision-maker	Change agent	Supervisor
Counsellor's strategies	Relationship building	Joint exploration and problem solving	Change management	Change management
Counsellor's skills	Attention, listening, observation, conceptualization	Probing, reflecting, challenging, concretizing, evaluating and selecting	Implementation steps and mile stones. Feedback design	Monitoring

### Check Your Progress

1. What are the stages in the counselling process?
2. List the steps in preparation.
3. What will be the outcome of the beginning phase?
4. What are the key activities in the developing phase?
5. What do you do in the termination phase?

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## 7.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS AND DIAGNOSIS

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Psychological tests are tests that are conducted to know about the abilities, attitudes, motivations and needs of individuals. According to Anne Anastasi, a famous psychologist, 'Psychological test can be defined as a sample of an individual's, behaviour, obtained under standard conditions and scored according to a fixed set of rules that provide a numeric score.'

In a standardized psychological test, the scores of the individual are compared with test scores obtained from samples of tests that were conducted when the test was first developed. Psychological tests can be conducted in various ways. These may require the individual to answer in Yes/ No or Right/ Wrong or in some cases these tests may require the individual to give detailed information about their tendencies and dispositions. Generally, psychological tests are conducted and interpreted on the basis of a manual that gives detailed information regarding the test, its accuracy and reliability.

Psychological tests can be used to assess various behavioural traits of a person. On the basis of the behavioural trait being assessed, psychological tests can be categorized into several types of tests. These include the following:

- Tests of intelligence
- Tests of abilities
- Tests of interests
- Tests of personality
- Tests of achievement

Each of these tests has a defined purpose and assesses different traits and attitudes of the individual. Any psychological test to be of use to the counsellor as well as the client must have the following characteristics:

- The test must be reliable in the sense that it must give accurate and consistent results every time it is used.
- The test must be valid in the sense that it measures exactly what it is intended to measure.
- The test must be practical and usable in the sense that it can be easily administered in a cost- effective manner. The test must also be conducted in such a manner that it takes very less time.

According to Lee Joseph Cronbach, an American educational psychologist, psychological tests are undertaken for the following purposes:

- **Prediction:** The various psychological tests that the individual undertakes provide a basis for predicting the decisions that the individual will take at a later stage in order to overcome the problem.



- **Selection:** Psychological tests are often administered by various organizations and institutions to know the skills and abilities that an individual possesses. On the basis of these skills and abilities, the individual may be selected for a job or a course.
- **Classification:** Psychological tests are used to classify individuals on the basis of their aptitude and attitude. For example, students may need to undertake psychological tests to classify those with high aptitude levels as one group.
- **Evaluation:** Psychological tests are also undertaken to assess and evaluate programmes, methods and techniques to know whether these are effective in application or not.

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### 7.3.1 Intelligence Tests

Intelligence is one of the most commonly used psychological term that has been used to distinguish people. Intelligence is basically an understanding of how well the individual understands a complex process and learns from it and other experiences. On this basis, a person who is able to understand the complex processes well and use them equally well is considered to be an intelligent person.

Intelligence, however, cannot be measures only on the basis of a single entity. In fact, intelligence tests measure a variety of mental functions and abilities of the individual. Intelligence tests are, thus, based on nine different and independent intelligences. These multiple intelligences have been proposed by Howard Gardener, an American developmental psychologist, in his Theory of Multiple Intelligences. According to Gardener, these nine different and independent intelligences interact and work together to enable the individual to find a solution to his problems. Thus, the Theory of Multiple Intelligences states that intelligence is not a single entity and a person's intelligence cannot be measured on the basis of excellence at a specific task.

The following are the nine types of intelligences as described by Gardener in his Theory of Multiple Intelligences:

- **Linguistic intelligence:** Linguistic intelligence refers to the ability of the individual to make use of language he knows in expressing his thoughts and in understanding others.
- **Logical mathematical intelligence:** Logical mathematical intelligence refers to the ability of the individual to think logically and critically to manipulate symbols and solve mathematical problems.
- **Spatial intelligence:** Spatial intelligence refers to the ability of a person to form, transform and use mental images. It is spatial intelligence that enables a person to understand relationships of objects in space.
- **Musical intelligence:** Musical intelligence is the capability of the individual to create, produce and manipulate musical patterns.

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- **Bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence:** Bodily intelligence refers to the individual's ability to make use of his body structure and muscles in a coordinated manner to facilitate movement and to do various tasks in a routine manner.
- **Interpersonal intelligence:** Interpersonal intelligence is the ability of the individual to relate with other people and understand the behaviour, attitudes and emotions of other people. This type of intelligence enables a person to find out why the other person behaves in a specific manner.
- **Intrapersonal intelligence:** Intrapersonal intelligence is the individual's ability to understand his inner self. It enables a person to identify his strengths and weaknesses so that the person can relate with others on this basis.
- **Naturalistic intelligence:** Naturalistic intelligence refers to the ability of a person to understand the nature and the environment that surrounds the person. It enables a person to identify the beauty of the nature and also makes a person aware of the importance of environment to lead a healthy life.
- **Existential intelligence:** This intelligence refers to the ability of a person to understand the basics of human existence and answer several questions about the existence of mankind.

With the emergence of the concept of multiple intelligences, the intelligence tests today require a person to perform several tasks. There are four basic intelligence tests that are used to measure the intelligence of a person. These are as follows:

- **Binet-Simon scale:** The Binet-Simon intelligence test was first devised in 1905 and then revised in 1908 and 1911. The test was developed by psychologists, Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon, who believed that intelligence, was a learned entity. The test was basically formulated to test the intelligence of children according to their age. The test was conducted on children in the age group of three to twelve years to measure their intelligence. The original test devised in 1905 included the following:
  - o 'Le Regard'
  - o Prehension provoked by a tactile stimulus
  - o Prehension provoked by a visual perception
  - o Recognition of food
  - o Quest of food complicated by a slight mechanical difficulty
  - o Executing simple commands and imitating simple gestures
  - o Verbal knowledge about objects
  - o Verbal knowledge of pictures
  - o Naming of designated objects
  - o Immediate comparison of two lines of unequal lengths

- o Repetition of three figures
- o Comparison of two weights
- o Suggestibility
- o Verbal definition of known objects
- o Repetition of sentences of fifteen words
- o Comparison of known objects from memory
- o Exercise of memory on pictures
- o Drawing a design from memory
- o Immediate repetition of figures
- o Resemblances of several known objects given from memory
- o Comparison of lengths
- o Five weights to be placed in order
- o Gap in weights
- o Exercise upon rhymes
- o Verbal gaps to be filled
- o Synthesis of three words in one sentence
- o Reply to an abstract question
- o Reversal of the hands of a clock
- o Paper cutting
- o Definitions of abstract terms

The child was required to take several tests and his score was based on the composite score across the various tests. The Binet-Simon Scale basically measured the mental age of the child against the chronological age. Chronological age of the child is the age that corresponds to a specific level of performance. Based on this, the results of the tests were classified as follows:

- o **Average:** An average score meant that the mental age and the chronological age match each other.
- o **Advanced:** An advanced score meant that the mental age was higher than the chronological age.
- o **Retarded:** A test score of retarded meant that the mental age was lower than the chronological age.
- **Stanford-Binet scale:** The Stanford-Binet scale was developed in 1916 by an American psychologist, Lewis Terman. Lewis Terman revised the Binet-Simon scale and expanded it to formulate the Stanford-Binet scale. This scale gave the test scores in terms of intelligence quotients. Intelligence quotient is calculated by dividing the mental age by the chronological age

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and then multiplying the result by 100. This test allowed children of different age groups to be compared on the basis of their IQ scores. The Stanford-Binet scale measured the factors in different test categories as shown in Table 7.3.

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*Table 7.3 Factors Measured by the Stanford-Binet Scale*

Fluid reasoning	Knowledge	Quantitative reasoning	Visual-spatial processing	Working memory
Early reasoning	Vocabulary	Non-verbal quantitative reasoning (non-verbal)	Form board and form patterns (non-verbal)	Delayed response (non-verbal)
Verbal absurdities	Procedural knowledge (non-verbal)	Verbal quantitative reasoning	Position and direction	Block span (non-verbal)
Verbal analogies	Picture absurdities (non-verbal)			Memory for sentences
Object series matrices (non-verbal)				Last word

The Stanford- Binet scale has emerged as a standard test for measuring intelligence. However, the approach does have some problems. One problem is that IQ for different age groups is different and so people from different age groups cannot be compared or it would be wrong to compare people of different age groups. The IQ system and the scoring system did not work well for adults. In fact, the test works best for people ranging between two to thirteen years of age. To overcome these shortcomings, the test was revised in 1937, 1960, 1973 and 1986.

- **Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS):** American psychologist David Wechsler published the first test to assess the intelligence of adults in 1939. This test is designed to assess the non-verbal reasoning abilities of adults. This scale indicates the scores separately for verbal intelligence, non-verbal intelligence and also scores of the overall intelligence of a person. In this test, the IQ curve of a person represents the area in which the person falls in the normal distribution of IQ scores. The latest edition of this test released in 2008 is composed of ten core subtests and five supplementary subtests that indicate the overall IQ of a person. These tests basically test the following attributes of the individual’s intelligence:
  - o Verbal Comprehension Index (VCI)
  - o Perceptual Reasoning Index (PRI)
  - o Working Memory Index (WMI)
  - o Processing Speed Index (PSI)

Table 7.4 shows the subtests that are carried out under the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale.

**Table 7.4** Subtests under the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale

<b>Verbal Comprehension</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Proposed abilities measured</b>
Similarities	The participants are given two words or concepts. The participants then have to find the similarities between the concepts or the words.	The test is a measure of abstract verbal reasoning.
Vocabulary	In this test, different tasks may be assigned to the participant. The participants have to name the objects and pictures that are given to them.	The test measures how well one has been able to learn, comprehend, use and express the vocabulary taught.
Information	In this test, the participants are questioned about general knowledge.	The test measures how much general information a person has acquired from culture.
(Comprehension)		This test measures a person's ability to deal with abstract social conventions, rules and expressions.

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<b>Perceptual Reasoning</b>	<b>Proposed abilities measured</b>
Block Design	This is a test that can measure a person's spatial perception. It also helps to measure the visual processing abilities and also problem-solving abilities of a person.
Matrix Reasoning	This is a test of measuring the individual's non-verbal abstract problem-solving abilities and also to measure the inductive reasoning and spatial reasoning abilities.
Visual Puzzles	The visual puzzles best measure the spatial intelligence.
(Picture Completion)	This test checks how quickly the individual perceives visual details.
(Figure Weights)	Quantitative and analogical reasoning is measured in this test.

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<b>Working Memory</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Proposed abilities measured</b>
Digit span forwards	In this test, the participants are required to recall a series of numbers in order.	The abilities measured by the test include learning, memory, attention, encoding and auditory processing.
Digit span backwards	The participants have to recall the numbers in a backward fashion or series.	The test measures an individual's working memory. It also measures how effectively an individual can transform information and the visual and spatial imaginary skills.
Digit span sequencing	In this test, the participants are required to retain a sequence and then later recall it in an ascending order.	
Arithmetic		This test is a measure of the quantitative aptitude and the concentration and mental manipulation abilities of an individual.
(Letter-Number Sequencing)	In this test, the participants are required to retain numbers and alphabets and then recall the numbers in an ascending order and letters in an alphabetical order.	The test is a measure of an individual's attention abilities. It also tests the concentration and mental abilities of an individual.

<b>Processing Speed</b>	<b>Proposed abilities measured</b>
Symbol Search	This test measures the visual perception abilities of a person. The test also checks how well a person can analyse the visuals and the scanning speed as well.
Coding	The coding test tests how well an individual can coordinate his visual perceptions and motor skills. The test also measures the working memory and the mental skills of an individual.
(Cancellation)	This test checks how well an individual can perceive visuals.

- **Wechsler primary and preschool scale of intelligence:** This is an intelligence test designed for children aged between two years six months and seven years seven months. The test was designed by David Wechsler in 1967. This test contains of seventeen sub-tests and the score of all such tests is accumulated to get the IQ of the child. The subtests fall into the following categories:
  - o Block design
  - o Information

- o Matrix reasoning
- o Bug search
- o Picture memory
- o Similarities
- o Picture concepts
- o Cancellation
- o Zoo locations
- o Object assembly
- o Vocabulary
- o Animal coding
- o Comprehension
- o Receptive vocabulary
- o Picture naming

The results of this test are categorized in the following manner:

- o Below 70 is extremely low
- o 70-79 is borderline
- o 80-89 is low average
- o 90-109 is average
- o 110-119 is high average
- o 120-129 is superior
- o 130+ is very superior

The advantages of intelligence tests are as follows:

- These tests are the best tests that have been developed to test a variety of human behaviours in the most effective manner.
- These tests offer a standard and uniform means of comparing the intelligence levels of people.
- These are excellent predictors of academic performance.
- These tests effectively outline the strengths and weaknesses of people.
- Intelligence tests provide information on cultural and biological differences among people.

The disadvantages of intelligence tests are as follows:

- Most intelligence scores provide a single score which cannot be used to measure the multidimensional facets of intelligence.
- These tests cannot predict or evaluate non-academic intellectual abilities.

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- The tests may not always be relevant to people of all classes and backgrounds.

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### Types of questions that can be found in general intelligence tests

The following are the types of questions that are generally found in an IQ test:

- Analogies (mathematical and verbal)
- Pattern driven (spatial and mathematical)
- Classification
- Visual
- Spatial
- Logical

Other types of questions could be encountered as well. These questions could be any of the following:

- Questions related to pictures. For example, a picture of dice and ask which one is different.
- Questions related to picture shapes and asking the tester to point out the different one.
- Questions with pictures of unfolded cubes with designs on each cube face. The participant may be required to point out which image would be the right choice if the cube was to be folded.
- Questions related to finding the missing numbers. This requires the test taker to analyse logically to find the missing number.
- Questions related to images of folded shapes and identifying which shape does not belong to the given shapes.
- Questions asking the test taker to unscramble the words and identify the category to which the word belongs.
- Questions related to the identification of missing pieces of a diagram or a block.
- Questions related to series of figures and finding which figure comes next in the sequence.

The number of questions you answer correctly is then used to score the test and provide a measure of your intelligence.

### 7.3.2 Achievement Tests

Achievement is what one accomplishes in a specific field, area or domain in which one is considered to be an expert. Achievement tests assess the knowledge and skills that a person has gained. Typically, achievement tests are taken by students to assess how well they have been able to acquire skills and knowledge that have been taught to them. There are several types of achievement tests that are carried



out and each of these tests is used for a different purpose and to assess a different skill of a student. Most of the achievement tests provide information about academic proficiency of a student. Achievement tests are categorized as follows:

- **Formative and summative tests:** Formative tests are the tests that assess the knowledge and skills gathered before and during instructions. Summative tests are usually given at the end of training or course instruction to assess the outcome of the instructions. In other words, these tests assess how much knowledge has been gained once the course has been completed.
- **Prognostic tests:** Prognostic tests are also called readiness tests. These tests basically assess as to how much the individual will gain from the training that will be provided related to a specific area.
- **Diagnostic tests:** Diagnostic achievement tests measure the performance of a student in different subjects thereby identifying the strong and the weak areas of the students. Typically, these tests assess students in arithmetic, language ability and reading.

In general, achievement tests are criterion referenced or norm referenced. The criterion referenced and norm referenced tests differ on the basis of their intended purpose, the manner in which a test is selected and how the results are assessed and evaluated. Criterion referenced achievement tests determine the strengths of the test taker. These tests basically assess what a person taking the test can do and his knowledge. These tests are not comparison tests. These tests inform as to how well the individual is performing with respect to pre-determined performance levels. Norm referenced tests are the achievement tests that are designed to compare achievement differences among people. The main aim of these tests is to rank achievers from high achievers to low achievers and compare how well the individual performs in comparison to others.

Achievement tests can be teacher made tests and standardized tests. A teacher made test is an evaluation technique used in classrooms. These tests are designed by teachers to measure the outcome and content of the local curriculum that the teachers impart to the students in the class room. A teacher made test can be easily developed and can be adapted to any subject or material. In teacher made achievement tests, the materials of the test, the time limit and the scoring procedure vary from one test to the other. In other words, no two teacher make the same tests. Such tests also do not require sophisticated techniques for development.

Standardized tests are the achievement tests that are developed using a specific procedure. In standardized tests, there is uniformity with respect to scoring procedures, administration of the tests and also interpretation of the test results. C.V. Good has described a standardized test is that 'for which content has been selected and checked empirically for which norms have been established, for which uniform methods of administering and scoring have been developed and which may be scored with a relatively high degree of objectivity.' Standardized tests are

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developed by experts and so have high technical standards. These tests are highly reliable as compared to other tests of the same type and nature. The results and data obtained from achievement tests can be used to promote, classify, diagnose and evaluate students.

The advantages of achievement tests are as follows:

- These tests provide information regarding the extent of learning and the rate of learning.
- These tests highlight the relative performance of the individual or a student.
- Achievement tests help to identify the strengths and weaknesses of students in specific subjects.

The disadvantages of achievement tests are as follows:

- Achievement tests are not reliable in assessing job satisfaction and job success.
- These tests often fail to provide the correct information.
- These tests do not take into account factors like mood, fatigue and so on that can affect the performance in these tests.
- Achievement tests typically focus on cognitive development and do not indicate anything about emotional and personality traits.

### **Peabody individual achievement test**

The Peabody is a standardized, nationally norm referenced achievement test. It is individually administered by a trained examiner. The assessment takes place in the following fields: general information, reading recognition, reading comprehension, mathematics and spelling. The assessment is based on the scores of each subtest and the composite score indicates the grade level and percentile ranking of a test taker in relation to the several other test takers. The test is not a written but an oral one and is in a conversational format so that the students find it easy to take the test. The duration of the test is between sixty to ninety minutes. However, the subtests and the exam in general are not timed. The test can be administered all through the year to assess K-12 grade levels.

#### *Individual testing*

Individual tests are administered in a non-bracketed fashion. This means that the students can take the test as per their abilities and skills. The students are not required to answer questions that are fixed as per the grade level. The assessment of the child takes place using materials relevant to the age and the grade of the child. The students are required to take the test of a higher level only when he answers at least five out of seven questions in a correct manner.

### **Peabody subtests and scoring**

- **General information:** The general information subtest tests the student's general information and knowledge related to fields like science, social

science, history and humanities. As has already been mentioned, the test is an oral one and so the questions are read out loud and the student answers them. The child's factual and reasoning knowledge are assessed in this subtest.

- **Reading recognition:** Reading recognition is an oral test of the reading skills of the students. The test assesses the student's ability to recognize sounds of words and alphabets and also the vocabulary of the student.
- **Reading comprehension:** Reading comprehension is a subtest that measures the student's ability to understand what he has read. The child develops his vocabulary through this test. Usually, a student reads out a sentence and then chooses the picture that relates to the sentence in the best way.
- **Mathematics:** This subtest assesses the mathematical ability of the students. The test may assess the number recognition skills, the clarity of concepts related to geometry and trigonometry. Most of the questions are simple and do not require the students to do a lot of calculations. However, students are allowed to make use of paper and pencil to answer the questions.
- **Spelling:** The spelling test is a multiple-choice question type test wherein the student is required to choose the correct spellings. The examiner speaks aloud various spellings of a particular word and the student is required to tell the correct spelling of the word.
- **Scoring:** The scores of each subtest are calculated instantaneously and are combined to give a cumulative score for the student. This indicates the grade level and the knowledge of the student.

### 7.3.3 Interest Tests

Interest tests are tests that assess the interests of the individual. It has been proved that interests are related to academic success and also job satisfaction. Therefore, it is essential to know the interests of the individual or a student. Interests basically refer to activities that a person enjoys and likes to indulge in. Interest tests are classified into formal assessment techniques and informal assessment techniques.

Formal assessment techniques: Interest inventories are the formal tools that are used to identify the interests of the individual. The Strong Vocational Interest Bank is an interest inventory that is based on the assumption that the individual with interest in an occupation will find satisfaction and will also enjoy success in that specific occupation. In this interest inventory, a test taker has to differentiate between different activities as L(Like), I (Indifferent) and D (Dislike). Thus, this interest inventory is termed as category-response type assessment. Kuder Preference Record is an interest inventory developed by G. Frederick Kuder, a pioneer in vocational guidance. The Kuder Preference Record enables one to assess preferences for specific activities. Each activity listed in the records has three choices and the test taker has to select one of the three choices as the

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first choice and another as the third choice. This type of assessment is also called forced choice pattern type as the test taker is required to specify which activity he likes the best and which he likes the least and the reason for disliking that activity.

The most common type of interest test that is conducted is career test. This test helps people find careers that match their interests. The career test typically asks a few questions about the career interests of the individual and the results of the test point out, as to whether the career is right for the person or not. The test is based on the premise that a person should opt for a career that interests him because only then can one enjoy the work and achieve success in that field. Interest tests are typically carried out for the following reasons:

- This test provides teachers, parents and counsellors information related to the preference and aversions of the students so that they can be understood better.
- It enables the parents, teachers and counsellors to assist the student in a better manner in terms of his educational and vocational interests.
- This test also helps in selecting the right person for the right task and, hence, increasing the productivity.

Interest tests simply show what interests a person and not the strengths of a person. As such, interest test results should not be used alone to decide which vocation or educational field is best suited for a person. Interest tests on their own have very less significance and so their results must be combined with other tests like achievement and aptitude tests to help a person to make the right educational and career choice.

### **HOPE test of interests**

Online HOPE Interest Tests are field-tested, reliable and valid. These tests have been developed by a trained psychometrician of Boston University. These tests are duly copyrighted with the Government of India. These tests are now available online, not only in English but also in Hindi and Tamil and can be administered anywhere in the world. Students, therefore, have the option to take the online tests in their preferred language. These tests are designed for individual students who want to know about their level of intelligence, vocational aptitude and personality. These tests are specially recommended for students in the X class to help them select proper course groups in XI class and for students in the XII class to select appropriate courses in higher studies. The tests are also recommended for undergraduate and graduate students and students pursuing professional degrees. These tests help these students in identifying careers in which they will be successful. These tests help educational and vocational institutions, to identify careers/vocations in which the students would excel.

### 7.3.4 Aptitude Tests

Aptitude is considered as the natural tendency of a person to do something. Aptitude is also sometimes known as the special ability or a cluster of abilities of a person. It is on the basis of the aptitude that a person is considered to be good at something. Aptitude of the individual is the natural ability that can be extended and improved by learning and experience but cannot be extended beyond a limit. An aptitude test assesses the potential of the individual to achieve or excel in a given activity. The reasons why aptitude tests are conducted are as follows:

- Aptitude tests help to bring to fore potentials and abilities that the individual is unaware of.
- These tests encourage the development of a specific ability.
- These tests provide information that can be used by the individual in deciding about an educational field or a specific career.
- These also help in predicting and evaluating academic and vocational success.

Aptitude tests are available to test almost anything and everything. These are of various types which include the following:

- **Verbal tests:** These are the most basic types of aptitude tests that assess logical reasoning of the individual. Verbal tests may involve spelling tests, identifying antonyms or synonyms, identifying analogies, filling words to complete sentences or interchanging words in a given sentence. Example: The relationship between WORD and SENTENCE is best expressed similarly by which of the following pairs of words?
  - A. ENGINE and CAR
  - B. BIBLE and BOOK
  - C. CELL and ORGANISM
  - D. SONNET and TEXT
  - E. STEM and FLOWER
- **Numerical tests:** These aptitude tests assess numeracy and logical thought of the individual. The test may typically involve completing a number series, simple arithmetic calculations, interpreting charts, diagrams or graphs. Example: What is the sum of the following?  $5/9 + 3/4 + 5/7 =$ 
  - A. 1
  - B. 2
  - C. 3
  - D. 4
  - E. 5
- **Non-Verbal tests:** The non-verbal aptitude tests assess the memory, thinking and reasoning abilities of a person. Such tests typically include

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diagrammatic reasoning, memory tests and inductive and abstract reasoning.

- **Accuracy, speed and attention tests:** These aptitude tests require data to be organized and compared so that the objects can be placed in the right order. These usually test the speed, attention and accuracy of the individual in relation to the various aspects.
- **Spatial tests:** These are tests that assess the awareness of 3-dimensional and 2-dimensional spaces.

The advantages of aptitude tests are as follows:

- These tests provide a uniform and standard quantitative metric for objective comparison of individuals.
- These are by far the most efficient and effective tools to assess the aptitude of the individual.

The disadvantages of aptitude tests are as follows:

- Aptitude tests do not measure all areas of intelligence and ability.
- These tests do not fairly assess intelligence levels.

**Differential Aptitude Test**

Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) is an aptitude test that can be used to assess the general cognitive abilities and aptitudes across a wide range of occupations. DAT tests also serve as assessment tools to predict success in a training programme and overall job performance. The use of DAT reveals the following:

- General cognitive abilities
- Perceptual abilities
- Clerical and language skills

Each DAT test is used to assess aptitudes suitable for various occupations.

Test	What It Does	Jobs/Fields	Max Time
<b>Verbal Reasoning</b>	Verbal reasoning is a measure of the general cognitive ability especially in terms of thinking skills.	Any	20 minutes
<b>Numerical Ability</b>	Numerical ability tests are the tests that are used to assess the individual's ability to understand numerical relationships and handle the various numerical concepts.	Project Manager, Bookkeeper, Statistician, Shipping Clerk	20 minutes
<b>Abstract Reasoning</b>	Abstract reasoning is a non-verbal test. This test is used to measure the individual's ability to find relationships between different and abstract figure patterns.	Skilled Trades, Computer Programming, Drafting, Auto Repair	15 minutes

<b>Mechanical Reasoning</b>	Mechanical reasoning is like the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test. The aim of this test is to measure the ability of the individual to understand and apply basic mechanical principles of machinery, tools and motion.	Carpenter, Mechanic, Maintenance Worker, Assembler	20 minutes
<b>Space Relations</b>	Space relations is a test which is used to assess the individual's ability to identify and visualize 3-D objects, figures and patterns and identify how the objects would look if these are rotated, flipped or moved in some manner.	Drafting, Architecture, Die-making, Carpentry, Clothing, Design, Art, Decorating, Dentistry	15 minutes
<b>Language Usage</b>	Language usage is a test of the individual's ability to use grammar, detect errors in grammar and also to identify punctuations and capitalization.	Any	12 minutes

**NOTES****Employment aptitude tests in India**

eLitmus was launched in 2005 and is one of the best employment aptitude tests. It is also called pH test (Hiring Potential Test). The aim of the test is to recruit new counselees or freshers. It is conducted and organized by eLitmus Evaluation Private Limited, an organization in Bangalore. eLitmus has collaborated with over 200 companies that make use of this test to recruit the right candidates for the right jobs. eLitmus test is considered to be the most effective employability test in India and assesses a candidate on various criteria. The various parameters are evaluated and test scores are based on how the candidate performed at these levels. The score is known as the pH score and grades are awarded on the basis of these tests.

