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Psychology



CHAPTER 01

Variations in Psychological Attributes

Introduction

- The main concerns of modern psychology has been the study of individual differences from the time of Galton.
- One of the most popular psychological attributes which has been of interest to psychologists is Intelligence.
- People differ from each other in their ability to understand complex ideas, adapt to environment, learn from experience, engage in various forms of reasoning and to overcome obstacles.

Individual Differences in Human Functioning

- Individual variations are common in all species and this variations add colour and beauty to nature.
- According to psychologists, individual differences refers to distinctiveness and variations among people's characteristics and behaviour patterns.
- Many psychologists believe that our behaviours are influenced by our personal traits.
- Every individual is a typical combination of various traits and different traits exist in varying degrees in an individual.

Situationism

- Psychologists believed that our behaviours are influenced more by situational factors which is known as situationism.
- Situationisms states that situations and circumstances in which a person is placed influence that person's behaviour.

Assessment of Psychological Attributes

- Assessment refers to the measurement of psychological attributes of individuals and their evaluation by using multiple methods in terms of certain standards of comparison.

- Assessment is the first step in understanding a psychological attribute.
- Assessment may be formal and informal. Formal assessment is objective, standardised and organised. Whereas, informal assessment varies from case to case and from one assessor to another.

Some Domains of Psychological Attributes

- Psychological attributes are complex and expressed in terms of dimensions.
- Psychological attributes are multi-dimensional.
- However, following are some of the important attributes which are categorised on the basis of varieties of tests used in psychological literature

(i) Intelligence	(ii) Aptitude
(iii) Interest	(iv) Personality
(v) Values	

Methods used for Psychological Assessment

Various methods are used for psychological assessment. Following are the key features of these methods

- Psychological Test** It is an objective and standardised measure of an individual's mental and behavioural characteristics.
- Interview** It involves seeking information from a person on one to one basis.
- Case Study** It is an in-depth study of the individual in terms of her/his psychological attributes and psychological history in the context of her/his psychological and physical environment. Case studies are widely used by clinical psychologists.
- Observation** It involves employing systematic, organised and objective procedures to record behavioural phenomena occurring naturally in real time.
- Self-Report** It is a method in which a person provides factual information about herself/himself and/or opinions, beliefs, etc that she/he holds.

Intelligence

- Intelligence is a key construct employed to know how individuals differ from one another.
- It also provides an understanding of how people adapt their behaviour according to the environment they live in.
- Intelligent person has attributes like mental alertness, ready wit, quickness in learning and ability to understand relationships.

Psychologists' Views About Intelligence

- **Alfred Binet** defined intelligence as the ability to judge well, understand well and reason well.
- **Wechsler** defined intelligence as the global and aggregate capacity of an individual to think rationally, act purposefully and to deal effectively with her/his environment.
- **Gardner and Sternberg** have suggested that an intelligent individual not only adapts to the environment, but also actively modifies or shapes it.

Theories/Approaches of Intelligence

Several theories and approaches have been proposed by psychologists which can be broadly classified as either representing a psychometric /structural approach or an information-processing approach.

Psychometric Approach

It considers intelligence as an aggregate of abilities. It expresses the individual's performance in terms of a single index of cognitive abilities.

Information-Processing Approach

- It describes the processes that people use in intellectual reasoning and problem solving.
- The major focus of this approach is on how an intelligent person acts.

Uni or One Factor Theory

- Alfred Binet was the first psychologist who tried to formalise the concept of intelligence in terms of mental operations.
- Prior to him, we find the notion of intelligence described in general ways in various philosophical treatises available in different cultural traditions.

Two-factor Theory

- In 1927, **Charles Spearman** proposed this theory employing a statistical method called **factor analysis**.
- He showed that intelligence consisted of a general factor (g-factor) and some specific factors (s-factors).

Theory of Primary Mental Abilities

- Louis Thurnstone proposed theory of primary mental abilities.
- It states that intelligence consists of seven primary abilities, each of which is relatively independent of the others. These primary abilities are
 - (i) Verbal Comprehension (grasping meaning of words, concepts, and ideas).
 - (ii) Numerical Abilities (speed and accuracy in numerical and computational skills).
 - (iii) Spatial Relations (visualising patterns and forms).
 - (iv) Perceptual Speed (speed in perceiving details).
 - (v) Word Fluency (using words fluently and flexibly).
 - (vi) Memory (accuracy in recalling information).
 - (vii) Inductive Reasoning (deriving general rules from presented facts).

Under the theory of primary mental abilities, two models were proposed i.e. Hierarchical Model and Intellectual Model by Arthur Jensen and JP Guilford, respectively.

- **Hierarchical Model of Intelligence** This model was proposed by Arthur Jensen. It consists of abilities operating at two levels i.e. **Level I** and **Level II**
 - (i) Level I is the associative learning in which output is more or less similar to the input (e.g. rote learning and memory).
 - (ii) Level II, called cognitive competence involves higher-order skills, as they transform the input to produce an effective output.
- **Structure of Intellectual Model** JP Guilford proposed this model which classifies intellectual traits among three dimensions:
 - (i) **Operations** These include cognition, memory recording, memory retention, divergent production, convergent production and evaluation.
 - (ii) **Contents** These refer to the nature of materials or information on which intellectual operations are performed. These include visual, auditory, symbolic (e.g. letters, numbers), semantic (e.g. words) and behavioural (e.g. information about people's behaviour, attitudes, needs, etc.)
 - (iii) **Products** These refer to the form in which information is processed by the respondent. Products are classified into units, classes, relations, systems, transformations and implications.

Theory of Multiple Intelligence

- This theory was proposed by **Howard Gardner**. According to him, intelligence is not a single entity; rather different types of intelligences exist.

- Each of these intelligences are independent of each other.
- According to Gardner, different types of intelligences interact and work together to find a solution to a problem.
- Gardner studied extremely talented persons, who shown exceptional abilities in their respective areas and described eight types of intelligence. These are as follows
 - (i) **Linguistic** It is the capacity to use language fluently and flexibly to express one's thinking and understand others. Linguists are persons included in this type of intelligence.
 - (ii) **Logical-Mathematical** Persons included in this type of intelligence can think logically and critically.
 - (iii) **Spatial** It refers to the abilities involved in forming, using and transforming mental images.
 - (iv) **Musical** Persons included in this type of intelligence are very sensitive to sounds and vibrations and in creating new patterns of sounds.
 - (v) **Bodily-Kinaesthetic** This consists the use of the whole body or portions of it for display or construction of products and problem solving.
 - (vi) **Interpersonal** It is the skill of understanding the motives, feelings and behaviours of other people so as to bond into a comfortable relationship with others.
 - (vii) **Intrapersonal** It refers to the knowledge of one's internal strengths and limitations and using that knowledge to effectively relate to others.
 - (viii) **Naturalistic** This involves complete awareness of our relationship with the natural world.

Triarchic Theory of Intelligence

This theory was proposed by **Robert Sternberg** in 1985. He views intelligence as "the ability to adapt, to shape and select environment to accomplish one's goals and those of one's society and culture".

According to this theory, there are three basic types of intelligence

- (i) **Componential Intelligence/ Analytical Intelligence** It is the analysis of information to solve problems.
It has three components
 - (a) **Knowledge Acquisition** It is responsible for learning and acquisition of the ways of doing things.
 - (b) **Meta or Higher Order Component** It involves planning and concerning what to do and how to do it.
 - (c) **Performance Component** It involves actually doing things.

- (ii) **Experiential/Creative Intelligence** It is involved in using past experiences creatively to solve novel problems. Persons included in this types of intelligence quickly find out which information is crucial in a given situation.
- (iii) **Contextual /Practical Intelligence** Persons included in this type of intelligence easily adapt to their present environment or select a more favourable environment than the existing one and modify the environment to fit their needs.

Planning, Attention-Arousal and Simultaneous-Successive (PASS) Model of Intelligence

This model was given by **JP Das, Jack Naglieri and Kirby** in 1994. According to this model, intellectual activity involves the interdependent functioning of three neurological systems, called functional units of brains.

- **Arousal/Attention** State of arousal is basic to any behaviour as it helps us in attending to stimuli. It enables a person to process information. An optimal level of arousal focuses our attention to the relevant aspects of a problem.
- **Simultaneous and Successive Processing** Simultaneous processing takes place when you perceive the relations among various concepts and integrate them into a meaningful pattern for comprehension.
- Successive processing takes place when you remember all the information serially so that the recall of one leads to the recall of another.
- **Planning** This is an essential feature of intelligence. After the information is attended to and processed, planning is activated. It allows us to think of the possible courses of action, implement them to reach a target and evaluate their effectiveness.

Individual Differences in Intelligence

Intelligence : Interplays of Nature and Nurture

- The evidence for hereditary influences on intelligence comes mainly from studies on twins and adopted children.
- The intelligence of identical twins almost correlates (i.e. 0.90) who grows up together.
- Twins separated early in childhood show considerable similarity in their intellectual personality and behavioural characteristics.
- The evidence of adopted children shows that children's intelligence is more similar to their biological rather than adoptive parents.

- Children from disadvantaged homes adopted into families with higher socio-economic status exhibit a large increase in their intelligence scores.
- With respect to the role of environment, studies have reported that as children grew in age, their intelligence level tends to move closer to that of their adoptive parents.
- There is a general view among psychologists that intelligence is a product of complex interaction of heredity (nature) and environment (nurture).

Assessment of Intelligence

- In 1905, Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon made the first successful attempt to formally measure intelligence.
- In 1908, they gave the concept of **Mental Age (MA)** which is a measure of a person's intellectual development related to people of her/his age group.
- A mental age of 5 means that a child's performance on an intelligence test equals that average performance level of a group of 5 years olds.
- **Chronological Age (CA)** is the biological age from birth. A bright child's MA is more than her/his CA and for a dull child, MA is below than her/his CA.
- Retardation was defined by Binet and Simon as being two Mental Age years below the Chronological Age.
- In 1912, William Stern, a German psychologist devised the concept of **Intelligence Quotient (IQ)**. IQ refers to mental age divided by chronological age and multiplied by 100.

$$IQ = \frac{MA}{CA} \times 100$$

Classification of People on the Basis of IQ

IQ Range	Descriptive Label	Per cent in the Population
Above 130	Very superior	2.2
120 – 130	Superior	6.7
110 – 119	High average	16.1
90 – 109	Average	50.0
80 – 89	Low average	16.1
70 – 79	Borderline	6.7
Below 70	Intellectually disabled	2.2

Variations of Intelligence

Intellectual Deficiency

- There are children who face enormous difficulty in learning even very simple skills. Those children who show intellectual deficiency are termed as intellectually disabled.

- The **American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD)** views intellectually disabled as sub-average general intellectual functioning, "existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behaviour and manifested during the developmental period."
- This definition points to three basic features. First, in order to be judged as intellectually disabled, a person must show significantly sub average intellectual functioning.
- Persons having IQs below 70 are judged to have sub-average intelligence. The second relates to deficits in adaptive behaviour.
- The third feature is that the deficits must be observed during the developmental period, that is between 0 and 18 years of age.
- It is to be noted that mean IQ score in the population is 100. These figures are used to understand the categories of intellectually disabled.
- The different levels of intellectual deficiency are
 - Mild (IQs 55 to 70)
 - Moderate (IQs 35-40 to 50-55)
 - Severe (IQs 20-25 to 35-40) and Profound (IQs below 20 to 25)

Intellectual Giftedness

- The study of intellectually gifted individuals was started in 1925 by Lewis Terman to examine the relationship of intelligence to occupational success and life adjustment.
- **Giftedness** is exceptional general ability shown in superior performance in a wide variety of areas. Whereas.
- **Talent** is a narrower term and refers to remarkable ability in a specific field (e.g. spiritual, social, aesthetic, etc). The highly talented are called **prodigies**.
- Each gifted student possesses different strengths, personalities and characteristics such as
 - Advanced logical thinking, questioning and problem solving behaviour.
 - High speed in processing information.
 - Superior generalisation and discrimination ability.
 - Advanced level of original and creative thinking.
 - High level of intrinsic motivation and self-esteem.
 - Independent and non-conformist thinking.
 - Preference for solitary academic activities for long periods.

Types of Intelligence Tests

Intelligence tests are of several types.

Individual or Group Test

- **Individual Test** It can be administered to one person at a time. It requires the test administrator to establish a rapport with the subject and be sensitive to her/his feelings, moods and expressions during the testing session.
- **Group Test** It can be administered to several persons simultaneously. It does not allow an opportunity to be familiar with the subject's feelings.

Verbal, Non-Verbal or Performance Test

- **Verbal** It requires verbal responses in either oral or written form. It can only be administered to literate people.
- **Non-Verbal** It uses pictures or illustrations as test items e.g. Raven's Progressive Matrices Test (RPM).

Culture-Fair or Culture-Biased Test

- **Culture-Fair** It can be applied meaningfully to all cultures. These are culturally appropriate i.e. one that does not discriminate against individuals belonging to different cultures.
- **Culture-Biased** It is nearly impossible to design a test that can be applied equally meaningfully in all cultures. Many tests show a bias to the culture in which they are developed. These are called culture-biased tests.

Culture and Intelligence

- A major characteristic of intelligence is that it helps individuals to adapt to their environment. The cultural environment provides a context for intelligence to develop.
- Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist, has argued that culture provides a social context in which people live, grow and understand the world around them.
- Sternberg's notion of contextual or practical intelligence implies that intelligence is a product of culture.
- Vygotsky also believed that cultures have a life of their own as they grow and change and in the process specify what will be the end product of successful intellectual development. According to him, while elementary mental functions (e.g. walking, crying) are universal.

Technological Intelligence

- Technologically advanced societies adopt child rearing practices that foster skills of generalisation and abstraction, speed, minimal moves and mental manipulation among children.
- These societies promote a type of behaviour which can be called as technological intelligence.

- Western cultures look precisely for these skills in an individual whereas non-Western societies value self-reflection and collectivistic orientation as opposed to personal achievement and individualistic orientation.

Intelligence in the Indian Tradition

- Intelligence in the Indian tradition is termed as **integral intelligence**. It gives emphasis on connectivity with the social and world environment.
- According to **JP Das**, the Sanskrit word *buddhi* includes skills such as mental effort, determined action, feelings and opinions along with cognitive competence such as knowledge, discrimination and understanding.
- The following competencies are identified as aspects of intelligence in the Indian tradition
 - Cognitive Competence
 - Social Competence
 - Emotional Competence
 - Entrepreneurial Competence

Emotional Intelligence

- Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a set of skills that underlie accurate appraisal, expression and regulation of emotions.
- It is the feeling side of intelligence. A good IQ and scholastic record is not enough to be successful in life.
- According to Salovey and Mayer, emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions.
- **Emotional Quotient (EQ)** is used to express emotional intelligence in the same way as IQ is used to express intelligence.

Characteristics of Emotionally Intelligent Persons

The characteristics of emotionally intelligent persons are as follows

- Perceive and be sensitive to your feelings and emotions.
- Perceive and be sensitive to various types of emotions in others by noting their body language, voice and tone, and facial expressions.
- Relate your emotions to your thoughts so that you take them into account while solving problems and taking decisions.
- Understand the powerful influence of the nature and intensity of your emotions.

- Control and regulate your emotions and their expressions while dealing with self and others to achieve harmony and peace.

Special Abilities

Aptitude : Nature and Measurement

- Aptitude refers to special abilities in a particular field of activity. It is a combination of characteristics that indicates an individual's capacity to acquire some specific knowledge or skill after training.
- The knowledge of aptitude can help us to predict an individual's future performance. People with similar intelligence differed widely in acquiring certain knowledge or skills.

Aptitude Test

Aptitude test are available in two forms

- Independent (Specialised) Aptitude Test** Clerical Aptitude, Mechanical Aptitude, Numerical aptitude and Typing aptitude are such type of tests.
- Multiple (Generalised) Aptitude Test** It exists in the form of test batteries, which measure aptitude in several separate but homogenous areas. Differential Aptitude Test (DAT), the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB), and the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) are well known aptitude test batteries. Differential Aptitude tests (DAT) is most commonly used in educational settings.

It consists of eight independent subtests which are as follows

- Verbal Reasoning
- Numerical Reasoning

- Abstract Reasoning
- Clerical Speed and Accuracy
- Mechanical Reasoning
- Space Relations
- Spelling
- Language Usage

Creativity

- In simple terms creativity refers to the ability to produce ideas, objects and problem solutions that are novel and appropriate. It refers to the ability to think in novel and unusual ways and to come up with unique solutions to a problems.
- It may be an idea, object or solution to a problem, invention, innovation etc. Despite differences, one common element among these is the production of something new and unique.

Creativity and Intelligence

- In 1920s, Terman found that persons with high IQ were not necessarily creative. At the same time, creative ideas could come from persons who did not have a very high IQ.
- Researchers have also found that both high and low level of creativity can be found in highly intelligent children and also children of average intelligence.
- The relationship between creativity and intelligence is positive.
- All creative acts require some minimum ability to acquire knowledge and capacity to comprehend, retain and retrieve.

