Bachelor of Mass Communication (1st year)

PSYCHOLOGY (BMC 106)

Block: C Unit: I Lesson: 1

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

LESSON STRUCTURE

In this lesson we shall discus about the some introductory aspects of psychology. Specifically, we shall focus on the nature and scope of psychology. We shall briefly discuss some major notions of psychology. We shall also briefly discuss some major branches of psychology. The lesson structure shall be as follows:

1.0 OBJECTIVES:

Norman Cousins once said that, "*The growth of the human mind is still high adventure, in many ways the highest adventure on earth*." In this lesson, we shall try to study how the human mind works.

After reading this lesson, you would be able to:

- *To Get An Overview of Psychology*
- *To Understand Mind and Behaviour*
- *To Understand the Evolution of Psychology*
- *To Know About the Branches of Psychology*

- *To Know About Psychology and Other Disciplines*

1.1 INTRODUCTION:

Psychology studies behaviour, experience, and mental processes. It seeks to understand and explain how the mind works and how different mental processes result in different behaviours. Psychologists try to minimize such biases in their explanations of behaviour and experience in various ways. Some do so by seeking to make their analysis scientific and objective. Others seek to explain behaviour from the point of view of the experiencing persons because they think that subjectivity is a necessary aspect of human experience.

In the Indian tradition, self-reflection and analysis of our conscious experiences, is held to be a major source of psychological understanding.

Many western psychologists have also begun to emphasize the role of self-reflection and self-knowledge in understanding human behaviour and experience. Regardless of the differences in the way psychologists go about the study of behaviour, mental processes and experiences, they seek to understand and explain them in a systematic and verifiable manner.

Psychology is not a very old knowledge discipline. It is a young discipline of science.

Psychology is considered as a social science. In many countries, including India, it is a subject of study offered in the faculty of science, both at the undergraduate and post-graduate levels.

Similarly, in IT areas, both human-computer interaction and artificial intelligence cannot possibly grow without psychological knowledge in cognitive processes. Thus, psychology as a discipline today has two parallel streams. One which makes use of the method in physical and biological sciences and the other which makes use of the method of social and cultural sciences in studying various psychological and social phenomena. These streams sometimes converge only to drift apart and go their separate ways. In the first case, psychology considers itself as a discipline, which focuses largely on biological principles to explain human behaviour.

It assumes that all behavioural phenomena have causes, which can be discovered if we can collect data systematically under controlled conditions. Here the aim of the researcher is to know cause and effect relationship so that a prediction of

the behavioural phenomenon can be made and behaviour can be controlled if need be. On the other hand, psychology as a social science focuses on how behavioural phenomena can be explained in terms of the interaction that takes place between the person and the socio-cultural context of which s/he is a part.

1.2 PRESENTATION OF CONTENT:

The content of this lesson shall be presented as follows:

Psychology - An Overview

Understanding Mind and Behaviour

Evolution of Psychology

Branches of Psychology

Psychology and Other Disciplines

1.2.1 PSYCHOLOGY- AN OVERVIEW:

Psychology is defined formally as a science, which studies mental processes, experiences and behaviour in different contexts. In doing so, it uses methods of biological and social sciences to obtain data systematically. It makes sense of these data so that they can be organized as knowledge.

Earlier, psychology was thought as *a study of the soul or mind*. The term psychology is derived from two Greek words *psyche* meaning *soul* and *logos* meaning *science* or *study of a subject*. But now, it has developed to become a scientific discipline, which deals with *processes related to human experience and behaviour*.

Psychologists also study experiences of people. Experiences are subjective in nature. We cannot directly observe or know someone else's experience. Only the experiencing person can be aware or be conscious of her or his experiences. Thus, experiences are embedded in our awareness or consciousness. Psychologists have focused on experiences of pain being undergone by terminally ill patients or of psychological pain felt in bereavement, besides experiences, which lead to positive feelings, such as in romantic encounters.

Experiences are influenced by internal and the external conditions of the person going through the experience. If you are traveling in a crowded bus during a hot summer day, you may not experience the usual discomfort if you are going for a

picnic with some close friends. Thus, the nature of experience can only be understood by analyzing a complex set of internal and external conditions.

Behaviours are responses or reactions we make or activities we engage in. When something is hurled at you, your eyes blink in a simple reflex action. You are taking an examination and can feel your heart pounding. You decide to go for a particular movie with a friend. Behaviours may be simple or complex, short or enduring.

Some behaviours are open. They can be outwardly seen or sensed by an observer. Some are internal or covert. When you are in a difficult situation while playing a game of chess you almost feel your hand muscles twitching, trying to experiment with a move.

All behaviours, secret or open, are associated with or triggered by some stimulus in the environment or changes that happen internally. You may see a tiger and run or think that there is a tiger and decide to flee. Some psychologists study behaviour as an association between stimulus (S) and response (R). Both stimulus and response can be internal or external.

PSYCHOLOGY AS A NATURAL SCIENCE:

It has been mentioned earlier that psychology has its roots in philosophy. However, modern psychology has developed because of the application of the scientific method to study psychological phenomenon. Science places a great deal of emphasis on objectivity, which can be obtained if there is consensus on the definition of a concept and how it can be measured.

Psychologists have developed theories of learning, memory, attention, perception, motivation and emotion, etc. and have made significant progress. Till date, most of the research in psychology follows this approach. Apart from this, psychologists have also been considerably influenced by the evolutionary approach, which is dominant in Biological Sciences. This approach has also been used to explain diverse kinds of psychological phenomenon such as attachment and aggression to mention just a few.

PSYCHOLOGY AS A SOCIAL SCIENCE:

We mentioned above that psychology is recognized more as a social science because it studies the behaviour of human beings in their socio-cultural contexts. Humans are not only influenced by their socio-cultural contexts, they also create them. Psychology as a social science discipline focuses on humans as social beings.

Psychology deals with human behaviour and experience in the context of their society and culture. Thus, psychology is a social science with focus on the individuals and communities in relation to their socio-cultural and physical environment.

1.2.2 UNDERSTANDING MIND AND BEHAVIOUR:

Psychology was once defined as a science of the mind. For many decades, the mind remained a taboo in psychology because it could not be defined in concrete behavioural terms or its location could not be indicated. If the term “mind” has returned to psychology, we should thank neuroscientists like Sperry and physicists like Penrose, who have given it the respect, which it deserved and now has. There are scientists in various disciplines including psychology, who think that a unified theory of the mind is a possibility, although it still is far away.

It is true that mind cannot exist without brain, but mind is a separate entity. It was earlier believed by scientists that there is no relationship between the mind and the body and that they were parallel to each other. Recent studies in affective neuroscience have clearly shown that there is a relationship between mind and behaviour. It has been shown that using positive visualization techniques and feeling positive emotions, one can bring about significant changes in bodily processes.

Use of mental imagery, i.e. images generated by a person in her/his mind, has been used to cure various kinds of phobias (irrational fears of objects and situations). A new discipline called *Psycho-neuro-immunology* has emerged which emphasizes the role played by the mind in strengthening the immune system.

1.2.3 EVOLUTION OF PSYCHOLOGY:

Psychology is a modern discipline. It is influenced to a large extent by Western developments. Also it has a short history. It grew out of ancient philosophy. We mentioned earlier that the formal beginning of modern psychology is traced back to 1879 when ***Wilhelm Wundt*** established the first experimental laboratory in Leipzig, Germany. Wundt was interested in the study of conscious experience and wanted to analyse the constituents or the building blocks of the mind.

Psychologists during Wundt’s time analyzed the structure of the mind through introspection and therefore were called structuralists. Introspection was a procedure in which individuals or subjects in psychological experiments were asked to describe

in detail, their own mental processes or experiences. However, introspection as a method did not satisfy many other psychologists. It was considered less scientific because the introspective reports could not be verified by outside observers.

This led to the development of new perspectives in psychology. An American psychologist, ***William James***, who had set up a psychological laboratory in Cambridge, Massachusetts, developed what was called a functionalist approach to the study of the human mind. William James believed that instead of focusing on the structure of the mind, psychology should instead study what the mind does and how behaviour functions in making people deal with their environment.

For example, functionalists focused on how behaviour enabled people to satisfy their needs. According to William James, consciousness as an ongoing stream of mental process interacting with the environment formed the core of psychology. A very influential educational thinker of the time, John Dewey, used functionalism to argue that human beings seek to function effectively by adapting to their environment.

In the early 20th century, a new perspective called Gestalt psychology emerged in Germany as a reaction to the structuralism of Wundt. It focused on the organization of perceptual experiences. Instead of looking at the components of the mind, the Gestalt psychologists argued that when we look at the world our perceptual experience is more than the sum of the components of the perception. In other words, what we experience is more than the inputs received from our environment.

Next came behaviourism. Around 1910, ***John Watson*** rejected the ideas of mind and consciousness as subject matters of psychology. He was greatly influenced by the work of physiologists like Ivan Pavlov on classical conditioning. For Watson, mind is not observable and introspection is subjective because it cannot be verified by another observer. According to him, scientific psychology must focus on what is observable and verifiable. He defined psychology as a study of behaviour or responses (to stimuli) that can be measured and studied objectively. Behaviourism of Watson was further developed by many influential psychologists who are known as behaviourists.

One person who shook the world with his radical view of human nature was ***Sigmund Freud***. Freud viewed human behaviour as a dynamic manifestation of unconscious desires and conflicts. He founded psychoanalysis as a system to

understand and cure psychological disorders. While Freudian psychoanalysis viewed human beings as motivated by unconscious desire for gratification of pleasure seeking (and often, sexual) desires, the humanistic perspective in psychology took a more positive view of human nature.

Psychologists Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow emphasized the free will of human beings and their natural striving to grow and unfold their inner potential. They argued that behaviourism with its emphasis on behaviour as determined by environmental conditions undermines human freedom and dignity and takes a mechanistic view of human nature.

These different approaches filled the history of modern psychology and provided multiple perspectives to its development. Each of these perspectives has its own focus and draws our attention to the complexity of psychological processes. There are strengths as well as weaknesses in each approach. Some of these approaches have led to further developments in the discipline.

Cognition is the process of knowing. It involves thinking, understanding, perceiving, memorising, problem solving and a host of other mental processes by which our knowledge of the world develops, making us able to deal with the environment in specific ways. Some cognitive psychologists view the human mind as an information processing system like the computer.

Mind, according to this view is like a computer and it receives, processes, transforms, stores and retrieves information. Modern cognitive psychology views human beings as actively constructing their minds through their exploration into the physical and the social world. This view is sometimes called constructivism.

DEVELOPMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY IN INDIA:

The Indian philosophical tradition is rich in its focus on mental processes and reflections on human consciousness, self, mind-body relations, and a variety of mental functions such as cognition, perception, illusion, attention and reasoning, etc. Unfortunately, philosophical roots in the Indian tradition have not influenced the development of modern psychology in India.

The development of the discipline in India continues to be dominated by western psychology, although some attempts have been made to find points of departure both within the country and abroad. These attempts have tried to establish the truth-value of various assertions in Indian

philosophical traditions through scientific studies.

The modern era of Indian psychology began in the Department of Philosophy at Calcutta University where the first syllabus of experimental psychology was introduced and the first psychology laboratory was established in 1915. Departments of Psychology in the Universities of Mysore and Patna were other early centres of teaching and research in psychology. From these modest beginnings, modern psychology has grown as a strong discipline in India with a large number of centres of teaching, research and applications.

In India, the first phase till independence was a phase with emphasis on experimental, psychoanalytic and psychological testing research. This primarily reflected the development of the discipline in western countries. The second phase till the 1960s was a phase of expansion of psychology in India into different branches of psychology. During this phase Indian psychologists showed a desire to have an Indian identity by seeking to link western psychology to the Indian context.

Leading psychologists emphasized the significance of research, which is of relevance to our situation. The search for a new identity of psychology in India led to the phase of indigenisation, which started during the late 1970s. Besides rejecting the western framework, Indian psychologists stressed the need for developing an understanding based on a framework, which was culturally and socially relevant. This trend was also reflected in some attempts to develop psychological approaches based on traditional Indian psychology, which came from our ancient texts and scriptures.

Psychology in India is now being applied in diverse professional areas. Not only have psychologists been working with children having special problems, they are employed in hospitals as clinical psychologists, in corporate organizations in the HRD and advertising departments, in sports directorates, in the development sector and in IT industry.