The eLitmus test is a written test of two hours. The test is divided into three sections— quantitative, verbal and analytic sections. The number of questions in each section is twenty and so the candidate has to answer a total of sixty questions in the test. The questions are multiple-choice questions. Each section has twenty questions making a total of sixty questions. The maximum marks in the test are 600 if answers are wrong, negative marking also takes place. On the basis of the performance in the test, average and percentile scores of a candidate are calculated. The test can be administered especially for candidates who have little experience and the questions are based on topics like General Mental Aptitude, English Communication, Behavioural Skills and Domain Knowledge.

AMCAT stands for Aspiring Mind's Computer Adaptive Assessment. The test is considered as one of the best employability tests in India. The test is administered to choose the right candidates for the right jobs. The test assesses the candidates in subjects— English, Quantitative Ability and Logical Ability. The test also assesses personality and behaviour of a candidate.

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### Academic Aptitude and Achievement Test (AAT)

The Academic Aptitude and Achievement Test (AAT) is India's largest and most popular scholastic aptitude test. The test is aimed at assessing over 1, 50, 000 students from all across the world. Since the last twelve years, the exam has been used by top companies and organizations to hire the right talent. The AAT is a cost-effective test and has been devised after proper research in a scientific manner. The test is also offered as a student guidance service by the IPEM (Institute of Psychological and Educational Research), the pioneer in the field of psychometric and educational research in India. This test is specifically meant for the students of classes VI to XII of all CBSE and CISCE Schools. The test can be administered in English and Hindi.

The Institute of Psychological and Educational Measurement (IPEM), Allahabad developed the test to help the parents and the students to choose the right educational courses by assessing the area in which the child can perform the best. The test basically assesses the scholastic abilities of students. The information and score of the test helps the students to get information that can help the students, teachers and parents to decide about the academic future of the students.

The academic aptitude and achievement tests are designed to measure three important aspects of a student's academic life:

- The student's potential for academic work
- The knowledge of the student in different subject areas
- The ability of the student to make use of that knowledge

The AAT is an objective test with multiple-choice answer questions. The test is diagnostic and holistic in nature. The various sections of the AAT are as follows:

- **Aptitude test:** The aptitude test is a test of two hours duration. The aptitude test assesses the verbal and quantitative reasoning abilities of students. Verbal and quantitative reasoning are considered as important tools that can determine the success of a student at a higher level of education.
- **Achievement test:** The achievement test is a test of two-three hours duration. The aim of the test is to determine the student's achievement and performance in the subjects learnt in school. The test assesses the comprehension abilities and analytical abilities of a student learnt in the school rather than just theoretical knowledge.
- **Interest test:** The interest test is a separate test and is more like a value added test. The test is meant for students of classes VII to XII. The aim of the test is to assess the areas of interest of the students. This information is then used to decide the future course of action for the students in terms of academic and career plans. The students are assessed in the following six areas—literary, social, numerical, mechanical, life sciences, and art & musical. The test scores and results help the counsellors and parents to know the



interest of the students and so help them to decide about the right course of action and offer them proper educational and career guidance.

### Example: Aptitude test questions

- Which of the following is least like the others?
  - A. Cube
  - B. Sphere
  - C. Pyramid
  - D. Circle
- Susan can type 10 pages in 5 minutes. Mary can type 5 pages in 10 minutes. Working together, how many pages can they type in 30 minutes?
  - A. 15
  - B. 20
  - C. 25
  - D. 65
  - E. 75

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#### 7.3.5 Attitude Tests

Attitude tests are the tests that assess the attitudes of people with respect to other people and society. These tests assess how well the individual adjusts to the social norms and how he manages interpersonal relations. Basically, attitude is an expression of how much one likes or dislikes a thing or a person. Based on the attitude, a person approaches things or people he likes and rejects things or people that are not liked. Attitudes are basically learnt and adopted and are not natural capacities of a person.

To test the attitude of a person, various scaling techniques have been developed. One such technique is known as equal-appearing intervals. This method was developed by Thurstone and Chave (scaling theorists). The scale consists of several statements. The score of a person is calculated based on the psychological continuum of the scale value. If the score falls in the middle range of the psychological continuum, the person's attitude to a statement and, thus, a concept is regarded as neutral. If the score falls towards the favourable end of the psychological continuum, the attitude is considered favourable and unfavourable otherwise.

The other method is that of summative ratings. As per this method, each statement has arbitrary weights associated with it, which are as follows:

- 5 strongly agree (SA)
- 4 agree (A)
- 3 undecided (U)

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- 2 disagree (D)
- 1 strongly disagree (SD)

The individual who shows favourable attitude for the statement uses this weight series. On the other hand, the weights 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are used by people who oppose the statement or who show unfavourable attitude. The score is then determined by summing up the ratings of all items. Attitude tests are used to assess the level of adjustment of the individual with the people around him. These tests are also used to assess how good a person is at developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships.

### 7.3.6 Personality Tests

Personality can be defined as a unique pattern of traits that the individual possesses. It is these unique traits that distinguish the person from others and provide a consistent way in which the person interacts with the environment. Personality is the sum total of emotional, motivational, interpersonal, attitudinal and even moral aspects of a person. Personality tests are tests which are conducted to assess the personality of the individual. It is important to conduct personality tests due to the following reasons:

- Personality plays a vital role in determining the vocational and educational success of a person. It is, therefore, essential to know the personality traits so that the individual can make educational and occupational adjustments as required.
- Personality tests help the individual to overcome emotional conflicts. When personality tests are conducted, the individual gets to know what traits are becoming a problem in managing emotional issues and, so can work on improving them thereby resolving emotional issues.
- Personality tests are also important for social counselling.

There are several tools and techniques that are used for testing the personality. Some of them are as follows:

- **Self-report measures:** Self-report measures are personality tests that require the individual to answer a series of questions regarding his characteristic behaviour. During these tests, a person answers several questions about himself in a true/ false manner. These tests can be used to measure several personality traits including attitude, emotions, feelings and so on.
- **Projective techniques:** The projective techniques help to focus on the personality of the individual as a whole. When taking these tests, a person needs to project his personality in the test exercise. The idea behind projection of personality in these tests is to unearth the inner motives and personality traits that are otherwise hidden. These tests, therefore, make the individual aware of whatever he does not know about himself.

- To take the test, the individual has to respond to several stimuli like a series of pictures, ink-blot, or other such stimuli. The interpretation of such results is carried out by professionals who are trained to do so. The interpretation also takes a long time.
- **Behavioural assessment:** Behavioural assessment is a personality test tool that assesses the way the individual behaves under certain conditions. This behaviour is an indicator of the personality of a person.

Advantage of personality tests:

- These tests help to understand the individual and acquire information about him in detail.
- The disadvantages of personality tests include the following:
- Personality tests are not based on adequate norms.
- The information and results of the test can be interpreted only by skilled and trained professionals.

Personality questionnaires are used to assess the personal behavioural preferences. The questionnaire helps a person to know how he likes to work. The test is not aimed at assessing the abilities of a person but the aim of the test is to enable a person to see how he relates to others, when it comes to solving problems and dealing with emotions and feelings. In a personality questionnaire, there are no right or wrong answers. The only thing he has to do is to choose the option that best describes the person's feeling or his liking and disliking for a particular thing or concept. Personality questionnaires can be in two formats. In one type, a person is required to rate himself and in the other format, the person is required to choose statements that he feels relate to his personality.

### Rating statements

In this format of personality test, a person may be asked to rate himself on a number of phrases or statements. After reading each statement, the person may mark the answers as follows:

- Select circle 1** If you strongly disagree with the statement
- Select circle 2** If you disagree with the statement
- Select circle 3** If you are unsure
- Select circle 4** If you agree with the statement
- Select circle 5** If you strongly agree with the statement

In the following example, the first statement has been completed; the person has agreed that 'I enjoy meeting new people' is an accurate description of himself. Try rating yourself on the other example questions. Remember there are no right or wrong answers.

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		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I enjoy meeting new people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2	I like helping people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3	I sometimes make mistakes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4	I'm easily disappointed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5	I enjoy repairing things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Making choices**

In this format of personality questionnaires, a person is given several blocks of statements. The person has to choose the block of statements that best describe his behaviour. A person is required to choose one of the columns marked 'M' for most and 'L' for least. The first statement below has been completed; the person has indicated that he likes most trying out new activities and does not like at all understanding the underlying theory. Try choosing which statements are most and least liked by you in the following example questions. Remember there are no right and wrong answers.

1	<b>A</b>	I try out new activities.	<b>M</b>	<b>L</b>
	<b>B</b>	I consider other people's feelings.	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	<b>C</b>	I like to understand the underlying theory.	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
2	<b>A</b>	I have highly original ideas.	<b>M</b>	<b>L</b>
	<b>B</b>	I am prepared to tell people if they are mistaken.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	C	I am modest about what I have achieved.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3	A	I conceal my feelings.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	B	I am nervous before big events.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	C	I review work critically.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4	A	I like meeting new people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	B	I enjoy setting long-term goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	C	I usually feel relaxed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**NOTES****Example: Personality test for counselees**

The test contains several groups wherein each group contains four statements expressing personal viewpoints. The test taker is required to select the one statement that reflects his viewpoint.

1	<p>A Sometimes it is better to lose than to risk hurting someone.</p> <p>B I am generally good at making 'small talk'.</p> <p>C Established practices and/or standards should always be followed.</p> <p>D I sometimes lose control of my workday.</p>
2	<p>A I rarely have second thoughts about decisions I have made.</p> <p>B I am very careful not to be aggressively demanding of others.</p> <p>C I usually stop at yellow lights, rather than race through them.</p> <p>D People will often take advantage of you without giving it a second thought.</p>
3	<p>A I think managers worry too much about the feelings of other people and not enough about the bottom line.</p> <p>B I work best in situations where I am in control.</p> <p>C Even when winning might be at stake, it is better not to be too forceful.</p> <p>D I sometimes worry about things that I cannot control.</p>
4	<p>A I need immediate results.</p> <p>B People's dislike does not really bother me.</p> <p>C If I follow my preset objectives, I may not take care of the really important things.</p> <p>D If something has worked in the past, it is better to stick with it.</p>
5	<p>A If threatened, I will back off rather than fight.</p> <p>B Most people would never intentionally deceive you.</p> <p>C Once I give priority to a project, I follow it through.</p> <p>D If I cannot do something quickly, I get frustrated.</p>
6	<p>A I do not let day-to-day difficulties affect me.</p> <p>B I look forward to a good party with lots of people.</p> <p>C Most people are trustworthy.</p> <p>D I will risk untried but promising ways rather than follow safe proven ways.</p>

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7	<p>A When I am with people who I do not know, making small talk is quite difficult.                  B People who act too slowly are an annoyance to me.                  C I have no regrets about things that I have done.                  D Even if something new sounds good, I tend to prefer what is already established.</p>
8	<p>A I prefer knowing exactly how something should be done before I begin.                  B I sometimes have difficulty getting started after I have been criticized.                  C I would rather run my own business, and take the chance of failing, than be an executive in a well-established, secure firm.                  D A good manager's decisions should not be overly influenced by the feelings of others.</p>
9	<p>A I am willing to be pushy in order to get what I want to be done.                  B I work best when I can decide what to do and how to do it.                  C Too much empathy can often hinder a negotiation.                  D I base my decisions on facts and not ideas.</p>
10	<p>A Time management is not one of my key strengths.                  B I am always cool, calm and collected.                  C The best part of a party is meeting new people.                  D I never hesitate to take quick action.</p>

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## 7.4 QUALITIES OF COUNSELLORS

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Counsellors should essentially have following qualities:

- The professional counsellor must possess at least a degree or diploma in counselling from a recognized university or institution.
- The counsellor must always follow the professional ethics. The practice of the counsellor must conform to the guidelines and principles of counselling established by the governing body.
- The counsellor must never use intuition or his own personal opinions when counselling a client. In fact, a good counsellor must make use of scientific knowledge, psychological theory and research based approaches and analysis to counsel a client.
- The counsellor must refrain from providing or suggesting instant solutions to a problem. In fact, a good counsellor must listen to the individual who wants to discuss his problems with someone. The counsellor must let the client reach a conclusion or a solution.
- The practice of a good counsellor must be based on scientific knowledge and research rather than on the views of others.
- The professional counsellor must never enforce his beliefs and values on the client.
- The professional counsellor must provide unbiased counselling to the clients.
- The counsellor must be trained to develop the basic skills essential for counselling. The counsellor with the help of these skills must be able to build a warm, empathetic, genuine and congruent relationship with the client.
- The counsellor always maintains confidentiality of the information that the client has shared.

- The professional counsellor always meets a client in a professional setting and charges a fee for the services provided.
- The professional counsellor does not provide a solution to the client rather the counsellor works to help the client find a solution to his problems.

**NOTES****Check Your Progress**

6. State the essential features of a psychological test.
7. Who invented the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS)?
8. List two advantages of an achievement test.

## 7.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The process of counselling can be conceptually divided into four stages—beginning, developing, terminating and follow-up.
2. Steps in preparation include: identifying the need, choosing a suitable place, scheduling the time of meeting, notifying the subordinate well in advance, organizing information and evolving a counselling strategy.
3. The beginning phase achieves rapport between client and counsellor as well as a good understanding of the problem.
4. Developing involves assessment and diagnosis, organizing information, exploration, and reassessment, goal setting and agreeing on an action plan.
5. The termination phase is the beginning of the change process. The counsellor has to provide solutions and emotional strength to pursue the action plan. Documentation is important in this phase.
6. The essential features of a psychological test are as follows:
  - (a) The test must be reliable in the sense that it must give accurate and consistent results every time it is used.
  - (b) The test must be valid in the sense that it measures exactly what it is intended to measure.
  - (c) The test must be practical and usable in the sense that it can be easily administered in a cost- effective manner. The test must also be conducted in such a manner that it takes very less time.
7. The Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) was invented by an American psychologist, David Wechsler.
8. Two advantages of an achievement test are as follows:
  - (i) These tests provide information regarding the extent of learning and the rate of learning.
  - (ii) These tests highlight the relative performance of the individual or a student.

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## 7.6 SUMMARY

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### NOTES

- The process of counselling can be conceptually divided into four stages—beginning, developing, terminating and follow-up.
- Before the process begins, preparation is required. Steps in preparation include: identifying the need, choosing a suitable place, scheduling the time of meeting, notifying the subordinate well in advance, organizing information and evolving a counselling strategy.
- The Beginning phase aims at establishing a rapport as well as understanding the problem. The major steps are: receiving, prompting, relationship building, defining the problem, establishing a pattern, making a counselling contract.
- Developing is a critical phase of counselling. It involves assessment and diagnosis, organizing information, exploration, reassessment, goal setting and agreeing on an action plan.
- The Termination phase is the beginning of the change process. The counsellor has to provide solutions and emotional strength to pursue the action plan. Documentation is important in this phase.
- Follow-up is essential to ensure proper implementation of the plan. It comprises steps like reviewing the progress and the learning.
- A holistic view is essential to make counselling effective.
- Psychological tests are tests that are conducted to know about the abilities, attitudes, motivations and needs of individuals. On the basis of the behavioural trait being assessed, psychological tests can be categorized into several types of tests.
- With the emergence of the concept of multiple intelligences, the intelligence tests today require a person to perform several tasks. There are four basic intelligence tests that are used to measure the intelligence of a person.
- In general, achievement tests are criterion referenced or norm referenced. Achievement tests can be teacher made tests and standardized tests.
- Interest tests are tests that assess the interests of the individual. It has been proved that interests are related to academic success and also job satisfaction. Therefore, it is essential to know the interests of the individual or a student.
- Aptitude is considered as the natural tendency of a person to do something. Aptitude is also sometimes known as the special ability or a cluster of abilities of a person. An aptitude test assesses the potential of the individual to achieve or excel in a given activity.



- Attitude tests are the tests that assess the attitudes of people with respect to other people and society. These tests assess how well the individual adjusts to the social norms and how he manages interpersonal relations.
- Personality is the sum total of emotional, motivational, interpersonal, attitudinal and even moral aspects of a person. Personality tests are tests which are conducted to assess the personality of an individual.

## NOTES

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### 7.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Action Plan:** It is a detailed plan outlining actions needed to reach one or more goals. Alternatively, it can be defined as a ‘sequence of steps that must be taken, or activities that must be performed well, for a strategy to succeed’.
- **Change Management:** It is a collective term for all approaches to prepare, support, and help individuals, teams, and organizations in making organizational change.
- **Psychometrician:** It refers to an expert in or practitioner of psychometrics, which is a field of study concerned with the theory and technique of psychological measurement.

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### 7.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. What does preparation for counselling involve?
2. Briefly explain the working of interest tests.
3. What are the essential qualities required in counsellors?

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Comment on the steps involved in the beginning session of the counselling.
2. Discuss why is developing the most important part of the counselling by describing the process involved.
3. What is an achievement test? Describe its various categories.

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### 7.9 FURTHER READINGS

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Tyler, L. E. 1969. *The Work of the Counsellor*. New York: Appleton Century.  
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**BLOCK - III**  
**ESSENTIAL ASPECTS OF COUNSELLING**

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*Counselling Interview*

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**UNIT 8 COUNSELLING**  
**INTERVIEW**

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**NOTES**

**Structure**

- 8.0 Introduction
- 8.1 Objectives
- 8.2 Counsellor-Counselee Relationship: Structuring the Counselling Relationship
  - 8.2.1 Essential Aspects of Interview and Interview Techniques
  - 8.2.2 Steps of an Interview
  - 8.2.3 Importance of Interview Method or Technique
  - 8.2.4 Type of Interviews
  - 8.2.5 Principles for Interviewer
  - 8.2.6 Advantages of Interview Technique
  - 8.2.7 Limitations of Interview Technique
  - 8.2.8 Suggestions for a Successful Interview
- 8.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 8.4 Summary
- 8.5 Key Words
- 8.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 8.7 Further Readings

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**8.0 INTRODUCTION**

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There is no question that the initial interview places full expectations on the ability, experience, and expertise of the counsellor. How the original interview is structured would have a strong impact on a counselling relationship's future developments and results. Errors made in the first session are typically much more expensive than those made during the development of a successful working partnership. If the original interview has progressed towards objectives, then the counsellor can find that he has been able to articulate and discuss any of the challenges of life that have been bothersome or upsetting to him. In this unit, we will discuss the essential aspects and structuring of counselling interviews. We will also focus on the significance of counsellor-counselee relationship.

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**8.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the essential aspects of counselling interviews
- Describe the significance of counsellor-counselee relationship
- Analyze the structuring of the counselling interviews

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## 8.2 COUNSELLOR-COUNSELEE RELATIONSHIP: STRUCTURING THE COUNSELLING RELATIONSHIP

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Counselling is not just about discussing key difficulties and gaining a different viewpoint on issues and psychological struggles. It is all about establishing with the counsellor a relationship and confidence, so that a person feels secure enough to speak up and share their concerns. This relationship is founded on faith and confidentiality and will make all the difference between a positive and a bad experience of therapy. Counselling is described by the American Counselling Association (ACA) as the method of developing therapeutic relationships that help people fulfil mental health, education and/or career goals. While all counsellor-client relationships can aim for common big-picture objectives, there are unique aspects and desired outcomes for each type of relationship. We will discuss this relationship in detail in the Unit 13.

### 8.2.1 Essential Aspects of Interview and Interview Techniques

Interview is the one of the most dependable and reliable techniques of counselling. In this technique, observation is used as the medium with a definite purpose. The interview technique helps the counsellor to collect information and to help the client understand himself and his problems and to develop an insight into the entire situation. The interviewer emphasizes two points: First, face to face interaction and second, the collection of information for a definite purpose. In fact, interview method is an integral part of guidance process. It is a subjective method.

The term interview is interpreted in accordance with the area in which it is used. In other words, we can say that interview is described as conversation with a specific purpose between two persons.

- **According to Pauline Young:** Interview may be regarded as a systematic method by which a person enters the life of a comparative stranger.
- **According to Goode and Hatt:** The interview is in a sense, the foundation upon which all other elements rest, for it is the data gathering phase.
- **According to Bhigham and Moor:** A serious conversation directed to definite purpose other than satisfaction in the conversation itself is an interview.

The following elements regarding the meaning of interview are clearly observable by studying and analysing the definitions given above:

- In interview, there is face to face contact between counsellor and the client.
- It is a way to establish contact with one an unknown person.
- It is a purposeful conversation.

- During the procedure of interview the counsellor or interviewer has the pre-knowledge of the purpose of interview.
- Interview is a subjective matter.
- Interview is also considered as a focal point of counselling process

### Purpose of interview technique

Interview technique has the following objectives:

- To create rapport through conversation.
- To obtain knowledge from a person.
- To help the person in solving his educational, vocational and psychological problems and in ensuring adjustment.
- To diagnose the various causes of the different problems of the person through a discussion.
- To discover those physical and psychological ailments of the person which cannot be identified through psychological tests.
- To treat the person through psychoanalytical approach.

### 8.2.2 Steps of an Interview

The main steps or the parts of an interview are as follows:

- **Preparation for an interview:** The following preparation is done for the interview:

The main aim is to establish rapport with the interviewee because without such rapport, mutually fruitful conversation will become difficult. In this process it is essential to address the fear and hesitation of the interviewee so that he may express his thoughts and emotions freely and may truthfully answer the questions asked. Davis and Robinson have given the following suggestions to establish such rapport.

- o To express sympathy towards the interviewee.
- o At the time of interview, the interviewer should assure the interviewee that the solution of all his problems is possible because the interviewee comes to the interviewer with lots of hope.
- o During interview, the interviewer must accept the suggestions of the interviewee in order to encourage him.
- o Before starting interview, the interviewer must make clear his ideas with the help of proper examples.
- o About interviewee's problems, the interviewer must ask some questions, so that the interviewee may make available maximum information to the interviewer.

## NOTES

## NOTES

- o During the interview, it is important that in order to provide freedom of conversation to the interviewee the interviewer take no immediate decision or react to the interviewee's statements.
- **Body of the interview:** The body of the interview is as important as its beginning because, in this part of the interview, any aspect of the problem may be touched upon and results of the interview depend on this part of the interview. This part can be made effective in following ways:
  - o **Use of motivating questions:** At the time of interview the questions to be asked should be of motivating nature. The form of questions should be such that to answer them interviewee will need to speak more. Those questions should be avoided which can be answered in 'Yes' or 'No'. The interviewer should take much care in the selection of questions.
  - o **Proper use of silence:** Use of silence during interview should be made very tactfully.
  - o **Limited information in a single attempt:** During the interview, an attempt is made not to collect all the information in a single attempt. In one interview, only some limited information should be collected.
  - o **Understanding the client's attitude:** During the interview, pupils express various types of feelings and attitudes while conversing. These effect or influence both negative and positive expressions. The counsellor should try to understand and accept these expressions of feelings. Various modes of responding to feelings can be adopted, such as, yes, good, very good, ok, etc.
  - o **Control on interview:** In the body of interview, client's freedom should be limited or controlled if the freedom is being taken for granted or misused. In such a situation, the counsellor loses his control over interview and he fails to gather the desirable information.
- **Closing of interview:** The following two points should be cared while closing the interview.
  - o Before closing the interview, the client should be satisfied.
  - o Before declaring the interview closed, such an arrangement should be made that the next interview may be of shorter duration.
- **Follow-up:** In this phase, the evaluation of effects of suggestions made after the interview in terms of progress made by the client indicates the success of the interview. As a result of this evaluation, if desirable effects are not observed, then these failures are discussed in the next interview and necessary changes can be made.

### 8.2.3 Importance of Interview Method or Technique

Now, let's discuss the importance of interview technique from different viewpoints.

#### Importance of interview to the teacher

- It is important for the teacher to solve the problems of the student.
- Apart from obtaining information it is also useful in getting information about attitude, ambitions and other affective matters.
- The fact-finding interview can be used to explore information needed for which previous data are not clear.
- It is very easy to use this method.
- Reliable information is received during the interview.
- Interview technique method develops insight in the client.
- Through interview, past events can also be studied.
- By interviewing method, a friendly environment can be created.
- Using interviewing, many doubts and misunderstandings can be removed.
- It can be used directly by the teachers in connection with her everyday classroom problems.
- This technique is indispensable in diagnosis.
- This technique is useful in studying the more general habits of work of the students.
- This technique usually reveals conditions that the average teacher would never have surmised

#### Importance of interview to school workers other than teachers

- Counsellor's interview assists students in the choice of subjects.
- It is prominent in social case study and in psychiatric work.
- The personal interview becomes the most important single device available in the differential diagnosis of mental disorders.

#### Importance of interview in the field of studies

- Interview is usually involved in carrying out investigations of the social and economic status of the families to which school children belong.
- Ingenious interviewing helps us to secure essential differences in the thinking and procedures of successful and unsuccessful workers.
- The personal contact with the respondent enables the field workers to delve more deeply into the character, living conditions and general life pattern of the client.

#### NOTES

## NOTES

### 8.2.4 Type of Interviews

Interviews are used for various purposes. They can be classified as following:

- According to function: diagnostic, clinical and research
- According to person's participation: individual and group
- According to roles: Non-directive, directive, focused interview, depth, etc.

