

Unit I

Learning: Factors

Theories of Learning: Trial and error, Conditioned Response, Insight Theory

1. What is Factors of learning?

Ans: Factors of learning in psychology comprise personal (motivation, intelligence, aptitude, maturity), physical (health, age), and environmental elements (classroom atmosphere, social surroundings) that affect how knowledge is acquired and retained. Key factors include motivation, prior knowledge, and emotional states, which determine the depth of learning and retention.

2. What are the major factors of learning in psychology?

Ans: The main factors include motivation, prior knowledge, learning environment, teaching methods, cognitive abilities, emotional health, socioeconomic background, and social interactions.

3. Explain the factors of learning.

Ans: Motivation

Motivation is the fuel that drives the learning engine. Without it, the learning process can become a struggle for you. An individual's genuine interest in a subject matter can lead to more profound learning experiences, while external rewards or pressures may provide short-term motivation but often yield less effective long-term results.

Prior Knowledge and Experience

The knowledge and experiences individuals bring to the learning process act as a foundation upon which new information is built. Recognising and tapping into this prior knowledge can help educators tailor their teaching methods and ensure that new concepts are integrated seamlessly with existing ones.

Learning Environment

The physical and social environment in which learning occurs significantly factors into the learning process. A comfortable, well-equipped classroom or a quiet, distraction-free study space can facilitate better focus and retention. Equally important are positive social interactions and a supportive atmosphere that encourages questions and exploration.

Teaching Methods and Strategies

Effective teaching methods are pivotal in facilitating the learning process. Teachers and educators need to employ a diverse range of teaching strategies to cater to various learning

styles. Utilising interactive activities, hands-on experiences, and multimedia resources can engage learners more effectively than traditional lecture-style teaching.

Cognitive Abilities

Cognitive abilities, such as memory, attention, problem-solving, and critical thinking, vary among individuals. These abilities can influence how quickly and deeply one can absorb and apply new information. Understanding and accommodating these differences can help create a more inclusive and effective learning environment.

Emotional and Mental Health

Emotional and mental well-being plays a substantial role in the factors affecting the learning process. Stress, anxiety, and other emotional factors can impede concentration and hinder learning. Supporting mental health and providing strategies for managing stress are essential components of effective education.

Socioeconomic Background

Socioeconomic factors, such as access to educational resources and extracurricular activities, can impact a learner's opportunities and experiences. Addressing disparities and promoting equal access to education are crucial steps in ensuring that all individuals have a fair chance to succeed in the learning process.

Social Interactions

Social interactions can have a profound impact on the learning process. Collaborative learning, group discussions, and peer feedback can enhance understanding and promote deeper learning. However, negative social influences or distractions can also affect concentration and engagement.

4. What do you mean by theories of learning?

Ans: Learning theories in psychology are conceptual frameworks describing how information is absorbed, processed, and retained. Major theories include behaviorism (external stimuli), cognitivism (mental processes), constructivism (building knowledge), humanism (personal growth), and social learning (observation). These theories help educators and psychologists design effective learning environments.

5. Name three major theories of learning.

Ans: Trial and error, Conditioned Response, Insight Theory.

6. Define Trial and Error theory.

Ans: Trial and error is defined as a problem-solving method that involves systematic exploration of alternatives through repeated attempts, where various solutions are tested until a satisfactory one is found.

7. Explain Trial and Error theory.

Ans: Trial and Error is a method of learning in which various responses are tentatively tried and some discarded until a solution is attained. E.L.Thorndike (1874-1949) was the chief exponent of the theory of connectionism or trial and error. He was an American Psychologist who conducted Stimulus - Response(S-R) theory experiment with the help of animals. Thorndike was the first to study the subject of learning systematically using standardized procedure and apparatus. All learning, according to Thorndike is the formation of bonds or connections between stimulus-response.

Features of Trial and Error Learning 1. Learning by trial and error is gradual process. 2. For learning to occur, the learner must be definitely motivated. 3. The learner makes random and variable response. 4. Some responses do lead to the goal (annoying response) 5. Some responses lead to the goal. (Satisfying responses) 6. With the increase in number of trials the annoying responses will tend to be eliminated and the satisfying responses will be strengthened and repeated. 7. The time taken to perform the task (to repeat the satisfying response) decreases with successive trials.

Thorndike's system had profound impact upon modern learning theory. In fact, he initiated systematic experimental studies in the field of both human as well as animal learning.

8. Define Conditioned Response theory.

Ans: Conditioned response theory, or classical conditioning, is a behavioral learning theory developed by Ivan Pavlov (1904) that explains how a neutral stimulus becomes associated with a meaningful stimulus to elicit a learned response. This learned reaction is called a conditioned response (CR), which, through repetition, occurs in anticipation of a stimulus rather than just naturally.

9. Explain Conditioned Response theory.

Ans: The concept of a conditioned response has its origins in [classical conditioning](#). Ivan Pavlov discovered classical conditioning while studying the salivation responses of dogs. Pavlov noticed that while dogs would naturally salivate when food was in their mouths, they salivated at the sight of food. Some dogs would even salivate when they heard the footsteps of the person who gave them food coming down the hall. This observation suggested to Pavlov that natural salivation response had become generalized to a stimulus that was originally neutral. Pavlov conducted experiments to determine if he could condition a response to other neutral stimuli. In a typical experiment with a dog, Pavlov would turn on a light, then give the dog food a few seconds later. After these repeated "pairings" of light and food, the dog would eventually salivate in response to the light being turned on, even without the presence of food.

