Biyani's Think Tank

Concept based notes

Under Graduation Program

(B.A. Ist Sem.) with

Psychology

(Paper - Introduction to Psychology)

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SYLLABUS OF PSYCHOLOGY FOR B.A FIRST SEM.

PAPER- INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

Unit- I

INTRODUCTION: Definition and Goals of Psychology; History- Structuralism, Functionalism, Psychoanalysis, Behaviorism and Gestalt psychology; Modern Perspectives: Biological, Psychodynamic, Behavioral, Cognitive, Humanistic, Evolutionary and Socio-cultural; Methods- Observation, Case Study, Surveys and Experimental.

Unit- II

BIOLOGICAL BASIS OF BEHAVIOR: The Nervous System: Functions of Neuron, Structure and Functions of Central Nervous System and Peripheral Nervous System.

Unit- III

ATTENTION, SENSATION AND PERCEPTION: Attention: Meaning & Nature. Sensation- Meaning, Sensory Receptors, Sensory Thresholds, Habituation and Sensory Adaptation. Perception- Meaning, Constancies- Size, Shape and Brightness, Gestalt Principles, Factors Influencing Perception.

Unit- IV

PERSONALITY: Definition; Type Theories and Trait Theories - Allport, Cattell, McCrae and Costa; Personality Assessment- Self-report Inventories, Projective Tests and Behavioural Assessments.

Suggested Readings:

Baron, R.A. (2003).Psychology (5th ed.). Delhi: Pearson Education. Carson,R.C., Butcher,J.N.,Mineka,S.& Hooley,J.M. (2008). Abnormal Psychology.New Delhi: Pearson. Cicarelli, S.K., & Meyer, G.E. (2007). Psychology. New Delhi: Pearson Publishers.

UNIT- I

INTRODUCTION

Q.1 What Is Psychology?

Ans. Psychology is the study of mind and behavior. It encompasses the biological influences, social pressures, and environmental factors that affect how people think, act, and feel.

Gaining a richer and deeper understanding of psychology can help people achieve insights into their own actions as well as a better understanding of other people.

Types of Psychology

Psychology is a broad and diverse field that encompasses the study of human thought, behavior, development, personality, emotion, motivation, and more. As a result, some different subfields and specialty areas have emerged. The following are some of the major areas of research and application within psychology:

Abnormal psychology is the study of abnormal behavior and psychopathology. This specialty area is focused on research and treatment of a variety of mental disorders and is linked to psychotherapy and clinical psychology.

Biological psychology (biopsychology) studies how biological processes influence the mind and behavior. This area is closely linked to neuroscience and utilizes tools such as MRI and PET scans to look at brain injury or brain abnormalities.

Clinical psychology is focused on the assessment, diagnosis, and treatment of mental disorders.

Cognitive psychology is the study of human thought processes including attention, memory, perception, decision-making, problem-solving, and language acquisition.

Comparative psychology is the branch of psychology concerned with the study of animal behavior. **Developmental psychology** is an area that looks at human growth and development over the lifespan including cognitive abilities, morality, social functioning, identity, and other life areas.

Forensic psychology is an applied field focused on using psychological research and principles in the legal and criminal justice system.

Industrial-organizational psychology is a field that uses psychological research to enhance work performance and select employees.

Personality psychology focuses on understanding how personality develops as well as the patterns of thoughts, behaviors, and characteristics that make each individual unique.

Social psychology focuses on group behavior, social influences on individual behavior, attitudes, prejudice, conformity, aggression, and related topics.

Q.2 Explain the historical background of psychology.

Ans. Early psychology evolved out of both philosophy and biology. Discussions of these two subjects date as far back as the early Greek thinkers, including Aristotle and Socrates.

The word "psychology" itself is derived from the Greek word psyche, literally meaning "life" or "breath." Derived meanings of the word include "soul" or "self."

The emergence of psychology as a separate and independent field of study truly came about when Wilhelm Wundt established the first experimental psychology lab in Leipzig, Germany in 1879.

Throughout psychology's history, various schools of thought have formed to explain the human mind and behavior. In some cases, certain schools of thought rose to dominate the field of psychology for a period of time.

The following are some of the major schools of thought in psychology.

Structuralism: Wundt and Titchener's structuralism was the earliest school of thought, but others soon began to emerge.

Functionalism: The early psychologist and philosopher William James became associated with a school of thought known as functionalism, which focused its attention on the purpose of human consciousness and behavior.

Psychoanalysis: Soon, these initial schools of thought gave way to several dominant and influential approaches to psychology. Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis centered on how the unconscious mind impacted human behavior.

Behaviorism: The behavioral school of thought turned away from looking at internal influences on behavior and sought to make psychology the study of observable behaviors.

Humanistic psychology: Later, the humanistic approach centered on the importance of personal growth and self-actualization.

Cognitive psychology: By the 1960s and 1970s, the cognitive revolution spurred the investigation of internal mental processes such as thinking, decision-making, language development, and memory.

While these schools of thought are sometimes perceived as competing forces, each perspective has contributed to our understanding of psychology.

Q.3 Explain the modern perspective of psychology.

Ans. Seven major perspectives of modern psychology: There are many different ways of thinking about human behavior. Psychologists utilize a variety of perspectives when studying how people think, feel, and behave. Some researchers focus on one specific school of thought, such as the biological perspective, while others take a more eclectic approach that incorporates multiple points of view. There is no single perspective that is "better" than another; each simply emphasizes different aspects of human behavior.

Major Perspectives in Modern Psychology

The early years of psychology were marked by the domination of a succession of different schools of thought. If you have ever taken a psychology course in school, you probably remember learning about these different schools which included structuralism, functionalism, psychoanalysis, behaviorism, and humanism. As psychology has grown, so has the number and variety of topics that psychologists investigate. Since the early 1960s, the field of psychology has flourished and continues to grow at a rapid pace, and so has the depth and breadth of subjects studied by psychologists.

Today, few psychologists identify their outlook according to a particular school of thought. While you may still find some pure behaviorists or psychoanalysts, the majority of psychologists instead categorize their work according to their specialty area and perspective.

Different Approaches to the Same Topic

Every topic in psychology can be looked at in a number of different ways. For example, let's consider the subject of aggression. Someone who emphasizes a biological perspective would look at how the brain and nervous system impact aggressive behavior. A professional who stresses a behavioral perspective would look at how environmental variables reinforce aggressive actions. Another psychologist who utilizes a cross-cultural approach might consider how cultural and social influences contribute to aggressive or violent behaviors.

Here are seven of the major perspectives in modern psychology.

1. **The Psychodynamic Perspective**

The psychodynamic perspective originated with the work of Sigmund Freud. This view of psychology and human behavior emphasizes the role of the unconscious mind, early childhood experiences, and interpersonal relationships to explain human behavior and to treat people suffering from mental illnesses.

