Psychology

Revised Syllabus: Few Areas

Ayesha Younas

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This document is compiled from numerous articles and research papers. Some of the references are mentioned. I hope you make the best use of this hard work. Wish you all Best of Luck!

Contents

Chapter 3: Types of Perception

1) Amodal Perception: Amodal perception is one of the most recognizable types of perception in psychology. It is the observation and interpretation of things in terms of depth and motion. For instance, even if one sees only three points in a triangular object, he or she knows that the object is three-dimensional and that there are hidden points on the other side.

2) Color Perception: Color perception, on the other hand, describes the way the visual senses, denoting the eyes, observe hues and contextualize them in the environment. For example, by interpreting blue as the color of depression, the eyes will tend to always attribute all things of this tinge to be melancholic.

3) Speech Perception: The other types of perception in psychology include those that interpret verbal output. Speech perception, for one, helps in not only understanding one another, but deducing meaning from mere sounds. It also indicates the mechanical arrangement of the vocals when another person speaks which means that the listener interprets the speech through the phonetics such as syllables to create meaning.

4) Harmonic Perception: Harmonic perception, on the other hand, owes to the understanding that the ear usually perceives inter-related notes, as one, to create meaning in sounds. For instance, riffs in a guitar mixed with those of other instruments lead to interpretation of the music as a single output that is simple to listen to rather than one that actually consists of different notes.

5) Rhythmic Perception: Rhythmic perception also follows the same theories in its interpretative methodology, whereby the ear gets into a groove by practically responding to it. For instance, one can easily listen to a beat while humming along to it or tapping along as it continues courtesy of its rhythmic harmony.

6) Depth Perception: Depth perception also acts as one of the types of perception psychology. It relates to the way the human eye identifies and contextualizes things in space. For instance, though the naked eye cannot see the end of a tunnel, it interprets its possible depth through past experiences such as scientific measurements to know how deep the tunnel can be.

7) Form Perception: Finally, form perception indicates the contextualization of particular objects in a given environment, whereby the eyes sees them as primarily 2-D and at times as 3-D depending on the way of their placement. It is also the understanding of what characterizes the inner and outer core of an object. After seeing an orange, one immediately knows that it is round and has a rough texture on the skin that protects the soft interior. Therefore, there are different types of perception psychology, each of which with its own interpretative characteristics. The senses can create meaning out of everything by noting characteristics such as depth and form. Understanding music and human speech also uses the senses as a basis of deducting meaning from the respective vocal and musical gestures.

Chapter 4: Learning and Memory

Nature and Forms of Learning

1) Meaning and Nature:
   i. Learning is a key process in human behaviour. All living is learning.
   ii. The individual is constantly interacting with and influenced by the environment. This experience makes him to change or modify his behaviour in order to deal effectively with it. Therefore, learning is a change in behaviour, influenced by previous behaviour.
   iii. Learning is defined as "any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice and experience". This definition has three important elements.
      i. Learning is a change in behaviour—better or worse.

ii. It is a change that takes place through practice or experience, but changes due to growth or maturation are not learning.

iii. This change in behaviour must be relatively permanent, and it must last a fairly long time.

iv. All learning involves activities. These activities involve either physical or mental activities. They may be simple mental activities or complex, involving various muscles, bones, etc. So also the mental activities may be very simple involving one or two activities of mind or complex which involve higher mental activities.

2) Types of Learning:

i. Motor learning: motor activities. The individual has to learn them in order to maintain his regular life, for example walking, running, skating, driving, climbing, etc. All these activities involve the muscular coordination.

ii. Verbal learning:

iii. Concept learning: It is the form of learning which requires higher order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc. we learn different concepts from childhood. Concept learning involves two processes, viz. abstraction and generalisation. This learning is very useful in recognising, identifying things.

iv. Discrimination learning: Learning to differentiate between stimuli and showing an appropriate response to these stimuli is called discrimination learning. Example, sound horns of different vehicles like bus, car, ambulance, etc.

v. Learning of principles: Individuals learn certain principles related to science, mathematics, grammar, etc. in order to manage their work effectively. These principles always show the relationship between two or more concepts. Example: formulae, laws, associations, correlations, etc.

vi. Problem solving: This is a higher order learning process. This learning requires the use of cognitive abilities-such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalization, etc. This is very useful to overcome difficult problems encountered by the people.

vii. Attitude learning: Attitude is a predisposition which determines and directs our behaviour. We develop different attitudes from our childhood about the people, objects and everything we know. Our behaviour may be positive or negative depending upon our attitudes. Example: attitudes of nurse towards her profession, patients, etc.

3) Theories of Learning:

i. Trial and Error Learning Theory: This theory was developed by an American psychologist EL Thorndike (1874-1949). He argues that learning takes place through trial and error method. According to him learning is a gradual process where the individual will make many attempts to learn. The essence of this theory is-as the trials increase, the errors decrease. This is possible because of association formed between sense impressions and impulses to action. Such an association comes to be known as a 'bond' or a 'connection, because it is these bonds or connections which become strengthened or weakened in making and breaking of habits. According to this theory when an individual is placed in a new situation, he makes a number of random movements. Among them, those which are unsuccessful are eliminated and the successful ones are fixed. Experiment cat in the puzzle box.

ii. Learning by Conditioning:

i. Classical conditioning: Sub-principles of Classical Conditioning:

1. Extinction and spontaneous recovery
2. Stimulus generalization

3. Stimulus discrimination:
4. Higher order conditioning:
ii. Operant Conditioning:
1. Reinforcement which is the most important aspect of this experiment is divided into two types: positive reinforcement is used in reward training. Negative reinforcement-like punishment is used to stop undesired responses or behaviours. Operant conditioning is useful in shaping undesirable behaviour and also in modification of behaviour.
iii. Learning by Insight: Learning by perceiving the relationship in the scene and understanding the situation is insightful learning. This theory was developed by a psychologist known as Wolf gang Kohler, who belonged to Gestalt school of psychology. According to Gestalt theory—perception of a situation as a 'whole' gives better understanding than sum total of its parts. That is, the situation viewed as a whole will definitely look different from that, viewed through its parts. Kohler conducted his most famous experiments on chimpanzee- called Sultan. Insight occurs, when the individual sees in a flash, the solution to his problem or difficulty. It is not blind or stupid learning. It is an intelligent way of learning.
iv. Learning by Imitation: Psychologists like Millar and Dollard have tried to show that the tendency to imitate is itself a learned response and if reinforced, the individual will be more likely to continue to imitate. Many people believe that imitation is a lower form type of learning. Still others argue that imitation can never lead to novel responses and there will be no chance to use individual's creativity or originality

4) Laws of Learning: EL Thorndike has explained three laws of learning called Primary laws and in addition to these, he has also framed 5 subsidiary laws in connection with his trial and error learning theory.
i. Primary laws:
   i. Law of readiness: By readiness means the organism is ready to respond or act. This is more essential prerequisite for learning.
   ii. Law of exercise: This law is also known as law of frequency. Frequency refers to number of repetitions of learning. Thorndike believed that repeated exercising of a response strengthens its connection with stimulus.
   iii. Law of effect: This law states that when a connection is accomplished by satisfying effect- its strength is increased. By this, Thorndike meant that the probability of its occurrence is greater. In his experiment if the hungry cat succeeded in opening the door, would get its favourable dish to eat.
ii. Secondary laws:
   i. Law of multiple response: It means when a response fails to elicit a desired effect, the learner will try with new responses until the goal is reached.
   ii. Law of set or attitude: Mental set or positive attitude is very important in any learning.
   iii. Law of associative shifting: This is nothing but shifting of the response to a new situation which is similar to the earlier one. Because the fundamental notion is that, if a response can be kept intact through a series of changes in stimulating situation, it may finally be given to a new situation.
   iv. Law of prepotency of elements: This law states that the learner is able to react in a selected way, only to the salient elements of the problem and not for other unimportant elements.
   v. Law of response by analogy: It means comparing a new situation to the previously learned one and thus giving a response by analogy.

1) Homeostasis
    i. Homeostasis refers to the body's need to reach and maintain a certain state of equilibrium. The term is often used to refer to the body's tendency to monitor and maintain internal states such as temperature and energy levels at fairly constant and stable levels.
    ii. The term homeostasis was first coined by a psychologist named Walter Cannon in 1926. The term refers to an organism's ability to regulate various physiological processes to keep internal states steady and balanced.
    iii. These processes take place mostly without our conscious awareness.
    iv. Our internal regulatory systems have what is known as a **set point** for a variety of things. This is much like the thermostat in your house. Once set at a certain point, these systems work to keep the internal states at these levels. In the same way, if something is out of balance in your body, a variety of physiological reactions will kick in until the set point is once again reached.
    v. Homeostasis involves three key features:
        i. A clear set point
        ii. The ability to detect deviations from this set point
        iii. Behavioral and physiological responses designed to return the body to the set point
    vi. Your body has set points for a variety of things including temperature, weight, sleep, thirst, and hunger.
    vii. One prominent theory of human motivation, known as drive reduction theory, suggests that homeostatic imbalances create needs. This need to restore balance drives people to perform actions that will return the body to its ideal state.
    viii. How Does the Body Regulate Temperature?
        i. All organisms, from large mammals to tiny bacteria, must maintain an ideal temperature in order to survive. Some factors that influence this ability to maintain a stable body temperature include how these systems are regulated as well as the overall size of the organism. Birds and mammals (including humans) are endotherms. Other creatures are ectotherms (aka "cold blooded") and rely on external sources to regulate their body temperature. Reptiles and amphibians are both ectotherms.
        ii. Homeostasis is also influenced by an organism's size, or more specifically, the surface-to-volume ratio. Larger creatures have a much greater body volume, which causes them to produce more body heat. Smaller animals, on the other, produce less body heat but also have a higher surface-to-volume ratio. They lose more body heat than they produce, so their internal systems must work much harder to maintain a steady body temperature.
    ix. Behavioral and Physiological Responses
        i. homeostasis involves both physiological and behavioral responses. In terms of behavior, you might seek out warm clothes or a patch of sunlight if you start to feel chilly. When you start to feel chilled, you might also curl your body inward and keep your arms tucked in close to your body to keep in heat.
        ii. As endotherms, people also possess a number of internal systems that help regulate body temperature. humans have a body temperature set point of 98.6 degrees Fahrenheit. When your body temperature dips below this point, it sets off a number of

physiological reactions to help restore balance. Blood vessels in the body's extremities constrict in order to prevent heat loss. Shivering also helps the body produce more heat.

    iii. The body also responds when temperatures go above 98.6 degrees. When you are too warm, your blood vessels dilate in order to give off more body heat. Perspiration is another common way to reduce body heat.

2) Factors influencing Motivation

    i. The Incentive Theory suggests that people are pulled toward behaviors by rewards (incentives).

    ii. Extrinsic (external) motivation is any influence comes from an outside source. An intrinsic (internal) motivation is any motivation comes from within and provides a sense of satisfaction. Incentives can provide negative motivation, a promise of an unpleasant outcome, that can be avoided if a specific behavior is performed.

    iii. External Factors

        i. Social – how people in our social/per group behave and their beliefs,

        ii. Legal – legislation, codes, and regulations made by society puts acceptable limits on our behavior,

        iii. Economic – how the our national and local economy affects affects our net spendable income,

        iv. Political – how changes in local. state, and national elections can affect government policy that might limit or expand our opportunities,

        v. Technological – how the rapid pace of changes in technology can limit or expand our opportunities,

        vi. Ethical – what is regarded as morally right or wrong regarding our personal, social, and business conduct.

    iv. Internal Factors

        i. Anxiety

        ii. Higher level of interest: Curiosity and Interest, more cognitive engagement, more learning, and higher levels of achievement

        iii. Locus of Control

        iv. Higher levels of value: Task value refers to persons' opinion about the utility, or how interesting they find a task given the goals that are being pursued

        v. Learned helplessness

        vi. Self-efficacy beliefs and competence perceptions: Perceptions of self-efficacy refer to persons' beliefs about their ability to successfully accomplish tasks they are given, and have been related to persons' successful engagement and persistence in tasks

        vii. Attributions and control beliefs: The basic construct refers to beliefs about the causes of success and failure, and how much perceived control one needs to affect outcomes or to control one's behavior

        viii. Goals and goal orientation: Setting goals is a key point in the learning process.

3) Theories of Motivation

    i. Optimal-level Theory: This is also called as theory of homeostasis. Claud Bernard coined the word homeostasis to explain the state of equilibrium in the body. This is a 'hedonistic' (hedonism-doctrine that happiness is the highest good) theory which says that, there is a certain optimal level for normal functioning of the body. Maintenance of optimal level leads to equilibrium which gives pleasure. Disequilibrium leads to displeasure. Hence, every individual strives to avoid disequilibrium by maintaining optimal level of the needs like food, water, body temperature, etc.

ii. Psychoanalytic Theory: This theory which has been explained by Sigmund Freud, deals with unconscious motivation. According to Freud, the inborn tendencies called instincts influence our behaviour. There are two groups of instincts with opposite nature:
    i. Life instincts (Eros): these instincts have the life energy called Libido-which motivates the individual towards constructive activities like love, sympathy/helping others, etc.
    ii. Death instincts (Thanatos)-motivate the individual for destructive activities like murder, suicides, aggression, attack, etc.

iii. Freud has emphasised that the unconscious motives play more dominant role in determining our behaviour, than conscious or preconscious. He pointed that, our actions are determined by our unconscious motives. According to him, our unconscious mannerisms, slips of tongue and pen, phobias are the result of these hidden motives. These hidden motives may also drive the people towards various psychosomatic disorders like chronic headaches, insomnia, gastric troubles, etc. Our motives also appear in the form of dreams according to Freud.

iv. Humanistic Theory: This theory believes in striving tendency of the individual for realizing his potentialities, especially creative ones, strengthening self-confidence and attaining the ideal self. There are two important persons related to this theory— Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Biological motives like hunger, thirst, etc., Safety and security needs (protection from external threats), Love and belongingness needs (Affection, warmth, etc.), Esteem needs (self-esteem, respect, approval, etc.), Self-actualisation motive (achieving maximum development of one's potentialities). According to him the needs at one level should be satisfied at least partially, before the next level needs become active. Most of the people end their struggle to reach third or fourth level needs. Only a few will aspire for self-actualisation which is the ultimate goal of life. Self-actualisation means becoming everything one is capable of, or becoming what he can, that is, fulfillment of his basic potentialities. Maslow explains that the self- actualised people experience, what he calls the 'peak experiences', when they fulfill the need for self-actualisation. Carl Rogers, as a humanist believes in the strength and potentialities of human beings. According to him all human beings have a natural inclination for learning and a desire to grow and progress known as self-actualizing tendency. Hence in the view of Rogers, the motivation for self-growth and becoming a fully functioning person are important concepts.

4) Measurement of Human Motivation
    i. Direct measurement: objective observation, conscious self-reports, administering questionnaires, and inventories assess specific motives as required by the observer. To measure the drink like hunger, thirst, many gadgets have been derived. These gadgets have a precise quantitative measure of the level of deprivation, physiological changes accompanying the drive and some behavioral changes, as a whole. In these types of measures, the tools are basically structured and responses classified into predetermined categories.
    ii. Indirect measurement: projective techniques, the stimuli are deliberately made somewhat ambiguous in nature and the organism is free to give the responses he wishes. used to assess motives are ink-blots, pictures, incomplete sentences, and ambiguous figures. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). This test was originally introduced by Morgan and Murray in 1935. The TAT test consists of a series of pictures about which the person is asked to write stories. These stories are analyzed and coded as motives, needs, wishes, and desires etc., which are assumed to have been projected by the respondent into the characters in the pictures.
    iii. California Measure of Mental Motivation Level IIICM3 III: The California Measure of Mental Motivation (CM3) Level III is calibrated to measure the degree to which college students and adults are cognitively engaged and mentally motivated toward intellectual activities.

iv. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a theory of motivation. It is concerned with supporting our natural or intrinsic tendencies to behave in effective and healthy ways. SDT has been researched and practiced by a network of researchers around the world. The theory was initially developed by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan, and has been elaborated and refined by scholars from many countries.

5) Emotion
   i. The term emotion is derived from the Latin verb 'movere' means stir up, agitate, disturb or move. Woodworth has defined emotion as "conscious stirred up state of the organism".
   ii. Components of Emotions:
      i. Cognition: This component serves primarily to influence an evaluation of given situation, prompting us to become emotional in one way or another, or not at all.
      ii. Feeling: In daily life we think of feelings. The feelings are most readily evident changes in an aroused person. Feelings have immediate motivational significance. They give rise to many physiological processes in the cardiovascular system and produce increased blood pressure, changes in sexual urge. They also stimulate nervous system and prompt widespread electrochemical activities.
      iii. Behaviour: The behavioural component involves facial, postural, gestures and vocal responses.
   iii. Changes during Emotions:
      i. External changes:
         1. The voice changes according to the type of emotion. Experiments have proved that emotions can be identified on the basis of voice.
         2. Facial expressions change. We can identify emotion experienced by a person by looking at his face.
         3. There will be changes in the body language like stiffness of muscles, twisting of fingers, movements of hands and legs.
         4. Sweating.
         5. Wrinkles on forehead.
         6. Redness of eyes.
         7. Erection of hairs on the skin, etc.
      ii. Internal changes:These internal changes are the result of stimulation of the ANS, which has 2 subdivisions. Sympathetic division prepares the body for facing emergency either by fight or by flight, i.e. fights if possible, otherwise escapes from the situation. It stimulates the adrenal glands and causes the excess release of adrenaline and nor-adrenaline. Adrenaline gets circulated all over the body and stimulates vital organs leading to following internal changes.
         1. Increase in heart rate thereby increase in BP
         2. Increase in rate of respiration
         3. Increase in blood sugar level
         4. Decrease in functioning of GI tract-that is why we do not experience the feeling of hunger during emotional states
         5. Changes in frequency of brain waves
         6. Dilatation of pupils
         7. Decreased secretion of saliva and dryness of mouth.