Practice Questions

- The distinctiveness and variation among people's characteristics and behaviour pattern is known as
 - Individual differences
 - Psychological similarities
 - Physical psychology
 - Social psychology
- "A person, who is generally aggressive, may behave in a submissive manner in the presence of his boss". This is an example of
 - Intelligence
 - Situationism
 - Psychological
 - Psychometric Approach
- Which among the following are important psychological attributes?
 - Intelligence
 - Interest
 - Personality
 - Values

Codes

- 1 and 2
- 2 and 3
- 1, 3 and 4
- All of these

- It refers to relatively enduring characteristic of a person that makes him different from others?
 - Personality
 - Values
 - Intelligence
 - Aptitude
- It is an objective and standardised measure of an individual's mental and behavioural characteristics.
 - Psychological Test
 - Case study
 - Observation
 - Self Report
- Who among the following was the first psychologist to work on intelligence?
 - Wechsler
 - Gardner
 - Sternberg
 - Alfred Binet

7. The theory of seven primary mental abilities is given by
(a) Louis Thurstone (b) Mayèr
(c) Guilford (d) Theodore Simon
8. Which among the following is not the characteristic of emotionally intelligent person?
(a) Perceive and be sensitive to your feelings.
(b) Understand the powerful influence of nature of emotions.
(c) Control and regulate emotion.
(d) Control his anger in all circumstances.
9. Who among the following was the first person that devised systematic tests to measure intelligence test?
(a) Terman (b) Binet
(c) Thorndike (d) Wechsler
10. The structure of intellect model was proposed by
(a) Spearman (b) Thurstone
(c) Guilford (d) Thorndike
11. Ability to use past experiences creatively to solve novel problems is known as
(a) Musical intelligence
(b) Interpersonal intelligence
(c) Experiential intelligence
(d) Contextual intelligence
12. Entrepreneurial competence refers to
(a) Respect for social order
(b) Self-exposure
(c) Discrimination
(d) Commitment
13. Howard Gardner's theory of intelligence is known as
(a) Theory of Primary Mental Abilities
(b) Theory of Multiple Intelligences
(c) Triarchic theory
(d) Two-factor theory
14. Information processing approach to intelligence is
(a) Multiple Intelligences theory
(b) Triarchic theory
(c) One-factor theory
(d) Two-factor theory
15. A hierarchical model of intelligence consisting of abilities operating at two level was proposed by
(a) J.P. Guilford
(b) Charles Spearman
(c) Arthur Jensen
(d) Howard Gardner
16. involves the complete awareness of our relationship with the natural world.
(a) Interpersonal (b) Naturalistic
(c) Intrapersonal (d) Linguistic
17. The frequency distribution for IQ scores tends to approximate a bell shaped curve, called the
(a) Normal curve (b) Mental age
(c) Intelligence Quotient (d) Chronological Age
18. test is an example of a non-verbal test.
(a) Performance test
(b) Raven's progressive matrices test
(c) Culture based test
(d) Group test
19. The test which contains a number of wooden blocks is
(a) Kohs' block design test
(b) Culture-fair test
(c) Raven's progressive matrices test
(d) Intelligence test
20. If a person has the skill of understanding the motives, feelings and behaviour of other people, he/she is said to have
(a) Interpersonal intelligence
(b) Intrapersonal intelligence
(c) Linguistic intelligence
(d) Social intelligence
21. There are persons who easily adapt to their present environment or select a more favourable environment than the existing one or modify the environment to fit their needs. Therefore, they turn out to be successful in their life. The kind of intelligence shown by them is
(a) Experiential Intelligence
(b) Componential Intelligence
(c) Contextual Intelligence
(d) Emotional Intelligence
22. refers to an individual's underlying potential for acquiring skills.
(a) Intelligence (b) Aptitude
(c) Interest (d) Personality
23. The method in which a person provides factual information about herself/ himself or/and opinions, beliefs etc. that she/he holds.
(a) Case study (b) Observation
(c) Self-report (d) Interview
24. Sternberg's experiential intelligence includes
(a) The ability to learn from past events
(b) The ability to manipulate people's opinions
(c) Creative problem solving
(d) Basic academic skills
25. A person, who is generally aggressive, may behave in a submissive manner in the presence of her/his top boss. The kind of behaviour shown by him is affected by
(a) Assessment (b) Situationism
(c) Intelligence (d) Personal traits

ANSWERS

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (a) | 2. (b) | 3. (d) | 4. (a) | 5. (a) | 6. (d) | 7. (a) | 8. (d) | 9. (b) | 10. (c) |
| 11. (c) | 12. (d) | 13. (b) | 14. (a) | 15. (c) | 16. (b) | 17. (a) | 18. (b) | 19. (a) | 20. (a) |
| 21. (c) | 22. (b) | 23. (c) | 24. (c) | 25. (b) | | | | | |

Self and Personality

Meaning of Self and Personality

- Self and personality refers to the ways in which our experiences are organised and reflect in our behaviour. Different people hold different ideas about themselves and these ideas represent the self of a person.
- People behave in different ways in a given situation, but the behaviour of a particular person from one situation to another generally remains stable.

Concept of Self

- As the child grows, the idea of self emerges and its formation begins. Parents, friends, teachers and other important persons play a vital role in shaping a child's ideas about self.
- Our personal interaction, experiences and their interpretation serve as the basis of our self.
- On the basis of our own experiences and the experiences we have of other people, the structure of self can be changed. The attributes tell us about the personal as well as social or cultural identities of the individual
- **Personal Identity** It refers to those attributes of a person that make her/him different from others. When a person describes herself/himself by telling her/his name, qualities, characteristics, potentialities, capabilities or beliefs, she/he discloses her/his personal identity.
- **Social Identity** It refers to those aspects of a person that link her/him to a social or cultural group or are derived from it.

Self as Subject and Self as Object

Self can be understood as a subject as well as an object. As a subject (actor) the self actively engages in the process of knowing itself. As an object (consequence) the self gets observed and comes to be known.

Kinds of Self

There are various kinds of self. Two main types of self are as follows

- Personal Self** The personal self leads to an orientation in which one feels primarily concerned with oneself.
- Social Self** The social self emerges in relation with others and emphasises aspects of life such as cooperation, unity, affiliation, sacrifice, support or sharing.

Cognitive and Behavioural Aspects of Self

Psychological studies have brought out many aspects of our behaviour related to self. These aspects are discussed below

- **Self-concept** The way we perceive ourselves and the ideas we hold about our competencies and attributes is called **self-concept**.
- **Self-esteem** The value judgement of a person about herself/himself is called self-esteem. Some people have high self-esteem, whereas others may have low self-esteem.
- **Self-efficacy** It is the extent to which a person believe that she/he herself/himself control her/his life outcomes or the outcomes are controlled by luck other than situational factors, e.g. passing an examination.
- **Self-regulation** It refers to the ability to organise and monitor one's own behaviour.
- **Self-control** is the ability of an individual to control himself from satisfying his needs. Self-control plays a key role in the fulfilment of long-term goals.
- **Techniques of Self-Control** are
 - Observation of Own Behaviour
 - Self-Instruction
 - Self-Reinforcement

Culture and Self

- The characteristic features of the culture are linked with several aspects of self.
- Analysis of self in the Indian cultural context reveals that its important features are distinct from the Western cultural context.
- The most important distinction between the Indian and the Western views is the way the boundary is drawn between the self and the other.
- In the Western view, this boundary appears to be relatively fixed. On the other hand, the Indian view of self is characterised by the shifting nature of this boundary.
- The Western view unlike Indian view seems to hold different opinion (separation) between self and other, man and nature, subjective and objective.
- In the Western culture, the self and the group exist as two different entities with clearly defined boundaries.
- Individual members of the group maintain their individuality. In the Indian culture, the self is generally not separated from one's own group and both remain in a state of harmonious co-existence. In the Western culture, they often remain at a distance.
- Therefore, many Western cultures are characterised as individualistic, whereas many Asian cultures are characterised as collectivistic.

Concept of Personality

- In psychological terms, personality refers to our characteristic ways of responding to individuals and situations.
- People can easily describe the way in which they respond to various situations. Certain terms e.g. shy, sensitive, quiet, concerned, warm, etc are often used to describe personalities.
- Consistency in behaviour, thought and emotion of an individual across situations and across time periods characterises her/his personality.
- In brief, personality is characterised by the following features
 - It has both physical and psychological components.
 - Its expression in terms of behaviour is fairly unique in a given individual.
 - Its main features do not easily change with time.
 - It is dynamic in the sense that some of its features may change due to internal or external situational demands.

Major Approaches to the Study of Personality

- A number of approaches and theories have been developed to understand and explain behavioural differences among individuals and behavioural consistencies within an individual.
- These theories and approaches are based on different models of human behaviour.
- The **trait** approaches focus on the specific psychological attributes along which individuals tend to differ in consistent and stable way.
- The **interactional approach** holds that situational characteristics play an important role in determining our behaviour.

Some of important approaches are

Type Approaches

- The type approaches attempt to understand human personality by examining certain broad patterns in the observed behavioural characteristics of individuals.
- Greek physician **Hippocrates** had proposed a typology of personality based on fluid or humour. He classified people into four types i.e. *sanguine*, *phlegmatic*, *melancholic* and *choleric*.
- **Charak Samhita**, a famous treatise on Ayurveda in India classifies people into the categories of *vata*, *pitta* and *kapha* on the basis of three humoral elements called *tridosha*.
- Sheldon proposed **Endomorphic**, **Mesomorphic** and **Ectomorphic Typology** on the basis of body build and temperament.
- **Jung** has proposed widely recognised typology by grouping people into **introverts** and **extroverts**.
- **Friedman** and **Rosenman** have classified individuals into **Type-A** and **Type-B** personalities.
- **Morris** has suggested a **Type-C** personality, which is prone to cancer.

Trait Approaches

- The trait approach focuses on the specific psychological attributes along which individuals tend to differ in consistent and stable ways.
- These theories are mainly concerned with the description or characterisation of basic components of personality.
- These include a range of possible behaviours that are activated according to the demands of the situation. Main features are
 - Traits are relatively stable over time.
 - They are generally consistent across situations.

— Their strengths and combinations vary across individuals leading to individual differences in personality.

- A number of psychologists have used traits to formulate their theories of personality.
- Some of these are

Allport's Trait Theory

- Gordon Allport is the pioneer of trait approach. He proposed that individuals possess a number of traits, which are dynamic in nature.
- Allport categorised traits into cardinal, central and secondary. These are explained as follows
 - **Cardinal Traits** These are highly generalised in nature. They indicate the goal around which a person's entire life seems to revolve.
 - **Central Traits** These are less broad in effect but still quite generalised in nature. These traits (e.g. warm, sincere, diligent, etc) are often used in writing a testimonial or job recommendation for a person.
 - **Secondary Traits** These are the least generalised characteristics of a person. Traits such as 'likes mangoes' or 'prefers ethnic clothes' are examples of secondary traits.

Cattell's Trait Theory

- Raymond Cattell believed that there is a common structure on which people differ from each other.
- This structure could be determined practically. He applied a statistical technique, called **factor analysis** to discover the common structures.
- He found 16 primary or source traits. The **source traits** are stable and are considered as the building blocks of personality. Cattell described the source traits in terms of opposing tendencies.
- He developed a test, called **Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)**, for the assessment of personality.

Eysenck's Theory

- HJ Eysenck proposed that personality could be reduced into two broad dimensions. These are biologically and genetically based.
- Each dimension classifies a number of specific traits. These dimensions are
 - (i) **Neuroticism vs Emotional Stability** It refers to the degree to which people have control over their feelings. At one extreme of the dimension, we find people who are neurotic. They are anxious, moody, touchy, restless and quickly lose control. At the other extreme i.e. people who are calm, even-tempered, reliable and remain under control.

(ii) **Extroversion vs Introversion** It refers to the degree to which people are socially outgoing and and socially withdrawn. Extrovert people are active, friendly, impulsive and thrill-seeking. Introvert people are those who are passive, quiet, cautious and reserved.

(iii) **Psychoticism vs Sociability** It is considered to interact with the other two dimensions i.e. Neuroticism vs Emotional Stability and Extroversion vs Introversion. A person who scores high on psychoticism dimension tends to be hostile, egocentric and anti-social. While social persons are friendly, active and reliable. Eysenck Personality Questionnaire is the test which is used for studying these dimensions of personality.

Five-Factor Model of Personality

Paul Costa and Robert McCrae have examined all possible personality traits. The findings indicate a set of five factors. They are often called Big Five Factors. These factors include:

- Openness to Experience** Those who score high on this factor are imaginative, curious, open to new ideas and interested in cultural pursuits. In contrast, those who score low are rigid.
- Extraversion** It characterises people who are socially active, assertive, outgoing, talkative and fun loving. On its opposite are people who are shy.
- Agreeableness** This factor characterises people who are helpful, co-operative, friendly, caring and nurturing. On the opposite are people who are hostile and self-centered.
- Neuroticism** People who score high on this factor are emotionally unstable, anxious, worried, fearful, distressed, irritable and hypertensive. On the opposite side are people who are well adjusted.
- Conscientiousness** Those who score high on this factor are achievement-oriented, dependable, responsible, prudent, hardworking and self-controlled.

Psychodynamic Approach

Sigmund Freud developed this theory in the course of his clinical practice. Freud used free association, dream analysis and analysis of errors to understand the internal functioning of the mind.

Levels of Consciousness

Freud's theory considers the sources and consequences of emotional conflicts. He visualises the human mind in terms of three levels of consciousness

- Conscious**, which includes the thoughts, feelings and actions of which people are aware.
- Preconscious**, which includes mental activity of which people may become aware only if they attend to it closely.

- (iii) **Unconscious**, which includes mental activity of which people are unaware. Unconsciousness stores all ideas and wishes that are concealed from conscious awareness, because they lead to psychological conflicts.

Psychoanalysis

Freud developed a therapeutic procedure, called psychoanalysis. The basic goal of psychoanalytic therapy is to bring the repressed unconscious materials to consciousness, thereby helping people to live in a more self-aware and integrated manner.

Structure of Personality

- According to Freud's theory, the primary structural elements of personality are three, i.e. id, ego and superego.
- Id** It is the source of a person's habitual energy. It is energised by two instinctual forces called **life instinct** and **death instinct**. The instinctual life force that energises the id is called **libido**.
- Ego** It grows out of id and seeks to satisfy an individual's instinctual needs in accordance with reality. It works by the **reality principle** and often directs the id towards more appropriate ways of behaving.
- Superego** The superego tells the id and the ego whether gratification in a particular instance is ethical. It helps control the id by internalising the parental authority through the process of socialisation.

Ego Defence Mechanisms

- Freud suggests that much of human behaviour reflects an attempt to deal with or escape from anxiety. Freud believed that people avoid anxiety mainly by developing defence mechanisms.
- Defence mechanism try to defend the ego against the awareness of the ins- tinctual needs.
- Defence mechanism is a way of reducing anxiety by distorting reality. Freud has described many different kinds of defence mechanisms such as
 - (i) Repression
 - (ii) Projection
 - (iii) Denial
 - (iv) Reaction Formation
 - (v) Rationalisation

Stages of Personality Development

Freud proposed a five-stage theory of personality (also called psychosexual) development. These are discussed below

- (i) Oral Stage
- (ii) Anal Stage
- (iii) Phallic Stage
- (iv) Latency Stage
- (v) Genital Stage

Post-Freudian Approaches

- A number of theorists further developed their ideas following Freud. These theorists have been called

neo-analytic or post-Freudian in order to differentiate their work from Freud's.

- These theories are characterised by less prominent roles to sexual and aggressive tendencies of the id and expansion of the concept of ego.

Some of these are

Carl Jung : Aims and Aspirations

- Jung saw human beings guided as much by aims and aspirations as by sex and aggression. He developed his own theory of personality called **analytical psychology**.
- Jung claimed that there was a collective unconscious consisting of archetypes (original) or primordial images. These are not individually acquired, but are inherited.

Karen Horney : Optimism

- Horney adopted a more optimistic view of human life with emphasis on human growth and self-actualisation. Horney challenge Freud's treatment of women as inferior.
- According to her, each sex has attributes to be admired by the other, and neither sex can be viewed as superior or inferior.

Alfred Adler : Lifestyle and Social Interest

- Adler's theory is known as **individual psychology**. His basic assumption is that human behaviour is purposeful and goal directed.
- Each one of us has the capacity to choose and create and our **personal goals** are the sources of our motivation.

Erich Fromm : The Human Concerns

- Fromm viewed human beings as basically social beings who could be understood in terms of their relationship with others.
- He argued that psychological qualities such as growth and realisation of potentials resulted from a desire for freedom and striving for justice and truth.

Erik Erikson : Search for Identity

- Erikson's theory lays stress on rational, conscious ego processes in personality development.
- He viewed development as a lifelong process and ego identity is granted a central place in this process.
- His concept of **identity crisis** of adolescent age has drawn considerable attention.

Behavioural Approach

- The behaviourists rely on data that are definable, observable and measurable. Thus, they focus on learning of stimulus-response connections and their reinforcement.

- According to them, personality can be best understood as the response of an individual to the environment.
- They see the development simply as a change in response characteristics i.e. a person learns new behaviours in response to new environments and stimuli.
- The theories of classical conditioning (Pavlov), instrumental conditioning (Skinner) and observational learning (Bandura) view learning and maintenance of behaviour from different angles.
- Observational learning theory also emphasises social learning (based on observation and imitation of others) and self-regulation.

Cultural Approach

- This approach attempts to understand personality in relation to the features of ecological and cultural environment.
- It proposes that a group's 'economic maintenance system' plays a vital role in the origin of cultural and behavioural variations.

Humanistic Approach

- **Carl Rogers** and **Abraham Maslow** have particularly contributed to the development of humanistic perspective on personality.
- The most important idea proposed by Rogers is that of a fully functioning person.

Ideal Self

- Roger suggests that each person also has a concept of ideal self. An ideal self is the self that a person would like to become.
- When there is a correspondence between the real self and ideal self, a person is generally happy. Discrepancy between the real self and ideal self often results in unhappiness and dissatisfaction.
- Maslow asserts that in self-actualisation, people reach to their own fullest potential. Human beings are considered to shape their lives and to self-actualise.

Assessment of Personality

- A formal effort aimed at understanding personality of an individual is termed as personality assessment. Assessment refers to the procedures used to evaluate or differentiate people on the basis of certain characteristics.
- The goal of assessment is to understand and predict behaviour with minimum error and maximum accuracy.
- Assessment is also useful for diagnosis, training, placement, counselling and other purposes.

Psychologists have tried to assess personality in various ways.

- The most commonly used techniques are Psychometric Tests, Self-Report Measures, Projective Techniques and Behavioural Analysis.

Self-report Measures

- These are fairly structured measures, that require subjects to give verbal responses using some kind of rating scale.
- This method requires the subject to objectively report her/his own feelings with respect to various items. The responses are accepted at their face value.
- They are scored in quantitative terms and interpreted on the basis of norms developed for the test.

Some of the well-known self-report measures are

- The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)** Hathaway and McKinley developed this test as a helping tool for psychiatric diagnosis, but the test has been found very effective in identifying varieties of psychopathology.
- Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)** This test developed by Eysenck, initially to assess two dimensions of personality called introverted-extroverted and emotionally stable-emotionally unstable.
- Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF)** This test was developed by Cattell. The test provides declarative statements, and the subject responds to a specific situation by choosing from a set of given alternatives.

Problems with Self-report Measures

The self-report measures suffer from a number of problems such as

- Social Desirability
- Acquiescence

Projective Techniques

- The techniques of personality assessment described so far are known as direct techniques, because they tend to rely on information directly obtained from the person who clearly knows that her/his personality is being assessed.
- In these situations, people generally become selfconscious and hesitate to share their private feelings, thoughts, and motivations.
- Direct methods of personality assessment cannot uncover the unconscious part of our behaviour.
- These problems can be overcome by using indirect methods of assessment.
- Projective techniques were developed to assess unconscious motives and feelings.

The Rorschach Inkblot Test

- This test was developed by Hermann Rorschach. The test consists of 10 inkblots. Five of them are in black and white, two with some red ink and the remaining three in some pastel colours.
- The blots are symmetrical in design with a specific shape or form. Each blot is printed in the centre of a white cardboard of about 7" × 10" size.
- The blots were originally made by dropping ink on a piece of paper and then folding the paper in half (hence called inkblot test).

The cards are administered individually in two phases

- Performance Proper** In this, the subjects are shown the cards and are asked to tell what they see in each of them.
- Inquiry** In this, a detailed report of the response is prepared by asking the subject to tell where, how and on what basis was a particular response made.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)

- This test was developed by Morgan and Murray. The test consists of 30 black and white picture cards and 1 blank card.
- Each picture card depicts one or more people in a variety of situations and each picture is printed on a card.
- The cards are presented one at a time. The subject is asked to tell a story describing the situation presented in the picture.
- A standard procedure is available for scoring TAT responses. The test has been modified for children and for the aged. Uma Chaudhary's Indian adaptation of TAT is also available.