Psychoanalysis became one of the earliest major forces within psychology thanks to Freud's work and influence. Freud conceived of the mind as being composed of three key elements: the id, the ego, and the superego. The id is the part of the psyche that includes all the primal and unconscious desires. The ego is the aspect of the psyche that must deal with the demands of the real world. The superego is the last part of the psyche to develop and is tasked with managing all of our internalized morals, standards, and ideals.

While the psychodynamic perspective is not as dominant today, it continues to be a useful psychotherapeutic tool.

2. **The Behavioral Perspective**

Behavioral psychology is a perspective that focuses on learned behaviors. Behaviorism differs from many other perspectives because instead of emphasizing internal states, it focuses solely on observable behaviors.

This approach to psychology was founded on the work of psychologists such as Edward Thorndike and John B. Watson.2 While this school of thought dominated psychology early in

the twentieth century, it began to lose its hold during the 1950s. Today, the behavioral perspective is still concerned with how behaviors are learned and reinforced. Behavioral principles are often applied in mental health settings, where therapists and counselors use these techniques to explain and treat a variety of illnesses.

3. The Cognitive Perspective

During the 1960s, a new perspective known as cognitive psychology began to take hold. This area of psychology focuses on mental processes such as memory, thinking, problem-solving, language, and decision-making.3 Influenced by psychologists such as Jean Piaget and Albert Bandura, this perspective has grown tremendously in recent decades.

Cognitive psychologists often utilize an information-processing model, comparing the human mind to a computer, to conceptualize how information is acquired, processed, stored, and utilized.

4. The Biological Perspective

The study of physiology played a major role in the development of psychology as a separate science. Today, this perspective is known as biological psychology. Sometimes referred to as biopsychology or physiological psychology, this point of view emphasizes the physical and biological bases of behavior.4

Researchers who take a biological perspective on psychology might look at how genetics influence different behaviors or how damage to specific areas of the brain influence behavior and personality. Things like the nervous system, genetics, the brain, the immune system, and the endocrine systems are just a few of the subjects that interest biological psychologists.

This perspective has grown significantly over the last few decades, especially with advances in our ability to explore and understand the human brain and nervous system. Tools such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans and positron emission tomography (PET) scans allow researchers to look at the brain under a variety of conditions. Scientists can now look at the effects of brain damage, drugs, and disease in ways that were simply not possible in the past.

5. The Cross-Cultural Perspective

Cross-cultural psychology is a fairly new perspective that has grown significantly over the last twenty years. Psychologists and researchers in this school of thought look at human behavior across different cultures. By looking at these differences, we can learn more about how culture influences our thinking and behavior.5

For example, researchers have looked at how social behaviors differ in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. In individualistic cultures, such as the U.S., people tend to exert less effort when they are part of a group, a phenomenon known as social loafing. In collectivistic cultures such as China, however, people tend to work harder when they are part of a group.

6. The Evolutionary Perspective

Evolutionary psychology is focused on the study of how evolution explains physiological processes.6 Psychologists and researchers take the basic principles of evolution, including natural selection, and apply them to psychological phenomena. This perspective suggests that these mental processes exist because they serve an evolutionary purpose—they aid in survival and reproduction.

7. The Humanistic Perspective

During the 1950s, a school of thought known as humanistic psychology emerged. Influenced greatly by the work of prominent humanists such as Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow, this perspective emphasizes the role of motivation in thought and behavior.

Concepts such as self-actualization are an essential part of this perspective. Those who take the humanist perspective focus on the ways that human beings are driven to grow, change, and develop their personal potential. Positive psychology, which focuses on helping people live happier, healthier lives, is one relatively recent movement in psychology that has its roots in the humanist perspective.

Q.4 What are the goals of psychology?

Ans. The Goals of Psychology: The four main goals of psychology are to describe, explain, predictand change the behavior and mental processes of others.

To Describe

Describing a behavior or cognition is the first goal of psychology. This can enable researchers to develop general laws of human behavior.

For example, through describing the response of dogs to various stimuli, Ivan Pavlov helped develop laws of learning known as classical conditioning theory.

To Explain

Once researchers have described general laws behavior, the next step is to explain how or why this trend occurs. Psychologists will propose theories which can explain a behavior

To Predict

Psychology aims to be able to predict future behavior from the findings of empirical research. If a prediction is not confirmed, then the explanation it is based on might need to be revised.

For example, classical conditioning predicts that if a person associates a negative outcome with stimuli they may develop a phobia or aversion of the stimuli.

To Change or Control

Once psychology has described, explained and made predictions about behavior, changing or controlling a behavior can be attempted. For example, interventions based on classical conditioning, such as systematic desensitization, have been used to treat people with anxiety disorders including phobias.

Research methods

Q.5 Describe the different types of research methods of psychology.

Ans. Psychologists use many different methods for conducting research. Each method has advantages and disadvantages that make it suitable for certain situations and unsuitable for others.

Descriptive or Correlational Research Methods

Case studies, surveys, naturalistic observation, and laboratory observation are examples of Descriptive or Correlational Research Methods. Using these methods, researchers can describe different events, experiences, or behaviors and look for links between them. However, these methods do not enable researchers to determine causes of behavior.

Remember: Correlation Is not The Same As Causation. Two factors may be related without one causing the other to occur. Often, a third factor explains the correlation.

Example: A psychologist uses the survey method to study the relationship between balding and length of marriage. He finds that length of marriage correlates with baldness. However, he can't infer from this that being bald causes people to stay married longer. Instead, a third factor explains the correlation: both balding and long marriages are associated with old age.

Measuring Correlation

A Correlation Coefficient measures the strength of the relationship between two variables. A correlation coefficient is always a number between –1 and +1. The sign (+ or –) of a correlation coefficient indicates the nature of the relationship between the variables. A Positive Correlation (+) means as one variable increases, the other too.

Example: The more years of education a person receives, the higher his or her yearly income is. A Negative Correlation (–) means that when one variable increases, the other one decreases.

Example: The more hours a high school student works during the week, the fewer A's he or she gets in class. The higher the correlation coefficient, the stronger the correlation is. A +0.9 or a –0.9 indicates a very strong correlation; a +0.1 or a –0.1 indicates a very weak correlation. A correlation of 0 means no relationship exists between two variables.

Common correlational research methods include case studies, surveys, naturalistic observation, and laboratory observation.

Case Studies

In a Case Study, a researcher studies a subject in depth. The researcher collects data about the subject through interviews, direct observation, psychological testing, or examination of documents and records about the subject.

Surveys

A Survey is a way of getting information about a specific type of behavior, experience, or event. When using this method, researchers give people questionnaires or interview them to obtain information.

When subjects fill out surveys about themselves, the data is called Self-Report Data. Self-report data can be misleading because subjects may do any of the following:

Lie intentionally

Give answers based on wishful thinking rather than the truth Fail to understand the questions the survey asks

Forget parts of the experience they need to describe

Naturalistic Observation

When using naturalistic observation, researchers collect information about subjects by observing them unobtrusively, without interfering with them in any way. Researchers create a record of events and note relationships among those events. With naturalistic observation, researchers face the challenge of getting a clear view of events without becoming noticeable to the subjects.