8. After the emergency or emotional situation is over, the next step is to restore the energy spent during emotion. This work is carried on by parasympathetic division.

    iv. Types of Emotions

      i. Conceptions: direct your behavior. Conceptions are positive or negative mental effects that are triggered by conclusions. Conceptions can also be triggered by imagining a conclusion. Conceptions do not trigger physical effects. E.g. maternal love, grief, infatuation, revenge, criminal guilt, pride, humor, envy.

      ii. Sensations: Sensations direct your behavior. Sensations are positive or negative mental effects that are triggered by the presence or absence of sensory stimuli. Pleasing taste is a positive effect triggered by the taste of food. Hunger is a negative effect triggered by the absence of food. Disgust is a negative effect triggered by the smell of toxins, such as fecal matter. Sensations trigger almost no physical effects. A few sensations do trigger minor physical effects, like salivation. E.g. hunger disgust, lust, sexual peasure, excitement, boredom

      iii. Reflexes: Reflexes help you avoid threats. Reflexes are triggered by conclusions or sensory stimuli. Fear can be triggered by the conclusion "a man is pointing a loaded gun at me". Fear can also be triggered by the sight of a snake. Reflexes trigger defensive physical effects. Startle involuntarily tenses neck muscles, which prevents tearing by a predator's claws or talons. Fear releases adrenalin to increase heart rate, which helps fight or flight. E.g. startle fear

      iv. Involuntary Expressions: Involuntary expressions direct the behavior of others. Involuntary expressions are triggered by a conception, sensation or reflex. The reflex of fear triggers the involuntary expression of horror. Involuntary expressions have a different purpose than their trigger emotion. Fear helps you avoid threats. The expression of horror on your face helps others avoid threats. E.g. horror, crying, prolonged smiling, blushing

      v. Voluntary Expressions: Voluntary expressions direct the behavior of others. Voluntary expressions are triggered by habitual decision. Anger is a habitual response to feeling revenge. Laughter is a habitual response to feeling humor. These expressions seem involuntary because they are deeply ingrained habits, like walking or talking. E.g anger, laughter

Chapter 6: Psychological Assessment

1) Defining and Measuring Psychological Attributes
   i. Anne Anastasi, a famous psychologist in field of psychological testing has defined as, 'A psychological test is essentially an objective and standardised measure of a sample of behaviour'.
   ii. "A psychological test is a standardised procedure to measure quantitatively or qualitatively one or more than one aspect of a trait by means of a sample of verbal or non-verbal behaviour".
   iii. An important person in psychological testing was American psychologist James Mickeen Cattell. In 1840, he used the term 'Mental test' for the first time. In 1895, Kraeplin prepared a test to measure the basic factors in characterisation of a person.
   iv. In 1905, Binet and Simon developed the first standardized intelligence test. Most of these tests were essentially individual tests.
2) Attributes of Psychological Measures

i. Certain psychological attributes have been shown to be more relevant for long term decision making.

ii. Psychological Attributes vary on a fluid - stable continuum

iii. Fluid attributes such as mood can change on an hour to hour basis. This instability indicates that moods are not great predictors of future behavior within a particular situation. Attitudes and Opinions are also relatively fluid from 18 to 25. Personal Values can also change over time. The fluidity of the above attributes makes them less than optimal predictors of important behaviors

iv. Stable Psychological Attributes: Stable attributes are essential in making long term predictions. Some researchers, for example, believe that an individual's personality is basically set by age 5. Intelligence, although relatively fluid at an early age, is relatively stable across the majority of adult years. The validity of the SAT test, for example, is dependent on the stability of intelligence. Broad classes of Interest are also relatively stable.

v. Due to the relative stability of measures of ability, interest, and personality, these three areas are the primary focus of people using psychological tests to predict future behavior.

vi. One important assumption that is made when measuring these attributes is that : All psychological attributes of interest are assumed to be normally distributed. Therefore, all psychological attributes should reveal individual differences. This assumption of normal distribution is necessary in order to analyze data with parametric statistics.

vii. When using psychological attributes in making predictions, it is absolutely vital to match the appropriate attribute with the predicted behavior. For example, measures of general intelligence wouldn't be of much use in determining an appropriate psychological treatment.

3) Intelligence -- General Mental Ability

i. What is Intelligence: Intelligence is a construct, not a concrete object. Researchers disagree on what the definition of intelligence should be.

ii. Scientists believe that intelligence is a valid and useful construct for two reasons: First, a wide variety of mental processing tasks show systematic individual variation. An individual who performs well on one measure of cognitive ability, will likely perform well on other measures of mental processing. Second, this construct is related to success in a wide variety of life tasks : school performance, training programs, and work behaviors. So, since intelligence does exhibit consistent individual differences and can be used to predict performance in a number of important areas, Psychologists study general mental ability extensively.

iii. General Mental Ability (intelligence) : The performance of tasks involving the manipulation, retrieval, evaluation , and/or processing of information which shows individual differences.

4) Characteristics of a good test of General Mental Ability

i. Broad sampling of tasks : If you believe that there are 7 (or 180) Broad classes of mental ability, then you should have problems which address each type of mental category.

ii. Sufficient sample of items within task type. 30 or more would be statistically ideal, less than 10 would be statistically shaky.

iii. General Intelligence tests should not test specific content. Achievement type items, which show mastery of specific subject area, should be kept to an absolute minimum. Remember, we want to tap into the process of intelligent action, not retrieval of specific facts.

iv. Indifference of the indicator: underlining the point made in three, the specific content of a test item is not nearly as important as the content of the underlying process which produces a specific answer.

5) Main Characteristics of a Good Psychological Test

i. Objectivity: The test should be free from subjective—judgement regarding the ability, skill, knowledge, trait or potentiality to be measured and evaluated.

ii. Reliability: This refers to the extent to which they obtained results are consistent or reliable. When the test is administered on the same sample for more than once with a reasonable gap of time, a reliable test will yield same scores. It means the test is trustworthy. There are many methods of testing reliability of a test.

    i. Test-Retest Reliability -- the same individuals ar given the test twice, separated by some interval of time.

    ii. Split-Half Reliability -- individuals take the test and then the items are divided into two equivalent halves, which are then separately scored. The pairs of scores for each test are then correlated as in the test-retest method.

iii. Validity: It refers to extent to which the test measures what it intends to measure. For example, when an intelligent test is developed to assess the level of intelligence, it should assess the intelligence of the person, not other factors. Validity explains us whether the test fulfils the objective of its development. There are many methods to assess validity of a test.

    i. Concurrent Validity -- results of the test agree with those of another test of accepted validity as a measure of that characteristic.

    ii. Predictive Validity -- predictions based on the results agree with what one would expect if the test is a valid measure of the characteristic.

    iii. Face Validity -- examination of the test reveals that the test appears to measure what it is intended to measure.

iv. Norms: Norms refer to the average performance of a representative sample on a given test. It gives a picture of average standard of a particular sample in a particular aspect. Norms are the standard scores, developed by the person who develops test. The future users of the test can compare their scores with norms to know the level of their sample.

v. Practicability: The test must be practicable in- time required for completion, the length, number of items or questions, scoring, etc. The test should not be too lengthy and difficult to answer as well as scoring.

vi. Standardization: In tests of physical characteristics such as weight, it is possible to establish the accuracy of the measurement by comparing measurements against a set of known standards.

6) Item Analysis

i. Item is a statement in the form of a question. Item analysis is one of the most important aspects of test construction.

ii. Item analysis is a general term for a set of methods used to evaluate test items.

iii. Items can be analyzed qualitatively in terms of their content and form and quantitatively in terms of their statistical properties.

iv. Importance of item Analysis:

    i. Item represents the test. All the things of a test depend on items. The importance of item analysis is given below:

    ii. There can be little doubt that item analysis is a vitally important operation in the development of a new test and one that should invariably be carried out unless special circumstances.

    iii. Both the validity and reliability of any test depend ultimately on the characteristics of its items. High reliability and validity can be built into a test in advance through item analysis.

    iv. Tests can be improved through the selection, substitution or revision of items.

        v.   Item analysis makes it possible to shorten a test and at the same time to increase its validity and reliability.
- v. Methods of computing item analysis:
  - i. Item Difficulty index: For testing purpose, the difficulty of an item is defined in terms of the percentage or proportion of persons who answer it correctly. The easier the item, the larger this percentage will be.
  - ii. Item Discrimination index: Item discrimination refers to the degree to which an item differentiates correctly among test takers in the behavior that the test is designed to measure.

7) Modern Test Theory
  - i. In psychometrics, item response theory (IRT) also known as latent trait theory, strong true score theory, or modern mental test theory, is a paradigm for the design, analysis, and scoring of tests, questionnaires, and similar instruments measuring abilities, attitudes, or other variables.
  - ii. Unlike simpler alternatives for creating scales evaluating questionnaire responses it does not assume that each item is equally difficult. This distinguishes IRT from, for instance, the assumption in Likert scaling that "All items are assumed to be replications of each other or in other words items are considered to be parallel instruments"[1] (p. 197).
  - iii. By contrast, item response theory treats the difficulty of each item (the ICCs) as information to be incorporated in scaling items. ICC stands for item characteristic curve.
  - iv. It is based on the application of related mathematical models to testing data. Because it is generally regarded as superior to classical test theory, it is the preferred method for developing scales in the United States, especially when optimal decisions are demanded, as in so-called high-stakes tests, e.g., the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) and Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT).
  - v. The name item response theory is due to the focus of the theory on the item, as opposed to the test-level focus of classical test theory. Thus IRT models the response of each examinee of a given ability to each item in the test. The term item is generic: covering all kinds of informative item. They might be multiple choice questions that have incorrect and correct responses, but are also commonly statements on questionnaires that allow respondents to indicate level of agreement (a rating or Likert scale), or patient symptoms scored as present/absent, or diagnostic information in complex systems.
  - vi. IRT is based on the idea that the probability of a correct/keyed response to an item is a mathematical function of person and item parameters. The person parameter is construed as (usually) a single latent trait or dimension. Examples include general intelligence or the strength of an attitude.
  - vii. Parameters on which items are characterized include their difficulty (known as "location" for their location on the difficulty range), discrimination (slope or correlation) representing how steeply the rate of success of individuals varies with their ability, and a pseudoguessing parameter, characterising the (lower) asymptote at which even the least able persons will score due to guessing (for instance, 25% for pure chance on a multiple choice item with four possible responses).

8) Some Examples of Psychological Tests
  - i. Psychological tests abound; here I provide only a few major categories and examples.
    - i. Intelligence Tests -- these measure aspects of intelligence that contribute to good academic performance.

ii. Personality Tests -- these measure personality characteristics. Different tests measure different characteristics, according to the theory of personality on which they were based. Examples include:

　　　　　1. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory -- measures personality traits on several scales based on true-false answers to 500 statements. Scale values are plotted on a set of parallel scales and the dots are connected by lines to form a "profile" used in diagnosis and assessment. Objectively scored.

　　　　　2. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) -- individual is shown a series of 8" X 10" cards, each depicting a scene of some sort, and is asked to tell a story based on that scene. Designed to allow the person to "project" something about himself or herself into the answers (a type of projective test). Not objectively scored.

　　　　　3. Rorshack Inkblot Test -- individual is shown a series of left-right symmetrical inkblots and is asked to describe what he or she sees there. Another projective test.

　　　iii. Aptitude Tests -- designed to indicate an individual's aptitude or talent in some area. It works by assessing the degree to which the individual already has the requisite knowledge and skills required. The SAT that high-school students take for admission to college assesses your aptitude for college-level work. In fact, it was once called the "Scholastic Aptitude Test," but has been renamed for political reasons.

　　　iv. Achievement Tests -- these measure what an individual knows or can do. A familiar example to Indiana students is the ISTEP test, designed to assess what Indiana primary and secondary school students have learned.

　　　v. Interest Inventory -- The tests asks you to indicate, for each of a large number of activities, what you are interested or not interested in doing. Your results are compared to the pattern marked by successful individuals in each of a variety of occupational fields. If your responses match up well with those of, say, a successful architect, then you would probably enjoy the sort of work an architect does. This does not tell you, however, whether you have any aptitude for the work!

Chapter 7: Personality

1) Introduction: Types and Traits Theories of Personality!
　　i. The earliest attempt to categories personality was made by Hippocrates (400 BC).
　　ii. He categorised people on the basis of four body humours and prominent personality characteristics associated with them such as: Temperamental characteristics
　　iii. Recently, psychologists have attempted to study personality in their own way. They have formulated various theories to explain personality.
　　iv. These are divided into two types, viz., types and traits theories. Both these theories of personality focus on people's personal characteristics. However, 'type' theorists and 'trait' theorists differ in the ways they use characteristics to describe people.
2) Type Theories:
　　i. Type theorists have explained personality on the basis of physique and temperament. Temperament refers to emotional aspect of the personality like changes in mood, tensions, excitement, etc. A 'type' is simply a class of individuals said to share a common collection of characteristics.Three important 'Type theories' of personality are explained here:

ii. CG Jung's Classification:
    i. CG Jung has classified personality on the basis of sociability character as Introverts and Extraverts.
    ii. Introverts are described as people who share characteristics such as shyness, social withdrawal, and tendency to talk less. Because of these characteristics these people appear to be self-centered, unable to adjust easily in social situations. They are not easily suggestible. They are future oriented, very sensible and rigid in ideas.
    iii. Extraverts share a tendency to be outgoing, friendly, talkative, and social in nature. They prefer social contacts, generous, sportive, and courageous. They are happy-go-lucky persons and show interest in present reality than future. They express their feelings openly. Take decisions quickly and act upon quickly. They are not affected easily by difficulties.
    iv. Ambiverts: There are only few people who are pure introverts or pure extraverts. The remaining majority of people possess both the qualities of introverts and extraverts. Such people are called as Ambiverts. This classification was made by psychologists who came after Jung.
iii. Ernest Kretschmer's Classification:
    i. German psychologist Kretschmer has attempted to correlate physique and character. From his studies on mental patients, he found that certain body types are associated with particular types of mental disorders. He has classified personalities into four types:
        1. Pyknic type: These are people who are short and having round body. They will have personality traits of extraverts. These people are more prone to suffer from a mental disorder called Manic Depressive Psychosis (MDP).
        2. Asthenic type: These people will have a slender or slim body. They will have the personality traits of introverts. These people are more prone to suffer from a serious mental disorder called Schizophrenia.
        3. Athletic type: These people will have strong body. They are more energetic and aggressive. They will be strong enough, determined, adventurous and balanced. They are comparable with ambiverts. They are more prone to suffer from MDP.
        4. Dysplastic type: These people will have unproportionate body and do not belong to any of the three types mentioned above. This disproportion is due to hormonal imbalancement. Their behaviour and personality are also imbalanced.
iv. William Sheldon's Classification:
    i. Sheldon has proposed a theory of personality correlating temperament and body type. He has divided people into three types:
        1. Endomorph: These people will have soft, fat and round body, having predominance of abdominal region. They are sociable and relaxed (can be compared to pyknic type).
        2. Ectomorph: These are the people who are tall, thin and flat chested, having the skin, bones and neural structure predominantly. They are shy, reserved and self-conscious (can be compared with asthenic type).
        3. Mesomorph: These people are well built with heavy and strong muscles appear predominantly. They are physically active, noisy, adventurous by nature (can be compared to athletic type).

3) Traits of Personality and Trait Theories:

    i. Traits are tendencies to behave in relatively consistent and distinctive ways across situations. These are the measurable aspects of personality. The most common way to describe people is to list these traits or qualities possessed by them. For example, friendliness, social, honesty, perseverance, submissiveness, dominance, etc.

    ii. The groups of personality traits are known as personality factors or dimensions of personality. Allport and RB Cattell are famous for their work on personality studies using traits.

    iii. GW Allport was the first person to adopt the trait approach against the type approach for the description of personalities. According to him the traits are the basic units of personality. Every person develops a unique set of organised tendencies called traits.

    iv. Allport has identified three types of traits—cardinal, central and secondary. Cardinal traits are primary and they cover all aspects of an individual's behaviour and attributes.

    v. Central traits represent few characteristics which can be used to describe a person such as kindness, honesty, etc. Secondary traits appear in only a relatively small range of situations. These are not strong enough like cardinal traits and hence they are not regarded as integral parts of one's personality.

    vi. RB Cattell has identified two types of traits. They are source traits and surface traits. Source traits are the underlying structures or sources that determine our behaviour. Surface traits are influenced by source traits and are manifested in our behaviour.

    vii. Cattell, by adopting a method called factor analysis has recognised 16 'Source traits' as building blocks of our personality. The 'Sixteen personality factor test' developed by him includes these factors. This test is widely used, because these personality characteristics can be measured and described more objectively.