Rosenzweig's Picture-Frustration Study (P-F Study)

- This test was developed by Rosenzweig to assess how people express aggression in the face of a frustrating situation.
- With the help of cartoon like pictures, the test presents a series of situations in which one person frustrates another, or calls attention to a frustrating condition.

Sentence Completion Test

- This test makes use of a number of incomplete sentences.
- The type of endings used by the subjects reflect their attitudes, motivation and conflicts. The test provides subjects with several opportunities to reveal their underlying unconscious motivations.

Draw-a-Person Test

- It is a simple test in which the subject is asked to draw a person on a sheet of paper. A pencil and eraser is provided to facilitate drawing.

- After the completion of the drawing, the subject is generally asked to draw the figure of an opposite sex person.
- Finally, the subject is asked to make a story about the person as if she/he was a character in a novel or play.

Behavioural Analysis

Observation of behaviour serves as the basis of behavioural analysis. An observer's report may contain data obtained from interview, observation, ratings, nomination and situational tests.

Interview

- Interview is a commonly used method for assessing personality. This involves talking to the person being assessed and asking specific questions.
- The **structured interviews** address very specific questions and follow a set procedure.
- In **unstructured interviews**, the interviewer seeks to develop an impression about a person by asking a number of questions.

Observation

- Observation is another method which is very commonly used for the assessment of personality.
- It requires careful training of the observer and a fairly detailed guideline about analysis of behaviours in order to assess the personality of a given person.

Behavioural Ratings

- Behavioural ratings are frequently used for assessment of personality in educational and industrial settings.
- Behavioural ratings are generally taken from people who know the assessee intimately and have interacted with her/him over a period of time or have had a chance to observe her/him.

Nomination

- This method is often used in obtaining peer assessment. It can be used with persons who have been in long-term interaction and who know each other very well.
- In using nomination, each person is asked to choose one or more persons of the group with whom she/he would like to work, study, play or participate in any other activity.

Situational Tests

- A variety of situational tests have been devised for the assessment of personality. The most commonly used test of this kind is the **situational stress test**.
- It provides us information about how a person behaves under stressful situations.

20. Which test consists of 10 inkblots?
(a) The Rorschach test
(b) Thematic apperception test
(c) Rosenzweig picture test
(d) Draw a person test
21. Raman is a student. One day his teacher asked him to describe himself. He told the teacher that I am the one who easily gets hurt. In this case, Raman is describing himself as
(a) Subject (b) Object
(c) Emotional being (d) Intellectual being
22. Karim when asked to describe about himself describes in following manner, "I am Karim. I am honest and hardworking person. I am a singer. I do believe in God and destiny." In this case, Karim is disclosing his
(a) Personal identity (b) Social identity
(c) Self esteem (d) Self efficacy
23. This test consists of 30 black and white picture cards and 1 blank card. Each picture card depicts one or more people in a variety of situation and each picture is printed on card.
(a) Draw a Person Test
(b) Thematic Apperception Test
(c) Rorschach Inkblot Test
(d) Sentence Completion Test
24. A person is required to perform a given task with other persons who are instructed to be non-cooperative and interfering.
(a) Observation Test
(b) Situational Test
(c) Picture Study
(d) Eysenck Personality Test
25. Who among the following psychologist divided all personalities into introverts and extroverts?
(a) Freud (b) Carl Jung (c) Adler (d) Erikson

ANSWERS

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (d) | 2. (b) | 3. (c) | 4. (a) | 5. (a) | 6. (a) | 7. (b) | 8. (a) | 9. (b) | 10. (a) |
| 11. (d) | 12. (d) | 13. (c) | 14. (b) | 15. (b) | 16. (c) | 17. (c) | 18. (a) | 19. (a) | 20. (a) |
| 21. (b) | 22. (a) | 23. (b) | 24. (b) | 25. (b) | | | | | |

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Meeting Life Challenges

Meaning of Stress

- Stress is a physical, mental or emotional factor that causes bodily or mental tension.
- Stress is a form of response towards an event or stimuli.
- It may disturb the psychological stability of a person and diminish his/her ability. All the challenges, problems and difficult circumstances are responsible for stress.
- Eustress is the term used to describe the level of stress that is good for you. It is best for achieving peak performance and managing minor crisis. Eustress, however, has the potential of turning into 'distress'.
- Stressors are events that cause our body to give the stress response. Such events include noise, crowding, conflict, frustration, a bad relationship or the daily commuting to school or office. The reaction to external stressors is called strain.

Nature, Types and Sources of Stress

Nature of Stress

- Hans Selye, defined stress as the non-specific response of the body to any demand. Despite the cause of the threat, the individual will respond with the same physiological pattern of reactions.
- Many researchers do not agree with this definition. They think that the stress response is not nearly as general and non-specific as Selye suggests. Different stressors may produce somewhat different patterns of stress reaction.
- Different individuals may have different characteristic modes of response. Each one of us sees the situation from our own perspective and it is our ability to meet them and this will determine whether we are feeling 'stressed' or not.

Cognitive Theory of Stress

- This theory was propounded by Lazarus and his colleagues. According to this, the perception of stress is dependent upon the individual's cognitive appraisal of events and the resources available to deal with them.
- There are two types of appraisal according to Lazarus:
 - (i) **Primary Appraisal** It refers to the perception of a new or changing environment as positive, neutral or negative in its consequences. Negative events are appraised for their possible harm, threat or challenge.
 - (ii) **Secondary Appraisal** It is the assessment of one's coping abilities and resources and assessing whether they will be sufficient to meet the harm, threat or challenge of the event. These resources may be mental, physical, personal or social.
- This two-level appraisal process determines not only our cognitive and behavioural responses but also our emotional and physiological responses to external events. These appraisals are very subjective and will depend on many factors such as:
 - **Past Experience** If one has handled similar situations very successfully in the past, they would be less threatening for her/him.
 - **Controllable** It examines whether one has mastery or control over a situation. A person who believes that she/he can control the onset of a negative situation will experience less amount of stress.

Reactions to Stress

Stressors result in a variety of stress reactions, which may be physiological, behavioural, emotional and cognitive.

- **Physiological Reactions** At the physiological level, arousal (physical activity) plays a key role in stress-related behaviours. The **hypothalamus** (part of

brain) initiates action along two pathways i.e. first is to involve the autonomic nervous system that leads to physiological changes seen in **fight-or-flight** response and second pathway involves the pituitary gland, which secretes the corticosteroid (cortisol) that provides energy.

- **Emotional Reactions** The emotional reactions to experience stress include negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, embarrassment, anger, depression or even denial.
- **Behavioural Reactions** The behavioural reactions are virtually limitless, depending on the nature of the stressful event.
- **Cognitive Reactions** Cognitive reactions include beliefs about the harm or threat an event poses and beliefs about its causes or controllability.

Changes in Stress

- The stresses which people experience vary in terms of:
 - intensity (low intensity *vs* high intensity)
 - duration (short-term *vs* long term)
 - complexity (less complex *vs* more complex)
 - predictability (unexpected *vs* predictable)
- The outcome of stress depends on the position of a particular stressful experience along these dimensions.
- An individual's experiences of stress depend on the physiological strength of that person.
- Psychological characteristics like mental health, temperament and self-concept are relevant to the experience of stress.
- The stress experience will be determined by the resources of the person, such as money, social skills, coping style, support networks, etc.

Signs and Symptoms of Stress

- Everyone has their own pattern of stress response depending upon their personality, early upbringing and life experiences their.
- The symptoms of stress can be physical, emotional and behavioural.

Types of Stress

There are three major types of stresses. All three types of stress are interrelated and are given below

Physical and Environmental Stress

- Physical stresses are demands that change the state of our body. e.g. physically, lack a nutritious diet, suffer an injury or fail to get enough sleep.

- Environmental stresses are aspects of our surroundings that are often unavoidable such as air pollution, crowding, noise, etc. Another group of environmental stresses are catastrophic events or disasters such as fire, earthquake, floods, etc.

Psychological Stress

These are internal sources of stress that we generate ourselves in our minds. Some of the important sources of psychological stress are

- **Frustration** It results from the blocking of needs and motives by something or someone that blocking us from achieving a desired goal. Causes of frustration can be social discrimination, interpersonal hurt, low grades in school, etc.
- **Conflicts** It may occur between two or more incompatible needs or motives, e.g. whether to study dance or psychology.
- **Internal Pressures** It occurs from beliefs based upon expectations from inside us to ourselves. Such expectations can only lead to disappointment.
- **Social Pressures** It may be brought about from people who make excessive demands on us. This can cause even greater pressure when we have to work with them.

Social Stress

- These are produced externally and result from our interaction with other people. For example, social events like death or illness in the family, strained relationships etc.

Sources of Stress

Stress can be generated by events and conditions. Among the most important of these are major stressful life events, frequent hassles (problems) of everyday life, traumatic events that affect our lives.

- **Life Events** Major life events can be stressful, because they disturb our routine and cause upheaval. (e.g. moving into a new house), break-up of a long-term relationship.
- **Hassles** These are the personal stresses we experience as individuals, due to the happenings in our daily life, such as noisy surroundings, commuting, quarrelsome neighbours, electricity and water shortage, traffic snarls.
- **Traumatic Events** These events include extreme events such as a fire, train or road accident, robbery, earthquake, tsunami, etc. The effects of these events may occur after some lapse of time and sometimes persist as symptoms of anxiety, flashbacks, dreams and intrusive thoughts, etc.

Effects of Stress on Psychological Functioning and Health

Many of the effects of stress are physiological in nature. There are four major effects of stress associated with the stressed state. These are as follows

- (i) **Emotional Effects** Those who suffer from stress are likely to experience mood swings and show erratic behaviour that may alienate them from family and friends.
- (ii) **Physiological Effects** When the human body is placed under physical or psychological stress, it increases the production of certain hormones, such as adrenaline and cortisol. These hormones produce marked changes in heart rate, blood pressure levels, metabolism and physical activity.
- (iii) **Cognitive Effects** If pressures due to stress continue, one may suffer from mental overload. This suffering from high level of stress can rapidly cause individuals to lose their ability to make decisions.
- (iv) **Behavioural Effects** Stress affects our behaviour in the form of eating less nutritional food, increasing intake of stimulants such as caffeine, excessive consumption of cigarettes, alcohol and other drugs such as tranquilisers, etc.

Stress and Health

- When stress is continued, it affects physical health and impairs psychological functioning. People experience exhaustion and attitudinal problems when the stress due to demands from the environment.
- The physical exhaustion is seen in the signs of chronic fatigue, weakness and low energy. The mental exhaustion appears in the form of irritability, anxiety, feelings of helplessness and hopelessness.

Stress and the Immune System

- Stress can cause illness by impairing the workings of the immune system. The immune system guards the body against attackers, both from within and outside the body.
- The white blood cells (leucocytes) within the immune system identify and destroy foreign bodies (antigens) such as viruses. It also leads to the production of antibodies.
- Stress can affect natural killer cell **cytotoxicity** which is of major importance in the defence against various infections and cancer.

Lifestyle

- Stress can lead to unhealthy lifestyle or health damaging behaviour. Lifestyle is the overall pattern of decisions and behaviours that determine a person's health and quality of life.
- Stressed individuals may be more likely to expose themselves to **pathogens**, which are agents causing physical illness.

Coping With Stress

- Coping refers to constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to master, reduce or tolerate the internal or external demands that are created by the stressful transaction.
- Coping is a dynamic situation-specific reaction to stress. It is a set of responses to stressful situations or events that are intended to resolve the problem and reduce stress.
- The way we cope with stress often depends on rigid deep-seated beliefs, based on experience.
- Coping strategies include both overt (clear) and covert (private) activities.
- The three coping strategies given by Endler and Parker are as follows
 - (i) Task-oriented Strategy
 - (ii) Emotion-oriented Strategy
 - (iii) Avoidance-oriented Strategy

Strategies given by Lazarus and Folkman

Lazarus and Folkman has conceptualised coping as a dynamic process rather than an individual trait. According to them, coping responses can be divided into two types of responses

- (i) **Problem-Focussed Strategies** It attacks the problem itself, with behaviours designed to gain information, to alter the event and to alter belief and commitments.
- (ii) **Emotion-Focussed Strategies** It call for psychological changes designed primarily to limit the degree of emotional disruption caused by an event, with minimal effort to alter the event itself.

Stress Management Techniques

Stress is a silent killer which plays a significant role in physical illness and disease. Hypertension, heart disease, ulcers, diabetes and even cancer are linked to stress.

- **Relaxation Techniques** It is an active skill that reduces symptoms of stress and decreases the incidence of illnesses such as high blood pressure and heart disease.

- **Meditation Procedures** The yogic method of meditation consists of a sequence of learned techniques for refocusing of attention that brings about an altered state of consciousness.
- **Biofeedback** It is a procedure to monitor and reduce the physiological aspects of stress by providing feedback about current physiological activity and is often accompanied by relaxation training.
- **Creative Visualisation** It is an effective technique for dealing with stress. It is a subjective experience that uses imagery and imagination. Before visualising one must set oneself a realistic goal, as it helps to build confidence.

Cognitive Behavioural Techniques

These techniques aim to inoculate (treat) people against stress. Stress inoculation training is an effective method. It is developed by **Meichenbaum**.

There are three main phases in this technique:

- (i) Assessment
- (ii) Stress Reduction
- (iii) Application and follow through

Promoting Positive Health and Well-Being

- It is unlikely that we will go through life without some experience of personal crises causing acute pressure for a while.
- Many people sail through and rebuild their lives very positively. They are likely to have constructive attitudes and also have lots of emotional and social support of various kinds available to them.
- When we find ways of managing these pressures and can use the energy to create something positive out of the situation, then we will have learned to survive healthily and this will leave us more stress fit for future crises.

Stress Resistant Personality

According to Kobasa, people with high levels of stress but low levels of illness share three characteristics. These are referred to as the personality traits of **hardiness**. Hardiness is a set of beliefs about oneself, the world and how they interact. It consists of 'the three Cs', i.e. commitment, control and challenge.

Life Skills

These are abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life. These life skills can be learned or improved upon. Some life skills that will help to meet the challenges of life are

- **Assertiveness** It is a behaviour or skill that helps to communicate clearly and confidently, our feelings, needs, wants and thoughts.
- **Time Management** The central principle of time management is to spend one's time through doing the things.
- **Rational Thinking** Many stress-related problems occur as a result of distorted thinking. When we are stressed, we recall to negative thoughts and images from the past, which affect our perception of the present and the future.
Some of the principles of rational thinking are
- **Improving Relationships** The key to an effective relationship is communication which consists of three essential skills i.e.
 - listening
 - accepting
 - expressing
- **Self-care** The better way to prepare physically and emotionally and to tackle the stresses of everyday life is by keeping ourselves healthy, fit and relaxed.
- **Overcoming Unhelpful Habits** Unhelpful habits such as perfectionism, avoidance, procrastination, etc are strategies that help to cope in the short-term stress.

Development of Positive Health

- Health is a state of complete physical, mental, social and spiritual well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. Various factors have been identified which facilitate the development of positive health.
- Positive health comprises the following constructs:
 - a healthy body.
 - high quality of personal relationships.
 - a sense of purpose in life.
 - self-regard.
 - mastery of life's tasks.
 - resilience (the ability of people to feel better quickly after something unpleasant) to stress, trauma and change.

Factors that act as stress buffers and facilitate positive health are

- **Diet** A balanced diet can lift one's mood, give more energy, feed muscles, improve circulation, prevent illness, strengthen the immune system and make one feel better to cope with stresses of life.
- **Exercise** It is the lifestyle change with the widest popular approval. Regular exercise plays an important role in managing weight and stress and it has a positive effect on reducing tension, anxiety and depression.
- **Positive Attitude** Positive health and well-being can be realised by having a positive attitude.

Positive Thinking

- The power of positive thinking has been increasingly recognised in reducing and coping with stress. Optimism has been linked to psychological and physical well-being.
- Optimists use more problem focused coping strategies and seek advice and help from others while pessimists ignore the problem or source of stress.

Social Support

- Social support is defined as the existence and availability of people on whom we can rely upon and people who care, value and love us.

- Perceived support, i.e. the quality of social support is positively related to health and well-being.
- Social support can help to provide protection against stress.
- Social support may be in the form of **tangible support** or assistance involving material aid such as money, goods, services, etc.
- Research has suggested that social support effectively reduces psychological distress such as depression or anxiety during times of stress.

Practice Questions

- The physical, environmental and social causes of the stress state are termed as
(a) Stress (b) Stressors
(c) Distress (d) None of these
- The general adaptation syndrome consists of three stages which include
(a) the alarm reaction
(b) the stage of resistance
(c) the stage of exhaustion
(d) All of the above
- Who defined stress as the non-specific response of the body to any demand?
(a) Hans Selye (b) J.P. Das
(c) Sternberg (d) Lewis Terman
- Who among the following gave Cognitive Theory of Stress?
(a) Hans Selye (b) Lazarus
(c) Gardner (d) Sternberg
- Frustration-aggression is a very famous hypothesis proposed by
(a) Roger (b) Dollard and Miller
(c) Maslow (d) Endler and Parker
- Which type of reaction are virtually limited and depending on the nature of the stressful event?
(a) Cognitive reactions
(b) Behavioural reactions
(c) Emotional reactions
(d) Physiological reactions
- The reaction to external stressors is called
(a) Strain (b) Stress
(c) Tension (d) Stress response
- The cognitive theory of stress was proposed by
(a) Selye (b) Endler
(c) Parker (d) Lazarus
- Which among the following is not a part of psychological stress?
(a) Frustration (b) Conflicts
(c) Internal pressure (d) Environmental stress
- Individual's reaction to external stressor's is called
(a) Strain (b) Conflict
(c) Pressure (d) Frustration
- What are the sources of stress?
(a) Life events (b) Hassles
(c) Traumatic events (d) All of these
- Blocking of needs and motives that cause hindrance achieving the desired goal results in
(a) Stress (b) Conflict
(c) Frustration (d) Aggression
- Which among the following is an emotional effects of stress?
(a) Mood swings (b) Physical stress
(c) Mental overload (d) Eating less
- An individual's level of stress which helps in achieving peak success and managing minor crisis is known as
(a) Stress (b) Distress
(c) Eustress (d) Strain
- The state of physical, emotional and psychological exhaustion is known as
(a) Stress (b) Burn Out
(c) Resistance (d) Weakness
- Stress coping strategies like task-oriented strategy, Emotional-oriented strategy and Avoidance-oriented strategy is give by
(a) Endler and Parker
(b) Lazarus and Folkman
(c) Vygotsky
(d) Alfered Binet

17. According to experts who deals with post traumatic stress disorder, one of the key attitudes to develop in the survivors is that of
(a) Self-confidence (b) Self-worth
(c) Self-concept (d) Self-efficacy
18. Which of the following is not a stress management strategy given by Endler and Parker?
(a) Problem-focussed strategy
(b) Task-oriented strategy
(c) Emotion-oriented strategy
(d) Avoidance-oriented strategy
19. Raj has been studying for his board examinations. On exam day, when he opens the question paper, his heart is pounding, hands are clammy with sweat and then he feels his mind has gone completely blank. He can be said to be in
(a) stress (b) normal
(c) relaxed (d) eustress
20. is a silent killer which plays a significant role in physical illness and disease.
(a) Workout (b) Stress
(c) Environment (d) Emotions
21. Deepak is in Class 12. He is in peer pressure started smoking to the extent that he became a chain smoker. He has recently decided to quit smoking. However, he realised that quitting smoking has led to frustration. The frustration formed due to blocking of needs is a form of
(a) physical stress (b) environmental stress
(c) psychological stress (d) social stress
22. Which among the following are stress management techniques?
(a) Relaxation technique
(b) Meditation technique
(c) Biofeedback
(d) All of these
23. results from blocking of anticipated desirable goals.
(a) Frustration
(b) Stress
(c) Motivation
(d) Relaxation
24. Which among the following is not a way to reduce stress?
(a) Rational Thinking (b) Diet
(c) Drinking alcohol (d) Meditation
25. Match the List I with List II.
- | List-I | List-II |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| A. Cognitive theory of stress | 1. Destroy inventors |
| B. Frustration-aggression hypothesis | 2. Produce antibodies |
| C. B cells | 3. Dollard and Miller |
| D. T cells | 4. Lazarus |
- Codes
- | A | B | C | D | A | B | C | D |
|-------|---|---|---|-------|---|---|---|
| (a) 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | (b) 3 | 1 | 4 | 2 |
| (c) 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | (d) 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

ANSWERS

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (b) | 2. (d) | 3. (a) | 4. (b) | 5. (b) | 6. (b) | 7. (a) | 8. (d) | 9. (d) | 10. (a) |
| 11. (d) | 12. (c) | 13. (a) | 14. (c) | 15. (b) | 16. (a) | 17. (a) | 18. (c) | 19. (a) | 20. (b) |
| 21. (c) | 22. (d) | 23. (a) | 24. (c) | 25. (a) | | | | | |

CHAPTER 04

Psychological Disorders

Psychological disorders are those mental disorders which result in certain behavioural pattern such as unhappiness, discomfort, anxiety, etc.