Laboratory Observation

As the name implies, researchers perform Laboratory Observation in a laboratory rather than in a natural setting. In laboratory observation, researchers can use sophisticated equipment to measure and record subjects' behavior. They can use one-way mirrors or hidden recording devices to observe subjects more freely while remaining hidden themselves. Unlike observation in a natural setting, laboratory observation offers researchers some degree of control over the environment.

Psychological Tests

Researchers use Psychological Tests to collect information about personality traits, emotional states, aptitudes, interests, abilities, values, or behaviors. Researchers usually Standardize these tests, which means they create uniform procedures for giving and scoring them. When scoring a test, researchers often compare subjects' scores to Norms, which are established standards of performance on a test. A well-constructed standardized test can evaluate subjects better than self- report data.

SEC - B

BIOLOGICAL BASIS OF BEHAVIOR

Q.1 What is role of Biological factors on Psychology?

Ans. Biological psychology, also called physiological psychology or behavioral neuroscience, the study of the physiological bases of behaviour. Biological psychology is concerned primarily with the relationship between psychological processes and the underlying physiological events—or, in other words, the mind-body phenomenon. Its focus is the function of the brain and the rest of the nervous system in activities (e.g., thinking, learning, feeling, sensing, and perceiving) recognized as characteristic of humans and other animals. Biological psychology has continually been involved in studying the physical basis for the reception of internal and external stimuli by the nervous system, particularly the visual and auditory systems. Other areas of study have included the physiological bases for motivated behaviour, emotion, learning, memory, cognition, and mental disorders. Also considered are physical factors that directly affect the nervous system, including heredity, metabolism, hormones, disease, drug ingestion, and diet.

Theories of the relationship between body and mind date back at least to Aristotle, who conjectured that the two exist as aspects of the same entity, the mind being merely one of the body's functions. In the dualism of French philosopher René Descartes, both the mind and the soul are spiritual entities existing separately from the mechanical operations of the human body. Related to this is the psychological parallelism theory of German philosopher Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz. Leibniz believed that mind and body are separate but that their activities directly parallel each other. In recent times behaviourists such as American psychologist John B. Watson moved away from consideration of the spiritual or mental and focused on observable human and animal behaviours and their relationship to the nervous system.

Q.2 Explain nervous system?

Ans. The nervous system is an organ system that handles communication in the body. There are four types of nerve cells in the nervous system: sensory nerves, motor nerves, autonomic nerves and inter-neurons (neuron is just a fancy word for nerve cell). You can divide up all the nerves in the body into roughly two parts: the central nervous system and the peripheral nervous system.

Central Nervous System (CNS)

The central nervous system contains two organs—the brain and the spinal cord. It has all four types of nerve cells and is the only place you can find inter-neurons. The central nervous system is insulated from the outside world pretty well. It never even touches blood. It gets its nutrients from cerebrospinal fluid, a clear liquid that bathes the brain and spinal cord.

Both organs are covered with three layers of membranes called the meninges. The meninges and cerebrospinal fluid cushion the brain to keep it from being injured by a knock on the noggin. It's possible to get an infection from viruses or bacteria in the meninges called meningitis. It's also possible to have bleeding either between the meninges and the skull (called an epidural hematoma) or in between the layers of the meninges (called a subdural hematoma). Any bleeding or infection inside the skull can put pressure on the brain and cause it to malfunction.

The central nervous system is like the guts of your computer (maybe the computer you're using to read this). It's in there with millions of connections moving little impulses around from circuit to circuit (nerve to nerve), calculating and thinking. Your brain makes all the calculations and stores information. Your spinal cord is like a cable with lots of individual wires running to all different parts of the brain.

But the computer brain inside your laptop, like the brain inside your head, is useless all by itself. You have to be able to tell your computer what you need and see or hear what your computer is trying to tell you. You need some sort of input and output devices. Your computer uses a mouse, a touchscreen or a keyboard to sense what you want it to do. It uses a screen and speakers to react.

Your body works very similarly. You have sensory organs to send information to the brain—eyes, ears, nose, tongue, and skin. To react, you have muscles that make you walk, talk, focus, wink, and stick your tongue out. Your input/output devices are part of your peripheral nervous system.

Peripheral Nervous System (PNS)

The peripheral nervous system is everything connected to the central nervous system. It has motor nerves, sensory nerves, and autonomic nerves. Autonomic nerves act automatically, which is a way to remember them. They are the nerves that regulate our bodies. They are the body's version of a thermostat, a clock, and a smoke alarm. They work in the background to keep us on track and healthy, but they don't take up brain power or need to be controlled.

Autonomic nerves are loosely split into either sympathetic or parasympathetic nerves.

Sympathetic nerves have a tendency to speed us up. They increase heart rate, breathing, and blood pressure. These nerves are responsible for the Fight or Flight response.

Parasympathetic nerves stimulate blood flow to the gut. They slow down the heart and decrease blood pressure.

Think of the sympathetic nerves as the body's accelerator, and parasympathetic nerves as the brake pedal. Your body is always stimulating both the parasympathetic side and the sympathetic side at the same time—just like my grandmother used to drive, with a foot on each pedal.

Motor nerves start from the central nervous system and go out toward the far reaches of the body. They're called motor nerves because they always end in muscles. If you think about it, the only signals your brain sends to the outside world consist of making things move.

Walking, talking, fighting, running, or singing all take muscles.

Sensory nerves go the other direction. They carry signals from the outside toward the central nervous system. They always start in a sensory organ—eyes, ears, nose, tongue or skin. Each of those organs has more than one type of sensory nerves—for instance, the skin can sense pressure, temperature, and pain.

Q.3 What is endocrine system?

Ans. The endocrine system consists of several glands located throughout the body. These glands secrete hormones -- chemical messengers that signal the body to perform essential functions, usually related to growth and metabolism.

There are two types of glands within the endocrine system.1

Endocrine glands include the pancreas, thyroid, pituitary, and adrenal glands. They secrete their hormones directly into the bloodstream, where they are carried to the site of action.

Exocrine glands secrete their hormones directly into ducts. Examples of exocrine glands include sebaceous, mammary, salivary and digestive glands.

Q.4 How Do Hormones Work?

Ans. Many endocrine glands are sensitive to the concentration of either the hormone they produce or the substance that activates them. If the concentration of the hormone or substance is lower than normal, it will typically activate the gland. If the concentration is high, it will stop production of the hormone. This is what is referred to as a negative feedback system.2 Endocrine glands can also be activated directly by nervous stimulation.

When receptors on the cell membranes of an endocrine gland are activated by a particular hormone, a cascade of chemical events is triggered within the cell. Receptors and hormones are very specific. Only one type of hormone will fit in a given receptor. If the incorrect hormone tries to fit into a receptor, no reaction will occur.

Endocrine Glands and the Hormones They Produce

Pituitary Gland – This is often called the "master gland" because of its large number of functions related to metabolism and maintenance of homeostasis. There are two lobes of the pituitary: the anterior and posterior.