Pavlov labelled each stimulus and response involved in the process of classical conditioning. In the scenario above, the food is an unconditioned stimulus, because the dog didn't need to learn to salivate in response to it. The light is initially a neutral stimulus, because at first the dog does not associate a response with it. By the end of the experiment, the light becomes a conditioned stimulus because the dog has learned to associate it with food. Salivation in response to the food is an unconditioned response because it happens

automatically. Finally, salivation in response to the light is a conditioned response because it is a reflex that is learned.

Examples of conditioned responses are prevalent in everyday life. Many fears and phobias are the result of conditioned responses. For instance, if an individual is pushed into a pool before they know how to swim and flails around helplessly before being pulled out of the water, they may become fearful of physically entering any body of water. The fear of water is a conditioned response. While many phobias and fears are themselves conditioned responses, conditioned responses can also be used to *overcome* fears and phobias. Classical conditioning can be used to slowly and systematically desensitize an individual to the thing that is causing their fear until that fear has been minimized or extinguished completely. For instance, if an individual is afraid of heights, they would stand at a small elevation while practicing relaxation techniques. After they are calm and confident at the lower level, they'll stand at a higher elevation. The process is repeated until the individual learns to overcome their fear of heights.

It can be a challenge to determine if a response is conditioned or unconditioned. The key to understanding the difference is that an unconditioned response happens automatically. Meanwhile, a conditioned response is learned and is only acquired if the individual has made an association between an unconditioned and conditioned stimulus.

However, because a conditioned response must be learned, it can also be unlearned. Pavlov tested this after the dogs had developed conditioned responses to the light. He found that if he repeatedly shined the conditioned-stimulus light but refrained from giving the dog the food, the dog would salivate less and less until it stopped salivating completely. The gradual diminishing and eventual disappearance of the conditioned response is called extinction.

Extinction can happen to real-life conditioned responses, too. For example, if you see a new dentist who doesn't make your gums raw when you have an appointment and compliments you on your healthy mouth, over time you may find you no longer dread the dentist's office.

10. Define Insight theory of learning.

Ans: Insight learning theory, developed by Wolfgang Köhler and other Gestalt psychologists, posits that learning occurs through a sudden cognitive restructuring of a problem, often described as an "Aha!" or "Eureka!" moment, rather than slow trial-and-error. It involves understanding the whole situation, perceiving relationships, and applying intelligence.

11. Explain Insight theory of learning.

Ans: The theory of learning by insight is the contribution of Gestalt Psychologists. Gestalt is a term derived from the German word 'gestalten', has no English equivalent. The nearest English translation of Gestalt is 'configuration' or an 'organised whole' or the 'totality of a situation'. Wolfgang Kohler, Max Wertheimer, Kurt Koffka etc. were the prominent Gestalt Psychologists. They believe that "The whole is more important than its parts". Dissatisfied

with the behaviourist approach of learning, the cognitivists tried to see learning as a more deliberate and conscious effort of the individual rather than a mere product of habit formation or a machine-like stimulus-response connection. According to them the learner does not merely respond to a stimulus, but definitely process what he receives or perceives. Thus learning is a purposive, explorative and creative activity instead of trial and error. It is a theory regarding 'perception'. Gestaltists consider learning as the development of insight, which is primarily concerned with the nature of perception. Perception is a process by which an organism interprets and organizes sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world. It is the ultimate experience of the world and typically involves further processing of sensory input. While learning, the learner always perceives the situation as a whole and after seeing and evaluating the different relationships takes the proper decision intelligently. Gestalt psychology used the term 'insight' to describe the perception of the whole situation by the learner and his intelligence in responding to the proper relationships. Insight refers the sudden flash in the mind about the solution of the problem.

Unit II

Personality: Factors of personality, Heredity and Environment

Intelligence: Measurement of Intelligence

1. What is Personality?

Ans: Personality is the unique combination of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that define an individual, shaped by the dynamic interaction of **heredity** (nature/genetics) and **environment** (nurture/surroundings). Essentially, your genes provide the raw materials (potential), while your environment shapes how that potential is expressed.

2. What are the factors of personality?

Ans: There are a number of factors which influence the development of personality. Among these, the main factors are Heredity and Environment.

3. Explain the concept of personality.

Ans: The term "personality" is derived from the Latin word "persona" which means a mask worn by an actor while he plays a particular character on the stage. It suggests that the personality should mean the characteristic pattern or style of behaviour of the person as is revealed through his external and internal properties. The external properties of a person include his dress, speech, bodily actions, postures, habits and expressions. The internal properties are his motives, emotions, precepts, intentions, etc. Personality is an all-inclusive concept. It is the sum total of an individual's properties as a distinct and unique human being. The external properties are directly observed while the internal are only inferred from the pattern of overt responses. Thus, the image of an individual's personality is only created from observations and/or inferences regarding his response patterns.

The concept of personality is a derived concept. In other words, the concept of personality is derived from the pattern of response characteristic of the individual. The derivation is possible in three ways : The first is subjective, popular derivation based on subjective impressions formed by the individual's response pattern. It results in popular evaluative expressions like charming, dominating, weak or bold personality. The second kind of conceptualisation of personality is based on an objective description of the overt responses of the individual. This view is held by behavioural psychologists and is best amenable to empirical research. However, it poses the difficulty that an overt response may occur in different individuals for different meanings. It seems to evade in-depth interpretations. The third way is the organismic view which conceives personality as the inner pattern of a person's characteristics. An oft-quoted definition of personality calls it "dynamic organisation within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment" (Allport, 1961). It means that personality "resides" within the individual as these systems are woven into an organisation the organisation of personality is not static but dynamic the organisational pattern determines the kind and degree of adjustment of the individual to his environment, and as this adjustment-pattern is unique to the individual person. Comprehensively conceived. Allport's definition of personality is therefore widely accepted.