4) Development and Organisation of Personality:

    i. As defined—the personality is a dynamic organisation of various qualities including physical and psychological aspects. Personality is something that grows and develops as a result of interplay of biological, sociocultural and psychological factors. Because of the developmental process, the personality is subjected to change. That is why there are individual differences. What causes these differences? The answer to this question lies in the factors influencing the development of personality. These factors are classified into three categories:

    ii. Biological Factors:

        i. These are also called as physiological factors which include endocrine glands, blood sugar and other externally imposed biological conditions. There are many endocrine glands which are situated in different parts of the body.

        ii. These glands produce different hormones. Normal secretion of these hormones promotes healthy and normal personality. Abnormalities in secretion like over or under secretions lead to im-balancement.

        iii. In addition to the biological factors drug dependence, alcoholism also affects personality. Dietary problems like—semi- starvation, vitamin deficiencies, diseases which are acute as well as chronic—like toxic and bacterial infection due to syphilis, encephalitis or such other diseases cause very severe damage to the personality development and functioning.

    iii. Sociocultural Factors:

        i. The society and culture play important role in the development of personality. Among the factors which influence the personality— the influence of home atmosphere is very crucial. Parental behaviour will have greater impact on children.

ii. Parental attitude towards children, pattern of care like over protection, over indulgence, rejection, negligence, encouragement, discouragement, their attitude towards life, relationship with friends and relatives all will affect the development. Number of children in a family, order of birth, peer group, school atmosphere also influences personality development.

iv. Psychological Factors:

i. The psychological factors like intelligence level, motives, different interests acquired by the person, attitudes developed, will and character, thinking and reasoning abilities, perceptual ability, emotional development and such other psychological factors also influence the formation, development and organisation of personality.

5) Theories of Personality:

i. There are number of theories developed by psychologists to explain personality and its development. Each theory is unique and explains personality development and functioning in its own way. Some of the prominent theories are explained here under:

ii. Psychoanalytical Theory: This theory was developed by famous psychologist Sigmund Freud. This theory has three major parts: (a) The personality structure which includes Id, Ego and Super ego (b) Topography of mind and (c) Psychosocial stages of development,

i. Personality structure: Freud constructed a model of personality with three interlocking parts: the Id, the Ego and the Super ego.

1. The Id: This is the most primitive part, develops with the birth of the child. It can be thought of as a sort of store house of biologically based urges: the urge to eat, drink, eliminate and especially, to be sexually stimulated. The sexual energy underlies these urges is called the libido. According to Freud the Id operates on a 'pleasure principle'. That is-left to itself, the id would satisfy its fundamental urges immediately and reflexively as they arose without regard to rules, the realities of life or morals of any kind.

2. The Ego: This part usually develops from the school year of life of the child—as a result of social contacts. The ego consists of elaborate ways of behaving and thinking which constitute the executive function of the person. The ego delays motives of Id and channels behaviour into more socially acceptable outlets. It keeps a person working for a living, getting along with people and generally adjusting to the realities of life. Freud characterised the ego as working in the service on the 'reality principle'. That is, the ego tries to satisfy the id's urge for pleasure, but only in realistic ways. The ongoing tension between insistent urges of the id and the constraints of reality helps the ego develop certain skills to safeguard the self-image. These skills are called ego defence mechanisms

3. The Super ego: This part of personality corresponds closely to what we commonly call the conscience. It consists mainly of prohibitions learned from parents and other authorities. The super ego may condemn as 'wrong' certain things which the ego would otherwise do to satisfy the id. However, super ego is guided by 'ego ideal'- a set of values and moral ideals that are pursued because they are perceived to be worthy. In other words the super ego operates on the 'moral principal'.

ii. Freud believed that because of the diverse nature of these three parts, there will be constant conflicts between one another, which leads to three types of anxiety, viz.

1. Reality anxiety-arising when the individual is confronted by dangers or threats in the external world.
2. Neurotic anxiety-arising when the individual's Id impulses threaten to break through his ego controls and result in behaviour that will lead to his punishment and
3. Moral anxiety- arising when the individual does something or even contemplates doing something in conflict with his super ego or moral values and arouses guilt feelings.

iii. Topography: It is understood that there will be constant conflicts going on between id, ego and super ego. These conflicts may occur in the conscious, subconscious and unconscious levels of human psyche. Freud refers to the unconscious, the subconscious and the conscious as the 'topographical' aspects of the self, also called as the level of consciousness. The functioning of these levels is as follows:

1. The conscious: According to Freud the conscious part of mind is that part which is ready to receive the stimuli from the external world. It helps to perform the functions like eating, drinking, reading, writing, talking, thinking and such other activities and also helps us to behave in an appropriate way. It will be functioning only when the individual is in a wake up state. At the conscious level we will be aware of certain things around us and of certain thoughts.
2. The preconscious: This is also known as subconscious. At this level are memories or thoughts that are easily available with a moment's reflection. For example, what we had for breakfast or what class was held today morning. Preconscious will be functioning between conscious and unconscious parts. In character it resembles conscious to greater extent and will have better adjustment with it. Its contents can be recalled easily. It prevents the suppressed thoughts and other prohibited motives in the unconscious from entering the conscious part. Hence, it is also called as 'Censor'.
3. The unconscious: This part of mind contains memories, thoughts and motives which we cannot easily call up. It is the largest and also the powerful part of mind. It contains the natural instincts, thoughts inappropriate desires, irrational motives and painful experiences. All the experiences suppressed by conscious part will remain here. These forces will be trying to come to conscious part for satisfaction. But their entry is prevented by preconscious. Hence, they try to come out when preconscious part is at rest. They appear in the form of dreams, or in the form of slip of tongue, slip of pen, automatic writing, amnesia, etc.

iv. Freud has developed certain techniques such as free association, dream analysis, analysis of transference, analysis of resistance, hypnosis and such other techniques in order to bring out the contents of unconscious which cause mental illness.

v. Freud has compared these three levels to an 'Ice berg' in water. The conscious part will be like tip of ice berg which is above the surface level. Although that is the part we can see, it is only a small part.

vi. The subconscious part, as a thin layer is separating the conscious and unconscious. The major part of the mind that is unconscious will be like a submerged big part of ice berg.

vii. Psychosexual stages of development: In his theory of child development, Freud described a succession of stages around body zones. In his opinion, every child will have an innate tendency to seek pleasure especially through physical stimulation and

particularly through stimulation of parts of the body that are sensitive to touch: the mouth, the anus and the genitals. Such a pleasure includes many psychological issues also. Hence, these stages are called as psychosexual stages. These are:

1. Oral stage (birth to age one): According to Freud's theory, the infant obtains sensual pleasure first by sucking and later by biting. A baby given too little or too much opportunity to suck, or made anxious about it may acquire oral fixations, leading to abnormal behaviour like over talkativeness, dependency, chain smoking, etc.

2. Anal stage (age one to age three): This is a period of toilet training by parents. The anus becomes highly sensitive area. The child finds pleasure in holding on and letting go of feces. Parents try to teach to avoid such prohibited behaviour connected with excretion. This leads to fixation causing abnormal characterisitcs during adulthood such as messiness and disorders such as excessive compulsiveness, over conformity and exaggerated self-control.

3. Phallic stage (age three to age five): During this stage the child's interest shifts toward genitals. The child enjoys stimulating the genital organs. Freud believed that it is at this time the children develop sensual feelings toward the parent of the opposite sex. Boys develop 'Oedipus complex', i.e. develop affection towards mother and in turn develop castration anxiety. On the other side, girls develop affection towards father which is called as 'Electra complex'.

4. Latency stage (age six through puberty): During this period the child's interest is shifted towards learning more about the world, sexuality is largely repressed and the ego expands.

5. Genital stage (adolescence and beyond): Mature heterosexual interests develop during this phase. The stage is set for responsible enjoyment of adult sexuality. During this stage the sexual interests will lie outside the family circle.

iii. Adler's Theory of Striving for Superiority:

i. Alfred Adler was the follower of Freud, but opposed his views and established his own school of thought called Individual Psychology. Adler stressed on the social, rather than biological determinants of personality and on the upward drive of the self. In his view the prime source of man's motivation is the innate striving for superiority by attaining perfection.

ii. According to Adler, every child will suffer from some weakness which results in development of inferiority. But every child will try to compensate one weakness through some other ability. For example, a bodily handicapped child may work hard and get a rank in the examination.

iii. An ugly looking girl may gain social recognition by becoming a famous singer. Inferiority feelings are thus essential requirements of psychological growth. Adler thought that under optimal circumstances of development, striving for superiority take socially constructive forms having to do with co-operative relationships with people, identification with the group and efforts to bring about the ideal society.

iv. Jung's Theory of Personality:

i. C.G.Jung was the follower of Freud, but due to difference of opinion established his own school of thought called 'Analytical Psychology'. Jung opposed the views of Freud about psychosexual development during childhood.

ii. On the other hand, he stressed 'adult adjustment' aspect. Jung felt that the libido is not only sexual energy but it is 'continuous life energy', a striving to live and insure the survival of one's species. He called unconscious as 'Collective unconscious' and divided it as 'personal unconscious' and 'racial unconscious'.

iii. The personal unconscious is developed out of any of the individual's conscious experiences that had been repressed.

iv. Collective unconscious grows out of the past experiences of the human race. He said, collective unconscious will be stored with primitive fundamental images, impressions or predispositions that were common to earlier members of the human race. He called these images, impressions or predispositions as 'archetypes'. He said these archetypes will cause emotion generated, behaviour.

v. According to Jung, the self develops as a result of harmonisation of conscious and unconscious and leads to unique patterns of behaviour. He called this process as individuation, i.e. every individual is distinct from others.

vi. Jung has also proposed two concepts to explain nature of personality, viz., extraversion and introversion. He has also introduced a concept called 'complexes' which he defined as a 'network of ideas bound together by a common emotion or a set of feelings'.

v. Karen Horney and Basic Anxiety:

i. Karen Horney concentrates mainly on 'Basic anxiety' as a prime concept to understand human personality. Basic anxiety according to Horney—stems from anything that causes insecurity in the child, especially in relation to his/her parents.

ii. That is being dominated by parents, being inconsistently treated, being given too much or too little responsibility, being treated with coldness or indifferences, being involved in parental conflicts and so on.

iii. The child tries to cope with this anxiety by various adjective and largely irrational acts. But if the anxieties are intense and prolonged, it develops neurotic behaviour and requires treatment. Horney stresses that the main cause of basic anxiety and other personality problems is the social and culturally induced disturbances in the child's developmental experiences.

vi. Sullivan and Interpersonal Relations:

i. Harry Stack Sullivan describes personality as the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterise a human life. According to him there is no personality apart from its relations with other people; all that is distinctly human is a product of social interactions from birth onwards and every individual is motivated towards achieving social and interpersonal security.

ii. Therefore, according to Sullivan the study of personality is really the study of the whole interpersonal situation and not an isolated individual.

vii. Erickson and Psychosocial Crisis:

i. Erik Erickson's theory is known as Ego psychology. According to Erickson, as the individual progresses through his developmental stages, meets with psychosocial crises peculiar to each stage. It is psychosocial because, society has developed social institutions specific to each stage in an attempt to mould and socialise the individual as he progresses through these stages.

ii. In Erickson's scheme, there are eight psychosocial stages extending through the life span from infancy to old age. Each stage will experience certain conflicts called crises.

iii. Among all the crises the 'search for identity' during adolescence is most powerful motive. Erickson also states that the individual develops a healthy personality by mastering inner and outer crises with positive solutions to life's problems.

viii. Theory of Learning and Personality Development:

i. Learning and conditioning in classical, instrumental and cognitive forms are highly relevant to personality and its development. Dollard and Miller used animal experiments to test human conflicts and repressions thus advancing social learning theory.

ii. Albert Bandura and Walters extended social learning theory into the domain of observational learning. They said that observational learning or imitation generally takes place in a social situation involving a model and an imitator.

iii. The imitator observes the model and experiences the model's behaviour and its consequences vicariously (observational learning).

iv. This process is called vicarious learning. For example, seeing that one child is punished by teacher for talking in the class, other child may stop talking. The observer himself will not experience rewards or punishments that are imposed on the model, but vicariously experienced them.

v. Skinner developed a method called 'Learning by conditioning' in which the individuals as a result of their experiences establish an association or linkage between two events. He used Instrumental conditioning principles to explain the ways in which environmental conditions as reinforcements influence people's behaviour.

ix. Humanistic Theories:

i. These theories are developed by two psychologists—Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow. Humanistic theories emphasise the importance of people's subjective attitudes, feelings and beliefs especially with regard to self. Roger's theory focuses on the impact of disparity between a person's perceived real self and his ideal self that is, 'how I am and how I would like to be'. Maslow focuses on the significance of self-actualization.

ii. Humanistic theories believe that each person is potential enough to be creative and responsible, he is free to choose his destiny and every individual strives to fulfill his need for self-actualization or realizing his/her fullest potential.

6) Determinants and Factors of Personality:

i. Every person has a different personality, which is the result of various factors that shape it up. We call them the 'determinants of personality' or the 'factors of personality'.

ii. These determinants or factors of personality can be divided into 4 major categories: environmental factors, physical factors, situational factors and heredity factors.

iii. Contrary to many beliefs, heredity factors are indeed major determinants of personality.

iv. Personalities change over time. As an individual grows, experiences different environments, lives and works with other people, and as his physical structures change, his personality also evolves.

Chapter 8: Intelligence

1) Introduction
2) Modern statistical calculation of intelligence

i. IQ -- Intelligence quotient:

i. The Stanford-Binet test of 1916 calculated I.Q. as follows: IQ = (MA/CA) x 100, MA = mental age CA = chronological (actual) age.

  ii. Because Mental Age doesn't typically grow after 25, this method underestimates most adult IQS.

  iii. On modern tests, a deviation IQ is obtained.

  iv. By comparing your actual score on an intelligence test to the average score on that test, we determine whether you are above average, below average , or average in intelligence.

  v. We take the raw data from the test (your score, the average, and the standard deviation) and we statistically transform the score into a distribution where the mean is 100 and the standard deviation is 15. Because this is a normal (bell curve) distribution, we can state with certainty where you fall within the population.

 ii. EQ- Emotional Quotient

  i. Emotional intelligence is a new concept developed by Dr John Mayer and Dr Peter Salovey (1990) from American University. However, it was popularised by American Psychologist Daniel Goleman (1995).

  ii. Emotional intelligence is defined as "one's ability to know, feel and judge emotions in cooperation with a person's thinking process for behaving in a proper way, with ultimate realisation of happiness in him and in others".

  iii. Like general intelligence, emotional intelligence is also developed in a person by birth.

  iv. Normal development of emotion leads to healthy life, but too much variation in emotional level damages the individual's life.

  v. The level of emotion in a person is called Emotional Quotient (EQ). This can be obtained by using emotional intelligence tests, same way as we assess the IQ of a person. The success of a person in his job or profession depends not only on his IQ, but also on his EQ.

  vi. The nurse with high emotional quotient can identify and perceive her emotions and of others like patients easily through face reading, bodily language, voice tone, etc. She can have a proper understanding of the nature, intensity and outcomes of her emotions. High EQ also helps the nurse to exercise proper control and regulation over the expression and use of emotions in dealing with her and others, so as to promote harmony and peace.

3) Distribution of Intelligence

 i. Every individual in a society will have some amount of intelligence. But they differ in the level of intelligence.

 ii. Some may be very dull, some may be average and some other people may be more intelligent. But how many of them in a group or a society are dull or intelligent or average? The answer to this question lies in knowing the distribution of intelligence in a given population.

 iii. If we measure the intelligence of a large number of people and plot the IQ scores of these people on a graph, it assumes the shape of a "Normal Distribution Curve" or otherwise called 'Bell Shaped Curve'

 iv. This curve indicates that, a very few people will be at the lowest score and the equal number will be at the highest level of the IQ. The number gradually increases as we go up from the lowest point till we reach the midpoint or the average. A large number of people in a population will cluster around the mean score.

 v. The number gradually decreases from the midpoint till the highest level is reached wherein there will be very few individuals. The lower side of the curve indicates the people with low intelligence

and the higher side indicates people with above average level of intelligence. According to American Association for Mentally Retarded: Terman and Goddard have classified MR as follows:

    i.   Idiots: IQ: 0-25,

    ii.   Imbecile: IQ: 26-50

    iii.   Moron: IQ: 51-70

4) Notes on Factor Theories and Cognitive Theories of Intelligence

    i.   Characteristics of people with regard to their intellectual activities and abilities indicate that the intelligence cannot be a single function or capacity.

    ii.   There must be various components for intelligence. Psychologists have attempted to analyze these components, which has resulted in the development of different theories.

    iii.   These theories have been grouped into two categories—viz., Factor theories and cognitive theories.

    iv.   Factor Theories:

        i.   Thurston's multifactor theory: Thurston (1946) rejected the General theory of intelligence and instead presented his own theory. This theory states that the human intelligence includes 7 primary mental abilities. Though these abilities appear to be different, they are related to each other. They are: Primary mental abilities; Thurston has developed a test called Primary Mental Abilities test to assess these factors.