The anterior lobe produces many hormones including: Prolactin, Growth hormone, Follicle stimulating hormone, Luteinizing hormone, Thyroid stimulating hormone , Adrenocorticotropic hormone. The posterior lobe secretes: 3 Anti-diuretic hormones Oxytocin

Hypothalamus – The hypothalamus is a small portion of the brain that is in very close

to the pituitary gland. It controls the pituitary hormones by releasing hormones that stimulate or inhibit their release. For example, the hypothalamus secretes gonadotropin- releasing hormone, which causes the production of gonadotropins (follicle stimulating hormone and luteinizing hormone) by the pituitary. It also produces corticotrophin releasing hormone, thyrotrophic releasing hormone, and growth hormone-releasing hormone.3

Thymus – A gland used primarily in childhood, the thymus secretes hormones that help the immune system develop. Around the time of puberty, its tissue becomes replaced with fat and is no longer necessary for normal immune function.4

Pineal Gland – This is a small gland located within the brain that secretes melatonin. Melatonin has been found to regulate the wake-sleep cycle.2

Thyroid – The thyroid is a gland found on the windpipe in the front of the throat. It produces thyroxin (T4) and tri-iodothyronine (T3), known to regulate metabolism.2 It also secretes calcitonin, which helps regulate calcium levels.

Parathyroid – Four tiny glands located on the thyroid make up the parathyroid. They produce parathyroid hormone. Its secretion controls levels of calcium and phosphorus in the body.

Adrenal Glands – There are two adrenal glands, one located on top of each kidney. Each of the glands is divided into two regions, the cortex and medulla, which have very different functions.

The hormones produced by the cortex are vital for life and include the glucocorticoids, mineralocorticoids and some of the sex hormones, like androgens and small amounts of estrogen.

The adrenal medulla secretes both epinephrine and norepinephrine.

Pancreas – The pancreas is a large gland in the abdomen that secretes insulin and glucagon. These two hormones are essential in the regulation and maintenance of normal blood sugar levels.1 Glucagon stimulates the liver to release more glucose into the body, while insulin causes the body cells to take more glucose.

Ovaries – Found only in women, these two small glands produce estrogen, progesterone, and inhibin. Estrogen and progesterone are the primary sex hormones responsible for many of the female secondary sex characteristics. Inhibin is a hormone that controls levels of follicle stimulating hormone, which regulates egg development.1 Testes – A pair of glands found only in men, the testicles secrete testosterone, the primary hormone responsible for the male secondary sex characteristics.

Q.5 What Happens With Endocrine Disorders?

Any time one of these hormones is out of balance, many other systems, glands, and hormones can be affected. Women with polycystic ovary syndrome, for example, may show alterations in follicle stimulating hormone, luteinizing hormone, androgens (testosterone) and insulin, which can, in turn, affect her estrogen levels. Alterations of any of these hormones can cause changes in weight, metabolism and energy levels.

SEC- C

ATTENTION, SENSATION AND PERCEPTION

Q.1 What do you mean by Attention?

The process through which certain stimuli are selected from a group of others is generally referred to as attention.

Several other characteristics, such as attentiveness, concentration, and search, are also referred to as attention. The ability of a person to respond appropriately to stimuli that come in front of them is referred to as awareness. You may have witnessed the competitors at the starting line in a state of alertness, waiting for the whistle to sound to begin running, when you were a participant in a race at your school. Concentration is the process of concentrating awareness on one or more particular objects while temporarily disregarding others. For instance, a student focuses on the lecturer in the classroom and tunes out all other noises emanating from various parts of the building. An observer searches a collection of objects for a given subset of items.

Q.2 Describe the nature of Attention?

Both a center and a fringe are present in attention. Focus, also known as the focal point of attention, is the state in which the field of awareness is concentrated on a single thing or event. Conversely, things or events are said to be at the periphery of attention when they are distant from the center of awareness and only dimly known to one.

Q.3 Describe the classification of Attention?

There are several classifications for attention. It is separated into two categories by a process-oriented perspective: selected and sustained. We are also occasionally able to handle two tasks at once. It is referred to as divided attention when this occurs. The selection of a small number of stimuli or objects from a large number of stimuli is the primary focus of selective attention.

Q.4 What are the factors that affect Selective Attention?

Selective attention is influenced by various things. These usually have to do with the traits of people and the qualities of stimuli. They are typically divided into "internal" and "external" variables.

The characteristics of stimuli are related to external circumstances. The size, intensity, and velocity of stimuli seem to be significant attention-determining factors when all other factors are held constant. We are easily drawn to stimuli that are large, bright, and moving. Novel and fairly complicated stimuli also readily enter our attention.

Internal influences originate from within the person. These can be separated into two primary groups: cognitive and motivational variables. Our biological or social requirements are related to motivational factors. Even a slight whiff of food is detectable to us when we are hungry. More than other students, a student taking an exam is probably going to pay attention to what their teacher is saying. A few examples of cognitive elements are interest, attitude, and readiness level. People are quick to attend things or events that look fascinating. In a similar vein, we are fast to notice things or occasions that align with our preferences.

Q.5 Explain the theories of Selective Attention.

Theories of Selective Attention: A number of theories have been developed to explain the process of selective attention.

1. **Filter theory** was developed by **Broadbent** (1956). This idea states that numerous inputs hit our receptors at once, resulting in a scenario akin to a "bottleneck." They travel through the selective filter, which lets only one stimulus through for processing at a higher level, after passing through the short-term memory system. At that point, other sensations are blocked out. As a result, we only become aware of the stimuli that pass through the selective filter.

2. **Filter-Attenuation Theory** was developed by **Triesman** (1962) by modifying Broadbent's theory. According to this notion, stimuli that aren't able to reach the selective filter at a particular instant aren't entirely blocked. Only their strength is attenuated (weakens) by the filter. Consequently, certain stimuli are able to pass through the selective filter and are processed at a higher level. It has been shown that even at very low sound levels; personally relevant stimuli (such one's name during a group supper) may be perceived. Even though they are often faint, these stimuli can occasionally elicit a response by getting past the selective filter.

3. **Multimode theory** was developed by **Johnston and Heinz** (1978). According to this idea, there are three stages in which a stimulus might be chosen over others since attention is a flexible system. **Stage 1** involves the construction of sensory representations of stimuli (such as visual pictures); **Stage 2** involves the construction of semantic representations (such as item names); and **Stage 3** involves the entry of both sensory and semantic representations into consciousness. It is also proposed that higher processing demands higher mental work. Less mental work is needed when the messages are chosen based on stage one processing, or early selection, as opposed to stage three processing, or late selection.

Q.6 What do you mean by Sustained Attention?

While selective attention is largely concerned with the selection of stimuli, sustained attention is more focused on concentration. It illustrates our ability to give anything our whole attention for prolonged periods of time. It is also known as "vigilance." On rare occasions, people must devote several hours to a single work. Air traffic controllers and radar readers are great sources for information on this occurrence. They have to watch and follow signals on screens all the time. Signals in these kinds of situations are usually unpredictable, and misidentifying signals could have fatal consequences.