1.2.4 BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY:

Various fields of specialization in psychology have emerged over the years. Some of these are discussed in this section:

- *Cognitive psychology*
- *Biological psychology*
- *Developmental psychology*

- *Social psychology*
- *Cross-cultural and cultural psychology*
- *Environmental psychology*
- *Health psychology*
- *Clinical and counselling psychology*
- *Industrial/Organizational psychology*
- *Educational psychology*
- *Sports psychology*

COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology investigates mental processes involved in acquisition, storage, manipulation, and transformation of information received from the environment along with its use and communication. The major cognitive processes are attention, perception, memory, reasoning, problem solving, decision-making and language. Some of them also follow an ecological approach, i.e. an approach that focuses on the environmental factors, to study cognitive processes in a natural setting. Cognitive psychologists often collaborate with neuroscientists and computer scientists.

BIOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY: Biological Psychology focuses on the relationship between behaviour and the physical system, including the brain and the rest of the nervous system, the immune system, and genetics. Biological psychologists often collaborate with neuroscientists, zoologists, and anthropologists.

NEURO-PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology has emerged as a field of research where psychologists and neuroscientists are working together. Researchers are studying the role of neurotransmitters or chemical substances, which are responsible for neural communication in different areas of the brain and therefore in associated mental functions. They do their research on people with normal functioning brain as well as on people with damaged brain by following advanced technologies like EEG, PET and MRI, etc.

DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY: This studies the physical, social and psychological changes that occur at different ages and stages over a life-span, from conception to old age. The primary concern of developmental psychologists is how we become what we are. For many years the major emphasis was on child and adolescent development. However today an increasing number of developmental psychologists show strong interest in adult development and ageing. They focus on the biological,

socio-cultural and environmental factors that influence psychological characteristics such as intelligence, cognition, emotion, temperament, morality, and social relationship.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: Social Psychology explores how people are affected by their social environments, how people think about and influence others. Social psychologists are interested in such topics as attitudes, conformity and obedience to authority, interpersonal attraction, helpful behaviour, prejudice, aggression, social motivation, inter-group relations and so on.

CROSS-CULTURAL AND CULTURAL PSYCHOLOGY: Cross-cultural and Cultural Psychology examines the role of culture in understanding behaviour, thought, and emotion. It assumes that human behaviour is not only a reflection of human-biological potential but also a product of culture. Therefore behaviour should be studied in its socio-cultural context. As you will be studying in different chapters of this book, culture influences human behaviour in
many ways and in varying degrees.

ENVIRONMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology studies the interaction of physical factors such as temperature, humidity, pollution, and natural disasters on human behaviour. The influence of physical arrangement of the workplace on health, the emotional state, and interpersonal relations are also investigated. Current topics of research in this field are the extent to which, disposal of waste, population explosion, conservation of energy, efficient use of community resources are associated with and are functions of human behaviour.

HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology focuses on the role of psychological factors (for example, stress, anxiety) in the development, prevention and treatment of illness. Areas of interest for a health psychologist are stress and coping, the relationship between psychological factors and health, patient-doctor relationship and ways of promoting health-enhancing factors.

CLINICAL AND COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology deals with causes, treatment and prevention of different types of psychological disorders such as anxiety, depression, eating disorders and chronic substance abuse. A related area is counselling, which aims to improve everyday functioning by helping people solve problems in daily living and cope more effectively with challenging situations. The work of clinical psychologists does not differ from that of counselling psychologists although a counselling psychologist sometimes deals with people who

have less serious problems. In many instances, counselling psychologists work with students, advising them about personal problems and career planning. Like clinical psychologists, psychiatrists also study the causes, treatment, and prevention of psychological disorders.

INDUSTRIAL/ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology deals with workplace behaviour, focusing on both the workers and the organizations that employ them. Industrial/organizational psychologists are concerned with training employees, improving work conditions, and developing criteria for selecting employees. For example, an organizational psychologist might recommend that a company may adopt a new management structure that would increase communication between managers and staff. The background of industrial and organizational psychologists often includes training in cognitive and social psychology.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology studies how people of all ages learn. Educational psychologists primarily help develop instructional methods and materials used to train people in both educational and work settings. They are also concerned with research on issues of relevance for education, counselling and learning problems. A related field, school psychology, focuses on designing programmes that promote intellectual, social, and emotional development of children, including those with special needs. They try to apply knowledge of psychology in a school setting.

SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY: This branch of Psychology applies psychological principles to improve sports performance by enhancing their motivation. Sports psychology is a relatively new field but is gaining acceptance worldwide.

OTHER EMERGING BRANCHES OF PSYCHOLOGY:

The interdisciplinary focus on research and application of psychology has led to the emergence of varied areas like aviation psychology, space psychology, military psychology, forensic psychology, rural psychology, engineering psychology, managerial psychology, community psychology, psychology of women, and political psychology, to name a few.

BASIC VS APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY:

It may be noted at this point that various areas put under the rubrics of “basic” and “applied” psychology are identified only on the basis of their emphasis on the study of certain subject matters and broader concerns. There is no sharp cleavage

between research and application of psychology. For example, basic psychology provides us with theories and principles that form the basis of application of psychology and applied psychology provides us with different contexts in which the theories and principles derived from research can be meaningfully applied.

On the other hand, research is an integral part of even those fields of psychology that are mainly characterized by or subsumed under the category of application. Due to ever increasing demands of psychology in different settings, many fields that were regarded as primarily “research-oriented” in previous decades, have also gradually turned into “application-oriented”. Newly emerging disciplines like applied experimental psychology, applied social psychology, and applied developmental psychology indicate that in fact all psychology has the potential of application and is basically applied in nature.

Thus, there is seemingly no fundamental difference between research and application of psychology. These activities are highly interrelated and mutually reinforcing. Their mutual interactions and pervasive influences on each other have become so specific that several offshoots have emerged in recent years with very specific emphasis on their subject matters.

Thus, ecological psychology, environmental psychology, cross-cultural psychology, biological psychology, space psychology, and cognitive psychology, to mention a few, have come up as new and frontier areas of research and application that previously formed part of other fields of psychology. These newer developments require highly specialized research skills and training on the part of researchers than ever before.

1.2.5 PSYCHOLOGY AND OTHER DISCIPLINES:

Any discipline, which deals with people, would definitely recognize the relevance of the knowledge of psychology. Similarly psychologists also acknowledge the relevance of other disciplines in understanding human behaviour. This trend has led to the emergence of interdisciplinary approach in the field of psychology. Researchers and scholars in science, social science and humanities have felt the significance of psychology as a discipline.

There is a strong relationship of psychology with other disciplines. In studying brain and behaviour, psychology shares its knowledge with neurology, physiology, biology, medicine and computer science. In studying human behaviour (its meaning,

growth and development) in a socio-cultural context, psychology shares its knowledge with anthropology, sociology, social work, political science and economics. In studying mental activities involved in creation of literary texts, music and drama, psychology shares its knowledge with literature, art and music. Some of the major disciplines linked to the field of psychology are discussed below:

Philosophy: Until the end of the 19th century, certain concerns that are now part of contemporary psychology like, what the nature of the mind is or how do humans come to know their motivations and emotions were the concerns of philosophers. In the later part of the 19th century, Wundt and other psychologists adopted an experimental approach to these questions and contemporary psychology emerged. Despite the emergence of psychology as a science, it greatly draws from philosophy, particularly with respect to methods of knowing, and various domains of human nature.

Medicine: Doctors have realized that the maxim, healthy body requires a healthy mind, is actually true. A large number of hospitals now employ psychologists. The role of psychologists in preventing people from engaging in health hazardous behaviours and in adhering to the prescribed doctors' regimen are some of the important areas where the two disciplines have come together. While treating patients suffering from cancer, AIDS, and the physically challenged, or handling patients in the Intensive Care Unit, and patients during post operative care doctors have also felt the need for psychological counselling. A successful doctor looks at the psychological as well as physical well-being of the patients.

Economics, Political Science and Sociology: As sister social science disciplines, these three have drawn considerably from psychology and have enriched it as well. Psychology has contributed a great deal to the study of micro-level economic behaviour, particularly in understanding consumer behaviour, savings behaviour and in decision-making. American economists have used data on consumer sentiments to predict economic growth. Three scholars who have worked on such problems have received the Nobel Prize in Economics, namely H. Simon, D. Kahneman and T. Schelling. Like economics, political science too draws considerably from psychology, particularly, in understanding issues related to exercise of power and authority, nature of political conflicts and their resolutions, and voting behaviour. Sociology and psychology come together to explain and understand the behaviour of individuals

within different socio-cultural contexts. Issues related to socialization, group and collective behaviour, and inter-group conflicts gain from both these disciplines.

Computer Science: From the very beginning, the effort of computer science has been in mimicking the human mind. One can see it in terms of how a 'computer' is structured, its memory organized, sequential and simultaneous (read parallel) processing of information. Computer scientists and engineers are seeking to make computers not only more and more intelligent but also machines which can sense and feel. Developments in both these disciplines have brought about significant advancement in the field of cognitive sciences.

Law and Criminology: A skilled lawyer or a criminologist requires knowledge of psychology in answering such questions as: How well a witness remembers an accident, a street fight, or a murder? How well can s/he report such facts when taking the witness stand in the court? What factors influence the decision, which is taken by the jury? What are the dependable signs of guilt and falsehood? What factors are held important in holding a culprit responsible for her/his action? What degree of punishment is considered just for a criminal act? Psychologists seek to answer these questions. Currently, a number of psychologists are involved in research on such issues, the answers to which would help the legal system of the country in the future.

Mass Communication: The print and the electronic media have entered in our lives in a very big way. They have a major influence on our thinking, attitudes and our emotions. If they have brought us closer together, they have also reduced cultural diversities. The impact of the media on the formation of attitudes of children and their behaviour is a domain where both these disciplines come together. Psychology also helps in developing strategies for better and effective communication. A journalist in reporting news must know the reader's interests in the story. Since most stories deal with human events, knowledge of their motives and emotions is very important. A story will be more penetrating if based upon a background of psychological knowledge and insight.

Music and Fine Arts: Music and psychology have converged in many areas. Scientists have made use of music in raising work performance. Music and emotions is another area in which a number of studies have been carried out. Musicians in India have recently started experimenting with what they call 'Music Therapy'. In this

they use different ‘Ragas’ for curing certain physical ailments. The efficacy of music therapy still remains to be proven.

Architecture and Engineering: At first glance the relationship between psychology and architecture and engineering would appear improbable. But such is actually not the case. Ask any architect, s/he must satisfy her/his clients by providing mental and physical space through her design and satisfy aesthetically. Engineers must also take into account human habits in their plans for safety, for example, on streets and highways. Psychological knowledge helps in a big way in designing of all mechanical devices and displays. To sum up, psychology is located at the intersection of many fields of knowledge pertaining to human functioning.

1.3 SUMMARY:

- Psychology is a modern discipline aimed at understanding the complexities of mental processes, experiences and behaviour of individuals in different contexts. It is treated as a natural as well as a social science.
- The major schools of psychological thought are structuralism, functionalism, behaviourism, Gestalt school, psychoanalysis, humanistic psychology and cognitive psychology.
- Contemporary psychology is characterised by many approaches or diverse views, which explain behaviour at different levels. These approaches are not mutually exclusive. Each provides valuable insights into the complexities of human functioning. The cognitive approach uses thought processes as central to psychological functions. The humanistic approach views human functioning as characterised by a desire to grow, be productive and fulfill human potential.
- Today psychologists work in many specialised fields which have their own theories and methods. They make efforts to develop theories and solve problems in specific domains. Some of the major fields of psychology are: cognitive psychology, biological psychology, health psychology, developmental psychology, social psychology, educational and school psychology, clinical and counselling psychology, environmental psychology, industrial/ organisational psychology, sports psychology.
- More recently a need is felt to have multi/interdisciplinary initiatives to arrive at a better understanding of reality. This has led to collaborations across disciplines. Interests of psychology overlap with social sciences (e.g.,

economics, political science, sociology), biosciences (e.g., neurology, physiology, medicine), mass communication, and music and fine arts. Such efforts have led to fruitful research and application.