4. Explain the nature of personality.

Ans: Four fundamental qualities of personality have been identified from the organismic concept. These are consistency, the development of personality structure, potentiality for change and integration. Let us discuss each quality in brief.

Consistency : Consistency or stability is the hallmark of personality. A person is recognisable from situation to situation by the consistent characteristics that are reflected in his behaviour. Not that he behaves exactly the same way in every situation but his styles of action can certainly be identified.

Development of personality structure : Personality development is a natural quality of a growing organism. The path is from simple to increasingly complex. According to Henz Werner, at birth the mental organization of the infant spreads slowly. Through his interactions with the environment, the parts of the mental structure become progressively crystallized and differentiated from each other. The analytical stage is followed by synthesis or integration when the differentiated parts become functionally organised. From a diffused mass through progressive differentiation to an integrated whole is, then, the course of development of personality structure.

Potentiality for change : Potentiality for change is another characteristic of personality. The earlier psychoanalytical view did hold personality as a rigid structure. However, modern psychological, humanistic theories have demonstrated not only the human capacity for reorganisation but also the conditions that foster change. Integration or organisation is the quality of the human personality, i.e., it occurs to human beings naturally and normally.

It is the normal development outcome of personality structure. Disorganisation, i.e., the isolation of the functions of the individual parts from the total system is a pathological condition (Goldstein) of a psychological disorder.

5. What is heredity?

Ans: Genetics, or the science of heredity, is a discipline contributing specific details of the impact of heredity on living beings. Baller and Charles have compiled some general statements about the inheritance of character that are relevant to behaviour of personality. Basically, we inherit "a tendency toward a certain structure" and "a tendency to function in certain ways".

6. Explain heredity as a factor of personality.

Ans: Genetics, or the science of heredity, is a discipline contributing specific details of the impact of heredity on living beings. Baller and Charles have compiled some general statements about the inheritance of character that are relevant to behaviour of personality. Basically, we inherit "a tendency toward a certain structure" and "a tendency to function in certain ways". Specially these include the following. Tendency towards a certain structure includes the following behaviours.

A tendency to achieve a certain body-weight. A tendency towards a general body-type (i.e. skeletal structure, proportion of fat and muscle-tissue, and the length of limbs). Sex e Appearance, i.e., skin, hair texture and colour, eye shape and colour, nose shape, ear shape, head shape. Internal structure, for example the size of the heart and lungs in proportion to the body, determining the capacity for prolonged physical effort. Tendency to function in certain ways includes the following behaviours : Natural response i.e. functioning of the nervous system, intelligence, predisposition to react slow or quickly. Sensory efficiency i.e. keenness of vision, range of hearing, sensitivity of touch and smell, Operation of the "vegetative system" i.e., heart and circulatory system, digestive system, reproductive system, etc. Functioning of the endocrine system, is., glandular secretions, e.g., the thyroids control the metabolic rate, the pituitary controlling growth, gonads controlling the sex-drive and ex characteristics and the adrenals controlling emotional "stir-ups". Rate of physical growth. Predisposition to certain characteristics. Finally a note must be added that the effects of heredity on temperamental quality are not fatalistic as these are on the structural tendency. Medical and surgical interventions are being invented continuously to bring the functioning of heredity systems and mechanisms under control. Plastic surgery, for example, brings change in the inherited appearance while hormonal treatment changes the functioning of endocrine glands.

7. What is environmental factor.

Ans: Technically, environmental factors start exerting their influence through the uterine environment during the prenatal stage. The dietary habits, the health of the mother, etc., may cause prenatal "insult" or damage to the developing organism. Some disabilities are inflicted upon the child by uterine environmental factors.

8. Explain the environmental factor of personality.

Ans: Technically, environmental factors start exerting their influence through the uterine environment during the prenatal stage. The dietary habits, the health of the mother, etc., may cause prenatal "insult" or damage to the developing organism. Some disabilities are inflicted upon the child by uterine environmental factors. During the first month or so, varying cultural patterns can be seen to shape the physical appearance of the child. For example, tough-shaping by a strong massage of the infant's body in the northern states of India and tender-shaping of the nose of the girl-child by strong pressing in the southern states of India. As the child grows, he faces and deals with several environment factors. The child gradually grows in complexity, supporting or contracting various factors as the environment may be varying kinds. Let us discuss some of the environmental factors to see how they affect the growing personality of an individual.

Rearing patterns: Interactions between the infant and mother for satisfaction of biological needs play a significant role in personality development. Care and affection develop a sense of security. Over-indulgence or under-indulgence of the mother in breast-feeding would determine the "oral" personality and severity in toilet-training is the "anal" personality. Regularity in feeding practices would develop in the child "basic trust" in the world, irregularity would yield "mistrust". Similarly, toilet-training severity may cause the child to grow into a doubting and shameful person, training "at ease" develops autonomy.

Parent-child interaction : Once the child grows free of the needs of the mother, parent-child interactions assume social dimensions. Through the interactions, both the individual psyche and the social psyche are communicated to the child and the child develops in himself "individual" (individual self) and "socius" (social self).