Concept of Abnormality and Psychological Disorders

Many definitions of abnormality have been used over the years, but none is accepted universally. However, these definitions have common features known as the four D's. These four D's are as follows

- (i) **Deviant/deviance** It means abnormality different for different people.
- (ii) **Distressing/distress** It means abnormality is unpleasant and upsetting to the person and to others.
- (iii) **Dysfunctional/dysfunction** It means interfering with the person's ability to carry out daily activities in a constructive way.
- (iv) **Dangerous/danger** It can be dangerous to the person or to others.

Various approaches have been used to distinguish between normal and abnormal behaviours. From these approaches, two basic and conflicting views emerged which are as follows

- (i) The first approach refers to abnormal behaviour as a deviation from the social norms. Each society has norms, which are stated or unstated rules for proper conduct. Behaviours, thoughts and emotions that break societal norms are called **abnormal**.
- (ii) The second approach views abnormal behaviour as maladaptive.

Approaches of Abnormality

- **Biological or Organic Approach** The history of abnormal psychology believed that individuals behave

strangely because their bodies and their brains are not working properly. This is known as the biological or organic approach.

- **Psychological Approach** According to this point of view, psychological problems are caused by inadequacies in the way an individual thinks, feels or perceives the world.
- **Organismic Approach** In the ancient Western world, philosopher and physicians of ancient Greece such as Hippocrates, Socrates and Plato developed the organismic approach. Galen elaborated the role of the four humours (earth, air, fire and water) in personal character and temperament.
- **Demonology and Superstition** In the Middle ages, demonology was related to a belief that people with mental problems were evil. In this period, demonology and superstition gained renewed importance in the explanation of the abnormal behaviour.
- **Bio-psycho-social Approach** In this approach, all three factors i.e. biological, psychological and social play important roles in influencing the expression and outcome of psychological disorders.

Classification of Psychological Disorders

- The American Psychiatric Association (APA) published an official manual describing and classifying various kinds of psychological disorders. The current version of it is the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition (DSM-5).
- The classification scheme officially used in India is the tenth revision of the International Classification of Diseases, which is known as the ICD-10 Classification of Behavioural and Mental Disorders. It was prepared by the World Health Organisation (WHO).

Factors Underlying Abnormal Behaviour

Psychologists use different approaches to understand abnormal behaviour. These approaches also emphasise the role of different factors which are as follows

Biological Factors

- These factors influence all aspects of our behaviour. A wide range of biological factors such as faulty genes, endocrine imbalances, malnutrition, injuries and other conditions may interfere with normal development and functioning of the human body.
- According to the biological model, abnormal behaviour might be caused by biochemical or physiological changes. Biological researchers have found that psychological disorders are related to problems in the transmission of messages from one neuron to another.

Genetic Factors

- These factors have been linked to mood disorders, schizophrenia, mental retardation and other psychological disorders.
- Researchers have not been able to identify the specific genes that are the culprits. In most cases, no single gene is responsible for a particular behaviour or a psychological disorder.
- Infact, many genes combine to bring about our various behaviours and emotional reactions, both functional and dysfunctional.

Psychological Models

- There are several psychological models which provide a psychological explanation of mental disorders. The psychological and interpersonal factors have a significant role to play in abnormal behaviour. These are discussed below

Psychodynamic Model

- The psychodynamic model is the oldest and most famous of the modern psychological models. Psychodynamic theorists believe that behaviour, whether normal or abnormal, is determined by psychological forces within the person of which she/he is not consciously aware.

Behavioural Model

- Behavioural model states that both normal and abnormal behaviours are learned and psychological disorders are the result of learning maladaptive ways of behaving.
- The model concentrates on behaviours that are learned through conditioning.

These three types of conditioning accounts for behaviour, whether adaptive or maladaptive.

Cognitive Model

Psychological factors are emphasised by the cognitive model. This model states that abnormal functioning can result from cognitive problems.

Humanistic-Existential Model

- Humanistic-existential model focuses on broader aspects of human existence. Humanists believe that human beings are born with a natural tendency to be friendly, cooperative and constructive.
- Existentialists believe that from birth we have total freedom to give meaning to our existence or to avoid that responsibility. Those who avoid the responsibility would live empty, inauthentic and dysfunctional lives.

Socio-Cultural Model

- Some important socio-cultural factors are war and violence, group prejudice and discrimination, economic and employment problems and rapid social change.
- According to the socio-cultural model, abnormal behaviour is best understood by the social and cultural forces that influence an individual.

Diathesis-Stress Model

This model states that psychological disorders develop when a diathesis is set off by a stressful situation. This model has three components which are as follows

- (i) The first component is the diathesis or the presence of some biological disorders which may be inherited.
- (ii) The second component is that the diathesis may carry a vulnerability to develop a psychological disorder.
- (iii) The third component is the presence of pathogenic stressors i.e. factors/stressors that may lead to psychopathology.

Major Psychological Disorders

The major psychological disorders are anxiety disorders, somatoform disorders, dissociative disorders, mood disorders, schizophrenia disorders, behavioural and development disorders and substance use disorders. These are discussed below

Anxiety Disorders

- The term anxiety is usually defined as a diffuse, vague (unclear), very unpleasant feeling of fear and apprehension.
- The anxious individual shows combinations of the symptoms like Rapid heart rate, Shortness of breath, Diarrhoea, Loss of appetite, Fainting, Dizziness, Sweating, Sleeplessness, Frequent urination and Tremors.

Anxiety disorders include the following disorders

Generalised Anxiety Disorder

- It consists of continued, vague (unclear), unexplained and intense fears that are not attached to any particular object.
- The symptoms include nervousness and feeling of apprehension about the future; hypervigilance, which involves constantly scanning the environment for dangers.

Panic Disorder

- A panic attack denotes an abrupt rise of intense anxiety rising to a peak when thoughts of a stimulus are present. Such thoughts occur in an unpredictable manner.
- The clinical features include shortness of breath, dizziness, trembling, palpitations, choking, nausea, chest pain or discomfort, fear of going crazy, losing control or dying.

Phobia

Individuals who have phobias have irrational fears related to specific objects, people or situations. Phobias can be grouped into three main types, which are discussed as follows

- (i) Specific Phobia (ii) Social Phobia
- (iii) Agoraphobia

Separation Anxiety Disorder (SAD)

Individuals with this type of disorder are fearful and anxious about separation from attachment figures to such an extent which is developmentally not appropriate.

Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder

- People affected by obsessive-compulsive disorder are unable to control their preoccupation with specific ideas or are unable to prevent themselves from repeatedly carrying out a particular act that affect their ability to carry out normal activities.
- **Obsessive behaviour** is the inability to stop thinking about a particular idea or topic.
- **Compulsive behaviour** is the need to perform certain behaviours over and over again. Many compulsions deal with counting, ordering, checking, touching and washing.

Trauma and Stressor Related Disorders

- People who have been caught in a natural disaster (such as tsunami) or have been victims of bomb blasts

by terrorists or been in a serious accident or in a war-related situation, experience Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD).

- PTSD symptoms may include recurrent dreams, flashbacks, impaired concentration, and emotional numbing.

Somatic Symptom and Related Disorders

In somatoform disorders, the individual has psychological difficulties and complains of physical symptoms for which there is no biological cause.

Somatic Symptom Disorder It involves a person having body-related symptoms which may or may not be related to any serious medical condition.

Illness Anxiety Disorder It develops when the individual persistently is preoccupied with developing a serious illness and worry about it. He is always anxious about his own health. Both **somatic symptom disorder** and **illness anxiety disorder** are concerned with medical illness. In somatic symptom disorder, there are still physical complaints but illness anxiety disorder is purely mental.

Conversion Disorders

- The symptoms of conversion disorders are the reported loss of part or all of basic body functions. Paralysis, blindness, deafness and difficulty in walking are generally among the symptoms reported.
- These symptoms occur after stressful experience and develop suddenly.

Dissociative Disorders

Dissociation involves feelings of unreality, estrangement (detachment), depersonalisation and sometimes a loss or shift of identity.

Three disorders which are included in this disorder are as follows

- (i) **Dissociative Amnesia** It is characterised by extensive but selective memory loss that has no known organic cause (e.g. head injury). Some people cannot remember anything about their past.
- (ii) **Dissociative Fugue** It is a part of dissociative amnesia. It is characterised by the assumption of a new identity and the inability to recall the previous identity.
- (iii) **Dissociative Identity Disorder** It is often referred to as multiple personality disorder and is the most dramatic of the dissociative disorders. It is often associated with traumatic experiences in childhood.

Depressive Disorders

These are characterised by disturbances in mood or continued emotional state. The most common mood disorder is depression.

- **Major Depressive Disorder** It is defined as a period of depressed mood and/or loss of interest or pleasure in most activities, with other symptoms like change in body weight, constant sleep problems, tiredness, inability to think clearly, agitation, greatly slowed behaviour and thoughts of death and suicide.
- **Factors Predisposing Towards Depression** Genetic make-up or heredity, age, gender, negative life events and lack of social support are some important risk factors for major depression.
- **Mania** People suffering from mania become euphoric ('high'), extremely active, excessively talkative and easily distractible.

Bipolar Mood Disorder

It is a mood disorder, in which both mania and depression are alternatively present, sometimes interrupted by periods of normal mood. Bipolar mood disorders were earlier referred to as manic-depressive disorders.

- Some types of bipolar and related disorders include 'Bipolar I Disorder', 'Bipolar II Disorder' and 'Cyclothymic Disorder'. An attempt of suicide is high in case of bipolar mood disorders.

Identifying Students in Distress

Some common factors are found in students who are in distress. These include, declining grades, decreasing effort, misbehaviour in the classroom, lack of interest in common activities, mysterious or repeated absence, smoking, drinking or drug misuse, etc.

Strengthening Student's Self-esteem

Some factors can enhance self-esteem of students. These are as follows

- **Positive life experiences** to develop positive identity which increases confidence in self.
- **Opportunities** are given to develop physical, social and vocational skills.
- Establish a **trustful communication**.
- **Goals** should be measurable, achievable which can be completed within specific time frame.

Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders

Schizophrenia is the descriptive term for a group of psychotic disorders in which personal, social and occupational functioning deteriorate as a result of disturbed thought processes, strange perceptions, unusual emotional states and motor abnormalities. It is a debilitating disorder.

Symptoms of Schizophrenia

The symptoms of schizophrenia can be grouped into three categories

• Positive Symptoms

- Delusions** A delusion is a false belief that is firmly held on inadequate grounds. It has no basis in reality.
- Formal Thought Disorders** People with schizophrenia may not be able to think logically and may speak in strange ways.
- Hallucinations** Schizophrenic may have hallucinations. It is a perception that occurs in the absence of external stimuli.

• Negative Symptoms

- These are 'pathological deficits' and include poverty of speech, blunted affect, flat affect, loss of volition (self-determination) and social withdrawal.
- Patients with schizophrenia also experience avolition (lack of motivation or ability) and an inability to start or complete a course of action.

• Psychomotor Symptoms

- People with schizophrenia show psychomotor symptoms i.e. they move less spontaneously or make odd grimaces (ugly expression with face) and gestures. These symptoms may take extreme forms known as catatonia.
- Some show catatonic rigidity i.e. maintaining a rigid, upright posture for hours while some others exhibit catatonic posturing i.e. assuming awkward, strange positions for long periods of time.

Neurodevelopmental Disorders

Neurodevelopmental disorders manifest in the early stage of development. These result in hampering personal, social, academic and occupational functioning.

Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

It is seen in children and demonstrate following features

- **Inattention** Children who are inattentive find it difficult to sustain mental effort during work or play.
- **Impulsivity** Children who are impulsive seem unable to control their immediate reactions or to think before they act.
- **Hyperactivity** Children who are hyperactive are unable to control their motion.

Autism Spectrum Disorder

- It is one of the most common of these disorders. Children with autistic disorder have marked difficulties in social interaction and communication.
- Children with autism often show narrow patterns of interests and repetitive behaviours such as lining up objects or stereotyped body movements such as rocking.

Intellectual Disability

Intellectual disability refers to below average intellectual functioning (an IQ of approximately 70 or below) and deficits in adaptive behaviour (i.e. in the areas of communication, self-care, home living, social/ interpersonal skills).

Specific Learning Disorder

- In case of specific learning disorder, the individual experiences difficulty in perceiving or processing information correctly.
- During early school years students face problems in basic skills in reading, writing and mathematics. They perform poorly but with additional efforts can do better.

Disruptive, Impulse-Control and Conduct Disorders

The disorders included under this category are Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD), Conduct Disorders and Others. These are discussed as follows

Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD)

- Children with ODD are irritable, defiant, disobedient and behave in a hostile manner.
- Individuals with ODD do not see themselves as angry, oppositional and often justify their behaviour as reaction to circumstances/demands. Unlike ADHD, the rates of ODD in boys and girls are not very different.

Conduct Disorder (CD) and Anti-social Behaviour

- It refers to age inappropriate actions and attitudes that violate family expectations, societal norms and the personal or property rights of others.
- The behaviours in conduct disorder include aggressive actions that cause or threaten to harm people or animals, non-aggressive conduct that causes property damage, major deceitfulness or theft and serious rule violations.

Feeding and Eating Disorders

There are three types of eating disorders.

- Anorexia Nervosa** In this, the individual has a disfigured body image that leads her/him to see herself/himself as overweight.
- Bulimia Nervosa** In this, the individual may eat excessive amount of food, then clear her/his body of

food by using medicines such as laxatives or diuretics or by vomiting.

- Binge Eating** In this, there are frequent episodes of out-of-control eating. In this case, individual eats large amount of food, even if she/he is not feeling hungry. The patient tends to eat at a higher speed than normal and continues eating till she/he feels uncomfortably full.

Substance Related and Addictive Disorders

- It involves excessive intake of high caloric food resulting in extreme obesity and the abuse of substances such as alcohol or cocaine. Disorders relating to maladaptive behaviours resulting from regular and consistent use of the substance involved are included under substance related and addictive disorders.
- These disorders include problems associated with using and abusing drugs such as alcohol, cocaine and heroin. There are two sub-groups of substance-use disorders.

The three most common forms of substance abuse are as follows

- **Alcohol Abuse and Dependence** People who abuse alcohol, drink large amounts of alcohol regularly and rely on it to help them face difficult situations.
- **Heroin Abuse and Dependence** Heroin intake significantly interferes with social and occupational functioning. Most abusers develop a dependence on heroin and experience a withdrawal reaction when they stop taking it. The most direct danger of heroin abuse is an overdose, which slows down the respiratory centres in the brain, almost paralysing breathing and in many cases causing death.
- **Cocaine Abuse and Dependence** Regular use of cocaine may lead to a pattern of abuse in which the person may be intoxicated throughout the day and function poorly in social relationships and at work.

Practice Questions

- The latest system of clarification of psychological disorder is
(a) WHO (b) DSM-III R
(c) DSM-IV (d) ICD-9
- Developing a fear of entering unfamiliar situation is known as
(a) Panic disorder (b) Compulsive disorder
(c) Agoraphobia (d) Conversion disorder
- An individual reporting loss of part or some bodily functions is sign of
(a) Dissociative disorder (b) Panic disorder
(c) Mood disorder (d) Conversion disorder
- Children who have marked difficulties in social interaction and communication, desire for routine and restricted interests are suffering from
(a) Alogia (b) Impulsivity
(c) Hyperactivity (d) Autism
- Anxiety disorder may be caused due to which neurotransmitter
(a) GABA (b) ICD-10
(c) Serotonin (d) Dopamine
- Biological factors which influence our behaviour are
(a) Faulty genes (b) Endocrine imbalances
(c) Malnutrition (d) All of the above
- Galen elaborated on the role of four humours in personal character and temperament. According to him the material world is made up of four elements
(a) Earth, air, sky, water (b) Earth, fire, sky, water
(c) Earth, air, fire, water (d) Earth, sky, air, fire
- Match the following.