            1.   Verbal Comprehension - vocabulary, reading, verbal analogies

            2.   Word Fluency --- anagrams, rhyming tests

            3.   Number -- mathematical operations

            4.   Space - spatial visualizations and mental transformation.

            5.   Associative Memory -- rote memory

            6.   Perceptual Speed -- quickness in noticing similarities and differences

            7.   Reasoning - skill in inductive, deductive, and math problems

        ii.   Spearman's two-factor theory: This as a very popular theory. According to Spearman intelligence is the ability to think constructively. Spearman (1927) proposes that intelligence consists of two abilities, viz. 'G'- general ability and 'S'- special ability. General factor or ability works in conjunction with special ability. In all intellectual activities of the human being along with general ability, there will also be a special ability which is related to such action.

        iii.   Multi factor theory of intelligence: Proposed by EL Thorndike. According to Thorndike, intelligence is not a single factor like general intelligence rather it is a combination of multiple factors.These factors include: (a) Abstract intelligence, (b) Concrete (technical) intelligence, (c) Social intelligence, etc. Thorndike states, each factor is an independent element and hence it is not possible to combine all these elements.

        iv.   Guilford's tri-dimensional theory: JP Guilford (1961) developed a model of intelligence in which he explained that every intellectual activity can be described in terms of three different basic dimensions, viz., operations- the act of thinking, contents- the terms in which we think like words, symbols, etc. and products- the ideas we develop. He has proposed his tri-dimensional theory of intelligence represented by cubical model. This model is provided with 120 primary abilities, and is a combination of 4 contents, 5 operations and 6 products (4x5x6=120). Guilford's model of the Structure of Intellect: the primary mental abilities included in intelligence. However, Guilford (1967) has expanded his cube-shaped model of intellect to include 150 factors, which includes 5 contents, 6 products and 5 operations (5x6x5=150). This may be understood by studying

this example: A child is asked to determine the day of the week on a particular date with the help of a calendar. The task involves operations like convergent thinking, memory and cognition. In carrying out these operations, he has to make use of the contents. In this particular case, he will make use of semantics, i.e. reading and understanding of the printed words and figures indicating days and dates of a particular month in the calendar. By carrying out mental operations with the help of the contents he will finally arrive at the products. The day of the week to which the date in question refers represents the factor known as 'relations'.

    v. Hierarchical Models of Intelligence: Vernon (1960) borrowed from both Spearman and Thurstone in his conception of intelligence. General intelligence, g can be broken down into two major group factors --- Verbal-Educational, and Spatial - Motor. In turn, these major group factors can be broken down into minor group factors, and these minor factors account for patterns of association seen in cognitive ability tests. Hierarchical Models suggest that both broad and general abilities can be measured. The key is to determine what you are trying to predict, and to match the type of intelligence which is most relevant to making your predictions.

v. Cognitive Theories of Intelligence: These theories are otherwise called process-oriented theories. They focus on intellectual processes; the patterns of thinking and reasoning in people, used to solve problems. These theories consider intelligence as a process which helps to deal with problems and to find out the answers. They are called cognitive theories because of their focus on fundamental cognitive processes. The important theories are:

    i. Cattell and Horn's Theory: Cattell (1971) and Horn (1978) have proposed this theory in which they have distinguished two types of intelligence. Fluid intelligence: This is an innate, biologically or genetically determined capacity and not influenced by education or training. This capacity helps the person in learning and problem solving. This is the ability which is useful in understanding and adjusting to strange situations. This ability develops fully in people by the end of an individual's adolescence. Crystallized intelligence: It is a learned or acquired capacity. It is influenced by environmental factors like education, training, culture, knowledge and learned skills. This ability can be observed in the behaviour of a person while dealing within culture, traditions in society, his knowledge in worldly affairs, through the skills in handling machinery, tools, etc. Generally it continues throughout life. Though both types of intelligence are independent, they are interrelated.

    ii. Information Processing Theory of Intelligence: This theory was proposed by American Psychologist Robert Sternberg (1984). He distinguished between information processing components and meta-components. Components are the steps to solve a problem and the meta-components are the basics of knowledge that one has to know to solve the problem. The information processing is like a process of solving a problem by an individual in which he proceeds to solve a problem which he comes across, gathers the necessary information and makes use of this information for completing that task. Information processing includes the following steps: Identifying the relevant information (encoding), Drawing the necessary inferences (inferring), Establishing relationship between past and present experiences (mapping), Applying the inferred relationship (application), Justifying the correct solution (justification), Provide the correct solution (response).

iii. Jensen's Theory of Mental Functioning: Arther Jensen (1969) proposed this theory. According to him, the functioning of one's mind depends upon the type and degree of intelligence one possesses. Jensen splits intelligence into two types of abilities- associative abilities and cognitive abilities. Associative ability is the capacity to learn, identify, discriminate, remember and reproduce the learnt information and experiences. On the other hand, cognitive or conceptual ability is concerned with higher order thinking, reasoning, analysing and problem solving.According to Jenson associative abilities are related to biological maturation and the cognitive are dependent on education and culture, leading to more individual differences.

iv. In addition to these, there are theories proposed by HJ Eysenck, Compion and Brown, Gardner's theory of multiple intelligence, etc.

Chapter 9: Social Influence and Group Dynamics

1) Introduction
2) Social Facilitation
   i. Social facilitation can be defined as 'an improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others'.
   ii. There are two types of social facilitation: co-action effects and audience effect.
   iii. The first social psychology laboratory experiment was undertaken in this area by Norman Triplett in 1898. In his research on the speed records of cyclists, he noticed that racing against each other rather than against the clock alone increased the cyclists' speeds.
   iv. Triplett's experiments demonstrate the co-action effect, a phenomenon whereby increased task performance comes about by the mere presence of others doing the same task.
   v. Social facilitation occurs not only in the presence of a co-actor but also in the presence of a passive spectator/audience. This is known as the audience effect.
   vi. Dashiell (1935) found that the presence of an audience facilitated subjects' multiplication performance by increasing the number of simple multiplications completed.
   vii. Travis (1925) found that well-trained subjects were better at a psychomotor task (pursuit rotor) in front of spectators.
   viii. Acording to Cottrell (1968), it's not the presence of other people that is important for social facilitation to occur but the apprehension about being evaluated by them. We know that approval and disapproval are often dependent on others' evaluations and so the presence of others triggers an acquired arousal drive based on evaluation anxiety.
3) Atrribution Theory:
   i. Attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment" (Fiske, & Taylor, 1991).
   ii. Attribution theory is concerned with how and why ordinary people explain events as they do.
   iii. Heider (1958) believed that people are naive psychologists trying to make sense of the social world. People tend to see cause and effect relationships, even where there is none!
   iv. Heider didn't so much develop a theory himself as emphasize certain themes that others took up. There were two main ideas that he put forward that became influential.
      i. Internal Attribution: The process of assigning the cause of behaviour to some internal characteristic, rather than to outside forces. When we explain the behavior of others we

look for enduring internal attributions, such as personality traits. For example, we attribute the behavior of a person to their personality, motives or beliefs.

ii. External Attribution: The process of assigning the cause of behaviour to some situation or event outside a person's control rather than to some internal characteristic. When we try to explain our own behavior we tend to make external attributions, such as situational or environment features.

v. Jones and Davis (1965) thought that people pay particular attention to intentional behavior (as opposed to accidental or unthinking behavior).

vi. Jones and Davis' theory helps us understand the process of making an internal attribution. They say that we tend to do this when we see a correspondence between motive and behavior. For example, when we see a correspondence between someone behaving in a friendly way and being a friendly person.

vii. Davis used the term correspondent inference to refer to an occasion when an observer infers that a person's behavior matches or corresponds with their personality. It is an alternative term to dispositional attribution. Jones and Davis say we draw on 5 sources of information:

i. Choice: If a behavior is freely chosen it is believed to be due to internal (dispositional) factors.

ii. Accidental vs. Intentional Behavior: Behavior that is intentional is likely to be attributed to the person's personality, and behavior which is accidental is likely to be attributed to situation / external causes.

iii. Social Desirability: Behaviors low in sociably desirability (non conforming) lead us to make (internal) dispositional inferences more than socially undesirable behaviors. For example, if you observe a person getting on a bus and sitting on the floor instead of one of the seats. This behavior has low social desirability (non conforming) and is likely to correspond with the personality of the individual.

iv. Hedonistic Relevance: If the other person's behavior appears to be directly intended to benefit or harm us.

v. Personalism: If the other person's behavior appears to be intended to have an impact on us, we assume that it is "personal", and not just a by-product of the situation we are both in.

viii. Kelley's (1967) covariation model is the best known attribution theory. He developed a logical model for judging whether a particular action should be attributed to some characteristic (internal) of the person or the environment (external).

ix. The term covariation simply means that a person has information from multiple observations, at different times and situations, and can perceive the covariation of an observed effect and its causes.

x. He argues that in trying to discover the causes of behavior people act like scientists. More specifically they take into account three kinds of evidence.

xi. Kelley believed that there were three types of causal information which influenced our judgments. Low factors = person (i.e. internal) attribution. High factors = situational (i.e. external) attribution.

i. Consensus: the extent to which other people behave in the same way in a similar situation. E.g. Alison smokes a cigarette when she goes out for a meal with her friend. If her friend smokes, her behavior is high in consensus. If only Alison smokes it is low.

ii. Distinctiveness: the extent to which the person behaves in the same way in similar situations. If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, her behavior is high in distinctiveness. If she smokes at any time or place, distinctiveness is low.

iii. Consistency: the extent to which the person behaves like this every time the situation occurs. If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, consistency is high. If she only smokes on one special occasion, consistency is low.

4) Conformity

i. Conformity is a type of social influence involving a change in belief or behavior in order to fit in with a group.

ii. This change is in response to real (involving the physical presence of others) or imagined (involving the pressure of social norms / expectations) group pressure. Jenness (1932) was the first psychologist to study conformity. His experiment was an ambiguous situation involving a glass bottle filled with beans. He asked participants individually to estimate how many beans the bottle contained.

5) Types of Social Conformity

i. Man (1969) states that "the essence of conformity is yielding to group pressure". He identified three types of conformity: Normative, informational and ingratiational.

i. Normative Conformity: Yielding to group pressure because a person wants to fit in with the group. E.g. Asch Line Study. Conforming because the person is scared of being rejected by the group. This type of conformity usually involves compliance – where a person publicly accepts the views of a group but privately rejects them.

ii. Informational Conformity: This usually occurs when a person lacks knowledge and looks to the group for guidance. Or when a person is in an ambiguous (i.e. unclear) situation and socially compares their behavior with the group. E.g. Sherif's Study. This type of conformity usually involves internalization – where a person accepts the views of the groups and adopts them as an individual.

iii. Ingratiational Conformity: Where a person conforms to impress or gain favor/acceptance from other people. It is similar to normative influence, but is motivated by the need for social rewards rather than the threat of rejection, i.e., group pressure does not enter the decision to conform.

ii. Kelman (1958) distinguished between three different types of conformity: Compliance, internalization and identification.

i. Compliance: Publicly changing behavior to fit in with the group while privately disagreeing. In other words, conforming to the majority (publicly), in spite of not really agreeing with them (privately). This is seen in Asch's line experiment.

ii. Internalization: Publicly changing behavior to fit in with the group and also agreeing with them privately. This is seen in Sherif's autokinetic experiment.

iii. Identification: Conforming to the expectations of a social role. Similar to compliance, there does not have to be a change in private opinion. A good example is Zimbardo's Prison Study.

iii. Non-Conformity: Not everyone conforms to social pressure. Indeed, there are many factors that contribute to an individual's desire to remain independent of the group. For example, Smith and Bond (1998) discovered cultural differences in conformity between western and eastern countries. People from Western cultures (such as America and the UK) are more likely to be individualistic and don't want to be seen as being the same as everyone else. In contrast eastern cultures (such as Asian countries) are more likely to value the needs of the family and other

social groups before their own. They are known as collectivist cultures and are more likely to conform.

6) Obedience:
    i. Obedience is a form of social influence where an individual acts in response to a direct order from another individual, who is usually an authority figure. It is assumed that without such an order the person would not have acted in this way.
    ii. Obedience occurs when you are told to do something (authority), whereas conformity happens through social pressure (the norms of the majority). Obedience involves a hierarchy of power / status. Therefore, the person giving the order has a higher status than the person receiving the order.
    iii. In the 1960s, the social psychologist Stanley Milgram did a famous research study called the obedience study. It showed that people have a strong tendency to comply with authority figures.
    iv. Real Life example: Adolf Eichmann was executed in 1962 for his part in organizing the Holocaust, in which six million Jewish people, as well as gypsies, communists and trade unionists were transported to death camps and murdered in Nazi Germany and surrounding countries under Nazi control. In his jail diary Eichmann wrote 'The orders were, for me, the highest thing in my life and I had to obey them without question' (extract quoted in The Guardian, 12 August, 1999, p. 13).

7) Altruism:
    i. Altruism involves the unselfish concern for other people. It involves doing things simply out of a desire to help, not because you feel obligated to out of duty, loyalty, or religious reasons.
    ii. Altruism is one aspect of what social psychologists refer to as prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior refers to any action that benefits other people, no matter what the motive or how the giver benefits from the action.
    iii. Psychologists have suggested a number of different explanations for why altruism exists, including:
        i. Biological Reasons: Kin selection - We may be more altruistic towards those we are related to because it increases the odds that our blood relations will survives and transmit their genes to future generations.
        ii. Neurological Reasons: Altruism activates reward centers in the brain. Neurobiologists have found that when engaged in an altruistic act, the pleasure centers of the brain become active.
        iii. Social Norms: Society's rules, norms, and expectations can also influence whether or not people engage in altruistic behavior. The norm of reciprocity, for example, is a social expectation in which we feel pressured to help others if they have already done something for us.
        iv. Cognitive Reasons: While the definition of altruism involves doing for others without reward, there may still be cognitive incentives that are not obvious. For example, we might help others to relieve out own distress or because being kind to others upholds our view of ourselves as kind, empathetic people. Some of the cognitive explanations:
        v. Empathy: Researchers including Batson et al. (1981) suggest that people are more likely to engage in altruistic behavior when they feel empathy for the person who is in distress, a suggestion known as the empathy-altruism hypothesis. Batson suggests that both empathy and altruism are innate traits and other researchers have found that children tend to become more altruistic as their sense of empathy develops.

      vi.   Helping Relieves Negative Feelings: Other experts have proposed that altruistic acts help relieve the negative feelings created by observing someone else in distress, an idea referred to as the negative-state relief model. Essentially, seeing another person in trouble causes us to feel upset, distressed, or uncomfortable, so helping the person in trouble helps reduce these negative feelings.

    iv.   Batson suggests that while people do often behave altruistically for selfish reasons, he believes that true altruism is possible. Cialdini and others have instead suggested that empathy for others is often guided by a desire to help one's self.

8) **Attitudes**

    i.   An attitude is "a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols". "..a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor"

    ii.   In psychology, an attitude refers to a set of emotions, beliefs, and behaviors toward a particular object, person, thing, or event. Attitudes are often the result of experience or upbringing. They can have a powerful influence over behavior.

    iii.   While attitudes are enduring, they can also change.

    iv.   Structure of Attitudes

        i.   Cognitive Component: Your thoughts and beliefs about the subject.

        ii.   Affective Component: How the object, person, issue or event makes you feel.

        iii.   Behavioral Component: How the attitude influences your behavior.

    v.   Key Study: LaPiere (1934):

        i.   Aim: To investigate the relationship between attitudes and behavior.

        ii.   Method: LaPiere travelled round America with a Chinese couple, expecting to meet discrimination as a result of anti Chinese feeling. At the time prejudice against Asians was widespread and there were no laws against racial discrimination. They visited 67 hotels and 184 restaurants. Six months later, after their return, all the establishments they had visited were sent a letter, asking whether they would accept Chinese guests.

        iii.   Results: They were only refused at one of the establishments they visited, and were generally treated very politely. Of the 128 establishments which responded to the letter, 91% said they were not willing to accept Chinese guests.

        iv.   Conclusion: Attitudes do not always predict behavior. Cognitive and affective components of attitudes are not necessarily expressed in behavior.

        v.   The LaPiere's study shows that the cognitive and affective components of attitudes (e.g. disliking Chinese people) do not necessarily coincide with behavior (e.g. serving them). Attitudes can serve functions for the individual.

    vi.   Daniel Katz (1960) outlines four functional areas:

        i.   Knowledge. Attitudes provide meaning (knowledge) for life. The knowledge function refers to our need for a world which is consistent and relatively stable. This allows us to predict what is likely to happen, and so gives us a sense of control. Attitudes can help us organize and structure our experience. Knowing a person's attitude helps us predict their behavior.

        ii.   Self / Ego-expressive. The attitudes we express (1) help communicate who we are and (2) may make us feel good because we have asserted our identity. Self-expression of attitudes can be non-verbal too.

        iii.   Adaptive. If a person holds and/or expresses socially acceptable attitudes, other people will reward them with approval and social acceptance.

iv. The ego-defensive function refers to holding attitudes that protect our self-esteem or that justify actions that make us feel guilty.