- Psychology is a discipline not merely contributing to the development of theoretical knowledge about human behaviour, but contributing to the solution of problems at different levels. Psychologists are employed to help in diverse activities in a variety of settings including schools, hospitals, industries, training institutes, military and government establishments. Many of them are doing private practice and are consultants.

1.4 KEY WORDS:

Psychology: Psychology is a modern discipline aimed at understanding the complexities of mental processes, experiences and behaviour of individuals in different contexts. It is treated as a natural as well as a social science.

Schools of Psychology: The major schools of psychological thought are structuralism, functionalism, behaviourism, Gestalt school, psychoanalysis, humanistic psychology and cognitive psychology.

Contemporary Psychology: Contemporary psychology is characterised by many approaches or diverse views, which explain behaviour at different levels. These approaches are not mutually exclusive. Each provides valuable insights into the complexities of human functioning.

Branches of Psychology: Some of the major fields of psychology are: cognitive psychology, biological psychology, health psychology, developmental psychology, social psychology, educational and school psychology, clinical and counselling psychology, environmental psychology, industrial/ organisational psychology, sports psychology.

Benefits of Psychology: Psychology is a discipline not merely contributing to the development of theoretical knowledge about human behaviour, but contributing to the solution of problems at different levels. Psychologists are employed to help in diverse activities in a variety of settings including schools, hospitals, industries, training institutes, military and government establishments. Many of them are doing private practice and are consultants.

1.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Discuss the importance of psychology with examples.
2. What is behaviour? Give examples of overt and covert behaviour.
3. How can you distinguish scientific psychology from the popular notions about the discipline of psychology?
4. Give a brief account of the evolution of psychology.
5. What are the problems for which collaboration of psychologists with other disciplines can be fruitful? Take any two problems to explain.
6. Differentiate between (a) a psychologist and a psychiatrist (b) a counsellor and a clinical psychologist.
7. Describe some of the areas of everyday life where understanding of psychology can be put to practice.
8. How can knowledge of the field of environmental psychology be used to promote environment friendly behaviour?
9. In terms of helping solve an important social problem such as crime, which branch of psychology do you think is most suitable. Identify the field and discuss the concerns of the psychologists working in this field.

Bachelor of Mass Communication (1st year)

PSYCHOLOGY (BMC 106)

Block: C Unit: II Lesson: 2

APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY

LESSON STRUCTURE

In this lesson we shall discus about the some major applications of psychology. Specifically, we shall focus on human behaviour. The lesson structure shall be as follows:

2.0 OBJECTIVES:

After reading this lesson, you would be able to:

- *Understand the various applications of Psychology*
- *Understand Behaviour*

2.1 INTRODUCTION:

Psychology is a subject that studies various aspects of our mind and about human nature. It is also a subject that can offer solutions to a variety of problems.

Today there are many types of problems related to education, health, environment, social justice, women development, inter-group relations, etc. Many of these problems are largely of psychological nature and they result from our unhealthy thinking, negative attitude towards people and self and undesirable patterns of

behaviour. A psychological analysis of these problems results in a deeper understanding of these problems and also in finding their effective solutions.

The potential of psychology in solving the problems of life is being realized more and more. We now have psychologists working in diverse settings such as schools, hospitals, industries, prisons, business organizations, military establishments, and in private practice as consultants helping people solve problems in their respective settings.

2.2 PRESENTATION OF CONTENT:

The content of this lesson shall be presented as follows:

- *Applications of Psychology*
- *Behaviour*

2.2.1 APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY:

Psychologists today work in a variety of settings where they can apply psychological principles for teaching and training people to cope effectively with the problems of their lives. These are often referred to as “human service areas”. These include clinical counseling, community, school and organizational psychology.

Clinical psychologists specialize in helping clients with behavioural problems by providing therapy for various mental disorders and in cases of anxiety or fear, or with stresses at home or at work. They work either as private practitioners or at hospitals, mental institutions, or with social agencies. They may be involved in conducting interviews and administering psychological tests to diagnose the client’s problems, and use psychological methods for their treatment and rehabilitation. Job opportunities in clinical psychology attract quite a few to this field of psychology.

Counseling psychologists work with persons who suffer from motivational and emotional problems. The problems of their clients are less serious than those of the clinical psychologists. A counseling psychologist may be involved in vocational rehabilitation programmes, or helping persons in making professional choices or in adjusting to new and difficult situations of life. Counselling psychologists work for

public agencies such as mental health centres, hospitals, schools, colleges and universities.

Community psychologists generally focus on problems related to community mental health. They work for mental health agencies, private organizations and state governments. They help the community and its institutions in addressing physical and mental health problems. In rural areas they may work to establish a mental health centre. In urban areas they may design a drug rehabilitation programme. Many community psychologists also work with special populations such as the elderly or the physically or mentally challenged. Besides the redirection and evaluation of various programmes and plans, community based rehabilitation (CBR) is of major interest to community psychologists.

Educational psychologists work in educational systems, and their roles vary according to the levels of their training. For example, some school psychologists only administer tests, whereas others also interpret test results to help students with their problems. They also help in the formulation of school policies. They facilitate communication between parents, teachers and administrators, and also provide teachers and parents with information about the academic progress of a student.

Organizational psychologists render valuable help in dealing with problems that the executives and employees of an organization tend to face in their respective roles. They provide organizations with consultancy services and organize skill training programmes in order to enhance their efficiency and effectiveness. Some organizational psychologists specialize in Human Resource Development (HRD), while others in Organizational Development and Change Management programmes.

2.2.2 BEHAVIOUR:

The human brain has three major structural components: the large dome-shaped cerebrum (top), the smaller somewhat spherical cerebellum (lower right), and the brainstem (centre). Prominent in the brainstem are the medulla oblongata (the egg-shaped enlargement at centre) and the thalamus (between the medulla and the cerebrum). The cerebrum is responsible for intelligence and reasoning. The

cerebellum helps to maintain balance and posture. The medulla is involved in maintaining involuntary functions such as respiration, and the thalamus acts as a relay centre for electrical impulses travelling to and from the cerebral cortex.

It is believed that the human brain has evolved over millions of years from the brains of lower animals, and this evolutionary process still continues. We can examine the levels of structures in the brain, from its earliest to the most recent form in the process of evolution. The limbic system, brain stem and cerebellum are the oldest structures, while Cerebral Cortex is the latest development in the course of evolution. An adult brain weighs about 1.36 kg and contains around 100 billion neurons. However, the most amazing thing about the brain is not its number of neurons but its ability to guide human behaviour and thought. The brain is organized into structures and regions that perform specific functions. Brain scanning reveals that while some mental functions are distributed among different areas of the brain, many activities are localized also. For example, the occipital lobe of the brain is a specialized area for vision.

The physiological adaptations that made human beings more flexible than other primates allowed for the development of a wide range of abilities and an unparalleled versatility in behaviour. The brain's great size, complexity, and slow maturation, with neural connections being added through at least the first 12 years of life, meant that learned behaviour could largely modify stereotyped, instinctive responses. New environmental demands could be met by rapid adjustments rather than by slow genetic selection; thus, survival in a wide range of habitats and under extreme conditions eventually became possible without further species differentiation. Each new infant, however, with relatively few innate traits yet with a vast number of potential behaviours, must be taught to achieve its biological potential as a human being.

Human beings have been toolmakers for more than 1.5 million years. The earliest technology was a practically oriented tool kit of haphazardly shaped chopping, cutting, and scraping implements fashioned from pebbles. From the later stone ages, archaeologists have identified some 60 or 70 standard kinds of tools with very specific purposes and intricate design; some had ceremonial uses. While the axe-head, arrowhead, scrapers, borers, and flakes in this picture were all made of flint, materials such as bone and ivory were also used. Tools like these can be made by direct percussion (using a hammers-tone or other implement to knock

flakes from the raw material) or indirect percussion (using the hammer-stone to strike a chisel-like tool that is precisely positioned on the raw material).

The human species has a unique capability for culture in the sense of conscious thinking and planning, transmission of skills and systems of social relationships, and creative modification of the environment. The integrated patterns of behaviour required for planning and fashioning tools were accomplished at least 2.5 million years ago, and some form of advanced code for vocal communication may also have existed at this time. By 350,000 years ago, planned hunting, fire-making, and the wearing of clothing were well established, as was possibly ritualized disposal of the dead. Evidence of religion, recorded events, and art date from 30,000 to 40,000 years ago and imply advanced language and ethics for the complex ordering of social groups required for such activities. From about that time the genus Homo began to stabilize into the one generalized species of Homo sapiens.

The preceding description rests on anatomical observation and current scientific theory on the origin of the Homo species. Humankind itself and the essence of being human are also defined in many other ways—religious, social, moral, and legal.

It is believed that the human brain has evolved over millions of years from the brains of lower animals, and this evolutionary process still continues. We can examine the levels of structures in the brain, from its earliest to the most recent form in the process of evolution. The limbic system, brain stem and cerebellum are the oldest structures, while Cerebral Cortex is the latest development in the course of evolution. An adult brain weighs about 1.36 kg and contains around 100 billion neurons. However, the most amazing thing about the brain is not its number of neurons but its ability to guide human behaviour and thought. The brain is organized into structures and regions that perform specific functions. Brain scanning reveals that while some mental functions are distributed among different areas of the brain, many activities are localized also. For example, the occipital lobe of the brain is a specialized area for vision.

2.3 SUMMARY:

- The potential of psychology in solving the problems of life is being realized more and more. We now have psychologists working in diverse settings such as schools, hospitals, industries, prisons, business organizations, military

establishments, and in private practice as consultants helping people solve problems in their respective settings.

- The principles and methods of psychology that we learn can be made use of in analyzing and understanding ourselves in relation to others. It is not that we do not think about ourselves.
- Psychology is of use to reduce or alleviate the stress of examination. Thus, the knowledge of psychology is quite useful in our everyday life, and is rewarding from personal as well as social points of view.
- Psychologists today work in a variety of settings where they can apply psychological principles for teaching and training people to cope effectively with the problems of their lives. These are often referred to as “human service areas”. These include clinical counseling, community, school and organizational psychology.
- Clinical psychologists specialize in helping clients with behavioural problems by providing therapy for various mental disorders and in cases of anxiety or fear, or with stresses at home or at work. They work either as private practitioners or at hospitals, mental institutions, or with social agencies.
- Counseling psychologists work with persons who suffer from motivational and emotional problems. The problems of their clients are less serious than those of the clinical psychologists. A counselling psychologist may be involved in vocational rehabilitation programmes, or helping persons in making professional choices or in adjusting to new and difficult situations of life.
- Community psychologists focus on problems related to community mental health. They work for mental health agencies, private organisations and state governments. They help the community and its institutions in addressing physical and mental health problems. In rural areas they may work to establish a mental health centre.
- Educational psychologists work in educational systems, and their roles vary according to the levels of their training. For example, some school psychologists only administer tests, whereas others also interpret test results to help students with their problems. They also help in the formulation of school policies.

- Organizational psychologists render valuable help in dealing with problems that the executives and employees of an organization tend to face in their respective roles. Some organizational psychologists specialize in Human Resource Development (HRD), while others in Organizational Development and Change Management programmes.
- The brain is organized into structures and regions that perform specific functions. Brain scanning reveals that while some mental functions are distributed among different areas of the brain, many activities are localized also.

2.4 KEY WORDS:

Potential of Psychology: The potential of psychology in solving the problems of life is being realized more and more. We now have psychologists working in diverse settings such as schools, hospitals, industries, prisons, business organizations, military establishments, and in private practice as consultants helping people solve problems in their respective settings. The principles and methods of psychology that we learn can be made use of in analyzing and understanding ourselves in relation to others. It is not that we do not think about ourselves.

Clinical psychologists: They specialize in helping clients with behavioural problems by providing therapy for various mental disorders and in cases of anxiety or fear, or with stresses at home or at work. They work either as private practitioners or at hospitals, mental institutions, or with social agencies.

Counseling psychologists: They work with persons who suffer from motivational and emotional problems. The problems of their clients are less serious than those of the clinical psychologists. A counselling psychologist may be involved in vocational rehabilitation programmes, or helping persons in making professional choices or in adjusting to new and difficult situations of life.

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Educational psychologists: They work in educational systems, and their roles vary according to the levels of their training. For example, some school psychologists only administer tests, whereas others also interpret test results to help students with their problems. They also help in the formulation of school policies.