List I	List II
A. Generalised Anxiety Disorder	1. Anxiety attacks
B. Panic Disorder	2. Sudden temporary alterations of consciousness
C. Dissociative Disorders	3. Hypervigilance and motor tension

Codes

A	B	C
(a) 2	1	3
(c) 1	2	3
- People unable to prevent themselves from repeatedly carrying out a set of actions are affected by
(a) Manic-depressive disorder
(b) Panic disorder
(c) Somatoform disorders
(d) Obsessive-compulsive disorder
- Psychological difficulties and complaints of physical symptoms having no biological cause are known as
(a) Manic-Depressive disorders
(b) Panic disorders
(c) Somatic symptom disorders
(d) Obsessive-compulsive disorders
- An individual having sudden and temporary fluctuation of consciousness that blots out painful experiences is showing signs of
(a) Panic disorder
(b) Mood disorder
(c) Conversion disorder
(d) Dissociative disorder
- For the past six months, Julie has been exhausted, hopeless, and unable to enjoy her normal activities. She has no interest in spending time with friends and is having a hard time keeping up at work. The most likely diagnosis is
(a) Depression
(b) Schizotypal personality disorder
(c) Seasonal affective disorder
(d) Dissociative disorder
- While paying bills, Jen was suddenly overwhelmed by anxiety. Her heart pounded, she felt like she couldn't breathe, and she became dizzy. This was most likely
(a) A panic attack
(b) A dissociative episode
(c) A manic episode
(d) A generalized anxiety episode
- What refers to deviation from ideal mental health?
(a) Abnormality (b) Normality
(c) Dysfunction (d) Disorder
- According to which approach psychological problem are caused by inadequacies in the way an individual thinks feels or perceives the world?
(a) Organismic Approach
(b) Bio-psycho-Socio Approach
(c) Psychological approach
(d) Demonology
- Who emphasised that psychological conflict and disturbed interpersonal relationships as causes of psychological disorders?
(a) Johann Weyer (b) Lewis Terman
(c) Galen (d) Salovey
- Psychological disorders are deviant, distressing, dysfunctional and
(a) Disturbing
(b) Dangerous
(c) Dissociative
(d) None of the above

18. Which among the following term used when people develop a fear of entering unfamiliar situations.
(a) Social phobias (b) Agoraphobia
(c) Specific phobias (d) None of these
19. Which among the following disorders is diagnosed if a person has a persistent belief that she/he has a serious illness, despite medical reassurance, lack of physical findings and failure to develop the disease.
(a) Somatisation disorders
(b) Conversion disorders
(c) Dissociative disorder
(d) Hypochondriasis
20. Name the disorder which is Characterised by extensive but selective memory loss that has no known organic cause.
(a) Dissociative amnesia
(b) Dissociative fugue
(c) Dissociative identify disorder
(d) None of the above
21. In children's aggressive behaviour like dominating and bullying others without provocation is seen in
(a) Verbal aggression
(b) Physical aggression
(c) Hostile aggression
(d) Proactive aggression

22. Inattention and hyperactivity-impulsivity are main features of
(a) Attention-deficit Hyperactivity disorder.
(b) Appositional Defiant Disorder
(c) Conduct Disorder
(d) None of the above
23. People with somatoform disorders mostly complain about
(a) inability to stop thinking about a particular idea or topic.
(b) recurrent anxiety attacks.
(c) bodily symptoms without any physical disease.
(d) All of the above.
24. Which model states that psychological disorder develop when a diathesis (a tendency to suffer from a medical condition) is set off by a stressful situation?
(a) Behavioural Model
(b) Diathesis-Model
(c) Socio-Cultural Model
(d) Cognitive Model
25. Which among the following are commonly abused substances?
(a) Alcohol (b) Coffins
(c) Tobacco (d) All of these

ANSWERS

1. (c)	2. (a)	3. (c)	4. (d)	5. (a)	6. (c)	7. (b)	8. (d)	9. (d)	10. (c)
11. (c)	12. (a)	13. (a)	14. (a)	15. (c)	16. (d)	17. (b)	18. (b)	19. (d)	20. (a)
21. (d)	22. (a)	23. (c)	24. (b)	25. (d)					

CHAPTER 05

Therapeutic Approaches

- There are various types of psychotherapy. Some of them focus on acquiring self-understanding, some other therapies are more action-oriented.
- The effectiveness of a therapeutic approach for a patient depends on a number of factors such as severity of the disorder, degree of distress faced by others and the availability of time, effort and money among others.

Nature and Process of Psychotherapy

- Psychotherapy is a voluntary relationship between the client (patient) and the therapist. The purpose of the relationship is to help the client to solve the psychological problems being faced by her or him.
- Psychotherapies aim at changing the abnormal behaviours, decreasing the sense of personal distress and helping the client to adapt better to her/his environment.

Characteristics of Psychotherapy

Psychotherapeutic approaches have the following characteristics

- There is a systematic application of principles underlying the different theories of therapy.
- Persons who have received practical training under expert supervision only can practice psychotherapy. An untrained person may unintentionally cause more harm than any good.
- The therapeutic situation involves a therapist and a client who seeks and receives help for her/his emotional problems.

Goals of Psychotherapy

All psychotherapies aim at a few or all of the following goals

- Support client for attaining betterment
- Reduce emotional pressure
- Unfolding the potential for positive growth
- Modifying habits
- Changing thinking patterns
- Increasing self-awareness

- Improving interpersonal relations and communication
- Facilitating decision-making
- Becoming aware of one's choices in life
- Relating to one's social environment in a more creative and self-aware manner

Therapeutic Relationship

The special relationship between the client and the therapist is known as the therapeutic relationship or alliance. There are two major components of a therapeutic alliance, which are as follows

- (i) The first component is the **contractual** (protected) nature of the relationship in which two willing individuals, the client and the therapist, enter into a **partnership** which aims at helping the client to overcome her/his problems.
- (ii) The second component of therapeutic alliance is the limited duration of the therapy. This alliance lasts until the client becomes able to deal with her/his problems and take control of her/ his life.

Parameters of Classification of Psychotherapies

The classification of psychotherapies is based on the following parameters

- **Cause of the Problem** Psychodynamic therapy views intrapsychic conflicts i.e. the conflicts that are present within the psyche of the person, are the source of psychological problems. According to behaviour therapies, psychological problems arise due to faulty learning of behaviours and cognitions.
- **Existence of Cause** The behaviour therapy suggested that faulty conditioning patterns, faulty learning and faulty thinking and beliefs lead to abnormal (maladaptive) behaviours that, in turn, lead to psychological problems.
- **Method of Treatment** The cognitive methods employed in this type of therapy challenge the faulty thinking patterns of the client and help her/him to overcome psychological distress.

- **Nature of the Therapeutic Relationship** The behaviour therapy assumes that the therapist is able to detect the faulty behaviour and thought patterns of the client. The existential therapies emphasise that the therapist provides a **warm, empathic relationship**.
- **Chief Benefit to the Client** The behaviour therapy considers changing faulty behaviour and thought patterns to adaptive ones as the chief benefit of the treatment. Instituting adaptive or healthy behaviour and thought patterns ensures reduction of distress and removal of symptoms.
- **Duration of the Treatment** The duration of classical psychoanalysis may continue for several years. Behaviour and cognitive behaviour therapies as well as existential therapies are shorter and are completed in a few months.

Types of Therapies

- Psychotherapies differ greatly in concepts, methods and techniques. They may be classified into three broad groups, viz the **psychodynamic, behaviour and existential psychotherapies**.
- Behaviour therapy, cognitive therapy, humanistic-existential therapy and alternative therapies are discussed as follows

Psychodynamic Therapy

- The psychodynamic therapy was introduced by **Sigmund Freud**. It is the oldest form of psychotherapy. **Carl Jung** modified it as the analytical psychotherapy.
- Freud's descendants known as Neo-Freudians, established their own versions of classical psychodynamic therapy.
- The psychodynamic therapy conceptualised the structure of the psyche, dynamics between different components of the psyche and the source of psychological distress.

Behaviour Therapy

- This therapy claims that psychological distress arises because of faulty behaviour patterns or thought patterns.
- It is focused on the behaviour and thoughts of the client in the present. The past is relevant only to the extent of understanding the origins of the faulty behaviour and thought patterns.

Cognitive Therapy

These therapies revealed the cause of psychological distress in irrational thoughts and beliefs. Following approaches have been used as cognitive therapy

- **Rational Emotive Therapy (RET)** It was formulated by Albert Ellis. The central idea of this therapy is that irrational beliefs mediate between the antecedent events and their consequences.
- **Aaron Beck's Cognitive Therapy** Aaron Beck gave another cognitive therapy. His theory of psychological distress is characterised by anxiety or depression. It states that childhood experiences provided by the family and society develop core schemas or systems, which include beliefs and action patterns in the individual.
- **Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT)** Cognitive behaviour therapy is the most popular therapy. It is a short and efficacious treatment for a wide range of psychological disorders such as anxiety, depression, panic attacks and borderline personality disorder, etc.

Humanistic-Existential Therapy

- This therapy claims that psychological distress arises from feelings of loneliness, alienation and an inability to find meaning and genuine fulfilment in life.
- The therapy creates a permissive, non-judgemental and accepting atmosphere in which the client's emotions can be freely expressed and the complexity, balance and integration could be achieved.
- The fundamental assumption is that the client has the freedom and responsibility to control her/his own behaviour.
- The therapist is a facilitator and guide and the client himself is responsible for the success of therapy.

Factors Contributing to Healing in Psychotherapy

There are several factors which contribute to the healing process. Some of these factors are as follows

- A major factor in the healing is the techniques adopted by the therapist and the implementation of the same with the patient/client.
- The therapeutic alliance, which is formed between the therapist and the patient/client, has healing properties, because of the regular availability of the therapist and the warmth and empathy provided by the therapist.
- At the beginning of therapy, while the patient/client is being interviewed in the initial sessions to understand the nature of the problem, she/he unburdens the emotional problems being faced. This process of emotional unburdening is known as catharsis and it has healing properties.
- There are several factors attributed to the patient/client and some to the therapist. These factors are called non-specific.
- Non-specific factors attributable (available) to the client/patient are motivation for change, expectation of improvement due to the treatment, etc.

Alternative Therapies

There are alternative treatment possibilities to conventional drug treatment or psychotherapy. There are many alternative therapies such as yoga, meditation, acupuncture, herbal remedies and so on.

Yoga and Meditation

In the past 25 years, yoga and meditation have gained popularity as treatment programmes for psychological distress. Yoga is an ancient Indian technique detailed in the Ashtanga Yoga of Patanjali's Yoga Sutras. Yoga is commonly referred to the asanas or body posture component or to breathing practices or pranayama.

Meditation refers to the practice of focusing attention on breath or on an object or thought or a *mantra*. In *Vipasana* meditation, also known as **mindfulness-based meditation**, there is no fixed object or thought to hold the attention. The person passively observes the various bodily sensations and thoughts that are passing through in her or his awareness. Prevention of repeated episodes of depression may be treated by mindfulness-based meditation or *Vipasana*.

Sudarshana Kriya Yoga

In Sudarshana Kriya Yoga (SKY) the rapid breathing techniques are used to induce hyperventilation. It is beneficial for the treatment of stress, anxiety,

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), depression, stress related medical illnesses, substance abuse and rehabilitation of criminal offenders.

Kundalini Yoga

Kundalini Yoga is taught in the USA. It is effective in the treatment of mental disorders. The Institute for Non linear Science, University of California, San Diego, USA has found that Kundalini Yoga is effective in the treatment of obsessive compulsive disorder. *Kundalini Yoga* combines *pranayama* or breathing techniques with chanting of *mantras*.

Rehabilitation of the Mentally ILL

Rehabilitation is required to help patients become self-sufficient. The aim of rehabilitation is to empower the patient to become a productive member of society to the extent possible. In rehabilitation, the patients are given occupational therapy, social skills training and vocational therapy. These are discussed as follows

- In occupational therapy, the patients are taught skills such as candle making, paper bag making and weaving to help them to form a work discipline.
- Social skills training helps the patients to develop interpersonal skills through role play, imitation and instruction. The objective is to teach the patient to function in a social group.
- Cognitive retraining is given to improve the basic cognitive functions of attention, memory and executive functions. After the patient improves sufficiently, vocational training is given wherein the patient is helped to gain skills necessary to undertake productive employment.

Practice Questions

1. Repeated association of undesired response with an aversive consequence refers to
 - (a) Positive reinforcement
 - (b) Aversive conditioning
 - (c) Negative reinforcement
 - (d) Modelling
2. RET has been proposed by
 - (a) Abraham Maslow
 - (b) Albert Ellis
 - (c) Aaron Beck
 - (d) Carl Rogers
3. Cognitive therapy for the treatment of depression is given by
 - (a) Albert Ellis
 - (b) Sigmund Freud
 - (c) Aaron Beck
 - (d) None of these
4. Logotherapy is given by
 - (a) Victor Frankl
 - (b) Sigmund Freud
 - (c) Ivan Pavlov
 - (d) Carl Rogers
5. Systematic desensitisation begins with some form of
 - (a) Instrumental conditioning
 - (b) Relaxation training
 - (c) Instrumental training
 - (d) None of the above
6. Nishant feels very strongly that everyone should love him and he should be selected to represent the school for all competitions. When this does not happen, he feels miserable and is unable to concentrate. Which form of therapy would be the most suitable for him to overcome this problem?
 - (a) Cognitive therapy
 - (b) Psychodynamic therapy
 - (c) Behaviour therapy
 - (d) Biomedical therapy
7. Raman has been diagnosed with a psychological disorder. He approached a psychologist who prescribed certain psychotherapies for him. The goal of psychotherapies is to
 - (a) change the maladaptive behaviours
 - (b) decrease the sense of personal distress
 - (c) help the client to adapt better to his environment
 - (d) All of the above
8. Mukesh meets Mr. Kamlesh every week. Considering that Mr. Kamlesh is helping Mukesh to overcome his maladaptive behaviours for a certain period, the relation between Mukesh and Mr. Kamlesh will be called
 - (a) Mentor-student alliance
 - (b) Personal alliance
 - (c) Therapeutic alliance
 - (d) Contractual alliance

9. Choose the correct match for modality of treatment and description associated with it from the codes given below.

List I	List II
A. Transference	1. Client has to face an aspect of his/her psyche
B. Confrontation	2. Non-judgemental and permissive attitude of therapist that allows the client to continue with this process of emotional identification
C. Working through	3. Repeated process of using confrontation, clarification, and interpretation

Codes

A	B	C
(a) 2	1	3
(c) 1	3	2

10. Choose the correct match for each alternative therapies and description associated with it from the codes given below.

List I	List II
A. Ashtanga Yoga	1. Mindfulness-based meditation
B. Vipasana	2. Rapid breathing techniques to induce hyperventilation
C. Sudarshana Kriya Yoga (SKY)	3. Patanjali's Yoga Sutras

Codes

A	B	C
(a) 2	1	3
(c) 1	3	2

11. The technique used for treating phobia or irrational fear is?

- (a) Arthamatic (b) Casual
(c) Systematic (d) Weekly

12. combines cognitive theory with behavioural technique.

- (a) CBT (b) RET
(c) None of above (d) HET

13. is the case in which the client idolises, or falls in love with the therapist, and seeks the therapist's approval.

- (a) Transference neurosis (b) Positive transference
(c) Negative transference (d) None of the above

14. The central thesis of this therapy is that irrational beliefs mediate between the antecedent events and their consequences. Name the therapy?

- (a) Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT)

- (b) Rational Emotive Therapy (RET)
(c) Humanistic-Existential Therapy (HET)
(d) None of the above

15. The goal of is to increase an individual's self awareness and self acceptance.

- (a) Gestalt therapy (b) Client-centred therapy
(c) Logotherapy (d) None of the above

16. The rapid breathing techniques to induce hyperventilation is part of which yoga?

- (a) Sudarshana Kriya (b) Pranayama
(c) Kundalini (d) Ashtanga

17. Client-centred therapy was given by?

- (a) Frederick (b) Victor Frankl
(c) Carl Rogers (d) None of the above

18. The repeated process of using confrontation, clarification, and interpretation is known as?

- (a) Working through (b) Interpretation
(c) Resistance (d) Insight

19. Which among the following is a gradual process wherein the unconscious memories are repeatedly integrated into conscious awareness?

- (a) Insight (b) Resistance
(c) Working thought (d) Transference

20. Which therapy claims that psychological distress arises from feelings of loneliness and alienation?

- (a) Client-Centre Therapy
(b) Humanistic-Existential Therapy
(c) Electro-Convulsive Therapy
(d) Gestalt Therapy

21. Kundalini yoga is effective in treatment of

- (a) Mental Disorder (b) Physical Weakness
(c) Stress (d) None

22. The patients are taught to develop interpersonal skills through role play, imitation and instruction for rehabilitation, in which therapy?

- (a) Social skill training (b) Occupational therapy
(c) Cognitive retraining (d) Yoga

23. Which among the following is the procedure wherein the client learns to behave in a certain way by observing the behaviour of a role model or therapist who initially acts as the role model?

- (a) Modelling
(b) Differential Reinforcement
(c) Rational Emotive Therapy
(d) Aaron Beck's cognitive model

24. Who Formulated Rational Emotive Therapy?

- (a) Aaron Beck (b) Albert Ellis
(c) Victor Frankl (d) Frederick Perls

ANSWERS

1. (b)	2. (b)	3. (c)	4. (a)	5. (b)	6. (a)	7. (d)	8. (c)	9. (a)	10. (b)
11. (c)	12. (b)	13. (b)	14. (b)	15. (a)	16. (a)	17. (c)	18. (a)	19. (a)	20. (b)
21. (a)	22. (a)	23. (a)	24. (b)						

CHAPTER 06

Attitude and Social Cognition

Social psychology is that branch of psychology which investigates how the behaviour of an individual is affected by others and the social environment. All of us form attitudes or ways of thinking about specific topics and people.

Social Behaviour

- Social behaviour is a necessary part of human life. It is much more than just being in the company of others. Our social environment influences our **thoughts, emotions and behaviour** in complex ways.
- Social psychologists examine various forms of social behaviour and try to explain their basis.
- Two such examples are, social facilitation/inhibition i.e. the improvement or decline in performance in the presence of others. Pro-social behaviour is responding to others who are in need or distress.

Nature and Components of Attitude

- An attitude is a state of the mind, a set of views or thoughts, regarding some topic (called the 'attitude object'), which have an evaluative feature (positive, negative or neutral quality).
- It is accompanied by an emotional component and a tendency to act in a particular way with regard to the attitude object. If our views are not merely thoughts, but also have emotional and action components, then these views are the examples of attitudes.

Components of an Attitude

- The thought component is referred to as the **cognitive aspect**, the emotional component is known as the **affective aspect** and the tendency to act is called the **behavioural (or conative) aspect**.
- These three aspects have been referred to as the A-B-C components i.e. Affective-Behavioural and Cognitive components of attitude.

Features of an Attitude

Four significant features of attitude are as follows

- Valence (Positivity or Negativity)** The valence of an attitude tells us whether an attitude is positive or negative towards the an attitude object. A neutral attitude would have neither positive nor negative valence.
- Extremeness** The extremeness of an attitude indicates how positive or negative an attitude is. For example, if an individual rates nuclear research as 1 or 5, these are regarded as extreme ratings.
- Simplicity or Complexity (Multiplicity)** This feature refers to how many attitudes are there within a broader attitude. In case of various topics, such as health and world peace, people hold many attitudes instead of a single attitude. An attitude system is said to be simple if it contains only one or a few attitudes and complex if it is made up of many attitudes. The attitude towards a particular person is likely to consist of mainly one attitude.
- Centrality** This refers to the role of a particular attitude in the attitude system. An attitude with higher centrality would have a larger impact on other attitudes (non-central attitudes).

Attitude Formation and Change

Attitudes towards different topics, things and people are formed as we interact with others. However, there are specific conditions that lead to the formation of specific attitudes.

In general, attitudes are learned through one's own experiences and through interaction with others.