9) Social Roles and Social Norms:
   i. Social roles are the part people play as members of a social group. With each social role you adopt, your behavior changes to fit the expectations both you and others have of that role.
   ii. Social Norms are unwritten rules about how to behave. They provide us with an expected idea of how to behave in a particular social group or culture.
   iii. The idea of norms provides a key to understanding social influence in general and conformity in particular. Social norms are the accepted standards of behavior of social groups. These groups range from friendship and work groups to nation states.
   iv. Behavior which fulfills these norms is called conformity, and most of the time roles and norms are powerful ways of understanding and predicting what people will do. There are norms defining appropriate behavior for every social group. Norms provide order in society.

Chapter 12: Organizational and Industrial Psychology

1) Leadership Styles
   i. Visionary. This style is most appropriate when an organization needs a new direction. Its goal is to move people towards a new set of shared dreams. "Visionary leaders articulate where a group is going, but not how it will get there – setting people free to innovate, experiment, take calculated risks," write Mr. Goleman and his coauthors.
   ii. Coaching. This one-on-one style focuses on developing individuals, showing them how to improve their performance, and helping to connect their goals to the goals of the organization. Coaching works best, Mr. Goleman writes, "with employees who show initiative and want more professional development." But it can backfire if it's perceived as "micromanaging" an employee, and undermines his or her self-confidence.
   iii. Affiliative. This style emphasizes the importance of team work, and creates harmony in a group by connecting people to each other. Mr. Goleman argues this approach is particularly valuable "when trying to heighten team harmony, increase morale, improve communication or repair broken trust in an organization." But he warns against using it alone, since its emphasis on group praise can allow poor performance to go uncorrected. "Employees may perceive," he writes, "that mediocrity is tolerated."
   iv. Democratic. This style draws on people's knowledge and skills, and creates a group commitment to the resulting goals. It works best when the direction the organization should take is unclear, and the leader needs to tap the collective wisdom of the group. Mr. Goleman warns that this consensus-building approach can be disastrous in times of crisis, when urgent events demand quick decisions.
   v. Pacesetting. In this style, the leader sets high standards for performance. He or she is "obsessive about doing things better and faster, and asks the same of everyone." But Mr. Goleman warns this style should be used sparingly, because it can undercut morale and make people feel as if they are failing. "Our data shows that, more often than not, pacesetting poisons the climate," he writes.
   vi. Commanding. This is classic model of "military" style leadership – probably the most often used, but the least often effective. Because it rarely involves praise and frequently employs criticism, it undercuts morale and job satisfaction. Mr. Goleman argues it is only effective in a crisis, when an

urgent turnaround is needed. Even the modern military has come to recognize its limited usefulness.

vii. Transactional: Managers using the transactional leadership style receive certain tasks to perform and provide rewards or punishments to team members based on performance results. Managers and team members set predetermined goals together, and employees agree to follow the direction and leadership of the manager to accomplish those goals. The manager possesses power to review results and train or correct employees when team members fail to meet goals. Employees receive rewards, such as bonuses, when they accomplish goals.

viii. Transformational: The transformational leadership style depends on high levels of communication from management to meet goals. Leaders motivate employees and enhance productivity and efficiency through communication and high visibility. This style of leadership requires the involvement of management to meet goals. Leaders focus on the big picture within an organization and delegate smaller tasks to the team to accomplish goals.

2) Process of Decision Making
   i. **The use of heuristics:** For much of our evolution we have faced an environment with major differences from the modern business world. We have developed a range of cognitive mechanisms to cope with adverse environments in which resources are scarce. These mechanisms include a range of simplifying and confidence-sustaining mental short cuts (heuristics) that help us to make quick decisions when pausing to undertake a full analysis would be unwise. While these ways of thinking are not the same as rigorous logic or formally rational reasoning, they are well suited to fast-paced intuitive judgements and actions. However, these evolved modes of thinking also create some major traps.

   ii. **Framing the problem:** The way in which a problem is framed can have a significant effect on how you make decisions. Medical decisions can be affected by whether outcomes are framed as likelihood of deaths or of saving patients. Financial decisions can be affected by whether you see yourself in a position of loss or gain. In a position of gain we tend to become risk averse; in a position of loss we will tend to take risks to avoid or recover losses. You may know people who are good at using this to their advantage; they exert influence by framing choices so that others will choose the option they prefer. Framing effects can be quite subtle and even affect our recall of events. For example, in one study, groups of students were shown a film of a car accident. Each group of students was shown the same film clip and then asked 'How fast were the cars going when they ---- each other?' where '----' was a different word for each group, variously 'smashed into', 'collided into', 'bumped into', 'hit' and 'contacted'. The table below shows the average speed estimated by each group.

   iii. **Using information:** Our use of information is often biased in important regards. First, we pay more attention to information that is easily available. Second, we overweight memories which are more easily retrievable – usually because they are emotionally vivid or have personal relevance. We pay selective attention to information, often in a self-serving way. We will often give greater weight to information which shows us in a favourable light (self-serving bias), or information that supports an already established point of view (confirmation bias).

   iv. **Problems of judgement:** We are constantly bombarded by information. Simply walking though a room risks flooding us with more sensory information that we can possibly process. Stop for a moment and consider all the different things you can see, hear, smell, or feel. Which of them do you usually tune out? From birth we start learning to filter information out and to prioritise, label and classify the phenomena we observe. This is a vital process. Without it we literally could not

function in our day-to-day lives. In our work lives, if we did not filter information and discard options we would suffer from analysis paralysis: the inability to make any decision in the face of the complexity and the ambiguity of the real world. However, this filtering comes at a cost and introduces some significant biases into the judgements we make. One is overconfidence: we tend to be unduly optimistic about estimates and judgements that we make and filter out of our awareness many of the sources of uncertainty. Another problem is our tendency to be swayed by how a problem is framed. Many decisions need revisiting and updating as new information comes available. However most of us make insufficient anchoring adjustment: this is the tendency to fail to update one's targets as the environment changes. Once a manager has made an initial decision or judgement then this provides a mental anchor which acts as a source of resistance to reaching a significantly different conclusion as new information becomes available. It is what happens when one has made a snap judgement and then disregards feedback that is inconsistent with this position. This bias can affect judgements about people as well as technical judgements. Making early judgements about someone, for example in a job interview, may put you in an anchored position and later information may come too late to shift your opinion.

v. **Post-decision evaluation:** For most normally functioning people, maintaining self-esteem is an important internal goal. This can cause us to filter out or discount information that might show us in an unfavourable light. This is what lies behind the fundamental attribution bias. This is the tendency to attribute good outcomes to our own actions and bad outcomes to factors outside our control. While such defences against loss of self-esteem can be helpful to the extent that they help us persist in the face of adversity, they can reduce learning and reduce opportunities to take corrective action. Another important internal goal is to maintain a sense of control over events and our environment. In consequence, a common way in which we distort our understanding of events is to assume we have greater control of events than we really do. When we suffer from this illusion of control, we are likely to underestimate the risks of our actions and decisions, and have problems in learning from experience, as we discount information that suggests we are not in control. This psychological perspective sees people as driven to achieve cognitive mastery of their environment. It is essential to try and avoid the inherent bias involved in our coping mechanisms.

3) Decision making Strategies

i. **The Single-Feature Model:** This approach involves hinging your decision solely on a single-feature. For example, imagine that you are buying soap. Faced with a wide variety of options at your local superstore, you decide to base your decision on price and buy the cheapest type of soap available. In this case, you ignored other variables (such as scent, brand, reputation, and effectiveness) and focused on just a single feature. The single-feature approach can be effective in situations where the decision is relatively simple and you are pressed for time. However, it is generally not the best strategy when dealing with more complex decisions.

ii. **The Additive Feature Model:** This method involves taking into account all the important features of the possible choices and then systematically evaluating each option. This approach tends to be a better method when making more complex decisions. For example, imagine that you are interested in buying a new camera. You create a list of important features that you want the camera to have, then you rate each possible option on a scale of -5 to +5. Cameras that have important advantages might get a +5 rating for that factor, while those that have major drawbacks might get a -5 rating for that factor. Once you have looked at each option, you can then tally up the results to determine which option has the highest rating. The additive feature model can be a great way to determine the best option among a variety of choices. It can be

quite time consuming and is probably not the best decision-making strategy to use if you are pressed for time.

iii. **The Elimination by Aspects Model:** The elimination by aspects model was first proposed by psychologist Amos Tversky in 1972. In this approach, you evaluate each option one characteristic at a time beginning with whatever feature you believe is the most important. When an item fails to meet the criteria you have established, you cross the item off your list of options. Your list of possible choices gets smaller and smaller as you cross items off the list until you eventually arrive at just one alternative.

iv. **The Availability Heuristic:** When we are trying to determine how likely something is, we often base such estimates on how easily we can remember similar events happening in the past. For example, if you are trying to determine if you should drive over the speed limit and risk getting a ticket, you might think of how many times you have seen people getting pulled over by a police officer on a particular stretch of highway. If you cannot immediately think of any examples, you might decide to go ahead and take a chance, since the availability heuristic has led to you judge that few people get pulled over for speeding on your particular route. If you can think of numerous examples of people getting pulled over, you might decide to just play it safe and drive the suggested speed limit.

v. **The Representativeness Heuristic:** This mental shortcut involves comparing our current situation to our prototype of a particular event or behavior. For example, when trying to determine whether you should speed to get to your class on time, you might compare yourself to your image a person who is most likely to get a speeding ticket. If your prototype is that of a careless teen that drives a hot-rod car and you are a young business-woman who drives a sedan, you might estimate that the probability of getting a speeding ticket is quite low.

4) Work Motivation
    i. Motivational Theories
        i. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
            1. Self-actualization — know exactly who you are, where you are going, and what you want to accomplish. A state of well-being
            2. Esteem — feeling of moving up in world, recognition, few doubts about self
            3. Belongingness and love — belong to a group, close friends to confide with
            4. Safety — feel free from immediate danger
            5. Physiological — food, water, shelter, sex
        ii. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: Later Years
            1. Self-transcendence — a transegoic level that emphasizes visionary intuition, altruism, and unity consciousness.
            2. Self-actualization — know exactly who you are, where you are going, and what you want to accomplish. A state of well-being.
            3. Aesthetic — to do things not simply for the outcome but because it's the reason you are here on earth — at peace, more curious about the inner workings of all things.
            4. Cognitive — to be free of the good opinion of others — learning for learning alone, contribute knowledge.
            5. Esteem — feeling of moving up in world, recognition, few doubts about self.
            6. Belongingness and love — belong to a group, close friends to confide with.
            7. Safety — feel free from immediate danger.

8. Physiological — food, water, shelter, sex. (Transegoic means a higher, psychic, or spiritual state of development. The trans is related to transcendence, while the ego is based on Freud's work. We go from preEGOic levels to EGOic levels to transEGOic. The EGO in all three terms is used in the Jungian sense of consciousness as opposed to the unconscious. Ego equates with the personality.)

iii. Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivational Factors

1. Hygiene or Dissatisfiers: Working conditions, Policies and administrative practices, Salary and Benefits, Supervision, Status, Job security, Co-workers, Personal life

2. Motivators or Satisfiers: Recognition, Achievement, Advancement, Growth, Responsibility, Job challenge

iv. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

1. Douglas McGregor (1957) developed a philosophical view of humankind with his Theory X and Theory Y — two opposing perceptions about how people view human behavior at work and organizational life. McGregor felt that organizations and their managers followed one or the other approach:

2. Theory X: People have an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it whenever possible. People must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment in order to get them to achieve the organizational objectives. People prefer to be directed, do not want responsibility, and have little or no ambition. People seek security above all else. In an organization with Theory X assumptions, management's role is to coerce and control employees.

3. Theory Y: Work is as natural as play and rest. People will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives (they are NOT lazy). Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. People learn to accept and seek responsibility. Creativity, ingenuity, and imagination are widely distributed among the population. People are capable of using these abilities to solve an organizational problem. People have potential.

v. Analysis

1. Herzberg's theory is a micro version of Maslow's theory in that it is focused on the work environment.

2. McGregor's Theory X is based on workers caught in the lower levels (1 to 3) of Maslow's theory due to bad management practices, while Theory Y is for workers who have gone above level 3 with the help of management.

3. McGregor's Theory X is also based on workers caught in Herzberg's Hygiene Dissatisfiers, while Theory Y is based on workers who are in the Motivators or Satisfiers section.

vi. Hawthorne Effect: The Hawthorne Effect was first described by Henry A. Landsberger in 1950 who noticed a tendency for some people to work harder and perform better when they were being observed by researchers. The Hawthorne Effect is named after a series of social experiments on the influence of physical conditions on productivity at Western Electric's factory at Hawthorne, Chicago in the 1920s and 30s. The researchers changed a number of physical conditions over the course of the experiments including lighting, working hours and breaks. In all cases, employee productivity increased when a change

was made. The researchers concluded that employees became motivated to work harder as a response to the attention being paid to them, rather than the actual physical changes themselves. The Hawthorne Effect studies suggest that employees will work harder if they know they're being observed. While I don't recommend hovering over your employees watching them all day, you could try providing regular feedback, letting your team know that you know what they're up to and how they're doing. Showing your employees that you care about them and their working conditions may also motivate them to work harder. Encourage your team to give you feedback and suggestions about their workspace and development.

vii. Expectancy Theory: Expectancy Theory proposes that people will choose how to behave depending on the outcomes they expect as a result of their behaviour. In other words, we decide what to do based on what we expect the outcome to be. At work, it might be that we work longer hours because we expect a pay rise. However, Expectancy Theory also suggests that the process by which we decide our behaviours is also influenced by how likely we perceive those rewards to be. In this instance, workers may be more likely to work harder if they had been promised a pay rise (and thus perceived that outcome as very likely) than if they had only assumed they might get one (and perceived the outcome as possible but not likely) Expectancy Theory is based on three elements:

   1. Expectancy – the belief that your effort will result in your desired goal. This is based on your past experience, your self confidence and how difficult you think the goal is to achieve.
   2. Instrumentality – the belief that you will receive a reward if you meet performance expectations.
   3. Valence – the value you place on the reward.

Therefore, according to Expectancy Theory, people are most motivated if they believe that they will receive a desired reward if they hit an achievable target. They are least motivated if they don't want the reward or they don't believe that their efforts will result in the reward. The key here is to set achievable goals for your employees and provide rewards that they actually want. Rewards don't have to come in the form of pay rises, bonuses or all-expenses paid nights out (although I find these are usually welcomed!) Praise, opportunities for progression and "employee of the month" style rewards can all go a long way in motivating your employees.

viii. Three-Dimensional Theory of Attribution: Attribution Theory explains how we attach meaning to our own, and other people's, behaviour. There are a number of theories about attribution. Bernard Weiner's Three-Dimensional theory of attribution assumes that people try to determine why we do what we do. According to Weiner, the reasons we attribute to our behaviour can influence how we behave in the future. For example, a student who fails an exam could attribute their failure to a number of factors and it's this attribution that will affect their motivation in the future. Weiner theorised that specific attributions (e.g. bad luck, not studying hard enough) were less important than the characteristics of that attribution. According to Weiner, there are three main characteristics of attributions that can affect future motivation.

   1. Stability – how stable is the attribution? For example, if the student believes they failed the exam because they weren't smart enough, this is a stable factor. An unstable factor is less permanent, such as being ill. According to Weiner, stable attributions for successful achievements, such as passing exams, can

lead to positive expectations, and thus higher motivation, for success in the future. However, in negative situations, such as failing the exam, stable attributions can lead to lower expectations in the future.

2. Locus of control – was the event caused by an internal or an external factor? For example, if the student believes it's their own fault they failed the exam, because they are innately not smart enough (an internal cause), they may be less motivated in the future. If they believed an external factor was to blame, such as poor teaching, they may not experience such a drop in motivation.

3. Controllability – how controllable was the situation? If an individual believes they could have performed better, they may be less motivated to try again in the future than someone who believes they failed because of factors outside of their control.

ix. Weiner's Three-Dimensional theory of attribution has implications for employee feedback. Make sure you give your employees specific feedback, letting them know that you know they can improve and how they can about it. This, in theory, will help prevent them from attributing their failure to an innate lack of skill and see that success is controllable if they work harder or use different strategies. You could also praise your employees for showing an improvement, even if the outcome was still not correct. For example, you might praise someone for using the correct methodology even though the results weren't what you wanted. This way, you are encouraging employees to attribute the failure to controllable factors, which again, can be improved upon in the future.