Organizational psychologists: They render valuable help in dealing with problems that the executives and employees of an organization tend to face in their respective roles. Some organizational psychologists specialize in Human Resource Development (HRD), while others in Organizational Development and Change Management programmes.

Behaviour: The brain is organized into structures and regions that perform specific functions. Brain scanning reveals that while some mental functions are distributed among different areas of the brain, many activities are localized also.

2.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Discuss the various applications of psychology giving examples.
2. What are various areas of applied psychology? Discuss in detail.
3. Write a detailed note on human behaviour.

Bachelor of Mass Communication (1st year)

PSYCHOLOGY (BMC 106)

Block: D Unit: I Lesson: 3

COGNITIVE PROCESSES: PERCEPTION, LEARNING & THINKING

LESSON STRUCTURE

In this lesson we shall discus about the cognitive processes. Specifically, we shall focus on perception. We shall also briefly discuss some major aspects of learning and thinking. The lesson structure shall be as follows:

3.0 OBJECTIVES:

After reading this lesson, you would be able to:

- *Know what is Perception*
- *Undersand the processes of Learning & Thinking*

3.1 INTRODUCTION:

Psychology helps in rendering social service to others. But the knowledge of psychology is also personally relevant in our day-to-day life. The principles and methods of psychology that we learn can be made use of in analyzing and understanding ourselves in relation to others. It is not that we do not think about ourselves.

One may use psychological principles in a positive manner to develop good habits of study for improving our perceptions, learning, thinking. It can also be used

for solving personal and interpersonal problems by using appropriate decision-making strategies. Psychology is of use to reduce or alleviate the stress of examination. Thus, the knowledge of psychology is quite useful in our everyday life, and is rewarding from personal as well as social points of view.

In this lesson, we shall discuss about perception, learning & thinking.

3.2 PRESENTATION OF CONTENT:

The content of this lesson shall be presented as follows:

- *Perception*
- *Learning & Thinking*

3.2.1 PERCEPTION:

Perception is the process by which sensory stimulation is organized into usable experience. In simple words, perceptual psychology investigates such questions as how a frog distinguishes flies from the thousands of other objects in its world.

On the more complex human level, perceptual psychology attempts to unravel such questions as how the brain translates stationary flashing lights into an illusion of motion, or how an artist responds to colours or shapes and translates them into painting.

Perceptual psychologists recognize that most of the raw, unorganized sensory stimuli that come from seeing, hearing, and the other senses are almost instantaneously and subconsciously “corrected” into percepts, or usable experience. For example, a car moving along a road is seen as full-sized no matter how small or large the image it actually makes on the retinas of an observer's eyes.

Similarly, a musical theme can be followed through a maze of individual notes and rhythms no matter how many times the composer has changed the key. Perception is not a simple matter of organizing direct sensory stimuli into percepts. Percepts themselves, gained from past experience, also become organized, thus greatly advancing the accuracy and speed of the individual's present perception.

The study and theory of percepts reach beyond academic psychology to possible practical applications in learning, education, and clinical psychology. To “underperceptualize”—to fail to organize sensory stimuli—often means to experience the world as chaos. To “overperceptualize”—to organize sensory stimuli to the extent

that stimuli not fitting into that organization are shut off or stimuli are perceived when none exist—means to experience the world in a state of depression or hallucination.

Despite the fundamental role that perception plays in the lives of humans and all but the most simple animals, its processes remain largely obscure, for two main reasons: because researchers have had only limited success in breaking down perception into analysable units—and because empirical and scientifically verifiable findings are difficult to obtain or repeat, as the study of perception depends mostly on subjective and introspective reports.

One phenomenon that researchers have attempted to explain is the principle of perceptual constancy. Once an object has been perceived as an identifiable entity, it tends to be seen as a stable object having permanent characteristics, despite variations in its illumination, the position from which it is viewed, or the distance at which it appears. Therefore, although a given object produces a much smaller retinal image at 100 m than at 20 m, it tends to be perceived as having an intrinsic size.

According to the classical theory of perception advanced by the German physiologist and physicist Hermann Ludwig Ferdinand von Helmholtz in the mid-19th century, constancy—as well as depth perception and most other percepts—is a result of an individual's ability continually to synthesize past experience and current sensory cues.

As a newborn animal or a human infant explores its world, it soon learns to organize what it sees into a three-dimensional pattern, taking as its guides largely those discovered by Leonardo da Vinci: linear perspective, occlusion of a far object by a near one, and increasing haze as objects become more distant.

Using tactile and audio cues as well, the growing infant quickly learns a host of specific associations that correspond to the properties of objects in the physical world. Such associations, or percepts, are made automatically and with such speed that even a trained adult cannot decipher, with any degree of accuracy, the visual cues from which they are derived.

GESTALT THEORY

According to Gestalt psychology, which gained popularity after World War I, perception is to be understood not by analysing isolated units such as single sensations, but by taking into account ***total configurations*** (*German,* ***Gestalten***) of

mental processes. In this view, the real perceptual unit is the form: a mental structure that takes its attributes from a corresponding structure of brain processes.

Experiments by proponents of the Gestalt theory showed that perception of form does not depend on perception of individual elements making up the form. Thus, “squareness” can be perceived in a figure made up of four red lines as well as in one of four black dots.

Similarly, the mind experiences music not as a compounding of individual notes from various instruments and voices, but according to laws of organization by which the individual perceives a single, organized unit from beginning to end.

Although the Gestalt movement made important contributions to learning and the creative process, the introspective reports that it depended on to explain perception remained too subjective to be of much scientific value. Furthermore, the “innate physiological processes” to which the Gestaltists attributed their laws of organization have been largely discredited.

CURRENT APPROACH

Since the start of perceptual studies, psychologists have attempted to dissect the perceptual process along what are assumed to be its innate and learned lines. Experiments in which visually naive animals and human infants shied away from so-called visual cliffs were thought to demonstrate that depth perception is inborn.

Through similar experiments designed to demonstrate innate abilities, theorists of this school attempted to estimate proportions of innate and learned perceptual behaviour.

More recently, however, many psychologists have come to realize that such a dichotomous approach has little scientific basis and does little to further the study of perception. Taking an approach closer to the classical theory, they propose that perceptual ability comes from the ability of an animal or human to organize its total experience, which is meant to include the many physiological growth experiences that precede what is commonly considered the formal experience of learning.

They argue that although an infant in the visual-cliff experiment may lack visual experience, it nevertheless has had other sensory experience with its environment that may contribute to its ability to perceive visual depth. Through many such earlier experiences, animals and humans learn, so to speak, how to learn.

In a recent discovery that shows some promise of unravelling the mystery of perception, researchers in experimental psychology have found that specific retinal and nerve cells of amphibians and mammals can recognize specific shapes and movements in the retinal image, instead of simply reacting to given amounts of light energy reflected by objects.

Such nerve and retinal cells respond to particular configurations such as discs and rings, to particular movements of objects, and to simultaneous stimulation of similarly located cells in the retinas of both eyes.

3.2.2 LEARNING & THINKING:

Cognition, knowing, perceiving, and thinking. It is a defining property of what it is to be a human being and is studied by psychologists, neuroscientists, computer scientists, and philosophers who are interested in an organism's ability to think. To understand cognition, the mental processes which result in a conscious understanding of our sensory world need to be studied.

These include our ability to perceive, to remember, to attend, to communicate, and to plan. Cognition is a topic of primary interest to the fields of cognitive psychology (a branch of psychology that explores the workings of the mind using experiment, theories, and models of mental representation) and cognitive science (in which theories of intelligent behaviour are most commonly expressed on computers). It is also an aspect of the brain and its relation to consciousness as we are conscious of our ability to think and we believe that thought is dependent on activity of the brain.

Cognition was of interest to early philosophers, who were concerned with the classification of all things, the properties of such things, and the prime substances that make up any object. The ability to think evidently requires a very special classification. It requires an explanation of what it is to be able to explain, and therefore became part of the puzzling question of the nature and substance of mind and consciousness.

It remained so until the end of the 19th century when "the father of psychology", American physician and philosopher William James, introduced a degree of pragmatism into the question. The study of cognition became more closely

associated with an active form of thinking, such as inferring outcomes from observations.

This distinguished it from less concrete mental events such as moods, emotions, and feelings. Cognition therefore became closely related to the process of reasoning and knowledge of the world. There was, however, a movement in psychology called behaviourism that, from the early part of the 20th century onwards, regarded cognition as an unsound element of psychology. It was reasoned that internal mental states and the processes of reasoning could not be measured and could only be known through introspection.

This caused psychologists such as John Watson in the 1920s and Burrhus Frederic Skinner in the 1950s to regard a concern with cognition as being less than scientific.

Contemporary interest in cognition is partly a reaction to these negative tendencies. It stems from a desire to develop a science of how the perceived world is represented in thought and how this involves the use of language and other informational processes.

Where in the brain specific cognitive acts take place is of interest to the neurophysiologist and the psychologist alike. This question is rendered difficult by the fact that many functions are distributed over several identifiable parts or modules of the brain. Successful studies will adopt a judicious mix of assuming both that functions are local, and that such local areas interact. There is general agreement that some cognitive functions can be traced to particular areas in the brain.

For example, studies with injured patients indicate that thinking about space occurs in the central right hemisphere of the cortex (the outer layer which is folded into the skull), abstract mathematical thinking in the mid-left hemisphere, while planning involves the frontal lobes which lie behind the forehead (see brain).

Reliance on such localization, however, should be considered with care, as recent brain imaging studies reveal that function may be more distributed throughout the brain than experiments with injured patients indicate. The way in which similar processes could be made to operate in a computer has been helpful in the development of the desired psychological science or cognitive science.

Despite the pragmatism, the topic of cognition is and will continue to be controversial. While the brain is sometimes likened to a computer, the distinction between the two is important. For example, the brain is capable of cognition through

its evolution and through learning. It is a dynamic, self-programmed, intricately sculptured cellular structure. This has created the most recent challenge for this science: the discovery of cognition as a property of the neural structure of the brain.

To understand contemporary debates on cognition, historical influences are very important. They may be divided into the early classical influence of both the Milesian founders of Greek philosophy and, later, the great Greek philosophers, Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. The next great influence was the religion of the Middle Ages and, later, two products of the Enlightenment—Cartesianism and Empiricism.

As with most aspects of philosophy in the Western world, early interest in cognition may be traced to what is known of the ideas of Thales of Miletus. While his best-known pronouncement is that all things are made of water, he noted that some objects could move unaided and others could not. Those that could, he said, were alive and possessing a soul.

Although this seems not to be linked to “thought”, it was the beginning of the interest in the “inner state” of a living being. This is precisely the central concern in studies of cognition. In general, living creatures express forms of behaviour through muscular movement, and cognition is that which is interposed between the senses and action.

In the era of the great Greek philosophers Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, the human capacity to think and in particular the ability to do mathematics and logic became acclaimed as marks of supremacy among human beings.

Socrates practised dialectic, the method of enhancing knowledge through a process of question and answer. He believed that cognition was immortal and, having been put to death by the state of Athens for being “a curious person” and subverting the young, he pronounced that, in death, he would either sleep a dreamless sleep or be capable of thinking forever.

For Plato, knowledge was a product of the intellect rather than the senses. Universal concepts such as the meaning of the word “cat” were for him eternal and created by God. The senses could only provide specific examples of cats, but the realization of the existence of the concept “cat” is discovered by the intellect and appreciated as a divine gift.

In contrast, Aristotle’s view of cognition was less mystical but also harder to understand. Things are because they contain some material and have a particular shape or function. A tree trunk is made of wood, its “matter”, and is recognizable by

its shape or its “form”. Soul is that which gives form (now best understood as “purpose”) to the body. It perishes with the body. So what kind of a thing is cognition? When we see something what is it that, within ourselves, does the “seeing” and visualizing (picturing things described by language)?

COGNITION AND PSYCHOLOGY

Cognition has been a major element in the development of psychology. This includes both its acceptance, as in the work of William James, and its denial in the methods of behaviourists.

Psychology is now accepted to be an appropriate framework for the study of cognition as a science. In 1890, William James described psychology as “The science of mental life, both of its phenomena and its condition”, urging that it should be studied under rigorous conditions. That is, he encouraged those interested in mental life to carry out controlled measurements in order to build systematic theories of the behaviour and thought processes of human beings.