Process of Attitude Formation

The processes and conditions of learning may be different, resulting in varying attitudes among people. Various process of attitude formation are as follows

- Learning attitudes by association.
- Learning attitudes by being rewarded or punished
- Learning attitudes through modelling
- Learning attitudes through group or cultural norms
- Learning through exposure to information

Factors that Influence Attitude Formation

The following factors influence the learning of attitudes

- Family and school environment
- Reference groups
- Personal experiences
- Media-related influences

Attitude Change

During and after the process of attitude formation, attitudes may be changed and modified through various influences. Attitudes that are still in the formative stage, are much more likely to change compared to attitudes that have become firmly established and have become a part of the individual's values.

Process of Attitude Change

Three major concepts of processes in attitude change are described as follows

The Concept of Balance

- It was proposed by **Fritz Heider**. It is also described in the form of the **P-O-X triangle**, which represents the relationships between three aspects or components of the attitude.
 - P is the person whose attitude is being studied.
 - O is another person.
 - X is the topic towards which the attitude is being studied (attitude object).
- Consider the example of dowry as an attitude topic (X). A person has a positive attitude toward dowry (P-X positive). P is planning to get his son married to the daughter of some person O. O has a negative attitude towards dowry (O-X negative).
- If O initially has a positive attitude towards P, the situation would be unbalanced. P-X is positive, O-P is positive but O-X is negative. This situation is a situation of imbalance. One of the three attitudes will have to change to make the situation as a situation of balance.
- It is also possible that all three are persons. An attitude changes if there is a state of imbalance between the P-O attitude, O-X attitude and P-X attitude because imbalance is logically uncomfortable.
- Therefore, the attitude changes in the direction of balance. Imbalance is found when all three sides of the P-O-X triangle are negative or two sides are positive, and one side is negative. Balance is found when all three sides are positive or two sides are negative and one side is positive.

The Concept of Cognitive Dissonance

- It was proposed by **Leon Festinger**. It emphasises that the cognitive components of an attitude must be consonant (opposite of dissonant) i.e. they should be logically in line with each other.
- **Festinger and Carlsmith**, two social psychologists, conducted an experiment that showed the working of cognitive dissonance. Both balance and cognitive dissonance are examples of cognitive consistency.
- Cognitive consistency means that two components, aspects or elements of the attitude or attitude system, must be in the same direction. Each element should logically fall in line with other elements.
- If this does not happen, then the person experiences a kind of mental discomfort i.e. the sense that 'something is not quite right'.

The Two-Step Concept

It was proposed by **SM Mohsin**, an Indian psychologist. According to him, attitude change takes place in the form of two steps.

These are as follows

- (i) In the first step, the target of change identifies with the source. The target is the person whose attitude is to be changed. The source is the person through whose influence the change is to take place. Identification means that the target has liking and regard for the source.
- (ii) In the second step, the source herself/himself shows an attitude change, by actually changing her/his behaviour towards the attitude object. Observing the source's changed attitude and behaviour, the target also shows an attitude change through behaviour. This is a kind of imitation or observational learning.

Factors that Influence Attitude Change

Following are the major factors that influence attitude change

Characteristics of the Existing Attitude

All four features i.e. valence (Positivity and Negativity), extremeness, simplicity and centrality of attitudes determine attitude change. In general, positive attitudes are easier to change than negative attitudes.

Extreme attitudes and central attitudes are more difficult to change than the less extreme and peripheral (less significant) attitudes. Simple attitudes are easier to change than multiple attitudes.

An attitude change may be congruent (favourable), it may change in the same direction as the existing attitude (for example, a positive attitude may become more positive or a negative attitude may become more negative).

On the other hand, an attitude change may be **incongruent** (incompatible). It may change in a direction opposite to the existing attitude (for example, a positive attitude becomes less positive/negative or a negative attitude becomes less negative/positive). Moreover, an attitude may change in the direction of the information that is presented or in a direction opposite to that of the information presented.

Source Characteristics

Source credibility and attractiveness are two features that affect attitude change. Attitudes are more likely to change when the message comes from a highly credible source rather than from a low-credible source.

Message Characteristics The message is the information that is presented in order to bring about an attitude change. Attitudes will change when the amount of information that is given about the topic is just enough, neither too much nor too little. Whether the message contains a **rational** or an emotional appeal makes a difference.

Target Characteristics Qualities of the target, such as persuasibility, strong prejudices, self-esteem and intelligence influence the likelihood and extent of an attitude change. People who have a more open and flexible personality, change more easily. People with strong preconceptions are less prone or inclined to any attitude change.

Relationship between Attitude and Behaviour

Psychologists have found that there would be consistency between attitudes and behaviour when

- The attitude is strong and occupies a central place in the attitude system.
- The person is aware of her/his attitude.
- There is very little or no external pressure for the person to behave in a particular way.
- The person's behaviour is not being watched or evaluated by others.
- The person thinks that the behaviour would have a positive consequence and therefore, intends to engage in that behaviour.

Prejudice and Discrimination

Prejudices are examples of attitudes towards a particular group. They are usually negative and in many cases, may be based on stereotypes (the cognitive component) about the specific group. Prejudice may also grow as discrimination but prejudices can exist without showing discrimination. Similarly, discrimination can be shown without prejudice. Wherever prejudice and discrimination exist, conflicts are very likely to arise between groups within the same society.

Social psychologists have shown that prejudice has the following sources

- **Learning** Like other attitudes, prejudices can also be learned through association, reward and punishment, observing others, group or cultural norms and exposure to information that encourages prejudice. The family, reference groups, personal experiences and the media may play a role in the learning of prejudices.
- **A Strong Social Identity and Ingroup Bias** Individuals who have a strong sense of social identity and have a very positive attitude towards their own group boost this attitude by holding negative attitudes towards other groups. These are shown as prejudices.
- **Scapegoating** This is a phenomenon by which the majority group places the blame on a minority outgroup for its own social, economic or political problems. The minority is too weak or too small in number to defend itself against such accusations (complaints).
- **Kernel of Truth Concept** Sometimes people may continue to hold stereotypes because they think that there must be some truth or 'kernel of truth' in what everyone says about the other group.
- **Self-fulfilling Prophecy** In some cases, the group that is the target of prejudice is itself responsible for continuing the prejudice. The target group may behave in ways that justify the prejudice i.e. confirm the negative expectations.

Strategies for Handling Prejudice

The first step in handling prejudice is to know about its causes or sources. Thus, the strategies for handling prejudice would be effective if they aim at

- Minimising opportunities for learning prejudices.
- Changing prejudice attitudes.
- De-emphasising a narrow social identity based on the ingroup.
- Discouraging the tendency towards self-fulfilling prophecy among the victims of prejudice.

Social Cognition

- The term social cognition refers to all those psychological processes that deal with the gathering and processing of information related to social objects.
- These include all the processes that help in understanding, explaining and interpreting social behaviour.

Schemas and Stereotypes

- A schema is defined as a mental structure that provides a framework, set of rules or guidelines for processing information about any object.

- Schemas are the basic units stored in our memory and function as shorthand ways of processing information, thus reducing the time and mental effort required in cognition.
- Most of the schemas are in the form of categories or classes. Schemas that function in the form of categories are called **prototypes**, which are the entire set of features or qualities that help us to define an object completely. In social cognition, category-based schemas are related to groups of people which are called **stereotypes**.

Impression Formation and Explaining Behaviour of Others through Attributions

Every social interaction begins with the formation of an impression about the person(s) we meet. Impression formation and attribution are influenced by the following factors:

- The nature of information available to the perceiver.
- Social schemas in the perceiver (including stereotypes).
- Personality characteristics of the perceiver.
- Situational factors.

The process of coming to know a person can be broadly divided into two parts

Impression Formation

- The person who forms the impression is called the **perceiver**. The individual about whom the impression is formed is called the **target**. The perceiver gathers information or responds to a given information about the qualities of the target, organises this information and draws inferences about the target.
- The following aspects have been found in impression formation.
 - (i) **Selection** We take into account only some bits of information about the target person.
 - (ii) **Organisation** The selected information is combined in a systematic way.
 - (iii) **Inference** We draw a conclusion about what kind of person the target is.

Attribution of Causality

In attribution, the perceiver goes further and explains why the target behaved in a particular way. **Attaching** or **assigning** a cause for the target's behaviour is the main idea in attribution. If the situation requires it, perceivers may also make attributions to the target.

Behaviour in the Presence of Others

Performance on specific tasks is influenced by the mere presence of others. This is called **social facilitation**. In 1897, Norman Triplett observed that

individuals show better performance in the presence of others, than when they are performing the same task alone.

Performance of Social Facilitation

- Better performance in the presence of others is because the person experiences arousal, which makes the person react in a more intense manner. This explanation was given by **Zajonc**.
- The arousal is because the person feels that she or he is being evaluated. **Cottrell** called this idea as **evaluation apprehension**. The person will be praised if the performance is good (reward) or criticised if it is bad (punishment). We wish to get praise and avoid criticism, thus we always try to perform well and avoid our mistakes.
- The nature of the task to be performed also affects the performance in the presence of others. For example, in the case of a simple or familiar task, the person is more sure of performing well. So, the individual performs better in the presence of others than she/he does when alone.
- In the case of a complex or new task, the person may be afraid of making mistakes. Fear of criticism or punishment is stronger in him. So, the individual performs worse in the presence of others than she/he does when alone.

Pro-Social Behaviour

All religions teach us that we should help those who are in need. This behaviour is called helping or pro-social behaviour. Pro-social behaviour is very similar to altruism, which means doing something for or thinking about the welfare of others without any self-interest.

Some common examples of pro-social behaviour are sharing things, cooperating with others, helping during natural calamities, showing sympathy, doing favours to others and making charitable donations.

Pro-social behaviour has the following characteristics

- It aims to benefit or do good to another person or other persons.
- It must be done without expecting anything in return.
- It must be done willingly by the person and not because of any kind of pressure.
- It involves some difficulty or cost to the person giving help.

In spite of the great value and importance attached to pro-social behaviour, people always do not show such behaviour. People help the victims of natural calamity but sometime do not help the person who faces accident in roads. The obvious question arises here is under what conditions and with what motives do people help others.

Practice Questions

- Performance on specific tasks when influenced by the presence of other is called
(a) Attribution (b) Attitude
(c) Social Cognition (d) Schemas
- involves making summary of the ideas fast received and is restatement of what is understood.
(a) Attribute (b) Attitude
(c) Schemas (d) Social Cognition
- Cognitive units called which activates social cognition?
(a) Behaviour (b) Valence
(c) Schema (d) Attitude
- Which among the following is the phenomenon by which majority group places the blame on minority out group for its social, economic and political problems?
(a) Stereotype (b) Prejudice
(c) Social Cognition (d) Schemas
- Which among the following is a group based way of expressing frustration and is often results in negative attitudes or prejudice against the weaker group?
(a) Ingroup Bias (b) Kernel of True Concept
(c) Learning (d) Scapegoating
- Tarun's group has won the elections from his constituency. His opponents, Ramesh and his group, are weak and too small in number. Tarun often expresses frustration and negative attitude towards Ramesh's group. This is known as
(a) Learning (b) Scapegoating
(c) Stereotype (d) Ingroup Bias
- is an example of negative attitude towards people.
(a) Prototype (b) Stereotype
(c) Discrimination (d) Prejudice
- Which among the following is the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and causes of individual behaviour and thought in social situations.
(a) Social psychology (b) Child psychology
(c) Clinical Psychology (d) Counselling psychology
- Which among the following are attitudes that contain a 'should' or 'ought' aspect?
(a) Beliefs (b) Values
(c) Stereotypes (d) Prejudices
- The feature which refers to the number of attributes within a broader attitude is
(a) valence (b) multiplexity
(c) centrality (d) extremeness
- Improvement in behaviour due to presence of other individuals is known as
(a) Imitation (b) Social facilitation
(c) Interaction (d) None of these
- When people attribute failure to task difficulty they are referring to following factors?
(a) External, stable
(b) Internal, stable
(c) External, unstable
(d) Internal, unstable
- Making inferences about personal qualities of people on meeting them is called.
(a) Social cognition
(b) Pro-social behaviour
(c) Impression formation
(d) Social facilitation
- A person has a somewhat positive attitude towards empowerment of women. Reading about a successful woman made this attitude more positive. This is an example of attitude change.
(a) Incongruent (b) Congruent
(c) Dissonant (d) Cognitive
- In 1957, Leon Festinger published his theory of
(a) Balance (b) Cognitive dissonance
(c) Attribution (d) None of these
- Cluster or ideas regarding the characteristics of a specific group is known as
(a) Progressive (b) Stereotype
(c) Belief (d) Attitude
- Prejudice is a type of
(a) Attitude (b) Instinct
(c) Emotion (d) Motivation
- Making inferences about personal qualities of people on meeting them is called
(a) Social cognition
(b) Pro-social behaviour
(c) Impression formation
(d) Social facilitation
- Improvement in behaviour due to presence of other individual is known as
(a) Imitation
(b) Social facilitation
(c) Interaction
(d) None of the above
- The phenomenon by which we infer the causes behind an individual's behaviour is
(a) Social facilitation (b) Attribution
(c) Persuasion (d) None of these
- The feature which refers to the number of attributes within a broader attitude is
(a) Valence (b) Multiplexity
(c) Centrality (d) Extremeness
- A mental structure that guides social cognition is
(a) Prototype (b) Stereotype
(c) Schema (d) None of these

23. An augmentation in behaviour due to the presence of other individuals is known as
(a) Imitation (b) Social facilitation
(c) Interaction (d) None of these

24. Choose the correct match for each concept and psychologist associated with it from the codes given below.

List I

- A Concept of Balance
B Concept of Cognitive Dissonance
C Two-Step Concept

List II

- 1 Leon Festinger
2 S.M. Mohsin
3 Fritz Heider

Codes

A B C

(a) 2 1 3

(c) 1 2 3

A B C

(b) 1 3 2

(d) 3 1 2

25. Consider the following term related with attitude and social cognition and match them with their correct definition.

List I

- A. Perceiver
B. Stereotypes
C. Arousal
D. Diffusion of Responsibility

List II

1. Category-based schemas that are related to groups of people
2. Better performance in the presence of others
3. When a person thinks that it is not his/her responsibility alone to give help, and that someone else may take the responsibility

4. The person who forms the impression

Codes

A B C D

(a) 3 1 2 4

(c) 4 2 1 3

A B C D


(b) 4 1 2 3

(d) 1 4 2 3

ANSWERS

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (a) | 2. (b) | 3. (c) | 4. (a) | 5. (d) | 6. (b) | 7. (d) | 8. (a) | 9. (b) | 10. (b) |
| 11. (b) | 12. (c) | 13. (c) | 14. (b) | 15. (b) | 16. (b) | 17. (a) | 18. (c) | 19. (b) | 20. (b) |
| 21. (b) | 22. (c) | 23. (b) | 24. (a) | 25. (b) | | | | | |

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CHAPTER 07

Social Influence and Group Processes

In this chapter we shall try to understand about Groups and their influence on our behaviour. Similarly, we would try to understand about group conflicts and strategies to resolve conflicts for harmonious and united society.

Nature and Formation of Groups

A group may be defined as an organised system of two or more interdependent individuals, who have common motives and norms to regulate the behaviour of its members.

A group not only provides us the needed support and comfort but also facilitates our growth and development as an individual. It is very important to be a part of group which influences us positively and helps us in becoming good citizens.

Characteristics of a Group

Groups have the following salient characteristics

- It is a social unit consisting of two or more individuals who perceive themselves as belonging to the group.
- It is a collection of individuals who have common motives and goals. A group functions to achieve a desired goal or to keep away from certain threats faced by the group.
- It is a collection of individuals who are interdependent.
- Individuals who are trying to satisfy a need through their joint association also influence each other.
- It is a gathering of individuals who interact with one another either directly or indirectly.
- It is a collection of individuals whose interactions are structured by a set of roles and norms. This means that the group members perform the same functions every time the group meets. Norm specify the behaviours expected from the group members.

Groups can be differentiated from other collections of people.

These are

- **Crowd** It is a collection of people who may be present at a place/situation by chance. Behaviour of people in crowds is irrational and there is no interdependence among members.
- **Teams** These are special kinds of groups. Members of teams often have complementary skills and are committed to a common goal or purpose. Members are mutually accountable for their activities.
- **Audience** It is a collection of people who have assembled for a special purpose.

Reasons of Joining Groups

People join groups because these groups satisfy a range of needs. Following are reasons to join groups

- For security
- For status
- For self-esteem
- For satisfaction of one's psychological and social needs
- For goal achievement
- For providing knowledge and information

Group Formation

Groups are formed by making contacts through or interactions between people. This interaction is facilitated by the following conditions

Proximity Repeated interactions with the same set of individuals give us a chance to know them and their interests and attitudes.

Similarity Being exposed to someone over a period of time makes us assess our similarities and paves the way for formation of groups.

Common Motives and Goals When people have common motives or goals, they get together and form a group which may facilitate their goal attainment.

Stages of Group Formation

Tuckman suggested that groups pass through five developmental sequences. These are as follows

- (i) Forming
- (ii) Storming
- (iii) Norming
- (iv) Performing
- (v) Adjourning

Group Structure

During the process of group formation, groups also develop a structure as members interact. Over the time, this interaction shows regularities in distribution of task to be performed, responsibilities assigned to members and the prestige or relative status of members.

Four important elements of group structure are as follows

- (i) **Roles** Roles refer to the typical behaviour that depicts a person in a given social context.
- (ii) **Norms** These are expected standards of behaviour and beliefs established, agreed upon and enforced by group members.
- (iii) **Status** It refers to the relative social position given to group members by others. This relative position or status may be either ascribed or achieved.
- (iv) **Cohesiveness** Cohesiveness refer to the team spirit or 'we feeling' a sense of belongingness to the group.

Types of Groups

Groups may be different in many respects. Some have a large number of members some are small some are short-lived, some remain together for many years some are highly organised others are informally organised. Major types of groups are discussed below

Primary and Secondary Groups

- **Primary groups** are pre-existing formations, which are usually given to the individual. Thus, **family, caste and religion** are primary groups.
- In a primary group, there is a face-to-face interaction, members have close physical proximity and they share warm emotional bonds.
- Primary groups are central to individual's functioning and have a very major role in developing values and ideals of the individual during the early stages of development.
- **Secondary groups** are those which the individual joins by choice. Membership of a political party is an example of a secondary group.
- Secondary groups are those where relationships among members are more impersonal, indirect and less frequent. In secondary groups, it is easy to leave and join another group.

Formal and Informal Groups

- The formation of formal groups is based on some specific rules or laws and members have definite roles. There are a set of norms which help in establishing order. A university is an example of a formal group.
- The functions of a formal group are explicitly (clearly) stated in the case of an office organisation. The formation of informal groups is not based on rules or laws and there is close relationship among members.

Ingroup and Outgroup

- The term ingroup refers to one's own group and outgroup refers to another group. For ingroup members, we use the word 'we' while for outgroup members, the word 'they' is used.
- Members of the outgroup are viewed differently and are often perceived negatively in comparison to the ingroup members.
- Perceptions of ingroup and outgroup affect our social lives.