Here are some of them discussed in detail.

- **Diagnostic interview:** The purpose of this type of interview is to locate the possible causes of a pupil or individual's problems, getting information about his past history, home and family relations, environmental situation and personal problems.
- **Clinical interview:** Such an interview follows the diagnostic interview. The purpose of this interview is to prepare the stage for further interviews. It is a means of establishing an atmosphere of friendliness and is also a step towards mutual understanding.
- **Research interview:** The purpose of this type of interview is to find facts from individual or pupil about a problem, such as for selecting applications for a special course.
- **Group interviews:** Group interviews are less common. In this case, you would be interviewed at the same time as a few other candidates. A panel of interviews will ask you questions by turns. The important thing to remember is not to interrupt others and the basic conditions set out by the interviewers. The participants must always answer honestly and to the best of their capability, and also listen closely. There are two types of group interviews:
  - o **Panel interview:** The panel interview is quite common. Normally, two or three pupils will sit facing you and ask questions by turns. Sometimes in a panel interview, each interviewer will have a different role. One might be asking more challenging questions and appearing to be more involved than the other. The interviewer's purpose for this interview is selection and treatment of the pupil. In case of selection and treatment purposes, panel interview are recommended methods.
  - o **Directive interview:** In such interviews, test results, abilities and achievement of the individual are interpreted in terms of his background and final decision about a career choice is made by the counsellor himself.
  - o **Non-directive:** It means nothing is explained by the client. The interviewer is only there to help to understand the data.
  - o **Focused:** It aims at finding out the response of individuals to specific events.
  - o **Depth Interview:** It is an intensive and research type interview. It emphasizes certain psychological and social factors relating to attitudes, emotions, etc.



### 8.2.5 Principles for Interviewer

Blum and Balinsky have suggested the following basic principles or rules for interviewers:

- Establish rapport and maintain decorum during the interview.
- Give freedom to the student to speak.
- Do not discuss anything with the student unnecessarily.
- When the individual is expressing his point of view, the interviewer should behave like an intelligent listener.
- The client should not be criticized by the counsellor.
- During interview, questions should be asked by the counsellor at the proper time.
- The student should be enabled to understand emotional needs.

### NOTES

### 8.2.6 Advantages of Interview Technique

The following are the advantages of interview technique:

- **Creation of a friendly atmosphere:** The counsellor may create a friendly atmosphere for obtaining proper responses. He may start a discussion and develop the interest of the client before showing the schedule. A right atmosphere is very conducive for getting adequate replies.
- **Removal of misunderstanding:** The counsellor is personally present to remove any doubt or suspicions regarding the nature of enquiry or meaning of any question or term used. The answers are, therefore, not biased because of any misunderstanding.
- **Possible to secure confidential interview:** The pupil may disclose personal and confidential information which he would not ordinarily place in writing on paper. The pupil may need the situation of personal contact in order to be drawn out.
- **Advantages of clues:** The interview enables the counsellor to follow up leads and to take advantage of small clues in dealing with complex questions or topics.
- **Permit exchange of ideas:** The interview permits an exchange of ideas and information. It permits 'give' and 'take'.
- **Useful in the case of some categories of children:** The interview enables the interviewer to deal with children especially those with limited intelligence or in an abnormal state of mind.
- **Reliable information:** The information gathered through interviews has been found to be reliable.
- **Interview technique very close to the counsellor:** It is generally accepted that interview technique is as close to the counsellor's work.

## NOTES

- **Possibility of repetition:** Sometimes interviews can be held at suitable intervals to trace the development of behaviour and attitudes.
- **Useful for several purposes:** Interviews can be used for student counselling, occupational adjustment, selection of candidates for educational courses etc.
- **Cross questioning:** Interview technique provides scope for cross questioning.
- **Command of the counsellor:** The technique allows the counsellor to remain in command of the situation throughout the interview.
- **Better opportunities to know the student:** Through the respondent's incidental comments, facial expression, bodily movements and gestures etc, counsellor can acquire information that could not be obtained easily by other means.
- **Useful for judging frankness:** Cross questioning by the counsellor can enable him to judge the sincerity, frankness and insight of the interviewee.

### 8.2.7 Limitations of Interview Technique

The method of interview, despite its numerous advantages mentioned above, has following limitations also:

- **Very costly:** It is very costly affair. The cost per case is much higher in this method. Generally speaking, a questionnaire costs less per unit than the interview costs.
- **Biased information:** The presence of the counsellor while encouraging the respondent to reply, may also introduce a source of bias in the interview. At times the opinion of the client is influenced by the counsellor and his replies may not be based on what he thinks to be correct but what he thinks the counsellor wants.
- **Time consuming:** It is a time-consuming technique.
- **Expertness required:** It requires a high level of expertise. Among the important qualities to be possessed by counsellor are objectivity, insight and sensitivity. These qualities are not possessed by an ordinary counsellor in an adequate amount.
- **Subjectivity:** The interview is a subjective method of collecting data which may be influenced by biases and prejudices of the counsellor to a great extent.

### 8.2.8 Suggestions for a Successful Interview

Certain suggestions have been given for the success of any interview. However, one must remember that ultimately, the success of an interview depends upon the

skill of the interviewer. Darley has listed the following points that should be taken care of essentially:

- The interviewer should neither make very lengthy speeches nor should he try to suppress the client.
- The interviewer should explore, first, what are the client's aspirations that is, what he/she wants. Interviewer should suggest remedies after identifying that aspiration.
- The interviewer should get himself introduced with client's feelings and his attitudes in the beginning so that no problem may arise during the interview.
- The interviewer should use easy language. He should provide only the most important information to the client because as a result of excessive conversation with the client, he will find himself too involved with the client's problems and helpless in taking any decision.

Bingham has also given the following suggestions for a successful interview:

- **Suggestions for preparation for interview:**
  - o The main objective of the interview should be decided before starting a successful interview. The interviewer should prepare a list of information nuggets or facts to be obtained beforehand.
  - o There should be no favouritism during the interview *i.e.*, the interview should be impartial.
  - o The schedule for interview should be fixed by both the interviewer as well as the client. The time decided should be convenient to both.
  - o The interviewer should collect the information regarding the client. For this purpose, the interviewer can prepare the cumulative record card.
  - o To obey the principle of confidentiality for the interview is must. Only after being assured of confidentiality, the client would be able to supply correct and clear information.
- **Suggestions for interviewing:** After making the preparation of interview successfully and effectively, the following suggestions can be used for effective interviewing:
  - o The interview should not be rushed.
  - o It is essential for the interviewer to have complete control on the interview. During interview, the interviewer should go on telling the objective of the interview to the client.
  - o The interviewer should win the confidence of the client. For this, the interviewer should go on exhibiting his interest and confidence in the client.
  - o The interview should be skilled in making friends.

## NOTES

## NOTES

- o The interviewer should listen the client with attention and patience.
- o The client and the interviewer should cooperate with each other and the interviewer should have sympathetic feelings towards the client.
- o During interview, the interviewer should look after each and every comfort of the client.

### Qualities required for a successful interview

For the success of an interview, an interviewer must have the following qualities:

- **Humorous:** The interview situation is generally tense for a client. The interviewer should be humorous in order to eliminate this tension.
- **Tolerance for attitudes and feelings:** A successful and effective interviewer is that who establishes a very close contact with the client. This he can do by accepting the client's attitudes and feelings. In this way the client can remove his doubts. The interviewer should not give his verdict regarding the client's attitudes and feelings.
- **Gathering limited information:** A successful and effective interviewer is that who believes in collecting limited and pre-fixed information. If it is not done, then unnecessary information is gathered which proves meaningless.
- **Frank speaker:** A successful interviewer is that who talks frankly with the client. Indirect and cursory conversation cannot be advantageous and can create doubts in the minds of the client.
- **No dominance upon conversation:** During the interview, the interviewer should not go on speaking all the time. The client should be given ample time to speak. During such a conversation, if the client is speaking, he should not be interrupted by the interviewer.

#### Check Your Progress

1. Define interview according to Goode and Hatt.
2. Mention any three elements of an interview.
3. Give any two reasons for interview's significance in the field of studies.
4. Mention any two qualities needed for a successful interview.

### 8.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. According to Goode and Hatt, the interview is in a sense, the foundation upon which all other elements rest, for it is the data gathering phase.

2. The elements of an interview are:
  - (a) In interview, there is face to face contact between counsellor and the client.
  - (b) It is a way to establish contact with one an unknown person.
  - (c) It is a purposeful conversation.
3. Interview is significant in the field of studies because:
  - (a) Interview is usually involved in carrying out investigations of the social and economic status of the families to which school children belong.
  - (b) Ingenious interviewing helps us to secure essential differences in the thinking and procedures of successful and unsuccessful workers.
4. For the success of an interview, an interviewer must have the following qualities:
  - (a) **Gathering limited information:** A successful and effective interviewer is that who believes in collecting limited and pre-fixed information. If it is not done, then unnecessary information is gathered which proves meaningless.
  - (b) **Frank speaker:** A successful interviewer is that who talks frankly with the client. Indirect and cursory conversation cannot be advantageous and can create doubts in the minds of the client.

## NOTES

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## 8.4 SUMMARY

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- Counselling is not just about discussing key difficulties and gaining a different viewpoint on issues and psychological struggles. It is all about establishing with the counsellor a relationship and confidence, so that a person feels secure enough to speak up and share their concerns.
- Counselling is described by the American Counselling Association (ACA) as the method of developing therapeutic relationships that help people fulfil mental health, education and/or career goals.
- Interview is the one of the most dependable and reliable techniques of counselling. In this technique, observation is used as the medium with a definite purpose.
- The interviewer emphasizes two points: First, face to face interaction and second, the collection of information for a definite purpose. In fact, interview method is an integral part of guidance process. It is a subjective method.
- Group interviews are less common. In this case, you would be interviewed at the same time as a few other candidates. A panel of interviews will ask you questions by turns.

## NOTES

- The interviewer should explore, first, what are the client aspirations that is, what he wants. Interviewer should suggest remedies after identifying that aspiration.
- It is essential for the interviewer to have complete control on the interview. During interview, the interviewer should go on telling the objective of the interview to the client.
- A successful and effective interviewer is that who establishes a very close contact with the client. This he can do by accepting the client's attitudes and feelings.

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### 8.5 KEY WORDS

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- **American Counselling Association (ACA):** It is a membership organization representing licensed professional counsellors, counselling students, and other counselling professionals in the United States. It is the world's largest association exclusively representing professional counsellors.
- **Psychoanalytical Approach:** In the psychoanalytic approach, the focus is on the unconscious mind rather than the conscious mind. It is built on the foundational idea that your behaviour is determined by experiences from your past that are lodged in your unconscious mind.

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### 8.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the objectives of an interview?
2. What are the basic principles or rules for interviewers?
3. State some of the suggestions by Bingham for conducting successful interviews.

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the steps in the interview process.
2. Discuss the different types of interview.
3. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of interviews.

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### 8.7 FURTHER READINGS

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Tyler, L. E. 1969. *The Work of the Counsellor*. New York: Appleton Century.  
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**NOTES**

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# UNIT 9 GROUP COUNSELLING

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## NOTES

### Structure

- 9.0 Introduction
- 9.1 Objectives
- 9.2 Meaning, Value, and Process of Group Counselling
  - 9.2.1 Objectives of Group Counselling
  - 9.2.2 Principles of Group counselling
  - 9.2.3 Types of Group Counselling
  - 9.2.4 Type of Groups
  - 9.2.5 Techniques of Group Counselling
  - 9.2.6 Programmes of Group Counselling at Different Levels
  - 9.2.7 Advantages of Group Guidance
  - 9.2.8 Limitations of Group Counselling
- 9.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 9.4 Summary
- 9.5 Key Words
- 9.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 9.7 Further Readings

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## 9.0 INTRODUCTION

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Group counselling is a form of counselling where a select group of individuals meet regularly with each other and the group leader to discuss, connect, and explore issues. Group counselling strives to offer a supportive and enjoyable environment to sort out grievances and mental problems. Members gain insight into their own views and conduct and provide others with advice and encouragement. Furthermore, persons who have a rough time with interpersonal relationships will benefit from the social experiences that are a central part of the experience of group counselling. In this unit, we will discuss the meaning, value, and process of group counselling, along with the types of groups. We will also focus on the advantages and limitations of group counselling.

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## 9.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning, value, and process of group counselling
- Describe the different types of groups
- Analyze the advantages and limitations of group counselling



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## 9.2 MEANING, VALUE, AND PROCESS OF GROUP COUNSELLING

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Group counselling refers to any phase of a guidance programme, which can be carried out in groups instead of with only individuals. The group approach is representative of the democratic way of life. Hence, the group process is becoming an increasingly popular guidance technique. To some workers and writers in the field, counselling in individual situations represents the essence of guidance or personnel work. Regardless of the truth of this concept of guidance, so called individual guidance is costly and must be supplemented by group counselling situations. Furthermore, there are certain guidance activities that yield better results if they are group centred rather than individual centred.

In general terms, group counselling is a relationship in which the guidance worker attempts to help a number of individuals to attain for themselves satisfactory development and adjustment to their individual or collective life situation. It occurs in a setting in which one or more guidance workers encounter individuals as a group. Therefore, we can say that group counselling means that procedure of guidance in which there is a group of more than two individuals who are helped to solve problems by group members. Group counselling is provided only in the situation when more than one individual can be put together in a group. This group is formed based on common problems or interests of the members.

### Definitions of group counselling

The following are some popular definitions of group guidance:

- **According to Crow and Crow:** Guidance in group situations usually is thought of as referring to those guidance services that are made available by school personnel to large or small groups of pupils.
- **According to Mitchell Dreese:** Group counselling is interpreted as those guidance processes that are conducted in a group and designed to assist normal individuals to analyse and to provide guidance.
- **According to Edward Roeber:** Group counselling is any group activity undertaken for the primary purpose of facilitating or improving the total guidance programme.
- **According to Jane Warters:** It may be defined simply as the conscious use of group experiences for aiding good development of the participants and achievement of desirable goals.
- **According to Downing:** Group counselling includes those activities within the organization of a guidance programme wherein several students meet, interact, gain information, share ideas, plan for the future and make decisions.

### NOTES

## NOTES

These definitions indicate the following aspects of group counselling:

- To assist everyone in the group to solve his/her problems and to adjust.
- It is guidance through group activities.
- The group is formed based on common problems of the members.
- In the group guidance, all processes are meant to help the individual to achieve self-direction, self-knowledge and self-realization.
- Group counselling worker should be fully trained so that they can perform their duties in competent ways.
- The group to be guided should be homogeneous in some respect.
- Group counselling programmes are more suitable for imparting information for job opportunities, shortage of occupations, employment market information, training facilities etc.
- Group counselling workers should have the competence and capability to pinpoint and to motivate the people who need individual guidance.

### 9.2.1 Objectives of Group Counselling

The objectives of group counselling include:

- **To help individuals attain better adjustment:** Group counselling helps people utilize the co-operative and supportive values of group situations. This helps them to make better adjustments through the grasp of commonly needed information and the exploration of common problems.
- **Helps to introduce clients to the variety of common life activities:** Group counselling helps to introduce clients to a variety of life activities and to requirements, conditions and rewards of specific activities.
- **To assist in the identification of common problems:** Group counselling gives people opportunities to share their experiences and problems with other people, and to test and practice behaviours in interpersonal relationships.
- **To lay the foundation of individual counselling:** Group counselling helps to discover people who need individual counselling.
- **To help people develop their personality:** Group counselling help the students develop their personality traits such as standards, values, attitudes and habits, appreciation for life activities in which they are engaging or will be engaged.

### 9.2.2 Principles of Group counselling

The following are the five principles:

- Group counselling should be used as a supplement and not as a substitute for individual guidance and counselling.

- As far as possible, the counsellor should encourage members of the group to seek individual counselling help.
- The nature of the group should be relatively homogenous in various aspects.
- The person responsible for group counselling should be well versed with this guidance technique.
- The group counselling should be considered as one and not the only means of counselling.

## NOTES

Some important points should be kept in mind at the time of group counselling. The following suggestions should be observed:

- Group counselling and counselling must start with the invitational talk to welcome the group.
- As far as possible similar groups should be formed.
- The counsellor must have a sympathetic attitude towards their problems.
- The counsellor must take interest in the group and listen to them and their problems carefully.
- He must have a keen sense of scientific observation about the problem of the client and be able to cluster them in a few groups.
- The counsellor should be able establish a rapport with the group so that they come out with their problems.
- He must have a problem-solving and constructive attitude.
- The counsellor must close the group counselling programme in such a manner that those who want to come to him for advice and individual counselling should be ready to do so.

### 9.2.3 Types of Group Counselling

There are two types of group guidance:

- **Oriental kind of group counselling:** Oriental kind of group counselling concentrates on orienting people toward new environment, new courses, new programmes and telling them about the following:
  - o Admission procedure
  - o Requirements of admission in various schools and colleges also constitute the orientation type of group guidance.
- **Therapeutic kind of group counselling:** This is done as a counselling for a group of troubled individuals, who find themselves in similar situations, such as recovering from alcohol addiction, recovering from a divorce or dealing with the death of a close family member.

NOTES

### 9.2.4 Type of Groups

In general, there are four forms of group therapy. Let us study these in detail:

- **Cathartic supportive therapy:** It is an attempt towards leading the members of the group to confess their problems to the group. Through confession and frank discussion much of the tension is released and participants feel relieved.
- **Non-directive therapy:** The non-directive therapy is dedicated to the idea that the client himself is the main actor who can with the help of the counsellor, speak and act out his own lines. In this therapy, an attempt is made to provide an accepting, positive and warm atmosphere for the client for the purpose of doing all that is required to improve the client's opinion of himself, to improve self-concept and also to lead him to discovery by himself the nature of his difficulties. The counsellor remains highly permissive, accepting the client, neither probing, nor interpreting, nor showing any personal reaction to what the client says. Internal change in the client is regarded a function of this permissive relationship. This relationship is non-directive, non-authoritarian and non-interfering.
- **The group development therapy:** It is based on group interaction, the basic principle being understanding their behaviours, and problems developing inside and modifying behaviours as a result of interaction and discussion with each other.
- **Interpretive group therapy:** In case of interpretive therapy, the counsellor through his own interpretations of the reactions of group members brings about a change in the attitudes of the individuals.

### 9.2.5 Techniques of Group Counselling

Several techniques are used for providing group counselling:

- **Assemblies:** Assemblies of various kinds are practical ways of supplying vocational information to large groups. Audiences may consist of an entire school population, a given class, parents, college-bound people, trade-oriented people or any combination of these groups. The evident disadvantages are now viewed with less favour than they were several years ago. Too many people are required to sit through lectures in which they are not interested and to which they have no opportunity to respond.
- **Orientation programmes for new pupils:** Orientation is defined as a process where a new group of individuals becomes better acquainted with an older group's traditions, customs, purposes, release, regulations, policies, facilities and special services provided to the pupils. The purpose of the orientation programme is to help each pupil feel at home in a new school by helping him to understand the environment of the institution. Thus, the orientation programme enables the youth to make plans and adjustments to

school and post school situations. According to Mortensen and S. Mueller (2010), some of the activities of orientation programme are as follows:

- o Holding ‘get-acquainted’ interviews with each pupil
- o Describing school curriculum and registration for courses for the following year
- o Describing co-curricular activities
- o Visit to school by counsellors for this purpose.
- o Visit to receiving schools by incoming people where they follow typical schedules, take tests, sit in assemblies and receive instructions about curriculum.
- o Visit to homes by counsellors and teachers to gather data, to make a follow-up, or disseminate information.
- o Holding exercise on the days of opening of school, including fresher days and disseminating information.
- o Providing special assistance to late enrolments and migrating pupils.
- o Presenting special discussions or programmes for parents of incoming people.
- **Talks:** One of the most important and affective methods for imparting educational and vocational guidance and developing right type of attitude to education, learning experiences and social and personal relations, is the talk. These talks can be classified as:
  - o **General talks** are like orientation session for new people.
  - o **Educational orientation talks:** Through educational orientation talks, people are made aware of the importance of educational guidance and to go in for elective subjects accordingly so that they are able to analyse their abilities, interests and skills for correct self-appraisal and taking decision about the electives in the light of it.
  - o **Vocational orientation talks:** Through vocational orientation talks, the pupil can evaluate his own ability and capacities. Hence, on the basis of pupil’s abilities, the counsellor can provide him with options regarding the selection of an occupation.
  - o **Career conferencing:** A career conference refers to a carefully planned series of meetings intended to give pupils information which will help them to plan their educational and vocational future. Career conferences are organized to provide vocational guidance information of a supplementary or preliminary nature. At such meetings:
    - Representatives of various occupations give their own impressions of the occupations.

## NOTES

- The advantages and disadvantages of different occupations are discussed.
- Methods of entry are discussed.
- Salaries etc are discussed.

## NOTES

Each meeting should last about an hour. One half the total time allowed to speaker is used to give information and another half is devoted to a question-answer session. These conferences may be organized for a school or a group of schools. Co-operative conferences have the advantages of sharing expenses and work involved in planning. The duration of the conferences may extend to a single day or to several days.

There can be some other methods of providing counselling collectively. They are:

- **Field trips:** Field trips or plant visits constitute an important method of providing occupational information to people since they provide first-hand information. Such types of visits give people an opportunity to learn things using their senses. They can sense, smell, see and touch the things in field trips. Field trips can be organized for people of all levels including elementary, secondary and college.
- **Audio visual aids:** Audio visual materials such as radio and television programmes tape recordings, chalk boards, diagrams, graphs, models, film strips, maps, posters, cartoons, puppets, drama, etc. are particularly useful in group counselling programmes, as they offer a variety of experiences and convey ideas in a vivid and forceful manner.
- **Group activities:** The hobbies and leisure time activities of the people provide an excellent change to the teachers and guidance counsellors to know their interests. These can be termed as vocational, educational and recreational activities such as, art club, woodwork, music club, trades, outdoor, personal service, gardening, cookery, animal care, scientific club, model making, etc.
- **Career days and career night:** Career days and career nights have received widespread popularity in vocational guidance. The typical procedure is to schedule a day or an evening during the school year, when representatives of a number of professions or occupations are invited to address a group of people who have expressed interest in those careers.
- **Correlating occupational information with school subjects:** The fact remains that guidance is a programme which is not the responsibility of the career master or school counsellor alone. It can be carried on only when all the staff members extend their cooperation and participation in it. They can do it in two ways:
  - o They can locate the plug points (points wherein occupational information can be introduced in it) and while teaching that point, they may incorporate the information of different occupations and determinants for the people.

- o The teachers can ask the pupils to prepare a list of the occupations relating to different subjects and discuss it with the people.

### 9.2.6 Programmes of Group counselling at Different Levels

At different levels of education different kinds of group activities are organized. A stage-wise discussion is presented as follows:

- **At the elementary stage:** Orientation programmes can be organized before or after the completion of admission process of people.
- **Before admission:** The programme should, as described by Bennett, explain to the parents:
  - o What the school stands for
  - o What kinds of activities it organizes and why

It is, in fact, orientation of parents which aims at getting the goodwill and cooperation of the parents, therefore jointly planning ways in which children are helped to adjust to the new school environment. It aims at discussing ways and means of happy transfer of children from home to the school.

- **Post-admission orientation:** It is meant for people, in which efforts are made to acquaint the people with new surroundings, to make them feel at ease and to help them in making social adjustment. The orientation of parents and the pupils is done through group conferences. The teacher in the classroom also performs the function of a group counselling worker.
- **At the secondary stage:** At the secondary stage, much of the group counselling work must be done as part of classroom activities by the teachers. The activities should be aimed to achieve the following:
  - o To develop realistic self-concept.
  - o To recognize and deal with people's strengths and weaknesses effectively and intelligently.
  - o To recognize and understand emotional responses and learn how to deal with them and face some of the problems and processes of social development.
  - o To learn how to get along better with peers, adults and younger people.
  - o To learn good study habits and skills.
  - o To discover and gain some perspectives of the educational and vocational possibilities.

Various aspects of the curriculum afford rich possibilities of instruction in occupational opportunities and vocational planning and adjustment. If the school has the home system or 'home room', the teacher can assist the pupils through home activities in:

- o Realizing their potential
- o Planning for jobs

## NOTES

- o Giving experience in citizenship and becoming more skilled in dealing with their teachers, peers and friends.

### 9.2.7 Advantages of Group Guidance

#### NOTES

Group counselling should have a significant place in a school's total guidance programme because of its advantages, some of which are follows:

- **It is economical and efficient:** Group counselling is economical in terms of time, money and energy. Through meeting with a group of people, the counsellor can convey information in much less time than if he gave the same information to each student individually. Thus, the time saved can be utilized for the more difficult and complex problems of the people. Also, it is economical to collect general information about the people and their problems in a group while more specific information about the student can be collected individually.
- **It aids the normal people:** As schools are organized today, counselling will continue to be largely remedial and deal with problems after they have arisen. No matter how well planned the counselling programme is, there is need for group counselling for the normal people, in order to give him information and the direction that he needs and wants. With such assistance, he can move from issues to manage his own affairs better.
- **It helps to develop leadership qualities:** Group participation enables adolescents to develop the capacity for mutual interaction i.e. role of leader, the role of rebel etc. This type of training is essential for living in a democratic society.
- **To help in making contact with people:** The counsellor can have many more sessions with a large number of people through group guidance. During these sessions, he observes each student's behaviour in the group situation and thus increases his knowledge of that student.
- **To help improve people's attitudes and behaviours:** Group discussion provides opportunities for free exchange of opinions and realistic analysis of attitudes. These can help the participants of the group to achieve balanced judgments and desirable behaviour.
- **Common to the group:** People are often willing to discuss those problems in groups that they are unwilling to discuss in individual interviews. It gives them an opportunity to express their anxieties and relieve their pent-up feelings. Besides this, group suggestions may help them resolve their problems.
- **Exposure to real life situation:** Through group participation, members can learn new, flexible and more satisfying ways of relating to and dealing with others. It helps in modifying their personal habits and attitudes in the light of real-life situations.