Some rigorous studies of thought processes had taken place before James’s instigation. Of particular note is the suggestion that was made by Charles Darwin that cognition develops through evolution. This suggestion has not received major attention until the 1990s. In the new field of evolutionary psychology questions are now being asked about how cognition may be shaped by the inherited physical features of the human being.

One of the factors hampering development of an evolutionary theory of cognition is the very link between the physical structure of the brain (which can be influenced by inheritance) and the nature of cognition. This is the major unanswered question that underlies most modern work on the subject.

Another practitioner of precise methodology was the German academic Wilhelm Wundt of the University of Leipzig. He initiated a variety of experiments in which he trained his subjects to speak of their inner perceptions or introspections.

Wundt’s technique was strongly criticized in the early part of the 20th century when John Watson urged psychologists to mistrust introspection, as the reports of subjects, even if trained, could not be corroborated. This led to the school of behaviourism, a type of psychology only concerned with an organism’s response to carefully designed stimuli. Well known is the work done in Leningrad by Ivan Pavlov, who showed that a dog would anticipate (be conditioned to) the arrival of food on

sensing other events (such as the ringing of a bell) which normally preceded the food.

Similarly, in the United States, B. F. Skinner measured the factors that affected animals in tasks where appropriate actions had to be chosen to receive food. The significance of behaviourist approaches on cognition is that they largely denied the existence of the inner state in behaving organisms. That is, behaviourists attempted to develop a theory of behaviour that is independent of cognition.

The omission of the inner state in psychology is now largely considered as being untenable. But it is also true that introspective reports by human subjects cannot be corroborated. This dilemma has been resolved since the 1950s through the process of modelling of internal activity, an approach that relies more on the consistency of models and less on introspective reports.

Such modelling owes much to engineering, where the modelling of complex machinery with internal states (such as aircraft controllers or processing plant) is commonplace. In cognitive psychology engineering notions of communication and control have been used in models, and in cognitive science, engineering theories used in computation feature strongly.

A significant realization of contemporary studies in psychology is that cognition is an aggregation of many mental facilities. Principal among these are memory, attention, and the use of natural language and planning. These are considered separately.

Memory

Most of the thoughts that occupy our mind, that is, the essence of cognition, appear to rely on mechanisms of memory. In the narrow sense this refers to our ability to remember things like telephone numbers or historical dates, while in the broadest sense it could be said to encompass all of thinking. Psychologists have classified memory in several ways: long- and short-term, episodic, semantic, and “working” memory.

Long- and Short-Term Memory: In cognitive science, there is much measured information on how retentive the human brain can be in the short term and how memories transfer from the short duration to the relatively permanent. These tests usually refer to lists of objects. Cognitive models exist where short-term memory is

seen as a “box” of limited capacity and a rehearsal loop. Memory of a list of objects is said to be retained in the box and “recycled” through the rehearsal loop.

Eventually, this is transferred to another box, the long-term memory, which is like a filing cabinet within which the list can be retained for periods that can be as long as a lifetime.

Episodic, Semantic, and Working Memory: Episodic memory relates to events that are directly remembered, such as: “Last July I saw a horrific accident in the Kings’ Road.” In contrast, semantic memory is a way of describing our store of knowledge, much of which is shared with others. It has been proved that memory can be dependent on context.

For example, it is easier to remember quotations from Shakespeare during a conversation about the Bard and his works than had one been discussing football. That is, an area of knowledge comes into “working memory”, from which it is easier to access its elements than otherwise.

Computer Memory: “Memory” has, of course, become the word used for the storage facility of computers. It is important to distinguish the functioning of memory in a living being from that of a computer.

A computer has a vast store of memory locations organized like a filing cabinet. It requires a precise index (the address) in order to retrieve information contained in an electronic “folder”. Human memory, on the other hand is a far more flexible and rapid instrument. There is no system of addressing, just an efficient system for performing associations.

This is due to what are thought to be special emerging abilities of the neural networks in the brain (see Connectionism and Cognition below). Despite the massive processing speed of a computer, the human brain, even if slower, can find some associations far more rapidly than the contemporary computer as a result of the brain’s highly specific parallel organization. The computer searches while the brain associates.

A good example of this is the association of names and faces, and the ability to do this even if a face has changed considerably through ageing or hair alterations. The importance of this is not to deny that some day computers might achieve a performance similar to that of the brain, but to stress that cognitive memories

operate on the basis of organizational principles that are very different from those of computer memories.

Some researchers have studied the effect of ageing on memory. This distinguishes between subjects who have been diagnosed as having a biochemical deficit (Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases) and those who do not.

3.3 SUMMARY:

- Perception is the process by which sensory stimulation is organized into usable experience. In simple words, perceptual psychology investigates such questions as how a frog distinguishes flies from the thousands of other objects in its world.
- Perception is not a simple matter of organizing direct sensory stimuli into percepts. Percepts themselves, gained from past experience, also become organized, thus greatly advancing the accuracy and speed of the individual's present perception.
- Using tactile and audio cues as well, the growing infant quickly learns a host of specific associations that correspond to the properties of objects in the physical world. Such associations, or percepts, are made automatically and with such speed that even a trained adult cannot decipher, with any degree of accuracy, the visual cues from which they are derived.
- According to Gestalt psychology perception is to be understood not by analysing isolated units such as single sensations, but by taking into account ***total configurations*** (*German,* ***Gestalten***) of mental processes.
- Gestalt movement made important contributions to learning and the creative process. But it depended on to explain perception remained too subjective to be of much scientific value..
- Cognition is knowing, perceiving, and thinking. It is a defining property of what it is to be a human being and is studied by psychologists, neuroscientists, computer scientists, and philosophers who are interested in an organism's ability to think. To understand cognition, the mental processes which result in a conscious understanding of our sensory world need to be studied.

- Cognition was of interest to early philosophers, who were concerned with the classification of all things, the properties of such things, and the prime substances that make up any object.
- The study of cognition is more closely associated with an active form of thinking, such as inferring outcomes from observations.
- Socrates practised dialectic, the method of enhancing knowledge through a process of question and answer. He believed that cognition was immortal and, having been put to death by the state of Athens for being “a curious person” and subverting the young, he pronounced that, in death, he would either sleep a dreamless sleep or be capable of thinking forever.
- Plato thought that knowledge was a product of the intellect rather than the senses. Universal concepts such as the meaning of the word “cat” were for him eternal and created by God. The senses could only provide specific examples of cats, but the realization of the existence of the concept “cat” is discovered by the intellect and appreciated as a divine gift.
- Aristotle held the view that cognition was less mystical but also harder to understand. Things are because they contain some material and have a particular shape or function.
- Most of the thoughts that occupy our mind, that is, the essence of cognition, appear to rely on mechanisms of memory. In the narrow sense this refers to our ability to remember things like telephone numbers or historical dates, while in the broadest sense it could be said to encompass all of thinking. Psychologists have classified memory in several ways: long- and short-term, episodic, semantic, and “working” memory.
- In cognitive science, there is much measured information on how retentive the human brain can be in the short term and how memories transfer from the short duration to the relatively permanent. These tests usually refer to lists of objects.
- Episodic memory relates to events that are directly remembered, such as: “Last July I saw a horrific accident in the Kings’ Road.” In contrast, semantic memory is a way of describing our store of knowledge, much of which is shared with others. It has been proved that memory can be dependent on context.

- Memory has, of course, become the word used for the storage facility of computers. It is important to distinguish the functioning of memory in a living being from that of a computer.
- A computer has a vast store of memory locations organized like a filing cabinet. It requires a precise index (the address) in order to retrieve information contained in an electronic “folder”. Human memory, on the other hand is a far more flexible and rapid instrument. There is no system of addressing, just an efficient system for performing associations.

3.4 KEY WORDS:

Perception: Perception is the process by which sensory stimulation is organized into usable experience. In simple words, perceptual psychology investigates such questions as how a frog distinguishes flies from the thousands of other objects in its world.

Cognition: Cognition is knowing, perceiving, and thinking. It is a defining property of what it is to be a human being and is studied by psychologists, neuroscientists, computer scientists, and philosophers who are interested in an organism’s ability to think. To understand cognition, the mental processes which result in a conscious understanding of our sensory world need to be studied.

Memory: Most of the thoughts that occupy our mind, that is, the essence of cognition, appear to rely on mechanisms of memory. In the narrow sense this refers to our ability to remember things like telephone numbers or historical dates, while in the broadest sense it could be said to encompass all of thinking. Psychologists have classified memory in several ways: long- and short-term, episodic, semantic, and “working” memory.

Human Memory: Human memory, on the other hand is a far more flexible and rapid instrument. There is no system of addressing, just an efficient system for performing associations.

Types of Memory: Psychologists have classified memory in several ways: long- and short-term, episodic, semantic, and “working” memory.

Long- and Short-Term Memory: In cognitive science, there is much measured information on how retentive the human brain can be in the short term and how

memories transfer from the short duration to the relatively permanent. These tests usually refer to lists of objects. Cognitive models exist where short-term memory is seen as a “box” of limited capacity and a rehearsal loop. Memory of a list of objects is said to be retained in the box and “recycled” through the rehearsal loop.

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Computer Memory: “Memory” has, of course, become the word used for the storage facility of computers. It is important to distinguish the functioning of memory in a living being from that of a computer. A computer has a vast store of memory locations organized like a filing cabinet. It requires a precise index (the address) in order to retrieve information contained in an electronic “folder”.

3.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Write a detailed note on perceptions.
2. Discuss the process of learning in detail.
3. What is memory? Discuss the different tpes of memories in detail.

Bachelor of Mass Communication (1st year)

PSYCHOLOGY (BMC 106)

Block: D Unit: II Lesson: 4

INTELLIGENCE

LESSON STRUCTURE

In this lesson we shall discus about the some aspects of intelligence. Specifically, we shall focus on the nature and scope of intelligence. We shall briefly discuss some major theories of intelligence. We shall also discuss intelligence quotient. The lesson structure shall be as follows:

4.0 OBJECTIVES:

After reading this lesson, you would be able to:

- *To Get An Overview of Intelligence*
- *To Know about of Measurement of Intelligence*
- *To Understand the Theories of Intelligence*
- *To Know About the Development of Intelligence through a Lifetime*
- *To Know About Intelligence through Nature and Nurture*
- *To Understand Intelligence Quotient*

4.1 INTRODUCTION:

We often are concerned and confused about the concept of personality. We are told that personality is very important. Let us discuss little about personality. There are various aspects of personality. Personality is all about ons's self concept. And there are four selves in on person. The first is the Physical self. The socond is the emotional self. The third is the intellectual self and the fourth one is the social self.

All these four selves are very important. But the most important is the intellectual self. This is because, the intellecual self controlls and generally shapes the other selves.

In this lesson, we shall study some major aspects of intelligence including: the concept of intelligence, measurement of intelligence, theories of intelligence, development of intelligence through a lifetime, intelligence through nature and nurture, and intelligence quotient.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF CONTENT:

The content of this lesson shall be presented as follows:

- *Intelligence - An Overview*
- *Measurement of Intelligence*
- *Theories of Intelligence*
- *Development of Intelligence through a Lifetime*
- *Intelligence through Nature and Nurture*
- *Intelligence Quotient*

4.2.1 INTELLIGENCE- AN OVERVIEW:

Intelligence is perhaps the most important aspect of the human mind. It is related to our capacity to think, to solve novel problems, to reason and to have knowledge of the world. In psychology the term is used in two different senses. The first sense is to think of it as the emergent property of the cognitive system (or mind) as a whole. This motivates us to ask questions about how the mind is structured such that "intelligence" is possible at all, and in principle we could try to answer these questions by careful testing of a single individual. In this sense the study of intelligence is primarily the province of cognitive psychology. However, the more common usage of the term in psychology is in the study of individual differences.

Here the fundamental question is: what makes one individual more intelligent than another? To answer this question we need to study many individuals and many factors that might contribute to the differences between them.

4.2.2 THE MEASUREMENT OF INTELLIGENCE:

We are diferent from each other. The differences are at the physical, emotional, social and intellectual levels. The differences in intelligence are caused by differences in the speed at which information is transmitted through the nervous system and this, in turn, is due to differences in biology.