5) Organizational Culture

i. Organizational culture can be viewed as an important concept in organizational psychology and social psychology.   It is important to define organizational culture.

ii. Organizational culture reflects the values, beliefs, and norms that characterize an organization as a whole.

iii. This definition suggests that organizational culture reflects what is common, typical, and general for the organization.   Values, beliefs, and behaviors that are uncommon in the organization, or specific to a particular subgroup within an organization, would not be considered to be part of the culture of the organization.

iv. Elements of Organizational Culture:

i. Organizational Values. Values reflect what we feel is important. Organizations may have core values that reflect what is important in the organization. These values may be guiding principles of behavior for all members in the organization. The core values may be stated on the organization's website. For example, an organization could state that their core values are creativity, humor, integrity, dedication, mutual respect, kindness, and contribution to society.

ii. Organizational Beliefs. Beliefs that are part of an organization's culture may include beliefs about the best ways to achieve certain goals such as increasing productivity and job motivation. For example, an organization may convey the belief that the expression of humor in the workplace is an effective way to increase productivity and job motivation.

iii. Organizational Norms.   Norms reflect the typical and accepted behaviors in an organization. They may reflect the values and beliefs of the organization. They may reflect how certain tasks are generally expected to be acomplished, the attributes of the work environment, the typical ways that people communicate in the organization, and

the typical leadership styles in the organization. For example, the work environment of a company may be described as relaxed, cheerful, and pleasant. Moreover, the organization may have a participative decision making process in which many people in the organization are able to express their views concerning important decisions. Also, an organization may have many meetings to discuss ideas.

v.   The Importance of the Organizational Culture Concept

   i.   Organizational culture may be an important concept for a few reasons. First, understanding the culture of an organization may be helpful for applicants. They may have a better idea about whether they would like to work for a company. Second, understanding the culture of an organization may help in training new employees. Third, understanding organizational culture may help leaders to identify possible sources of problems in the organization.

vi.   Organizational Culture and Leadership

   i.   There may be at least three ways in which leadership is important with respect to organizational culture. First, a leader of an organization may play an important role in identifying the elements of the organization's culture. The leader could make a list of the organization's current values, beliefs, and norms. Second, after identifying the current elements of the organization's culture, the leader can make evaluations of the elements of organizational culture that may be negative. The leader could make a list of the specific values, beliefs, and norms that may contribute to major problems in the organization (e.g., a lack of job motivation). Third, after identifying the possible negative elements, the leader could develop strategies to foster a positive organizational culture change. The leader could make a list of the elements of a more ideal culture, develop specific ways to communicate the changes, and develop techniques to motivate people to adopt the new culture.

vii.   Organizational Culture Change

   i.   There may be many reasons why the culture of an organization needs to be changed. These reasons may include lack of morale, lack of job motivation, lack of job meaning, and changes in the business (e.g., the development of a new product) that would require a change in the way things are done in the organization.

   ii.   For example, there may be too much micromanagment in a company. It may be better if employees had more autonomy. This may increase morale. Sherman (1989) found that unit morale was positively correlated with automony. Because this finding is correlational, we cannot make causal conclusions.

   iii.   This process of culture change should involve all members of the organization. This process of culture change could involve surveys in which members describe specific elements of the organizational culture that members view as negative.

viii. Culture vs. Organizational Culture

   i.   Although the concept of organizational culture is similar to the concept of culture(e.g., the elements of culture may be similar to the elements of organizational culture), it is important to make a distinction between the two concepts. There may be a few ways in which these concepts may be different. First, organizational culture may be more formal than culture. Some organizations may have a significant part of their culture in written form. For example, they may have the core values stated on the website, and the values, beliefs, and norms of the organization may be indicated in employee manuals. In contrast, much of the values, beliefs, and norms that are a reflection of a

culture may be unwritten. Second, there may be less consistency between elements of organizational culture than elements of culture. Some of the elements of organizational culture that are in written form may be inconsistent with certain norms observed in the organization. In contrast, many of the norms of a culture may simply reflect the values of the culture. According to J.D. Brodzinski, R.F. Scherer and K A Goyer, Stress is, "the interaction between the individual and the environment characterized by physiological and psychological changes that cause a deviation from normal performance."

6) Stress and Conflict at Work and its Management psychology

   i.   According to Lyle E. Bourne, Jr. and Bruce R. Ekstrand, "Stress may be defined in many different ways, depending on one's perspective. From a physiological point of view, stress may be defined as any state during which the body tends to mobilize its resources and utilize more energy than it ordinarily would." Any event in the environment may cause stress if the same is perceived as threatening. Any event may cause stress. It is not certain that the specific events are the causes of stress. Sometimes an event may cause stress but the same event may not cause stress some other time.The stress leads to physiological and psychological changes such as changes in heart rate, skin resistance, respiration, blood pressure and endocrine activity. These changes will deviate a person from normal performance. These changes are known as stress response. These changes often lead to anxiety and fatigue. A moderate level of stress may have positive effect and person may work harder and for long hours but a low level of stress may have negative effect and adversely affect the performance of the employee.

   ii. Stress at workplace has become an important topic of study of organisational behaviour. It has become important for effective practice of human resource management for:

        i.   It has psychological and physiological effects on both employees and managers both affecting their health and performance at work,
        ii. It is a major cause of absenteeism and poor employee turnover,
        iii. Employee under stress may cause safety problems to fellow employees specially when he is handling dangerous machines and equipment's,
        iv.   It makes an employee nervous and may lose temper,
        v.   It makes an employee non- cooperative in nature,
        vi. It may affect any member of the organisation whether he or she is a worker, manager, old and young both.

   iii. Stress is not always negative. Any event causing stress results into an action form person under stress. This action may also result into positive performance. If so, according to Cynthia D Fisher, L F Schoenfeldt and J B Shaw, "The optimum level of tension will result in maximum performance." Optimum level of stress is difficult to determine as it depends upon the kind of occupation, age, sex and race of the employee. Overstress is always dangerous. No employee can escape its consequences. Person's attitude and expectations lead to stress. If he fails to fulfill the expected demands he comes under stress. This kind of stress is self induced by the person himself. A poor facility at workplace also leads to stress. Stress is not tangible. It breeds in the minds of the people and exists through their actions. Managing stress at workplace has become an important issue. When stress is not checked its adverse effects start pouring in.

   iv. According to Hans Selye, "by stress the physician means the common results of exposure to any stimulus. For example, the bodily changes produced whether a person is exposed to nervous tension, physical injury, infection, cold, heat, X-rays, or anything else are what we call stress." Managing stress is essential to improve quality of life at work. Stress is related to heart disease. Man is a wanting animal. There is no end to his demands. Most of the demands are created

through media. People specially of middle class get attracted but due to constraints of resources and money could not satisfy them. These demands and constraints put them under stress.

v. Causes of Stress: Stressors the word coined for causes of stress. Any situation, any event can be a potential cause of stress. The causes of stress vary from person to person and situation to situation. So to say, the causes of stress are relative to person time and situation.

    i. Organisational Causes:

1. The organisational causes include the organisational structure, managerial leaderships, rules and regulations, extent of centralization and decentralization, type of communication, delegation of powers, number of employees in a room or hall working together etc. are the potential causes of stress at the organisation level. Organisation structure defines authority responsibility relationship, and decision making process.

2. Excessive nature of centralized decisions and allowing participation of employees in decision making process cause stress. Style of leadership adopted by the managers and executives of the organisation also affect the mental balance of the employees and they fall a prey to stress. Some managers create fear in the minds of the employees that become a cause of stress. While democratic style eases the tension.

3. Rules and regulations also become the cause of stress. Bad and coercive rules and regulations and strict adherence to them by managers are the immediate cause of stress. More centralisation of authority in one or few hands may also cause stress. Decentralisation of authority relieves the employees from stress.

4. Type of communication adopted by the organisation also causes stress. Effective communication is must for smooth working. Policies rules and regulations must be communicated to the employees. Lack of communication creates problems.

5. Delegation of authority is effected to get the work completed early and relieve the managers of their managerial burden. Some managers do not delegate their authority and want to work themselves. This increases their burden of work and they come under stress. The large number of employees working in a room also is a cause of stress. They can't concentrate on their work in a crowd and come under tension.

6. The nature of job is another potential cause of stress. Certain jobs are associated with stress. These jobs pose threat for timely performance. A pressure is created for their performance on time. Timely decisions are to be taken.

7. Some of the high strain jobs include those of telephone operators, assembly job workers, personal assistant and secretaries, busy executives etc. These jobs require higher level of performance within a short period of time such job performers work under strain. There are certain jobs need work for long hours and have to acquire new skills.

8. Long working hours put them under strain. There are certain jobs where high tone noise and terrible heat is involved and working environment is not that good. Such jobs put the workers under tension. Certain employees are overloaded with work and their superiors want early disposal of the work. This naturally puts the employee under stress.

9. In the organisation various types and kinds of people are working. They have to achieve organisational goals unitedly. Hence cooperation of all is essential. But because of lack of interpersonal relationship among employees some do not receive social support from their partners. This attitude on the part of other employees put them under stress.

ii. Group Level Causes:
1. At workplace human beings are working. Human beings are social animals they live in groups. This group ideology holds good at workplace also. Employees have to work in groups. Certain jobs demand teamwork. Employees' behaviour is influenced by group. The group is also a potential cause of stress where there is lack of cohesiveness and social support. Working together in groups is essential at lower level of the organization.
2. Lack of this is a cause of stress. Workers when they work together and in groups they develop social relationships at the workplace. They get support from each other. Lack of social support becomes a cause of stress. The conflicts between groups also are a cause of stress because inter-department or intergroup conflicts increase the burden of work and cause strain.

iii. Individual Level Causes:
1. There are many reasons for causing stress to an individual. At the workplace when two superiors have assigned the work to the same individual simultaneously put him under stress. He will be under tension as to whose work is to be finished first. This is because of role conflict.
2. Another reason for stress for an individual is when the job responsibilities are not clearly defined. The types of personality also are the causes of stress to an individual. "Type A personality" individuals are workaholics; works speedily and exactly, don't rest, and don't enjoy life.
3. If they fail to achieve task, they come under stress. They suffer from high blood pressure and prone to heart attack. As against them, the individuals with "Type B personality" remain stress free comparatively. These individuals do not bother if work suffers, they take their own time to complete the task, and they enjoy life and take full rest. The change in job and job responsibilities because of promotion or transfer also put an individual under stress. Dual career is also a reason for stress.

iv. Domestic Level Causes:
1. Several changes are taking place nowadays. Joint family system has now broken. Modern approach to life has changed the life style of individuals. Everyone wants complete freedom. To run the family according to modern life style is becoming increasingly difficult.
2. Majority middle class people face the identity crisis. They want to lead sophisticated life style which the rich can afford. They suffer from financial crisis which becomes a major cause of worry and tension for them. Children's education, death of a spouse, purchase of new house, soaring prices, etc. are the causes of stress to an individual on domestic front.

v. Other Causes:
1. Among other include economic, political and technological changes that are going on continuously. These are extra organisational but sometimes have

negative effect on jobs. E.g. in India computerization in banks and government organisation was opposed by the employees unions because they took it as a threat to their jobs.

2. In the similar manner the Narsinhan Committee's report on banking was also opposed. The changes in economic, political and technological front sometimes have potential threat to the jobs. These reasons put the employees under stress.

3. Age, health and education are also the factors causing stress. The employees above the age of 35 having less chances of promotion because of pyramidal structure of organisations put them under stress. Increasing age contributes to stress.

4. Health is another factor that gives strength to cope with stress. Unhealthy and sick employees cannot cope with stress. Education is yet another factor for stress. Highly educated, not getting promotion lives under tension. A well educated and understandable and matured person has more ability to cope up with stress.

vi. Consequences of Stress:

i. There are serious consequences or effects of stress on health of the employees and their work performance. Stress proves expensive to the organisation also. People who suffer from stress have serious physical and psychological problems.

ii. As for physical problems include chronic fatigue, ulcers, diabetes, skin disorders, asthma, allergies, high blood pressure, migraine, irritations, increased heart and breath rates, heart attacks etc. The psychological problems include tension, emotional imbalance, boredom, job dissatisfaction, anxiety, depression, irritation and procrastination i.e. the habit of putting off the work. Stress also affects the behaviour of the persons. It leads to adverse changes in job performance, increased absenteeism, and turnover, significant increase in the habit of smoking and alcoholism, and cynicism.

iii. The economic effect of stress is that the stressed employees failed to put their best performance resulting into low production ultimately leading to losses. Moreover the organisations providing medical facilities have to spend more on the employees suffering from diseases resulting from stress. This is a cognizable financial burden on the organisations.

iv. Burnouts: Stress can lead to burnout. Burnout is the result of chronic emotional stress, physical exhaustion and excess depression. K. Aswathappa defined burnout as, "a state of mind resulting from prolonged exposure to intense emotional stress and involving, physical, emotional and mental exhaustion." When the stress reaches extreme level leads to burnout. The symptoms of burnout are excessive increase in drinking and smoking and person wants to isolate from others, increase in high risk taking behaviour and become accident prone, goes crazy, over depression leads to feeling of helplessness, doesn't believe anyone etc.

v. Richard M. Hodgetts has tried to distinguish stress from burnout. According to him under stress person feels fatigued while under burnout he meets chronic exhaustion, under stress he is anxious, under burnout he is hypertensive, under stress he is dissatisfied with the job, under burnout he is bored and cynical about it, and under stress person feels moody and guilty but under burnout he feels impatient and mentally depressed.

vi. The person under stress undergoes physical changes like increased blood pressure and heart beats but under burnout he has psychosomatic complaints. Excess stress causes burnout. It is therefore necessary to take steps that stress should not be allowed to go excess leading to burnout. Burnout should be identified among employees and necessary attempts to prevent the process of burnout should be taken. Focus on individual and improving interpersonal relations help in reducing burnout.

vii. Stress Reduction Strategies:

    i. Organisational Level Strategies:

      1. The stressors or causes of stress at organisation level can be effectively controlled and managed by the organisation itself. The organisation can implement the programmes for its employees such as relaxation techniques, physical fitness programmes, stress education, group discussions, family counseling, hobby workshops, sports and recreation facilities, time management, counseling in respect of drug and alcohol abuse, obesity control techniques etc. to reduce stress.

      2. Ergonomics can be used to reduce stress at the workplace. Ergonomics is the technique used to reduce discomfort. It is a combination of industrial engineering physiological and psychological needs of the individual at the workplace. Comfortable chairs can be designed for sitting employees comfortably. Personal comfort is sought at the workplace for employees while working by the techniques of ergonomics.

      3. Improved communication, proper delegation of authority reducing centralization of authority, jobs redesign specially to enrich them, proper selection and placement of persons at respective jobs, participative decision making and practicing the core techniques of human resource management are some of the strategies that can keep the stress under control.

      4. Certain sophisticated companies have massage centres at the workplace for their employees. High tech stress therapy is used in Japan to relieve hard working Japanese employees and executives from stress. They have their developed brain mind gyms for stress reduction. Organisation can reduce the heat, temperature and humidity and maintain soothing climate by its deliberate efforts. This helps in reducing stress at workplace.

    ii. Individual Level Strategies: Organisation can make its own efforts as far as possible to reduce the stressors at workplace but an individual should make all out efforts to manage his own stress effectively.

      1. One should take proper balanced diet at proper time.

      2. Avoid drinking and smoking.

      3. Regular exercise for fitness.

      4. Know your strong and weak points.

      5. Relax for some time to control blood pressure, heart rate.

      6. Prayers like worshiping, offering Namaz, etc., meditations, yoga can help reduce tension.

      7. Effective time management by preparing daily lists of work according to their priorities and follow it.

      8. Plan your career.

9. Open your heart to your friends; express your feelings, emotions, threats etc. It helps in relieving the mind from botheration.
10. Take pride on your achievements and receive from others.
11. Exercise control on yourself.
12. Identify the factors causing stress. Try to keep away from them as far as possible.

viii. Conflict:

i. Like stress, conflict is also a part of life of an individual and organisation. According to Wendell French, "conflict in the organisation consists of opposing behaviours between two or more people or groups who have incompatible goals."

ii. Conflict affects behaviour of employees their performance and job satisfaction. Conflict arises because of disagreement. According to Leonard Greenhalgh, "conflict is not an objective, tangible phenomenon; rather, it exists in the minds of the people who are party to it."

iii. Conflict can exist between two managers or executives of two different departments or two groups of employees of the same organisation. The conflict cannot be resolved unless third impartial party interferes or both coming together and hold a talk.

iv. Managers have to spend much of their time in resolving conflicts between employees or groups of employees. The parties to conflict try to embarrass or frustrate each other. Conflict differs from competition. In conflict and competition parties have incompatible goals but in former both interfere with each other and in latter they don't interfere but make themselves busy in attaining their goals.

v. Conflict is now inevitable and cannot be avoided. There are many causes that lead to conflict such as organisational structure, differences in values, perceptions, and objectives etc. which are to be dealt in skillfully to ease away conflict so that maximum performance can be achieved from all the human resources of the organisation.

vi. Conflict can be visibly seen through arguments, fighting brooding etc. For managing conflict one must understand the situation and then pursue the parties to conflict to reconsider their perceptions and come to compromise. A compromise formula can be reached by successful pursuance of the parties and taking them into confidence. In doing so organization's interests should not be sacrificed. Conflicts arise because of confrontation of ideas, objectives and the individuals or groups of them that are responsible for improvement in performance of the organisation.

vii. The conflicts sometimes if well managed become conducive to the effective functioning of the organisation otherwise it may result in distortion of interests of the organisation. Manager has to take care that conflicts should not harm the interests of the organisation. He should attempt to exploit the conflicting situation for the benefits of the organisation. There are certain benefits arising out of conflicts.

viii. Benefits of Conflicts:
1. Conflicts create awareness in respect of the problems faced by the organisation, they can then be solved on time.
2. Conflicts bring about change. They bring injustice, inefficiencies and other defects to surface. The corrective measures can be taken through appropriate changes.
3. Conflicts involve opposition of ideas and views. Through this opposition better ideas are evolved leading to correct decisions.