### 9.2.8 Limitations of Group Counselling

The limitations of group counselling include:

- Scarcity of adequately skilled staff to handle a similar group by group guidance.
- Group counselling methods are mostly restricted to problems in the area of vocational and educational guidance.
- Counsellor's role and the function become more diffused and difficult.
- Individual techniques are more effective for emotional and social problems than group technique.
- The known similar qualities of a group (interest, maturity levels, etc.) makes it difficult to organize materials and discussions to secure any impact above a superficial level.

### NOTES

#### Check Your Progress

1. Mention any three aspects of group counselling.
2. State any two principles of group counselling.
3. What do you mean by therapeutic kind of group counselling?

### 9.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The aspects of group counselling are:
  - (a) To assist everyone in the group to solve his/her problems and to adjust.
  - (b) It is guidance through group activities.
  - (c) The group is formed based on common problems of the members.
2. Two principles of group counselling are:
  - (a) Group counselling should be used as a supplement and not as a substitute for individual guidance and counselling.
  - (b) As far as possible, the counsellor should encourage members of the group to seek individual counselling help.
3. Therapeutic kind of group counselling is done as a counselling for a group of troubled individuals, who find themselves in similar situations, such as recovering from alcohol addiction, recovering from a divorce or dealing with the death of a close family member.

### 9.4 SUMMARY

- Group guidance refers to any phase of a guidance programme, which can be carried out in groups instead of with only individuals. The group approach

## NOTES

is representative of the democratic way of life. Hence the group process is becoming an increasingly popular guidance technique.

- In general terms, group guidance is a relationship in which the guidance worker attempts to help several people to attain for themselves satisfactory development and adjustment to their individual or collective life situation.
- Group counselling helps people utilize the co-operative and supportive values of group situations. This helps them to make better adjustments through the grasp of commonly needed information and the exploration of common problems.
- Orientation group counselling concentrates on orienting people toward new environment, new courses, and new programmes.
- The non-directive therapy is dedicated to the idea that the client himself is the main actor who can with the help of the counsellor, speak and act out his own lines.
- Assemblies of various kinds are practical ways of supplying vocational information to large groups. Audiences may consist of an entire school population, a given class, parents, college-bound people, trade-oriented people or any combination of these groups.
- One of the most important and affective methods for imparting educational and vocational guidance and developing right type of attitude to education, learning experiences and social and personal relations, is the talk.
- Field trips or plant visits constitute an important method of providing occupational information to people since they provide first-hand information. Such types of visits give people an opportunity to learn things using their senses.
- Post-admission orientation is meant for people, in which efforts are made to acquaint the people with new surroundings, to make them feel at ease and to help them in making social adjustment.
- Through group participation, members can learn new, flexible and more satisfying ways of relating to and dealing with others. It helps in modifying their personal habits and attitudes in the light of real-life situations.

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### 9.5 KEY WORDS

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- **Orientation:** It means an introduction, as to guide one in adjusting to new surroundings, employment, activity, or the like.
- **Enrolment:** It is the number of people who are enrolled at an institution or on a course.

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## 9.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short-Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by group counselling? State its various definitions.
2. Briefly discuss the programmes of group counselling at different levels.
3. State the limitations of group counselling.

### Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the different types of groups.
2. Discuss the different techniques of group counselling.
3. Describe the advantages of group counselling.

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## 9.7 FURTHER READINGS

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### NOTES

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# UNIT 10 INDIVIDUAL COUNSELLING

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## NOTES

### Structure

- 10.0 Introduction
  - 10.1 Objectives
  - 10.2 Meaning of Individual Counselling
    - 10.2.1 Techniques Adopted by the Counsellor
    - 10.2.2 Similarities and Dissimilarities between Individual and Group Counselling
  - 10.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
  - 10.4 Summary
  - 10.5 Key Words
  - 10.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
  - 10.7 Further Readings
- 

## 10.0 INTRODUCTION

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During difficult times in life, individual counselling is a personal opportunity to obtain help and experience change. Individual counselling helps with personal issues in life, such as frustration, depression, anxiety, drug addiction, problems with marriage and relationships, parenting problems, school problems, career changes, etc. It is a mechanism in which participants interact in a healthy, compassionate and confidential environment with a professional one-on-one. In this unit, we will study the meaning and significance of individual counselling. We will also focus on the similarities and dissimilarities between individual and group counselling.

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## 10.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the meaning of individual counselling
  - Describe the significance of individual counselling
  - Analyze the similarities and dissimilarities between individual and group counselling
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## 10.2 MEANING OF INDIVIDUAL COUNSELLING

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Individual guidance or counselling is, as described by Gilbert (1951), a personal and dynamic relationship between two people who approach a mutually defined problem with mutual consideration of each other to the end that the younger or less mature or more troubled of the two is aided to find a self-determined resolution of his problem. It is an individual matter as there is only one person who is to be

aided and another person who provides guidance. It is a face to face relationship and a situation in which one person helps the second one to 'face, perceive, clarify, solve and resolve adjustment problems'.

Accordingly, Williamson and Foley (1949) and Pepinsky and Pepinsky (1954) hold that it is a kind of interaction which occurs between two individuals known as 'counsellor' and 'client' and which takes place within a professional setting. It is counselling situation of one-to-one relationship in which only two persons and no more than two can be present. Individual counselling is professional help offered to an individual by the counsellor. The individual to whom help is given is one who has some kind of educational, vocational or emotional (personal) problem. In individual situation, the counsellor helps the client in different ways according to the necessity.

- First of all, the counsellor tries to understand the problem and bases his diagnoses on the objective study of the client.
- The counsellor tries to help him understand himself, his problems and arrive at an objective solution of his difficulties.
- His guidance is based upon comprehensive information regarding the needs and characteristics of the individual being guided and is given in such a manner as to strengthen the individual rather than weaken him. The focus is on helping the individual to become more able to help himself. Efforts are made to strengthen his ego, his competence, his self-confidence and encourage him to see his problem in the right perspective.

Procedure for counselling in individual situation:

- **Identifying the client:** In this process of identification, the counsellor concerned usually follows three ways:
  - o The counsellor should feel that the client needs help such that he must be helped to solve his problems.
  - o By going through the record or personal contact of the client, the counsellor should try to identify the personality of the client or pupil.
  - o The counsellor may collect records about the client or pupil from the teachers.
- **Understanding the problems of the client or pupils:** Counselling as one knows, is a personalized and individual process designed to aid the individual who are in a problematic solution therefore it is the duty of the counsellor to understand the problems of counselee before rendering any help.
- **Solving the problem:** To solve the problems of the client, the counsellor can help:
  - o When a student needs not only reliable information but a wise interpretation of such information from an experienced person.

## NOTES

## NOTES

- o When the student wants to recount his difficulties and gain suggestions regarding his own proposed plan of action.
- o When the student does not have easy access to options to solve his problem.
- o When the student is forcing any strain and difficulty while tackling some problems.
- o When the student remains unaware of the ways and means to his development which have to be brought to his consciousness.
- o When the student is suffering from any maladjustment or handicap which requires diagnosis and help.

### 10.2.1 Techniques Adopted by the Counsellor

In an individual counselling situation, a counsellor may adopt one of these five different techniques:

- **Forcing conformity:** The counsellor has to establish rapport with the client or counselee and help him to achieve self-understanding. The counsellor prefers the conformity technique to the others techniques. While forcing conformity the counsellor may adopt advising technique.
- **Persuasive method:** The counsellor may employ persuasive method to collect relevant evidence and explain logically the course of action and persuade the client to abide by this.
- **Selecting the appropriate choice:** The counsellor is required to provide an opportunity to the client to make an appropriate choice or decision for the solution of the problem. This technique is quite rational.
- **Learning the needed skill:** If the hindrance in the process is the ignorance of needed skills for the collection of information, then when necessary information is made available the client should learn to develop the skills to collect information.
- **Changing attitude:** The client should apply rationality and reasoning to change his attitude towards counselling limitations.

Precautions taken by the counsellor in the individual counselling:

- This type of counselling requires a high degree of skills which develops out of technical knowledge in the desired fields.
- A deep understanding of human psychology and immense amount of integrity on the part of the counsellor.

### 10.2.2 Similarities and Dissimilarities between Individual and Group Counselling

As discussed above, individual counselling is a one-to-one conversation between the patient and the counsellor. The two then form a relationship, or bond that

facilitates personal growth and trust. On the other hand, group counselling is a counselling with numerous individuals facing a similar problem. Group counselling is prevalent among those who experience some form of addiction or any mental health disorders. The group acts as a starting place for their recovery and also as support to reinforce the idea that each individual is not alone in this experience and journey towards recovery. This way the patients learn from each other and practice new interpersonal skills in the group setting.

### **Similarities: Individual and Group Counselling**

The objectives of both methods are quite similar that is, helping the counselee in achieving self-direction, responsibility and integration. In both of the techniques, the counsellor presents an accepting, tolerant climate for the patients to contribute and participate freely such that their defences are reduced. Both of these techniques focus on restatement of content and clarifying feelings. The counsellor helps the patient develop into someone who is aware of what he/she feels and develop a positive attitude. Both approaches provide confidentiality and privacy of relationship. If at all it needs to have medical assistance the means can be similar.

### **Differences: Individual and Group Counselling**

Individualised counselling is a one on one in a face to face relationship marked by warmth, rapport and intimacy between the counselee and counsellor. In group counselling, individual attention is not possible with numerous individuals. However, the patient may obtain comfort from the knowledge that they are not alone as there is a support from people who face the same problems. Unlike in individualised counselling, in group counselling, the counselees are not just limited to receiving help but they also give their help to others. The more cohesive the group, the better can the members help each other. This cooperative feeling brings them much closer to one another, which helps greatly in facilitating the mutual expression of feelings. The counsellor's task is rather complex in group counselling. They not only have to follow sense and appreciate what a particular member says, but also how it affects other members and their responses. The counsellor in group counselling situation has more burdens of satisfying the group needs.

The differences are evident between group counselling and individual counselling. There is one client and one counsellor in individual counselling. There are multiple clients in group counselling, and even multiple counsellors. Group counselling is roughly characterised as a minimum of five clients, and as high as 15. Often two or three counsellors are working in those higher reaches to guide the session. Yet, counselling for couples is also a form of group therapy. This apparent disparity contributes to a gap in how meetings unfold, in the content of the talks, and in how relationships and partnerships are established between clients and counsellors.

## **NOTES**

**NOTES**

**Check Your Progress**

1. What kind of a person seeks individual counselling?
2. Name any two techniques used by a counsellor in individual counselling.
3. State the precautions that should be taken by the counsellor in the individual counselling.

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**10.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. The individual to whom help is given is one who has some kind of educational, vocational or emotional (personal) problem. In individual situation, the counsellor helps the client in different ways according to the necessity.
2. Two such techniques are the persuasive method and the ‘selecting the appropriate choice’ method.
3. The precautions that should be taken by the counsellor in the individual counselling are:
  - (a) This type of counselling requires a high degree of skills which develops out of technical knowledge in the desired fields.
  - (b) A deep understanding of human psychology and immense amount of integrity on the part of the counsellor.

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**10.4 SUMMARY**

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- During difficult times in life, individual counselling is a personal opportunity to obtain help and experience change.
- Individual guidance or counselling is, as described by Gilbert (1951), a personal and dynamic relationship between two people who approach a mutually defined problem with mutual consideration of each other.
- Group counselling is prevalent among those who experience some form of addiction or any mental health disorders.
- The group acts as a starting place for their recovery and also as support to reinforce the idea that each individual is not alone in this experience and journey towards recovery.
- In both, group and individual counselling, the counsellor presents an accepting, tolerant climate for the patients to contribute and participate freely such that their defences are reduced.



- Individualised counselling is a one on one in a face to face relationship marked by warmth, rapport and intimacy between the counselee and counsellor. In group counselling, individual attention is not possible with numerous individuals.
- The more cohesive the group, the better can the members help each other. This cooperative feeling brings them much closer to one another, which helps greatly in facilitating the mutual expression of feelings.
- The counsellor in group counselling situation has more burdens of satisfying the group needs.
- The differences are evident between group counselling and individual counselling. There is one client and one counsellor in individual counselling. There are multiple clients in group counselling, and even multiple counsellors.

## NOTES

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### 10.5 KEY WORDS

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- **Vocational Counselling:** It is a set of services designed to develop the skills and ability to practice a vocation in a productive way.
- **Counsellor:** They work in confidential settings with individuals who are experiencing personal difficulties, to help them overcome their problems and to make appropriate changes to their lives.

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### 10.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by individual counselling?
2. What are some of the major differences between individual and group counselling?

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the procedure for individual counselling.
2. Discuss the various techniques adopted by counsellor in individual counselling.

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### 10.7 FURTHER READINGS

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# UNIT 11 PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FOR COUNSELLING

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## NOTES

### Structure

- 11.0 Introduction
- 11.1 Objectives
- 11.2 Counsellor Preparation and Professional Issues
- 11.3 Practical Skills
  - 11.3.1 Social Skills
  - 11.3.2 Learning Skills
  - 11.3.3 Communication Skills
  - 11.3.4 Empathy
  - 11.3.5 Probing Skills
  - 11.3.6 Deeper Exploration Skills
  - 11.3.7 Problem-Solving Skills
- 11.4 Academic Preparation: Selection and Training of Counsellors
  - 11.4.1 Counselling Teachings for Counsellors
- 11.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 11.6 Summary
- 11.7 Key Words
- 11.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 11.9 Further Readings

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## 11.0 INTRODUCTION

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The process of counselling is influenced by the counsellor's behaviour, the complexity of the issue, the behaviour of the client and the environment. Of these factors, the role of the counsellor is a major determinant for the success of the counselling process. The attitudes, the skills and techniques used for counselling are important considerations in this process. Thus, professional training for counsellors matter. In this unit, we will discuss preparation required by counsellors and professional issues faced by them, along with practical skills required by them. We will also focus on selection and training of counsellors.

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## 11.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the preparation and professional issues faced by counsellors
- Describe the practical skills required by counsellors
- Analyze the selection and training process of counsellors

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## 11.2 COUNSELLOR PREPARATION AND PROFESSIONAL ISSUES

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### NOTES

The main aim of the counsellor in counselling is to assist the counselee in identifying the underlying causes of the problems the counselee faces and bring about the required adjustments or changes so that the problem can be resolved. A counsellor is a professional who offers his services to the counselee. Like any other profession, counselling also has a professional code of conduct and ethics that the counsellors need to adhere to. Professional ethics refer to moral principles that guide the conduct and behaviour of the counsellor during the counselling session. The code of conduct to be followed by counsellors is mentioned as the following:

- Values are the standards of behaviour that have been decided and set by the society. The counsellor needs to keep these values in mind when practicing his profession.
- Social values help the counsellor decide what is right and what is wrong. These values are derived from the experiences of the counsellor which he applied in his profession.
- The counsellor must have basic moral values like genuineness, compassion and authenticity.
- Religious values in the counselling profession require the counsellor to offer counselling to every person without being biased.

The counsellor may develop his own system of values over a period of time and must ensure that he practices the profession within the limits prescribed by these values. The counsellor must not be influenced by these values in any manner when offering his services to any counselee. The following are some professional issues that the counsellor may face when practicing counselling:

- **Consent and abandonment:** Consent means that the counsellors have the consent of the counselee in terms of offering the services and the treatment meted out to them. The clients have all the right to know about the various kinds of treatments and the methods of counselling that the counsellor will make use of. The counsellor cannot hide such facts from the counselee. The counsellor cannot abandon the clients. In other words, the counsellor has no right to end the relationship with the client even if the former wishes to do so. This is in contrast, to the fact that the counselee can end the relationship whenever he feels necessary. When the counsellor feels that he is tired of the counselee or cannot offer the services to the counselee, the counsellor must refer the client to another counsellor instead of just ending the relationship with the client.
- **Confidentiality issues:** In general and under normal circumstances, the counsellor is required to keep everything that the counselee tells him confidential i.e. the information shared by the counselee must not be passed

on to anyone else other than the counsellor. However, there may be certain times or conditions when the counsellor may be required to share the information with others. This is true especially in cases where the counsellor identifies a threat to a counselee.

- **Culture and bias:** Counsellors also have personal values but they cannot let these values overpower their services. The cultural and social values of a counsellor must not affect the manner in which the counsellor offers his services to the counselee. A counsellor may sometimes, have moral objections to the lifestyle of the counselee but this must not affect the manner in which the client is helped in any manner. The counsellor also cannot impose his system of values and beliefs on the client.
- **Financial issues:** Counsellors who offer their services do so for financial gains. However, in their practice, the counsellors may come across people who cannot afford their services but need help. In such cases, the counsellors can offer their services yet again they are under no compulsion to do so.

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### 11.3 PRACTICAL SKILLS

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To be successful, a counsellor has to be skilful in his approach to counselling. We will now discuss the important skills essential for any counsellor.

#### 11.3.1 Social Skills

The relationship between the client and counsellor is certainly professional but it requires a human touch to be fruitful. A person-to-person relationship can be a basic foundation for an effective counselling process. As such, counsellors need social skills to establish working relationships. The three most important requirements for counsellors are credibility, confidentiality and attention:

- **Credibility:** Credibility is an important consideration in choosing a counsellor. It implies two things:
  - o Enhancing expertise by study and practice
  - o Creating trust by maintaining integrity in relationships

A counsellor will be successful only when he can apply knowledge of behavioural sciences to the art of counselling and guidance.

- **Confidentiality:** Counselling takes place in privacy with an assurance of confidentiality. Confidential issues are fully discussed before embarking on the first session. Here, the parts of the discussion which cannot be revealed will be made clear to the counsellor. Counsellors are obliged not to reveal them to other professionals, friends or family members. In the beginning, many people are nervous and evasive. Some may be wrought with inferiority complex. Social skills are required to make interactions smooth and pleasant. The idea is to make clients ready to face and work with their issues. At the

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end of the counselling process, they should feel liberated, self-empowered, and stress free. As a part of social skills, encouragers are to be used.

- **Attention:** Attention can be indicated by verbal messages and non-verbal signs. 'Hello! Please come in', 'How-do-you-do'-like greetings supported by statements like, 'Well! We will now examine your problems', or 'I am interested in knowing your mind or thoughts going on in your mind right now', can help create warmth in the ensuing relationship.

### 11.3.2 Learning Skills

Counselling is a process of learning about the client's situation and extending help. Each counselling instance is a case study to be added to the knowledge base and a source of new experience in learning.

#### Sensory skills

This refers to the sensitivity with which one has to grasp information. Endowed with five senses, we receive a lot of information from the environment and the people with whom we interact. Counsellors have to sharpen their five senses in order to receive information from different perspectives. Some people have extra-sensory perceptions and some counsellors develop them. It means seeing beyond the obvious. It provides an unusual insight of others' views and enables interaction with them.

#### Perceptual skills

Perception is the way we see things. It is the process of understanding messages without gathering further information. Perceptual blocks reduce the ability to understand information correctly. It results in misinterpretation of the client and his issues. Forming quick impressions, stereotyping (women are weak, so Suja is also weak), taking a neutral stance in evaluation (central tendency—not caring extreme points), attributing one quality to all other observations (he is good in mathematics, so he must be good in all other subjects), etc., are perceptual problems. It is important to check perception by cognition, to establish the right images or impressions. For instance, a client may appear to be rough and tough at first sight, but during interaction the counsellor may discover that he is soft and timid by nature.

#### Cognitive skills

Cognition is a process of learning. It is a process of asking why, what, where, who, when and how to know the different dimensions of a subject chosen for understanding. It is a process of reasoning to establish logical understanding of the phenomenon. The analytical thinking process goes like: I am unhappy because my boss has shouted at me. Why am I unhappy? Is it because I could not finish the work, or because my boss shouted at me, or used insulting words?

## Reflexivity

It is to do with the ability to adapt to the mode of explanation of the client. As the client changes his or her ways of construing events, so too must the counsellor. The counsellor has to be involved in a reflexive process, seeking to make his or her own interpretation explicit by interaction with the client.

## Suspension

A counsellor has to develop the skill of suspending his own judgement and construing events so as to subsume the client's reality. Use of suspension is also found in reconstruction of what the client has said. A specific experience or event that does not fit in the structure of understanding may be suspended for a while. It is kept in memory to be used if found relevant in the reconstruction process at a later stage.

## Dilation and constriction

These terms refer to re-organization of construing systems when dealing with incompatibilities.

In dilation, the client can dilate the perceptual field in the following ways:

- Behave aggressively and widen his areas of interest
- Jump from topic to topic and see possibilities everywhere
- Start seeing things as being related to his problem

Constriction is a process of limiting issues. It helps in dealing with chaos and anxiety by avoiding incompatibilities. It helps shrink the world to a manageable size.

## Observation

In the interaction process, words and actions are related to the articulated and observed frame of reference in a flexible manner. Observation of the client's body language is important to make meaningful interpretation of messages. A counsellor needs meta-communication skills to 'see through' what the client says:

*Client:* (loud, quick and harsh tone): My boss should not have spoken like that in front of my team members.

*Counsellor:* Your voice suggests that you are very irritated.

*Client:* Yes. You got me right. When I think of the incident, I experience a surge of anger.

Counsellors make notes of the discussion. This should not, however, interfere with the observation. If need be, a pause may be taken while making notes. Skill is necessary to balance observation and note taking.

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### 11.3.3 Communication Skills

Communication is at the core of counselling. A counsellor should be effective in oral and non-verbal communication. He or she should be good in speaking and listening.

#### Attention

This is the most important skill required of a counsellor. If the counsellor does not pay attention to the client from the moment he enters the room, he feels unworthy of attention and develops anxiety. The counsellor's verbal and non-verbal messages together send powerful message of welcome to the clients. It should be like this when interpreted: 'Welcome. I am interested in you and in what you would say. I am willing to listen to your problems, understand your feelings and share your concerns.'

#### Non-verbal signals

The supporting non-verbal signals can be:

- **Posture:** Sit upright and relax. Do not slouch in the chair.
- **Eye contact:** Maintain direct eye contact, occasionally looking away from the client. The counsellor should not stare at the client; his looks should be comforting and invite the client to talk.
- **Facial expression:** The counsellor should smile with affection and show concern by remaining calm and observant, and not laugh.
- **Seating:** A distance of 3, 5 feet is appropriate. The chairs should be of equal height. They should be at 90 degrees to give freedom to the client to look at the walls or the counsellor.

#### Encouragers

A client may find it hard to continue talking and become silent. The role of the counsellor is to interpret the silence and if necessary break it. Some clients expect encouraging words of appreciation or inquiry to go on. So there is a need to use 'continuers'. Continuers or encouragers can be verbal or non-verbal. They mean precisely that the counsellor is interested. Non-verbal expressions include smiles and grimaces, nodding the head, leaning forward, making sounds like 'umm', 'ah', etc. The support can be expressed as follows:

- **Assertive:** 'I am listening', 'I am with you', 'I follow you', with a smile, nodding of the head, looking at the client and jotting down what the client is saying.
- **Permission:** 'I want to listen, please go ahead', with a curious expression on the face, eyes searching, head nodding and leaning forward.
- **Request:** 'I want to understand more about your experience', with an open posture, sitting upright and talking in a gentle voice.



- **Direction:** ‘Can you tell me more about the incident that angered you last week..?’ Or ‘I’m curious about .....

## Listening skills

Listening in the context of counselling is called credulous listening. It starts with the belief that whatever the client is construing is true. However, that does not mean accepting the client’s views without further questioning. Listening is a complex activity because the human brain is a limited processor of information. The cognitive view of learning sees listening as a process with ‘pre’ activities, ‘while’ activities, and ‘post’ activities.

A pre-listening task gives listeners the opportunity to use what they already know—their prior knowledge—to help them do the task. Prior knowledge is organized in schemata (the plural form of schema), also called internal frame of reference. It consists of abstract, generalized mental representations of our experience that are available to help us understand new experiences. We process the information we hear in both top-down and bottom-up ways.

- Top-down means using prior knowledge and experiences; we know certain things about certain topics and situations and use that information for comprehension.
- Bottom-up processing means using the information we have about sounds, word meanings and discourse markers like first, then and after that to assemble our understanding of what we read or hear, one step at a time.

Counsellors need both bottom-up and top-down processing skills in listening. They must hear some sounds (bottom-up processing), hold them in their working memory long enough (a few seconds) to connect them to each other and then interpret what they have just heard before something new comes along. At the same time, listeners use their background knowledge (top-down processing) to determine meanings with respect to prior knowledge and schemata. Listening can be done in two ways: listening for main ideas and listening for details. ‘What’s the most important idea in this conversation? What is the main thing they are talking about?’ Speakers do not always say what they want to say. Sometimes they do not have clarity in their thoughts.

Listening is purposeful. Post-listening questions like what, how, how much, etc. can be useful to check whether purposeful understanding is achieved. Feedback in the form of questions, paraphrasing, re-stating etc., is necessary to make listening effective. The reasons are:

- Listening is a real time activity. There is no second chance unless, of course, the listener specifically asks for repetition.
- Listening involves understanding all types of reductions of sounds and blending of words. The listener needs clarifications.

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- When there is a gap in understanding, listeners tend to ‘fill in the blanks’ with contextual guesses using their prior knowledge.

People do not always say exactly what they mean. That is, important aspects of meaning are sometimes implied rather than stated. Listeners have to ‘listen between the lines’ to figure out what really is meant.

Some listening problems arise due to individual learning approaches. These are:

- **Problem of selective reception:** Receiving requires not only an attentive ear but also an open mind. People tend to select the information that they think is useful and listen to that extent. In choosing what to receive, counsellors have to be careful. Key ideas are to be captured and listening should be done in a way to enhance their understanding.
- **Filtering:** Understanding is influenced by filtering. People tend to wear coloured glasses of their choice and see the world through them. Such interpretations may be based on their own experience, and biases may be misleading. Care is necessary before establishing understanding.

### Responding to the client’s questions

In the process of interaction, clients may raise some questions and expect counsellors to respond appropriately. The questions may be about the client’s own personality, behaviour or thoughts and the counsellor–client relationship. Some typical questions are:

*Client:* Do you think I am a timid person?