Influence of Group on Individual Behaviour

Groups are powerful, as they are able to influence the behaviour of individuals. Two situations to understand the nature and impact of group influence are as follows

- (i) An individual performing an activity alone in the presence of others (social facilitation).
- (ii) An individual performing an activity along with the others as part of a larger group (social loafing).

Social Loafing

- Social loafing is a reduction in individual effort when working in a group. Such situations give opportunities to group members to relax and become a free rider.
- This phenomenon has been demonstrated in many experiments by Latane and his associates. They asked group of male students to clap or cheer as loudly as possible because they wanted to know how much noise people make in social settings. The result revealed that although the total amount of noise rose up, the amount of noise produced by each participant dropped.

Group Polarisation

- Group polarisation focuses on how groups usually make decisions that are more extreme than the original thoughts and views of the individual team members.
- It refers to the tendency of a group to make decisions that are more extreme than the initial inclination of its members.

This firm conviction is because of the following three reasons

- (i) In the company of like-minded people, you are likely to hear newer arguments favouring your viewpoints.
- (ii) When you find others also favouring capital punishment, you feel that this view is validated by the public. This is a type of **bandwagon effect**.
- (iii) When you find people having similar views, you are likely to perceive them as ingroup. You start identifying with the group, begin showing conformity and as a consequence your views become strengthened.

Conformity, Compliance and Obedience

- The term social influence refers to those processes whereby our attitudes and behaviours are influenced by the real or imagined presence of other people. Social influence is a part of our life.
- In some situations, social influence on us is very strong as a result of which we tend to do things which we otherwise would have not done.
- On other situations, we are able to defy influence of others and may even influence them to adopt our own viewpoint.
- **Kelman** distinguished three forms of social influence, viz. compliance, identification, and internalisation. According to Kelman, compliance refers to behaving in a particular way in response to a request made by someone.
- Identification refers to influence process based on agreement-seeking or identity-seeking and internalisation is a process based on information-seeking.

Types of Social Influence

Conformity

It is a type of social influence which involves a change in belief or behaviour in order to fit in with a group.

The tendency to follow a norm is natural due to the following reasons:

- (i) **Firstly**, norms represent a set of unwritten and informal 'rules' of behaviour that provide information to members of a group about what is expected of them in specific situations.
- (ii) **Secondly**, in general, people feel uncomfortable if they are considered different from others. Behaving in a way that differs from the expected form of behaviour may lead to disapproval or dislike by others, which is a form of social punishment. Following the norm is thus, the simplest way of avoiding disapproval and obtaining approval from others.

- (iii) **Thirdly**, the norm is seen as reflecting the views and beliefs of the majority. Most people believe that the majority is more likely to be right rather than wrong.

Compliance

- Compliance refers to behaving in response to a request from another person or group even in the absence of a norm.
- For example, when a sales person comes to my place, we often find that we really do not wish to buy his product. But after some conversation it is really surprising that we have bought his product which he wished to sell.

Obedience

- When compliance is shown to an instruction or order from a person in authority, such as parents, teachers, leaders or policemen, that behaviour is called obedience. For example, you may stop talking loudly in the classroom when the teacher asks you to keep quiet, but not when your classmate tells you to do the same thing.

Cooperation and Competition

- When groups work together to achieve shared goals, we refer to it as cooperation. The rewards in cooperative situations are group rewards and not individual rewards. However, competition occurs when members try to maximise their own benefits and work for the realisation of self-interest.
- Social groups may have both competitive as well as cooperative goals. **Competitive goals** are set in such a way that each individual can get her/his goal only if others do not attain their goals.
- A **cooperative goal** on the other hand, is one in which each individual can attain the goal only if other members of the group also attain the goal.
- **Deutsch** investigated cooperation and competition within groups. In cooperative groups, there was more coordination, acceptance for each other's ideas and members were more friendly than those in the competitive group. The main concern of the members of the cooperative group was to see that the group excels. Competition between individuals within a group may result in conflict and disharmony, but competition between groups may increase within group cohesion and solidarity.

Determinants of Cooperation and Competition

Some of the important factors are given below

- (i) **Reward Structure** Cooperative reward structure is one in which there is promotive interdependence. Each is beneficiary of the reward and reward is possible only if all contribute. A competitive reward structure is one in which one can get a reward only if others do not get it.

- (ii) **Interpersonal Communication** When there is good interpersonal communication, then cooperation is the likely consequence. Communication facilitates interaction and discussion. As a result, group members can convince each other and learn about each other.
- (iii) **Reciprocity** It means that people feel bound to return what they get. Initial cooperation may encourage more cooperation. Competition may provoke more competition. If someone helps, you feel like helping that person; on the other hand, if someone refuses to help you when you need help, you would not like to help that person also.

Social Identity

- Social identity refers to one's self-definition. This self-definition may include both personal attributes, e.g. hard working, happy-go-lucky or attributes which you share with others, e.g. girl or boy.
- Some aspects of our identity are determined by our physical characteristics. Sometimes, we perceive ourselves as unique individuals and at other times we perceive ourselves as members of groups.
- Our personal identities derived from the views of oneself as a unique individual and social identities derived from groups we perceive ourselves to be members of, are both important to us.
- Social identity is that aspect of our self-concept which is based on our group membership.
- Social identity tells us what and where we are in the larger social context and thus helps us to locate ourselves in society. It provides members with a shared set of values, beliefs and goals about themselves and about their social world.

Intergroup Conflict : Nature and Causes

- Conflict is a process in which either an individual or a group perceives that others have opposing interests and both try to contradict each other.
- There is a feeling of **we** and **other** or **they** between the groups. There is also a belief by both parties that the other will protect only its own interests and their (the other side's) interests will therefore, not be protected. There is not only opposition of each other, but they also try to exert power on each other.

Causes of Intergroup Conflict

Following are some of the major causes for group conflicts

- One major cause is lack of communication and faulty communication by both parties. This kind of communication leads to suspicion, (lack of trust) which results in conflicts.
- Another cause for intergroup conflict is relative deprivation. It arises when members of a group compare themselves with members of another group.
- Another cause of conflict is one party's belief that it is better than the other, and what it is saying should be done. When this does not happen, both parties start accusing each other.
- A feeling that the other group does not respect the norms of our group and actually violates those norms because of a malevolent intent.

Consequences of Intergroup Conflict

Deutsch identified the following consequences of intergroup conflict

- Communication between the groups becomes poor. The groups do not trust each other, thereby leading to a breakdown in communication and this generates suspicion for each other.
- Groups start magnifying their differences and start perceiving their behaviour as fair and the other's behaviour as unfair.
- Each side tries to increase its own power and legitimacy. As a consequence, the conflict gets escalated shifting from few specific issues to much larger issues.
- Once conflict starts, several other factors lead to escalation of conflict. Hardening of ingroup opinion, explicit threats directed at the outgroup, each group retaliating more and more and other parties also choosing to take sides lead to escalation of conflict.

Conflict Resolution Strategies

A number of strategies have been suggested by psychologists to resolve the conflicts. Some of these are

- Introduction of superordinate goals
- Altering perceptions
- Increasing intergroup contacts
- Redrawing group boundaries
- Negotiations
- Structural solutions
- Respect for other group's norms

Practice Questions

- Repeated interactions with the same set of individuals give us a change to know them and their interests and attitudes.
(a) Similarity (b) Proximity
(c) Common Motives (d) Storming
- What were the reasons of joining group by people?
(i) Security
(ii) Status
(iii) Self-esteem
(iv) Satisfaction of psychological needs
Choose the correct options from below.
(a) (i) and (ii) (b) (ii) and (iv)
(c) (i), (ii) and (iv) (d) All of these
- A collection of people around a road side performer is an example of
(a) Crowd (b) Group
(c) Mob (d) Audience
- Working together to achieve a shared goal is called
(a) Co-operation (b) Compliance
(c) Conformity (d) Obedience
- Binding or mutual attraction among the group members is referred to as
(a) Cohesiveness (b) Status
(c) Norms (d) Roles
- Tendency of group to take extreme decision is called
(a) Social Loafing (b) Group Polarisation
(c) Peer pressure (d) None of these
- The term which refers to one's own group is called?
(a) Ingroup (b) Outgroup
(c) Formal group (d) Informal group
- Membership of a club is an example of
(a) Primary group
(b) Secondary group
(c) Outgroup
(d) Large group
- Behaving according to the group norms is called
(a) Compliance (b) Conformity
(c) Obedience (d) Co-operation
- Sherif Summer Camp Experiments is based on
(a) Cooperation and competition
(b) Obedience
(c) Compliance
(d) Personality
- Feeling of togetherness that keep a group intact is
(a) Norms (b) Role
(c) Status (d) Cohesiveness
- The pioneering experiment on conformity was carried by
(a) Sherif (b) Deutsch
(c) Latane (d) None of these
- is a consequence of extreme cohesiveness.
(a) Perceptions (b) Group interaction
(c) Group think (d) None of these
- A collection of people assembled for a particular purpose is called an
(a) Audience (b) Views (c) Mob (d) Spectators
- Extreme cohesiveness in groups results in
(a) Group think (b) Group polarisation
(c) Both (a) and (b) (d) None of these
- After a long discussion, the initial position of the group became much stronger, thus, demonstrating the effect of
(a) Group polarisation
(b) Group conformity
(c) Group think (d) Group cohesiveness
- People who have assembled to watch a cricket match are at one place, but are not interdependent on each other. It is an example of
(a) Group (b) Collection
(c) Single unit (d) Multi unit
- Suppose you are going on the road and an accident takes place, such collection of people is
(a) Crowd (b) Team
(c) Family (d) Association
- What is a collection of people who may be present at a place/situation by chance.
(a) Crowd (b) Family
(c) Group (d) Association
- Choose the correct match for each concept related with group formation and with its description from the codes given below.

List I	List II
A Proximity	1 A stage of intragroup conflict
B Storming	2 The structure of the group has evolved and is accepted by group member.
C Performing	3 Repeated interactions with the same set of individuals

Codes

A	B	C	A	B	C
(a) 2	1	3	(b) 1	3	2
(c) 3	1	2	(d) 1	3	2

21. Choose the correct match for each concept related to determinants of cooperation and competition from the codes given below.

List I	List II
A Cooperative reward	1 Facilitates interaction, and discussion
B Interpersonal communication	2 Promotive interdependence
C Reciprocity	3 To feel obliged to return what they get

Codes

	A	B	C
(a)	2	1	3
(b)	3	1	2

22. It means that people feel bound to return what they get. Initial cooperation may encourage more cooperation?

- (a) Reward Structure
(b) Interpersonal Communication
(c) Reciprocity
(d) Intergroup Competition

23. The Book 'Mind of a Man' is written by

- (a) Gardner Murphy
(b) Maslow
(c) Vygotsky
(d) Gustav Spiller

ANSWERS

1. (b)	2. (d)	3. (a)	4. (a)	5. (a)	6. (b)	7. (a)	8. (b)	9. (a)	10. (a)
11. (d)	12. (a)	13. (c)	14. (a)	15. (a)	16. (a)	17. (b)	18. (a)	19. (a)	20. (a)
21. (b)	22. (c)	23. (d)							

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Psychology and Life

Introduction

- Environment influence our physical health, psychological processes and behaviour. People's mood and well-being are affected by various elements of the built environment including spatial allocations, lighting access to nature, colour, indoor air quality, noise and other factors.
- Some of the ill-effects of unhealthy environment like noise pollution, disaster etc can act as stressors.
- The ill-effect of environmental stressors can be reduced through environment friendly behaviour.

Human-Environment Relationship

- The relationship between human behaviour and the environment plays a special role in our lives. Many of environmental problems has damaging effect on human health.
- These environmental problems includes air pollution, water pollution, soil pollution and noise pollution. In addition, garbage disposal also poses a problem when disposed in unscientific way.

Environmental Psychology

- A branch of psychology that deals with various psychological issues concerning to the human-environment interaction is called environmental psychology.
- Ecology is the study of the relationships between living beings and their environment. In psychology, the focus is on the interdependence between the environment and people.
- The part of nature which remains untouched by human hand is the **natural environment**.
- On the other hand, whatever has been created by human beings within the natural environment is the **built environment**.

- The built environment usually involves the concept of environmental design. The idea of design contains some psychological features such as
 - The creativity of the human mind, as expressed in the work of architects, town planners and civil engineers.
 - The sense of human control over the natural environment, as shown in the building of dams to regulate the natural flow of rivers.
 - The kind of social interaction also reflects certain psychological features. These feature is reflected in the distance between houses in a colony, the location of rooms within a home or in the arrangement of work desks and seats in an office for formal and informal gatherings.

Different Views Regarding Human Environment Relationship

A psychologist named Stokols (1990) describes three approaches that may be adopted to describe the human-environment relationship

- (i) The minimalist perspective assumes that the physical environment has minimal or negligible influence on human behaviour, health and well-being.
- (ii) The instrumental perspective suggests that the physical environment exists mainly for use by human beings for their comfort and well-being.
- (iii) The spiritual perspective refers to the view of the environment as something to be respected and valued rather than exploited.

Environmental Effects on Human Behaviour

The human-environment relationship can be appreciated fully by understanding that the two influence each other and depend on each other for their survival and maintenance.

Some of the effects of environment on human behaviour pointed out by psychologists are described below

- (i) **Environmental Influence on Perception** Some aspects of the environment influence human perception. For example, a tribal society of Africa lives in circular huts i.e. in houses without angular walls.

They show less error in a geometric illusion like the Muller-Lyer illusion than people from cities, who live in houses with angular walls.

- (ii) **Environmental Influence on Emotions** The environment affects our emotional reactions as well. Natural disasters, such as floods, droughts, landslides etc can affect peoples emotions to such an extent that they experience deep depression and sorrow or a sense of complete helplessness

- (iii) **Ecological Influence on Occupation, Living Style and Attitudes**

The natural environment of a particular region determines whether people living in that region rely on agriculture (as in the plains) or on other occupations such as hunting and gathering or on industries. In turn, the occupation determines the lifestyle and attitudes of the residents of a particular geographical region.

Human Influence on the Environment

Human beings also exert their influence on the natural environment for fulfilling their physical needs and other purposes. Some of the human actions harm and damage the environment and ultimately harm themselves, in numerous ways. For example,

- Human beings use appliances such as refrigerators and air conditioners that generate chemical substances that pollute the air and may be responsible for physical diseases such as some forms of cancer.
- Smoking is known to pollute the air around us and the burning of plastic or metal articles has disastrous polluting effects on the environment.
- Cutting down trees or deforestation may disrupt the carbon cycle and the water cycle.
- Industries that discharge effluents and transport this untreated sewage into rivers, seem to be unconcerned about the dangerous physical and psychological consequences of this kind of pollution.
- It is paradoxical that human beings use technology to change the natural environment in order to improve the quality of their life, but in reality, these may worsen their quality of life.

Environmental Stressors

Noise, pollution, crowding and natural disasters are some examples of environmental stressors, which are conditions or stimuli in the environment that create a stress for human beings. The stressors are noise, pollution, crowding and natural disasters.

Noise

- Any sound that is annoying or irritating and felt to be unpleasant is said to be noise. Noise has negative effects on mental activity because it reduces concentration.
- Three characteristics of noise have been found to determine its effect on task performance, namely, **intensity, predictability and controllability** of noise.

Pollution

- Environmental pollution may be in the form of air, water and soil pollution. Waste or garbage that comes from households or from industries are a big source of air, water and soil pollution.
- Environmental pollution may affect the nervous system because of the presence of toxic substances.
- Emotional reactions to pollution creates discomfort and have consequences such as decreased work efficiency, lowered interest in the job and increase in anxiety level.
- Those living in the industrial area reported greater tension and anxiety than those living in a non-industrial residential area.

Crowding

- Crowding refers to a feeling of discomfort because there are too many people or things around us, giving us the experience of physical restriction and sometimes the lack of privacy.
- Crowding is the person's reaction to the presence of a large number of persons within a particular area or space. When this number goes beyond a certain level, it causes stress to individuals caught in that situation.

The experience of crowding has the following features

- Feeling of discomfort.
- Loss or decrease in privacy.
- Negative view of the space around the person.
- Feeling of loss of control over social interaction.

Natural Disasters

- Natural disasters are stressful experiences that are the result of nature's fury, i.e. the consequence of disturbances in the natural environment.
- Common examples of natural disasters are **earthquakes, tsunamis, floods, cyclones and volcanic eruptions**.
- Natural Disasters leave people poverty-stricken, homeless, without any resources, usually alongwith loss of everything they owned.
- This disorder has the following features

- **Immediate Reaction** People take some time to understand the full meaning of what the disaster has done to them.
- **Physical Reactions** These types of reactions like bodily exhaustion even without physical activity, difficulty in sleeping, change in eating pattern, increased heartbeat and blood pressure etc. can be found among victims.
- **Emotional Reactions** Grief, fear, irritability, helplessness, anger, depression etc. can be found.
- **Cognitive Reactions** Worry, difficulty in concentration, reduced span of attention, confusion, loss of memory or vivid memories are unwanted.
- **Social Reactions** These reactions like withdrawal from others, getting into conflict with others, having frequent arguments with even dear ones and feeling rejected are considered as very important for our life.

Promoting Pro-Environmental Behaviour

Pro-environmental behaviour includes both actions that are meant to protect the environment from problems and to promote a healthy environment. Some promotive actions to protect the environment from pollution are

- Reducing air pollution by keeping vehicles in good condition.
- Reducing noise pollution by ensuring that noise levels are low.
- Managing disposal of garbage sensibly.
- Special attention has to be paid to the management of industrial and hospital waste.
- Planting trees and ensuring their care.
- Reducing the non-biodegradable packaging of consumer goods.

Psychology and Social Concerns

Poverty and violence are the main problems that our society faces today. Both of these phenomena have noticeable effects on the physical as well as psychological health of people. These problems can be resolved only if we examine their psychological causes.

Poverty and Discrimination

- Some experts define poverty mainly in economic terms and measure it in terms of income, nutrition and the amount spent on basic necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter.
- Poverty is a condition in which there is a lack of necessities of life in the context of unequal distribution of wealth in society.
- The **sense of deprivation and social disadvantage** are additional features of poverty.

- In the context of poverty, discrimination refers to the behaviour that makes a distinction between the rich and the poor, favouring the rich over the poor.

Psychological Characteristics and Effects of Poverty and Deprivation

Poverty and deprivation have adverse effects on motivation, personality, social behaviour, cognitive processes and mental health.

- In terms of motivation, the poor have low aspirations and low achievement motivation and high need for dependence.
- With regard to personality, the poor and deprived have low self-esteem, are high on anxiety and introversion.
- Among the effects of prolonged deprivation on cognitive functioning, it has been found that intellectual functioning and performance on tasks is lower among the highly deprived as compared to those who are less deprived.