Neighbourhood : The neighbourhood provides the first exposure of the larger cultural environment to the child. Since birds of the same feather flock together, neighbourhood families are not different in their social class, etc., and provide a smooth transition from home to culture. They share almost similar values and rearing patterns but expose the child to different family styles, and the child learns how to deal with the variety. The characteristics of neighbourhoods are that they are more objective than the parents.

Peer group : From the neighbourhood emerges the peer-groups. The first group of individuals of the same/similar age may be unrelated biologically but are related socially. Interacting with this group the child learns that he/she should give up a little of individuality to be accepted socially in the peer group. With the peer group, the child learns to take turns, to suppress his/her wish in favour of the decision of the group, to dovetail his/her activities with the activities of the group. And with the desire to be accepted, he/she moulds his/her behaviour to the standards set by the group which suggests to him continually what would please the group members.

School : The first peer group of childhood is characterised by play and then the child is admitted to the first formal institution of the society, the school. The school is aimed to inculcate in him or her the behaviour patterns required in adulthood. The school

environment makes him/her learn punctuality, regularity and scheduling by conditioning through the bell when to arrive, when to study various subjects, when to play and when to leave for home.

Mass media: While school is the direct and responsible authority to communicate and train the child to the desires and demands of the standard form of culture, the mass media radio, television, the newspaper and the magazine or the comic, etc., communicate to the child the styles of the various sub-cultures in the total culture. Certainly the variety would make the child aware of other forms, objects and styles and creative tensions in him. The manner ego reacts and adjust to resolve these tensions determines his children and adolescents is fast-increasing social challenges, we may discuss it at length.

Unit III

Contemporary Schools of Psychology: Psychoanalysis and Behaviourism

1. What is Psychoanalysis?

Ans: Psychoanalysis is a set of psychological theories and therapeutic techniques founded by Sigmund Freud in the 1890s, focusing on uncovering unconscious mental processes to treat mental disorders and understand personality. It emphasizes early childhood experiences, dream interpretation, and free association to address anxiety, depression, and deep-rooted relationship issues.

2. What is Behaviourism?

Ans: Behaviourism is a psychological theory focusing on observable, measurable behaviors rather than internal mental processes. It asserts that all behaviors are learned through interaction with the environment (conditioning). Key concepts include classical conditioning (association) and operant conditioning (reinforcement and punishment) to modify behavior.

3. What is the behaviorism theory?

Ans: Behaviorism in education, or behavioral learning theory, is a branch of psychology that focuses on how people learn through their interactions with the environment. It's based on the idea that behaviors are acquired through conditioning, which is a process of reinforcement and punishment.

4. Who is the father of behaviorism?

Ans: John B. Watson is known as the father of behaviorism within psychology.

5. What is the main idea of psychoanalysis?

Ans: Psychoanalysis is a type of treatment based on the theory that our present is shaped by our past. The unacknowledged meaning of personal experiences can influence our mood and behaviour, and contribute to problems with relationships, work and self-esteem.

6. What is the ego, id, and superego?

Ans: Id: The instinct-driven, pleasure-seeking part of the mind, focused on immediate gratification. Ego: The rational mediator that balances the Id's impulses with real-world constraints. Superego: The moral conscience representing societal and parental standards, striving for ideal behavior.

7. Who is the father of psychoanalysis?

Ans: Sigmund Freud (Born May 6th, 1856) was an Austrian neurologist widely known as the father of psychoanalysis.

8. What is the difference between psychoanalysis and behaviorism?

Ans: Behaviorism and psychoanalysis are two different perspectives. Behaviorism focuses on the idea that personality is learned, while psychoanalysis emphasizes that personality is inherited or innate. These two approaches contrast with each other in various ways.

9. Explain Freud's Psychoanalytic theory.

Ans: Sigmund Freud is important as the first major theorist to write exclusively about non biological approaches to both understanding and treating some of mental illnesses. These illnesses, specifically what was then called hysteria, were considered medical in his time, but were reshaped through his theories. Freud was awarded Hypnosis grant and after completing his hypnosis grant, he published his first book The Interpretation of Dreams, and although it originally sold only 600 copies, it has become one of the most respected and most controversial books on personality theory. In this book, he described his views of the human psyche, introducing the concept of the unconscious to the medical world. In a world of biological theorists, this concept was not accepted by many of his colleagues.

According to Sigmund Freud, there are only two basic drives that serve to motivate all thoughts, emotions, and behaviour. These two drives are (i) sex and (ii) aggression. Also called Eros and Thanatos, or life and death, respectively, they underlie every motivation that humans experience. Freud's theory emphasised sex as a major driving force in human nature. While this seems overdone at times, sexual activity is a means to procreation, to bringing about life and therefore assuring the continuation of human bloodline. Even in other animals, sex is a primary force to assure the survival of the species. Aggression, or the death instinct, on the other hand serves just the opposite goal. Aggression is a way to protect us from those attempting harm. The aggression drive is a means to allow us to survive while at the same time eliminating our enemies who may try to prevent us from doing so.