*Client:* What do you think about my joining the new organization? Did I make a mistake?

*Client:* Am I troublesome, demanding more from you?

The counsellor has to think carefully before answering such questions. The nature of response depends on the following needs:

- **Need for assurance or sympathy:** In the early stages of counselling, the client views the counsellor as an expert and seeks guidance at each and every step; that is, his or her dependence is high. What the client needs perhaps is an encourager and not a specific answer to the question. In such cases, instead of answering a question, encouragement should be provided.
- **Need for advice:** Some clients look for an informative answer. As a part of counselling, expert advice of the counsellor is sought. In such cases, answers that extend professional help should be provided.

### Spoken skills

Good communication is essential to counsellors. As you can see, each stage of the counselling process paves the way for another—providing a base for

progression from ambiguity to clarity. As you move through each stage, you will gain an understanding of the problems, perspectives and insights. Counselling is essentially a communication process and counsellors should be good communicators. Table 11.1 shows the communication actions required at the different stages of counselling.

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*Table 11.1 Communication during Counselling Stages*

Stages	Actions	Examples
Beginning	Greet the employee	Good morning! Mr. Rao, please be seated.
	Establish a common ground	Both of us are equally concerned with the performance and the outcomes. However, something has gone wrong and your performance has been slipping these days.
	State the purpose of the interview	We will now examine how your performance can be improved.
	Clarify the proposed format of the interview	I invite you to share with me your thoughts and feelings so that we can understand the issues and come out with appropriate solutions.
	Contract	I suggest we contract for six sessions and then review.
Developing	Define the goals	Our aim should be to double your output in the next quarter.
	Assessment	It sounds to me you are more dissatisfied with your performance. Can you tell me more about your work? Here is a form on personality assessment to know about you.
	Problems analysis	The major problem appears to be your poor understanding of the work and use of equipment.
	Re-assessment by deep exploration and challenge	Is performance your concern or the supervisor's? You said, your workplace is not good. You have said that your performance was good earlier, and it dropped when the new incentive system was introduced. I am wondering whether you have the right motivation. What are your feelings at present?
	Objectives	As you say, our objectives will be: To improve your knowledge of the work; to equip yourself with the skills of using the required equipment.
	Actions	Our action plan should include: one week training session on job duties and two days hands on training on use of equipment.
Termination	Summarize	Well! We have agreed to improve your knowledge of job and skills of using equipment and towards this end...
	Responsibilities	You will attend the programmes and take the tests –I will observe your performance and then we will chalk out ...
	Schedules	We will agree that the next one week will be training and review will be on 3 <sup>rd</sup> and 8 <sup>th</sup> day.
Follow-up	Feed back	On different occasions inquiries can be made. How do you find the training? Interesting?

### 11.3.4 Empathy

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Empathy is the skill of listening to someone and understanding his feelings. It also helps clients understand themselves better and act accordingly. Table 11.2 shows the skills associated with empathy. Empathy involves two major skills: Perceiving and communicating. According to Carl Rogers: 'To be with another in this way (empathetic) means that for the time being you lay aside the views and values you hold for yourself in order to enter another's world without prejudice. In some ways it means you lay aside yourself.' To be empathetic is not an easy task. Here is a short check list to evaluate your abilities:

- Can I enter the private world of the client and see things as he or she does?
- Can I give up my temptation to evaluate and judge my client's views?
- Can I extend my understanding of the client's inner feelings as felt by him, without distortion?
- Can I sense the client's inner feelings which are dimly seen or mixed in confusion?

*Table 11.2 Skills Associated with Empathy*

S. No.	Skills	Explanation
1	Attending, acknowledging	Showing verbal and non-verbal indications: eye contact, smile, sitting upright, etc.
2	Re-stating, paraphrasing	Repeating what the client has said and building a question or a remark on it.
3	Reflecting	Inquiring based on feelings, experiences or content that the client has expressed.
4	Interpreting	Offering a tentative interpretation about the other's feelings, desires or meanings.
5	Summarizing, synthesizing	Synthesizing feelings and experiences to gain focus on what to explore further.
6	Probing	Questioning softly and intelligently to secure more information, clearing doubts and opening new vistas.
7	Giving feedback	Sharing information to indicate attention and understanding, and encouraging exploration and problems solving.
8	Supporting	Showing warmth and care to create confidence and affection.
9	Checking perceptions	Evaluating to establish significance, relevance, accuracy and completeness of information for decision—making.
10	Being quiet	Not to push the client. To be a sounding board for the client to reflect and think about issues for a while.

#### Subsuming

This is more than empathy. The counsellor actually strives to move along those inner pathways of the client's experience for a short period of time to gain understanding.

### 11.3.5 Probing Skills

Probing involves deep exploration to know extensively as well as intensively the problems and related aspects. The inquiry process may make use of several methods such as:

- Questioning techniques
- Statements
- Reflective methods

#### Questioning techniques

We will now examine the different types of questions that a counsellor can make use of. We will also examine the possible effects of each type of question.

- **Open questions:** These are invitations to a client to speak openly and enthusiastically about the issues bothering him or her. The questions usually begin with what, how, where etc., and seek elaborate explanations from the client. Consider this example:

*Counsellor:* What happens when you go late to work? How many days were you late and what happened most of the times?

- **Hypothetical questions:** These are open questions that encourage a client to speculate about their own feelings, views and behaviour, and those of others. These help identify the future consequences and weigh their impact on the client's future life. As a result, a lot of unknown fears become known and clients gain confidence to treat themselves as challengers. An example is given here:

*Counsellor:* If you leave the company what will happen? If you stay what will happen?

If the client's reply is, 'I don't know',

*Counsellor:* If you don't know, what will you do?

If the client's reply is, 'I know',

*Counsellor:* If you know the consequence, how do you see it? As a serious one? As an important one?

- **Why questions:** Some clients may not know the reasons for their behaviour and some others may know but prefer not to reveal them. In either case, a question that seeks to elicit reasons for the behaviour may not get a proper answer. An exception is a rational transaction. When the client and counsellor have adult-to-adult transactions, questions like 'Why do you hate our boss?' may find answers.
- **Closed questions:** Questions that require simply 'yes' or 'no' answers are less desirable. They limit the expression of the client and make the process of inquiry cumbersome. The counsellor has to put across several

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questions to obtain a complete picture of the situation. Note the following example:

*Client:* I am planning to quit the job.

*Counsellor:* Who all have been informed about your plan? (Open question)

Instead of the open question, the counsellor may ask several yes/no questions as given under:

*Client:* I am planning to quit the job.

*Counsellor:* Did you inform your boss?

*Client:* No

*Counsellor:* Have you shared your plan with your team members?

*Client:* No

*Counsellor:* Did you discuss with your family members?

- **Either/or questions:** These questions place the client in a dilemmatic situation and make him or her become reserved in expressing opinions. Exploration has limited power and does not help counsellors in getting full information. Here is an example:

*Counsellor:* Is it your boss or the nature of work that is causing dissatisfaction in your present job?

The options are limited to two. Instead, consider the open question, which offers scope for exploring multiple options.

*Counsellor:* What in your view are the causal factors for dissatisfaction in your present job?

- **Multiple questions:** When a counsellor asks many questions at one shot, the result is often unsatisfactory. The client may be baffled by the variety of questions, not knowing where to begin and what to say.

*Counsellor:* Did you talk to your boss? Did you notify your employer that you are quitting the job? Did you collect your papers from the new employer?

- **Leading questions:** Leading questions are those which communicate to the respondent that a certain reply is expected. These are loaded with a suggestion and influence the client's mind. Sometimes they may be embarrassing to the client. An example would make the point clear.

*Client:* The job is challenging and work environment is good. But I am unhappy with the pay and benefits.

*Counsellor:* Are you going to say that you feel like leaving the company?

The client has not revealed his future plans. The counsellor did so by framing a question with a suggestive answer. These are undesirable as they affect the freedom of the client.

## Guidelines to questioning techniques

To use the questioning technique in an effective manner, let us find out the purpose of questioning. Questions serve the following purposes:

- Help clients to focus on a specific area or issue
- Provide an opportunity to explain with an open mind
- Allow clients to have full control of their thoughts and opinions.

Effective questions are those which have the following characteristics:

- specific
- clear
- concise
- direct
- open

## Statements

Inquiry need not be based on interrogative approaches. By stating the questions in an assertive or declaratory form, one can secure information. This is a mild and gentle form of inquiry. Questions may be intrusive or impersonal, whereas statements are more friendly and supportive to the client. Consider the following examples:

*Counsellor:* What are you going to do now? (Question form)

*Counsellor:* You said you are unhappy with your boss. I wonder how you respond to him.

## Reflective methods

The ability to communicate with the client's internal frame of reference is called reflective skill. It first involves understanding what is in the mind of the client. Such an understanding is possible by active listening – both words and body language – and interpreting the information in an appropriate manner using the probing questions and clarification methods. Second, it involves conveying rightly such understanding to the client. Reflecting ensures that the external frame of reference (the framework of understanding created by what the client has said) is the same as the internal frame of reference (what the client has in his mind). Reflective skills can be viewed as a set of three skills–re-stating, paraphrasing and summarizing.

- **Re-stating:** The counsellor can respond with a word or phrase to encourage the client to speak further. Example:

*Client:* My boss always criticizes me. He never gives me any credit . . . always finds fault with whatever I do . . . should I leave the company . . . I wonder?

*Counsellor:* Criticizing? (To know more about the contexts and purpose of criticizing. Who is to blame? Client or boss of a client?)

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- **Paraphrasing:** This is the ability to state a key idea from what the client has said. It helps gain focus on the important tracts and themes.

*Client:* Since childhood, I have been an active person. I won several medals and prizes. I stood first in examinations. Of course, due to interest in literature, I could not do well during college days. But I have authored two books and they brought me recognition in society. I was rated as a fine team leader and given a promotion last year.

*Counsellor:* You mean you are a good achiever.

- **Summarizing:** Summarizing is a process of condensation by integrating key ideas to make a precise explanation of what the client has said in detail. Summaries made in the first stage of counselling are called attending summaries.

### 11.3.6 Deeper Exploration Skills

Deeper exploration aims at helping clients discover their true self. In counselling, a client's revelation of self or concerns may not be complete because of 'hidden areas' and 'blind spots'.

- **Hidden areas:** A client may not want to disclose some of his thoughts and feelings or even certain incidents of the past.
- **Blind spots:** A client may not know his or her inner feelings. He is either dimly aware of them or totally unaware of certain dimensions of his personality and orientations.

Deeper explorations thus help deeper understanding of the client's concerns. Egan (1986) refers to this as advanced empathy. A counsellor may go for deep probing using questions, statements and reflections. Alternatively, challenging can be used.

#### Challenging

Challenging is a powerful approach to shift the client from one perspective to another. Instead of retaining a frame of reference and struggling to fit everything in it, it seeks to explore a new perspective by taking a new route of exploration. This process helps to discover the unknown weaknesses and strengths of clients and leads to identification of more constructive and useful solutions. The aims of challenging approach are:

- Finding gaps in information by identifying deficits, discrepancies, uncertainty in outcomes, self-defeating beliefs and unexpressed feelings.
- Probing deep to bridge the gaps in information by discovering hidden concerns.
- Searching to find new vistas of thoughts and feelings, to find an expression so far undiscovered and the potential of the client.



Challenging can be done in many ways. However, to be effective, challenging should be purposeful and thought provoking. Some useful tips to challenging are given here.

- **Be tentative:** As a rule, a counsellor should never take full control of the thought process of a client. As such, a proposed view should be tentative and open for modification. You might say: ‘I wonder whether...’, ‘I guess or my hunch is ...’ ‘How will it be if you...’.
- **Do not blame:** The aim of challenging is to find gaps, discrepancies and inconsistencies in thoughts and so on. The loopholes or loose ends are to be used for further exploration but not for negatively criticizing the client. Having a positive regard for the client is important for counselling. Acknowledge the inconsistencies in a subtle and gentle manner and seek information to gain new understanding.
- **Be concrete:** A challenge should be specific and clear. Vague expressions do not help. They may result in the client deviating from the expected line of thought. As a result, interaction may become less useful and sometimes complex.
- **Persist to achieve:** Challenging may require a series of questions and moving through a sequence of interactions. It cannot be done by a single question or statement. It requires pursuing all the aspects under consideration till a full picture is obtained.

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### Types of challenges

There are a good number of alternative challenging strategies. These are given in brief in the following lines:

- **Confrontation:** The counsellor confronts the client to make him aware of any faulty, distorted and baseless feelings or views that have been immobilizing or disempowering his personality. Weak-minded people try to hide their weaknesses by saying aloud something which they neither intend to do nor are capable of doing. They resort to the following actions.
  - o **Rationalizing:** They try to supply logic to their thoughts or actions. Consider the following example:  
*Client:* I lost my job. There is an economic meltdown. Everybody is losing their jobs.
  - o **Delaying:** Some clients keep on postponing actions to avoid facing them. Maybe they have bitter feelings or fear in facing them.
  - o **Blaming others:** This is common in most cases. Instead of accepting the failure people often ‘pass the buck’ to others. They find relief in blaming others for their involvement or contribution. Though it is irrational and unacceptable, people do it to retain their identity or safeguard their ego.

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- **Self-confrontation:** The counsellor asks the client to talk to himself, pointing out his weaknesses and strengths. Generally, clients may either concentrate on self-blame or self-praise. The client has to be guided to take a balanced view. It should help them to see through themselves and listen to themselves. Such self-examination and introspection will enhance their own understanding.

- **Feedback:** Feedback refers to return communication to the client based on what the client has said. Such a communication should aim at helping the client to take a new angle or explore a new dimension. Feedback can be both positive and negative. See the example cited here:

*Client:* I hate my boss. I don't think I can work under him.

*Counsellor:* You said in the beginning you liked him a lot.

*Client:* Yes! But not now. I put up with him all these days.

*Counsellor:* You have tolerance toward mistakes. (Positive feedback)

*Client:* I have tolerated the mistakes of many. Take the case of my team leader. He took so many wrong decisions. I told him several times to be more careful. What did he do in return? He pointed out his failures as my mistakes. I hate him.

*Counsellor:* You said you hate your team leader.

*Client:* Yes. Not only for blaming me unnecessarily but also for saying it in front of others.

*Counsellor:* You seem to be emotional and quick in forming impressions. (Negative feedback)

- **Additional information:** Clients may lack the information necessary to make radical and different decisions. In career counselling, for example, the client may not have information about the career options or educational opportunities. Make sure that the information provided to the client has the following characteristics:
  - o **Relevant:** Check for the relevance of the information to the client based on understanding of attitudes, expectations and capabilities.
  - o **Precise:** Information has value when put in precise form. Unnecessary elaboration leads to information overload and sometimes the right information may be lost in the maze.
  - o **Concrete:** Information must be clear and realistic. It should be action-oriented and practical.
  - o **Not advice:** Information should be neutral in presentation. It should not suggest an action to the client. It should be descriptive and not prescriptive.

- **Directives:** A powerful way of challenging is instructing the client to do a particular thing. Examples:

‘Say more about your feelings.’

‘Explain more about your experience.’

‘Do not shift from this; elaborate and explain.’

- **Counsellor self-disclosure:** Counsellors choose to share own experiences either to assure or re-energize the clients. When sharing experiences or feelings, the counsellor has to ensure that such disclosures are purposeful, direct, brief and tailor-made to the client’s situation.

Immediacy refers to focusing on the present. This is helpful in two contexts:

- o **To focus on the future:** Generally, the thought process progresses from past to present and present to future. After the client has finished talking about past events, feelings and views relating to his or her concerns, consolidating the discussion for future thinking is important. It is pertinent to focus on the present. Relevant questions are:

What are your feelings now? How do you view your concerns today?

- o **To move when stuck:** When both the counsellor and the client are stuck during their interaction, the counsellor may use this tactic to progress. By opening a new window, he can lead the client to think about the issue with renewed energy.
- o **To examine relationships:** Another aspect that requires attention is the client–counsellor relationship. Factors like trust and emotional feelings require scrutiny.

Is the relationship going to increase dependence on the counsellor in future?

Will the relationship, on termination, result in bitter feelings and negative thoughts in the client?

Is the relationship leading to unethical sexual relations or victimization of the client in any way?

### 11.3.7 Problem-Solving Skills

These refer to a set of skills that helps see the problem, and search for solutions.

- **Scanning skills:** Scanning is the process of scrutinizing the information relating to a particular problem area. It seeks to look in and look around to gather details about the problem. It presents a problems map.
- **Futuristic thinking skills:** This kind of thinking is essential for making solutions durable. It examines the acts in terms of their impact both on other people and on oneself. The key question is: If this solution is chosen, what can happen? The counsellor asks his client to generate several imaginary pictures of what the future would be like. After identifying a range of possible

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pictures of the future, the client will be asked to choose one which is more realistic and workable for him or her. For instance, a client facing a work–life balance problem, may visualize the following imaginary pictures:

- o I would stay at home till my children attain the age of ten years.
- o I would be doing a part time job. My husband will support me and take care of the children.
- o I would be doing a flexi-time job. I would adjust my work schedules to meet my family’s demands.
- o I would be a doing full-time job and my in-laws/parents will take care of my domestic needs.

For a client who cannot receive support from either parents or in-laws, the last option would be unrealistic. For women, whose spouses are non-cooperative, the second option is theoretical. The first option is less feasible in case the woman needs to support the family. When flexi-time jobs are not offered by local organizations, the client has to make further exploration of opportunities to build scenarios.

### Sentence completion

This is a very simple way of getting clients to think about the future. It allows the client to see the positive and negative ‘future states’ of a person and choose the one that is close to his or her own preferences and expectations. In the work–life balance problem, the counsellor asks the client to fill in the following sentences.

If my husband is supportive...

If my in-laws are supportive...

- **Diagnostic skills:** It is a process of identifying the symptoms and causes of problems. Symptoms are manifest indications of a problem but they are not the root causes. In-depth analysis to find the cause–effect relationship is essential to come out with the right problem definitions. George Kelly refers to diagnosis in counselling as transitive diagnosis. This means the counsellor will find out how the client has moved from one situation to another and what factors have influenced the transition process.
- **Analytical skills:** Analytical thinking is a process of breaking an issue into different aspects and examining each aspect or idea to gain a complete understanding. It is a process of identifying variables and cause-and-effect relationships, For instance, job dissatisfaction may be due to unpleasantness. What factors caused unpleasantness or what are its dimensions, whether it is nature of work, relationship with boss, relationship with peers, work environment, or pay and benefits. Such questioning leads to analysis.

## Force-field analysis

Kurt Lewin (1969) evolved this technique of examining the factors that inhibit/hinder or promote/facilitate a decision or a situation. Consider the work–life balance problem. Facilitating factors for a client may be:

- o Attractive remuneration that improves economic stability
- o Hiring support services is possible
- o Company has flexi-time facility

Hindering factors can be:

- o Children need mother's care
- o Support services are not reliable and also costly
- o In-laws are opposed to employment

The role of the counsellor is passive if the client can evolve the force-field on his or her own. If the client requires help, the counsellor should suggest ways to explore the map of possibilities and factors influencing them.

- **Creative thinking skills:** Creative thinking goes beyond what is apparent. Thinking within the system tends to be limited in scope and provides limited answers. It is important to expand the horizon of think and find new and unusual ways to respond to situations.

## Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a creative thinking tool. It is an idea generation technique. It helps one think beyond existing options to experimental ideas that have not so far been considered infeasible or ruled out as unrealistic. The guidelines for brainstorming are:

- o Invite clients to voice their ideas in a relaxed, open and free atmosphere.
  - o Ask them to suspend their judgement and focus only on idea generation.
  - o Help them build new ideas on the existing or stated ones.
  - o Record ideas.
  - o Limit the session to 15–20 minutes.
  - o Evaluate the ideas for implementation and choose one.
- **Negotiating skills:** Clients meet counsellors for help. However, they take time to change their perspectives and find solutions. They look for solutions that do not require much behavioural modifications or attitudinal changes. They seek easy and quick solutions. Sometimes, counsellors might have to convince the clients to take difficult routes in order, to find durable remedies. In such cases, negotiation skills become important.
  - **Change management skills:** George Kelly describes the cycle of change as a process of five stages, which are as follows:
    - o **Anticipation:** The client looks into the future with expectations and emotional feelings like fear, anxiety and hope.

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- o **Commitment:** The client decides to involve and experiment with the change process and invest his or her time and energy.
- o **Encounter:** The client faces the change process and acts in accordance with the agreement for change.
- o **Confirmation/Disconfirmation:** The outcomes confirm the expected results and reinforce new behaviour. In case of failure, the client and counsellor realize that the change is not effective.
- o **Constructive revision:** In case of both positive and negative outcome, revision is important. In the former, it aims at refinement. In the latter case, it seeks to creatively develop new change processes.

### Overcoming resistance

Clients resist change. Such resistance is common in many contexts of change. However, the reasons for resisting change vary from one context to another. The general reasons for resisting change are outlined here:

- o **Fear of the unknown:** Uncertainty about the future and the inability to perceive benefits and risks create fear and anxiety in the minds of clients. For example, job change is a case of anxiety. How will the new work environment be? How will relations with people be there? Such questions and doubts become a source of anxiety.
- o **Constraints:** A person may face certain stumbling blocks on the path of change. For instance, in a job change problems like disturbance to children's education, leaving ailing parents, and non-transferable job of spouse, can become stumbling blocks.
- o **Perceived rewards are unattractive:** When the perceived benefits of change are not attractive, change will be unacceptable to the client.
- o **Lack of skills:** Another barrier to moving into a new situation is lack of the skills required. When a client lacks the skills of managing the new situation, he or she will hesitate to accept the change plan.
- **Monitoring skills:** Monitoring the implementation of change plan through periodical reviews and suggestions to correct behaviour is important. A counsellor should have the ability to prescribe the course of action, determine suitable time intervals for evaluation, decide the method of appraisal, and the tact to persuade clients to do things necessary to handle the change.

### Check Your Progress

1. What is the main aim of the counsellor in counselling?
2. What are the major skills involved in empathy?
3. What do you mean by brainstorming?
4. Why are monitoring skills important for a counsellor?

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## 11.4 ACADEMIC PREPARATION: SELECTION AND TRAINING OF COUNSELLORS

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Counselling is a process that involves communication between the counsellor and the counselee so that the counselee can overcome the problems faced by him with the assistance of the counsellor. Counselling is, therefore, a process of self-introspection wherein an individual identifies the problems and finds a solution on his own. Counselling as a process has three functions which can be broadly categorized as follows:

- **Adjustment functions:** Counselling enables an individual to adjust to the changes taking place in the educational, personal and vocational areas. Counselling is provided as professional and immediate aid to individuals so that they can make suitable adjustments to their environment.
- **Oriental functions:** Oriental functions deal with orienting a person about his personal and environmental constraints and resources. Oriental functions are vital for counselling as these make the person aware of his environment and, thus, enables the individual to adjust accordingly within the available resources. When an individual is properly oriented towards his environment and resources, he is able to adjust better as compared to when no orientation is available to the person.
- **Developmental functions:** The main aim of counselling is the overall development of an individual so that he can adjust to the environment. The aim of counselling is not only to help the person who faces problems but also help an individual to prevent developing adjustment problems. Developmental function of counselling helps in self-development, development of the society and the nation.

The role of the counsellor is that of an assistant who simply helps and guides the counsees to find solutions to their problems. In other words, the counsellor does not take decisions. There are several reasons as to why a counselee chooses or selects counselling. These include the following:

- The counselee wishes to feel relieved by sharing his problems with a person who can advise him further in solving his problems.
- The counselee wants to reduce stress at home, in the workplace or in relationships.
- The counselee needs to improve physical health by reducing emotional worries or stress.
- The counselee wants to establish healthy and efficient ways and techniques for achieving the goals.
- The counselee wants to analyse his own thoughts, feelings and responses.

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- The counselee wants to speak with a skilled professional about his fears, anxieties and perceptions of the world.
- The counselee wants to feel safe about expressing any personal troubles or private concerns.
- The counselee wants to work towards greater self-fulfilment.

Based on the reason for which a counselee needs counselling, the type of counselling can be selected. Also, the reason for counselling affects the overall counselling session and the outcomes of the counselling session.

Training in counselling may often be required by the counsellor to know about the various counselling techniques and how to utilize them. The counsellor also needs to ensure that he is trained enough to carry out a counselling session in an effective manner. A counsellor must be typically trained in basic skills of counselling, its objective, ethics, and theories, and should also possess a certified counselling degree.

### 11.4.1 Counselling Teachings for Counsellors

The following are the counselling techniques that a counsellor must be trained to use:

- **Spheres of influence:** This is an assessment tool that enables an individual to assess the areas of life which influence him. The main job of the counsellor here is to assist the counselee in understanding and analysing which are the strong and weak areas of the counselee. The spheres of influence for a counselee may include himself, immediate family, friends, extended family, job or school, community, culture or religion and external influences.
- **Clarification:** The counsellor must be trained enough to ask for clarification of whatever the counselee has told the counsellor. This enables the counsellor to avoid misconceptions and also enables them to make assumptions and thereby provide the correct feedback.
- **Client expectations:** The counsellor must be trained enough to understand the expectations of the counselee. The counsellor must assure the counselee that he can communicate freely with the counsellor. This will benefit the counsellor and the counselee both, as they will be able to find a more practical solution to the problem. Also, the counsellor can guide and direct the counselee in a better manner when the expectations have been clearly stated.
- **Confrontation:** The counsellor must be trained enough to coerce the client to confront himself during counselling. The counselee needs to self-examine himself during the counselling session and the counsellor must be trained enough to direct the counselee into doing so in the right manner.
- **Congruence:** The counsellor must be genuine with his feedback given to the counselee. The counsellor must be trained to appear authentic and genuinely concerned about the feeling of the counselee so that both can effectively work together towards solving the problem at hand.