Aggression, Violence and Peace

- **Aggression** refers to any behaviour by one person/persons that is intended to cause harm to another person/persons.
- Forceful destructive behaviour towards another person or object is described as **violence**.
- Some psychologists distinguish aggression from violence by pointing out that aggressive behaviour involves the intention to harm or injure another person, whereas violence may or may not involve such an intention.
- A distinction is also made between **instrumental aggression** and **hostile aggression**. In instrumental aggression, the act of aggression is meant to obtain a certain goal or object.
- Hostile aggression is that which is shown as an expression of anger towards the target, with the intention of harming her/ him, even if the aggressor does not wish to obtain anything from the victim.

Causes of Aggression

Social psychologists have explored the issue of aggression for several years and have come up with the following views about the causes of aggression

- Inborn Tendency** Aggressiveness is an inborn tendency among human beings. Biologically, this inborn tendency may be meant for self-defence.
- Physiological Mechanisms** Aggression could also be indirectly triggered by physiological mechanisms, especially by the activation of certain parts of the brain that play a role in emotional experience.

- (iii) **Child Rearing** The way an individual is brought up often influences her/his aggressiveness.
- (iv) **Frustration** Aggression is an expression and consequence of frustration i.e. an emotional state that arises when a person is prevented from reaching a goal or attaining an object that she/he wants.

Frustration-Aggression Theory

An American psychologist, **John Dollard** along with his collaborators, conducted research specifically to examine the frustration-aggression theory. This theory proposes that it is frustration that leads to aggression. As expected, frustrated persons did demonstrate more aggression than non-frustrated persons.

Situational Factors of Aggression

Some of the situational factors are described below

- **Learning** Among human beings, aggression is largely the result of learning rather than an expression of an inborn tendency.
- **Observing an Aggressive Model** Many research studies conducted by psychologists such as Albert Bandura and his associates show the role of modelling in learning aggression.
- **Anger-provoking Action by Others** If a person watches a movie that shows violence and is then made to feel angry by another person, she/he may be more likely to show aggression than if she/he is not made to feel angry.
- **Availability of Weapons of Aggression** Some researchers have found that observing violence leads to a greater likelihood of aggression on the part of the observer only if weapons of aggression like a stick, pistol or knife are easily available.
- **Personality Factors** When interacting with people we notice that some of them seem to be 'naturally' more hot tempered and show more aggression than others.
- **Cultural Factors** The culture in which one grows up can teach its members to be aggressive or not by encouraging and praising aggressive behaviour or discouraging and criticising such behaviour.

Measures to Reducing Aggression and Violence : Some Strategies

Some of the remedies suggested for curbing violence and aggression are described below

- Parents and teachers should be specially careful not to encourage or reward aggression in any form.
- Opportunities to observe and imitate the behaviour of aggressive models should be reduced drastically.
- Implementing social justice and equality in society may help in reducing frustration levels and thereby curb aggressive tendencies at least to some extent.

- Apart from these strategies, at the level of the community or society, it is important to introduce a positive attitude towards peace.

Health

- According to World Health Organisation (WHO), health includes biological, psychological and social aspects. It focuses not only on physical but also on mental and spiritual aspects.
- The World Health Reports by the WHO show that in developing countries such as in Asia, Africa and Latin America, more people die due to communicable diseases including HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis (TB), malaria, respiratory infections and nutritional deficiencies.

Some factors that influence our health and psychological responses are

Cognitions

One may not seek doctor's help for a cold if one attributes it to eating curd or for leprosy or smallpox if these are attributed to God's annoyance.

The variations in seeking help are due to differences in mental representations people make relating to disease, its severity and the causes of disease.

Behavioural Factors

Behaviours and our lifestyles greatly influence our health. People differ greatly in terms of behavioural risk factors such as smoking or tobacco use, alcohol and drug abuse and unsafe sexual behaviour, diet and physical exercise.

Social and Cultural Factors

Social and cultural differences may influence our physiological responses and may not be the same across all cultures. For instance, the relationship between hostility and anger and CHD is not found to be the same in all cultures, (e.g. in India and China).

Impact of Television on Behaviour

Children are more vulnerable to the impact of television than adults. Some impacts of television on behaviour are as follows:

- Television watching may have an effect on children's ability to concentrate on one target, their creativity and ability to understand and also their social interactions.
- The research showed that watching violence on television was, indeed, linked to greater aggressiveness in the viewers.
- Some other research findings show that watching violence may actually reduce the natural aggressive tendency of the viewers.
- In the case of adults as well as children, a consumerist attitude has developed due to television watching. Numerous products are advertised and it is very natural for the viewer to get carried away.

Practice Questions

- The study of the relationship between living beings and their environment is
(a) Biology (b) Ecology
(c) Zoology (d) None of these
- Some examples of environmental stressors are
(a) Noise (b) Pollution
(c) Crowding (d) All of these
- State in which a person feels she/he has lost something valuable and is not getting what she/he deserves is known as
(a) Discrimination (b) Deprivation
(c) Poverty (d) Disadvantage
- An overt behaviour intended to hurt someone either physically or verbally is
(a) Jealousy (b) Envy
(c) Aggression (d) None of these
- studies the role of modelling in learning aggression.
(a) Karl Jung (b) J.B. Watson
(c) Albert Bandura (d) None of these
- Your friend thinks that the physical environment has minimal or negligible influence on human behaviour, health and well-being. Identify the views exhibited by him.
(a) The instrumental perspective
(b) The spiritual perspective
(c) The minimalist perspective
(d) None of the above
- Consider the customs of the Bishnoi Community of Rajasthan, and the Chipko Movement in the Uttarakhand region. Identify views shared by them.
(a) The instrumental perspective
(b) The spiritual perspective
(c) The minimalist perspective
(d) None of the above
- Match the list-I with List II with the help of the codes given below.

List I	List II
1. Intimate distance	(i) Work Setting
2. Social distance	(ii) Close friend
3. Personal distance	(iii) Teacher
4. Public distance	(iv) Formal interaction

Codes

- (a) 1-(ii), 2-(iv), 3-(i), 4-(iii)
(b) 1-(iv), 2-(i), 3-(ii), 4-(iii)
(c) 1-(iv), 2-(ii), 3-(i), 4-(iii)
(d) 1-(i), 2-(iv), 3-(ii), 4-(iii)

- Physical environment exists mainly for use by human beings for their comfort is suggested by which perspective?
(a) Environmental (b) Cognitive
(c) Instrumental (d) Personal
- Choose the correct match for each concept related with different views of the Human-Environment relationship and with its description from the codes given below:

List I	List II
1. Minimalist perspective	(i) Physical environment has minimal or negligible influence on human behaviour, health and wellbeing
2. Instrumental perspective	(ii) Environment as something to be respected and valued rather than exploited
3. Spiritual perspective	(iii) The physical environment exists mainly for use by human beings for their comfort and well-being.

Codes

- (a) 1-(ii), 2-(i), 3-(iii) (b) 1-(i), 2-(iii), 3-(ii)
(c) 1-(iii), 2-(i), 3-(ii) (d) 1-(i), 2-(iii), 3-(ii)

- Frustration aggression theory was proposed by?
(a) Stokols (b) John Dollard
(c) Albert Bandura (d) Jean Piaget
- A branch of psychology called deals with various psychological issues pertaining to the human-environment interactions in a very broad sense of the term?
(a) Behavioural Psychology
(b) Social Psychology
(c) Environmental Psychology
(d) Interaction Psychology
- Ajit is an unemployed youth. Sometime he shows aggression to his younger sister. This type of behaviour is known as?
(a) Displacement (b) Crowding
(c) Rehabilitation (d) Frustration
- Which perspective suggests that physical environment exists mainly for use by human beings for the comfort?
(a) Instrumental (b) Spiritual
(c) Minimalist (d) Behavioural
- Mandeep wants to clean the river in the village. He is actively working to achieve his goal. This behaviour is a part of behaviour.
(a) Instrumental
(b) Pro-environmental
(c) Minimalist
(d) Spiritual

16. Forceful destructive behaviour towards another person or object is termed as?
(a) Aggression
(b) Violence
(c) Frustration
(d) None of the above
17. An emotional state that arises when a person is prevented from reaching a goal, or attaining an object that s/he wants?
(a) Aggression
(b) Frustration
(c) Depression
(d) None of these
18. You are talking to your very good friend. Identify the interpersonal distance in this situation?
(a) Intimate distance
(b) Public distance
(c) Personal distance
(d) Social distance
19. helps to alleviate stress due diseases through modification in behaviour?
(a) Counselling
(b) Behaviour Medicine
(c) Psychiatric help
(d) Rehabilitation
20. Which among the following are the causes of Aggression?
(a) Inborn Tendency
(b) Physiological mechanisms
(c) Child Rearing
(d) All of these
21. Frustration aggression theory was proposed by?
(a) John Maltan
(b) John Jollard
(c) Kogan
(d) Guilford
22. Identify the first step as a treatment towards psychological disorders?
(a) 20 providing material relief
(b) Counselling
(c) Psychiatric help
(d) Rehabilitation

ANSWERS

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (b) | 2. (d) | 3. (b) | 4. (c) | 5. (c) | 6. (c) | 7. (b) | 8. (a) | 9. (c) | 10. (b) |
| 11. (b) | 12. (c) | 13. (a) | 14. (a) | 15. (b) | 16. (b) | 17. (b) | 18. (c) | 19. (b) | 20. (d) |
| 21. (b) | 22. (b) | | | | | | | | |

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Developing Psychological Skills

Introduction

- Psychology has two kinds of application related images: first, as a service-oriented discipline and second, as a scientific method-driven research discipline. Both these are interrelated and inseparable. There are certain factors which contribute in making psychology application-oriented.
- **First**, psychologist have found, that solutions to many problems require an understanding of psychological principles and they have to respond with concrete solutions.
- **Second**, the expertise of psychologists has been highly valued in recent time. Over the past few years, there is a growing acceptability and demand of psychology as a profession.

Psychologists

It is generally assumed that psychologists have interest in people, their abilities and temperaments. A psychologist required to have interest in other people and exhibits a willingness to provide help by using her/his knowledge of the discipline.

In psychology, a client may refer to an individual/group/organisation who on her/his own seeks help, guidance or intervention from a psychologist with respect to any problem faced by her/him.

Skills of Psychologists

- The term **skill** may be defined as proficiency, facility or dexterity that is acquired or developed through training and experience.
- American Psychological Association (1973) in their task force identified three skills that are essential for professional psychologists. These are:
 - (i) Assessment of individual differences.
 - (ii) Behaviour modification skills.
 - (iii) Counselling and guidance skills.

Developing as an Effective Psychologist

- It is now recognised that the knowledge of tools used by psychologists, their methods and theories are required to develop psychological expertise.
- Some psychologists carry out research to propound or investigate theoretical formulations while others are concerned with our daily life activities and behaviour. There are conditions and competencies for psychologists which have come to be recognised internationally.
- They cover a range of knowledge that a psychologist should possess when entering the profession after completing her/his education and training. These apply to practitioners, academicians and researchers whose roles involve consulting with students, business, industry and broader community.
- The basic skills or competencies which psychologists have identified for becoming an effective psychologist fall into three broad sections, namely:
 - (i) General Skills
 - (ii) Observational Skills
 - (iii) Specific Skills

General Skills

- These skills are generic in nature and are needed by all psychologists irrespective of their field of specialisation.
- These skills are essential for all professional psychologists, whether they are working in the field of clinical and health psychology, industrial/organisational, social, educational or in environmental settings or are acting as consultants.

- These skills include personal as well as intellectual skills.

Intellectual and Personal Skills

- **Interpersonal Skills** These include ability to listen and be empathic, to develop respect for/interest in others' cultures, experiences, values, points of view, goals and desires, fears, openness to receive feedback, etc. These skills are expressed verbally and/or non-verbally.
- **Cognitive Skills** These include ability to solve problems, engage in critical thinking and organised reasoning and having intellectual curiosity and flexibility.
- **Affective Skills** These include emotional control and balance, tolerance/understanding of interpersonal conflict, tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty.
- **Personality/Attitude** It includes desire to help others, openness to new ideas, ethical behaviour and personal courage.
- **Expressive Skills** These include ability to communicate one's ideas, feelings and information in verbal, non-verbal and written forms.
- **Reflective Skills** These include ability to examine and consider one's own motives, attitudes, behaviours and ability to be sensitive to one's own behaviour or others.
- **Personal Skills** These include personal organisation, personal hygiene, time management and appropriate dress.

Observational Skills

- These skills include paying attention, watching and listening carefully to the people. Psychologists use all the senses, noticing what is seen, heard, smelt, tasted or touched.
- In addition to physical surroundings, a psychologist actively engages in observing people and their actions. This may include the demographic features (age, gender, stature, race, etc), ways of dealing and relating with others, pattern of behaviours in the presence of others, etc.
- A psychologist records every details because something of significance may be revealed in the process of observation.

Approaches to Observation

- Two major approaches to observation are naturalistic observation and participant observation.
- **Naturalistic Observation** It is one of the primary ways of learning about the way people behave in a given setting.
- **Participant observation** It is the variation of the method of naturalistic observation. Here the observer is actively involved in the process of observing by becoming an active member of the setting where the observation takes place.

Specific Skills

These skills are core/basic to the field of psychological service. Specific skills and competencies are required for a very specialised professional functioning. They are not exclusive to an area.

Relevant specific skills and competencies can be classified as follows

- Communication Skills** Communication is one of the most important skills we will need to succeed in life. Communication is a conscious or unconscious, intentional or unintentional process in which feelings and ideas are expressed as verbal and/or non-verbal messages that are sent, received, and comprehended.

Characteristics of Communication

- Communication is dynamic
- Communication is continuous
- Communication is irreversible
- Communication is interactive

Components of Human Communication

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------------|
| • Speaking | • Listening |
| • Reception | • Attention |
| • Paraphrasing | • Assignment of Meaning |

- Psychological Testing Skills** They involve psychological assessment, evaluation and problem solving with individuals and groups, organisation and the community. Psychological tests have been devised and are primarily used for the determination and analysis of individual differences in general intelligence, differential aptitudes, educational achievement, vocational fitness, personality, social attitudes and various non-intellectual characteristics.
- Interviewing Skills** An interview is a purposeful conversation between two or more people that follows a basic question and answer format. Interviewing is more formal than most other conversations because it has a preset purpose and uses a focussed structure.
- Counselling Skills** Counselling is one such domain where a person entering the field is required to engage in self-observation in order to assess her/his inclination and basic skill set for being effective in her/his vocation (work). Counselling provides a system for planning the interview, analysing the counsellor's and client's behaviour and determining the developmental impact on the client.

Practice Questions

1. Which of the following characteristics is related to effective counsellors?
(a) Authenticity (b) Empathy
(c) Paraphrasing (d) All of these
2. The ability of a counsellor to reflect on what the client says and feels using different words is known as
(a) Decoding (b) Communication
(c) Listening (d) Paraphrasing
3. Counselling is a helping relationship and a counsellor should possess skills of
(a) Positive regard (b) Empathy
(c) Paraphrasing (d) All of these
4. The initial step in the listening process is
(a) Attention to stimulus
(b) Reception of stimulus
(c) Paraphrasing of sentences
(d) Assignment of meaning
5. Which of the following are not the section of basic skills?
(a) General skills (b) Natural skills
(c) Specific skills (d) Observational skills
6. A psychologist has proficiency, facility or dexterity that is acquired or developed through training and experience. The characteristics like proficiency, facility or dexterity are
(a) Training (b) Skill
(c) Teaching ability (d) None of these
7. Your teacher asked you to restate the topics taught by him. While, restating the topics, you did not repeat his exact words. Instead, you made a summary of the ideas. This is called
(a) Reception (b) Paraphrasing
(c) Body language (d) Speaking
8. Choose the correct match for each types of intellectual and personal skills with its description from the codes given below

List I	List II
1. Cognitive Skills	(i) Emotional control and balance.
2. Affective Skills	(ii) Ability to examine and consider one's own motives, attitudes, behaviours.
3. Reflective Skills	(iii) Ability to solve problems.

Codes

- (a) 1-(ii), 2-(i), 3-(iii)
(b) 1-(i), 2-(iii), 3-(ii)
(c) 1-(iii), 2-(i), 3-(ii)
(d) 1-(i), 2-(iii), 3-(ii)

9. Choose the correct match for types of interview questions and its description from the codes given below

List I	List II
1. Direct	(i) It requires a yes or no response.
2. Bipolar	(ii) It encourages a response in favour of a specific answer.
3. Leading	(iii) They are intended to get a person to reflect on what she or he had said and expand on it.
4. Mirror	(iv) They are explicit and require specific information.

Codes

- (a) 1-(iii), 2-(i), 3-(ii), 4-(iv)
(b) 1-(iv), 2-(i), 3-(ii), 4-(iii)
(c) 1-(iv), 2-(ii), 3-(i), 4-(iii)
(d) 1-(i), 2-(iv), 3-(ii), 4-(iii)

10. None-verbal acts in any talk are referred to as?
(a) Listening (b) Talking
(c) Body language (d) Reception
11. involves making summary of the ideas just received and is restatement of what is understood.
(a) Attention (b) Speaking
(c) Listening (d) Paraphrasing
12. is a helping relationship which involves someone seeking help and someone willing and trained to give help?
(a) Communication
(b) Psychological Testing skills
(c) Counselling
(d) Interviewing skills
13. A psychologist engages in observing various facts of surrounding including people and varying events. Thus, basic skill of psychologist is known as?
(a) Communication (b) Observation skill
(c) Speaking (d) Listening
14. One can communicate and exchange message without using any verbal language. These acts of communication are a part of?
(a) Personal (b) Mass
(c) Group (d) Non-verbal
15. What is defined as proficiency, facility or dexterity that is acquired or developed through training and experience?
(a) Skill (b) Talent
(c) Intelligence (d) None
16. observation is one of the primary ways of learning about the way people behave in a given setting?
(a) Participant (b) Naturalistic
(c) Ethical (d) None

17. Which among the following communication refers to the communication that takes place between two or more persons who established a communicative relationship?
(a) Verbal
(b) Intrapersonal
(c) Interpersonal
(d) None
18. Which among the following language is composed of all those messages that people exchange besides words?
(a) Body language
(b) Sign language
(c) Loud language
(d) Verbal language
19. Activities such as thought process, personal decision making, focusing on self is called?
(a) Private Communication
(b) Interpersonal Communication
(c) Mass Communication
(d) Group Communication
20. Which among the following are types of Interview?
(a) Open-Ended Question
(b) Close-Ended Question
(c) Leading-Question
(d) All of these
21. Qualities of effective counsellor are
(a) Empathy
(b) Authenticity
(c) Paraphrasing
(d) All of these

ANSWERS

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|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (b) | 2. (d) | 3. (d) | 4. (b) | 5. (c) | 6. (b) | 7. (b) | 8. (c) | 9. (c) | 10. (c) |
| 11. (d) | 12. (c) | 13. (b) | 14. (d) | 15. (a) | 16. (b) | 17. (b) | 18. (a) | 19. (b) | 20. (d) |
| 21. (d) | | | | | | | | | |

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