A French educationalist, Alfred Binet, developed mental tests to identify students who might benefit from special education. Binet's view was that intelligence is a high-level property of complex mental events such as reasoning, logic and knowledge, and therefore tests of intelligence should tap these processes (and not speed of response to simple pin-pricks). Binet realized that the commonplace observation that older children can solve more difficult problems than younger children can be used to derive a measuring scale of intellectual performance.

The difficulty of items on an intelligence test could be determined by observing how old a child had to be (on average) to pass the item—the older the child the more difficult the item. In turn, the logic could be reversed—once the test had items that were scaled in this manner any child taking the test could be given a score that matched the average chronological age of children who typically obtain this score. This measure became known as mental age.

The next step was the concept of IQ. It was William Stern who derived the intelligence quotient, or IQ, by dividing a child's measured mental age on the test by their actual age and multiplying the result by 100. This means that the average child whose mental age is the same as their actual age will have an IQ of 100.

The distribution of IQ scores is such that two thirds of people will have an IQ between 85 and 115, and only 2.3 per cent of the population will have an IQ lower than 70 or above 130. It is one of the major diagnostic characteristics of mental retardation that IQ is less than 70. Moreover, IQ is the single best psychological variable for predicting real life success and is often used in job selection.

Binet's tests provide the template for all modern tests of intelligence, the most famous being the Stanford Binet and the Wechsler scales. It is interesting, however, that in recent years all new revisions of intelligence tests require that the scores be

scaled downwards to maintain the average performance at 100. This effect was discovered by James Flynn and this phenomena of “rising IQ” across generations is still to be explained.

4.2.3 THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE:

British psychologist Charles Spearman observed that if we take a sample of the population and give them a diversity of intellectual tests then we find that someone who is good at one intellectual ability is likely to be good at all others too. This is the single most important empirical fact discovered by research on intelligence.

Spearman drew the conclusion that the reason all abilities are related is because all tests measure to some extent a general intelligence factor, or g. Spearman conceptualized this g as being like mental energy, with those higher in g having more mental resources to devote to intellectual tasks. He also supposed that each test might in addition measure some unique ability, and consequently Spearman’s theory became known as a “two-factor” theory.

In the early 20th century statistical techniques designed to analyse patterns of relationships between scores, known as factor analysis, were developed apace and this led to the second major theory of intelligence, that of Louis Thurstone. Using these new statistical techniques Thurstone claimed to identify not two factors but seven primary mental abilities—verbal, numerical, spatial, memory, reasoning, word fluency, and perceptual speed.

Most importantly though, Thurstone claimed that in fact there was no single general intelligence. Whether there is such a thing as general intelligence, or g, has remained the central issue for theories of intelligence ever since.

An important development of the idea was proposed by Raymond Cattell, who distinguished between fluid g, that which determines current, on-line ability to think and reason, and crystallized g, which is related to stored knowledge.

4.2.4 THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLIGENCE ACROSS THE LIFESPAN:

The psychometric data that describes intellectual development is reasonably clear. The period of infancy is something of a dark-age, basically because the pre-linguistic child is difficult to test. Between the onset of language in the child and going to school there is an explosion in cognitive abilities.

From school age to around young adulthood there is a steady but diminishing increase in measured intelligence that reaches a plateau around late adolescence or mid-teens. Thereafter there is very little increase in “fluid” intelligence, though some crystallized abilities (for example, vocabulary scores) can still show measured increases late in life. There is some dispute about what happens in the middle years and later ageing.

Some experts view the middle years as a period of relative intellectual stability with only serious decline beginning as we approach our death (and consequently brought about in the main by illnesses that affect the central nervous system). Others though see it as a slow remorseless decline from early adulthood onwards.

Some researchers see developmental changes as operating in specific knowledge domains (for example, the child as a linguist, the child as a mathematician, the child as a physicist, and so forth) and largely independent of each other. Indeed the correlation between measures of intelligence in the pre-school child (particularly in infancy) and later IQ differences are usually very low. Yet there are strong correlations between intelligence test scores in the school-age child and later adulthood (even when the knowledge content of the respective tests is very dissimilar).

So the contrasting view is that a single global process might account both for IQ differences between individuals and the changes in intellectual level over the lifespan of a single individual. For example, individuals with fast speed of processing will have higher IQs than those with slow speed and during child development speed increases and then slowly declines through adulthood into old age. However, a number of striking facts about development suggest that the complete picture must be somewhat more complex than this.

For example, not all children of the same IQ are intellectually equivalent (for example, children with Down’s syndrome and children with autism); some children with normal IQs can have specific learning disabilities (for example, dyslexia); and in old-age some abilities seem to decline faster than others.

4.2.5 INTELLIGENCE THROUGH NATURE AND NURTURE:

One of the oldest issues in research on intelligence is whether individual differences in intelligence and developmental changes are driven by nature (genes) or nurture (experience). This has always been a controversial topic in psychology but the issue

is now largely settled. By analysing the correlations in intelligence of groups of differing degrees of genetic relatedness (mainly twins) and groups that do or do not share the same rearing environments (adopted children), behaviour geneticists can calculate the heritability of intelligence.

Heritability is the proportion of the differences between individuals that are accounted for by genetic effects. It is clear that there is a large genetic effect on differences in intelligence. Estimates vary, but it is accepted the heritability of IQ is substantial and lies somewhere between 40 per cent and 70 per cent. However, heritability is a concept that applies to differences within populations.

The figure of 50 per cent (or whatever) does not mean that for any specific individual you can say that 50 per cent of their intelligence is due to their genetic heritage and 50 per cent is due to their environment. It could be that for any individual (someone with a genetic defect for example) nearly all of their measured ability is determined by genes and for yet another (someone reared in a dark cupboard, for example) it could be entirely environmental.

The coming together of cognitive and brain models of human intelligence, coupled with sophisticated genetic analyses and a better understanding of how environments influence child development, promises to renew an interest in individual differences in intelligence.

In particular, recent research linking the operation of the pre-frontal cortex of the brain with fluid intelligence holds out new hope for integrating the study of individual differences with mainstream cognitive and brain sciences. It is in this integration that the future of research on intelligence lies.

4.2.6 INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT:

Intelligence Quotient or IQ, measure of a person’s intellect and understanding. The idea of measuring intelligence originated in the work of French psychologist Alfred Binet, who developed the first intelligence tests for children in 1905, the Binet-Simon Scale. His approach was to establish average scores on intelligence test items for children of different ages so that intelligent children would attain a score that was older than their chronological age, children with average intelligence would achieve a score appropriate for their age, and less intelligent children would score the average for younger children.

When the tests were introduced into the United States in 1916, the mental age achieved on the test was divided by the chronological age of the child and multiplied by 100 to give an “Intelligence Quotient”, whereby those with average intelligence would score around 100, the intellectually gifted would score higher (120+), and those with below average intellect would score no higher than 80. A score of less than 70 denoted mental underdevelopment.

Although originally developed for educational purposes, the tests were deployed by the United States Immigration Service to screen out people of lower intelligence. This practice made the assumption that the tests were a reasonably objective measure of underlying ability and that scores did not reflect differences in language, previous educational experience, and cultural variation. The underlying theory was that there is a single capacity of intelligence that influences our performance on a range of intellectual tasks.

However, the assumptions that the tests were unbiased and that intelligence is a single underlying ability were both challenged. Even in educational contexts, IQ scores are better predictors at young ages but become less accurate in predicting higher educational attainment and success in later life.

These assumptions and criticisms were particularly important in the United Kingdom because, through the work of Cyril Burt, intelligence tests and assessments were used to select children for different forms of secondary education at the age of 11. Burt had conducted studies on twins that suggested that IQ had a genetic basis. However, there has been some suspicion that Burt’s data might have been falsified and that the justification for treating IQ scores as reflecting stable, genetic qualities has come into question.

Another controversy arose over the different ways that boys and girls approach mathematical problems, indicating that IQ tests might favour particular ways of thinking rather than ability. Similarly, the different scores attained by different ethnic groups on IQ tests have been cited as both the proof of the genetic basis of IQ and the bias in the construction of such tests.

As well as these social and political controversies about IQ testing there has been a series of challenges to the idea of a single, measurable ability. As early as 1949, the Weschler Intelligence Scale distinguished that verbal and non-verbal reasoning have separate strengths and weaknesses. The idea that individuals have a range of intellectual competences that can vary independently has led to the idea

of multiple intelligence, thus challenging the idea of allocating a single IQ to an individual.

There have been a number of controversies surrounding the validity of IQ testing suggesting that the tests are biased in gender, race, and social class and the underlying theory of a single, measurable intelligence has also been challenged. Despite these challenges and controversies, standard versions of IQ tests are still widely used in educational and vocational selection.

4.3 SUMMARY:

- Intelligence is the most important aspect of the human mind. It is our capacity to think, to solve problems, to rationale and to have knowledge of the world. Intelligence is primarily the area of cognitive psychology.
- We are diferent from each other. The differences are at the physical, emotional, social and intellectual levels. The differences in intelligence are caused by differences in the speed at which information is transmitted through the nervous system and this, in turn, is due to differences in biology.
- French educationalist, Alfred Binet, developed mental tests to identify students who might benefit from special education. Binet's view was that intelligence is a high-level property of complex mental events such as reasoning, logic and knowledge, and therefore tests of intelligence should tap these processes (and not speed of response to simple pin-pricks).
- The next step was the concept of IQ. It was William Stern who derived the intelligence quotient, or IQ, by dividing a child's measured mental age on the test by their actual age and multiplying the result by 100. This means that the average child whose mental age is the same as their actual age will have an IQ of 100.
- Some experts view the middle years as a period of relative intellectual stability with only serious decline beginning as we approach our death (and consequently brought about in the main by illnesses that affect the central nervous system). Others though see it as a slow remorseless decline from early adulthood onwards.
- Not all children of the same IQ are intellectually equivalent (for example, children with Down's syndrome and children with autism); some children with

normal IQs can have specific learning disabilities (for example, dyslexia); and in old-age some abilities seem to decline faster than others.

- One of the oldest issues in research on intelligence is whether individual differences in intelligence and developmental changes are driven by nature (genes) or nurture (experience). By analysing the correlations in intelligence of groups of differing degrees of genetic relatedness (mainly twins) and groups that do or do not share the same rearing environments (adopted children), behaviour geneticists can calculate the heritability of intelligence.
- The coming together of cognitive and brain models of human intelligence, coupled with sophisticated genetic analyses and a better understanding of how environments influence child development, promises to renew an interest in individual differences in intelligence.
- Intelligence Quotient or IQ, measure of a person's intellect and understanding. The idea of measuring intelligence originated in the work of French psychologist Alfred Binet, who developed the first intelligence tests for children in 1905, the Binet-Simon Scale. His approach was to establish average scores on intelligence test items for children of different ages so that intelligent children would attain a score that was older than their chronological age, children with average intelligence would achieve a score appropriate for their age, and less intelligent children would score the average for younger children.
- There have been a number of controversies surrounding the validity of IQ testing suggesting that the tests are biased in gender, race, and social class and the underlying theory of a single, measurable intelligence has also been challenged. Despite these challenges and controversies, standard versions of IQ tests are still widely used in educational and vocational selection.

4.4 KEY WORDS:

Intelligence: Intelligence is the most important aspect of the human mind. It is our capacity to think, to solve problems, to rationale and to have knowledge of the world. Intelligence is primarily the area of cognitive psychology.

Differential Intelligence: We are diferent from each other. The differences are at the physical, emotional, social and intellectual levels. The differences in intelligence

are caused by differences in the speed at which information is transmitted through the nervous system and this, in turn, is due to differences in biology.

Intellectual Stability: Some experts view the middle years as a period of relative intellectual stability with only serious decline beginning as we approach our death (and consequently brought about in the main by illnesses that affect the central nervous system). Others though see it as a slow remorseless decline from early adulthood onwards.

Causes of Intelligence: One of the oldest issues in research on intelligence is whether individual differences in intelligence and developmental changes are driven by nature (genes) or nurture (experience). By analysing the correlations in intelligence of groups of differing degrees of genetic relatedness (mainly twins) and groups that do or do not share the same rearing environments (adopted children), behaviour geneticists can calculate the heritability of intelligence.

Heritability: Heritability is the proportion of the differences between individuals that are accounted for by genetic effects. It is clear that there is a large genetic effect on differences in intelligence. Estimates vary, but it is accepted the heritability of IQ is substantial and lies somewhere between 40 per cent and 70 per cent. However, heritability is a concept that applies to differences within populations.