4. Conflicts make the people curious to evolve new creative ideas for better performance and solutions to the problems than the rival groups. This helps in stimulating creativity among employees.

ix. If such advantageous are the dimensions of conflicts then it is really beneficial and enjoyable because good is the yielding. If conflict takes the severe turn then it becomes very harmful and organisation suffers from it.

x. If issues involved in the conflicts are of principles then it becomes difficult to resolve because parties will prefer to stick to their principles but if these issues are divisible and basic principles are not involved in it then the conflict is easy to resolve.

xi. If the size of stake is larger the conflict is difficult to resolve, on the contrary small size of stake is easy to resolve. The interference of third party who is impartial, trusted, prestigious, neutral and powerful then conflict can be easily resolved, the contrary is difficult. Again in conflict the parties to it have inflicted equal harm on each other it is easy to resolve.

xii. The manager must be a watchful person. He should closely watch the eruption of conflict at the beginning itself. If it seems to increase performance he should stimulate it. If it seems to harm the performance then he should take the steps to reduce it or don't allow it to take hazardous stage. Regulation of conflict is essential by adopting standard rules and procedure.

7) Organizational Socialization

i. Organizational socialization is the process whereby an employee learns the knowledge and skills necessary to assume his or her organizational role. As newcomers become socialized, they learn about the organization and its history, values, jargon, culture, and procedures. This acquired knowledge about new employees' future work environment affects the way they are able to apply their skills and abilities to their jobs. How actively engaged the employees are in pursuing knowledge affects their socialization process. They also learn about their work group, the specific people they work with on a daily basis, their own role in the organization, the skills needed to do their job, and both formal procedures and informal norms. Socialization functions as a control system in that newcomers learn to internalize and obey organizational values and practices.

ii. Onboarding, also known as organizational socialization, refers to the mechanism through which new employees acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, and behaviors to become effective organizational members and insiders. Tactics used in this process include formal meetings, lectures, videos, printed materials, or computer-based orientations to introduce newcomers to their new jobs and organizations. Research has demonstrated that these socialization techniques lead to positive outcomes for new employees such as higher job satisfaction, better job performance, greater organizational commitment, and reduction in occupational stress and intent to quit. These outcomes are particularly important to an organization looking to retain a competitive advantage in an increasingly mobile and globalized workforce. In the United States, for example, up to 25% of workers are organizational newcomers engaged in an onboarding process.

iii. Onboarding is a multifaceted operation influenced by a number of factors pertaining to both the individual newcomer and the organization. Researchers have separated these factors into three broad categories: new employee characteristics, new employee behaviors, and organizational efforts. New employee characteristics are individual differences across incoming workers, ranging from personality traits to previous work experiences. New employee behaviors refer to the specific actions carried out by newcomers as they take an active role in the socialization

process. Finally, organizational efforts help facilitate the process of acclimating a new worker to an establishment through activities such as orientation or mentoring programs.

iv. Organizations also invest a great amount of time and resources into the training and orientation of new company hires. Organizations differ in the variety of socialization activities they offer in order to integrate productive new workers. Possible activities include their socialization tactics, formal orientation programs, recruitment strategies, and mentorship opportunities.

v. In order to increase the success of an onboarding program, it is important for an organization to monitor how well their new hires are adjusting to their new roles, responsibilities, peers, supervisors, and the organization at large. Researchers have noted that role clarity, self-efficacy, social acceptance, and knowledge of organizational culture are particularly good indicators of well-adjusted new employees who have benefitted from an effective onboarding system.

vi. Although the outcomes of organizational socialization have been positively associated with the process of uncertainty reduction, they may not necessarily be desirable to all organizations. Jones (1986) as well as Allen and Meyer (1990) found that socialization tactics were related to commitment, but they were negatively correlated to role clarity. Because formal socialization tactics insulate the newcomer from their full responsibilities while "learning the ropes", there is a potential for role confusion once expected to fully enter the organization. In some cases though, organizations may even desire a certain level of person-organizational misfit in order to achieve outcomes via innovative behaviors. Depending on the culture of the organization, it may be more desirable to increase ambiguity despite the potentially negative connection with organizational commitment.

vii. Additionally, socialization researchers have had major concerns over the length of time that it takes newcomers to adjust. There has been great difficulty determining the role that time plays, but once the length of the adjustment is determined, organizations can make appropriate recommendations regarding what matters most in various stages of the adjustment process.

viii. Further criticisms include the use of special orientation sessions to educate newcomers about the organization and strengthen their organizational commitment. While these sessions have been found to be often formal and ritualistic, several studies have found them unpleasant or traumatic. Orientation sessions are a frequently used socialization tactic, however, employees have not found them to be helpful, nor has any research provided any evidence for their benefits.

ix. Executive onboarding is the application of general onboarding principles to helping new executives become productive members of an organization. Practically, executive onboarding involves acquiring, accommodating, assimilating and accelerating new executives. Proponents emphasize the importance of making the most of the "honeymoon" stage of a hire, a period which has been described by various sources as either the first 90 to 100 days or the first full year

x. Some suggest that practitioners should seek to design an onboarding strategy that takes individual newcomer characteristics into consideration and encourages proactive behaviors, such as information seeking, that help facilitate the development of role clarity, self-efficacy, social acceptance, and knowledge of organizational culture.

8) Job Attitudes

i. A job attitude is a set of evaluations of one's job that constitute one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job. Overall job attitude can be conceptualized in two ways. Either as affective job satisfaction that constitutes a general or global subjective feeling about a job, or as a composite of objective cognitive assessments of specific job facets, such as pay,

conditions, opportunities and other aspects of a particular job. Employees evaluate their advancement opportunities by observing their job, their occupation, and their employer.

ii. Research demonstrates that interrelationships and complexities underlie what would seem to be the simply defined term job attitudes. The long history of research into job attitudes suggests there is no commonly agreed upon definition. There are both cognitive and affective aspects, which need not be in correspondence with each other. Job attitude should also not be confused with the broader term attitude, because attitude is defined as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor, whereas job attitude is a particular instance as an entity. In the definition above, the term "job" involves one's current position, one's work or one's occupation, and one's employer as its entity. However, one's attitude towards his/her work does not necessarily have to be equal with one's attitudes towards his/her employer, and these two factors often diverge.

iii. Global job attitudes are attitudes developed towards a job through the organization, working environment, affective disposition, aggregate measures of job characteristics and the social environment. They depend on the broad totality of work conditions. In fact, job attitudes are also closely associated with more global measures of life satisfaction. Scales such as "Faces" enable researchers to interpret overall satisfaction with work. The Job in General scale focuses on the cognitive perspective (rather than applied) of the effects of job attitudes. A variety of job attributes are associated with different levels of satisfaction within global job attitudes.

iv. Other Attitudes:
   i. Job Involvement: Identifying with one's job and actively participating in it, and considering performance important to self-worth.
   ii. Organizational Commitment: Identifying with a particular organization and its goals, and wishing to maintain membership in the organization.
   iii. Perceived Organizational Support (POS): The degree to which employees feel the organization cares about their well-being.
   iv. Employee Engagement: An individual's involvement with, satisfaction with, and enthusiasm for the organization

v. Affective job satisfaction is a singular construct comprising an overall emotional feeling about a job as a whole or in general. Affective job satisfaction is measured with items addressing the extent to which individuals subjectively and emotively like their job overall, not a composite of how individuals cognitively assess two or more specific aspects of their job

9) Sexual Harrasment:
   i. sexual harassment is a form of gender discrimination
   ii. Types of Sexual Harassment
      i. Gender Harassment: Generalized sexist statements and behavior that convey insulting or degrading attitudes about women. Examples include insulting remarks, offensive graffiti, obscene jokes or humor about sex or women in general.
      ii. Seductive Behavior: Unwanted, inappropriate and offensive sexual advances. Examples include repeated unwanted sexual invitations, insistent requests for dinner, drinks or dates, persistent letters, phone calls and other invitations.
      iii. Sexual Bribery: Solicitation of sexual activity or other sex-linked behavior by promise of reward; the proposition may be either overt or subtle.
      iv. Sexual Coercion: Coercion of sexual activity or other sex-linked behavior by threat of punishment; examples include negative performance evaluations, withholding of promotions, threat of termination.

      v. Sexual Imposition: Gross sexual imposition (such as forceful touching, feeling, grabbing) or sexual assault.

   iii. Effects of Sexual Harassment

      i. Psychological Reactions

         1. Depression, anxiety, shock, denial
         2. Anger, fear, frustration, irritability
         3. Insecurity, embarrassment, feelings of betrayal Confusion, feelings of being powerless Shame, self-consciousness, low self-esteem
         4. Guilt, self-blame, isolation

      ii. Physiological Reactions: Headaches, Lethargy, Gastrointestinal distress, Dermatological reactions, Weight fluctuations, Sleep Disturbances, nightmares, Phobias, panic reactions, Sexual problems

      iii. Career-Related Effects: Decreased job satisfaction, Unfavorable performance evaluations, Loss of job or promotion, Drop in academic or work performance due to stress, Absenteeism, Withdrawal from work or school, Change in career goals

   iv. Effective Strategies

      i. Say NO to the harasser! Be direct.

      ii. Write a letter to the harasser. Describe the incident and how it made you feel. State that you would like the harassment to stop. Send the letter by certified mail. Keep a copy.

      iii. Keep a record of what happened and when. Include dates, times, places, names of persons involved and witnesses, and who said what to whom.

      iv. Tell someone; don't keep it to yourself. By being quiet about the harassment, you don't help stop it. Chances are extremely good that you aren't the only victim of your harasser. Speaking up can be helpful in finding support and in protecting others from being victims.

      v. Finding out who is responsible for dealing with harassment on your organization and whether you can talk in confidence to that person. Almost all organizations have sexual harassment policies, procedures and individuals or counselors who administer them.

      vi. Find out what the procedure is at your workplace or school; it is the organization's responsibility to provide you with advice, help and support, but such meetings at the workplace can provide an important record if legal action is ever advisable.

      vii. If you are a union member, speak to your union representative. Unions are generally very committed to eliminating sexual harassment in the workplace.

      viii. If you are experiencing severe psychological distress, you may want to consult a psychologist or other mental health professional who understands the problems caused by sexual harassment.

10) Glass Ceiling

   i. A glass ceiling is a term used to describe "the unseen, yet unbreakable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievements."

   ii. Initially, and sometimes still today, the metaphor was applied by feminists in reference to barriers in the careers of high achieving women. In the US the concept is sometimes extended to refer to obstacles hindering the advancement of minority men, as well as women.

   iii. The glass ceiling metaphor has often been used to describe invisible barriers ("glass") through which women can see elite positions but cannot reach them ("ceiling"). These barriers prevent large numbers of women and ethnic minorities from obtaining and securing the most powerful,

prestigious, and highest-grossing jobs in the workforce. Moreover, this effect may make women feel they are not worthy to fill high-ranking positions or as if their bosses do not take them seriously or see them as potential candidates for advancement.

iv. The concept of glass ceiling was originally introduced outside of print media at the National Press Club in July 1979 at a Conference of the Women's Institute for Freedom of the Press by Katherine Lawrence of Hewlett Packard. This was part of an ongoing discussion of a clash between written policy of promotion versus action opportunities for women at HP. The term was coined by Lawrence and HP manager Maryanne Schreiber.

v. David Cotter and colleagues defined four distinctive characteristics that must be met to conclude that a glass ceiling exists. A glass ceiling inequality represents:
   i. "A gender or racial difference that is not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee."
   ii. "A gender or racial difference that is greater at higher levels of an outcome than at lower levels of an outcome."
   iii. "A gender or racial inequality in the chances of advancement into higher levels, not merely the proportions of each gender or race currently at those higher levels."
   iv. "A gender or racial inequality that increases over the course of a career."

vi. The gender pay gap is the difference between male and female earnings.

vii. In addition to the glass ceiling, which already is stopping women from climbing higher in success in the workplace, a parallel phenomenon is occurring called the "glass escalator." This can be defined as how more men are joining fields that were previously occupied mainly by women, such as nursing and teaching, and within these job fields, the men are riding right past women and going straight to the top, similairily to if they were on an escalator and a woman was taking stairs. Men are being offered more promotions than women and even though women have worked just as hard, they are still not being offered the same chances as men are in some circumstances.

viii. Governments, organizations, and individuals around the world have tried to encourage an increase in the number of women who reach the upper echelons of power. Many nations have made progress (Canada has set up a government program to encourage female participation on corporate boards) but the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden) have done more than any other region in the world to address female corporate participation. The Nordic nations have generous maternity leave laws, state child care, and quotas requiring publicly listed firms to allocate 40% of corporate board seats to women. In the latest Global Gender Gap Report, the top five countries were all Nordic.

11) Human Computer interaction
   i. Human–computer interaction (HCI) researches the design and use of computer technology, focusing particularly on the interfaces between people (users) and computers. Researchers in the field of HCI both observe the ways in which humans interact with computers and design technologies that let humans interact with computers in novel ways.
   ii. As a field of research, Human-Computer Interaction is situated at the intersection of computer science, behavioral sciences, design, media studies, and several other fields of study. The term was popularized by Stuart K. Card and Allen Newell of Carnegie Mellon University and Thomas P. Moran of IBM Research in their seminal 1983 book, The Psychology of Human-Computer Interaction, although the authors first used the term in 1980[1] and the first known use was in 1975.

iii. The term connotes that, unlike other tools with only limited uses (such as a hammer, useful for driving nails, but not much else), a computer has many uses and this takes place as an open-ended dialog between the user and the computer. The notion of dialog likens human-computer interaction to human-to-human interaction, an analogy the discussion of which is crucial to theoretical considerations in the field.

iv. Human-Computer Interaction studies the ways in which humans make, or make not, use of computational artifacts, systems and infrastructures. In doing so, much of the research in the field seek to `improve' human-computer interaction by improving the `usability' of computer interfaces. How `usability' is to be precisely understood, how it relates to other social and cultural values and when it is, and when it may not be a desirable property of computer interfaces is increasingly debated.

v. Much of the research in the field of Human-Computer Interaction takes an interest in:

    i. methods for designing novel computer interfaces, thereby optimizing a design for a desired property such as, e.g., learnability or efficiency of use. An example of a design method that has been continuously developed by HCI researchers is Participatory Design.

    ii. methods for implementing interfaces, e.g., by means of software tool kits and libraries

    iii. methods for evaluating and comparing interfaces with respect to their usability or other desirable properties

    iv. methods for studying human computer use and its sociocultural implications more broadly

    v. models and theories of human computer use as well as conceptual frameworks for the design of computer interfaces, such as, e.g., cognitivist user models, Activity Theory or ethnomethodological accounts of human computer use

    vi. perspectives that critically reflect upon the values that underlie computational design, computer use and HCI research practice

vi. HCI differs from human factors and ergonomics as HCI focuses more on users working specifically with computers, rather than other kinds of machines or designed artifacts. There is also a focus in HCI on how to implement the computer software and hardware mechanisms to support human–computer interaction. Thus, human factors is a broader term; HCI could be described as the human factors of computers – although some experts try to differentiate these areas.

vii. The human–computer interface can be described as the point of communication between the human user and the computer. The flow of information between the human and computer is defined as the loop of interaction. The loop of interaction has several aspects to it, including:

    i. Visual Based :The visual based human computer inter-action is probably the most widerpread area in HCI research.

    ii. Audio Based : The audio based interaction between a computer and a human is another important area of in HCI systems. This area deals with information acquired by different audio signals.

    iii. Task environment: The conditions and goals set upon the user.

    iv. Machine environment: The environment that the computer is connected to, e.g. a laptop in a college student's dorm room.

    v. Areas of the interface: Non-overlapping areas involve processes of the human and computer not pertaining to their interaction. Meanwhile, the overlapping areas only concern themselves with the processes pertaining to their interaction.

1) Health Psychology and Beliefs and Behaviour

   I. Health psychologists study the role of psychology in health and wellbeing. They highlight the importance of both a) developing and testing psychological theory and b) relating theory to health practice.

   II. Health psychology examines health beliefs as possible predictors of health-related behaviours, such as:
      i. the costs and benefits of a behaviour,
      ii. susceptibility and severity of an illness,
      iii. self efficacy in changing behaviour,
      iv. a person's past behaviour
      v. the beliefs of important others.