Q.7 What are the factors that affect Sustained Attention?

A person's ability to succeed on sustained attention activities can be aided or hindered by a number of circumstances. One type of modality is sensory. It is discovered that when the stimuli (also known as signals) are auditory rather than visual, performance is better. Another influence is the clarity of the stimulus. Strong and persistent stimuli improve performance by allowing for longer periods of sustained attention. The third component is temporal uncertainty. Stimuli that appear at regular intervals are more likely to be attended to than those that appear irregularly.

Span of Attention

The amount of stimuli that can reach our attention is limited. The term "span of attention" or "perceptual span" refers to the quantity of objects a person can focus on during a brief exposure, or a fraction of a second. The quantity of information that an observer may absorb from a complex array of stimuli during a single brief encounter is more precisely referred to as the span of attention. The "tachistoscope" is one tool that can be used to ascertain this. Miller has stated that the range of attention spans is seven plus or minus two, based on multiple investigations. It's commonly referred to as the "magic number."

It indicates that a person can focus on five to seven numbers at a time; in special circumstances, this number can be increased to nine or more. This could be the reason why licence plates for vehicles and motorcycles only have four digit numbers with a few alphabets on them. These numerals, coupled with

the alphabet, are easily readable and noted by traffic police in the event of a driving rule infraction.

Divided Attention

We handle multiple tasks at once in our daily lives. You must have witnessed individuals putting on sunglasses, listening to music, answering phone calls on mobile devices, and operating cars while conversing with friends. Even though they are paying some attention to other things, if we examine them carefully, we will see that they are still devoting more of their energy to driving than to other activities. It suggests that one's attention can be divided between multiple tasks at once on occasion.

This is only achievable with highly practiced activities, though, as they become nearly instinctive and demand less focus to execute than activities that are relatively new or only mildly practiced. Three primary features of automatic processing are (i) it happens without conscious thought, (ii) it happens subconsciously, and (iii) it involves very little or no conscious thought (e.g., we can read words or tie our shoelaces without conscious thought).

PERCEPTION

Q 1 Definition of Perception.

Ans. Definition- Perception is the sensory experience of the world. It involves both recognizing environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli.

Through the perceptual process, we gain information about the properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival. Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment.

Q.2 What is Perception?

Ans. Perception includes the five senses; touch, sight, sound, smell, and taste. It also includes what is known as proprioception, a set of senses involving the ability to detect changes in body positions and movements. It also involves the cognitive processes required to process information, such as recognizing the face of a friend or detecting a familiar scent.

Q.3 Types of Perception.

Ans. Types of Perception

Some of the main types of perception include:

Vision Touch

Sound Taste

Smell

There are also other senses that allow us to perceive things such as balance, time, body position, acceleration, and the perception of internal states. Many of these are multimodal and involve more than one sensory modality. Social perception, or the ability to identify and use social cues about people and relationships, is another important type of perception.

Q.4 How Perception works?

Ans. The perceptual process is a sequence of steps that begins with the environment and leads to our perception of a stimulus and action in response to the stimulus. It occurs

continuously, but you do not spend a great deal of time thinking about the actual process that occurs when you perceive the many stimuli that surround you at any given moment.

For example, the process of transforming the light that falls on your retinas into an actual visual image happens unconsciously and automatically. The subtle changes in pressure against your skin that allow you to feel objects occur without a single thought.

Perception acts as a filter that allows us to exist and interpret the world without becoming overwhelmed by the abundance of stimuli.1

Steps in the Perceptual Process
The Environmental Stimulus

The Attended Stimulus

The Image on the Retina Transduction

Neural Processing Perception Recognition Action

Impact of Perception

In order to see the impact of perception, it can be helpful to look at how the process works. This varies somewhat for every sense. In the case of visual perception:

The environmental stimulus: The world is full of stimuli that can attract attention through various senses. The environmental stimulus is everything in the environment that has the potential to be perceived.

The attended stimulus: The attended stimulus is the specific object in the environment on which attention is focused.

The image on the retina: This involves light actually passing through the cornea and pupil and onto the lens of the eye. The cornea helps focus the light as it enters the eye, and the iris of the eye controls the size of the pupils in order to determine how much light to let in. The cornea and lens act together to project an inverted image onto the retina.

Transduction: The image on the retina is then transformed into electrical signals in a process known as transduction. This allows the visual messages to be transmitted to the brain to be interpreted.

Neural processing: The electrical signals then undergo neural processing. The path followed by a particular signal depends on what type of signal it is (i.e. an auditory signal or a visual signal). Perception: In this step of the process, you perceive the stimulus object in the environment. It is at this point that you become consciously aware of the stimulus.

Recognition: Perception doesn't just involve becoming consciously aware of the stimuli. It is also necessary for the brain to categorize and interpret what you are sensing. The ability to interpret and give meaning to the object is the next step, known as recognition.

Action: The action phase of perception involves some type of motor activity that occurs in response to the perceived and recognized stimulus. This might involve a major action, like running toward a person in distress, or something as subtle as blinking your eyes in response to a puff of dust blowing through the air.

The perceptual process allows you to experience the world around you and interact with it in ways that are both appropriate and meaningful.

Take a moment to think of all the things you perceive on a daily basis. At any given moment, you might see familiar objects in your environment; feel the touch of objects and people

against your skin, smell the aroma of a home-cooked meal, and hear the sound of music playing in your next- door neighbor's apartment. All of these things help make up your conscious experience and allow you to interact with the people and objects around you.

Q.5 Describe Gestalt theory of Perception.

Ans The law of closure is one example of a Gestalt law of perceptual organization. According to this principle, things in the environment often tend to be seen as part of a whole. In many cases, our minds will even fill in the missing information to create cohesive shapes. Gestalt laws of perceptual organization A Brief History of the Gestalt Laws Gestalt psychology was founded by German thinkers Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Kohler, and Kurt Koffka and focused on how people interpret the world. The Gestalt perspective formed partially as a response to the structuralism of Wilhelm Wundt, who focused on breaking down mental events and experiences to the smallest elements.

Max Wertheimer noted that rapid sequences of perceptual events, such as rows of flashing lights, create the illusion of motion even when there is none. This is known as the phi phenomenon. Motion pictures are based on this principle, with a series of still images appearing in rapid succession to form a seamless visual experience.

According to Gestalt psychology, the whole is different from the sum of its parts. Based upon this belief, Gestalt psychologists developed a set of principles to explain perceptual organization, or how smaller objects are grouped to form larger ones.

These principles are often referred to as the "laws of perceptual organization." However, it is important to note that while Gestalt psychologists call these phenomena "laws," a more accurate term would be "principles of perceptual organization." These principles are much like heuristics, which are mental shortcuts for solving problems

1 Gestalt Law of similarity

The law of similarity suggests that things similar things tend to appear grouped together. Grouping can occur in both visual and auditory stimuli. In the image above, for example, you probably see the groupings of colored circles as rows rather than just a collection of dots.