Intelligence Quotient: Intelligence Quotient or IQ, measure of a person's intellect and understanding. The idea of measuring intelligence originated in the work of French psychologist Alfred Binet, who developed the first intelligence tests for children in 1905, the Binet-Simon Scale. His approach was to establish average scores on intelligence test items for children of different ages so that intelligent children would attain a score that was older than their chronological age, children with average intelligence would achieve a score appropriate for their age, and less intelligent children would score the average for younger children.

Uses of Intelligence Quotient: Although originally developed for educational purposes, the tests were deployed by the United States Immigration Service to screen out people of lower intelligence. This practice made the assumption that the tests were a reasonably objective measure of underlying ability and that scores did not reflect differences in language, previous educational experience, and cultural variation. The underlying theory was that there is a single capacity of intelligence that influences our performance on a range of intellectual tasks.

4.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Write a detailed note on intelligence.
2. Write a detailed note on measurement of intelligence.
3. Discuss the various theories of Intelligence.
4. Discuss the development of Intelligence through a person's lifetime.
5. Write a detailed note on Intelligence Quotient.

Bachelor of Mass Communication (1st year)

PSYCHOLOGY (BMC 106)

Block: E Unit: I Lesson: 5

MOTIVATION

LESSON STRUCTURE

In this lesson we shall discus about motivation. Specifically, we shall focus on the various types of motives. We shall also briefly discuss Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The lesson structure shall be as follows:

5.0 OBJECTIVES:

After reading this lesson, you would be able to:

- *Get An Overview of Motivation*
- *Understand the Various Types of Motives*
- *Understand Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*

5.1 INTRODUCTION:

In human beings, motivation involves both conscious and unconscious drives. Psychological theories must account for a "primary" level of motivation to satisfy basic needs, such as those for food, oxygen, and water, and for a "secondary" level of motivation to fulfil social needs such as companionship and achievement. The primary needs must be satisfied before an organism can attend to secondary drives.

The American psychologist Abraham Maslow devised a six-level hierarchy of motives that, according to his theory, determine human behaviour. Maslow ranks human needs as follows: (1) physiological; (2) security and safety; (3) love and feelings of belonging; (4) competence, prestige, and esteem; (5) self-fulfilment; and (6) curiosity and the need to understand.

No single theory of motivation has been universally accepted. Formerly, many psychologists studying behaviourism thought that the least amount of stimulation was sought and an organism was thought to behave in a way that was most likely to bring about this desired state of no stimulation.

Many human physiological systems do in fact operate in this manner. However, recent cognitive theories of motivation portray human beings as seeking to maximize rather than minimize stimulation. These theories are therefore better able to account for the universal human tendencies towards exploratory behaviour, the need for variety, aesthetic reactions, and curiosity.

5.2 PRESENTATION OF CONTENT:

The content of this lesson shall be presented as follows:

- *Motivation - An Overview*
- *Types of Motives*
- *Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs*

5.2.1 MOTIVATION- AN OVERVIEW:

The concept of motivation explains what "moves" our behaviour. The term motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere'. It refers to movement of activity. Most of our everyday explanation of behaviour is given in terms of motives. Why do we do what we do? There may be any number of reasons for this behaviour. Why does one go to school or college? We go to college to learn or to make friends, we need a diploma or degree to get a good job, we want to make your parents happy, and so on.

Motives also help in making predictions about behaviour. A person will work hard in school, in sports, in business, in music, and in many other situations, if s/he has a very strong need for achievement. Hence, motives are the general states that enable us to make predictions about behaviour in many different situations. In other

words, motivation is one of the determinants of behaviour. Instincts, drives, needs, goals, and incentives come under the broad cluster of motivation.

Psychologists now use the concept of need to describe the motivational properties of behaviour. A need is lack or deficit of some necessity. The condition of need leads to drive.

A drive is a state of tension or arousal produced by a need. It energises random activity. When one of the random activities leads to a goal, it reduces the drive, and the organism stops being active. The organism returns to a balanced state.

Are there different types of motives? Are there any biological bases explaining different kinds of motives? What happens if your motive remains unfulfilled? These are some of the questions we will discuss in the following sections.

5.2.2 TYPES OF MOTIVES:

Basically, there are two types of motives: biological and psychosocial. Biological motives are also known as physiological motives as they are guided mostly by the physiological mechanisms of the body. Psychosocial motives, on the other hand, are primarily learned from the individual's interactions with the various environmental factors.

However, both types of motives are interdependent on each other. That is, in some kind of situations the biological factors may trigger a motive whereas in some other situations, the psychosocial factors may trigger the motive. Hence, you should keep in mind that no motive is absolutely biological or psychosocial per se, rather they are aroused in the individual with varying combinations.

Biological Motives:

The biological or physiological approach to explain motivation is the earliest attempt to understand causes of behaviour. Most of the theories, which developed later, carry traces of the influence of the biological approach. The approach adhering to the concept of adaptive act holds that organisms have needs (internal physiological imbalances) that produce drive, which stimulates behaviour leading to certain actions towards achieving certain goals, which reduce the drive.

The earliest explanations of motivation relied on the concept of instinct. The term instinct denotes inborn patterns of behaviour that are biologically determined

rather than learned. Some common human instincts include curiosity, flight, repulsion, reproduction, parental care, etc. Instincts are innate tendencies found in all members of a species that direct behaviour in predictable ways.

The term instinct most approximately refers to an urge to do something. Instinct has an “impetus” which drives the organism to do something to reduce that impetus. Some of the basic biological needs explained by this approach are hunger, thirst, and sex, which are essential for the sustenance of the individual.

Hunger: When someone is hungry, the need for food dominates everything else. It motivates people to obtain and consume food. Of course we must eat to live. But, what makes you feel hungry? The stimuli for hunger include stomach contractions, which signify that the stomach is empty, a low concentration of glucose in the blood, a low level of protein and the amount of fats stored in the body.

The liver also responds to the lack of bodily fuel by sending nerve impulses to the brain. The aroma, taste or appearance of food may also result in a desire to eat. It may be noted that none of these alone gives you the feeling that you are hungry.

All in combination act with external factors (such as taste, colour, by observing others eating, and the smell of food, etc.) to help you understand that you re hungry. Thus, it can be said that our food intake is regulated by a complex feedingsatiety system located in the hypothalamus, liver, and other parts of the body as well as the external cues available in the environment.

Thirst: What would happen to you, if you were deprived of water for a long time? What makes you feel thirsty? When we are deprived of water for a period of several hours, the mouth and throat become dry, which leads to dehydration of body tissues. Drinking water is necessary to wet a dry mouth. But a dry mouth does not always result in water drinking behaviour. In fact processes within the body itself control thirst and drinking of water.

Water must get into the tissues sufficiently to remove the dryness of mouth and throat. Motivation to drink water is mainly triggered by the conditions of the body: loss of water from cells and reduction of blood volume. When water is lost by bodily fluids, water leaves the interior of the cells. The anterior hypothalamus contains nerve cells called ‘osmoreceptors’, which generate nerve impulses in case of cell dehydration.

Sex: One of the most powerful drives in both animals and human beings is the sex drive. Motivation to engage in sexual activity is a very strong factor influencing human behaviour. However, sex is far more than a biological motive. It is different from other primary motives (hunger, thirst) in many ways like,

(a) sexual activity is not necessary for an individual's survival;

(b) homeostasis (the tendency of the organism as a whole to maintain constancy or to attempt to restore equilibrium if constancy is disturbed) is not the goal of sexual activity; and

(c) sex drive develops with age, etc. In case of lower animals, it depends on many physiological conditions; in case of human beings, the sex drive is very closely regulated biologically, sometimes it is very difficult to classify sex purely as a biological drive. Physiologists suggest that intensity of the sexual urge is dependent upon chemical substances circulating in the blood, known as sex hormones. Studies on animals as well as human beings have mentioned that sex hormones secreted by gonads, i.e. testes in males and the ovaries in females are responsible for sexual motivation. Sexual motivation is also influenced by other endocrine glands, such as adrenal and pituitary glands. Sexual drive in human beings is primarily stimulated by external stimuli and its expression depends upon cultural learning.

Psychosocial Motives:

Social motives are mostly learned or acquired. Social groups such as family, neighbourhood, friends, and relatives do contribute a lot in acquiring social motives. These are complex forms of motives mainly resulting from the individual's interaction with her/his social environment.

Need for Affiliation: Most of us need company or friend or want to maintain some form of relationship with others. Nobody likes to remain alone all the time. As soon as people see some kinds of similarities among themselves or they like each other, they form a group. Formation of group or collectivity is an important feature of human life.

Often people try desperately to get close to other people, to seek their help, and to become members of their group. Seeking other human beings and wanting to

be close to them both physically and psychologically is called affiliation. It involves motivation for social contact. Need for affiliation is aroused when individuals feel threatened or helpless and also when they are happy. People high on this need are motivated to seek the company of others and to maintain friendly relationships with other people.

Need for Power: Need for power is an ability of a person to produce intended effects on the behaviour and emotions of another person. The various goals of power motivation are to influence, control, persuade, lead, and charm others and most importantly to enhance one's own reputation in the eyes of other people.

Need for Achievement: Need for achievement energises and directs behaviour as well as influences the perception of situations. During the formative years of socialdevelopment, children acquire achievement motivation. The sources from which they learn it, include parents, other role models, and socio-cultural influences. Persons high in achievement motivation tend to prefer tasks that are moderately difficult and challenging.

5.2.3 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS:

There are various views on human motivation, the most popular among these is given by Abraham H. Maslow (1968; 1970). He attempted to portray a picture of human behaviour by arranging the various needs in a hierarchy. His viewpoint about motivation is very popular because of its theoretical and applied value which is popularly known as the "Theory of Self-actualisation".

SELFACTUALISATION NEEDS

ESTEEM NEEDS

BELONGINGNESS NEEDS

SAFETY NEEDS

PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS

"Theory of Self-actualisation".

Maslow's model can be conceptualised as a pyramid in which the bottom of this hierarchy represents basic physiological or biological needs which are basic to survival such as hunger, thirst, etc. Only when these needs are met, the need to be free from threatened danger arises. This refers to the safety needs of physical and psychological nature. Next comes the need to seek out other people, to love and to be loved. After these needs are fulfilled, the individual strives for esteem, i.e. the need to develop a sense of selfworth.

The next higher need in the hierarchy reflects an individual's motive towards the fullest development of potential, i.e. selfactualisation. A self-actualised person is selfaware, socially responsive, creative, spontaneous, open to novelty, and challenge. S/he also has a sense of humour and capacity for deep interpersonal relationships.

Lower level needs (physiological) in the hierarchy dominate as long as they are unsatisfied. Once they are adequately satisfied, the higher needs occupy the individual's attention and effort. However, it must be noted that very few people reach the highest level because most people are concerned more with the lower level needs.

5.3 SUMMARY:

- Motivation is the cause of a person's behaviour, or the reason that a person carries out some activity. Motivation involves both conscious and unconscious drives.
- Psychological theories account for a "primary" level of motivation to satisfy basic needs, such as those for food, oxygen, and water, and for a "secondary" level of motivation to fulfil social needs such as companionship and achievement. The primary needs must be satisfied before an organism can attend to secondary drives.
- A drive is a state of tension or arousal produced by a need. It energises random activity. When one of the random activities leads to a goal, it reduces the drive, and the organism stops being active. The organism returns to a balanced state.
- Basically, there are two types of motives: biological and psychosocial. Biological motives are also known as physiological motives as they are guided

mostly by the physiological mechanisms of the body. Psychosocial motives, on the other hand, are primarily learned from the individual's interactions with the various environmental factors.