   III. Health psychology also examines beliefs about illness and suggests that individuals conceptualize their illness in terms of its time line, its symptoms, the causes and consequences of the problem, and whether it can be controlled or cured.

   IV. The self-regulatory model of illness behaviour highlights how symptoms are a perception, how people are motivated to make sense of their illness, how they cope with illness in different ways, and how these factors can influence how they behave in relation to their illness.

   V. A health professional's beliefs about the symptoms, the illness or the patient may influence their diagnosis, how patients are treated and the effectiveness of any communication between patient and professional.

   VI. Stress is seen as an interaction between the person and their environment. It can influence illness, either through changing health-related behaviours such as smoking and exercise or via a physiological pathway, and it is mediated by coping and social support.

   VII. Beliefs and behaviours can influence whether a person becomes ill in the first place, whether they seek help and how they adjust to their illness.

   VIII. Contrary to common beliefs people don't collect information from the outside world to form new beliefs but they gather new information that supports their already existing beliefs.

   IX. This means that believing that someone is arrogant will result in changing your behavior in such a way that you will only focus on his mistakes and ignore his good deeds.

   X. Not only can beliefs affect behavior but they can affect your life and shape your entire reality.

   XI. The belief about the relationship between mind and body affects your behavior. The more that you see the mind and body as a unit, the more respect you show your body.

   XII. Beliefs Affect behavior in the following ways:
      i. Limiting beliefs limits people's potential: Limiting beliefs affects behavior by preventing people from taking certain actions that they would have otherwise took if the belief was not there. An intelligent child might never study and so fails the exams if he believes that he is not intelligent.
      ii. Beliefs and information filtering: Just as a i said before we filter information based on our beliefs and only absorb the information that matches our belief system. This impacts our behavior by making us biased towards what we believe in no matter how many proofs are provided. That's why persuading someone to believe into something against his beliefs is hard
      iii. Beliefs shape reality: If a guy thinks that he will never find a job (a belief) then he will not become motivated to prepare himself for the job market (change in behavior) and

later on when he tries to find a job he will fail (so his belief will become true). That's how beliefs can shape reality

       iv. Beliefs and self confidence: In the Solid Self confidence program i said that self confidence is no more than a set beliefs that you have about yourself. If those beliefs were positive then you will behave like a confident person while if they became negative your behavior will be changed to the opposite

   XIII. How the relationship between behavior and beliefs can be useful

       i. Its now clear that beliefs can control your actions, behavior and potential. If you learned how to acquire positive beliefs and how to get rid of negative ones then you will be able to use the tremendous power of beliefs on your side.

       ii. With a positive and powerful belief system there is no limit to what you can achieve in this world.

2) Models of Health Psychology

   I. Biomedical model of Health

       i. a conceptual model of illness that excludes psychological and social factors and includes only biologic factors in an attempt to understand a person's medical illness or disorder.

   II. The Biopsychosocial Model of Health

       i. According to the biopsychosocial model, interactions between people's genetic makeup (biology), mental health and personality (psychology), and sociocultural environment (social world) contribute to their experience of health or illness.

       ii. The biological influences on mental health and mental illness are varied, and include genetics, infections, physical trauma, nutrition, hormones, and toxins.

       iii. The psychological component looks for potential psychological explanations for a health problem, such as lack of self-control, emotional turmoil, or negative thinking.

       iv. Social and cultural factors are conceptualized as a particular set of stressful events (being laid off, for example) that can differentially impact mental health depending on the individual and his or her social context.

       v. The biopsychosocial theory posits that each one of these factors is not sufficient to create health or mental illness, but the interaction between them determines the course of one's development.

       vi. Despite its usefulness, there are issues with the biopsychosocial model, including the degree of influence that each factor has, the degree of interaction between factors, and variation across individuals and life spans.

3) STRESS, HEALTH & ILLNESS

   I. What is stress?

       i. Definition: any circumstances that threaten or are perceived to threaten one's well-being and thereby tax one's coping abilities

       ii. Stress is generally known as pattern of disruptive physiological and psychological reaction to events that threaten the ability to cope.

       iii. It has become an important topic because it is clear that the pattern of disease, especially cardiovascular disease, and other diseases such as gastrointestinal, skin, immune system, and respiratory diseases cannot be explained simply by physiological factors alone.

   II. Sources of stress

       i. Internal- Originate from within a person. Cancer, Depression

      ii.   External- From outside a person, including Situational stressors Marriage or divorce, Birth, death, illness.

      iii. Developmental stressors (Erikson)

III.   TYPES OF STRESS
- i.   Negative stress
- ii. Positive stress

IV.   SYMPTOMS OF STRESS
- i.   Physical symptoms
- ii. Mental symptoms
- iii. Behavioural symptoms
- iv. Emotional symptoms

V.   Approaches to The Study of Stress
- i.   There are many approaches to the study of stress. Generally researchers have conceptualized stress in three Ways. In one approach, stress is seen as a stimulus, and studies focus on the impact of stressors (events(.
- ii. Another approach treats stress as a response and examines the strains that the stressors produce (e.g. the the physiological consequences(.
- iii. The third approach views stress as a process that involves continuous interaction and adjustment- or transaction- between the person and the environment.

VI.   Three Views of Stress
- i.   Focus on the environment
- ii. Focus on the RESPONSE: Reaction to stress: stress as a response (distress) (F/F(
- iii. Focus On The Interaction Processes: Cognitive

VII.   A General Definition
- i.   These viewpoints have led to the definition of stress as the condition that results when a person/environment transactions leads the individual to perceive a discrepancy between the demands of the situation and the resources of the person's biological, psychological, and social systems.

VIII. Models of stress:
- i.   The Stimulus-Based Model of Stress
    1. (Holmes and Rahes advanced this theory. It proposed that life changes (LIFE EVENTS) or (STRESSORS), either positive or negative, are stressors that tax the adaptation capacity of an individual, causing physiological and psychological strains that lead to health problems.
    2. (They developed the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS). They hypothesized that people with higher scores in the SRRS, -that is major life changes-are more likely to experience physical or mental illness.
    3. There is some supporting evidence to this, but the correlation is fairly low. Moreover, this theory was criticized as ignoring the cognitive aspects of the effects of stress. In other words, it does not account for the individual appraisal of the meaning of various life events.
- ii. The Response-Based Model of Stress
    1. This model emphasizes the common physiological consequences of stressful situation. It is represented in the well-known theory of Hans Selye. It is similar to the "Fight or Flight" response, which occurs in situation that perceived as very threatening.

     2. The response is a physiological one in which arousal of the sympathetic nervous system results in many physiological and somatic changes and finally disruption of homeostasis.

     3. Selye developed this idea into a theoretical model of stress called the General Adaptation Syndrome theory. He defined stress as (a non-specific response and demand made upon the body). He proposed that different types of stimuli would result in similar physiological responses.

iii. General Adaptation Syndrome Theory

     1. The GAS theory has three phases, which is based on the hypothesis that the body has normal level of resistance to stress.

     2. Phase (I): Initial alarm resulting in a slight reduction in the resistance to stress, (The Shock stage). Then reverts to the normal level in the (Counter-shock Stage,)

     3. Phase (II): RESISTANCE remains high until the final stage of exhaustion, where resistance rapidly drops Phase (III): which starts with exhaustion and described as Collapse, where disease occurs.

     4. Stage 1 Alarm Reaction Stage 2 Resistance Stage 3 Exhaustion: Notice how the curve first goes down before ascending upward? This is where the curve Peaks if adaptation Occurs normal

     5. ALARM RESPONSE This is the " Fight or Flight" response that prepares the body for immediate action

     6. The GAS – Stage Two – RESISTANCE: Not as intense as the Alarm Stage, but bodily levels of hormonal secretion are still above normal Occurs during the stress response and if stressor is removed helps return the body to normal levels. ADAPTATION PHASE

     7. The GAS – Stage 3 - EXHAUSTION Bodily systems have been depleted due to prolonged resistance Can bring about the threat of onset of "diseases of adaptation"

     8. EXHAUSTION In chronic stress situations, sufferers enter the exhaustion phase: emotional, physical and mental resources suffer heavily, the body experiences ' adrenal exhaustion' leading to decreased stress tolerance, progressive mental and physical exhaustion, illness and collapse.

iv. The Transactional Model of Stress

v. l) Lazarus& Folkman_(1 980) proposed the third approach. They criticized the first and the second models mentioned above as treating people as machines. They believe that people have the capacity to think, evaluate, and then react. Thinking can make stress either better or worse. (Lazarus developed an interaction theory, which emphasize the role of cognition. This theory proposed that people engage in TWO- STAGE PROCESS of appraisal:

     1. A Primary Appraisal Process: Determine whether the event represents a threat to the individual. This results in three outcomes: 1.Events regarded as irrelevant. 2.Events regarded as positive to well being. 3.Events regarded as negative to well being. This negative appraisal leads to:

     2. A Secondary Appraisal Process: Here the individuals assess their COPING RESOURCES. These resources include environmental factors, social support or help, knowledge, and skills to reduce this threat. Appraisal of Stress Some

people are more prone to feeling stress than others, irrespective of event. Appraisals of potentially stressful events are influenced by two factors: (1) the controllability of events (2) the predictability of events Events are more stressful when they are uncontrollable and unpredictable

IX. Effects of Coping Resources and Strategies

    i. When coping outcomes are positive such as accepting the death of a relative or passing an exam, a psychological adjustment or adaptation takes place. ⊠However, unsuccessful coping leads anxiety and depression or exacerbate other physical and mental disease.

    ii. Maladjustment or maladaptation is more frequently associated situation when Primary or Secondary Appraisals fail to identify an appropriate course of action. These may include:

        1. Uncertainty: "I don't know what is going on" Primary Appraisal.

        2. Unpredictability: "I don't know what is going to happen "Primary Appraisal.~

        3. Uncontrollability: "I don't Know what to do about it" Secondary Appraisal.

        4. OR "There is nothing that I can do" Secondary Appraisal

        5. OR There is nothing anyone can do" Secondary Appraisal

4) Chronic and Terminal Illness

I. Terminal illness is a disease that cannot be cured or adequately treated and that is reasonably expected to result in the death of the patient within a short period of time. This term is more commonly used for progressive diseases such as cancer or advanced heart disease than for trauma. In popular use, it indicates a disease that eventually ends the life of the sufferer. Often, a patient is considered terminally ill when their estimated life expectancy is six months or less, under the assumption that the disease will run its normal course. The six-month standard is arbitrary.

II. By definition, there is no cure or adequate treatment for terminal illnesses. However, some kinds of medical treatments may be appropriate anyway, such as treatment to reduce pain or ease breathing.

III. Some terminally ill patients stop all debilitating treatments to reduce unwanted side effects. Others continue aggressive treatment in the hope of an unexpected success. Still others reject conventional medical treatment and pursue unproven treatments such as radical dietary modifications. Patients' choices about different treatments may change over time.

IV. Palliative care is normally offered to terminally ill patients, regardless of their overall disease management style, if it seems likely to help manage symptoms such as pain and improve quality of life. Hospice care, which can be provided at home or in a long-term care facility, additionally provides emotional and spiritual support for the patient and loved ones. Some alternative medicine approaches, such as relaxation therapy, massage, and acupuncture may relieve some symptoms and other causes of suffering.

V. A chronic condition is a human health condition or disease that is persistent or otherwise long-lasting in its effects or a disease that comes with time. The term chronic is usually applied when the course of the disease lasts for more than three months. Common chronic diseases include arthritis, asthma, cancer, COPD, diabetes and viral diseases such as hepatitis C and HIV/AIDS.

VI. In medicine, the opposite of chronic is acute. A chronic course is further distinguished from a recurrent course; recurrent diseases relapse repeatedly, with periods of remission in between.

VII. The non-communicable diseases are also usually lasting medical conditions but are separated by their non-infectious causes. In contrast, some chronic diseases, such as HIV/AIDS, are caused by transmissible infections.

VIII. Chronic diseases constitute a major cause of mortality and the World Health Organization (WHO) reports chronic non-communicable conditions to be by far the leading cause of mortality in the world, representing 35 million deaths in 2005 and over 60% of all deaths.

IX. Chronic Disease is a long-lasting condition that can be controlled but not cured. Chronic illness affects the population worldwide.

X. People who have serious, chronic, or terminal illnesses are at increased risk for experiencing anxiety and depression.

Topic 14: Forensic Psychology

1) **Psychology and Law:** Forensic psychology is the interface between psychology and the law, so all psychological services provided for the legal community is forensic psychological services. However, most forensic psychologists provide services which are both clinical and forensic in nature. When a psychologist treats an individual who was emotionally traumatized by an accident, the treatment is clinical in nature, designed to assist the individual in recovering from the trauma. But, when the psychologist is asked to provide a report for the court, regarding the extent of the trauma, and to assess the psychological damage incurred, then the psychologist is providing forensic services.

2) **Forensic psychology** is the intersection between psychology and the justice system. It involves understanding fundamental legal principles, particularly with regard to expert witness testimony and the specific content area of concern (e.g., competence to stand trial, child custody and visitation, or workplace discrimination), as well as relevant jurisdictional considerations (e.g., in the United States, the definition of insanity in criminal trials differs from state to state) in order to be able to interact appropriately with judges, attorneys and other legal professionals.

3) An important aspect of forensic psychology is the ability to testify in court as an expert witness, reformulating psychological findings into the legal language of the courtroom, providing information to legal personnel in a way that can be understood. Further, in order to be a credible witness the forensic psychologist must understand the philosophy, rules, and standards of the judicial system. Primary is an understanding of the adversarial system. There are also rules about hearsay evidence and most importantly, the exclusionary rule. Lack of a firm grasp of these procedures will result in the forensic psychologist losing credibility in the courtroom.

4) A forensic psychologist can be trained in clinical, social, organizational or any other branch of psychology.

5) Generally, a forensic psychologist is designated as an expert in a specific field of study. The number of areas of expertise in which a forensic psychologist qualifies as an expert increases with experience and reputation. Forensic neuropsychologists are generally asked to appear as expert witnesses in court to discuss cases that involve issues with the brain or brain damage. They may also deal with issues of whether a person is legally competent to stand trial.

6) Questions asked by the court of a forensic psychologist are generally not questions regarding psychology but are legal questions and the response must be in language the court understands. For example, a forensic psychologist is frequently appointed by the court to assess a defendant's competence to stand trial. The court also frequently appoints a forensic psychologist to assess the state of mind of the defendant at the time of the offense. This is referred to as an evaluation of the defendant's sanity or insanity (which relates to criminal responsibility) at the time of the offense. These are not primarily psychological questions but rather legal ones. Thus, a forensic psychologist must be able to translate psychological information into a legal framework.

7) Forensic psychologists may be called on to provide sentencing recommendations, treatment recommendations or any other information the judge requests, such as information regarding mitigating

factors, assessment of future risk and evaluation of witness credibility. Forensic psychology also involves training and evaluating police or other law enforcement personnel, providing law enforcement with criminal profiles and in other ways working with police departments. Forensic psychologists may work with any party and in criminal or family law. In the United States they may also help with jury selection.

8) The practice of forensic psychology, and perhaps the most frequent duty of forensic psychologists, is the psychological assessment of individuals who are involved, in one way or another, with the legal system. Therefore, although it is necessary to have training in law and forensic psychology, the most important skills a forensic psychologist must possess are solid clinical skills. That is, skills like clinical assessment, interviewing, report writing, strong verbal communication skills (especially if an expert witness in court) and case presentation are all very important in setting the foundation of the practice of forensic psychology. With these skills forensic psychologists perform such tasks as threat assessment for schools, child custody evaluations, competency evaluations of criminal defendants and of the elderly, counseling services to victims of crime, death notification procedures, screening and selection of law enforcement applicants, the assessment of post-traumatic stress disorder and the delivery and evaluation of intervention and treatment programs for juvenile and adult offenders. The practice of forensic psychology involves investigations, research studies, assessments, consultation, the design and implementation of treatment programs and expert witness courtroom testimony.

9) Juvenile Delinquency: Juvenile delinquency, also known as "juvenile offending", is participation in illegal behavior by minors (juveniles, i.e. individuals younger than the statutory age of majority). Most legal systems prescribe specific procedures for dealing with juveniles, such as juvenile detention centers, and courts. A juvenile delinquent in the United States is a person who is typically under the age of 17 and commits an act that otherwise would have been charged as a crime if they were an adult. Depending on the type and severity of the offense committed, it is possible for persons under 18 to be charged and tried as adults.

10) In recent years a higher proportion of youth have experienced arrests by their early 20s than in the past, although some scholars have concluded this may reflect more aggressive criminal justice and zero-tolerance policies rather than changes in youth behavior. Juvenile crimes can range from status offenses (such as underage smoking), to property crimes and violent crimes. Youth violence rates in the United States have dropped to approximately 12% of peak rates in 1993 according to official US government statistics, suggesting that most juvenile offending is non-violent. However, juvenile offending can be considered normative adolescent behavior. This is because most teens tend to offend by committing non-violent crimes, only once or a few times, and only during adolescence. Repeated and/or violent offending is likely to lead to later and more violent offenses. When this happens, the offender often displayed antisocial behavior even before reaching adolescence