2 Gestalt Law of Pragnanz

The word pragnanz is a German term meaning "good figure." The law of Pragnanz is sometimes referred to as the law of good figure or the law of simplicity. This law holds that objects in the environment are seen in a way that makes them appear as simple as possible.

Gestalt Law of Proximity

According to the law of proximity, things that are near each other seem to be grouped together.

Gestalt Law of Continuity

The law of continuity holds that points that are connected by straight or curving lines are seen in a way that follows the smoothest path. Rather than seeing separate lines and angles, lines are seen as belonging together.

Gestalt Law of Closure

According to the law of closure, things are grouped together if they seem to complete some entity. Our brains often ignore contradictory information and fill in gaps in information. In the image above, you probably see the shapes of a circle and rectangle because your brain fills in the missing gaps in order to create a meaningful image.

The Law of Common Region

This Gestalt law of perceptual organization suggests that elements that are grouped together within the same region of space tend to be grouped together.

For example, imagine that there are three oval shapes drawn on a piece of paper with two dots located at each end of the oval. The ovals are right next to each other so that the dot at the end of one oval is actually closer to the dot at the end of a separate oval. Despite the proximity of the dots, the two that are inside each oval are perceived as being a group rather than the dots that are actually closest to each other.

Factors Affecting Perception:

There are individual differences in perceptual abilities. Two people may perceive the same stimulus differently. The factors affecting the perceptions of people are:

a. Perceptual learning:

Based on past experiences or any special training that we get, every one of us learns to emphasize some sensory inputs and to ignore others. For example, a person who has got training in some occupation like artistry or other skilled jobs can perform better than other untrained people. Experience is the best teacher for such perceptual skills. For example, blind people identify the people by their voice or by sounds of their footsteps.

b. Mental set:

Set refers to preparedness or readiness to receive some sensory input. Such expectancy keeps the individual prepared with good attention and concentration. For example, when we are expecting the arrival of a train, we listen to its horn or sound even if there is a lot of noise disturbance.

c. Motives and needs:

Our motives and needs will definitely influence our perception. For example, a hungry person is motivated to recognize only the food items among other articles. His attention cannot be directed towards other things until his motive is satisfied.

d. Cognitive styles:

People are said to differ in the ways they characteristically process the information. Every individual will have his or her own way of understanding the situation. It is said that the people who are flexible will have good attention and they are less affected by interfering influences and to be less dominated by internal needs and motives than or people at the constricted end.

Errors in Perception:

As seen above perception is process of analyzing and understanding a stimulus as it is. But it may not be always possible to perceive the stimuli as they are. Knowingly or unknowingly, we mistake the stimulus and perceive it wrongly. It may be due to defect in our sense organs or defective functioning of the brain. Many times the prejudices in the individual, time of perception, unfavorable background, lack of clarity of stimulus, confusion, conflict in mind and such other factors are responsible for errors in perception. There are two kinds of errors:

a. Illusion:

Illusion is a false perception. Here the person will mistake a stimulus and perceive it wrongly. For example, in the dark, a rope is mistaken as a snake or vice versa. The voice of an unknown person is mistaken as a friend's voice. A person standing at a distance who is not known may be perceived as a known person. Most of our illusions are visual and auditory. But illusions pertaining to other senses are also possible. See Figure 3.10 for some of the examples of visual illusions.

b. Hallucination:

Sometimes we come across instances where the individual perceives some stimulus, even when it is not present. This phenomenon is known as hallucination. The person may see an object, person, etc. or he may listen to some voice though there are no objects and sounds in reality. Hallucinations pertain to all the sensations appear in people, but visual and auditory hallucinations are more common. Usually persons with unsound mind, emotionally disturbed, alcoholics and those who are in confused states may experience hallucinations. However, among abnormal people and intoxicated persons hallucinations are very common.

Q.1 Define Sensation.

Ans. Sensation is the process by which our senses gather information and send it to the brain. A large amount of information is being sensed at any one time such as room temperature, brightness of the lights, someone talking, a distant train, or the smell of perfume.

Q.2 Define Nature of Sensations:

Ans. A sensation is the simplest form of cognition. It is a simple impression produced in the mind by a stimulus. The stimulus acts upon a sense-organ or the peripheral extremity of a

sensory nerve; the impression is conducted by the sensory nerve to a sensory center in the brain; then it is experienced as a sensation. This is the case with sensations of colors, sounds, tastes, smells, heat, cold etc. Stimuli are either external to the organism or within the organism.

Q.3 What is Absolute Threshold?

Ans. The absolute threshold is the point where something becomes noticeable to our senses. It is the softest sound we can hear or the slightest touch we can feel. Anything less than this goes unnoticed. The absolute threshold is therefore the point at which a stimulus goes from undetectable to detectable to our senses.

Q. 4 What is Difference Threshold?

Ans. When we notice the sound of the radio in the other room, how do we notice when it becomes louder. It's conceivable that someone could be turning it up so slightly that the difference is undetectable. The difference threshold is the amount of change needed for us to recognize that a change has occurred. This change is referred to as the Just Noticeable Difference. This difference is not absolute, however. Imagine holding a five pound weight and one pound was added. Most of us would notice this difference. But what if we were holding a fifty pound weight? Would we notice if another pound were added? The reason many of us would not is because the change required to detect a difference has to represent a percentage. In the first scenario, one pound would increase the weight by 20%, in the second, that same weight would add only an additional 2%. This theory, named after its original observer, is referred to as Weber's Law.

Q.5 Explain Signal Detection Theory

Ans. Have you ever been in a crowded room with lots of people talking? Situations like that can make it difficult to focus on any particular stimulus, like the conversation we are having with a friend. We are often faced with the daunting task of focusing our attention on certain things while at the same time attempting to ignore the flood of information entering our senses. When we do this, we are making a determination as to what is important to sense and what is background noise. This concept is referred to as signal detection because we attempt detect what we want to focus on and ignore or minimize everything else.

Q.6 What is Sensory Adaptation?

Ans. The last concept refers to stimuli which has become redundant or remains unchanged for an extended period of time. Ever wonder why we notice certain smells or sounds right away and then after a while they fade into the background? Once we adapt to the perfume or the ticking of the clock, we stop recognizing it. This process of becoming less sensitive to unchanging stimulus is referred to as sensory adaptation, after all, if it doesn't change, why do we need to constantly sense it?

SEC- D

PERSONALITY

Q.1 What is self & Personality?

Ans. Self and Personality –can be referred as the characteristics in which we define our existence. These characteristics are usually acquired from our experiences and they show up in our behaviour.

These characteristics make people different from each other. Hence they behave differently in similar situations.Also same people behave almost similarly in different situations.

Hence it is safe to say that Different people have different personalities in different situations.

Q.2 What is the Concept of Personality?