- **Core conditions:** The counsellor must be trained in some basic traits that are required for effective counselling. These include exhibiting respect, empathy, congruence, genuineness, and warmth.
- **Encouraging:** This is a basic technique which a counsellor must be trained so that he can encourage the counselee to discuss the problems with the counsellor in a free manner. This further helps to develop a relationship of mutual respect between the counsellor and the counselee. Encouraging basically requires the counselee to focus on his positive traits and strengths.
- **Engagement:** The counsellor must be trained to maintain a good relation with the counselee. The counsellor must be trained enough to be influentially engaged with the counselee so that the counselee may be controlled during difficult sessions of counselling.
- **Focusing:** This technique basically enables a counsellor to focus on the needs of the counselee. The counsellor must be non-judgemental when solving the problems of the counselee.
- **Immediacy:** The counsellor must be trained to make use of the technique of immediacy. In this technique, the counsellor talks about the happenings taking place around so that the counselee can learn from real-life experiences and use this knowledge in solving the problem faced by him.
- **Listening skills:** The counsellor must be trained to develop effective listening skills so that he can listen and interpret the problems of the counselee. The counsellor needs to be attentive enough when listening to the counselee.
- **Open-ended questions:** The counsellor must be trained to make use of open-ended questions so that he can extract maximum information from the client. These questions help the counsellor to get information on how, why and what of the client's problems.
- **Paraphrasing:** The counsellor must be trained to use paraphrasing so that the counselee knows that the information that has been given has been received and interpreted by the counsellor in the right manner.
- **Positive asset search:** The counsellor must be trained in this technique so that he can enable the client to focus on his strengths and skills.
- **Reflection of feeling:** The counsellor must be trained to use the technique of reflection of feelings so that he can show to the counselee that the feelings of the counselee have been understood in the right manner.
- **Capping:** The counsellor must be trained to use the technique of capping in the counselling session which often involves changing conversation from an emotional to cognitive one. This is essential when the emotions of the client need to be controlled or regulated.
- **Working alliance:** The counsellor must work towards collaborating effectively with the counselee to find a solution to the problem that the

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counselee faces. The counsellor must be clear about his role in the counselling session and must not try to overpower the counselee or his views.

- **Proxemics:** The counsellor must be trained in proxemics which involves studying the spatial movements and body coordination of the counselee when he expresses his feelings. This enables the counsellor to judge the mood, feelings and emotions of the client.
- **Hierarchy of needs:** The counsellor must be efficient enough to identify the needs of the counselee including physiological needs, safety needs, need for love and belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization. This enables the counsellor to know when changes need to take place in the counselling session.

### **Certificate course in counselling, Mumbai, India**

The certificate course in counselling offered in Mumbai has been developed with the objective of preparing professional counsellors and to meet the needs of the profession. The idea behind providing this course is that professional counsellors must upgrade their skills and techniques, so that they can continue to provide better services to the clients. The emphasis throughout the course is on the following aspects:

- It enables the counsellor to bring about a change in his attitude and habits that are not in-line with the required attitude and skills.
- It encourages the counsellor to develop skills that help the former to mature in the profession and help the counselees in the best manner.
- It help the counsellor to develop listening skills.
- It enables the counsellor to learn communication skills and methods that are most effectively used in providing counselling.

During the tenure of the course, the counsellors who undertake training are imparted training on basis of the Robert Carkhuff model of Personal Counselling, which is an offshoot of Carl Roger's Client-Centred Therapy. The course includes the following:

- The five stages of the counselling process and to set the goals to be achieved at each of these five stages. Training is also imparted on how the various goals can be achieved.
- Training is also given so that the counsellors can acquire the right evaluation, attention, responsive and initiating skills.
- The counsellors are also provided training in developing empathy, genuineness, respect, and confrontation skills.

To provide training to the counsellors, the method adopted is that of sensitivity training and sharing of information at a personal level. Training is imparted by trained professionals. The trainees are involved in group discussions and are even given written assignments.

### Check Your Progress

5. How does counselling perform its adjustment function?
6. Which method is employed by the certificate course in counselling offered in Mumbai to provide training to the counsellors?

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## 11.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The main aim of the counsellor in counselling is to assist the counselee in identifying the underlying causes of the problems the counselee faces and bring about the required adjustments or changes so that the problem can be resolved.
2. Empathy involves two major skills: perceiving and communicating.
3. Brainstorming is a creative thinking tool. It is an idea generation technique. It helps one think beyond existing options to experimental ideas that have not so far been considered infeasible or ruled out as unrealistic.
4. Monitoring the implementation of change plan through periodical reviews and suggestions to correct behaviour is important. A counsellor should have the ability to prescribe the course of action, determine suitable time intervals for evaluation, decide the method of appraisal, and the tact to persuade clients to do things necessary to handle the change.
5. Counselling enables an individual to adjust to the changes taking place in the educational, personal and vocational areas. Counselling is provided as professional and immediate aid to individuals so that they can make suitable adjustments to their environment.
6. The certificate course in counselling offered in Mumbai adopts sensitivity training and sharing of information at a personal level.

## 11.6 SUMMARY

- A counsellor is a professional who offers his services to the counselee. Like any other profession, counselling also has a professional code of conduct and ethics that the counsellors need to adhere to.
- The counsellor may develop his own system of values over a period of time and must ensure that he practices the profession within the limits prescribed by these values.
- Consent means that the counsellors have the consent of the counselee in terms of offering the services and the treatment meted out to them.

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- In general and under normal circumstances, the counsellor is required to keep everything that the counselee tells him confidential i.e. the information shared by the counselee must not be passed on to anyone else other than the counsellor.
- Counselling is a process of learning about the client's situation and extending help. Each counselling instance is a case study to be added to the knowledge base and a source of new experience in learning.
- Communication is at the core of counselling. A counsellor should be effective in oral and non-verbal communication. He or she should be good in speaking and listening.
- Probing involves deep exploration to know extensively as well as intensively the problems and related aspects. The inquiry process may make use of several methods.
- The ability to communicate with the client's internal frame of reference is called reflective skill. It first involves understanding what is in the mind of the client.
- Deeper exploration aims at helping clients discover their true self. In counselling, a client's revelation of self or concerns may not be complete because of 'hidden areas' and 'blind spots'.
- Challenging is a powerful approach to shift the client from one perspective to another. Instead of retaining a frame of reference and struggling to fit everything in it, it seeks to explore a new perspective by taking a new route of exploration.
- Scanning is the process of scrutinizing the information relating to a particular problem area. It seeks to look in and look around to gather details about the problem. It presents a problems map.
- Analytical thinking is a process of breaking an issue into different aspects and examining each aspect or idea to gain a complete understanding. It is a process of identifying variables and cause-and-effect relationships.
- Creative thinking goes beyond what is apparent. Thinking within the system tends to be limited in scope and provides limited answers. It is important to expand the horizon of think and find new and unusual ways to respond to situations.
- Counselling is a process that involves communication between the counsellor and the counselee so that the counselee can overcome the problems faced by him with the assistance of the counsellor.
- The role of the counsellor is that of an assistant who simply helps and guides the counselees to find solutions to their problems. In other words, the counsellor does not take decisions.
- Training in counselling may often be required by the counsellor to know about the various counselling techniques and how to utilize them.

- The certificate course in counselling offered in Mumbai has been developed with the objective of preparing professional counsellors and to meet the needs of the profession.

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## 11.7 KEY WORDS

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- **Professional Code of Conduct:** It is an official document that clearly defines how a company's employees should behave in the workplace on a day-to-day basis.
- **Confrontation Skills:** Confrontation as a counselling skill is an attempt by the counsellor to gently bring about awareness in the client of something that may they may have overlooked or avoided.

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## 11.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short-Answer Questions

1. What is the code of conduct to be followed by counsellors?
2. What are the three most important requirements for counsellors in terms of social skills?
3. State the reasons as to why a counselee chooses or selects counselling.

### Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain some of the professional issues that the counsellor may face when practicing counselling.
2. Discuss the learning and communication skills required by a counsellor.
3. Describe the counselling techniques that a counsellor must be trained to use.

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## 11.9 FURTHER READINGS

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**BLOCK - IV**  
**TRENDS IN COUNSELLING**

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**UNIT 12 MODERN TRENDS IN  
COUNSELLING**

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**Structure**

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Counselling and Psychotherapy
- 12.3 Trends in Counselling
  - 12.3.1 Cognitive Method
  - 12.3.2 Affective Methods
  - 12.3.3 Behavioural Methods
  - 12.3.4 Personal Theory of Counselling
- 12.4 Career Counselling
  - 12.4.1 Importance of Career Counselling
- 12.5 Ethical and Legal Considerations in Counselling
- 12.6 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 12.7 Summary
- 12.8 Key Words
- 12.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 12.10 Further Readings

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**12.0 INTRODUCTION**

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Counselling as a field has experienced transformation in recent years. It has always been about helping people see things in an objective manner. However, recently it has dived into the psychoanalytical, existential and behavioural areas in order to explore the reasons for patients' problems in an effective manner. In this unit, we will discuss the counselling vis-à-vis psychotherapy, along with trends in counselling. We will also focus on career counselling, and ethical and legal considerations in counselling.

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**12.1 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss counselling vis-à-vis psychotherapy
- Describe the trends in counselling
- Analyze the significance of career counselling
- Explain the ethical and legal considerations in counselling

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## 12.2 COUNSELLING AND PSYCHOTHERAPY

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Self-actualization, self-understanding and the real desire to make positive changes in one's life are things that are undertaken by the professions of psychotherapy and counselling. The various issues that might plague people, whether it be familial, interpersonal, psychological, emotional and the like, all fall under the expertise of these professionals. The therapy and counsel they provide is of course, different from that of other skilled professionals, and is product of vigorous training. The following are some of the characteristics of the unique skill set required out of these professions:

- Several theories of the fields of psychotherapeutic, psychological and counselling, come together in order to assist the person in therapy, so that the client can make the appropriate changes in his or her lives. The counsellor also has to keep in mind the unique cultural background of the client, their belief systems and their own right to choose what they feel is good for them.
- These professionals require extensive, rigorous training so that they may be able to study human behaviour, to understand their capabilities and reach into the field better and to mind boundaries—both personal and professional.
- These professionals require the intimate knowledge of the client's socio-cultural background and how those factors affect his or her life. Age, nationality, race, caste, gender, sexual orientation, religion, cultural identity, (dis)ability, socioeconomic status, all need to contribute to the psychotherapist or counsellor's opinion of the client in order for a richer, more detailed examination.
- Therapists may need to deal with problems, both short and long-term. The crisis in the client's life could be an immediate one, or one that has had a prolonged existence. These professionals may also need to counsel not just individuals, but also groups, couples and families.
- Both public and private sectors require counselling in different capacities, with respect to their different needs.
- Self-determination, self-examination, self-awareness, professional development and clinical supervision, all need to be minded in order to have an ethical and meaningful practice. A therapy session is made more significant by the inclusion of such practices. It enriches the session because the psychotherapist or counsellor immerses herself or himself more in the therapy, and is more deeply involved.
- Despite the numerous similarities in the fields of psychotherapy and counselling, there do exist certain marked differences between them, as well. Counselling as a profession, focuses pointedly, on certain situations in a client's life. The client is encouraged to make changes that would help them towards self-actualisation. Psychotherapy on the other hand, urges

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the patient to reconstruct the self and rebuild insight. However, at advanced levels, these fields have a lot more in common, than at the lower levels.

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### Check Your Progress

1. Name some aspects of a client's socio-economic background that should be important to a therapist.
2. What is primarily required for an ethical practice of counselling?

## 12.3 TRENDS IN COUNSELLING

Prospective counsellors must be aware of major ways of counselling so as to acquire a decent basis for creating their own individual brand of counselling. The current trends in this field can be broadly classified into three methods. They are:

- Cognitive method
- Affective method
- Behavioural method

It is observed that these methods closely parallel the three aspects of personality viz., conation, affection and cognition (i.e. doing, feeling, and knowing as agreed by the ancient Philosophers).

### 12.3.1 Cognitive Method

As Feorge and Cristiani (1981) have said, in the cognitive method, the procedure of counselling is the remedial of unreason by reason, that is, to help patients eliminate most emotional conflict by logic, to help them get rid of illogical, unreasonable ideas and outlook, and substitute rational, logical ideas and thoughts instead. This process helps the patient to attain rational behaviour, contentment, and self-actualization. For example, Transactional Analysis (TA) aims at the internal conversations of individuals, which occurs between the different ego states and the fight between the real element of their behaviour (whether the same is destructive or productive) and the behaviour of others by recognizing which ego state is in command at any given occasion. TA thus gives the patients knowledge about a variety of types of transactions that happen among individuals and to assist them in identifying the types of behaviour in which they are involved. The goal of TA is to help patients review their past decisions and make new decisions about their present behaviour. It is assumed that this would change their life direction into developing an autonomous life style characterized by awareness, spontaneity. This, it is believed that would, eliminate a life style characterized by manipulative game – playing a self-defeating neurotic tendencies.

Directive teaching is the core of all the cognitive methods. For example, in Rational Emotive Therapy (RET), the counsellor takes up an active teaching role to educate patients. The RET counsellor makes the patient recognize that the



latter's internalized sentences are fairly illogical and such illogical thinking is self-defeating verbalizations of the patient. The success of the counsellor lies in bringing illogical thinking forcefully to the patient's notice. He/she must also show to the patient how these thoughts are sustaining his sadness and how rethinking and preservation of logic can make him happy. In reality therapy, the significance of reality and the requirement to act responsibly are taught by the counsellor.

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### **12.3.2 Affective Methods**

As the term implies the affective methods in counselling focus their attention to what is happening inside the individual, and particularly, what the person is experiencing at a certain point of time. Person-centred counselling of Carl Rogers is maybe the most well-defined procedure in the affective methods. It highlights a problem in counselling, namely, how much responsibility can be placed on the patient for their own difficulty solving. Rogers thought that when a person perceived themselves as acting in a manner consistent with their 'picture' of themselves, they generally experience feelings of security, worth, and adequacy. If on the other hand, they act different from that perceived image, they experience what is identified as 'threat' and feels inadequate, worthless, or insecure. Under pressure and with no other option, they may then guard themselves against this threat using one or more of the usually described 'defence mechanisms'. Unless counselling eradicates this defensive chain reaction and reinforces their self-concept, the defensive activities would amplify vulnerability to further guilt, thereby producing more distortion and self-defeating mechanisms.

The function of the therapist is not just abolishing the defence mechanisms. Rogers highlights the significance of 'congruence'. It means the similarity 'matching of experience and awareness'. In this circumstances, the patient-centred counsellors stress the significance of precise communication. If a patient is aware of communicating emotion which they genuinely experiencing, their behaviour is said to be congruent or integrated. In incongruent communication, the communication and experience of the patient are too dissimilar, if not opposing, making the recipients experience false communication as well. The counsellor must help the patients face the incongruence between awareness and experience so that feeling of their real experience is the full awareness and not the distorted version due to defence system and neurotic constrictions.

The 'self-theory' of Rogers also presumes a viewpoint called 'phenomenology'. According to this viewpoint, people's 'reality' is that which they notice. The way to know about individuals is to understand the 'phenomenological part' from their behaviour. It is sometimes also called the 'internal frame of reference' of the patient, and is used in counselling with the inference that counsellors must try to perceive patient's perceptual worlds as intimately as they can. This requires the empathic skill of the counsellor.

Recently, counselling has started moving towards 'existentialism'. In contrast to psychoanalysis, existentialism is an unpredictable way of looking at

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life. It is essentially a philosophy of experiences, which should not necessarily be considered into cognitive compartment. Man is fundamentally an emotional being rather than a being based on reason. The existence of man is only one of its kind because he is the only being who acts in response to the fact of his subsistence. The knowledge of one's own subsistence and the possibility of non-existence change the inner world or the phenomenology. These new premises create new experiences and needs that are yet to be known. The predicament of humans is such that it comprises the individual's ability for increased self-awareness, the hunt for unique sense of purpose in an empty world, freedom to choose one's fate being alone or in relation with others, responsibility, anxiety, death and, finiteness and an essential push for self-actualization. As a hypothesis, existentialism is sound and attractive, but counselling on the foundation of this theory is difficult. However, the existential counsellor tries to comprehend the patient as 'a being' and as 'a life form in the world'. Counsellors are supposed to render out their own inner reality and at the same instance be human. This, according to existentialists, allows patients to develop awareness of similar conditions and virtues in themselves. It is pointed out that during this process patients come to identify their potentialities and attain self-growth by accepting it as their task. In a nutshell, it can be understood that making the patient accept responsibility for their own self is the aim of existential counselling.

### 12.3.3 Behavioural Methods

While theorists try to know about conscious and unconscious through deduction, the behavioural counsellors focus on objective study of patient's conduct and the learning procedure. As the emphasis is first and foremost on open overt behaviour, the first highlight is to determine how the behaviour was obtained and how it can be altered. The second highlight, which is a later addition, is on condition for behaviour change. This way is categorized by (1) a focus on open and particular behaviour; (2) a specific and well thought out and intended behaviour called goal; (3) a formulation of a precise and objective treatment process to the problem; and (4) an objective judgment of the conclusion of counselling in terms of the degree of approximation to the target behaviour. In the behavioural methods clear and well defined counselling goals are fundamental to the process. The depth of counsellor-patient relationship in other methods is of secondary significance. The main endeavour of this bond with the behaviourist counsellor is to make possible greater understanding of the patient's view of the predicament. This helps to devise a more triumphant behavioural plan for bringing about transformation in the patient's non-adaptive behaviour to the adaptive behaviour (intended behaviour). As the behavioural methods base their considerations of human behaviour through the presumption of learning, they use very specific practices like systematic desensitization, assertive training, social modelling, and behaviour contracts. All these practices are well known to counsellors.

### 12.3.4 Personal Theory of Counselling

The three fundamental methods (Affective, Conative, and Cognitive) with their unique foundations vary in their premise and practice of counselling. By about 1973, Patterson started to think in terms of similarities among the methods. Fortunately, most of the controversies subsist only at academic theoretical level. The practicing counsellors were undertaking transformation of the patients, who were not interested in theories and their nuances, but were concerned only with immediate predicament resolution. This requirement of the patient to the counsellor had made a lot of counsellors ditch their dogmatic way. Practices of the counsellors underwent change towards a practical approach. The patient and his requirements became more significant than the counsellor's dogma and theory. This was how 'personal theory' materialized.

Here, it is utterly necessary to point out that instruction in some known way is better than no instruction. Counsellors early in their career need a firm understanding of all the major methods, they should commence with a methodical grounding in one theoretical way to counselling. It is additional pointed out that sensible integration and absorption of techniques from erstwhile methods could be done with understanding and experience. In conclusion, each counsellor and psychotherapist must in the end expands a point of view which is uniquely his or her own. Freud was not a Freudian, and Rogers not a Rogerian, Jung not Jungian and so on. Usually, they are the results of many years of cumulative cross-fertilization of numerous minds. Isaac Newton is alleged to have said, 'If I have seen more, it is because I have rose on the shoulders of giants'.

#### Check Your Progress

3. What is the aim of Transactional Analysis (TA)?
4. What is the person-centred counselling?
5. How did the 'personal theory' materialize?

## 12.4 CAREER COUNSELLING

Career counselling refers to counselling offered by career counsellors, who help individuals choose an appropriate career based on their abilities, skills and interests. The main objective of career counselling is to help students pick a field that complements their abilities and skills the most. Career counselling is a broad term. In general, it is the procedure of assisting a person by providing guidance and moral support and exploring solutions for the career problems being faced in a number of field. Whether one is in the course of choosing a career or in the middle of a career change, a career counsellor is there to help with these dilemmas. Career counselling is receiving the right guidance to assist you, set your long term objective

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for your professional life and achieving them through scientifically developed aptitude tests and personality analysis.

To find the right career, there needs to be a match of interests understanding of capabilities, and skills so that land you to the job you wish.

Career guidance and student counselling is an exceedingly broad and a comprehensive concept, in order to apply this task efficiently there are a lot of aspects that need to be taken under deliberation. The guidance with regards to career and the counselling of students entails a conversation between a career counsellor; who must be an expert in his area, he should possess all the knowledge skills, abilities and information concerning the job openings, opportunities, prospects that are accessible and possess the capability to effectively correspond with the person who is seeking guidance and counselling. On the other hand, the job seekers or students or an individual who is already employed and is wishes to make a change is required to have effective a pleasant personality, communication skills, should be well qualified , having an likeable attitude, and possess the necessary skills and abilities to work and get occupied into a service setting. Career guidance has achieved importance in all educational institutions, in higher educational establishments, there are separate Counselling sessions where people who are anxious or worried or tensed about their career prospects and upcoming life, come to obtain help and aid, so that their fears can be alleviated, they are able to obtain an employment opportunity or get occupied in a good career which may fetch them contentment.

Career counselling at the school level makes certain the right sort of help to defeat such thinking and impede students from making such errors. Many students give a psychometric test in order to evade making mistakes and their pains are commendable, although the results of the examination might leave them more perplexed than before. Why? The psychometric test fundamentally outlines the strong point and weak point of students and highlights their interests and aptitudes. The catch is, their interests and aptitudes don't always have to match. Meaning, they can be first-class at Math but have a passion in Arts. So which career choice do they pick?

A reputable career counsellor will first of all, be able to explain the whole report, tell them the benefits and shortcomings of pursuing both their interests and ability, and give them the clearness and comprehension to make the proper decisions. This is much needed, especially, whilst students are prone to pleasing advice from unreliable source.

Students have a tendency to take guidance from anyone they think has knowledge. But it may not always be correct or let alone be the best choice. The pathway followed by their apparently successful peers might not aid them to reach the same destination, their model adults must have spent time in their lives through failures themselves and their parents might be uninformed of the most up to date industry trends. To make sure that students have clarity of idea, career counsellors

must be made obtainable for students at all times as they are in high school to obtain the right and latest counsel. Although CBSE has made it obligatory for schools to have counsellors, there still needs to be a difference made as to what sort of counsellors are required. Many of the counsellors already at hand are life skill counsellors and even though life skills are important, the number of academic advisors (counsellors) is low. Ultimately, college advisors are what students require most to be thriving. To highlight, the vital requirement for career counsellors fresh stats show a gigantic number at least 92% of students don't get any career associated guidance from their schools. Decisions made while going through High School often make or break a student's professional life. Experienced career counsellors are qualified to understand students thinking and their ability. Once a student's ability is understood, the counsellor is able to guide the student to the most excellent career suitable to him/her and assist them make the decisions that ensure professional success.

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### 12.4.1 Importance of Career Counselling

Career counselling is significant because:

- **Making an educated choice to choose a career:** Career assessment helps evade the risk of change in professional life as it categorizes ones ideas and thoughts on career related decisions. It also helps boost up the confidence and morale. It gives directions to professionals feeling misplaced in the middle of their professional life.
- **Job satisfaction:** The foremost aim of career counselling is to facilitate you to choose a field that fits with your ability and your job outlook. Thus, with the help of career counselling, you will finish up choosing the correct career, and perform your finest, which will ultimately aid you in succeeding.
- **Makes you focused:** Your career counsellor makes things trouble-free for you when it comes up to making decisions. It helps bring focus, and maintain that focus all through in the job hunt or job change.
- **Removes career-related confusion:** Career counselling provides a platform where such frustrations can be reduced, and focus is re-directed to selecting the best career options. It connects you with the experts who have enough life experiences to share to help you overcome with your confusions.
- **Develops the confidence to conquer career hurdles:** Career counselling assists you understand the obstacles in your career path. Hence, they also give their insights that aid building your confidence.
- **Access to Expert Resources:** Career counsellors are knowledge experts in their realm. Having a career counsellor, gives you the entrance to their experience, resources and knowledge that can help you nurture yourself to put you in a great position.

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## 12.5 ETHICAL AND LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS IN COUNSELLING

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Each professional counsellor has a huge responsibility to support the public trust and must look for high levels of supervision, education, and training in the ethical application of counselling practices, in particular because counsellors frequently practice in closed meetings with little supervision. The professional counsellors as they strive to assist patients in an ethical and legal manner should follow ethical standards created by professional associations, policies guidelines, federal and state laws and regulations, and procedures created by state boards of education and local school systems. Ethical principles are normally developed by professional relations to guide the behaviour of a specific assembly of professionals. Ethical principles help to educate counsellors about improving professional practice, providing a mechanism of accountability and a sound ethical conduct.

The origins of conventional psychotherapy can be found in an exceptional combination of science, religion, and magic. For a lot of years, many societies used to have their 'professionals' aid individuals in overcoming their mental and emotional health problems. For the most of its history, counselling and psychotherapy had been observed as a non-medical vocation, and many methods of treating mental and emotional illness had been quite strange. However, as the requirement for professional emotional assistance and mental health continued to increase, society made a normal interest to check and additional regulate the counselling occupation. In light of the sole dynamics of the therapeutic relationship between the counsellor and the patient, the official and legal aspects of the counselling profession had to be clarified. The developed society sought to minimize the risks of damage caused to the patient by inept and unprofessional counsellors. Meanwhile, counsellors had to be trained to comply with the basic legal standards of care and be capable to prove their compliance. All those deliberations gave rise to the benchmarks of care in counselling in the 20th century. The criterion of care has become the first pillar of the counselling profession, substantiating and governing the to and fro nature of the dynamic association between psychotherapy/counselling and the law.

The history of ethics in counselling is analogous to that of the legal paradigm. Since the start of the 1970s, ethical standards and the ethical counselling services have grown into one of the main concern in psychotherapy. Throughout the vibrant 1980s, members of ethics teams and counselling experts persistently tried to set up a new, ethical basis for valuable counselling care in the modern world. With time ethics became one of the foremost forces driving the progress of the counselling profession. Increased concentration to the ethical aspects of counselling become visible in all elements of practices counselling, training, preparation and education. The amount of literature dedicated to the ethics of counselling continually expands. Ethics in the counselling profession goes with jurisprudence, and this sustained

emphasis on the legal and ethical features of counselling exemplifies the best way to the counselling profession in its present and upcoming states

Counselling is a demanding endeavour. Every person who wishes to be a counsellor is bound to continue living at the complex intersection of a variety of ethical and legal norms. Apart from the detail that the counselling vocation is being governed by ethical norms and set of legal, the frontier between these standards are extremely blurred. To a huge extent, everything that is deemed unethical in counselling can also result in serious legal penalty for the counsellor. The history of the legal and ethical criterions in counselling is quite new: it is not before the mid of the 20th century that the significance of regulation and ethical standardization in the counselling occupation was publicly acknowledged. The major subjects related to the legal and ethical standards of practice in counselling include duty to warn, the use of technologies, confidentiality and informed consent, and consistency of therapeutic relationship and multiculturalism coupled with the nature. Both ethical and legal aspects of counselling have greater implications for the counselling course. However, while legal standards set clear boundaries in counselling, the ethics of the counselling occupation is still confusing and, lot of times, even mutually exclusive. Therefore, counselling can't be ethical, until and unless professional counsellors possess relevant problem solving, decision making, and critical thinking skills required to successfully resolving the rising ethical dilemmas for the assistance of the patient.