According to Freud, we are born with our Id. The Id is an important part of our personality because as newborns, it allows us to get our basic needs met. Freud believed that the Id is based on pleasure principle. In other words, the Id wants whatever feels good at the time, with no consideration for the reality of the situation. When a child is hungry, the Id wants food, and therefore the child cries. When the child needs to be changed, the child cries and the Id wants that the change is done immediately. When the child is uncomfortable, in pain, too hot, too cold, or just wants attention, the Id speaks up until his or her needs are met. The Id does not care about reality, about the needs of anyone else, only its own satisfaction. If you think about it, babies are not really considerate of their parents' wishes. They have no care for time, whether their parents are sleeping, relaxing, eating dinner, or bathing. When the Id wants something, nothing else is important. Within the next three years, as the child interacts more and more with the world, the second part of the personality begins to develop. Freud called this part as the Ego. The Ego is based on the reality principle. The ego understands that other people have needs and desires and that sometimes being impulsive or selfish can hurt us in the long run. It's the Ego's job to meet the needs of the id, while taking into consideration the reality of the situation. By the age of five, or the end of the phallic stage of development, the Superego develops. The Superego is the moral part of the personality and develops in response to the moral and ethical restraints placed on the individual by the caregivers. Many equate the Superego with the conscience as it dictates our belief of right and wrong. In a healthy person, according to Freud, the Ego is the strongest so that it can satisfy the needs of the id, not upset the Superego, and still take into consideration the reality of every situation. If the Id gets too strong, the impulses and self gratification take over the person's life. If the Superego becomes too strong, the person would be driven by rigid morals, would be judgmental and unbending in his or her interactions with the world.

10. Explain Watson's behaviorism.

Ans: According to Watson, psychology, being the science of behaviour must deal with actions, which can be described objectively, and thus, it becomes important to discard the use of mentalistic concepts and terminology, which are subjective in nature. Therefore, for Watson's behavioural psychology, items or elements of behaviour, such as muscular movements or glandular secretion, became the primary subject matter. Behaviourism concerns behaviour of the whole organism in relation to its environment. Stimulus response complexes can be analyzed into their elementary stimulus and response units to work out the specific laws of behaviour. As far as methodology and subject matter is concerned, Watson's behavioural psychology was an endeavour to develop a science, which was devoid of mentalistic notions and subjective methods; a science which was as sound and objective as physics.

Watson explained four types of behaviour: 1) Explicit (overt)– behaviour which can be learned and is overt such as talking, writing, and playing; 2) Implicit (covert)– behaviour which can be learned but is covert such as the increased heart rate caused by the sight of a dentist's drill; 3) Explicit unlearned behaviour– behaviour which comes naturally and is visible such as grasping, blinking, and sneezing; 4) Implicit unlearned behaviour–

behaviour, which comes naturally but is not visible such as glandular secretion and circulatory changes. According to Watson, these categories incorporate everything that a person does, that is, from thinking to blinking. For studying these types of behaviour, Watson proposed 4 types of behaviour 1) Observation– observing in either naturalistic or experimentally controlled environment; 2) The conditioned reflex method– proposed by Pavlov; 3) Testing– refers to behaviour samples and not measurement of “capacity” or “personality”; and 4) Verbal reports– another type of overt behaviour.

Unit IV

Psychological Concepts: Motivation, Stress, Conflict, Anxiety and Depression

1. What is motivation?

Ans: The term ‘motivation’ means to move or to energize or to activate. In psychology, the term motivation refers to those behaviours that are activated through internal mechanism of an individual. Thus, a motive may be thought as some activate or that impels an individual to engage in action. The examples of motivation are preparing meals when you feel hungry, going to class to attend lectures.

2. What is the nature of motivation?

Ans: Motivation is often used to refer to an individuals goals, needs, wants, intentions and purpose. Two terms frequently used by psychologists are drive and motive. Drive refers to motivation that is assumed to be primarily biological such as hunger. Needs can be psychological or social and are assumed to be learned through personal experience. Motives can be conscious or unconscious. Motivation is a force which results in persistent behaviour directed towards a particular goal. Motivation is said to consist of (1) a driving state, (2) the goal directed behaviour initiated by the driving state, (3) the attainment of an appropriate goal, and (4) the reduction of the driving state and subjective satisfaction and relief when the goal is reached. When an internal driving state is aroused, the individual is pushed to engage in behaviour which will lead to a goal that reduces the intensity of the driving state. After a time, the driving state builds up again to push behaviour toward the appropriate goal.

3. Explain Maslow’s theory of Motivation.

Ans: A theory of human motivation that explains both tension-reducing and tension-increasing actions in that of humanist psychologist. Maslow complains that the earlier theories have restricted themselves to explaining one side of human behaviour, which is basically darker, evil and fragmented element. Thus, Maslow’s was an attempt to portray a total picture of human behaviour.

At the bottom of the hierarchy are the basic biological needs such as hunger and thirst. When they are pressing, other words are put on “hold” and are unlikely to influence our actions; but when they are reasonable well satisfied then the needs on the next level—

safety need— motivates us. When we are no longer concerned about danger, we become motivated by attachment needs — needs to belong to affiliate with others – to love and be loved. If we are well fed, and feeling a sense of social belonging we move up to esteem needs. These include the need to like oneself, to see oneself as competent and effective and to be held in esteem by others. At each level, Maslow argues, the need is inborn, not learned, although the way it is elicited and expressed is affected by the value learned in one's family and culture. Pathology may occur when needs at any level are frustrated. Frustrated love need, for example, can lead to hostility and perversions of sexuality. As we move to the top of the hierarchy, we find a person is nourished, safe, loved and loving. Some people go beyond these basic needs in the quest for fullest development of their potentials, or self actualization. A self-actualizing person is self-aware, self accepting, socially responsive, creative, spontaneous, and open to novelty and challenge, among other positive attributes.

Most of us do not make it to the top of the ladder. In most societies, most of the time, physiological needs are pretty well met. So we move up to the safety ends and these preoccupy many of us.

Criticism: The humanistic theory has been criticized for being over optimistic about mankind in general. It lacks adequate experimental confirmation. The world is filled with too much violence, evil and destructive behaviour patterns for this goodness model to account for, environmental forces clearly exert strong influences on individual behaviour, even overcoming the best intentions of “innately” good people.