Ans. Literary definition- This word is derived from Latin word-Persona, which means mask used by actors in Roman theatre to perform their roles.

Q.3 Describe features of Personality.

Ans. It consists of both physical to psychological components Expression of personality in form of behaviour is unique for each individual It's main features do not easily change with time though some features may change due to internal or external situational demands, making personality also adaptive to situations.

Q.4 Explain Different Approaches to study Personalities and behaviours.

Ans. Type approach Trait Approach

Interactional Approach Psychodynamic approach Behaviour approach Cultural Approach Humanistic approach.

Type Approach: This approach attempts to comprehend and segregate people into groups by examining and based on their broad patterns in observed behaviours.

So each pattern type refers to a group of people who have similarity of their behavioural characteristics that match with the pattern that set denotes.

Greek physician Hippocrates had proposed a typology of personality based on fluid/humour: Sanguine, Phlegmatic, melancholic, choleric.

Charak Samhita famous treatise on Ayurveda classifies as- Vata, pitta and kapha based on 3 humoural elements- Tridosha

Typology of personality based on trigunas:

Sattva- Cleanliness, Truthfulness, dutifulness, detachment and discipline. Rajas- Intensive activity, desire for sense gratification, dissatisfaction, envy. Tamas– Anger, arrogance, depression, laziness, feeling of helplessness.

Sheldon theory: based on body type and temperament Endomorphic- Fat, soft and round. Relaxed and sociable.

Mesomorphic- Strong muscular, rectangular body and energetic and courageous by temperament

Ectomorphic- Thin, long, fragile by body type and creative, brainy and introvert by temperament. Jung theory- Introverts, Extroverts

Friedman & Rosenman- Type A & Type B

Type A- Possess high motivation, lack patience, fall short of time, in a great hurry, always feel burdened with work, cant slow down.

Type B- Absence of category of Type A Type C- Unassertive, cooperative, patient Type D- Proneness of depression.

Trait Approach: This type groups people as per specific set of traits. For eg Shyness is a trait, so people can be rated in terms of degree of presence or absence of that trait in individuals as Less, More, Not shy at all against that. Friendliness can be another trait and many others.

Traits are relatively stable over time

They are generally consistent across situations

Their strengths and combinations vary across individuals leading All of the above lead to individual differences in personality.

Q.4 Explain Gordon Allport's Trait theory.

Ans. As per Allport, Traits are the intervening variables between situations which stimulate and person's response to them.

Cardinal traits: They are highly pervasive and generalized and indicate the goals around which an individual's life revolves. g. Mahatma Gandhi's non-violence – Gandhian trait

and Hitler's Nazism – Hitlerian trait

Central traits: These are less pervasive, still much generalized dispositions. E.g. warm, sincere , diligent

We often use these traits for writing a job recommendation or in our resume.

Secondary traits: These are least generalized Commonly found in various people, cannot be made the basis for differentiating personalities of people. E.g. likes mangoes, prefer ethnic clothes, likes black dresses.

Cattell theory: Trait based personality factors- He developed a test called sixteen personality factor questionnaire.

Source traits: Stable and are considered as building block of personality.

Surface traits: They result out of the interaction of source traits.

Q.5 Explain Eysenck's Theory?

Ans. Based on biological and genetically governed, Personality could be reduced into two broad dimensions– (However, in his later work Eysenck introduced 3rd dimension also).

Neuroticism Vs Emotional stability: If refers to the degree of control people have on their feelings. People who score high on the neuroticism are anxious, moody, touchy, restless, distressed, irritable, emotional unstable. The opposite /low scores are calm, emotionally stable.

Extraversion Vs Introversion: Extraversion refers to people who are outgoing, active, gregarious, impulsive, thrill seeking and introversion refers to people passive, quiet, cautious and reserved. Psychoticism Vs sociability: Person scoring high on psychoticism tends to be hostile, egocentric, anti-social. The opposite are friendly and sociable.

Q. 7 Explain Psychodynamic approach:

Ans. Highly popular approach to study personality, by Sigmund Freud. He used 'Free Association' the technique (a method in which a person is asked to openly share his thoughts, feelings and ideas that comes to his/her mind) Dream and error analysis to understand the functioning of mind and help analyse thoughts by expression.

Based on the theory of Levels of consciousness, Freud visualizes the human minds in terms of 3 levels of consciousness:

Conscious: Thoughts, feelings, actions people are aware of.

Preconscious: The mental activity people are aware of only if they pay attention to it closely. Unconscious: This includes mental activity people are unaware of. These are instinctive, animalistic drives concealed and repressed away from conscious mind because they may lead to psychological conflicts.

Freud used therapy of Psychoanalysis to bring the repressed, unconscious materials to consciousness.

According to this theory there are 3 structural elements of Personality- Id, Ego and Superego.

Id – It is source of a person's instinctual energy. Deals with immediate gratification of primitive needs- sexual desires, aggressive impulses does not care for moral values, society or any individuals. Id is energised by two instinctive forces- life instinct & death instinct.

The life force that energises the Id is called libido, which seeks immediate gratification.

Ego- It grows out of Id only but seeks to satisfy an individual's instinctual needs in accordance with reality. Works by reality principle. Ego often directs the Id towards more appropriates ways of behaving, which are socially acceptable.

Eg: A boy sees some one having an ice-cream. His Id may want him to snatch it and eat it. But Ego guides him to ask permission and then take it, which is socially more acceptable behaviour.

Human behaviours reflect an attempt to deal with or escape from anxiety. People avoid anxiety by distorting reality. Freud described defence mechanism of 5 types:

Repression: Anxiety provoking behaviours or thoughts are totally dismissed by the unconscious mind. When people repress any desire at times they totally become unaware of that desire. E,g When someone does something which expresses that desire in a situation, they say, ' I do not know why I did this.'

Projection: In projection, people attribute their own traits to others. E.g People who have aggressive tendencies may see other people also acting aggressive towards them. i.e projecting their own behaviour.

Denial: Person in this trait totally refuses to accept reality.

e.g. A person with AIDs refuses to accept or deny his illness.

Reaction formation: This person to defend against anxiety adopts a behaviour totally opposite to the instinctive feeling.

e.g Many people acquire religious practices to channelize their strong sexual urges. **Rationalization**: Trying to rationalize their unreasonable feelings and behaviours making them seem reasonable and acceptable.

e.g. When a student after doing poorly in exams buys new pens to rationalize reason of bad performance and tells himself that he will do well with these new pen.

Super Ego- Super Ego can be characterised as the moral branch of mental functioning. Super Ego tells the Id and Ego whether gratification is ethical or not.

e.g. Extending the same example, If the child who wants ice cream, if asks his mother for it which is socially and morally correct.

Q.8 Explain Psychosexual stages of Personality.

Ans. Freud Approach: Freud claims that core aspects of personality are formed at an early stage and remain stable throughout life. He has proposed a 5 stage theory.

Oral stage: Newborn's instincts are focused on the mouth. The baby seeks pleasure in food that reduces his hunger, thumb sucking, biting, and babbling through his mouth.