In the present state of law and counselling, counselling ethics has turned into an object of legal and ethical regulation, aimed at accuracy and non-ambiguity in counsellors' relations with their patients. It has been the case that, for many years, ethics has been much more significant for counsellors than the regulation and legal aspects of the state. Counselling is a field that is very different from all other professional occupations, and professional counsellors grow an ethical intuition that aids them govern the dynamics of therapeutic relationship. At the same time, there is no particular profession left where law has not developed into the dominant choice governing force. Counselling has by now fell victim to the mounting pervasiveness of legal norms, and many counsellors are simply petrified by the legal omnipotence which their patients tend to employ. Under the control of law, counsellor-patient power imbalances are getting more visible, and I do not think that the phrase of law is the most efficient force of compliance is working in the counselling line of work. It is through ethics, not law that counsellors can work in their patients' interests. Law is the guide, a helping hand, in counselling practice.

Another important thing to think about is the relation of divine values to the legal and ethical aspects of counselling. It is fairly convincing to say that, in the world of full of diversity, using divine values of respecting humankind as the basic element of effective counselling practice is correct and, possibly, even unethical if not followed. As mentioned earlier, multiculturalism has turned out to be one of the most pressing topics in counselling literature, and many counsellors are deficient in the desired multicultural competence to offer high-quality psychotherapy to diverse

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patients. It is of paramount importance that we still make bigger our frames of ethical reference.

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### Check Your Progress

6. Define career counselling.
7. How are ethical principles helpful for counsellors?

## 12.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. A therapist requires intimate knowledge of the client's socio-cultural background and how those factors affect his or her life. Age, nationality, race, caste, gender, sexual orientation, religion, cultural identity, (dis)ability, socioeconomic status, all need to contribute to the psychotherapist or counsellor's opinion of the client in order for a richer, more detailed examination.
2. To have an ethical practice, self-determination, self-examination, self-awareness, professional development and clinical supervision are required.
3. Transactional Analysis (TA) aims at the internal conversations of individuals, which occurs between the different ego states and the fight between the real element of their behaviour (whether the same is destructive or productive) and the behaviour of others by recognizing which ego state is in command at any given occasion.
4. The person-centred counselling of Carl Rogers is maybe the most well-defined procedure in the affective methods. It highlights a problem in counselling, namely, how much responsibility can be placed on the patient for their own difficulty solving.
5. The requirement of the patient to the counsellor had made a lot of counsellors ditch their dogmatic way. Practices of the counsellors underwent change towards a practical approach. The patient and his requirements became more significant than the counsellor's dogma and theory. This was how 'personal theory' materialized.
6. Career counselling refers to counselling offered by career counsellors, who help individuals choose an appropriate career based on their abilities, skills and interests. The main objective of career counselling is to help students pick a field that complements their abilities and skills the most.
7. Ethical principles help to educate counsellors about improving professional practice, providing a mechanism of accountability and a sound ethical conduct.



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## 12.7 SUMMARY

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- Self-actualization, self-understanding and the real desire to make positive changes in one's life are things that are undertaken by the professions of psychotherapy and counselling.
- Several theories of the fields of psychotherapeutic, psychological and counselling, come together in order to assist the person in therapy, so that the client can make the appropriate changes in his or her lives.
- Self-determination, self-examination, self-awareness, professional development and clinical supervision, all need to be minded in order to have an ethical and meaningful practice.
- Prospective counsellors must be aware of major ways of counselling so as to acquire a decent basis for creating their own individual brand of counselling.
- As Feorge and Cristiani (1981) have said, in the cognitive method, the procedure of counselling is the remedial of unreason by reason that is, to help patients eliminate most emotional conflict by logic, to help them get rid of illogical, unreasonable ideas and outlook, and substitute rational, logical ideas and thoughts instead.
- As the term implies the affective methods in counselling focus their attention to what is happening inside the individual, and particularly, what the person is experiencing at a certain point of time.
- The 'self-theory' of Rogers also presumes a viewpoint called 'phenomenology'. According to this viewpoint, people's 'reality' is that which they notice.
- While theorists try to know about conscious and unconscious through deduction, the behavioural counsellors focus on objective study of patient conduct and the learning procedure.
- The three fundamental methods (Affective, Conative, and Cognitive) with their unique foundations vary in their premise and practice of counselling.
- By 1973, the practicing counsellors were undertaking transformation of the patients, who were not interested in theories and their nuances, but were concerned only with immediate predicament resolution.
- Career counselling refers to counselling offered by career counsellors, who help individuals choose an appropriate career based on their abilities, skills and interests.
- Career counselling is receiving the right guidance to assist you set your long term objective for your professional life and achieving them through scientifically developed aptitude tests and personality analysis.
- Each professional counsellor has a huge responsibility to support the public trust and must look for high levels of supervision, education, and training in

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the ethical application of counselling practices, in particular because counsellors frequently practice in closed meetings with little supervision.

- Another important thing to think about is the relation of divine values to the legal and ethical aspects of counselling.

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### 12.8 KEY WORDS

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- **Phenomenology:** It is the philosophical study of the structures of experience and consciousness.
- **Multiculturalism:** It is the co-existence of diverse cultures, where culture includes racial, religious, or cultural groups and is manifested in customary behaviours, cultural assumptions and values, patterns of thinking, and communicative styles.

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### 12.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the cognitive method of counselling.
2. Briefly explain the ethical considerations in counselling.

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the characteristics of the unique skill set required by counselling and psychotherapy.
2. Discuss the significance of career counselling.

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### 12.10 FURTHER READINGS

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# UNIT 13 COUNSELLING RELATIONSHIP

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**NOTES****Structure**

- 13.0 Introduction
- 13.1 Objectives
- 13.2 Working in a Counselling Relationship
  - 13.2.1 Counsellor Skills in the Understanding and Action Phases, and Real Relationship
  - 13.2.2 Transference and Counter-Transference
- 13.3 Termination of Counselling Relationship and Functions of Termination
  - 13.3.1 Timing of Termination
  - 13.3.2 Issues of Termination
  - 13.3.3 Resistance to Termination and Counsellor-Initiated Termination
  - 13.3.4 Premature Termination
- 13.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 13.6 Summary
- 13.7 Key Words
- 13.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 13.9 Further Readings

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## 13.0 INTRODUCTION

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The relationship between the client and the counsellor needs to be based on mutual confidence in order for the client to feel comfortable expressing themselves in an uninhibited way. It is the duty of the counsellor to have a secure, confidential atmosphere and to offer empathy, understanding and respect. The way the client and the therapist connect and relate to each other is the secret to the success of therapy. It is so essential for patients to feel comfortable and to recognise that their therapist cares about them and has them in mind. The relationship is where the real therapy takes place in therapy. In this unit, we will discuss the working of counselling relationship by understanding the counsellor's skills required in understanding and forming action phases. We will also focus on transference and counter-transference, along with the characteristics of termination of counselling.

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## 13.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the working of a counselling relationship
- Describe the counsellor's skills required in understanding and forming action phases
- Analyze the termination of counselling

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## 13.2 WORKING IN A COUNSELLING RELATIONSHIP

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The relationship between the counsellor and the counselee is based on trust and must flourish in a manner to help the counselee adjust to the problems faced by him. The relationship between the counselee and the counsellor must be of mutual regard and understanding so that the counselee always feels that the counsellor is genuinely concerned about his problems. The relationship must also be a professional one in the sense that the counsellor must not be personally moved by the problems that the counselee faces. A counsellor in no case must get personally involved with the counselee at any point of time in the counselling relationship. This is against the ethics and also has a negative impact on the relationship between the client and the counsellor.

### 13.2.1 Counsellor Skills in the Understanding and Action Phases, and Real Relationship

A trusting relationship between the two develops under the following circumstances:

- The counsellor is a kind person and is warm and welcoming.
- The counsellor is a person who can keep the problems discussed confidential and does not share the information with others.
- The counsellor is a person who understands the feelings of the client and is not judgmental.
- The counsellor is not a negative person and does not impose his personal opinions on the counselee.
- The counsellor is a person who feels that the problem can be solved with some help but does not provide a solution to the problem rather encourages the counselee to find the solution.

### How to build rapport with the counselee in the counselling relationship?

Rapport implies building a close and harmonious relation between two or more persons. It is important for a counsellor to build rapport with the counselee. The rapport between the counsellor and counselee is facilitated by how the counsellor behaves with the client and vice versa.

- To build rapport with the client, the counsellor must be prepared to conduct the session with the counselee. The counsellor must put aside his personal grudges, if any, and must work towards helping the counselee in solving his problems.
- The counsellor must develop a safe and trusting environment for the counselee. The counsellor must make the counselee comfortable so that the counselee feels free to discuss the problems with the counsellor.

- To build a rapport, the counsellor must know in detail about the counselee and must remember key facts about the client. This helps the counsellor to conduct the counselling session in a proper manner.
- The counsellor must empathize with the problems and issues being discussed by the counselee.
- The counsellor must not be judgemental. The counsellor must also show regard to the client and follow professional ethics when dealing with the client.
- The counsellor must give the counselee sufficient time to discuss his problems. The counsellor must not rush to solve the problems of the client and give enough time to the client to find solutions to his problems.
- The counsellor must be congruent as well as honest and must not behave with the client in a rude manner.
- When a rapport is developed between the counsellor and the counselee, the counselee begins to trust the counsellor and the counselee can solve his problems in an effective manner with the help of the counsellor.

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**Example:** How a counselling relationship helped Sherry, a single mother of a teenager

Sherry, a 41 year old single mother with a teenage son, seeks the help of a counsellor as she felt exhausted, withdrawn and lost. Sherry was frustrated because of the demands of the people in her life. She was tired of the demands of the supervisor who pushed her to work more. This resulted in Sherry spending a lot of time in the office and taking work home as well. Sherry is also tired of her friends who rely on her a lot and always want Sherry to be there to listen to their problems and complaints. Sherry's son is also complaining demanding more time from her mother. Sherry, therefore, feels exhausted and upset and her health has also suffered a lot. Sherry complains a lot about headaches, colds and other symptoms.

### How counselling might help

Sherry goes to a counsellor and after attending the initial session and knowing how the counsellor will work with her, she starts to analyse her situation and find solution with the help of the counsellor. Sherry discussed with the counsellor that once her son had left the house to work alone and stay independent, she felt lost and isolated. Sherry realizes that to avoid the feeling of loneliness, she spends a lot of time doing things, going out with friends and spending a lot of time on the Internet.

The counsellor allows Sherry to unfold her life experience at her own pace. In doing so, Sherry also realizes the patterns of her life. She also realizes the fact that she needs someone to discuss and share her problem with. Sherry and the counsellor have developed a therapeutic relationship that leads Sherry to self-

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discovery. Sherry also feels that she has become so accustomed to saying yes to people who are no longer concerned about her needs and problems and, therefore, she feels alienated and uncomfortable at all times. The counselling sessions that she attends offer her support to deal with her feelings on her own. With the help of the counsellor, Sherry realizes what is important for her in life and what is not. Sherry no longer feels that she must say yes all the time to people. Sherry now enjoys her time surfing on the Internet and feels energized when she spends time doing things she likes. She has now started doing creative things especially painting that she likes and has also learnt to say no to people whom she does not want to help or feels unable to help.

Sherry's perspective of life has changed and she no longer carried a burden of resentment as she attends the counselling sessions. She has become more aware of her energy level, needs and wants. Sherry has seen the counselling sessions as an opportunity to lead a free life.

Sherry feels free to express herself and has no fear of the fact as to how she will be judged by others. She now connects well with others and easily works at the workplace where she has become more assertive. Sherry's confidence has also grown which is reflected in her body language and is leading a better personal life. She is now able to focus on her own needs and wants and enjoys spending time with her son consequently.

### 13.2.2 Transference and Counter-Transference

The meanings of transference and counter-transference may seem too simple: transference means the redirection of feelings about a particular person to someone else (in counselling, this refers to the projection by a client of their feelings about someone else onto their therapist). While counter-transference means redirecting the emotions of a therapist towards the client. Transfer and counter-transference, however, can take several forms that can be difficult to interpret in therapy, and individual therapists have different ways to resolve them. Transference and counter-transference are central elements of all counselling relationships, and the therapist and patient's knowledge of them is crucial to successful practise. Instead of only giving patient explanations, the articulation of a patient's interaction patterns needs to be observed and understood in the work. They give patients the opportunity to speak about their relationship patterns with counsellors and other meaningful individuals in their lives.

#### Check Your Progress

1. Mention any three circumstances under which a trusting relationship between counsellor and client can develop.
2. What do you mean by rapport?

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## 13.3 TERMINATION OF COUNSELLING RELATIONSHIP AND FUNCTIONS OF TERMINATION

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### NOTES

All that is good must come to an end. The counselling process is one that is deep and requires personal investment. If it has gone well, then there will be significant personal growth and the next step will come easily. If there is something occurring that is impeding personal growth, then the next step will be difficult. But regardless of the good or the bad, the end is inevitable. In the end, the counsellor has made client enable to think, feel and behave in the way he/she desires and to be empowered without the counsellor's support. With termination, there may be some safety features put into place. Many counsellors feel the need to check in with their clients after some time or have their clients check in with them. This is commonly referred to as a follow up and involves communicating with the client to ensure stability and well-being. It's no different than a doctor's office calling in and checking up on you.

### 13.3.1 Timing of Termination

Termination is considered not only at the end of a successful relationship, but also when it seems counselling is not being helpful. In successful cases, the relationship between counsellor and client continues. However, it should not result in the client's dependence on the counsellor for every simple problem that arises during the course of implementation of a plan. Therefore, termination is important as a means of empowering the client by creating a temporary closure of relationships.

#### Plan to end

Preparation for termination should begin long before the actual date of closing the discussion. A sense of independence and desire for individual action is to be created during the last stage of counselling. Before closing the session, the key points should be summarized and validated by getting acceptance from the employee. The client should be invited to review the plan of action and say in his or her words, what he or she is going to do and what is expected of the manager.

### 13.3.2 Issues of Termination

In fact, managed care requires the counsellor to play a key role in assisting the client in reviewing progress and chalking out necessary steps to ensure right developments. The counsellor may offer help by announcing an open door policy or by indicating interventions in the plan. The role of counsellor is critical in providing the employee with resources and time and periodically assessing the plan. Before terminating, in consultation with the client, the counsellor has to identify a date (or dates) in advance, for reviewing the progress and evolving corrective measures.

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**Take care of emotional feelings**

At the end of counselling, the client may have varied emotions. Some may feel anxious about the new behaviour, some may fear criticism, some may feel sad and some others may have anger. Each of the emotion has a root cause behind it and the counsellor should understand it to remain 'in-charge' of the situation.

**Documentation**

Formal counselling requires documenting the proceedings of counselling. However, requirements to record counselling information vary from organization to organization. Irrespective of formal requirements, a counsellor benefits by documenting the main points of a counselling session. The benefits are:

- The record serves as a reference to the plan of action, both to the counsellor and the client.
- It aids in making recommendations for professional development.

**13.3.3 Resistance to Termination and Counsellor-Initiated Termination**

Patients normally feel anger towards the counsellor, when nearing the end of their counselling relationship, perceiving it as abandonment. It is more likely to occur if a counsellor does not prepare them beforehand. Patients might feel anxious about having to handle things without the counsellor's support. This thought can be very scary as they have become dependent on their relationship with the counsellor for support. Other reactions from the patients can be sadness on losing a relationship. The emotions that are most often easier and comfortable to express are anger or separation anxiety. Unsettled issues surrounding the past relationships can play out while terminating the counsellor-client relationship. However, if the process is handled ethically and honestly, the counsellor is in a great position to endow the patient with an end which is healthy, resulting in a productive relationship that they look back at positively and feel content with the end.

Counsellors, themselves, can also have some bad experiences when forced-termination occurs and they feel emotionally overwhelmed. Guilt is also a fairly common emotion for counsellors on initiating the termination. If and when the goals which were set at the beginning are met, termination ensues. Also when the counsellor feels that the problem has been resolved, he may raise the subject of termination directly, if the patient feels they have fully recovered they might bring up the idea. In the latter case, if the counsellor agrees with the patient, termination can take place. However, the counsellor must also be attentive to the likelihood that effort to termination may have aroused due to lack of progress or it could a sign of conflict and resistance and should be handled carefully. If ending of the relationship is reasonable, the counsellor should use the last few meetings to make the patients comfortable. Post-termination, the patients often feel that their symptoms—grieving, sadness, anxiety, or separation—have renewed. When a



counsellor successfully manages these symptoms, the counselee gets the most benefit of the counselling.

Forced-termination, by its very nature, means that the counselling relationship is ending too suddenly and prematurely. After allocating so much time supporting your patient and gaining their trust, making them feel open and honest, terminating the relationship abruptly can be harmful. This can leave counsellors feeling as though they are abandoning their patient, and feeling responsible for whatever might happen to the patient as a result of the end of the relationship. For many counsellors, a sense of annoyance feeling exists of not having ‘done the job’ or achieved what they set out to achieve for the patient. Counsellors who are under training often have a problem with a sense of omnipotence; they feel that they are the ones who can really help the patient. On the other hand, it is typical to feel impotent, or to get the feeling that the association was not at all obliging to the patient and that the patient will be better off with a different counsellor. When working with a patient for merely a short period, it can be tricky to see if any progress was made, especially if the patient is not letting the counsellor know about any improvements. In such cases, it is of paramount importance for counsellors to work to come at ease with that feeling of ‘not knowing’. It could be some time before a patient themselves realizes the value of counsellor’s help. Counsellors may feel a sense of failure and sadness for not being able to see their patients any longer, and other may feel a sense of respite. This relief often leads to culpability about being glad to move on from the therapy situation. It is very important to acknowledge your own feelings as you proceed through the end of counselling.

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### 13.3.4 Premature Termination

Premature termination is a major yet often neglected crisis in psychotherapy with significant cost for patients and counsellors alike. According to some estimates, as many as 20% of adult patients terminate psychotherapy before the intended result. Even experienced practitioners by means of the best evidence-based methods cannot successfully encourage positive, long-term change in patients who do not continue the full course of the therapy. Premature termination is a patient’s decision to end treatment, contrary to both the counsellor’s current recommendation and the initial agreement between patient and counsellor. There is also a lack of significant progress by the time of termination in that definition. While ‘significant progress’ may be incorporated in the agreement between patient and counsellor, a patient’s definition of significant progress may divert from the initial planned agreement.

Considerations about premature termination are important, because in the end it hurts everyone involved in the counselling process. First of all, the patient is impacted as they eventually did not receive the successful treatment and might even discourage them from getting therapy again. This is particularly true with patients experiencing disorders such as PTSD and stress, in which evading is the essence of their present problem. When these patients prematurely end the therapy,

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they may experience a temporary reduction in symptoms because they are no longer discussing distressing and disturbing issues. However, their symptoms come back very quickly and often much worse than earlier. Second, as a counsellor, one of the most annoying events is when patients terminate early on. Although it takes a lot of effort and time in the whole process, it often makes the counsellor question their ability and skill as a clinician when patients leave treatment early. This is particularly true with new counsellors. After spending such a great deal of time encouraging your patient to be trusting, open and honest, severing the connection suddenly make it all go to waste.

**Check Your Progress**

3. What are the benefits of documentation for a counsellor?
4. What are the safety features needed at the termination of a counselling relationship?

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**13.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. A trusting relationship between counsellor and client can develop under the following circumstances:
  - (a) The counsellor is a kind person and is warm and welcoming.
  - (b) The counsellor is a person who can keep the problems discussed confidential and does not share the information with others.
  - (c) The counsellor is a person who understands the feelings of the client and is not judgmental.
2. Rapport implies building a close and harmonious relation between two or more persons. It is important for a counsellor to build rapport with the counselee.
3. The benefits of documentation for a counsellor are:
  - (a) The record serves as a reference to the plan of action, both to the counsellor and the client.
  - (b) It aids in making recommendations for professional development.
4. With the termination of a counselling relationship, there may be some safety features put into place. Many counsellors feel the need to check in with their clients after some time or have their clients check in with them. This is commonly referred to as a follow up and involves communicating with the client to ensure stability and well-being. It's no different than a doctor's office calling in and checking up on you.

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## 13.5 SUMMARY

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- The relationship between the counsellor and the counselee is based on trust and must flourish in a manner to help the counselee adjust to the problems faced by him.
- A counsellor in no case must get personally involved with the counselee at any point of time in the counselling relationship. This is against the ethics and also has a negative impact on the relationship between the client and the counsellor.
- Rapport implies building a close and harmonious relation between two or more persons. It is important for a counsellor to build rapport with the counselee.
- Termination is considered not only at the end of a successful relationship, but also when it seems counselling is not being helpful. In successful cases, the relationship between counsellor and client continues.
- In fact, managed care requires the counsellor to play a key role in assisting the client in reviewing progress and chalking out necessary steps to ensure right developments.
- Patients normally feel anger towards the counsellor, when nearing the end of their counselling relationship, perceiving it as abandonment. It is more likely to occur if a counsellor does not prepare them beforehand.
- Forced-termination, by its very nature, means that the counselling relationship is ending too suddenly and prematurely.
- Premature termination is a major yet often neglected crisis in psychotherapy with significant cost for patients and counsellors alike. According to some estimates, as many as 20% of adult patients terminate psychotherapy before the intended result.
- Considerations about premature termination are important, because in the end it hurts everyone involved in the counselling process.

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## 13.6 KEY WORDS

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- **PTSD:** Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a mental health condition that's triggered by a terrifying event — either experiencing it or witnessing it. Symptoms may include flashbacks, nightmares and severe anxiety, as well as uncontrollable thoughts about the event.
- **Omnipotence:** It is the quality of having unlimited power and potential.

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## 13.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### NOTES

#### Short-Answer Questions

1. Why is the relationship between counsellor and client so important?
2. Write a short note on transference and counter-transference.

#### Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the rapport-building activities or behaviour employed by a counsellor.
2. Discuss the resistance to termination and impact of premature termination on counsellors and counselees.

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## 13.8 FURTHER READINGS

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# UNIT 14 THEORIES OF COUNSELLING

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## NOTES

### Structure

- 14.0 Introduction
- 14.1 Objectives
- 14.2 Counselling Theories
  - 14.2.1 Psychoanalytic Theories and Psychoanalysis
  - 14.2.2 Adlerian Theory and Counselling
  - 14.2.3 Cognitive Approach
  - 14.2.4 Humanistic Theories and Person-Centred Counselling
  - 14.2.5 Behavioural Approach
  - 14.2.6 Holistic Approaches: Existential and Gestalt Therapy
  - 14.2.7 Towards a Creative Approach
- 14.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 14.4 Summary
- 14.5 Key Words
- 14.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 14.7 Further Readings

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## 14.0 INTRODUCTION

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Almost all of the individual theoretical counselling models fall into one or more of the six main theoretical categories: humanistic, cognitive, behavioural, psychoanalytic, constructionist, and systemic. Professional counsellors use a number of different approaches. Psychodynamic, humanistic and behavioural are probably the three main methods. Each of these has a different theory and concepts underpinning it, and the therapists and counsellors using each will address issues and problems in various ways. Some therapies can also use thoughts from more than one approach. In this unit, we will discuss psychoanalytic, Adlerian, humanistic, person-centred, existential, and Gestalt theories of counselling in detail.

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## 14.1 OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the psychoanalytic and Adlerian theories of counselling
- Describe the humanistic and person-centred theories of counselling
- Analyze the existential and Gestalt theories of counselling

## 14.2 COUNSELLING THEORIES

### NOTES

Counselling, as an individual field of study and activity, has evolved over the years and has incorporated important findings of personality theory, social psychology, counselling psychology and therapeutic techniques. As a result, we find different approaches to counselling, based on the varying concepts of human personality structure and dynamics. The term ‘approach’ is used in preference to ‘theory’ as no single theory has yet been able to encompass all the aspects of counselling.

### 14.2.1 Psychoanalytic Theories and Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis, as a theory of human personality, was like a Copernican revolution in psychology and was perhaps the first systematic attempt to explain human behaviour—both normal and abnormal. The major contributor to this theory was Sigmund Freud. Psychoanalysis spawned other therapies such as object-relations, Proffoff’s Intensive Journal Therapy, Jung’s hypnotherapy, etc. They are all based on unconscious motivations of the individual. The psychoanalytic approach views the personality as divided into three major systems, which are:

- **Id:** The id is inherited and works on the pleasure principle. It provides the drive for the pursuit of personal wants.
- **Ego:** The ego is the seat of logic or rationality. Because of its contact with reality, it controls the consciousness and provides realistic and logical thinking. It moderates the desires of the id.
- **Super ego:** It represents the conscience of the mind and higher plane of ethical codes or ideals. A person’s actions and feelings are guided by the moral code that he or she develops in the course of personality development.

The super ego is aware of the impulses of the id and seeks to direct the ego to control the id. As a result, unpleasant emotional feelings like tension, conflict and anxiety develop and humans develop defence mechanisms to reduce or remove unpleasantness.

Harper (1959) identifies four important concepts, which according to him, are central to the Freudian point of view, as shown in Table 14.1.

*Table 14.1 Freud’s Concepts*

Concept	Description
Bisexuality	Since homosexuality is not accepted, there is repression and formation of complexes.
Bipolarity	Positive feelings are always accompanied by negative feelings (love and hate).
Sublimation	All higher things are only sublimates of their opposites. The sexual urge is sublimated and the finest creations, such as music, sculpture, art and literature are all a result of it.
Displacement	Usually the object or goal or motive is disguised by substituting it with something else. For example, the anger on the boss is vented out on the wife.