- The biological or physiological approach to explain motivation is the earliest attempt to understand causes of behaviour. Most of the theories, which developed later, carry traces of the influence of the biological approach. The approach adhering to the concept of adaptive act holds that organisms have needs (internal physiological imbalances) that produce drive, which stimulates behaviour leading to certain actions towards achieving certain goals, which reduce the drive.
- The term instinct most approximately refers to an urge to do something. Instinct has an "impetus" which drives the organism to do something to reduce that impetus. Some of the basic biological needs explained by this approach are hunger, thirst, and sex, which are essential for the sustenance of the individual.
- Sex drive develops with age, etc. In case of human beings, the sex drive is very closely regulated biologically, sometimes it is very difficult to classify sex purely as a biological drive. Physiologists suggest that intensity of the sexual urge is dependent upon chemical substances circulating in the blood, known as sex hormones.
- Social motives are mostly learned or acquired. Social groups such as family, neighbourhood, friends, and relatives do contribute a lot in acquiring social motives. These are complex forms of motives mainly resulting from the individual's interaction with her/his social environment.
- Most of us need company or friend or want to maintain some form of relationship with others. Nobody likes to remain alone all the time. As soon as people see some kinds of similarities among themselves or they like each other, they form a group. Formation of group or collectivity is an important feature of human life.
- There are various views on human motivation, the most popular among these is given by Abraham H. Maslow (1968; 1970). He attempted to portray a picture of human behaviour by arranging the various needs in a hierarchy.

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5.4 KEY WORDS:

Motivation: The concept of motivation explains what "moves" our behaviour. The term motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere'. It refers to movement of activity. Most of our everyday explanation of behaviour is given in terms of motives. Why do we do what we do? There may be any number of reasons for this behaviour. Why does one go to school or college? We go to college to learn or to make friends, we need a diploma or degree to get a good job, we want to make your parents happy, and so on.

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approach adhering to the concept of adaptive act holds that organisms have needs (internal physiological imbalances) that produce drive, which stimulates behaviour leading to certain actions towards achieving certain goals, which reduce the drive.

Instinct: The term instinct most approximately refers to an urge to do something. Instinct has an “impetus” which drives the organism to do something to reduce that impetus.

Psychosocial Motives: Social motives are mostly learned or acquired. Social groups such as family, neighbourhood, friends, and relatives do contribute a lot in acquiring social motives. These are complex forms of motives mainly resulting from the individual’s interaction with her/his social environment.

Maslow’s Hierachy of Needs: There are various views on human motivation, the most popular among these is given by Abraham H. Maslow (1968; 1970). He attempted to portray a picture of human behaviour by arranging the various needs in a hierarchy. His viewpoint about motivation is very popular because of its theoretical and applied value which is popularly known as the “Theory of Self-actualisation”.

5.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Discuss in detail the concept of motivation.
2. What are motives?Discuss the various types of motives in detail.
3. Write a detailed note on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs.

Bachelor of Mass Communication (1st year)

PSYCHOLOGY (BMC 106)

Block: E Unit: II Lesson: 6

PERSONALITY

LESSON STRUCTURE

In this lesson we shall discus about the some major applications of psychology. Specifically, we shall focus on behaviour. We shall also briefly discuss some major aspects of attitudes. The lesson structure shall be as follows:

6.0 OBJECTIVES:

After reading this lesson, you would be able to:

- *To Get An Overview of Personaliy*
  To Understand the Formation & Development of Personality
- *To Understand the Personality Tests*
- *To Know About Personality Disorders*

6.1 INTRODUCTION:

Personalityis the reflection of deeply ingrained and relatively enduring patterns of thoughts and feeling. One's personality is reflected in ones looks and behaviour. Personality is all about ons's self concept. And there are four selves in on person. These are the Physical self, the emotional self, the intellectual self and the socialal

self.

In this lesson we shall study about various aspects of personality inluding formation and development of personality, personality tests and personality disorders.

6.2 PRESENTATION OF CONTENT:

The content of this lesson shall be presented as follows:

- *Personality - An Overview*
- *Formation & Development of Personality*
- *Personality Tests*
- *Personality Disorders*

6.2.1 PERSONALITY- AN OVERVIEW:

Personality usually refers to that which is unique about individuals—the characteristics that distinguish each person from other people. Thought, emotion, and behaviour as such do not constitute a personality; it does, however, underlie these elements. Personality implies predictability about how a person will act or react under different circumstances.

Theorists emphasize different aspects of personality and disagree about its organization, development, and manifestation in behaviour. One of the most influential theoretical systems is the psychoanalytic theory of Sigmund Freud and other practitioners of psychoanalysis. Freud believed that unconscious processes direct a great part of a person's behaviour. Although a person is unaware of these impulses and drives, they strive to assert themselves. Another influential theory of personality is derived from behaviourism. This view, represented by thinkers such as the American psychologist B. F. Skinner, places primary emphasis on learning. Skinner sees human behaviour as determined largely by its consequences. If rewarded, behaviour recurs; if punished, it is less likely to recur.

6.2.2 FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF PERONALITY:

Heredity and environment interact to form personality. From the earliest age, infants differ widely because of variables that either are inherited or result from conditions of pregnancy and birth. Some infants are more attentive than others, for example,

whereas some are more active. These differences can influence how parents respond to the infant—one illustration of how hereditary conditions affect environmental ones. Among the personality characteristics that are known to be at least partly determined by heredity are intelligence and temperament; some forms of psychopathology are also in part hereditary.

As well as the influences of heredity, what happens to a developing child has a greater or lesser effect depending on when it happens. Many psychologists believe that critical periods exist in personality development. These are periods when an individual is more sensitive to a particular type of environmental event. During one period, for example, language ability changes most rapidly; during another, the capacity for guilt is most likely to be developing.

Most experts believe that a child's experiences in the family are crucial for personality development. How well basic needs are met in infancy, along with later patterns of child rearing, can leave a permanent mark on personality. It is thought that children whose toilet training is started too early or carried out too rigidly, for example, may become defiant. Children may learn behaviour deemed appropriate to their sex by identifying with their same-sex parent. Children are also influenced by their siblings.

Some authorities emphasize the role of social and cultural traditions in personality development. In describing the behaviour of members of two New Guinea tribes, for example, the anthropologist Margaret Mead demonstrated this cultural relationship. Although the tribes were of the same ethnic origins and live in the same area, one group was peaceful, friendly, and cooperative, whereas the other group was assertive, hostile, and competitive.

Traditionally, psychologists hold that the traits of an individual combine to form a personality, and that this personality shows great consistency over time. Recently, however, many psychologists have argued that traits exist only in the eye of the beholder, and that a person's personality varies with the situation.

6.2.3 PERSONALITY TESTS:

The interview, a widely used method of personality assessment, is a means of eliciting from the subject a report of past, present, and anticipated future responses. Most interviews are unstructured, but some use set questions asked in a given

sequence. Skilled interviewers pay attention to what is said and notice how responses relate to non-verbal cues such as posture and facial expressions.

Direct observations are made either in a natural setting or in a laboratory. In naturalistic observations, the assessor notes reactions to everyday situations, typical responses to people, and expressive behaviour. In the laboratory, the investigator experimentally manipulates situations and observes the subject's behaviour under these controlled conditions. The personality assessor might also rely on the reports of others who have observed the subject in the past.

Psychological testing of personality is based on two general types—self-report inventories and projective tests. Self-report inventories pose questions about personal habits, attitudes, beliefs, and fantasies. In projective testing, the subject's responses to ambiguous or unstructured situations are assumed to reflect inner reality. The Rorschach test, for example, is a projective test consisting of a series of inkblots, about which the subject reports his or her perceptions; the assessor subsequently interprets these responses.

6.2.4 PERSONALITY DISORDERS:

Personality disorders are lifelong conditions in which personality traits are so inflexible and maladaptive that they cause social and occupational impairments and considerable distress, to others if not to the people themselves. Many different types of personality disorders are recognized. The paranoid personality, for example, is unduly suspicious and mistrustful. Histrionic personalities are characterized by overly dramatic behaviour and expression. People with narcissistic personalities tend to be self-important and need constant attention and admiration. Those with antisocial personality disorders have a history of violating the rights of others and of failing to observe social norms.

6.3 SUMMARY:

- Personality is what is unique about individuals. It reflects the characteristics that distinguish each person from other people. Thought, emotion, and behaviour as such do not constitute a personality; it does, however, underlie these elements. Personality implies predictability about how a person will act or react under different circumstances.

- One of the most influential theoretical systems is the psychoanalytic theory of Sigmund Freud and other practitioners of psychoanalysis. Freud believed that unconscious processes direct a great part of a person's behaviour. Although a person is unaware of these impulses and drives, they strive to assert themselves.
- Another influential theory of personality is derived from behaviourism. This view places primary emphasis on learning. This theory sees human behaviour as determined largely by its consequences. If rewarded, behaviour recurs; if punished, it is less likely to recur.
- Heredity and environment interact to form personality. From the earliest age, infants differ widely because of variables that either are inherited or result from conditions of pregnancy and birth. Some infants are more attentive than others, for example, whereas some are more active.
- Many psychologists believe that critical periods exist in personality development. These are periods when an individual is more sensitive to a particular type of environmental event. During one period, for example, language ability changes most rapidly; during another, the capacity for guilt is most likely to be developing.
- Children often learn behaviour deemed appropriate to their sex by identifying with their same-sex parent. Children are also influenced by their siblings.
- Some experts emphasize the role of social and cultural traditions in personality development.
- Traditionally, psychologists hold that the traits of an individual combine to form a personality, and that this personality shows great consistency over time. Recently, however, many psychologists have argued that traits exist only in the eye of the beholder, and that a person's personality varies with the situation.
- The interview, a widely used method of personality assessment, is a means of eliciting from the subject a report of past, present, and anticipated future responses. Most interviews are unstructured, but some use set questions asked in a given sequence. Skilled interviewers pay attention to what is said and notice how responses relate to non-verbal cues such as posture and facial expressions.

- Direct observations are made either in a natural setting or in a laboratory. In naturalistic observations, the assessor notes reactions to everyday situations, typical responses to people, and expressive behaviour. In the laboratory, the investigator experimentally manipulates situations and observes the subject's behaviour under these controlled conditions. The personality assessor might also rely on the reports of others who have observed the subject in the past.
- Personality disorders are lifelong conditions in which personality traits are so inflexible and maladaptive that they cause social and occupational impairments and considerable distress, to others if not to the people themselves.
- Histrionic personalities are characterized by overly dramatic behaviour and expression. People with narcissistic personalities tend to be self-important and need constant attention and admiration. Those with antisocial personality disorders have a history of violating the rights of others and of failing to observe social norms.

6.4 KEY WORDS:

Personality: Personality is what is unique about individuals. It reflects the characteristics that distinguish each person from other people. Thought, emotion, and behaviour as such do not constitute a personality; it does, however, underlie these elements. Personality implies predictability about how a person will act or react under different circumstances.

Psychoanalysis: One of the most influential theoretical systems is the psychoanalytic theory of Sigmund Freud and other practitioners of psychoanalysis. Freud believed that unconscious processes direct a great part of a person's behaviour. Although a person is unaware of these impulses and drives, they strive to assert themselves.

Behaviourism: Another influential theory of personality is derived from behaviourism. This view places primary emphasis on learning. This theory sees human behaviour as determined largely by its consequences. If rewarded, behaviour recurs; if punished, it is less likely to recur.

Heredity: Heredity and environment interact to form personality. From the earliest age, infants differ widely because of variables that either are inherited or result from

conditions of pregnancy and birth. Some infants are more attentive than others, for example, whereas some are more active.

Traits & Personality: Traditionally, psychologists hold that the traits of an individual combine to form a personality, and that this personality shows great consistency over time. Recently, however, many psychologists have argued that traits exist only in the eye of the beholder, and that a person's personality varies with the situation.

Interview: The interview, a widely used method of personality assessment, is a means of eliciting from the subject a report of past, present, and anticipated future responses. Most interviews are unstructured, but some use set questions asked in a given sequence.

Direct Observations: Direct observations are made either in a natural setting or in a laboratory. In naturalistic observations, the assessor notes reactions to everyday situations, typical responses to people, and expressive behaviour. In the laboratory, the investigator experimentally manipulates situations and observes the subject's behaviour under these controlled conditions. The personality assessor might also rely on the reports of others who have observed the subject in the past.

Personality Disorders: Personality disorders are lifelong conditions in which personality traits are so inflexible and maladaptive that they cause social and occupational impairments and considerable distress, to others if not to the people themselves. Many different types of personality disorders are recognized. The paranoid personality, for example, is unduly suspicious and mistrustful.

6.5 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

- Write a detailed note on Personality.
- Discuss the process of formation & development of personality
- Wrte in brief about personality tests.
- What are personality disorders? Discuss in detail.