4. Define frustration.

Ans: The term frustration refers to the blocking of behaviour directed towards a goal. If motives are frustrated or blocked, emotional feelings and behaviour often result. People who cannot achieve their important goals, feel depressed, fearful, anxious, guilty or angry. Often they are simply unable to derive ordinary pleasure for living. For example over restrictive parents would be a source of frustration to an adolescent girl who wanted to give or attend a party, while a lack of water would be a source of frustration to man lost in the desert. A wide range of obstacles both environmental and internal can lead to frustrations.

5. Define Stress.

Ans: Stress is a pattern of specific and non-specific responses an organism makes to stimulus events that disturb its equilibrium and tax or exceed its ability to cope.

6. Define Conflict.

Ans: Conflict is a mental struggle occurring when an individual faces two or more opposing needs, goals, or demands simultaneously.

7. Define Anxiety.

Ans: Anxiety is a state of excessive, persistent, and often irrational fear or worry that interferes with daily activities.

8. Define Depression.

Ans: Depression is a common mood disorder characterized by persistent sadness, loss of interest (anhedonia), and low energy, affecting an estimated 3.8% of the global population.

9. Explain the different types of conflict.

Ans: 1) Approach-approach Conflict : As the name implies an approach-approach conflict is a conflict between two positive goals—goals that are equally attractive at the same time. For instance, a physiological conflict arises when a person is hungry and sleepy at the same time. Such conflicts are usually resolved either by satisfying first one goal and then the other—for example, eating and then going to bed if a person is both hungry and sleepy or by choosing one of the goals and giving up the other. Compared with other conflict situations, approach conflicts are usually easy to resolve and generate little emotional behaviour.

2) Avoidance-avoidance Conflict Avoidance-avoidance conflict with two negative goals leads to vacillation of behaviour and thought. People are inconsistent in what they do and think. They do first one thing and then another. Vacillation occurs because the strength of a goal increases as the person nears it. As one of the negative goal is approached, the person finds it repellent and withdraws from it. But when this is one, the person comes closer to the other negative goal and finds it unbearably obnoxious. So the individual goes back and forth when caught in avoidance – avoidance conflict e.g. a student must spend the next two days studying for an examination or face the possibility of failure. At times people in avoidance – avoidance conflicts try a different means of running away by spending much of their time daydreaming – making up an imaginary world where there are no conflicts. They may even re-create in their minds the carefree world of childhood. This way of leaving the conflict situation is called regression. Many intense emotions are generated by avoidance – avoidance conflicts. If the two negative goals are fear producing and threatening, a person caught between them will experience fear. The person may be angry and resentful as he is trapped in a situation where the goals are negative.

3) Approach-avoidance Conflict Approach-avoidance conflict leads to frustration as in this type of conflict a person is both attracted and repelled by the same goal object. Because of the positive balance of the goal, the person approaches it, but as it is approached, the negative balance becomes stronger. Vacillation is found in avoidance – avoidance conflict. Even after the goal is reached, an individual may feel uneasy because of the negative balance attached to it. Emotional reactions like fear, anger and resentment commonly accompany avoidance -avoidance conflicts.

4) Multiple Approach-avoidance Conflict Multiple approach-avoidance conflicts lead to emotional reactions. Emotional reactions are generated by approach-avoidance conflicts in which internal obstacles play a part which lead to behavioral problems. Suppose a woman is engaged to be married; suppose, further, that the goal of marriage has a positive valence for her because of the stability and security it will provide and because she loves the man she will be marrying. Suppose, on the other hand, that marriage is repellent to her because it will mean giving up an attractive offer of a job in another city. With respect to her career, the woman is attracted to the new job but also repelled by the problems it will create for her marriage.

10. Define emotion.

Ans: Emotion is a complex pattern of bodily and mental changes including physiological arousal, feelings, cognitive processes, and behavioural responses to a personally significant situation. The physiological arousal includes neural, hormonal, visceral, and muscular changes. The feelings include both a general affective state (good-bad), positive-negative) and a specific tone, such as joy or disgust. The cognitive processes include interpretations, memories, and expectations. The over-behavioural responses include expressive reactions (crying, smiling) and action oriented responses (screaming for help).

11. What are the characteristics of emotion.

Ans: Emotional experiences tend to show some characteristics. Some of them are given below: 1) To a considerable extent emotions are accompanied by the activation or an aroused state in the organisms. 2) They are normally accompanied by physiological changes like gestures, muscular movements, changes in facial expressions, changes in physiological reactions like blood pressure, pulse rate, heartbeat, respiration etc. 3) Whenever an organism is experiencing an emotion, a lot of energy is released. This is true of many emotions. But there are also some emotions like grief, where the energy and activity level are reduced. 4) In the case of emotional experiences, it is found that other activities like perception, learning, consciousness, memory etc. are included. 5) Along with the bodily changes one also finds certain psychological changes or alterations in the content and state of consciousness. Very often, there is blurring or clouding of consciousness, blocking of memory, a confusion in perception. Thus emotions are complex experiences including a variety of bodily reactions and also psychological reactions.