Some of the defence mechanisms that represent behavioural responses designed to protect the individual's current self-concept against any threat are given in Table 14.2.

**Table 14.2 Defence Mechanisms**

S.No.	Defensive Mechanisms	Explanation	Role of Counsellor
1	Repression	Memories, feelings and thoughts are stored in the unconscious because recalling them may be painful or fearful.	May be related to problem but are not readily verbalized. Brings the repressed into the conscious.
2	Rationalization	Providing justification to make undesirable or questionable behaviour appear logical, rational, or acceptable.	Valid or true explanation for the behaviour would produce feelings of guilt or anxiety. Brings out and modifies such views.
3	Regression	Returning to earlier behaviour when appropriate behaviour is blocked by negative feelings.	Learning adjustment to new behaviour patterns.
4	Identification	Gives one satisfaction or compensation. Helps acquire new and useful behaviour	Guidance to retain identity.
5	Displacement	Movement away from one object to another that is less threatening or anxiety producing. For example, the diverting sexual interests and energy into non-sexual activities such as sports, religion, or work.	Find new avenues for bringing pleasantness in life.

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### Role of counsellor

The counsellor plays the role of the expert who will facilitate or direct this restructuring. In the conventional 'talking therapy', the counsellor analyses the root cause of the counsellee's behaviour and feelings by delving into the counsellee's unconscious mind and unravelling the conscious mind's relation to it. The assumption here is that the client is helpless as he is ignorant and unaware of the reasons for his difficulties or suffering, which are deeply embedded in the unconscious. It is the therapist who has to play the role of interpreting the meaning for him. The psychological difficulties are explained as phenomena that are strictly psychologically determined. This principle is known as psychological determinism.

Conventionally, the counsellee is made to lie down as the counsellor takes down notes and tries to interpret the counsellee's thoughts. Modern analysis utilizes free association, dreams, projective tests, play therapy, dream analysis, and transference, as well as other strategies to help the client know the function of their own minds. Therapies are usually long-drawn, but of late, modern counsellors are increasingly using psychoanalytic techniques for therapies of short spans of time.

## 14.2.2 Adlerian Theory and Counselling

Individual psychology is often called Adlerian therapy because it was initially developed by Alfred Adler. Its assumptions include:

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- Individuals are restricted in their actions towards further progress by feelings of inferiority. A person may experience inferiority feelings through three sources:
  - o Biological dependency and dependency in general as infants
  - o Image of self in relationship to the universe
  - o Organ inferiority
- Human beings possess an innate drive to overcome perceived inferiorities and develop their potential for self-actualization. A positive environment is necessary for growth to take place.

### How do people behave?

People suffer from feelings of inferiority. A woman, who, in her childhood, was abused by a male relative, may develop an aversion to all men when she grows up. This in turn will act as an impediment for her to enter into any sexually or emotionally satisfying relationship with a man. Thus, the woman may choose to tar all men with a broad brush because of her unhappy experience with one man. Overwhelmed by inferiority feelings, such people employ what Adler called safeguarding devices. In order to absolve themselves of any shortcoming, they apportion all blame to others. Such safeguarding may include anxiety, depression, phobia, guilt, depreciation in order to excuse themselves from potential failure. Adler saw prevention through education as the first level of intervention and as a great investment in the future. The next level of intervention is counselling. Adlerian counselling is generally time-limited supportive therapy that is usually focused on specific problems of the counsellee, such as family relationships, marital problems and career choices. Such counselling can help people tide over crisis and develop their potential further and overcome various challenges in different fields of life.

### Counselling process

Adlerian counselling is generally divided into twelve stages, though actual therapy is very spontaneous and creative. In each stage of counselling, the cognitive, affective, behavioural and spiritual changes are affected and promoted. The twelve stages are: Empathy-relationship, Information, Clarification, Encouragement, Interpretation and Recognition, Knowing, Missing experience, Doing differently, Reinforcement, Community feeling, Goal-redirection, Support and launching.

- **Stage 1: Empathy-relationship:** The counsellor sets as the objective, behavioural changes in the client so that s/he becomes more cooperative and the process chosen to achieve this objective is cooperative therapy. In the course of this therapy, the client learns to cooperate with the counsellor.
  - o Client expresses problems with little interruption.
  - o The therapist offers acceptance and understanding.



- **Stage 2: Information:** The counsellor gathers relevant information.
  - o The focus is on the problem, its antecedents and root causes, the client's role in family, workplace and society.
  - o Use of appropriate intelligence, interest and psychological testing procedures.
- **Stage 3: Clarification:** Clarifications to understand clients' beliefs are obtained by a Socratic questioning method. The behaviour and consequent effects that such beliefs resulted in are compared to other probabilities. Mistaken ideas and logic are corrected and fused with common sense.
- **Stage 4: Encouragement:** The therapist reduces feelings of inferiority to a manageable level and infuses courage. Small progressive action steps, aimed at learning to do the 'felt impossible', are designed and efforts as well as results are acknowledged and discussed.
- **Stage 5: Interpretation and recognition:** The counsellor observes the psychological movements (thinking, feeling, and behavioural motions) that clients engage in, as a response to the assignments given, and correct the wrong ones (coming late, going off the track; talking incessantly without giving the counsellor any opportunity to intervene; not practising what the counsellor has said but understanding that those suggestions are the correct course to take, and so on.)
- **Stage 6: Knowing:** The counsellor allows the client to take control of himself, while sharing his interpretation of things and insights with the counsellor.
- **Stage 7: Missing experience:** Some clients may find some negative feelings still hampering their efforts. They change their behaviour, but do not find enjoyment or affection in the process. The counsellor can employ different activities such as role-playing or guided imagery to eliminate such negative feelings.
- **Stage 8: Doing differently:** Insight and newly found courage are mobilized to coax the client to approach the three main tasks of life (community, work and love) in a manner different from how it was previously earlier.
- **Stage 9: Reinforcement:** Clients learn to focus not on self but on others, on tasks, and on circumstantial exigencies. This learning is reinforced through encouragement and support. The counsellor offers emotional coaching to experience and express the new-found positive feelings.
- **Stage 10: Community feeling:** Community feeling is created in the first stage by accepting the client. With the progressive removal of obstacles, the client is in a position to offer greater cooperation and experience an affinity with the counsellor. He is now helped to connect better with other people and cooperate with them.
- **Stage 11: Goal-redirection:** The client adopts a new approach to life that is inspiring and motivating. For a while, the client may experience temporary

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disorientation as new possibilities open up. Clients may use therapists as positive or negative models. As such, the role of therapists is critical. As clients improve, the therapist can help them to prefer meta-motivation or higher values, e.g., truth, beauty and justice.

- **Stage 12: Support and launching:** Client has learnt to live differently and becomes a generator of encouragement to other people. The counsellor may think of some exercises that may be presented as ‘challenges’ to the client, so that he can think up of solutions to overcome them. This acts as a motivation for the client.

### 14.2.3 Cognitive Approach

The cognitive therapies include rational-emotive, reality and transactional analysis. The assumption here is that focussing on current problems is more appropriate in tackling problems investigating the roots of the problem is unnecessary.

#### Role of counsellor

Therapists in the cognitive fieldwork have to find out and know how counselees feel and think in the present.

- **Establishing collaborative relationship:** All cognitive approaches include a relationship of cooperation between counsellor and client.
- **Directive teaching:** This approach is the core in all cognitive approaches. In Rational Emotive Therapy (RET), the counsellor actively teaches the client. Similarly, in reality therapy, the counsellor again teaches the client the meaning of reality and the necessity to act responsibly. Homework between sessions is important.
- **Encourage logical thinking:** The process of counselling is the curing of illogical and irrational rationalizing by the client by encouraging him to employ logic, reason and responsibility in responses to situations and predicaments.
- **Short duration:** The therapy tends to be of short duration and is best suited to treat anger, depression and anxiety.

#### Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy

Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT), formerly known as RET, was formulated by Albert Ellis. This theory is based on the following assumptions:

- People have the capacity to act in either a rational or irrational manner.
- A number of emotional problems result from irrational patterns of thinking.
- The irrational behaviour patterns may begin early and be reinforced by interactions with others and environment.

#### Role of counselling

Rational behaviour is positive as it produces desirable productive outcomes and happiness or satisfaction. Ellis argues that people with emotional problems develop

belief systems and verbalize them through self-talk. The goal of REBT is to reduce or eliminate irrational behaviour. Change can be brought about by making clients understand the following:

- Their negative and self-defeating thoughts and emotions
- Ways in which their thinking, emotions and behaviour are interrelated and the need to change them

The counsellor has to help the client reorganize his thoughts in order to make his thinking logical and rational. The REBT therapist may do this by probing and challenging the irrational beliefs of the client.

### **Role of counsellor**

The counsellor–client relationship is more or less like that of a teacher and student. As a result, procedures may include not only teaching and related activities such as reading or other assignments, but also questioning and challenging, even confrontation tactics, contracts, suggestions and persuasion.

### **Reality therapy**

Another popular theory of recent times is that of reality therapy (control therapy), developed by William Glasser. Reality therapy is based on the following premises:

- Humans have the following four needs:
  - o Sense of belonging, love, cooperation and sharing
  - o Power
  - o Freedom
  - o Fun and recreation

However, the need for identity, which includes a need to feel a sense of uniqueness, separateness and distinctiveness, accounts for the dynamics of behaviour, and is seen as universal among all cultures.

- Human behaviour is categorized into the following four components by Glasser:
  - o Active behaviour
  - o Thinking
  - o Feeling
  - o Physiology as the capacity to produce voluntary and involuntary body mechanisms
- Client will assume personal responsibility for his well-being. This helps people achieve autonomy or a state of maturity. As a result, they can rely on their own internal support

### **Role of counsellor**

The theory focuses on the present behaviour, and does not emphasize on the client's past. The counsellor functions as a teacher and a model in directing the

## **NOTES**

client. The counsellor encourages his clients to play an active role and appraises them when they act responsibly and indicate disapproval when they do not.

### Transactional Analysis

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Transactional analysis (TA) examines the transactions between individuals to understand the different personalities (ego states) in an individual. It places emphasis on the ego, which consists of the following three states:

- **Child**—A set of behaviour, feelings and/or attitudes that are the relics from the individual's childhood.
- **Parent**—A product of 'recordings' from an individual's parents that are passed on and/or acted upon.
- **Adult**—Formed from the assimilation of the individual's unique experiences from childhood onward.

The ego states are regulatory in nature and decide the nature of transactions. When an individual acts in an ego state that is appropriate to a situation, transactions become complementary and go on. When one of the three ego states is unwilling to relinquish its control and asserts it rigidly, at inappropriate times, the client is in difficulty and in need of psychological assistance.

#### Role of counselling

The role of the counsellor is to identify and restore the damaged ego and develop the client's capacity to use all ego states appropriately, especially that of the adult, which is needed to govern one's life.

#### Techniques

Contracting is an essential technique in TA counselling. The counsellor will specify conditions for client participation, such as requiring the counselee to define in advance, expected benefits, and willingness to change behaviour. It is a way of training or preparing people to make their own important decisions. At each stage of counselling, the decision to go ahead is squarely up to the counselee. It also utilizes questionnaires, life scripts, structural analysis, role playing, analysis of games and rituals, and 'stroking' (reinforcement). Although recording is not a counselling technique, transactional analysis sessions are tape recorded in their entirety.

#### 14.2.4 Humanistic Theories and Person-Centred Counselling

In contrast to psychoanalysis, Carl Rogers' 'client-centred' approach to counselling is more directly related to the field of psychological counselling. According to Rogers, in any type of psychotherapy, the basic theme is the helping relationship in all human interactions, such as mother-child, teacher-pupil, therapist-patient, and so on. The following beliefs are central to this theory:

- **Behaviour consistent with self-concept:** Rogers opined that when individuals believe that they are acting in a manner that suits their 'image', then they feel satisfied.

- **Threat and defence mechanisms:** When an individual has to act in a manner that he feels is inconsistent with his 'image', then the individual tends to feel threatened and may thus feel pressurized to adopt certain 'defence mechanisms'. The defensive behaviour, however, adds to the feeling of insecurity that the individual has.

### Role of counsellor

The role of the counsellor is to effectively eliminate the defence mechanism and also strengthen the client's ability to face reality. The fundamental factor here is 'awareness'. The counsellor helps the client become aware of his experience and his potential. Gestalt psychologists believe that such awareness encourages self-regulation and self-control in the client.

- **Empathize with the counselee:** The 'self-theory' of Rogers is based on 'phenomenology'. According to 'phenomenology', what people perceive is their reality. Therefore, in order to interpret an individual's perspective and reasons for their behaviour, it is necessary to understand the 'phenomenological field' from their behaviour. Hence, counsellors must try to understand the client's perceptual worlds as much as possible.
- **Help see incongruence:** Rogers refers to 'Congruence', or the close 'matching of awareness and experience'. Counselees may not give genuine descriptions of their failure to face the real situations. Therefore, the counsellor must encourage and assist clients to face the incongruence between awareness and experience, so that the client can honestly communicate his real experiences without tempering them with any defence mechanisms.
- **Help see the whole picture:** The counsellor should help individual clients to strive for wholeness, which involves integrating their behaviour, feeling and thinking.

The therapy tends to be of short duration.

### 14.2.5 Behavioural Approach

Counsellors who use the behavioural approach study client behaviour objectively and try to bring about a change in the behaviour. This is based on the following premise:

- **Behaviour is conditioned.** Client's behaviour is the result of conditioning. Primary learning comes from experience. Behaviour changes when certain favourable conditions exist.
- **Behaviour is predictable.** Each individual reacts in a predictable way to any given situation or stimulus, depending on what the person has learned.

### Role of counsellor

Behavioural counsellors adopt a directive role in initiating and directing therapeutic activities. They often take on roles of a teacher or coach. Sessions tend to be structured and action oriented.

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## Counselling process

Behavioural approach is characterized by the following:

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- **Know the client's view of the problem:** The main aim of the counsellor who uses the behavioural technique is to bring about a greater understanding of the client's perspective and his view of the problem. Interaction with the client, with emphasis on his particular behaviour, helps both the counsellor and the client to reach a common understanding of the problems.
- **Set target behaviour:** The counsellor has to identify and set before the client an objective of achieving a change in the behavioural pattern, amounting to a net set of behaviour that is to be targeted through the counselling process.
- **Choose treatment procedure:** Formulate a well-spelt out and planned counselling procedure to rectify the problem at hand. The behaviourist understands human behaviour through the theories of learning. John D. Krumboltz (1966) divides the learning procedures into four categories:
  - o **Operant learning:** Learning is facilitated by use of re-enforcers at predetermined intervals. Re-enforcers may be tangible rewards such as gifts or cash, or intangibles such as approval or attention.
  - o **Imitative learning:** Learning is encouraged by exposure to models performing the desired type of behaviour.
  - o **Cognitive learning:** Learning is provided by instructing the client what to do and how to do it.
  - o **Emotional learning:** Learning is strengthened by substitution of acceptable emotional responses for unpleasant emotional reactions.

### Techniques

Behavioural counsellors focus on behaviour. Feelings are secondary to behaviour. They inquire specific antecedents, circumstances and consequences of client situations. They use reflection, summarization and open-ended inquiries and retain techniques such as homework, role-playing, social modelling, desensitization and self-management training. The outcome of counselling is evaluated in terms of the objective achieved, i.e., how far has the target behaviour been achieved. Behavioural counselling is usually of short duration and is a collective effort of both client and therapist.

### 14.2.6 Holistic Approaches: Existential and Gestalt Therapy

This category of approaches includes existential therapy, Gestalt approach and eclectic approach.

#### Existential therapy

Existential therapy is based on the science 'of being'. The perceived purpose of existence is an important driver of human life. It is important to find meaning in our lives through awareness of 'being in the world' and define goals through a system of choice-making. Individuals make choices with or without an awareness of factors beyond their control that restrict their choices. This therapy assumes that individuals

live in a world that is not limited to the environment, but must also include the human world created by an individual's meaningful relationships. There are three modes of world:

- Umwelt, meaning 'world around', the biological world, the environment
- Mitwelt, literally the 'with world', the world of one's fellow human beings
- Eigenwelt, the 'own-world', the relationship to one's self

### **Role of counsellor**

The counsellor has the following tasks to perform:

- Understand the phenomenological world in which the client exists and participates.
- Help clients recognize outmoded ways of life.
- Make them willing to take the responsibility to change, expand, and find meaning in their life that is unique to them.
- Help clients improve their human relationships with others and recognize their own importance in the society.

### **Gestalt counselling**

Gestalt therapy was developed by Frederick Perls. The primary focal points of this approach are (i) the present, (that is, the here and now) and (ii) holistic personality of individual. This theory assumes that only the present is important since the past is gone and the future is yet to arrive. Individuals have hidden potential to grow, develop and actualize.

### **Role of counsellor**

Therapist assists the client towards self-integration and towards learning to utilize his energy in appropriate ways to grow, develop, and actualize. Gestalt counselling also has as its major objective the integration of the person. The counsellor attempts to provide assistance to the client so that s/he can identify that s/he needs to become independent and not be dependent on others.

### **Techniques**

Counselling techniques may include 'how' and 'what' questions, confrontations, 'I' statements, and sharing awareness with clients emphasizing 'this moment'.

### **Eclectic approach**

Lazarus (1981) offers a multi-modal approach which includes an evaluation of the therapy procedure that is thought to be both relevant and applicable to stress management. Behaviour therapy has not always been successful as some important factors were not taken into account during the evaluation of the therapy outcome.

### **Role of counsellor**

The framework of this approach comprises the following seven modalities:

- Behaviour
- Affect

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- Sensation
- Imagery
- Cognition
- Interpersonal
- Drugs/biology

This blueprint is known by the acronym BASIC ID and is used for the basic assessment of clients. During the assessment, the different modalities are examined by asking questions similar to the following:

- B—What do you wish to do/ not to do?
- A—What makes you happy, frustrated, sad, etc.?
- S—What do you like/dislike to hear, taste, etc.?
- I— What do you wish to do in the future?
- C— What are the main ethics and principles you live by?
- I— How do you get on with others?
- D— Do you consume any intoxicants? Do you take any medicines? Do you suffer from any chronic ailments? How is your physical well-being?

In order to optimize the therapeutic process and the time required for it, clients are given a questionnaire on their life and history and are asked to fill it in at home. The questionnaire also asks the client about the kind of approach he would like the counsellor to take and, based on the response, the counsellor identifies the approach to be taken for the therapy. The techniques most frequently used are in Table 14.3.

*Table 14.3 Multi-modal Therapy*

Modality	Techniques
Behaviour	Behaviour rehearsal, Exposure programme, Modelling, Reinforcement programmes, Self-monitoring and recording, Shame attacking, Empty chair, Fixed role therapy, Psychodrama, Response prevention/cost Stimulus control, Paradoxical intention
Affect	Anger expression, Anger/anxiety management, Feeling identification
Sensation	Bio-feedback, Hypnosis Relaxation training, Threshold training, Meditation, Momentary relaxation, Sensate focus training, Relaxation response, Massage
Imagery	Coping imagery, Time projection imagery, Anti-future shock imagery, Mastery imagery, Positive imagery, Thought stopping imagery, Aversive imagery, Associated imagery
Cognitive	Biblio-therapy, Cognitive rehearsal, Disputing irrational beliefs, Problem solving, Challenging faulty inferences, Constructive self-talk, Thought stopping
Interpersonal	Assertion training, Contingency contracting, Fixed role therapy, Communication training, Friendship/intimacy training, Social skills training, Role play, Graded sexual approaches, Paradoxical intention
Drugs/biology	Lifestyle changes, Stop smoking programmes, Diet, Weight control, Exercise, Medication, Referral to specialists



Once the client's problems and the objectives required to be achieved are identified and evaluated, appropriate techniques of counselling are discussed and selected with the client's consent. A Modality Profile is produced in which the client's problems and the agreed interventions are recorded. Table 14.4 illustrates the Modality Profile of a Type A client, who was referred for stress management to reduce high blood pressure. The client and the counsellor negotiate the types of interventions to be employed, which the client can handle instead of being overwhelmed.

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**Table 14.4** Modality Profile of Type A Client with High Blood Pressure

Modality	Problem	Techniques
Behaviour	Type behaviour: quick talking/ eating/ walking. Poly-phasic behaviour, impatient	Behavioural education. Do one task at a time; Examine irrational beliefs that may cause poly-phasic, 'hurry up' behaviour. Dispute irrational beliefs.
Affect	Be aggressive at work	Anger management
Sensation	Physically tense	Bio-feedback and relaxation training.
Imagery	Images of losing control	Coping imagery
Cognitive	Beliefs of low self-esteem	Dispute irrational beliefs; failure attacking exercises; coping-statements Teach self-acceptance
Interpersonal	Passive-aggressive, Spends little time in recreational pastimes with family or friends	Assertion training. Discuss benefits.
Drugs/biology	High blood pressure, Headaches, Overweight, Consumes alcohol every week, Smokes thirty cigarettes a day	Liaise with medical specialist about medication and treatment programme. Relaxation training. Weight reduction programme. Reduction programme — use drink diaries, Stop smoking programme.

### 14.2.7 Towards a Creative Approach

The advice of Brammer and Shostrom (1977) will be useful to those interested in counselling. Every counsellor should develop his or her own point of view, based on accumulated wisdom and empirical data. The counselling practice must reflect the personality and individuality of the counsellor. In order to be optimal, approaches need to evolve based on the fusion of numerous theories and practices. Table 14.5 shows a comparative analysis of the different approaches.

**Table 14.5** Comparative Analysis of Different Approaches**NOTES**

Aspect	Established Single Theory	Eclectic Approaches	Creative Synthesis
Fundamental characteristics	Assumptions related directly to strategy and method	Strategies and methods from several approaches applied selectively to clients	Application of broad and varied strategies and methods of the practitioner's unique individual approach
Examples	Freud's Psychoanalytic Rogers's Client-Centred	Thorne's Integrative Psychology Lazarus's Structural Eclecticism	Assagioli's Psycho-synthesis Shostrom's Actualizing Therapy
Advantages	Ready-made system of assumptions and concepts Extensive experience and database Consistency of theory and method	Collection of various methods Flexibility of choice on methods Wide agency application of methods	Continuous synthesizing, Extending and amplifying personal system Discourages competition Fosters therapist's identity with own views
Limitations	Limited perspective of data Often a closed system Encourages hero worship Fosters competition and divisiveness	Encourages uncritical picking and choosing De-emphasizes integrative theorizing Tends toward fadism Additive collection of what works for now Imitative, with little creativity	A continuous lifelong task Tends to be idealistic Futuristic - ahead of its time Requires continuous creativity Requires trust in self Risky - requires standing on one's own
Illustrative comments by practitioners	'Client-centred theory' 'Speaks to me' 'Ellis is my here' 'I dig Freud' 'I am analytic' 'I stick with the tried and true'	'I use what works' 'I'm flexible' 'I like TA methods but not the basic assumption' 'Everyone says something important'	'I'm constantly re-evaluating my ideas' 'I develop my own theory to fit me' 'I try to keep open and take some risks' 'I trust my own observations and judgments'

**Check Your Progress**

1. What is talking therapy?
2. What are safeguarding devices?
3. What is the key idea and methods of cognitive therapy?
4. What is the goal of REBT?
5. What does self-theory emphasize?
6. What type of role do counsellors take in behavioural approach?

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## 14.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. Talking therapy it requires studying the root causes of client's behaviour and feelings by analysing the unconscious mind and its relation to the conscious mind.
2. Safeguarding devices include symptoms, depreciation, accusations, self-accusations, guilt, and various forms of distancing.
3. The cognitive therapy focuses on current problems and not on root causes. Methods include Rational-Emotive, Reality and Transactional Analysis.
4. The goal of REBT is to reduce or eliminate irrational behaviour.
5. The 'self-theory' of Rogers assumes a perspective called 'phenomenology', according to which whatever is perceived is real. Individuals can best be understood when their perceptions are understood.
6. Behavioural counsellors adopt directive role in initiating and directing therapeutic activities. They often take on the roles of teacher or coach. Sessions tend to be structured and action oriented.

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## 14.4 SUMMARY

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- Counselling, as an individual field of study and activity, has evolved over the years and has incorporated important findings of personality theory, social psychology, counselling psychology and therapeutic techniques.
- Psychoanalysis, as a theory of human personality, was like a Copernican revolution in psychology and was perhaps the first systematic attempt to explain human behaviour—both normal and abnormal.
- The cognitive therapies include rational-emotive, reality and transactional analysis. The assumption here is that focussing on current problems is more appropriate in tackling problems investigating the roots of the problem is unnecessary.
- In contrast to psychoanalysis, Carl Rogers' 'client-centred' approach to counselling is more directly related to the field of psychological counselling.
- Counsellors who use the behavioural approach study client behaviour objectively and try to bring about a change in the behaviour.
- Existential therapy is based on the science 'of being'. The perceived purpose of existence is an important driver of human life. It is important to find meaning in our lives through awareness of 'being in the world' and define goals through a system of choice-making.
- Gestalt therapy was developed by Frederick Perls. The primary focal points of this approach are (i) the present, (that is, the here and now) and (ii) holistic personality of individual.

- The advice of Brammer and Shostrom (1977) will be useful to those interested in counselling. Every counsellor should develop his or her own point of view, based on accumulated wisdom and empirical data.

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### 14.5 KEY WORDS

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- **Id:** The id is inherited and works on the pleasure principle. It provides the drive for the pursuit of personal wants.
- **Ego:** It is the seat of logic or rationality. Because of its contact with reality, it controls consciousness and provides realistic and logical thinking. It moderates the desires of the id.

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### 14.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the psychoanalytic theory of counselling.
2. What is the premise of Reality therapy?

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Discuss the counselling process of Adlerian Theory of counselling.
2. Describe the holistic approaches to counselling in detail.

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### 14.7 FURTHER READINGS

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