Anal stage: It is found that around ages of 2 or 3 child learns to respond to some of the needs of society and learns to control the bodily functions of urination and defecation. If left to themselves, most children at this age experience pleasure by focusing on their anal area and in moving their bowls.

Phallic stage: This stage focuses on genitals. At age of 4 to 5, children begin to realise the difference between males and females. During this stage male children may feel Oedipus

complex, which involves love for mother and hostility towards father. And female child experiences Electra complex wherein they are more attached to father and see mothers as their rivals.

Latency Stage: From age of 7 to puberty, child continues to grow physically. Sexual urges are relatively inactive.

Much of their energy is channelled in social or achievement activities.

Genital Stage: During this stage, individual develops maturity in psychosexual development. People learn to deal with opposite gender in a socially mature way. However, if the journey is marked thorough excessive stress or over-indulgence, it may cause fixation to that stage or regression to an earlier stage of development.

Q.9 Who is a Healthy Person? As per humanistic approach.

Ans. The Humanistic theory suggests that no one can be a healthy person by mere adjusting to the society.

It involves following characteristics:

Awareness of self , one's feelings and their limits and accept themselves. Experience Here and Now. Mindfulness.

Don't so much live in the past and dwell in the future through anxious expectations and distorted defences.

Q.10 Explain Personality Assessment

Ans. A formal process aimed at understanding personality of an individual with minimum error and maximum accuracy is termed as personality assessment.

Uses of Personality Assessment:

Helps understand how an individual is likely to behave in a given situation. Accurate assessment is also useful for diagnosis, training, placement, counselling Techniques:

Psychometric tests Self- report measures Projective techniques Behavioural Analysis

Self-Report: Method to assess a person by asking him/her about himself/herself. These are structured measures in which subjects are made to objectively report verbal responses using a rating scale.

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)- developed for psychiatric diagnosis but later applied to variety of psychopathology- hypochondriasis, depression, hysteria masculinity, femininity. True/false questions

Eyesenck Personality Questionnaire – (EPQ)

Tests 2 dimensions of personality- Introverted / Extraverted and Emotionally stable/unstable. Later Eyesenck added 3rd dimension to this theory psychoticism (lack of feelings for other). Such people have a tough manner of interaction, tendency to defy social conventions.

Cattell- Sixteen personality factor questionnaire – (16PF). The tests provides with declarative statements and the subjects respond to the specific situation by choosing from a set of given alternatives.

Uses of Self-report test:

Career guidance, vocational exploration and occupational testing for students/adults.

To assess specific dimensions of personality type (e.g. authoritarianism, locus of control, optimism)

Limitations of Self-report tests:

Social desirability: this is a tendency on part of a student to endorse/select responses basis socially desirable behaviour.

Acquiescence: It is a tendency of the subject of saying Yes to items irrespective of the content, which makes it less reliable for an effective outcome.

Hesitant to open: This being a direct method where assessment is based on the information directly obtained from the subject, hence he knows that he is been assessed for personality and gets self-conscious and hesitates to share his private feeling.

Hence these tests should be performed under careful supervision of an expert or a trained person.

Projective Technique:

This technique is an indirect method, used to uncover and assess the large part of the behaviour which is governed by unconscious motives, as direct (self-report) methods cannot assess this. Methods include: Reporting association with stimuli- words, inkblots, story writing around pictures, some require sentence completion, expression through drawings.

Features of this technique:

The stimuli are relatively or fully unstructured and poorly defined.

The subject is not told about the purpose of assessment and method of scoring and interpretation. The person is informed that there is no correct or incorrect answer.

Each response is considered to reveal a significant aspect of personality. Scoring and interpretation are lengthy and sometime subjective.

Examples of Projective tests:

Rorschach Inkblot Test:

This test was developed by Harmann Rorschach. The tests consists of 10 inkblots (5 black and white, 2 red and remaining of pastel colours) printed in the centre of a cardboard of 7” to 10”.

1st Phase- Performance proper: Subjects are shown the cards and are asked to tell what they see in each.

2nd Phase- Inquiry: A detailed report of responses is prepared by asking the subject to tell on where, how and on what basis was a particular response made.

Use of the test requires extensive training to make fine judgment and interpretation.

The Thematic Appreciation Test (TAT): developed by Morgan and Murray. Little more structured that the Inkblot test. It consists of 30 black and white picture cards and 1 blank card. Each card depicts one or more people in a variety of situations. 20 cards to 5 cards are used for performing assessment.

Method: One card is presented at a time, asking the subject to tell a story describing the situation presented in the picture:

What led up to the situation

What is happening at the moment What will happen in future

What are the characters thinking and feeling.

A standard procedure is followed for scoring the TAT responses. Indian adaptation done by: Uma Chaudhary.

Rozensweig's Picture-Frustration study (P-F Study): was developed by Rozenweig to assess how people express aggression in a frustrating situation.

The test consists cartoon like pictures depicting situations where one person is frustrating other. The subject is asked to describe:

What the frustrated person will say or do? Analysis is based on:

the Type and Direction of aggression (towards onself or environment or evading the situation). It is examined whether the focus is on frustrating object or protecting the frustrated person, or on constructive solution.

Sentence Completion Test:

This test makes use of number of incomplete sentences. The starting of the sentence is presented and the subject has to provide an ending of the sentence. The type of ending helps assess the unconscious attitude, motivation and conflicts.

e.g.

My father…….

My greatest fear is……..

The best thing about my mother is……..

I am proud of……

Draw-a-Person test:

In this test subject is provided with a pencil, eraser and sheet and asked to draw a picture of a person.

After the completion of the drawing, subject is asked to draw a picture of a person of opposite gender. Subject is asked to make a story about the person as if he/she was a character of a movie/novel. Some examples of the interpretation as follows:

Omission of facial features suggests that the person tries to evade a highly conflict-ridden interpersonal relationship.

Graphic emphasis on the neck suggests lack of control over impulses.

Disproportionately large size of the head suggests organic brain disease or preoccupation with headaches.

Behavioural Analysis:

This analysis can provide us with a meaningful information about his/her personality. An observer's report contains data obtained from:

Interview Observation Ratings Nomination Situational tests Interview:

Structured interview follows a set of very specific questions and set procedure. This is often done to make objective comparison of persons being interviewed.

Use of rating scales add to the objectivity.

Unstructured Interview involves asking a number of questions (not specific) to develop an impression about a person. The way a subject answers and presents himself and answers the questions carries enough potential to reveal about his/her personality.

Observation:

Use of Observation for a personality assessment is a sophisticated procedure that cannot be carried out by untrained people. It requires careful training of the observer and fairly detailed guideline to carry out analysis to use observations to assess personality. In spite of the widespread use of this method, it has following limitations:

Professional training required for collection of useful data and is quite demanding and time consuming.

Maturity of the observer is a precondition. Else personal

biases can alter the assessment. Mere presence of the observer may contaminate the results.