12. What are the factors that Influence the Severity of Stress.

Ans: The effects of stress – the intensity of the anxiety it arouses and the degree to which it disrupts the individual's functioning—depend on a number of factors. These include some characteristics of the stress itself, the situation in which stress occurs, the individual's appraisal and evaluation of the stressful situation, and his or her resources for coping with it. i) Predictability Being able to predict the occurrence of a stressful event, even if we can't control it, usually reduces its severity. Laboratory experiments show that both human beings and animals prefer predictable aversive events to unpredictable ones. ii) Control over Duration Having control over the duration of a stressful event also reduces its severity. Research findings show that control over the duration of an aversive event appears to lessen anxiety even if the control is never exercised or the belief is erroneous. iii) Cognitive Evaluation The same stressful event can be perceived quite differently by two people, depending on what the situation means to them. The objective facts of the situation are less important than how the individual appraises them. Our evaluation of the degree of threat depends to a large extent on our confidence in our ability to cope with the situation. iv) Feelings of Competency A person's confidence in his or her ability to handle a stressful situation is a major factor in determining the severity of the stress. Speaking before a large audience is a traumatic event for most people. But individuals experienced in public speaking have confidence in their ability and feel only minimal anxiety. v) Social Supports

The emotional support and concern of other people can make stress more bearable. Divorce, the death of loved one, or serious illness is usually more devastating if one is alone, stress is easier to tolerate when the cause of the stress is shared with others.

13. Explain the Psychological Concepts of Motivation, Stress, Conflict, Anxiety and Depression.

Ans: Motivation consists of a driving state and the goal directed behaviour. There are drive and incentive theories of motivation which explain motivated behaviour in the light of an internal driving state and the internal and external incentives respectively. Biological motivation emphasizing upon hunger, thirst and sex motives primarily. Social motives include need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power. People who are terminally ill, are strongly motivated to euthanasia and have lost desire to live. Nurses and professional can play an important role in treatment and intervention by providing them general support and developing a trusting relationship. Frustration refers to the blocking of behaviours directed towards a goal. There are different sources of frustration which include environmental and personal frustration and the effect of competition and affiliation on the motivated behaviour. Reactions to frustration include direct approach and the mental mechanism like fantasy, competition, projection, rationalization and sublimation to deal with frustrated behaviour. Conflict arises when an individual's goal is obstructed and he/she is forced to choose between two alternatives. There are 4 types of conflicts: Approach-approach, approach avoidance, avoidance-avoidance, and multiple approach-avoidance conflicts. There are some conflicts also like conflicts between independence and dependency, achievement and fear of failure, cooperation and competition and hostility versus approval. Emotion include physical and mental changes including physiological arousal, feelings, cognitive processes and behavioural responses. They are various sources through which we express and perceive emotions of other people like voice tone, facial expressions, and bodily gestures. Research suggests gender differences in expressions of emotions. Physiology of emotion emphasizes the role of autonomic nervous system, cerebral cortex and hormones in regulating and guiding the emotional expressions. According to James Lange theory, the body first responds physiologically to a stimulus and then the cerebral cortex determines which emotion is being experienced. In the Canon-Bard theory, impulses are sent simultaneously to the cerebral cortex and peripheral nervous system, thus the response to the stimulus and the emotions are experienced at the same time but independently. Activation theory puts the hypothalamus as the locus of organizing expression of emotion. Schatter-Singer theory emphasizes the role or cognitive interpretation of the arousal which results in emotion. Stress is a pattern of specific and non-specific response that an organism makes in reaction to a disturbing event or feeling. Stress cycle include three stages, 1. Alarm reaction, 2. Stage of resistant, 3. Stage of exhaustion. Failure to coping leaves to various kinds of psychosomatic symptoms. Sources of stress include major life changes, daily hassles, conflicting situations, unemployment, divorce and catastrophic events. People use various direct and indirect ways of coping with stressful situations like confrontation, compromise, withdrawal and

various mental mechanism like denial, repression, displacement, projection and sublimation.

Unit V

Aspects of Developmental Psychology: Sensory, emotional, Cognitive, Social and Linguistic

1. What do you mean by developmental psychology?

Ans: Developmental psychology explores how people change across their lifespan, focusing on five key interrelated aspects: **sensory, emotional, cognitive, social, and linguistic development**. These domains do not operate in isolation; rather, they interact continuously, with progress in one area influencing others, creating a holistic view of human growth from infancy to old age.

2. Explain Cognitive aspect of developmental psychology.

Ans: If we watch and listen to infants and toddlers, we can't help but wonder how they learn so much so fast, particularly when it comes to language development. Then as we compare young children to those in middle childhood, there appear to be huge differences in their ability to think logically about the concrete world around them. Cognitive development includes mental processes, thinking, learning, and understanding, and it doesn't stop in childhood. Adolescents develop the ability to think logically about the abstract world (and may like to debate matters with adults as they exercise their new cognitive skills!). Moral reasoning develops further, as does practical intelligence—wisdom may develop with experience over time. Memory abilities and different forms of intelligence tend to change with age. Brain development and the brain's ability to change and compensate for losses is significant to cognitive functions across the lifespan, too. Watch the following video to learn more about the advancement of cognitive development and the theories that influence how we view these changes.

3. What do you mean by sensory aspect of developmental psychology?

Ans: **Sensory-Perceptual Development:** This involves how individuals perceive and interpret the world through their senses (sight, sound, touch, taste, smell, and proprioception) and how these abilities mature.

- **Infancy:** Rapid development of vision (starting blurry, moving to colour and depth perception) and auditory preference for human voices.
- **Childhood/Adulthood:** Refinement of sensory integration, allowing for complex motor coordination and environmental awareness.

4. What do you mean by emotional aspect of developmental psychology?

Ans: **Emotional Development:** Focuses on the understanding, expression, management, and regulation of emotions, as well as the development of self-awareness and empathy.

- **Attachment:** Forming secure bonds with caregivers (attachment theory).

- **Regulation:** Learning to manage intense feelings, moving from co-regulation to self-regulation.
- **Identity:** Understanding one's own emotions and personality, particularly in adolescence.

5. What do you mean by social aspect of developmental psychology?

Ans: **Social Development** examines how individuals learn to interact with others, develop relationships, understand social rules, and form a social identity.

- **Peer Relationships:** Shifting focus from family to friendships during childhood.
- **Socialization:** Learning cultural norms, empathy, and cooperation.
- **Erikson's Psychosocial Theory:** Navigating stages like "Trust vs. Mistrust" to "Identity vs. Role Confusion."

6. What do you mean by linguistic aspect of developmental psychology?

Ans: **Linguistic Development:** The acquisition of language, including listening comprehension, vocabulary development, grammar, and communicative competence.

- **Pre-linguistic:** Babbling and gestures in early infancy.
- **Language Acquisition:** Explosive growth in vocabulary and grammar during early childhood.
- **Pragmatics:** Learning how to use language effectively in social contexts (turn-taking, tone).

7. Explain the aspects of developmental psychology.

Ans: Human development is a multifaceted journey that encompasses a myriad of interconnected aspects, each contributing to the rich tapestry of an individual's growth and maturation. In this blog, we will explore the intricacies of sensory-motor, cognitive, language, emotional, social, and moral development, shedding light on the multifunctional nature of the human developmental experience.

Sensory-Motor Development:

1. **Early Sensorimotor Exploration:** Sensory-motor development begins in infancy as babies explore their environment through senses and movement. Infants engage in activities like grasping objects, mouthing, and crawling, laying the foundation for more complex motor skills.
2. **Motor Skill Progression:** As children grow, their motor skills progress from basic movements to more refined and coordinated actions. Gross motor skills involve larger muscle groups, like crawling and walking, while fine motor skills involve precise movements, such as grasping small objects or writing.

3. **Sensorimotor Integration:** Sensory-motor development involves the integration of sensory information with motor responses. This integration is crucial for adaptive behaviours, enabling individuals to respond appropriately to stimuli in their environment.

Cognitive Development:

1. **Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development:** Jean Piaget proposed a theory of cognitive development with four stages – sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational. Each stage represents distinct cognitive abilities, from basic sensorimotor coordination to abstract thinking and problem-solving.
2. **Information Processing:** Cognitive development also involves information processing, including attention, memory, and problem-solving skills. As children and adolescents mature, their cognitive processes become more sophisticated, allowing for increased capacity to understand and interact with the world.

Language Development:

1. **Pre-linguistic Communication:** Language development begins with pre-linguistic communication in infancy, involving non-verbal cues such as cooing, babbling, and gestures. This lays the groundwork for the eventual acquisition of language.
2. **Language Acquisition:** Language acquisition progresses through various stages, from single-word utterances to more complex sentences. Exposure to language-rich environments, interactions with caregivers, and cognitive development contribute to the acquisition of vocabulary, grammar, and communication skills.
3. **Cultural and Social Influences:** Language development is also shaped by cultural and social influences. Children acquire language within the context of their cultural environment, learning not only the linguistic aspects but also the social nuances of communication.

Emotional Development:

1. **Infant Emotion Regulation:** Emotional development begins in infancy with the emergence of basic emotions like joy, anger, and fear. Infants gradually learn to regulate their emotions with the support of caregivers.
2. **Attachment and Bonding:** Attachment, a strong emotional bond between infants and caregivers, plays a pivotal role in emotional development. Secure attachments provide a foundation for healthy emotional regulation and interpersonal relationships.
3. **Emotional Intelligence:** Emotional development extends into childhood and adolescence, involving the development of emotional intelligence. This includes recognizing and understanding one's own emotions and those of others, as well as effectively managing and expressing emotions.

Social Development:

1. **Early Social Interactions:** Social development commences with early social interactions in infancy. Babies engage in social exchanges with caregivers, laying the groundwork for more complex social relationships.
2. **Peer Relationships:** As children grow, peer relationships become increasingly significant. Interactions with peers contribute to the development of social skills, cooperation, and the understanding of social norms.
3. **Identity and Role Development:** Social development also involves the formation of identity and the exploration of social roles. Adolescents navigate the challenges of identity formation, seeking to understand their roles in family, peer groups, and society at large.

Moral Development:

1. **Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development:** Lawrence Kohlberg proposed a theory of moral development with six stages categorized into three levels – pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional. These stages represent the progression of moral reasoning and ethical decision-making.
2. **Socialization and Moral Values:** Moral development is deeply influenced by socialization within families, communities, and cultural contexts. Individuals internalize moral values through interactions with caregivers, and peers, and exposure to societal norms.
3. **Empathy and Altruism:** As part of moral development, individuals develop empathy and altruism – the ability to understand and share others' feelings and engage in selfless acts for the benefit of others.

Conclusion:

The journey of human development encompasses a rich interplay of sensory-motor, cognitive, language, emotional, social, and moral dimensions. These aspects are not isolated; instead, they weave together to create a comprehensive tapestry that defines the unique trajectory of each individual. Understanding these developmental processes provides valuable insights for educators, parents, caregivers, and professionals working to support and nurture the holistic growth of individuals across the lifespan. Embracing the multifaceted nature of human development fosters environments that encourage not only cognitive achievements but also emotional well-being, social competence, and ethical reasoning – essential elements for a flourishing and fulfilled life.
